

**HIRING FOR STAFF DIVERSITY:
PRACTICES OF HUMAN RESOURCE ADMINISTRATORS
IN MINORITY MAJORITY SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN TEXAS**

A Dissertation

by

DONNA ALONZO VAUGHAN

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2008

Major Subject: Educational Administration

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee,	John Hoyle
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Major Subject: Educational Administration

ABSTRACT

Hiring for Staff Diversity: Practices of Human Resource Administrators in
Minority Majority School Districts in Texas. (December 2008)

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Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. John Hoyle

The focus of this study was on hiring practices in Texas school districts of over 500 students containing ethnic minority students as the majority of the student population. It examined differences between the practices of districts with ethnic minority teachers as the majority of the teaching population as compared to districts with ethnic minority teachers as the minority of the teaching population. The study compares the role and title of human resource administrators, method of attracting a candidate pool, and if a formal statement of intent to hire a diverse staff existed.

Surveys were mailed to human resource administrators in 227 Texas school districts. The following practices have been observed at a statistically significant level: There is an administrator responsible for teacher recruitment employed 100% for human resources and that individual does not have the title "Superintendent." There is a formal statement of intent to have a diverse or reflective staff. Posting job vacancies through local newspapers and major statewide universities were the methods used by a statistically significantly higher proportion of districts with a diversified staff. Posting at the Texas Education Agency Service was used by a

statistically significant higher proportion of districts where the teacher population is less diverse and reflective of the student population. In districts where the teacher population is more diverse and reflective of the student population, there is a significantly lower proportion of districts that utilize statewide universities in recruiting and obtaining a pool of candidates to hire. The difference between the proportions of districts that utilized all other types of specific postings, including technological methods listed in this observational study, was not statistically significant.

The traditional practices of hiring teachers for our school systems must change to reflect the pluralistic society of today. The findings of this research support that leadership, as expressed by a clear mission statement with intent to hire a reflective staff and the assignment of an administrator whose sole responsibility is for human resources, can and will overcome barriers toward hiring a reflective staff.

DEDICATION

Lupe M. Alonzo, Esq.

Texas A&M University Class of 1980

1957 - 1996

Mi vida; mi corazon; mi alma.

Siempre.

For my father, Bill Gadd,

You lead by example.

Thank you for the power of your faith.

For my husband, Bill Vaughan,

You brought me back.

Thank you for the power of your love.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Albert Einstein said, "The world we have made as a result of the level of thinking we have done thus far creates problems that we cannot solve at the same levels as the level we created them at."

Thank you, Dr. Cliff Whetten, my original chair and all the amazing members of my committee for their time, mentoring and especially their patience. You have raised me to a higher level.

Dr. Luana Zellner, it's not easy to be a Californian in Texas or a Texan in California; your support and encouragement will never be forgotten.

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Dr. Ed Murguia, your Socratic Method and insightful questions resulting in reflective self-awareness have changed me and countless others forever. You are a teacher in the purist sense of the word. The difference you make is immeasurable.

And finally, Dr. John Hoyle, you are the consummate example of all that is great at Texas A&M. Those of us whose lives you have touched are better for having known the Ag who "coaches" educators. Your team is international and your cheer is better leadership for the future. Your game plan is simple, elicit the best from your players and win. Your legacy, therefore, is leaders making a difference in the world.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

In the ideal sense, education in the United States is based on the values of democracy, freedom, and equal access. Education was to be, as Horace Mann claimed, “the great equalizer.” However, our society is comprised of economic, political, and social institutions which are interdependent. The Declaration of Independence where our founders wrote “unalienable rights” for all people, and the Constitution, which originally preserved the “peculiar institution” of slavery, underscores an undeniable tension between the ideals we preach, idealism, and those we practice, pragmatism. This is especially poignant as applied to diversity and equality in today’s public school system.

Change is not easily embraced; the unknown is feared and often misunderstood. The students who are rapidly becoming the majority in our schools are not like the students many of our veteran teachers have known through the years. The color of their skin is darker; their language is frequently not English; their culture may not be one that reveres literacy or teachers; they often lack social skills that are valued in the traditional American classroom. They may experience violence, abuse, and a lack of basic needs. In short, the conditions in today’s classroom are vastly different from

The style and format for this dissertation follow that of the *Journal of Educational Research*.

what they used to be violence, abuse and a lack of basic needs. In short, the conditions in today's classroom are vastly different from what they used to be. With the implementation of the *No Child Left Behind Act* (NCLB) in 2000 and related accountability legislation, educators are now held to a higher standard that all children must learn. The NCLB statement of purpose explicitly requires schools to engage in "closing the achievement gap between subgroups of students. This is especially important when comparing the achievement gap between the subgroups that include minority and disadvantaged students with their more advantaged and/or non-minority peers. Federal legislation now mandates that educators must be persistent in efforts to close the achievement gaps, affording all students the opportunity to meet standards. Key to closing the racial achievement gap is increasing teacher effectiveness with students of color in the classroom.

In 2005, Anglos made up less than half of the Texas population and by the year 2040, Hispanics alone are projected to make up 59% of the Texas population (Murdock, 2002). While current trends show an increasing diverse population of students, the other major participants in the educational system, teachers and administrators are much less diverse. Since administrators typically are recruited from teaching force, a decline in the number of minority teachers will lead to an even smaller proportion of minority administrators in the future at a time when the concentration of minority students is increasing. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education estimates that minority teachers will represent less than 10 percent of all U.S. teachers by the year 2010 (Johnson, 1991). Traditional

efforts to meet the ever increasing need of these students have not kept up with demand (Lara-Alecio and Galloway 2006).

The concept of a multicultural classroom is a relatively new idea to the American educational system. This concept will require teachers who are sensitive to the cultural differences within the diverse student population. Today's teacher will to be aware of cultural differences, especially those that affect learning styles, attitude, behavior, and relationship with the home (Skylarz, 1993). Minority students consistently represent the greatest poverty rates and have the highest proportional number of high school dropouts (Williams & DeLacy, 1996). Students from racially and ethnically diverse backgrounds will require the support of teachers from their own subgroups. These teachers are far more likely to have an understanding of their cultural and behavioral practices. These teachers, having succeeded by the dominant cultural standard of obtaining higher education, subsequently will serve as role models for achievement and success. Martinez (1991) asserted that the lack of minority or ethnic role models in schools contributes to the underachievement of minority students. This lack of a diverse teaching staff then provides few incentives for minority and disadvantaged students to advance in a traditional school setting, adversely affecting future career opportunities for those students.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) which became the *No Child Left Behind (NCLB)* in 2001, established federal standards of Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) that are implemented by each state. Accountability required the testing of 95% of students in subgroups comprised of one hundred or more students by racial and ethnic identification, students of limited English proficiency and

students from families with limited socio economic resources (Education Commission of the State, 2006). This scrutiny on minority subgroups added incentive for districts struggling to improve the progress of their students by addressing teacher quality and exploring a reflective faculty as a means to increase scores. The role of the administrator responsible for a districts vision to meet the growing demands for improved student achievement must include developing plans for educating diverse students while struggling with teacher and principal shortages (Hoyle, Björk, Collier, & Glass, 2005).

The focus of this work was on hiring practices, formal and informal, in Texas public school districts with over 500 students containing ethnic minority students as the majority of the student population. It was a premise of this research that preference patterns, inherent in how we manage hiring practices, specifically those used to attract a candidate pool, are inadvertently creating a barrier to full participation by members from cultural backgrounds that differ from the traditional majority group. It was the intent of this researcher to examine common recruiting practices of districts with and without teaching faculties reflective of their student populations in the hope of providing a framework for guiding organizational change toward managing and valuing diversity while closing the achievement gap between racial subgroups.

In summary, public school systems are like many organizations whose diversity dynamics such as ethnocentrism, stereotyping, and cultural differences interact with a highly unbalanced power structure (on a cultural basis) to produce outcomes disadvantageous for members of out-groups. These disadvantages include affective and

achievement outcomes and follow the line of thought suggested by Roosevelt Thomas (1990). He defined diversity management as managing your work force in such a way, as to get from a heterogeneous group the same commitment, productivity, quality, and gain that you got from the original homogenous group. Furthermore, unless one believes that the most talented leaders all belong to one culture group; the ability to be successful should be viewed as a total quality issue and one of immeasurable importance in a pluralistic society.

Statement of the Problem

Administrators and teachers are crucial to protecting all learners as individuals and must ensure that learning occurs consistently in an environment protected with a commitment to equity and equality has promised in the United States Constitution. It is imperative for district leaders to establish the vision necessary to accomplish this task. According to the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) the professional standards for the superintendency include: Standard 4- Leadership and Organizational Management, which requires an administrator be able to delegate effectively, implement appropriate management techniques, utilize group processes, make appropriate assignments and put accountability practices in place for attaining goals (Hoyle et al., 2005).

The changing demographics from a majority White or Anglo society, to a predominantly minority “people of color” is drastically altering the multi-cultural challenges to be faced by 21st century school systems (Cortes, 1999). Schools inevitably reflect society but most American educators are white, and middle class.

Additionally, they are monolingual English speaking, and have had little or no experience with cultural, ethnic, or non-English speakers (Neito, 1996). Thus the situation constitutes a serious concern particularly for English Language Learners when they have no role models, have no like mentors, have no supervisors of similar ethnicities, and face a multicultural workplace in their future (Lara-Alecio, 2002).

Increasing the percentage of minority teachers in predominately minority schools is significant for its attitudinal impact on students. The relationship between the percentage of minority teachers and minority student performance therefore, cannot and should not be discounted. Teachers of color provide students of color with invaluable role models and examples of successful, respected adults. It is equally significant that as minority teacher employment increases, the over representation and the under representation of students of color in traditional categories of remedial, academic and disciplinary programs comes closer to their overall percentage in the entire school population (Farrell, 1990; Lara-Alecio, 2002, 2006; Lomotey, 1989).

Schools are bureaucratic institutions that respond to and reflect the larger society. Institutional bias is a natural consequence of institutions shaped primarily by Western European white men (Cox, 1994). It is a natural human instinct to prefer the familiar, also known as the “just like me” phenomenon. While most teachers or educators in general believe themselves to be objective, there is contradictory evidence to indicate that many decisions are strongly influenced by the degree to which the person making the decisions believes the job candidate as being like themselves (Arnold & Feldman, 1986). Ultimately, school district must address hiring practices by developing and

implementing policies and strategic plans aimed at addressing the needs of the growing minority student population (Hoyle, 1993; Hoyle et al., 2005; Lara, 2006).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine teacher recruiting and hiring practices of Texas public school districts with ethnic minority students as the majority of the student population as reported on the 1999-2000 Texas Assessment of Academic Skills. It sought to find differences between the practices of districts with ethnic minority teachers as the majority of the teaching population—as compared to districts with ethnic minority teachers as the minority of the teaching population. It also sought to determine if traditional recruiting and hiring practices are a primary impediment to hiring a teaching staff that is reflective of the student population.

This study provides information and direction for districts attempting to hire a more diverse or reflective teaching faculty and subsequently begin to close the achievement gap between racial subgroups as evidenced by mandated tests such as those prescribed by the *No Child Left Behind Act*. Additionally, the data collected and analyzed will assist districts seeking to implement a diversity based hiring practice to change their existing policies and formulate a new strategy by providing a framework for guiding organizational change through visionary leadership.

Furthermore, the consequences for major ethnic minority and English language learner subgroups not achieving adequate yearly progress intensifies school districts' need to address these groups specifically. Inclusion and diversity correspond to tolerance, which as a fundamental element of the American ideal is desperately

needed more today in our education system, and indeed the world, than subsequent time in our nation's history.

Research Questions

The following questions were posed.

1. Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a designated administrator responsible for human resource decisions?
2. Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a formal statement (other than federal guidelines) of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff?
3. Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts in the procedures used for recruiting practices, as evidenced by specific posting practices?

Operational Definitions

The following definitions were applied to this study.

Adverse Impact (Four-fifth rule)—When minority hiring rate is less than 80% of non-minority hiring rate.

Affirmative Action—The explicit use of a person's group identity as a criterion in making selection decisions.

African American—United States citizens of African descent and identifying themselves as Black, used here with uppercase B as a proper noun to refer to a specific racial group.

Bias—A preference for a particular thing, person, style, and so on compared to other possible things, persons, or styles.

Bureaucracy Model—Formal demands and obligations set by the organization that is combined into positions and offices in the organization.

Civil Rights Act—Congressional act which specifically deals with employment nondiscrimination.

Classism—Discrimination based on socioeconomic class or caste.

Commitment—A willingness to persevere through a difficult process.

Cultural Capital—Distinctive and often implicit, cultural practices developed by a status group in society to deploy the cultural and economic resources available to them.

Cultural Relevance—Ability to relate and empathize with members of a particular culture based on life experiences.

Decentralization—Distributing the administrative functions of central authority (superintendent) to provide specialized departments such as human resources and/or business services.

Discrimination—Any practice carried out by dominant group members that have a negative impact on members of the non-dominant or subordinate group.

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission—The federal commission charged with implementing and enforcing the Civil Rights Act and the Equal Employment Opportunity Act.

Equal Employment Opportunity Act or (Title VII)—A part of the Civil Rights Act whose provisions concern nondiscriminatory employment hiring practices.

Ethnocentrism—A proclivity for viewing members of one's own group (in-group) as superior to other social groups (out-groups) based on ethnic differences.

Gatekeeper—The administrator with control over the procedures through which policy is implemented.

Glass-ceiling Effect—Barriers causing the under-representation of minorities in an organization with predominantly white, male power structures.

Good Old Boy Network—Colloquialism referring to personal contacts and preferential treatment by and for members of the white, male, dominate, power group.

Hispanic—Term used by the United States government in their data collection to categorize people of Mexican and Latin American descent. This is used to express a common cultural heritage but does not reflect a race of people.

Hire—To enter into a formal contract of employment.

Human Resources—The department or persons specifically charged with all aspects of personnel recruiting and hiring.

Idealism—The attitude that places significant value on ideas as opposed to perceiving and interpreting the environment through the senses.

Inherent Policies—Any policy that is continued by habit as opposed to having a specified and relevant purpose.

Institutional Racism—An institutional practice, attitude or action that is supported by the power of the institution which then subjugates people because of their race.

Just Like Me Phenomenon—Favor given to an individual based on the extent to which they are perceived to be like those giving preference.

Linguicism—Discrimination based on language or accent.

Minorities—In the United States, people of non-European ancestry, also known as people of color.

Minority Student—Any member of the ethnic/racial subgroups, other than white, enrolled in a public school setting, grades K-12.

North America Free Trade Agreement—The trade agreement between Canada, the United States and Mexico to promote economic growth, primarily agriculture import and export without the usual taxation and restrictions.

No Child Left Behind Act—Formally the Elementary and Secondary Education Act that established federal standards of accountability for adequate yearly progress of all student subgroups.

Networking—Informal use of personal contacts to further a business connection.

Prejudice—Attitudes, opinions, or impressions determined without adequate forethought, knowledge, or tangible reason.

Pragmatism—The method or philosophy in which the truth of a proposition is measured by practical outcome.

Proficient—Scoring at or above the 60th percent level on state standardized tests in language arts and/or mathematics.

Racism—Racial prejudice supported by institutional power, used to the advantage to the advantage of one race and to the disadvantage of the other races.

Recruiting—To seek out for possible candidates for employment

Role Model—Individual who is admired and copied.

Screening—To select by a criteria, candidates for employment consideration.

Segregation—The policy or practice of isolating a group based on a particular intrinsic characteristic.

Sexism—Discrimination based on gender.

Stereotyping—The perceptual and cognitive process in which specific behavioral traits are ascribed to individuals on the basis of their apparent membership in a specific group.

Self-fulfilling Prophecy—Also known as the “Pygmalion Effect”; these terms refer to a sequence of events in which expectations of a result induce behavior that increases the likelihood of the result occurring.

Time on Task—Amount of time devoted specifically to accomplishing a specific goal.

White—A North American person of European descent. White with an uppercase W is a proper noun to refer to a specific group also known as Anglo.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in this study.

- The administrators surveyed will honestly and objectively respond to the questions posed on the survey instrument.

- The interpretations of the data collected would accurately reflect that which was intended by those surveyed.
- Traditional practices used by districts are the primary impediment to hiring minority or reflective teachers.
- Districts with formal statements of intent to hire diverse or reflective staffs will employ a higher percentage of minority or reflective teachers on staff.
- Districts with a designated administrator for human resources will employ a higher percentage of minority or reflective teachers on staff.
- Districts that utilize outcome based hiring practices aimed at minority recruitment will employ a higher percentage of minority or reflective teachers on staff.
- Districts that employ technology to expand their pool of candidates will employ a higher percentage of minority or reflective teachers on staff.
- Geography will be a factor by locality (urban as opposed to rural) as well as proximity to the Mexican border.

Limitations

The following limitations of this study were recognized:

- This study measured only the perceptions of a sample of administrators of Texas public school districts with less than a 50% White student population and a total student population of more than 500.

- There was a disproportional Texas-Mexico border, Interstate 35 corridor, and urban representation of qualified districts; therefore, geography will not be considered as a significant variable.
- The generalizability of this study was limited to public school districts with over 500 students in the state of Texas with ethnic minority students as the majority of the student population.
- The population for this study was Texas public school districts with ethnic minority student populations as the majority of the student population and total student populations over 500 as reported in the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills Snapshot Profiles.

Significance of the Study

Nehru of India once said, “Life is like a game of cards. The hand that is dealt you is determinism; the way you play it is free will.” The decision to embrace diversity is an extension of free will and complicity does not have to be predetermined by race or ethnicity. Public school systems are like most bureaucratic institutions whose diversity dynamics such as ethnocentrism, stereotyping, and cultural differences interact with a highly unbalanced power structure to produce outcomes disadvantageous for members of out-groups. It is up to individual school districts to exercise their free will by increasing their awareness of and actively seeking an absence of institutionalized cultural bias in human resource management systems and practices.

The role of the traditional school system must change to reflect the pluralistic society in which we are now living. The need to hire and retain qualified minority

school teachers has taken on a heightened sense of urgency (Banks, 1995; Lara-Alecio, 2006). As the demographics of Texas changes, so must Texas schools. If we can learn from those who have broken through the “glass ceiling” then we should do so with great speed.

The relationship between a reflective and/or diverse teacher population and minority student performance shows a correlative benefit. It is well documented that minority students are over represented in remedial programs, including special education and non-college track vocational programs. Minority students are also over represented in the number of students who repeat grades, are given disciplinary referrals, suspensions, and expulsions. Conversely, minority students are under represented in academic or college tracks and in gifted and talented programs (Bates, 1990; Lara-Alecio, 2002; Lomotey, 1989; Murphy & Hallinger, 1989). It is critical to note that as the percentage of minority or reflective teachers increases, the over representation and under representation of minority students in those programs have been found to decrease. Further, as there are more minority or reflective teachers, at a site the representation of minority students in all programs and categories begins to be closer to approximate their percentage in the entire school population. It is theorized that this is due to the reflective teachers’ empathy with like student needs and concerns (Farrell, 1990; Lara-Alecio, 2002, Lara-Alecio and Galloway, 2006; Lomotey, 1989; Pine & Hilliard, 1990).

There does not have to be any malicious intent in order to make decisions that adversely affect others who do not mirror the decision maker. The point therefore, is that hiring practices *per se*, rather than individual prejudice or attitudes can be a

barrier to diversity based hiring. Conversely, a leadership style that is visionary and includes a strategic mission statement and policies for implementation will effectively negate those barriers (Hoyle, 1995; Hoyle et al., 2005). Part of the significance of this study is to heighten the awareness of those people most able to implement positive change in human resource policy and affect a teaching faculty more reflective of its student population while contributing to the closing of the achievement gap between racial subgroups.

Contents of the Dissertation

The record of study is divided into five major units or chapters. An introduction, a problem statement, a need for the study, specific objectives, assumptions and limitations, and a definition of applicable terms are contained in Chapter I. Chapter II is the review of literature as broken into six sections of relevance: (1) Texas and National demographics and projections; (2) gate keepers or the administrators responsible for human resource decisions; (3) legislative precedence and legal history; (4) methods of attracting a pool of candidates; (5) educational leadership for social justice; and (6) the link between diversity goals and diversity actualization. Chapter III is the methodology and procedures followed for identification of the study population, data collection, and data analysis. Chapter IV is the analysis of the data and comparisons of the data collected in the study. Chapter V is the researcher's summary, conclusions, and implications for future implementation and research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature consists of six major sections: (1) Texas and National demographics and projections; (2) “gate keepers,” the administrators responsible for human resource decisions; (3) legislative precedence and legal history; (4) methods of attracting a pool of candidates; (5) educational leadership for social justice; and (6) the link between diversity goals and diversity actualization, why there is a need for reflective teaching staffs.

Demographics

During the last two decades, the nation’s demographics have undergone a great transformation. Over eight million legal and illegal immigrants have arrived in the United States. This dramatic increase also brings over two million students into our public school system. These new arrivals have changed the American schools from the typical biracial to multiracial; this also made them multicultural as well as multilingual institutions (Ogle, Alsalam, & Rogers, 1991). The fastest growing population in the United States is identified as Hispanic and they have also become the largest minority group according to both the 1990 and 2000 United States Bureau of the Census. Hispanic is also the fastest growing ethnic faction in the public schools (Fullerton, 1991; Murdock, 2002). In the state of Texas, this is already the case for the 3.95 million of Texas public school students. Minority ethnic groups comprise 55.9% of all Texas public school students. A minority student is a member

of the African American, Hispanic, Native American, or Asian/Pacific Islander ethnic group. The Hispanic student population, 58.6% of all of these students, comprising the largest minority student group within the state. African American students represented approximately 14% and the combined percentages of other minority students are a mere 3% (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2000). The number of Hispanic and African American teachers does not come close to reflecting this trend. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) has predicted that minority teachers will comprise less than 10% of the total United States teacher workforce by the year 2010 (Johnson, 1991). In Texas, 75% of the teaching workforce is White (TEA, 2000).

Data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (2003), showed that the number of minority teachers or teachers of color nationwide, is in no way representative of the number of minority students or students of color. In the 2001-02 school year, the data showed that 60% of public school students were White, 17% were Black, 17% Hispanic, 4% Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1% American Indian/Alaska Native. Compare that with the teacher demographic data which shows that 90% of public school teachers were White, 6% Black, and fewer than 5% of other races. Additionally, 40% of schools had no minority or teachers of color employed at all. The Center found the following national trends.

- The percentage of minority or teachers of color does not begin to approximate the numbers of minority or students of color in any state with a statistically relevant diverse population. The only exceptions were Hawaii and the District of Columbia.

- Consistent across all states was that the larger the numbers of minority or students of color then the greater the disparity when compared with the numbers of minority or teachers of color.
- Large urban school districts have the closest proportional representation in the ratio between minority students and minority teachers. An exception are American Indians/Alaska Natives, because these schools are not located in urban areas but in small towns or other rural areas.
- Most minority or teachers of color are employed in schools that have 30% or greater minority or students of color.
- Minority or teachers of color are more likely to teach in schools that have great numbers of minority students from their particular ethnic group.
- Minority or teachers of color are more likely to be employed in states and/or regions of the United States with the greatest numbers of their own ethnic group. Therefore, the greatest numbers of Black teachers are found in the Southeast. The greatest numbers of Hispanic teachers can be found in the Southwest. Finally, the greatest numbers of Asian American teachers are found in the West. Similar data regarding attendance at colleges, universities and in particular schools of education also follow this pattern.
- Minority or teachers of color to a great extent tend to be geographically isolated from other minority or teachers of color as well as from their White counterparts. This held true for both teacher education programs and when these teachers are later employed.

- Minority or teachers of color are about equally represented in elementary and secondary schools.

While the label Hispanic is by U.S. government definition, used to categorize people of Mexican and Latin American descent, Hispanic Americans actually trace their roots to a variety of the indigenous people of the Americas. These indigenous groups included the Arawaks of Puerto Rico, the Aztecs of Mexico, the Incas of South America, and the Tainos of Cuba. Other people claiming Hispanic descent trace their heritage back to the Spanish explorers. The United States Census classifies Hispanic according to the region of the world that individual or their ancestors came from. These regions include the Iberian Peninsula in Europe, Mexico, Puerto Rico, Cuba, or the nations of Central or South America. The natural river boundary of the Rio Grande/Rio Bravo between the United States and Mexico contributes to the blending of cultures and accounts for the increased migration from Mexico and Central America. Hispanics accounted for the highest migration rate than that of any other ethnic group between 1990 and 2000, with an average of over 15.1 legal and illegal immigrants for every 1,000 Hispanic persons per year. This is contrasted by 3.1 immigrants for all other persons per year (United States Census Bureau, 2000).

Texas, because of its geographical proximity to Mexico, has one of the highest concentrations of Hispanics in the United States. They make up over 32% of the states population. Growth statistics compiled by the Texas Comptroller of Public Accounts, the United States Census Bureau and the Texas State Data Center, predict that by the year 2040, over 59.2% of the population in Texas will be Hispanic (Murdock, 2002). Seventy-eight percent of Texas cities witnessed an increase in

population, most notably the Texas-Mexico border region, the Houston area and the central corridor that stretches between Dallas and San Antonio along Interstate Highway 35, which saw the highest population growth in the state (Murdock, 2002). “For the first time in history, the largest ethnic group in the urban centers of Houston and Dallas is Hispanics,” Murdock said (pp. 27-28).

By 2030, Hispanic students will make up a projected 53.4% of Texas’ elementary and secondary schools but only 38.7% of college enrollment (Murdock, 2002). This discrepancy in higher education percentages translates to less possibility of Hispanics choosing education as a career choice further compounding the lack of an available hiring pool of minority candidates.

As the Hispanic percentage of the school age population, as well as the population of the United States grows overall, there will be increased scrutiny and pressure to narrow the academic performance gap between student subgroups. Less than 20% of Hispanic students score at the proficient level or above on a national standards reading test. This is far below their White and Asian peer groups and slightly less than their Black peers. Further, Hispanic children are far less likely to attend preschool and more likely to drop out of high school than their counterparts (Johnson, 2000). Additionally, graduation rates for Hispanic students are much lower than for Asians, Whites or Blacks. In 2000 a comparison of subgroups age of 25 and over showed only one out of two Hispanics (57%) graduated from high school and even fewer, 10.6% had graduated from college. By contrast, over seven out of eight (88.4%) Whites and almost three out of four (79%) had completed high school in the same age subgroup. Finally, 28.1% of Whites and 17% of Blacks had completed

college, a much higher rate than for Hispanics (United States Census Bureau, 2000). In addition, the drop out rate for 16- to 24-year old Hispanics born outside the United States was 44%. The dropout rate was only 7.2% for non-Hispanics; this is according to a 1999 report from the National Center for Educational Statistics (Johnson, 2000). The report further contends the dropout rate is high because many of these Hispanic immigrants arrive older than typical high school age, they often emigrate for the sole purpose of working, or they are held back by language barriers.

During the decade of the nineties the United States saw an average of more than 1.3 million immigrants, legal and illegal, arriving each year. Contrast that figure with the increase between January 2000 and March 2002 alone where there were 3.3 million additional immigrants that arrived in only a two year period. The U.S. Census Bureau predicted that in under than 50 years, immigration alone will result in the population of the United States increasing from the current 288 million to more than 400 million. Additionally, the foreign born population of the United States is approximately 33.1 million or equal to 11.5 % of the entire United States population. From this total, the estimation by the United States Census Bureau is that 8-9 million immigrants are considered illegal or undocumented immigrants. While many believe the actual number of undocumented immigrants is much higher, approximately 1 million people receive permanent residency each year. The United States Census Bureau also estimated a total increase of over half a million illegal immigrants each year for the past 10 years. Since the seventies, more than 30 million legal and illegal immigrants have come to reside in the United States. This number represents more than a third of all people ever to come to the United States of America. If you take

the estimated 1.5 million legal and illegal migrants and combine it with the approximately 750,000 annual births to immigrant women then you have the determinate factors behind the over three-fourths increase in all of the United States population growth (United States Census Bureau, 2000).

The current immigration pattern shows a significant decline in the country of original origin. Mexico combined with Spanish speaking Latin America are the country, and region of origin, that dominate immigration at the present time for both legal and illegal immigrants. In the nineties immigrants from Mexico accounted for 22% of all the foreign born in the United States. By the year 2000, Mexican immigrants accounted for more than 30% of the total foreign born population. Nation wide, Mexico by itself represented 43% of the growth in the foreign born population between 1990 and 2000. In Texas that number is even greater. Mexican immigrants increased from 59 to 65% of the total Texas foreign born population (Murdock, 2002). Additionally, in the 90s, immigrants from Spanish-speaking Latin America accounted for more than 60% of the growth in the foreign-born population in the United States. By the year 2000, there were 33 states and including the District of Columbia, in which immigrants from Spanish-speaking Latin American countries made up the largest group of foreign born immigrants (United States Census Bureau, Center for Immigration Studies, 2000). Numerous studies have documented the growing segment of our population who are immigrants or refugees. Twenty percent of all the children in the United States are either an immigrant or has a parent who is an immigrant (Ruiz de Velasco & Fix, 2000). The current estimate is that 26.3 million immigrants now live in the United States. This is the largest number recorded

in the nation's history and a 33% increase over the 90s (Camarota, 1999). With these immigrants come promise and hope as well as an increase in students who are English Language Learners and as such constitute an ever increasing demographic subgroup.

The number of English Language Learners (ELL) students as reported by the 2000 United States Census was over 53,000,000. Spanish was the largest language group reported as the home language of those students (National Clearinghouse of English Acquisition, 2003). Texas public schools reported 519,921 students enrolled and identified as English language learners. The Texas Education Agency (2000), reported that between 1991 and 1998, Texas public schools experienced an increase of 44% in the English language learner population and in particular those students who spoke Spanish as their first language.

This growth places further demands on districts to hire teachers with appropriate certification to address the academic and linguistic needs of English language learner students required to be served in a bilingual education program (TEA, 2000). In a study conducted by education researchers at Texas A&M University in the 2001-02 school year, it was determined that the greatest shortage in the bilingual or English as a Second Language (ESL) academic area occurred at the elementary level. This study also found a significant shortfall at the secondary level, as school districts were unable to fill 40% of open bilingual or ESL positions (Lara-Alecio, 2002). Further, according to another teacher demand study, also conducted at Texas A&M University, 2906 elementary bilingual positions went unfilled in the 2002-03 school year (Lara-Alecio & Galloway, 2006). The English language learner student

population has increased 113% in the last 10 years, and Hispanics were the largest ethnic majority (United States Census Bureau, 2000). Such changes in the demographics of the United States population particularly both coasts as well as the Southwest, contrasts sharply with the shortage of qualified teachers that have been hired to work with these students.

As the linguistic, cultural, and ethnic diversity of students across the nation and particularly in Texas, increases, the number of bilingual educators and minority or teachers of color decreases (Torres-Guzman & Goodwin, 1995) Nationally, minorities or teachers of color represent only 13.5% of the entire teacher workforce. Unfortunately, more than 30% of the student population is represented by minorities or students of color (Lenhardt, 2000). This ratio of minority students to minority teachers is expected to continue to grow even wider as fewer minorities or people of color and/or speakers of second languages choose to enter the field of education and become teachers (Torres-Guzman & Goodwin, 1995). Texas as well as the nation is experiencing a shortage of bilingual or ESL teachers as evidenced by data collected from a wide scale survey of educator preparation programs by the American Association for Employment in Education (AAEE). This report indicated a considerable shortage of teachers in bilingual or ESL education (AAEE, 2001) and this shortage was not limited to states that due to geographical proximity have historically received large influxes of immigrants; rather, AAEE found that public school districts in every region of the United States reported a shortage of bilingual or ESL teachers. The most critical shortfalls of bilingual or ESL teachers were in states that have not historically had large immigrant populations. The Urban Teacher

Collaborative research determined that bilingual as well as ESL teachers were in very high demand regardless of the region being polled (Urban Teacher Collective, 2000). Another source, the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs also noted the skewed proportions that exist between the ethnic diversity of teachers prepared to serve culturally and linguistically diverse students and the reality of current classrooms.

Organizational demography is the make up, in terms of basic attributes, to include age, gender, educational attainment, length of tenure, length of residence, race, ethnicity and linguistic ability of the social entity (in this case, Texas school districts) being researched (Pfeffer, 1983). The demographic distribution of the work force is directly connected to the patterns of opportunity that affect employment prospects and the impact of demography on opportunity is demonstrated empirically (Oppenheim 1980; Ospina 1996; Pfeffer 1983).

Demographic trends, as well as geographical proximity to Mexico, begin the process of addressing the special academic, humanistic, and socioeconomic concerns of Texas public schools and in turn, the hiring of Texas teachers to best serve the students of those schools. Additionally, Federal mandates require the testing of 95% of all students in subgroups comprised of major racial or ethnic groups, lower socioeconomic interest groups and students of limited English proficiency (Education Commission of the State, 2006). The Hispanic, Black, lower socioeconomic and English language learner student subgroups of those mandated tests will continue to increase in the years to come and without intervention, the achievement gap between them and the majority norm group will unfortunately also continue to grow.

Gatekeepers

While current trends show an increasing diverse population of students, the other major participants in the educational system, teachers and administrators are much less diverse. Since administrators typically are recruited from the teaching force, a decline in the number of minority teachers will show a corresponding decline in the proportion of minority administrators in the future. This all occurs at a time when the sheer number of minority students continues to increase. The traditional effort to meet the ever increasing needs of these minority students has not kept up with the demand for minority teachers (Lara-Alecio, 2002; Lara-Alecio & Galloway, 2006). We must, therefore, rely on administrative efforts to increase recruitment of this most precious commodity, the minority teacher. The role of the administrator responsible for a districts vision to meet the growing demands for student achievement must include plans for educating diverse students while struggling with teacher and principal shortages (Hoyle et al., 2005). Standard 4 of the AASA Professional Standards for the Superintendency requires an administrator be able to apply the appropriate management techniques that will enable them to process information, delegate effectively, use data to guide decision making and hold the appropriate parties accountable for mutually agreed upon goals (Hoyle et al., 2005). Therefore, the assignment of an administrator responsible for human resource decisions, specifically staff recruitment is imperative to good leadership.

The concept of gatekeeping was first introduced into the social sciences by Kurt Lewin (1947), in his classic studies of attitude change and behavioral conformity,

addressing the flow of information and patterns of interaction in groups and organizations. This research has further been applied to study varied social arenas, for example, professional employment (Ishida, 2002), allocation of services such as in education (Enders, 2001), and employment of immigrants (Pankake, 1999).

The gatekeeping processes can control meaning to influence, either positively or negatively the entry or access to a particular area under the gatekeeper's purview. Gatekeeping can be used for exclusion and control, or on the one hand, it can be used for inclusion and facilitation. Gatekeeping as a form of control may be used by an individual or group in a "gatekeeping" position to promote their own or their reference group interests and to exclude or hold back certain groups, some examples may include, but are not limited to nepotism, racism, cronyism, or favoritism.

School districts are organizations and organizations are political systems. Those in charge must create order among people with different interests and agendas. Politics represents one of the processes that help determine who gets what, when, and how in a legitimate manner. Power then is the ability of individuals to exercise control over these processes (Kanter, 1987). The exercise of power may be used to "alter the initial distribution of outputs, to establish an unequal distribution, or to change the outputs" (Perrow, 1986, p. 16). Kanter (1987) further asserted that "power begets power" (p. 168). Here, *power* refers to the ability to get things done, to enjoy a favorable portion of resources and opportunities to be effective in controlling others. Kanter then asserted with respect to this ability that "people who are thought to have power already and to be well placed in the hierarchies of prestige and status may also be more influential and more effective in getting the people around them to do

things” (p. 168). Perceptions of power may be reinforced with titles, size or location of their office, and other institution defined “perks” (Strober, 1982).

The three stages in the hiring process are: submission of an employment application, obtaining an interview with someone in authority, and receiving a job offer. All stages are contingent upon knowledge of the vacancy or position opening and therein the applicant pool is dependent upon the decisions of the individual given the power to recruit.

This then becomes an issue of institutional power because the individual is given the authority of the institution. Discussions of racism tend to focus on individual biases and negative perceptions of some people toward members of other groups. This perception does not account for how institutions themselves, which are much more powerful than individuals, develop harmful policies and practices that in turn harm minority groups. The major difference between individual racism and institutional racism is the welding of power. This power is controlled through the domination by the people who influence institutions, such as school districts, with oppressive policies and practices that are reinforced and legitimated (Tatum, 1992). No group monopolizes prejudice and discrimination; they occur in all directions, and even within groups. Inter-ethnic hostility, personal prejudices, and individual biases, while hurtful, do not have the long-range and life-limiting effects of institutional racism and bias (King, 1991).

Idiomatically, we must now recognize four groups of identity descriptors when assessing the individuality of a diverse population. Those groups are ethnographic descriptors such as nationality, religion, and language; demographic descriptors such

as age, gender, and place of residence; status descriptors such as social, economic, and educational background; and sexual orientation descriptors such as heterosexual, homosexual, or bisexual (Hopkins, 1997).

The term *gatekeeper* refers to the overseers, or decision makers of a policy who set the standards and values of the policy, and has control over the procedures through which the policy is implemented (Nacoste & Lehman, 1992). The gatekeepers of diversity, based on hiring programs could be either managerial decision makers (Human Resource Administrators/Superintendents) or officials (school boards). Studies of gatekeepers' perceptions of the need for, and the impact of diversity-based hiring programs concentrated on the perceptions of the decision makers in terms of the need for the program and the effectiveness of the program (Witt, 1990). Cook (1987) argued that one of the fundamental reasons for the lower hiring rate of minorities is the small number of employers actually in the pursuit of employment equity.

Most of the research of gatekeeper influence on minority hiring practices focuses on the gatekeeper as a deterrent to hiring minority candidates, as either a reaction opposing a diversity policy or a method of undermining an implicit goal. Other studies concentrated on the perceptions of the decision makers in terms of their desire for the program or policy and the effectiveness of the program or policy (Witt, 1990). Ayers (2001) concluded that the commitment of the gatekeepers is one of the most essential elements of an effective diversity based program. Commitment in that study was defined as "a willingness to preserve through a difficult process" (p. 236).

It has also been argued that the more minority decision makers in an organization, the higher the organization's minority hiring rate are likely to be (Yoder, 1989). These studies did not take into consideration the ethnicity of the gatekeeper but rather the race or ethnicity of the collective group of decision makers.

Because a premise of this study is that inherent not overt actions or policies hinder minority hiring, the focus on the gatekeeper is more a "time on task" issue than a commitment to cause issue. The decentralization of the superintendency to include a specialized position devoted to Human Resource management including but not limited to recruiting, screening, hiring, and complying with Equal Opportunity Employment practices (Office of Equal Employment Opportunities Commission, 2000) will inherently lead to rectifying and/or avoiding practices that have a discriminatory, disparate effect on minority candidates.

No two organizations approach hiring in the same way. In most organizations, diversity hiring programs have been the responsibility of human resource staff and evolved from affirmative action programs. In some organizations, continuous quality improvement as well as customer service initiatives demand that they address the challenges of diversity. In either case, as outlined by Cox (1994) there are stages of diversity development toward a reflective workforce if diversity is the goal. First, recruit from targeted, underrepresented groups in the workforce. Support and maintain their advancement (Beginning Teacher Support and Assistance, BTSA). Second, understand and value the contributions of people of difference. Third, develop an understanding of managing diversity to establish competitive advantage

(test score improvement). Finally, eliminate barriers to performance based on superficial differences and establish high standards.

Gatekeepers do not have to have malicious intent to make decisions that unfairly harm others and be a barrier to diversity based hiring. A leadership that is visionary and includes a strategic mission statement and policies for implementation will effectively negate those barriers (Hoyle, 1995; Hoyle et al., 2005).

Legislative and Legal History

Law has mandated certain aspects of managing diversity. Even as the nation celebrates over 50 years since the historic 1954 decision of *Brown v. Board of Education*, nearly one-third of urban public school board members surveyed thought that desegregation had become immaterial in their school districts because their enrollment had become so overwhelmingly minority (Council of Urban Boards of Education, 1995). The *Civil Rights Act* of 1964 and the *Americans with Disabilities Act* of 1990 collectively outlaw discrimination on the basis of sex, color, race, religion, pregnancy, national origin, age, or physical ability. In addition to the laws protecting members of workplace minority groups against discrimination, *Executive Order 11246* required that U.S. businesses wishing to serve as government contractors take steps to ensure that past discrimination is remedied and that discrimination does not occur in the future (Werther & Davis, 1993). In 1985, the United States Supreme Court unanimously held that persons might be guilty of discrimination even when there is no *invidious animus*, but instead there may be a discriminatory effect caused by thoughtlessness or indifference as the result of benign neglect (*Alexander*

v. Choate, 469. U.S. 287 at 295). The Court held that discrimination would be difficult and perhaps impossible to prevent if intentional discrimination alone qualified as discrimination.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is the federal government agency directly responsible for the implementation and enforcement of the *Civil Rights Act* and Title VII, the *Equal Opportunity Act*. To assist employers in implementing the requirements of these nondiscrimination legislations, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission then issued the *Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures*. These are strictly guidelines and are not law but are used in deliberations to determine the fairness of an employer's selection procedures. The Guidelines have clearly defined several key terms in the hiring practices:

Discrimination (Section 3 A) is defined in terms of the presence of adverse impact;

Adverse Impact (Section 4 D) is said to be present when the minority-hiring rate is less than 80 percent of the non-minority hiring rate. This is known as the "four-fifth rule";

Unfairness of a selection procedure, (Section 14 B-8a) a selection procedure is unfair when it results in lower scores for minority members, and yet such score differences are not reflected in the differences in job performance. The appendix (Section 17) of the Guidelines is expressly about affirmative action policies. This section specifies the circumstances under which employers should initiate voluntary affirmative actions in selection procedures. These actions "in design and execution may be race, color, sex, or ethnic conscious" (Equal Employment Opportunities

Commission, 1978).

The United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission has a Congressional mandate to enforce Title VII, of the *Civil Rights Act* of 1964. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's definition of systemic discrimination, derived from court decisions, is incorporated in the handbook *Proving Discrimination*, prepared by the Office of Civil Rights Compliance, Investigation Division (1971) from which the pertinent passages are cited here. "Discrimination is caused in two ways. The more important of these is known as systemic discrimination. This means that the denial of equal opportunity is the inevitable consequence of some business practice, and does not involve or require any specific action against those discriminated against. The hallmark of systemic discrimination is that it involves the use of apparently neutral criteria, which are in most cases applied to all classes alike (in some cases the system is both inherently discriminatory and discriminatorily administered), which results in the denial of equal opportunity. The identification of these apparently neutral criteria is the touchstone of an investigation of a case involving systemic discrimination" (pp. 1159-1160).

In addition to the legal guidelines for protection of minority employment, there has been an effort in the last 25 years to extend this guarantee of minority protection, to include equal educational opportunities, for all students in the United States. To that end, the federal government created laws and judicial rulings that seek to protect the rights of minority students, based on national origin, and their first or home language is a language other than English or they have limited proficiency in English. A significant body of both federal and state legislation seeks to define the

public school districts' responsibilities with respect to minority students. While the scope as well as the interpretation of these laws may vary according to each circumstance, the legal intent of the public schools' responsibilities is solidly established and enforceable.

Some of the more crucial legislation establishing the rights of minority students has been set forth in the following:

The Constitution of the United States, Fourteenth Amendment (1868) "... No state shall ... deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

The Civil Rights Act, Title VII (1964) "... No person in the United States shall, on the grounds of race, color or national origin ... be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving federally financial assistance." *The Equal Educational Opportunities Act* (1974)—this act makes educational institutions responsible for taking the necessary steps to overcome linguistic and/or cultural barriers that keep students from equal participation in instructional programs. "No state shall deny an equal educational opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin, by ... the failure of an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs...."

In addition to the above federal laws, the following court rulings help to expand and ensure the rights of minority students.

- *Lau v. Nichols* (1974)—The United States Supreme Court decided that equality of educational opportunities for students who do not understand English requires that they not only have access to “the same facilities, textbooks, teachers and curriculum ...” but also requires that they have access to learning the English language. Regardless of other factors, the Supreme Court found that “... students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education” when their opportunities to learn are limited to exposure to instruction in a language they do not understand.
- *Plyer v. Doe* (1982)—The Supreme Court decided that “all children residing in the United States have the right to a free public education without regard to their or their parent’s legal status as immigrants.” Further, the Supreme Court also decided that “school systems are not agents for enforcing immigration law and therefore are forbidden to make public any information about the legal status of their students, or to inform other agencies about such status.”
- *Serna v. Portales* (New Mexico, 1978)—The Court found “undisputed evidence that Spanish surnamed students do not reach the achievement levels attained by their Anglo counterparts,” but also found that Spanish surnamed students had higher truancy and dropout rates than the Anglo students. As a remedy, the Court ordered Portales Municipal Schools to design and implement programs of bilingual and bicultural instruction; to revise testing procedures to assess language minority students’ achievement; and to recruit and hire bilingual school personnel.

- *Castaneda v. Pickard* (Texas, 1981)—This ruling provides the criteria for determining a school’s degree of compliance with the Equal Educational Opportunity Act of 1974. Parents of Mexican American children charged the Raymondville Independent School District, with instructional practices that violated their children’s rights. Those practices included “ability tracking” of students on the basis of discriminatory criteria that caused the segregation of Hispanic students; discrimination against Mexican Americans in the recruitment and hiring of school personnel; and failing to develop bilingual programs that facilitated learning by language minority students. The Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals went on to formulate the following test to determine EEOA compliance:

--Theory: The school must pursue a program based on an educational theory recognized as sound or, at least, as a legitimate experimental strategy;

--Practice: The school must actually implement the program with instructional practices, resources, and personnel necessary to transfer theory into reality;

--Results: The school must not persist in a program that fails to produce results. This ruling whose jurisdiction is in Texas, Louisiana, and Mississippi has been applied in a number of different states and other judicial circuits.

Finally, as insinuated by the urban school board members aforementioned, there has been a shifting in attitudes against Affirmative Action and minority rights. The

Hopwood Decision, where the 5th Circuit Court of Appeals ruled that any consideration of race, even as one factor among many, is unconstitutional, effectively ending all Affirmative Action programs involving race and ethnicity in admissions to public universities in Texas; and the California Civil Rights Initiatives: Proposition 187, which denies undocumented aliens access to public services; Proposition 209, which eliminates Affirmative Action; and Proposition 187, which prohibits bilingual education without parental waiver in public school; are prime examples of discrimination being invisible to many who discriminate. This trend dampens the spirit of those who believe, like Martin Luther King, Jr., who observed that the next phase of the civil rights struggle must be to secure the investments in genuine social and economic opportunity for which the laws securing formal civil rights are only a foundation (Edley, 1996).

The *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* (ESEA) of 2000 renamed *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB) in 2001, established standards of Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) that are implemented in every local school district in all 50 states with a goal of complete proficiency by the year 2014. This act created strong standards in each state for reading and mathematics. Student progress and achievement are measured annually in grades 3 – 8 and once more in high school. Schools must administer these tests to a minimum of 95% of their students by subgroups comprised of major racial/ethnic groups, disabilities, low socio economics and limited English proficiency. The law further required states and school districts to give parents easy to read, detailed report cards on schools and districts, telling them which schools are succeeding overall and by subgroup.

Schools that do not meet state standards for two years in a row are identified as in “program improvement.” Parents must be offered the choice of sending their child to another public school in the district that is not in program improvement, as well as provide transportation to that school. Schools’ that do not meet state standards for three years must offer free “supplemental services” to eligible students. Further sanctions are imposed if schools fail to make the required annual growth which may culminate in the take over of a school or district by the State Department of Education. The goal of this legislation is to improve the academic performance of all students, while simultaneously closing achievement gaps that persist between students from different ethnic groups and economic backgrounds. Unfortunately, little attention has been paid to cultural competence and teacher diversity, critical factors in improving the performance of students of color.

Methods of Attracting a Pool of Candidates

Teacher recruitment and teacher retention are two separate but integral pieces of the overall education labor market. From the perspective of the public school districts that seek to hire teachers, their specific recruitment and retention policies have a direct and lasting impact on their ability to fill any and all open teaching positions. These collective policies in conjunction with current labor market conditions will therefore dictate the hiring environment.

As part of the United States civil rights legislation, equal opportunity in employment hiring is intended to deter any form of discrimination in the hiring process. In general, equal opportunity in hiring means to provide all potential job

candidates an equal chance to be considered for the job. Specifically, an organization is expected to do the following in its recruiting and selection process.

1. In the recruiting phase, advertise the vacant position widely so that all potential candidates are made aware of the employment opportunity.
2. In the selection phase, apply the same job relevant criteria consistently in evaluating each and every job candidate.
3. In drawing up the contract, ensure equal pay and equal benefits for all employees in jobs of equal worth (Seligman, 1973).

Minority recruitment goals are easier to set than to achieve. In the past decade, several recruitment strategies have been developed to entice more minorities into teaching. These include forgiveness loans or scholarships, mentoring programs, training in test taking, mass media advertising, and peer and professional contact with minority students while they are still in K-12 schools. All of these investments have yielded few returns according to those who have closely observed these strategies (Haberman, 1989). Although the overall number of people preparing to teach is rising, the number of minority students who choose teaching as a career is decreasing. Recent figures from a national survey of teacher education institutions (Rodman, 1998) show, for example, that in the fall of 1996 only 4.6% of teacher education candidates in the United States were black, 2.8% Hispanic, and 1.5% Asian or Pacific Islands.

We typically conceive of racism as an intentional form of exclusion, but it is also a problem arising from unintended institutional practices. Employees are frequently hired through a network that, without design, excludes women or minority groups.

For example, hiring may occur through personal connections or by word of mouth, and layoffs may be entirely controlled by a seniority system (Beachamp, 1996). The truth is many hiring decisions are not based on a strict system of merit, but on choices made because of personal preferences having everything to do with that, comfort, and convenience (Edley, 1996). As a result of our colonial history, most American institutions have been shaped by the values and experience of Western European, white, heterosexual, physically able-bodied men (Loden & Rosener, 1991). Cox (1994) listed 13 common practices and characteristics of Euro-Western organizations that potentially create unfavorable bias toward members of one or more culture identity groups. These organizational practices include the following:

1. The 50-hour plus work week and scheduling of weekend and evening meetings.
2. The emphasis on self promotion behaviors in hiring and promotion interviews.
3. The use of self evaluations/statements of accomplishments in performance appraisal processes.
4. A policy of maintaining separation of work and personal/family life.
5. The tendency toward standardization of all types.
6. The use of brainstorming as a common idea generation device.
7. The use of verbal glibness and polished English in presentations as a significant criterion in promotion, job assignments, and performance appraisal.

8. The tendency toward institutional support of monolingualism in work and educational institutions.
9. An orientation in appraisal and reward systems favoring individualism over collective action and teamwork.
10. Reliance on interviews (mostly using majority group interviewers) and informal recommendations and referrals as prime tools in hiring and promotion processes.
11. The use of a payback period as criterion in promotion decisions and retaining.
12. The tendency to define effective leadership in terms that reflect traits typical of the dominant group.
13. Physical work places that assume a fully able bodied work force.

For the purposes of this study, we will confine ourselves to those organizational practices that favor the bureaucratic model and biases inherent in the selection process. Items 7, 10, and 12 directly address bias embedded in the selection process. Singleton and Linton (2006) further delineated the difference in the monitoring of conversations between the dominant culture of the United States or White and those of the minority culture or people of color as the following: Verbal vs. Nonverbal, Impersonal vs. Personal, Intellectual vs. Emotional, and Task Oriented vs. Process Oriented. Interviewing is the most widely used and most influential selection device of organizations (Arnold & Feldman, 1986). Although interviews offer many benefits, the “similar to me” phenomenon allows that group identities such as race and ethnicity play a major role in what many managers loosely term *chemistry* and

that executives favor people who share their personal values, manner of dressing and even personal habits (Rand & Wexley, 1975).

The influential model of a compartmentalized approach to work and family described by German sociologist Max Weber (1947) is standardization. Standardization is rooted in the bureaucratic principles of division of labor, impersonality, separation of job and jobholder, and emphasis on written rules and regulations (Randolph & Blackburn, 1989). The basic meaning of standardization is making things uniform and void of deviation, thus the antithesis of diversity.

Dominant meanings assigned to equality, opportunity, and merit, as criteria for allotting social rewards have also changed over time (Oppenheim, 1980). The Puritan ideal of Aequality of the elect@ was linked to “God-given grace.” In the Revolutionary War period, the criterion for virtue changed to the more secular notion of “intellectual talent.” Such ability legitimized, in the eyes of the Constitution’s framers, the existence of a “natural aristocracy” (Bell, 1973). In the 19th century, an anti-elitist view of society related merit to “personal effort and ingenuity.” At the turn of this century, the definition switched toward a “Darwinian” concept of native intelligence as “objectively” measured by IQ and other psychometric techniques (Spring, 1985). In the late 20th century, with the advent of the post-industrial society, a new definition of merit highlights the ownership of technical skills, usually acquired through or demonstrated by the possession of higher education credentials (Collins, 1979). Americans in general were comfortable with the idea of a hierarchical society, one in which some have more than others, so long as they believe that people get to the top on their own, through fair competition. The United

States version of equality can be characterized, therefore, as a demand for equal treatment in the conditions and processes that allow people to participate in competitions, rather than as demand for equal distributions of outcomes (Ospina, 1996). The paradox is that Americans demand an equal right and opportunity to become unequal.

The intellectual roots of the current definition of merit as competence and its connection to the generalized sense of justice in our nation point towards the construct of the “rational-legal bureaucracy” defined by Max Weber’s study of organizations (Hoyle, 1995). The values underlying the bureaucratic model still provide the most cogent understanding of the way employees and employers apply the notion of “deserving” and open the door for systemic discrimination and institutional bias.

A common form of bias often disguised as “networking” is the importance of informal contacts, recommendations, and referrals as a source of job information. The “good old boy network” is important to mention as an institutional bias in that it skews the candidate pool to reflect members of the dominant group (Cox, 1994). In America the dominant culture has traditionally been patterned after those individuals of white European decent and particularly those with the greatest wealth and, therefore, power (Helms, 1990). Those individuals from culturally diverse backgrounds must learn to adapt in this dominant culture because that is the norm system they are evaluated against. Thus, the minority cultural experience including belief systems, values, ethics and how they differ from the dominant culture will affect their

outcomes and/ or integration with success or failure in the dominant culture (Drost & Yen, 2002).

Finally, organizations in which a particular culture group has been dominant since they were founded will tend to have bias ingrained in management practices that create barriers to full participation for members from diverse backgrounds (Loden & Rosener, 1991). “We have always done it that way,” is reflective of their insularity and inability to engender positive change.

Common marketing practice does not take into consideration the nuisances of hiring for diversity nor does it consider institutional bias but maintains the methods for attracting applicants should be selected using the following line of questions.

- What will be the requirements of the position?
- What will be the size of the applicant pool?
- What will be the cost of the advertising medium or mediums?

The traditional methods of attracting candidate pools often include but are not limited to:

1. Internal recruitment
2. External recruitment
3. Mainstream and alternative press
4. Internet postings
5. Recruitment agency, employment agency and/or a search firm, also known as headhunters
6. Invitation or nomination
7. Network meetings

8. Special interest groups
9. Professional associations
10. Word of mouth.

There are both advantages and disadvantages to external recruitment, the recruiting of candidates outside of the organization. The advantages include increasing the number of potential candidates and bringing in new ideas and prospective. The disadvantages are the cost and risk of the unknown (Shimp, 2003). Internal recruitment is not applicable in this research as it only creates another vacancy and will eventually necessitate external recruitment as positions are shifted within the organization or district.

Mainstream press, local, state, national newspapers and magazines target a wide range of applicants. They are familiar and easy to access. Mainstream press is expensive and may not be selective enough but it is by far the most common form of advertising to recruit candidates (Shimp, 2003). Alternative press according to Shimp, are professional publications, ethnic, and special interest publications which target a narrow audience and are typically cost effective for positions that require a specific skill set. These publications usually require a long lead time and therefore may delay the hiring timeline. Additionally, they also may not reach a broad enough pool of candidates which will result in a lower application rate.

Internet or online recruiting has become an economic and effective way to reach a large numbers of applicants. It is inexpensive if it costs at all and is far lower in price than newspaper or magazine advertizing. It can also save time by generating a quick response rate. This form of recruitment offers greater flexibility both in the

design of the advertisement and with greater control by the advertiser. Online recruiting appeals to candidates who prefer an immediate response time and are comfortable with computers in general. The disadvantages are that internet access and computer skill are needed by both the advertiser and the candidate.

Recruitment/employment agencies and search firms (headhunters) are useful for jobs that are in great demand and have the greatest competition for qualified applicants. This is where you know that there are not a lot of potential candidates and/or the qualifications are very specific. These headhunters have the advantage of a database of resumes to match to employers hiring criteria. They can also access into networks of people who may not be currently seeking a new position. The disadvantages are the expense and the granting of an organizations control over the hiring procedure to an outside agency.

Finally, while a 2005 survey of Texas superintendents believe that minority recruitment is difficult they felt recruitment in general was not. Among the numerous strategies for recruitment listed by the superintendents the following were the most frequently utilized.

1. Internet Web sites
2. Career fairs;
3. College recruitment;
4. Mainstream newspapers
5. Recruitment through professional organizations and/or conferences.

Further analysis of this survey demonstrated the following:

1. The priority to recruit increased as superintendents' perceptions of the level of difficulty of recruitment increased.
2. The priority to recruit decreased as superintendents' perception that their staff turnover rate decreased in comparison to other districts.
3. The priority to recruit increased as superintendents tended to increase their active recruitment on college campuses.
4. The priority to recruit increased as superintendents' observed the number of English language learners increasing (Lara-Alecio & Galloway, 2006).

Educational Leadership for Social Justice

Inequity in American society has become institutionalized. This is evident in the norms, theories, and practices of public institutions. Further, these norms, theories and practices often remain unexamined and unfortunately, uncorrected. Many public educators believe that injustice, in the forms of social disparity, discrimination, and bias in our schools is inevitable and unchangeable. Other educational theorists strongly believe that social justice can and will be achieved, in part, through reformed leadership (Larson & Murtadha, 2002).

School leaders who are successful in multicultural settings rise to the challenges and embrace the opportunities of educating diverse groups of students (Leithwood & Riehl, 2006). Changing communities and the increasing diversity of student populations are compelling educators to examine prevailing school practices. A review of research suggests that school administrators working effectively in schools with large diverse populations focused on the following four areas.

1. Instituting appropriate and effective forms of educating minority students including English language learners. This requires developing instructional strategies and curricula that are motivating, assessing students' progress, monitoring that progress, and adjusting district, school and classroom practices to facilitate learning.
2. Fostering the creation of professional learning communities to enhance teacher efficacy by nurturing collaboration, trust, and shared decision making about crucial school pedagogy.
3. Valuing students' social capital by recognizing students' values, preferences, and attitudes toward education as assets rather than deficits to build a school climate of trust.
4. Strengthening family cultures by nurturing trust, improving communication, adjusting school practices, and providing parents with knowledge and resources needed to help their children succeed

As many organizational experts such as Deming, Senge, and Covey have overwhelmingly demonstrated, leadership is enhanced by developing and sharing knowledge widely among all stakeholders in the organization about the goals and expected outcomes of the team. Encouraging and developing teams who collaborate effectively, are data driven to make informed decisions, and are engaged in an ongoing process to be responsive to the ever changing needs of their clients is the hallmark of leadership.

Currently, there are two models of educational leadership that most practicing educators subscribe to, instructional and transformational (Bates, 1990). The

instructional leadership model is divided into three distinct areas of practice. They are as follows:

1. Establishing the mission statement
2. Managing the program effectively
3. Promoting a positive climate for growth

In this model, the process of defining the mission statement includes developing goals collaboratively and then communicating those goals to all stakeholders in the community. The process for the management of the program can be divided into supervision, coordination, evaluation and continuous monitoring. Central to this process is the last category of an effective practice which is promoting a positive climate. This can include protecting the groups time, encouraging professional development opportunities, maintaining high visibility, and providing meaningful incentives (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005).

Transformational leadership is the other model that also encourages mission building and collaborative instructional practice. The most obvious difference between the two models involves developing the capacities of others. This includes nurturing stakeholder commitment to the mission and therefore the organization and cultivating new leaders. This cultivation of leadership then takes place in a nurturing climate of continuous learning, reflection, and growth. Thus, all transformational approaches to leadership share the fundamental goal of increasing capacity for development and gaining greater levels of personal commitment both to the organizational goals and agreement to being not just an employee but a colleague. Looked at another way, the model incorporates three general categories of practice:

1. Direction setting
2. Developing the potential in people
3. Collaboratively redesigning/transforming the organization

The similarities between the instructional and transformational leadership models include the practices of direction setting that include building a shared vision, developing goals and priorities specific to the organization, and having high expectations for performance. Developing the potential in people includes allowing a role in providing opportunities for advancement, offering support that is individualized, and modeling professional practices that are valued by the organization. The last piece of this leadership model is redesigning/transforming the organization. This section involves developing a collaborative culture. This would include putting in place norms to encourage participation in decision making and creating productive collaborative relationships. Transforming the organization would include changing and defining administrative procedures. This would help to ensure that policies and practices will work to continually improve rather than hinder organizational improvement (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005).

A third model of transformational leadership is based on the concept of a balanced leadership framework (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). This framework is predicated on the results of a meta-analysis of the 70 most rigorous studies that examine the effects of superintendent leadership on student achievement. This meta-analysis identified 21 essential leadership responsibilities of superintendents. It also identified an additional 66 associated practices. These 21 responsibilities and 66 associated practices have shown a statistically significant effect on student

achievement. These 21 essential leadership responsibilities are as follows and defined in rank order.

1. Culture: To what degree does the leader encourage a shared belief system, a feeling of community and collaboration?
2. Order: To what degree are there established routines, a standard operating procedure and clear policies set by and supported by the leader?
3. Discipline: To what degree does the leader protect others from issues and influences that would take away from their time and/or their collective focus?
4. Resources: To what degree does the leader provide resources and professional development mandatory for job success?
5. Curriculum, instruction, and assessment: To what degree does the leader become directly involved in the formation and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices?
6. Focus: To what degree are the mutually agreed upon goals clear and present?
7. Knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment: To what degree does the leader stay current and pass on state of the art practices in curriculum, instruction, and assessment?
8. Visibility: To what degree does the leader have quality contact time and worthwhile interactions with others in the organization?
9. Contingent rewards: To what degree does the leader recognize and reward individual and/or group goals and accomplishments?

10. Communication: To what degree are there clear lines of communication, both up and down the organization?
11. Outreach: To what degree is the leader an advocate for all stakeholders?
12. Input: To what degree does the leader involve all stakeholders in the construction and implementation of policies, decisions, and goals?
13. Affirmation: To what degree does the leader recognize, celebrate, and encourage individual and/or group accomplishments while also acknowledging failures?
14. Relationship: To what degree does the leader demonstrate an awareness and sensitivity of others personal circumstances?
15. Change agent: To what degree does the leader willingly and actively challenge status quo?
16. Optimizer: To what degree does the leader inspire, encourage, and lead new and challenging innovations?
17. Ideals/Beliefs: To what degree does the leader communicate and act from strong ethics, ideals, and beliefs?
18. Monitors/Evaluates: To what degree does the leader monitor the effectiveness of programs and hold those responsible accountable through evaluation?
19. Flexibility: To what degree does the leader adapt their leadership style to the situation at hand and how comfortable is the leader with disagreement and dissent?

20. Situational awareness: To what degree is the leader aware of the situations and undercurrents in the organization and then uses this information to remedy current and potential problems?
21. Intellectual stimulation: To what degree does the leader ensure that all stakeholders are aware of the most up to date theories and practices and making appropriate decisions with discussions of these innovative practices as part of the regular organizational culture?

Effective leadership is being able to balance what works and what must change. This entails keeping systems and/or programs in place that have been effective and knowing when to push for innovation. They understand the need to create learning environments that support people. They understand when to connect them with one another, and they understand how to provide the knowledge, skills, and resources necessary for success (Waters et al., 2003).

Leaders must also evaluate what levels of change they are willing to lead in order to determine what leadership practices will be effective and most appropriate. Behavioral researchers coined the terms, “first order” and “second order” to distinguish between the magnitudes of organizational change. First order change is consistent with current norms and values. It adjustments to the existing structure and is built on existing established programs. It also is implemented with existing knowledge and existing skills. Simply put, it is an extension of what has already been accomplished. Second order change on the other hand, is a deviation from the past. It is a change from the traditional way of doing things. It requires new knowledge and new skills to be introduced and incorporated.

Additionally, transformational leadership that fundamentally changes school organizations necessitates collaborative decision making with all stakeholders buying in to the process. These changes include but are not limited to the following effective leadership practices:

1. Determining direction by setting goals and developing a consensus around a shared, collaboratively agreed upon vision;
2. Assisting individual shareholders through a support network which uses modeling, supervision, and developing a collective capacity through collaborative planning with professional development that creates shared norms of practice;
3. Transforming the organization to enable ongoing learning and collaboration among staff with support for students while engaging families and the community; and
4. Systematically managing the organization by allocating resources to support the agreed upon vision (Hoyle et al., 2005).

Due to of the various and often conflicting demands for effective leadership practices leading to program improvement, leaders need to create clarity and coherence in their efforts for educational reform (Supovitz & Poglinco, 2001). This is often expressed as “vision,” but more precisely it indicates that all stakeholders understand there is a common goal. Everyone then is accountable for that common goal. Finally, policies, practices, and resources are aligned with the common goal. Effective leadership then provides the “organizational glue” that keeps the entire organization focused on that common goal (Elmore, 2000).

Effective leadership necessitates that administrators balance both mandates and empowerment. These leaders must communicate that in order to facilitate program improvement, change is not optional. It is important to have buy-in to a vision when these collaborative goals require giving up or deferring individual goals or preferences. Effective leaders cannot simply impose their will or goals. Effective leaders must create a safe working environment for all stakeholders. This will require dialogue instead of dictates to keep the focus on the agreed upon goals of the organization (Supovitz & Poglinco, 2001). Equally important, effective leaders must demonstrate the same traits that they expect in their employees. They should show openness toward new and innovative ideas. They should show a willingness to be data and results driven. Finally, they should also be persistent when confronted with adversity.

John Hoyle (2002), author of *Leadership and the Force of Love*, said, “Visionary leadership is knowing how to inspire hearts, ignite minds, and move hands to create tomorrow” (p. 29). He provided the following suggestions to create servant leadership where vision is guided love and is centered first on the welfare of individuals and second on the organization and its strategic plan.

1. Rely on a power greater than yourself to guide your vision for purposeful action. A written vision statement is the inspiration to drive an idea. It is different from a mission statement and goals. A vision statement is created and shared by members or clients within the organization to inspire future efforts. The statement should be brief, simple, and above all else, inspiring.
2. Share your innermost thoughts about the values you hold and what your employees can expect from you. Explain that you and all members of the organization will do the right things, use supportive communications, and work as teams to ensure top quality. People who are loved and trusted will try new ideas and go the extra mile for you and the organization.

3. Keep everyone informed about the entire organization, successes as well as failures. Pay attention to detail by providing good data to all employees as a sign that you believe in their abilities to solve problems when and where they find them. Empowering all employees creates more power for you and the people you develop. Vision with love has the power to motivate the organization to change to meet the future and create productive teams that prize the diverse personalities and talents of every person. (p. 27)

The financial and cultural structures of American public school districts vary widely. Each district faces their own difficulties when defining their obligation to assist all stakeholders with understanding and valuing the United States growing demographic diversity. In an attempt to capture this aspect of America's culture, Professor Henry Lewis Gates, Jr. (2007), Director of the W.E.B. DuBois Institute for Afro-American Research at Harvard University, said the following: "Ours is a society that simply won't survive without the values of tolerance, and cultural tolerance comes to nothing without cultural understanding" (p. 16).

Effective leadership teams must tackle the dilemma of providing opportunities to build understanding, in classrooms, in school districts and in communities. For true change to occur, these opportunities must focus on the mutual goal of respect for everyone regardless of their differences that can result in minority culture tension. Professor Gates (2007) further remarked, "Ours is a late twentieth century world profoundly fissured by nationality, ethnicity, race, class, and gender. And the only way to transcend these divisions... is through education leadership that seeks to comprehend the diversity of American culture" (p. 16).

Diversity Goals and Diversity Actualization

Diversity within the public school faculty and administration is a pedagogical necessity, not merely a matter of fair play in the labor market (Pine & Hillard, 1990). There is also evidence to support the idea that positive affective and achievement outcomes of individuals are influenced by dimensions of diversity such as gender, racioethnicity, and age (Cox & Harquail, 1991; Devanna, 1984; Nieto, 1996; Olson & Frieze, 1987; Reder, 1978; Strober, 1982). The often-cited glass-ceiling effect, which refers to barriers causing the under representation of women and non-whites in organizations with predominately white male power structures is ubiquitous (Cox, 1994; Jones, 1986; Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1987). Another example of research demonstrating the link between diversity and individual work outcomes is the implication of cultural differences among the cultural groups represented in an organization. Organizations may be thought of as having their own distinctive cultures, and, therefore, the degree of congruence or fit between organization and individual culture is of potential importance to various career outcomes of individuals. In empirical tests of this proposition (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Chatman, 1991) studies have shown that value congruence between employees and their firms has a significant effect on organizational commitment, employee satisfaction, likelihood to quit, and actual turnover. In light of the correlation between teacher experience, turnover rate and student achievement, this becomes paramount.

American schools are bureaucratic institutions that reflect and respond to the greater American society. It is, therefore, not surprising that racism and many forms of discrimination find their way into school systems, much in the same ways that

they find their way into other institutions. Racism and other forms of discrimination, most notably sexism, classism, ethnocentrism, and linguicism, are based on perceptions of superiority that are a part of the structure of schools, the curriculum, the education most teachers receive, and the interaction among teachers, students, and the community (Nieto, 1996).

Learning in school is not simply an individual matter; it occurs in interaction with others and cannot be separated from the social worlds that students inhabit (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 2003). Learning is a social process; constructed, negotiated, and reconstructed on an ongoing basis through their relationship with both peers and teachers. A sense of belonging and acceptance enhances participation in school and ultimately learning (Osterman, 2000).

Research (Goodenow & Grady, 1993) also indicated that academic motivation and mobility “grows out of a complex web of social and personal relationships” and that a sense of membership in the school community directly influences student “commitment to schooling and acceptance of educational values” (pp. 60-61). Membership and belonging are similar constructs. These constructs referenced the extent to which students feel individually accepted, personally respected, included, and supported in school (Goodenow & Grady, 1993).

Diversity and/or teachers of color are important both for students of color and for their Anglo counterparts. The following have been researched as to why many diverse and/or students of color may stay in school longer and may achieve greater results when they have teachers who are reflective of them.

- The Role Model Effect—Diverse and/or teachers of color provide students of color with invaluable examples of adults who have achieved respect and status within the dominant culture norms (Stewart, Meier, La Follette, & England, 1989; Villegas, 1998). Diverse and/or teachers of color provide models of success in the academic arena. Often this is in contrast to the expectation that students of color are expected to fail. Obviously, students of color are not the only students to benefit from a diverse teaching cadre. Dominant culture students also benefit and learn important lessons when their role models include diverse and/or teachers of color. Research clearly demonstrates the importance of informal mentors and role models in the lives of youth (Standon-Salazar, 2004).
- The Power of Expectations—Many educational research studies have shown the effects of teachers' expectations may predetermine how well their students learn and perform in their classroom. This is known as the self-fulfilling prophecy effect and is well documented in behavioral and psychological research (Good, 1987; Jussim & Eccles, 1992; Tauber, 1997). This self-fulfilling prophecy effect was classically analyzed in Rosenthal and Jacobson's 1968 study, *Pygmalion in the Classroom*. Participation and performance decline in these contents where students experience feelings of rejection or alienation (Osterman, 2000). Unless students identify with the school to at least a minimal extent; feel that they belong as part of the school; and believe themselves to be welcome,

respected, and valued by others there, they may begin a gradual disengagement process (Goodenow & Grady, 1993).

- Cultural Relevance/Cultural Capital—Diverse and/or teachers of color who share their student’s culture and life experiences bring much more than academics to the classroom. They have an innate understanding of those students, which they can incorporate into their teaching to the students advantage (Villegas, 1998). These diverse and/or teachers of color also serve as cultural mediators between the school system, parents, and the community at large. These teachers are much more likely to reach out, and to connect successfully, to parents with whom they share a cultural bond. This mediation function has an additional significance in communities where the majority of parents do not speak English. Teachers who speak the parent’s native language has a distinct advantage, and they can literally claim to know “where those parents and students are coming from.” This can help parents feel more comfortable and included in their children’s education, a component shown repeatedly to be an indicator of academic success (Villegas, 1998)

Cultural capital implies that each cultural subgroup in our society has developed distinctive and often implicit, cultural practices or capital. These cultural practices are the subgroups methods of acting, ways of talking, and means of employing the various cultural and financial resources available to them (Bourdieu, 1977; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977). Therefore, social class positions and the ensuing cultural capital associated with that social class

contribute to the success or failure of students in America's schools. Additionally, their social positions guide them to access different strategies in an attempt to achieve their goals. The strategies used by minority and/or parents of color may not promote success within the constraints of the dominant culture. The strategies used by non-minority parents, usually of middle to upper class income are successful because they are reflective of the dominant culture. These parental practices are representative of cultural capital and appear to give students from white, middle income families the advantage over their minority contemporaries. This is because, according to Bourdieu, American schools reinforce and reward the practices of the dominant culture, meaning white, middle and upper income classes. This systematically devalues those students and parents of the minority culture and other income classes contributing to the continuation of inequality. Teachers who have overcome this cultural capital difference and succeeded by the dominant cultures standards, are better equip to bridge this gap for others.

- **Teacher Retention**—There is a 30 to 50% attrition rate in the first five years of employment (Darling-Hammond, 1999). Educational research demonstrates that diverse and/or teachers of color are more likely than White teachers to be employed and continue teaching at urban schools. These schools are normally hard to recruit for and where teacher turnover is a significant barrier to a good education (Adams & Dial, 1993). This allegiance to these difficult schools is often attributed to “loyalty to ones own kind” (Adams & Dial, 1993).

In a four-year study of migrant students and Migrant Education Program (MET) staff, most of the staff members themselves were children of migrant farm workers (Gibson, 2005). Because of their shared experiences, the students found it easier to develop relationships with the migrant teachers than with other teachers. “They felt comfortable with them because they had grown up in similar circumstances and shared a common culture and history—they enjoyed the same food, spoke the same language, laughed at the same jokes, and cheered for the same sports teams” (p. 59). In short, the bond created by shared backgrounds provided a clear link between support and success (Gibson, 2005).

It is indeed significant then that minority teachers through shared life experiences can empathize with minority student and parent needs and concerns. It is equally significant that as minority teacher employment increases the over and under representation of minority or Black and Hispanic students in various remedial, academic and disciplinary categories. Further, as minority teacher increases the representation of minority students begins to be closer to their percentage in the total school population (Farrell, 1990; Lomotey, 1989; Pine & Hilliard, 1990).

Finally, the most troubling achievement gap in American schools is the racial gap, the difference in student achievement between White and/or Asian students and their Black, Latino, Native American, Southeast Asian, and Pacific Islander counterparts. Without question, poverty and wealth impact student achievement as well. Statistically, however, even within the same economic strata, there is an achievement gap based on race (Singleton & Linton, 2006). Studies which show the intersectionality of race and income reveal important clues about racial achievement

gaps. At every income level, Black and Brown students are out performed by White students. Specifically, Black students are predictably the lowest performing group at every level and poorer White students actually out perform middle income Black and Brown students.

When discussing socioeconomic background, it is necessary to consider the full weight of the descriptor. The primary emphasis in considering socioeconomic background is placed on financial status, the economic half, but equally important is the socio status, the aspect related to broader cultural nuances located in a person's current and previous environment. For people of color, the concepts of culture and race are synonymous and they are identified by their racial/cultural identity first and then by their economic background. According to longitudinal academic data, a student's socio- or racial/cultural background appears to have a more powerful impact on participation and performance than their economic status. The most devastating factor contributing to the lowered achievement of students of color is institutionalized bias (Singleton & Linton, 2006).

Critical to the academic success of students of color, as with all students, is having quality relationships with their teachers and other adults in school. By giving their students the racial understanding, empathy, and compassion they need, educators begin to develop their effectiveness with students of color (Tatum, 2004).

The culture of a school system is based in its language and the styles and processes of communication that take place among its members. Systemic equity transformation requires that districts work cooperatively to determine a set of core values that will guide relationships among and between the staff, students, and

families. These values must exist at the heart of the school's educational philosophy, district policies, programmatic structures, and instructional practices. Hiring for diversity should be a part of these values.

Recruitment and retention of effective teachers is important but not the entire solution to improving the outcomes for minority students. Systemic practices are necessary to support and sustain the work of effective educators. It is not the educators who are at fault but the educational system that needs to be overhauled. The system is further undermined by punitive, carrot-and-stick methods that use data to punish staff. Additionally, students are also punished because the system denies them access to the necessary academic knowledge and skills needed to be effective. This further keeps minority students from accessing the decision making opportunities to evaluate the situation and determine the best means to remedy it in the future, continuing the cycle of systematic oppression (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005).

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Methodology

Following a review of literature, a letter (Appendix B) was developed and sent to administrators in charge of human resources of districts larger than 500 with student populations that were minority majorities. A survey (Appendix C) was developed based on the general themes that emerged from current literature on the practice of school districts with a minority student population with or without a diverse or reflective pool of candidates for teaching positions. These themes include but are not limited to:

- 1) District size and/or community type to include proximity to the Mexican/United States border and rural or urban designation
- 2) Administrative leadership, was there a gatekeeper or administrator in charge of recruitment, screening and hiring of minority candidates?
- 3) District vision, other than Federally mandated guidelines, specifically, did the school district in question have a statement of intent to hire a diverse or reflective teaching staff?
- 4) Locus of control, how encompassing were the methods of candidate solicitation and the number of methods that were employed including recruitment events, media and use of technology, primarily a multimedia effort and/or on-line computer web-site services enlisted, were measures taken to improve the likelihood of receiving a diverse candidate pool or were methods employed

the usual “standard operating procedure”?

The survey instrument was a questionnaire designed following the guidelines established by statistical practice, with reference to Dillman’s (1978) *Mail and Telephone Surveys, The Total Design Method*. The validity and reliability of the instrument was established through a pilot study of 32 non-participant human resource administrators from Monterey County, California, representing varying titles, duties and district sizes. The data were analyzed to determine if there existed a relationship between the variables studied, and if so, the nature and significance of that relationship. The following is a detailed discussion of the methodology used in the study.

Population

The population for this study was Texas public school districts with minority student populations greater than 50 percent and total student populations over 500 as reported in the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills Snapshot Profiles (Appendix A). A total of 227 districts fit these criteria of the 703 districts with student populations over 500. The 227 districts were further divided by percentage of teaching staff that is minority and average daily attendance (enrollment). Of the 227 districts, 161 of the districts have a reported minority faculty of less than 50% (Table 1). The remaining 66 districts report minority-teaching faculties of more than 50% (Table 2). No attempt was made to categorize groups within the definition of minority except to mean non-White. A breakdown by percentage of district size was determined to negate questions of urban versus rural participation (page 70). Districts

size distribution was determined to be comparatively equal, less than 3 percentage points in either direction, between the two groups relative to the overall percentage of urban and rural districts, so the question of larger districts having more resources in which to attract a larger candidate pool, while valid, was only addressed by removing the “very small” districts of under 500 student enrollment. Fewer than 20% of the respondents answer the question on community type; districts were then categorized by demographic region and county.

TABLE 1. Summary of Demographic Data Related to the Number of Texas Public School Districts by Population Size with a Minority Student Population and a Minority Teaching Population

Total Student Population	N	Percent
25,000+	6	9
5,000 – 24,999	23	35
1,600 – 4,999	22	33
500 – 1,599	15	23
Total minority student and minority teaching	66	100

TABLE 2. Summary of Demographic Data Related to the Number of Texas Public School Districts by Population Size with a Minority Student Population and a Majority Teaching Population

Total Student Population	N	Percent
25,000+	13	8
5,000 – 24,999	33	20
1,600 – 4,999	48	30
500 – 1,599	67	42
Total minority student and majority teaching	161	100

There were 39 districts with a minority non-White teaching population (Table 3) and 118 districts with a majority or White teaching population (Table 4) who responded to the survey for a total return rate of 69%.

TABLE 3. Summary of Demographic Data Related to the Number of Responding Texas Public School Districts by Population Size with a Minority Student Population and a Minority Teaching Population

Total Student Population	N	Percent
25,000+	5	14
5,000 – 24,999	13	33
1,600 – 4,999	13	33
500 – 1,599	8	20
Total responding minority/minority	39	100

TABLE 4. Summary of Demographic Data Related to the Number of Responding Texas Public School Districts by Population Size with a Minority Student Population and a Majority Teaching Population

Total Student Population	N	Percent
25,000+	13	12
5,000 – 24,999	20	16
1,600 – 4,999	28	24
500 – 1,599	57	48
Total responding minority/majority	118	100

The larger school districts (5,000 +) had the greatest return rate. Smaller districts (1,599 – 500) had the next highest percentage of return, well above districts up to 10 times their size (1,600 – 4,999). Table 5 represents the percent returned by total student population size.

TABLE 5. Summary of Return Rate for Hiring for Diversity as Perceived by Human Resource Administrators of Minority Majority School Districts in Texas Questionnaire by Student Population

Total Student Population	N	Percent
25,000+	18	94.74
5,000 – 24,999	33	91.67
1,600 – 4,999	41	58.57
500 – 1,599	65	78.31
Total return rate of questionnaires	157	69

Geographical representation of minority majority school districts paralleled current and projected census data. One hundred and eleven counties showed minority majority districts within their boundaries. As would be expected, heavy concentrations of Hispanic majority districts were found along the Mexico and New Mexico borders. Additionally, there was a concentration of minority majority districts along the Interstate 35 corridor (the NAFTA highway), and centered on major urban areas such as Dallas, El Paso, Corpus Christi, Houston and San Antonio. The traditionally highly black populated East Texas region, while having no district with a Black student majority, did have twelve counties with minority majority districts due to the increased Hispanic population. The Gulf coast area also showed five counties with minority majority districts, again owing to the increase in the Hispanic population and to a lesser degree, an Asian population increase.

Of the 111 counties with one or more minority majority school districts, 22 counties had minority student/minority teacher majorities but seven of those counties also had majority teacher districts, four of them being large urban areas with multiple school districts: Dallas, Houston, San Antonio, and Corpus Christi. Of the remaining

districts, nine have a contiguous border with Mexico and six are within 150 miles of the border.

Procedures

The Texas School Directory and School Report Cards which can be found online at the Texas Education Agency, was used to document district numbers for student and teacher ethnicities as well as total enrollment. Responses to the survey were tabulated, analyzed, and reported in narrative form. A confidence interval showing the margin of error for the responses to all questions having answer options that did not exceed 100% was also computed. Supportive numerical tables and figures are presented, with representations in frequency and percentage forms.

Using the data provided by the Texas Education Agency, 227 districts with over 500 total students were identified as having a minority majority student population. A questionnaire was sent to each district and addressed to the “Administrator in Charge of Human Resources.” Each questionnaire was assigned a number for tracking purposes. The mailing included a cover letter of explanation, the questionnaire instrument, and a self-addressed, stamped envelope. A second mailing was sent out to non-respondents which resulted in the final response rate of 69% (Table 5).

Instrumentation

The researcher used a questionnaire developed specifically for this project. It was designed following guidelines established by Dillman’s (1978) *Mail and Telephone Surveys, The Total Design Method*.

The 227 districts with over 500 students and having a minority majority student population were further divided into those with a minority majority teaching staff, 66, and those with an ethnic majority teaching staff, 161.

The questionnaire was divided into six sections. The first two sections were self reported district size and community type. District size was compared with Texas Education Agency data and found to be accurate in all cases. Fewer than 20% of respondents answered the question on community type negating it as a variable for use in this study. The third and fourth sections were questions designed to ascertain the “gatekeeper” or administrator responsible for teacher recruitment and their respective title. The fifth section was a direct inquiry as to whether or not the district has a formal statement of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff other than the federally mandated equal opportunity employer disclaimer. The sixth and final section was a list of 23 different choices of how a district might post teaching vacancies. This last section included a blank for *other* in order to provide the participant the opportunity to furnish additional information on recruitment posting options that had not been asked on the questionnaire, however, no respondent elected to add an additional option.

Data Analysis

The results of this study have been reported using both numeric and graphic techniques. The analysis and interpretation of the data followed the principles prescribed in *Educational Research: An Introduction* by Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996). The *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* was used to derive descriptive

statistics and execute several statistical procedures used to facilitate a comparison of both group responses. Descriptive data, including sample means, standard deviations, and percentages for both groups was produced. A standard or z score was computed for certain variables to test for a significant difference on answers to questions with regard to the demographically different sub-groups within the population that was surveyed. Frequency, mean scores, and correlations were used for descriptive and inferential statistical analysis of the collected data. Demographic differences have been analyzed as they relate to each factor. An alpha level of .05 was used to establish statistical significance. Additionally, the demographic information along with the questionnaire responses was entered into the *SPSS for Windows* database for confirmation of statistical analysis.

The data analysis included specific statistical procedures for use in answering each research question by using a one-way analysis of variance on each questionnaire response variable. Variables with significant differences for the means at the $p < .05$ level were identified. Post-hoc analysis revealed the dependence or independence between demographic variables and the identified populations of minority or majority teaching populations in Texas public schools of 500 or more students with a minority majority student population.

In summary, the study population consisted of 227 Texas public school districts with over 500 students and with a minority majority ethnic student population. The responses were then further separated into those districts with a teaching staff that was 50% or greater ethnic minority and those with a majority ethnic teaching staff. A questionnaire developed by the researcher was mailed to the administrator in charge

of human resources at each district. A total of 157 responses were returned for a total response rate of 69%. The survey used for the study was *A Survey of Human Resource Administrators* as developed and validated by the researcher. Results for the populations were reported in both numerical table presentations for frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, analyses of variance and additional inferential interpretation in accordance with Gall et al. (1996).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This study examined recruiting and hiring practices, the designation of an administrator responsible for human resource decisions, the existence of a formal intent to hire a diverse staff, and the methods used to post teacher vacancies in Texas public school districts with over 500 students and a reported minority majority student population, as reported in the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills Snapshot Profiles. A total of 227 districts fit this criteria and were further divided into those districts with a minority majority teaching staff for a total of 66 districts with a diverse staff; and those with a majority or non-minority teaching staff for a total 161 districts without a diverse staff. Districts size distribution was determined to be comparatively equal, less than 3 percentage points in either direction.

The investigation sought to determine if the methods of recruitment and hiring practices utilized by those districts with reflective, diverse teaching staffs, as compared to those districts currently without such a reflective staff, were significant as measured by a z score comparison. It further sought to correlate and corroborate the premise that institutional bias, rather than overt prejudice, prohibits full inclusion of qualified minority candidates and that visionary leadership as measured by a designated administrator for human resources and a formal statement of intent to hire a diverse staff can overcome that bias. The research questions asked were as follows:

1. Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a designated administrator responsible for human resources?
2. Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a formal statement (other than federal guidelines) of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff?
3. Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts in the procedures used for recruiting, as evidenced by specific posting practices?

A total of 157 responses from surveys addressed to administrators responsible for human resources yielded a return rate of over 69%. Demographic data by district population size and community type did not factor into the outcome of the research questions as districts considered “very small,” with less than 500 students, were not surveyed.

Analysis of the Administrator in Charge of Human Resources

The first research question was a basic question regarding administrative leadership, specifically, the designation of a human resources administrator with responsibility for recruiting and hiring practices (Table 6). “Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a designated administrator responsible for human resources?”

The survey found that among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff, there is a statistically higher rate of administrators responsible for teacher recruitment employed 100% for human resources than in districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff. The calculated p value of .0437 with a .05 alpha level, a 95%

confidence level, indicates that the difference between the proportions of administrators responsible for teacher recruitment employed 100% for human resources among districts with or without a diverse or reflective teaching staff is unlikely to occur by chance.

TABLE 6. Analysis of the Question, “Is the Administrator Responsible for Teacher Recruitment Employed 100 % for Human Resources?”

	Fraction	Percent	p
Districts with a diverse staff	23/39	58.9	p1 = .589
Districts without a diverse staff	51/118	43.2	p2 = .432

p1 = p2, z = 1.7-86, p = .4037 at .05 alpha level

This research question also included the examination of the title and responsibilities of the district’s administrator in charge of recruitment and hiring. The choices for the title of this administrator in charge of human resources provided on the survey were as follows: Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, Associate Superintendent, Manager, Director, No Title, or an option for the district representative to supply an alternative title. The option of an alternative title was not selected by any responding district. This question (Table 7) and the prior question, is the administrator responsible for teacher recruitment employed 100% for human resources, sought to correlate a statistical difference between administrators with multiple duties and those whose primary responsibility is personnel and their recruitment.

TABLE 7. Analysis of the Question, “What Is the Administrator in Charge of Human Resources’ Title?”

Title	Diverse Staff p1, n = 39	Not Diverse P2, n = 118	Test	z Score	p Value	Significance
Superintendent	12	39	p1>p2	-3.44	.00056	Statistically significant
Assist. Supt.	16	22	p1>p2	-.892	.814	Not significant
Assoc. Supt.	14	18	p1>p2	-.581	.719	Not significant
Manager	0	0				
Director	2	4	p1>p2	-.52	.6997	Not significant
No Title	49	14	p1>p2	4.65	.0000016	Significant
Other	6	2	p1>p2	1.45	.0738	Modest Significance

Among districts with or without a diverse or reflective teaching staff there was a statistically significant difference in the percentages for the reported titles of superintendent and “no title,” a modest significance for “other” and no statistical significance for the titles assistant superintendent, associate superintendent, director, and manager (not reported).

Districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff had a statistically significant difference and higher percent of administrators responsible for recruiting and hiring titled superintendent, 39% with a z score of -3.44. Districts with a diverse or reflective staff reported only 12% with the title superintendent as the administrator responsible for recruitment and hiring. The second statistically significant difference was the category “no title.” Districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff had a statistically significant difference and a lower percent of administrators

without a title then did districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff 14% versus 49%, with a z score of 4.65. The modest significance shown in the survey selection, “other,” is a category considered similar to the designation of “no title”, and yielded a z score of 1.45.

Analysis of Statement of Intent to Hire a Diverse Staff

All government agencies, including public school districts, who receive federal monies are required by law to adhere to the hiring guidelines as outlined in the Equal Employment Opportunity Act. The second section of the human resources questionnaire asked whether there was a formal statement, other than the aforementioned requirement, of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff in the district (Table 8). “Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a formal statement of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff?”

TABLE 8. Analysis of the Question, “Other Than Federal Guidelines, Does the District Have a Formal Statement of Intent to Hire a Diverse or Reflective Staff?”

Title	Diverse Staff p1, n = 39	Not Diverse p2, n = 118	Test	z Score	p Value	Significance
Yes	.5384	.3729	p1>p2	1.82	.0344	Statistically Significant
No	.3333	.4915	p1>p2	-1.72	.0426	Statistically Significant
Unsure	.1282	.1356	p1>p2	-.1175	.906	Not Significant

Among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff, there is a statistically significantly higher proportion of the existence of a formal statement of intent to hire a staff that is diverse or reflective of its minority majority student population. Among districts without a diverse or reflective staff, there are a statistically significantly higher proportion of districts that do not have a formal statement, other than federal guidelines, of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff. Those districts answering “unsure” of the existence of a separate formal statement of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff were not statistically significant. Those districts with a diverse or reflective staff answering positive to a statement of intent had a z score of 1.82 and corresponding p value of .0344 with an alpha level of .05. Conversely, those districts without a diverse or reflective staff had a positive response value of a -1.72 z score and a corresponding p value of .0426 with an alpha level of .05 making it also statistically significant.

Analysis of Teacher Recruitment Methods

The final research question was, “Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts in the procedures used for recruiting, as evidenced by specific posting practices?” There were 23 choices of posting methods available for selection in no significant order. These posting methods were separated into five categories of recruitment used for obtaining pools of teacher candidates. The 23 choices were as follows: (1) Texas Education Agency Services; (2) Statewide Universities; (3) Traditionally Minority Universities; (4) Professional Journals; (5) Region Newspapers; (6) National Newspapers; (7) District Recruitment Fairs; (8)

University Recruitment Fairs; (9) International Recruitment Fairs; (10) Television; (11) District Web Site; (12) Local Universities; (13) National Universities; (14) International Universities; (15) Local Newspapers; (16) Major Statewide Newspapers; (17) International Publications; (18) Region Recruitment Fairs; (19) National Recruitment Fairs; (20) Radio; (21) Billboard/Marquee; (22) Internet Job Site; and (23) Other. These choices were then aggregated according to these five categories: (1) Professional Services; (2) Newspaper Advertising; (3) University Advertising; (4) Recruitment Fairs; and (5) Technology Utilization.

The first category of teacher recruitment methods, Professional Services (Table 9), showed only a modest statistical significance in districts with and without a diverse or reflective teaching population with regard to utilization of the resources available from the Texas Education Agency and no statistical significance between the uses of Professional Journals. Districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff have a statistically significant, higher proportion of local newspaper utilization than do districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff. Also in districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff there is a modestly significant utilization of major statewide newspapers. Regional, National, and International newspapers in this category were not calculated to be of statistically significant proportional difference in their utilization practices. Districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff have a modest statistical significance of proportional difference that is higher than districts that have a diverse or reflective teaching staff with regard to utilizing the services of the Texas Education Agency. There was no significant statistical difference with regard to the use of Professional Journals to post teacher vacancies.

Districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff have a modest statistical significance of proportional difference that is higher than districts that have a diverse or reflective teaching staff with regard to utilizing the services of the Texas Education Agency. There was no significant statistical difference with regard to the use of Professional Journals to post teacher vacancies.

TABLE 9. Analysis of Teacher Recruitment Methods—Professional Services

Posting	Diverse Staff p1, n = 39	Not Diverse p2, n = 118	Test	z Score	p Value	Significance
Texas Education Agency	.2307	.3729	p1=p2	-.63	.1037	Modest Significance
Professional Journals	.1795	.1864	p1=p2	-.097	-.9227	Not Significant

The second category of teacher recruitment methods, Newspaper Advertising (Table 10), is divided into five divisions: local, regional, state, national, and international newspaper publications. There was a statistically significant proportion between those districts with and without a diverse or reflective teaching staff with regard to advertising in local newspapers; modest significance with regard to statewide newspapers; and no significance between proportions of use in regional, national, or international newspaper publications. Districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff have a statistically significant, higher proportion of local newspaper utilization than do districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff. Also in districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff there is a modestly significant

utilization of major statewide newspapers. Regional, National, and International newspapers in this category were not calculated to be of statistically significant proportional difference in their utilization practices

TABLE 10. Analysis of Teacher Recruitment Methods—Newspaper Advertising

Posting	Diverse Staff p1, n = 39	Not Diverse p2, n = 118	Test	z Score	p Value	Significance
Local Newspaper	.8974	.6186	p1=p2	3.258	.0011	Statistically Significant
Regional Newspaper	.5897	.5677	p1=p2	-.24	.8101	Not Significant
Statewide Newspaper	.2051	.0932	p1=p2	1.854	.0632	Modest Significant
National Newspaper	.0512	.0254	p1=p2	-7912	.4253	Not Significant
International Newspaper	0	0	p1=p2	0	0	None

The third category of teacher recruitment posting methods is recruitment and advertising at universities (Table 11). These include local, state, national, traditionally minority, and international universities. Only statewide universities demonstrated a statistically significant proportion difference of utilization. All other university recruitment and advertising, local, regional, traditionally minority and international universities is not statistically significant. In those districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff there is a statistically significant higher proportion of recruiting and advertising at statewide universities than at districts with a diverse or

reflective teaching staff. There is no statistically significant proportional difference between districts with or without a diverse or reflective teaching staff in their advertising at local, national, international, or traditionally minority universities.

TABLE 11. Analysis of Teacher Recruitment Methods—University Recruitment and Advertising

Posting	Diverse Staff p1, n = 39	Not Diverse p2, n = 118	Test	z Score	p Value	Significance
Local Universities	.7623	.7288	p1=p2	.4982	.6184	Not Significant
Statewide Universities	.4359	.6186	p1=p2	-2.00	.0454	Statistically Significant
National Universities	.1794	.1017	p1=p2	-1.291	.1966	Not Significant
International Universities	.0256	.0254	p1=p2	.007	.9940	Not Significant
Traditionally Minority Universities	.2051	.3051	p1=p2	-1.20	.2282	Not Significant

The fourth category of teacher recruitment methods, Recruitment Fairs (Table 12), is not statistically significant for any venue. These fair venues included district, region, university, national, or international locales. There was no statistically significant difference in the proportions between districts with or without a diverse or reflective teaching staff at any of the recruitment fair locations. All districts participated in recruitment fairs but there was no statistically significant difference at a confidence level of alpha .05 or 95% and z scores between -1.205 and .7368.

TABLE 12. Analysis of Teacher Recruitment Methods—Recruitment Fairs

Posting	Diverse Staff p1, n = 39	Not Diverse P2, n = 118	Test	z Score	p Value	Significance
District Fair	.4103	.3914	p1=p2	.3110	.7482	Not Significant
Region Fair	.6923	.6271	p1=p2	.7368	.4613	Not Significant
University Fair	.7436	.7203	p1=p2	.2822	.7777	Not Significant
National Fair	.0512	.3051	p1=p2	-1.20	.2282	Not Significant
International Fair	.0256	.1186	p1=p2	-1.205	.2289	Not Significant

The fifth and final category of teacher recruitment methods is the utilization of technology (Table 13), including radio, television, district web site and internet job sites. Again, none of these methods proved to have a statistically significant proportion difference between districts with or without a diverse or reflective teaching staff. There was no statistically significant proportional difference between districts with or without a diverse or reflective teaching staff with regard to technology utilization methods.

TABLE 13. Analysis of Teacher Recruitment Methods—Technology Utilization

Posting	Diverse Staff p1, n = 39	Not Diverse P2, n = 118	Test	z Score	p Value	Significance
Radio	.1026	.0508	p1=p2	1.147	.2516	Not Significant
Television	.1026	.0593	p1=p2	.9172	.3590	Not Significant
District Web Site	.7436	.6441	p1=p2	1.145	.2523	Not Significant
Internet Job Site	.7436	.7119	p1=p2	.3824	.7021	Not Significant

In summary, there are four statistically significant differences in procedures used for recruiting, as evidenced by specific posting practices, by districts with a diverse or reflective staff. They are as follows:

- 1) Utilization of the Texas Education Agency was reported at a higher proportionate difference at districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff.
- 2) Advertising in local newspapers was reported at a higher proportionate difference at districts with a diverse teaching staff.
- 3) Advertising in statewide newspapers was reported at a higher proportionate difference at districts with a diverse teaching staff.
- 4) Recruiting and Advertising at Statewide Universities was reported at a higher proportionate difference at districts without a diverse teaching staff.

Additionally, there was no statistically significant difference between districts with or without a diverse teaching staff in the number of methods reported for

recruiting. Districts with or without a diverse or reflective teaching staff used approximately the same number of different methods of recruiting teachers (Table 14). There was no statistically significant increase or decrease in the number of methods reported. The number of methods both districts with or without a diverse teaching staff was normally distributed with a standard deviation of 3. Approximately 50% of all districts used 7 or more different methods of recruitment. The actual mean = 7.64 and a standard deviation of 3.5 for districts with a diverse teaching staff. The actual mean = 7.16 and a standard deviation of 3.24 for districts without a diverse teaching staff. A 2-sample t test yielded a t score of .7866 and a p value of .4330. There was no statistically significant difference between the numbers of methods utilized by districts with or without a diverse or reflective teaching staff.

TABLE 14. Analysis of Number of Reported Methods Used to Recruit Teachers

Number	Diverse Staff p1, n = 39	Not Diverse P2, n = 118	Test	z Score	p Value	Significance
1 – 5	.32	.28	p1=p2	.3356	.7372	Not Significant
6 – 10	.53	.59	p1=p2	.6006	.5481	Not Significant
11 – 15	.13	.10	p1=p2	.4619	.6442	Not Significant
16 – 23	.02	.03	p1=p2	.0075	.9940	Not Significant

Summary of Survey Results

The survey was differentiated into four areas with the last three corresponding to the research questions. The first section was self reported district size by student enrollment and was determined to have approximately equal representation, less than 3 percentage points in either direction for both districts with or without a diverse or reflective teaching staff.

The second section corresponded to the question, “Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a designated administrator responsible for human resources?” It yielded the following statistically significant results.

- 1) Among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff, there was a higher rate of administrators responsible for teacher recruitment employed 100% for human resources.
- 2) Among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff, there was a lower rate of the administrator responsible for teacher recruitment to be titled “superintendent.”
- 3) Among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff, there was a higher rate of the personnel administrator responsible for teacher recruitment to have “no title.”

The third section of the survey corresponded to the research question, “Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a formal statement (other than federal guidelines) of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff?” It yielded the following result:

- 1) Among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff there was a higher rate of districts with a formal statement of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff.

The fourth and final section of the survey was an analysis of 23 teacher recruitment methods and corresponded to the research question, “Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts in the procedures used for recruiting, as evidenced by specific posting practices?” It yielded the following results:

- 1) Among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff there was a lower rate of utilizing the Texas Education Agency.
- 2) Among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff there was a higher rate of advertising in local newspapers.
- 3) Among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff there was a higher rate of advertising in statewide newspapers.
- 4) Among districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff there was a lower rate of recruiting and advertising at statewide universities.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study supported the need for minority teacher recruitment in Texas, in particular, bilingual teachers as indicated in previous reports (AAEE, 2001; TEA, 2000; Lara-Alecio & Galloway, 2006; Urban Teacher Collective, 2000). In Texas, 55.9% of all students are from minority ethnic groups, yet 75% of the teaching force is White (TEA, 2000). Since the year 2005, Anglos make up less than half of the Texas population and by the year 2040, Hispanics alone are projected to make up 59% of the Texas population. By the year 2030, Hispanic students will make up a projected 53.4% of Texas' elementary and secondary schools (Murdock, 2002). The population for this study was Texas public school districts with minority student populations greater than 50% and total student populations over 500. A total of 227 districts fit these criteria. The percentage of teaching staff that is minority, county of residence, and student enrollment further divided the districts. One hundred sixty-one of the districts had a reported minority faculty of less than 50%, and the remaining 66 districts report minority teaching staffs of greater than 50%. 157 districts responded to this survey. District size distribution was determined to be insignificant and comparatively equal. One hundred eleven counties were represented and were as expected heavily skewed by the Mexico border, urban, and Interstate 35 proximity.

Minority students traditionally have the highest incidence of poverty and are over represented in school dropout rates (Johnson, 2000; Williams & DeLacey, 1996).

Therefore, these students from racially and ethnically diverse backgrounds need support from teachers representative of their cultures who then have a greater understanding of those minority students and where they are coming from as a group. These reflective teachers then serve as role models for academic achievement and future success. Equally important, the research confirmed that as reflective teacher employment increases, the over representation of minority students in special education including remedial programs and disciplinary referrals, plus the under representation of minority students in academic honors or gifted and talented programs begins to be more representative with their% age in the total school population (Farrell, 1990; Henze, Katz, Norte, Sather & Walker, 2002; Lomotey, 1989; Pine & Hilliard, 1990). Thus, the percentage of minority teachers in predominately minority schools is significant for its attitudinal impact on student performance making the need to hire qualified minority teachers a pedagogical necessity especially in light of federal and state sanctions as mandated by the requirements of the *No Child Left Behind Act* of 2000.

The focus of this research is on hiring practices, formal and informal, in Texas public school districts, with a minority student population greater than 50%. It compared districts with a reflective minority teaching staff against districts with majority White teaching staffs. It was the finding of this researcher that preference patterns, inherent in how administrators manage hiring practices, specifically those used to attract a candidate pool and whether or not a vision realizing the necessity for a reflective staff, are inadvertently creating a barrier to full participation by members from cultural backgrounds that differ from the traditional majority group. These

findings therefore support the premise that hiring policies and practices *per se*, rather than individual prejudice are the primary impediment to diversity based hiring in education. Subsequently, school leaders in positions of authority such as district administrators and superintendents responsible for recruitment are most likely to influence policy and practice in hiring a reflective staff. The findings are reported in three sections:

- 1) Administrative leadership—was there a gatekeeper or administrator in charge of recruitment, screening and hiring of minority candidates?
- 2) District vision—other than Federally mandated guidelines, specifically, did the school district in question have a statement of intent to hire a diverse or reflective teaching staff?
- 3) Locus of control—how encompassing were the methods of candidate solicitation and the number of methods that were employed including recruitment events, media and use of technology, primarily a multimedia effort and/or on-line computer Web site services enlisted were measures taken to improve the likelihood of receiving a diverse candidate pool or were methods employed the usual “standard operating procedure”?

The survey instrument was a questionnaire sent to the person in charge of human resources at the 227 Texas public school districts with minority majority student populations. The survey was divided into six sections. The first two sections were self-reported district size and community type. The third and fourth sections were questions designed to ascertain the “gatekeeper” or administrator responsible for teacher recruitment and their respective title. The fifth section was a direct inquiry as

to whether or not the district has a formal statement of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff other than the federally mandated equal opportunity employer disclaimer. The sixth and final section included a list of 23 different choices of how a district might post teaching vacancies.

This study was not intended to be a diatribe on Affirmative Action, but a tool for districts seeking to change their existing policies and formulate new procedures toward a pluralistic environment and a teaching staff that is diverse and/or reflective of the student population through outcome based hiring practices. It is directed at those individuals in administrative positions with the power to effect change. It is intended to address vision and leadership because when an institution, like a school district, voluntarily chooses inclusion because it values diversity and pluralism, that choice is morally and legally defensible. Facts do matter; laws do matter, but values matter most.

Conclusions

This study confirmed what previous researchers have reported about administrative leadership. The assignment of an administrator responsible for human resource decisions, specifically staff recruitment and selection, is imperative to good leadership (American Association of School Administrators, 2005; Enders, 2001; Ishida, 2002; Lara-Alecio & Galloway, 2006).

Research Question 1

The first question was, “Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a designated administrator responsible for human resources?”

The data collected on the first research question showed that a statistically higher proportion of districts with a diverse or reflective teaching staff employed an administrator responsible for teacher recruitment than did those districts without a diverse or reflective teaching staff. This supported previous research that we must rely on administrative efforts to increase recruitment of this most precious commodity, the minority teacher because the traditional effort to meet the ever increasing needs of minority students has not kept up with the demand for minority teachers (Hoyle et al., 2005; Lara-Alecio, 2002, 2006; Leithwood & Riehl, 2006; Tatum 1992). Additionally, Standard 4 of the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) professional standards for the superintendency, requires an administrator be able to manage, processes, delegate appropriately to obtain goals through research based decision making all as a means to hold the appropriate parties accountable (Hoyle et al., 2005). This again substantiated the assertion that the role of the administrator responsible for a districts’ vision to meet the growing demands for student achievement must include plans for educating diverse students while struggling with teacher and principal shortages.

At its most fundamental level, this attests to Tatum’s (1992) research that when institutional power is given to an individual, that individual with the authority of the institution now “welds the power” to reinforce and legitimize policies and practices

whether oppressive or not. The exercise of power may be used to “alter the initial distribution of outputs, to establish an unequal distribution, or to change the outputs” (Perrow, 1986). Further, this conclusion shows evidence that gatekeeping processes can control or influence the entry or access to a particular arena (Enders, 2001) and can either function as exclusion and control or conversely as inclusion and facilitation depending on the decision maker in question.

The three stages in the hiring process, submission of an application, obtaining an interview, and receiving an offer are all contingent upon knowledge of the position opening and therein the applicant pool is dependent upon the decisions of the individual given the power to recruit. Therefore, the assignment of an administrator responsible for human resource decisions, specifically staff recruitment and selection is imperative to good leadership in a district that values diversity.

Lastly, studies that concentrated on the perceptions of the decision makers as they apply to the needs of the program and the effectiveness of the program concluded as with this study, that the commitment of the gatekeepers is one of the most essential elements of an effective diversity based program (Ayers, 2001; Witt, 1990). This study corroborated the findings of the meta-analysis advocating a balanced leadership framework that culture, the degree to which the leader nurtures shared beliefs and a common feeling of community as well as collaboration, is the first ranked essential leadership responsibility of transformational leaders (Waters et al., 2003).

This study confirmed that a district vision in the form of a mission statement that is clearly communicated and embraced by the stakeholders is crucial to the terms of

the mission statement being successful (Hoyle et al., 2005; Leithwood & Riehl, 2006; Waters et al., 2003).

Research Question 2

The second question was, “Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts that have a formal statement (other than federal guidelines) of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff?”

While law has mandated many aspects of managing diversity, Executive Order 11246 required that United States businesses, including public school districts, take steps to ensure that discrimination does not occur (Werther & Davis, 1993). The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission which is the federal agency responsible for the implementation and enforcement of the Civil Rights Act and Equal Opportunity Act mandated that businesses, including public school districts, advertise as equal opportunity employers. These laws are just a sample of the Federal laws that exist because of human barriers to social justice. The second research question speaks to a district vision to overcome these barriers and was the most statistically significant finding of this study. The existence of a formal statement, other than federal guidelines, of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff was prevalent in districts that actually had a diverse or reflective staff. While this may appear to be stating the obvious, this finding is of particular importance because it showcases districts that have chosen to make diversity in hiring a valued belief and not merely a compliance issue.

School leaders in positions of authority, such as principals, district administrators, superintendents, and school boards stand in powerful positions from which to influence others. Their policies and practices are highly visible and can shape the way others perceive diversity (Henze et al., 2002). Openness to multiculturalism and a passion for equity are functions of both the heart and the intellect. School executives must make a shift from the model of an ethnocentric education organized around the culture of European Americans to one of the new ethnocentric schools (Spring, 1985). Policy, guided by a vision of equity, established by the board of trustees should provide guidance for long and short range recruitment plans. A board that is focused on increasing the diversity of the district's teachers should develop policy that makes that intent clear (Hoyle et al., 2005). It is, therefore, imperative that districts who aspire to overcome traditional bureaucratic practices of recruitment and selection must first adopt a formal statement of intent to hire a diverse and/or reflective staff. Leadership that is visionary and includes a strategic mission statement and policies for implementation will effectively negate barriers (Hoyle, 1995, 2002).

These studies findings substantiate previous educational leadership research that focus on the characteristics of effective leaders working with schools that have large diverse populations (Leithwood & Riehl, 2006). Specifically, the instructional leadership model which includes, "defining the mission statement" including oversight of specific goal development and conveying those goals to all stakeholders (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). Additionally, the transformational leadership model emphasizes the construction of a mission but includes building capacity in others to carry out the ideals of the mission. This means not only developing vision but setting goals,

establishing priorities, expecting high performance expectations, and nurturing a culture of collaboration. Productive community relationships can only be created by fostering participation in the decision making process (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). Waters et al. (2003) identified 21 essential leadership responsibilities using a meta-analysis of 70 educational leadership research studies. This leadership framework examined leader-ship qualities and student achievement. Qualities supported by this study that had a significant impact on student achievement include the following:

- Culture: To what degree does the leader encourage a shared belief system, a feeling of community and collaboration?
- Order: To what degree are there established routines, a standard operating procedure and clear policies set by and supported by the leader?
- Focus: To what degree are the mutually agreed upon goals clear and present?
- Communication: To what degree are there clear lines of communication, both up and down the organization?
- Outreach: To what degree is the leader is an advocate for all stakeholders and a spokesperson for all stakeholders?
- Input: To what degree does the leader involve all stakeholders in the construct and implementation of policies, decisions, and goals?
- Relationship: To what degree does the leader demonstrate an awareness and a sensitivity of others personal circumstances?
- Change agent: To what degree does the leader willingly and actively challenge status quo?

- Optimizer: To what degree does the leader inspire, encourage, and lead new and challenging innovations?
- Ideals/Beliefs: To what degree does the leader communicate and act from strong ethics, ideals and beliefs?
- Monitors/Evaluates: To what degree does the leader monitor the effectiveness of programs and hold those responsible accountable through evaluation?
- Flexibility: To what degree does the leader adapt their leadership style to the situation at hand and how comfortable is the leader with disagreement and dissent?
- Situational awareness: To what degree is the leader aware of the situations and undercurrents in the organization and then uses this information to remedy current and potential problems?

These characteristics of effective leadership are evident in districts that make a choice beyond federal guidelines of compliance and speak to the “vision” of social justice in the form of hiring for diversity and a staff that is reflective of the students they serve. This vision as Hoyle (2002) related has the power to motivate the organization to change to meet the future and create productive teams that value the diverse personalities and talents of every person.

This study confirmed that the “locus of control” regarding recruitment strategies contain biases inherent in the selection process (Cox, 1994; Edley, 1996; Lara-Alecio & Galloway, 2006; Rodman, 1998; Shimp, 2003; Singleton & Linton, 2006). It further

confirmed that specific recruitment practices yield better results than others in the quest for a diverse and/or reflective staff (Lara, 2005; Tatum, 2004).

Research Question 3

The third question was, “Is there a significant statistical difference in staff diversity between districts in the procedures used for recruiting, as evidenced by specific posting practices?”

Here the answer was again yes, though not as significant as the presence of an administrator responsible for recruitment or a formal statement of intent to hire a diverse and/or reflective staff. There were 23 choices of posting methods available for selection in no apparent order. These posting methods were separated into the following five categories:

- 1) Professional Services
- 2) Newspaper Advertising
- 3) University Advertising
- 4) Recruitment Fairs
- 5) Technology Utilization

These questions were employed to determine “locus of control,” how encompassing were the methods of candidate solicitation and were measures taken to improve the likelihood of receiving a diverse candidate pool or were methods employed the usual “standard operating procedure.”

As part of the civil rights legislation, an organization is expected to do the following in its recruiting process, which is to advertise the vacant position widely so

that all potential candidates are made aware of the employment opportunity (Seligman, 1973). The only statistically significant differences between districts with and without a diverse and/or reflective teaching staff were advertising in local and statewide newspapers and recruiting at statewide universities by districts with diverse staffs; and utilization of the Texas Education Agency by districts without diverse staffs. This is consistent with the findings of The Texas A&M University Teacher Recruitment and Teacher Retention Coalition, which found that in a survey of Texas superintendents, they most frequently used websites, career fairs, college recruiting, newspapers, and recruiting through professional organizations and/or conferences to fill vacancies (Lara-Alecio & Galloway, 2006).

This study also agreed that minority recruitment goals are easier to set than achieve. In the past decade, several recruitment strategies have been developed to entice more minorities into teaching. All of these investments in methods of recruitment have yielded few returns according to those who have closely observed these strategies (Haberman, 1989; Lara-Alecio & Galloway, 2006). Therefore, while it is incumbent upon districts to reach out to minority candidates, it is far more important to have a vision that embraces diversity and leadership to ensure that vision is realized.

Recommendations Based on This Study

In order to move from the ideal to the pragmatic, school leaders will need a plan that includes valuing diversity and a reflective staff. This plan should contain a vision of social justice, changes in administrative staffing, and a locus of control over

recruitment strategies to improve the hiring of a diverse staff. This researcher makes the following recommendations to achieve this goal.

Recommendation 1 (Vision). Create a formal written policy making the recruitment of a diverse and/or reflective staff a district priority that is communicated to every stakeholder.

Recommendation 2 (Leadership). Decentralize the district office to include the staffing of a human resources administrator responsible for the recruitment and selection of a diverse and/or reflective staff.

Recommendation 3 (Locus of Control). Go beyond traditional recruiting methods to affect change and to reach and attract diverse and/or reflective candidates.

Ultimately, the responsibility for creating the vision and policies for a school district rests with the administration and the board of trustees. They must develop and implement strategic plans aimed at addressing the needs of their constituents. If this does not occur, our schools will continue to have shortages of qualified diverse and/or reflective educators in classrooms, limiting the academic preparation of our growing minority population.

Recommendations for Further Study

During the analysis of the survey instrument, the following questions arose and are recommended for further study:

Recommendation 1. Does the district budget and allocation of funds affects the decentralization of the central office?

Recommendation 2. Does geography, specifically proximity to Mexican border,

affect the candidate pool?

Recommendation 3. Does community type, urban versus rural affect the candidate pool?

Recommendation 4. Was there duplication in the number of ways a district checked as methods of recruitment (example: a local newspaper could also be a major statewide newspaper)?

Recommendation 5. Does the ethnicity of the “gatekeeper” affect their commitment to a pluralistic environment, just as the “similar to me” phenomenon affects decisions with preferential latitude?

Recommendation 6. Are Internet advertisements culturally biased?

Recommendation 7. Are Internet advertisements as available to minority candidates?

Recommendation 8. If districts are not utilizing their own Internet Web site to advertise, on what site or sites are they posting their vacancies?

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APPENDIX A
COUNTIES WITH MINORITY MAJORITY DISTRICTS

County	Number of Minority/Majority School Districts
Anderson	1
Andrews	1
Angelina	2
Atascosa	3
Bailey	1
Bastrop	1
Bee	3
Bell	3
Bexar	12
Bowie	1
Brazos	2
Brewster	1
Brooks	1
Burleson	1
Caldwell	2
Calhoun	1
Cameron	9
Castro	1
Cherokee	1
Cochran	1
Colorado	1
Crane	1
Crocket	1
Crosby	1
Culberson	1
Dallas	9
Dawson	1
Deaf Smith	1
Dimmit	1
Duval	3
Ector	1
Ellis	2
El Paso	9
Falls	1
Floyd	2
Frio	2
Fort Bend	2
Gaines	2
Galveston	3
Gonzales	2
Guadalupe	1

County	Number of Minority/Majority School Districts
Hale	2
Hall	1
Harris	12
Harrison	2
Hays	1
Hidalgo	15
Hill	1
Hockley	1
Houston	1
Jefferson	2
Jim Hogg	1
Jim Wells	4
Johnson	1
Karnes	1
Kinney	1
Kleberg	2
Lamb	2
La Salle	1
Lubbock	2
Lynn	1
Martin	1
Matagorda	2
Maverick	1
McLennon	1
Medina	2
Milan	1
Moore	1
Nacogdoches	1
Navarro	1
Nueces	6
Orange	1
Parmer	1
Pecos	1
Polk	1
Presidio	1
Reagan	1
Red River	1
Reeves	1
Refugio	2
Robertson	1

County	Number of Minority/Majority School Districts
San Augustine	1
San Patricio	4
Scheicher	1
Smith	1
Starr	2
Sutton	1
Swisher	1
Tarrent	2
Terrell	1
Terry	1
Titus	1
Tom Green	1
Travis	3
Upton	1
Uvalde	2
Val Verde	1
Van Zandt	1
Victoria	2
Waller	2
Webb	1
Wharton	3
Willacy	2
Williamson	1
Wilson	1
Winkler	2
Yoakum	1
Zapata	1
Zavala	1
TOTAL, 111	TOTAL, 227

APPENDIX B
LETTER TO HUMAN RESOURCE PERSONNEL



TEXAS A&M UNIVERSITY
Department of Educational Administration

July 3, 2000

Dear Fellow Administrator:

I am currently a small school superintendent and finishing my doctorate under the direction of Texas A & M University. I am investigating teacher-hiring practices of school districts over 500 with a minority student representation greater than 50%. I need your help by completing the short survey on the back and returning it to me, in the enclosed stamped envelope, by July 21.

By examining the best practices of hiring, and putting together a consensus of what works and what doesn't, I hope to formulate a policy template to assist districts wishing to implement diversity based procedures for recruitment. If you would like a copy of my findings please check the appropriate box on the survey.

There are no risks involved, participation is voluntary and you will not be identified. This research has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board, Texas A & M University. For research-related problems or questions regarding participant rights, the Institutional Review Board may be contacted through the IRB Coordinator, Office of Vice President for Research and Associate Provost for Graduate Studies at 409-845-1811.

Thank you for your participation and best wishes for the upcoming school year.

Sincerely,

Donna Alonzo

Educational Administration, 831-678-3524



APPENDIX C
SURVEY OF HUMAN RESOURCE ADMINISTRATORS

District Size	Community Type
<input type="checkbox"/> 50,000 and Over	<input type="checkbox"/> Major Urban
<input type="checkbox"/> 25,000 to 49,999	<input type="checkbox"/> Major Suburban
<input type="checkbox"/> 10,000 to 24,999	<input type="checkbox"/> Other Central City
<input type="checkbox"/> 5,000 to 9,999	<input type="checkbox"/> Other Central City Suburban
<input type="checkbox"/> 3,000 to 4,999	<input type="checkbox"/> Independent Town
<input type="checkbox"/> 1,600 to 2,999	<input type="checkbox"/> Non-Metro: Fast Growing
<input type="checkbox"/> 1,000 to 1,599	<input type="checkbox"/> Non-Metro: Stable
<input type="checkbox"/> 500 to 999	<input type="checkbox"/> Rural
	<input type="checkbox"/> Charter

Is the administrator responsible for teacher recruitment employed 100% for Human Resources?

Yes
 No
 There is no administrator responsible for teacher recruitment.

What is the administrator in charge of Human Resources title?

<input type="checkbox"/> Superintendent	<input type="checkbox"/> Associate Superintendent
<input type="checkbox"/> Assistant Superintendent	<input type="checkbox"/> Director
<input type="checkbox"/> Manager	<input type="checkbox"/> No title
<input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____	

Other than federal guidelines, does the district have a formal statement of intent to hire a diverse or reflective staff?

Yes
 No
 Unsure

PLEASE CHECK AS MANY AS ARE APPLICABLE

Teaching vacancies are posted in the following ways:

<input type="checkbox"/> Texas Education Agency Services	<input type="checkbox"/> Local Universities
<input type="checkbox"/> Statewide Universities	<input type="checkbox"/> National Universities
<input type="checkbox"/> Traditionally Minority Universities	<input type="checkbox"/> International Universities
<input type="checkbox"/> Professional Journals	<input type="checkbox"/> Local Newspapers
<input type="checkbox"/> Region Newspapers	<input type="checkbox"/> Major Statewide Newspapers
<input type="checkbox"/> National Newspapers	<input type="checkbox"/> International Publications
<input type="checkbox"/> District Recruitment Fair	<input type="checkbox"/> Region Recruitment Fair
<input type="checkbox"/> University Recruitment Fair	<input type="checkbox"/> National Recruitment Fair
<input type="checkbox"/> International Recruitment Fair	<input type="checkbox"/> Radio
<input type="checkbox"/> Television	<input type="checkbox"/> Billboard/Marquee
<input type="checkbox"/> District Web Site	<input type="checkbox"/> Internet Job Site
<input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____	

Send a copy of the findings to _____ School District.

VITA

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The typist for this dissertation was Mr. Bill A. Ashworth, Jr.