

THE BARRIERS, MOTIVATION, LIVED EXPERIENCES, AND RECRUITMENT AND
RETENTION OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN MALES IN K-12 EDUCATION: A
COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

by

BRIAN K. WALLEY

A CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of Doctor of Education in Educational
Leadership, Education Department
Delaware State University

DOVER, DELAWARE
May 2018

This case study is approved by the following members of the Final Oral Review Committee

Dr. Sae Yeol Yoon, Committee Chairperson, Department of Education,
Delaware State University

Dr. Nirmaljit Rathee, Committee Member, Department of Education, Delaware State University

Dr. Patricia Carlson, Committee Member, Department of Education, Delaware State University

Dr. Michele Ennis, External Committee Member, Department of Accounting and Legal Studies,
Salisbury University

© Brian K. Walley

All Rights Reserved

DEDICATION

This paper is dedicated to my wife, Tammy, who has been my biggest cheerleader and supporter throughout my educational process and throughout our more than 25 years of marriage. From helping me pay off my bachelor's degree student loans until now, you have always encouraged me to do what I want to do and to be what I want to be. Thank you for being so patient and understanding when I literally spent entire weekends working on and revising this paper. It is my hope and prayer that this sacrifice of time pays off in the end and I look forward to spending more "us" time with you in the very near future. This paper is also dedicated to my mother, Lois R. and my father, Ernest. Without your love, support, and belief in education, I do not know where I would be. I am thankful for you two and I am happy beyond words for you to see me become a Doctor in Education!

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my doctoral committee chair, Dr. Sae Yeol Yoon, for being such a great chair. Your ideas and insight have been invaluable throughout my paper. Because of you, I have a research paper that I am happy and excited to have written. You were always available when I needed help either in person or through email and, for that, I cannot thank you enough. I would also like to thank the other members of my committee: Dr. Nirmaljit Rathee, Dr. Patricia Carlson, and Dr. Michelle Ennis. Dr. Rathee, of my classes that I took during my pursuit of my master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction, your Human Growth and Development class was my favorite and I learned so much from you. Since I first met you, you have always been nothing but friendly, supportive, and kind to me. I will never ever forget you. Dr. Carlson, I have had classes with you since my master's degree and you have been so instrumental in helping me improve my writing. I still do not always get everything right, but, because of you, I get a lot less wrong than I used to. Dr. Ennis, I only had the Human Resources Management course with you, but you left a lasting impression with your kindness and honesty. I could easily relate to you and I knew that you were the first person I wanted to ask to be on my committee as an 'outside of DSU' member. In addition to my committee chair and my committee members, I cannot have an acknowledgment section without Dr. Richard Phillips. Dr. Phillips, I have had more classes with you than any other professor at Delaware State University. You have also helped me with my writing more than anyone throughout my master's and doctoral classes. I love how you have always been real with me and, even when I did not necessarily want to listen to or do what you suggested, in most cases, I ended up doing exactly what you suggested. I want to say thank you to Dr. Robert Martin. You listened to me and worked with me during my master's degree course drama and you fixed things so that I would not have to take any

additional classes to get my master's degree. Although you are no longer at Delaware State University, I must say a big thank you to Dr. Prince Attah. You were my very first taste of courses at the graduate level and you were always supportive and helpful. Thank you to Danielle Hicks for always being so kind and so professional throughout everything during my five years there. You always were helpful and friendly, and I knew that anything that I needed done was in good hands if you handled it. Audrey Erschen, principal, thank you for your support. Even though I am no longer at Providence Creek Academy, I thank you for always supporting me and for always believing in me. I also want to thank you for allowing me to get a glimpse of what your world is like by allowing me to work with you for my internship. Thank you, David Frederick and Lisa Morris, my principal and assistant principal at Beacon Middle School, for being supportive, friendly, and for having my back. You two make my job as a middle school math teacher that much easier. Thank you to my Beacon Middle School team: Brooke Couchman, Mark Tappan, and Dr. Laura Griffith. Having you three as team members has been great and the three of you help to keep me laughing, grounded, and sane. Thank you to my 2015 Cohort for helping me to stay focused, for being there when I needed someone to talk to, and for sending me samples of your work and providing me with guidance so that I had a better understanding of what I needed to do. Last, but not least, I would like to thank my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ for giving me the knowledge and strength to make it to the end of this process!

THE BARRIERS, MOTIVATION, LIVED EXPERIENCES, AND RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN MALES IN K-12 EDUCATION: A COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

Chairperson: Dr. Sae Yeol Yoon

ABSTRACT

The minority teacher shortage exists in all schools and 40% of public schools have no teachers of color. Even the high-poverty and urban schools, which employ a higher number of minority teachers, are still staffed with predominantly Caucasian female teachers. The purpose of this comparative case study analysis was to see how barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American males affect their presence in K-12 education.

This qualitative research study revealed that low pay and other career choices are barriers for African-American males who wish to enter K-12 education. Intrinsic motivation which includes the desire to be role models and the desire to help others were found to be motivators for African-American males who sought to be in K-12 education. Recruiting organizations, such as Call Me Mister, are in existence to help attract more African-American males into K-12 education. The lived experiences of African-American male teachers revealed that African-American males were absent yet needed in K-12 education and they suggested that, by improving the recruiting process and offering financial incentives, more African-American males would enter K-12 education.

The theoretical framework that drove this research was Critical Race Theory which is a theory that examines how race, racism, and power functions in the school systems. With reasons

why there are not more African-American male teachers ranging from negative K-12 experiences to high dropout rates, educational organizations need to have a more holistic approach to improving the presence of African-American males in K-12 education.

The conclusion drawn from this study is that the districts are failing to obtain qualified African-American male teachers. Furthermore, the school systems are going to need to change the current culture of education and they are going to need to change their recruiting efforts if they want to attract more African-American males to enter K-12 education.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION.....	1
Introduction to Research Topic.....	1
Background of the Problem	3
Purpose of the Study	6
Need for the Study	7
Significance of the Study	9
Research Questions	10
Theoretical Framework.....	11
Definition of Terms.....	13
Delimitations.....	14
Limitations	14
Relevance to Educational Leadership	14
Summary	16
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW	17
Introduction.....	17
History of African-American Males in Education.....	17
Brown v. Board of Education	19
Barriers to Entering the Teaching Profession	20
Motivation to Entering the Teaching Profession	29
African-American Teacher Recruitment and Retention	34
Lived Experiences of African-American Male Teachers	42
Summary	50
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY	51
Introduction.....	51
Study One: Description of Case.....	52
Study One: Research Questions.....	53
Study One: Methodology	53
Study One: Findings of the Study	54
Study One: Significance of Study.....	56
Study Two: Description of Case	57
Study Two: Research Questions	57
Study Two: Methodology	58

Study Two: Findings of the Study	59
Study Two: Significance of Study	61
Study Three: Description of Case	62
Study Three: Research Questions	62
Study Three: Methodology	63
Study Three: Findings of the Study	64
Study Three: Significance of Study	65
Summary	66
 CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS	 67
Introduction	67
Methodology	67
Methodology: Comparison and Analysis	70
Historical Overview	73
Historical Overview: Comparison and Analysis	76
Barriers	77
Barriers: Comparison and Analysis	83
Motivation	87
Motivation: Comparison and Analysis	89
Recruitment and Retention	90
Recruitment and Retention: Comparison and Analysis	94
Lived Experiences	95
Lived Experiences: Comparison and Analysis	99
Summary	100
 CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION	 103
Introduction	103
Barriers	103
Motivation	106
Recruitment and Retention	107
Lived Experiences	108
Implications of the Study	110
Relevance to Educational Leadership	111
Recommendations for Future Research	112
Conclusions	113
 REFERENCES	 116

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1	Differences in Passing Rates on Praxis I Tests by Race/Ethnicity Group23
Table 2	Summary of Passing Rates by Race/Ethnicity Group on Mathematics, Social Studies (SS), and English Praxis II Tests Among First-Time Test-Takers.....26
Table 3	Methodology Comparison and Analysis72

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1 Barriers Comparison and Analysis.....	86

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Research Topic

As K-12 school districts attempt to meet the needs of all students, many students of color, particularly African-American students, are falling behind. In the 2015 National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics and reading assessments, African-American students ranked at the bottom for meeting proficiency. In fact, most African-American students only scored at the basic level of mathematics and reading mastery. With state accountability for student learning being at the forefront of public education, and with the ever-increasing number of African-American students in today's classrooms, districts are tasked with finding a viable solution.

In 2014, the minority students became the majority in public education. As of 2014, more than 50% of public school students are African American, Hispanic, Asian, or another minority race. School districts in the United States claim to embrace diversity, yet, according to a report by the United States Department of Education, 82% of the teaching force is comprised of Caucasian teachers, while only 7% of the teaching force is comprised of African-American teachers (United States Department of Education, 2016). Even worse, "African-American male teachers make up just 2 percent of the educator workforce" (Camera, 2016, para. 1).

African-American male teachers can play many roles. Several of these roles are: a role model (Gershenson, Lindsay, Hart, & Papageorge, 2017), a warm demander (Neesen, 2017), and someone who can help to dispel African-American stereotypes (Walker, 2016). These African-American male teachers are needed to help combat the alarmingly high dropout rates of African-American male students. Only 60% of African-American males are expected to earn a high

school diploma with 40% of African-American males dropping out before graduation (Williams, 2015).

During the Civil Rights Movement, approximately sixty years ago, there were only two employment possibilities for college-educated African Americans: teaching and ministry. In 1890, African-American males comprised slightly less than half of the African-American teachers in the United States. Twenty years later, only one-third of African-American teachers were male. By 1960, only 16% of African-American teachers were male. This decline has continued from the 1970s and it continues to this day (Jones-Wilson et al., 1996).

Perkins (2011), Hawkins (2015), Preston (2016), and many other researchers have stated that many more African-American male teachers are needed in the classroom. However; the fact that only two percent of teachers in the United States are African-American men means that there are serious issues obtaining these teachers. These problems could stem from issues African-American men had during their own K-12 experiences. For instance, “forty-two percent of Black students attend schools that are under-resourced and performing poorly [and] Black boys are three times more likely to be suspended or expelled from school than their White peers” (Focus on Blacks, 2011, pg. 1). The K-12 schooling experiences of African-American men could explain their dismal four-year college graduation rates. “At four-year institutions, black men completed their degrees at the lowest rate (40 percent)” (Tate, 2017, para. 8).

Clearly, there are barriers that exist that prevent or deter African-American men from entering the profession. Fortunately, there are also motivating factors that encourage African-American men to pursue teaching as a career. With many African-American boys being viewed as disruptive or trouble-makers, many African-American men seek careers as teachers so that these students can have someone who not only looks like them, but who can serve as a mentor

and a role model. “In a system that has too often viewed black males negatively, these students especially need educational role models to help guide them” (Preston, 2016, p. 6). Bristol (2014) found that about 63 percent of his study’s participants had a positive experience with a teacher in their high school, college, or other programs which influenced their decision to enter the profession.

Recruitment and Retention of African-American male teachers has been in effect for years now. According to a study by Villegas, Strom, and Lucas (2012), a total of 31 states have adopted legislation geared towards recruiting minority teachers. There are strategies to encourage prospective African-American men to enter the profession including financial incentives such as scholarships and loan forgiveness. Unfortunately, African-American teachers are typically placed in ‘hard-to-staff’ schools and, as a result, they leave due to poor working conditions.

There are many factors that influence African-American men to enter the teaching profession. There are also many factors that influence the decision of African-American men to remain in or leave the profession. This comparative case study analysis will examine the barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education.

Background of the Problem

According to *Black Lives Matter*, a 50-state report on the public education of African-American males, African-American male students “were at the bottom of four-year high school graduation rates in 35 of the 48 states and the District of Columbia” (Schott Foundation for Public Education, 2015, p. 2). Furthermore, less than half of African-American male students

graduate on time and they are three times more likely to be expelled or suspended from school than their Caucasian peers (2025 Campaign for Black Men and Boys, 2010).

Data released from the U.S. Department of Education showed that “while 6% of all students received one or more out-of-school suspensions in the 2013-2014 school year, the percentage was 18% for African-American boys and 10% for African-American girls” (Toppo, 2016, para. 6) compared to only five percent for Caucasian boys and two percent for Caucasian girls.

Data released from the U.S. Department of Education also showed that African-American students were more likely to have novice teachers. Eleven percent of African-American students attended schools where more than twenty percent of their teachers were entering their first year on the job. By comparison, just five percent of Caucasian students attended schools where there were novice teachers entering their first year on the job (Toppo, 2016).

Looking at national Smarter Balanced assessment English Language Arts (ELA) data from the 2014-2015 school year, African-American students barely outperformed only American Indian or Alaska Native students on the Smarter Balanced ELA assessment for grades three through eight; however, during the high school assessment given in grade eleven, African-American students scored lower than all other races.

In a head-to-head comparison of data between African-American students and Caucasian students for the Smarter Balanced ELA assessment, Caucasian students scored much higher than African-American students in all tested grades. In grade three, African-American students had 25.1% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 55.9% of Caucasian students. In grade four, African-American students had 25.4% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 56.7% of Caucasian students. In grade five, African-American students had 29.1% who scored

at or above proficiency compared to 61.1% Caucasian students. In grade six, African-American students had 26.8% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 56.4% Caucasian students. In grade seven, African-American students had 27.8% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 59.0% Caucasian students. In grade eight, African-American students had 29.2% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 59.3% Caucasian students. In grade eleven which showed the highest proficiency level for African-American students, 40.5% scored at or above proficiency compared to 67.2% Caucasian.

The achievement gap between African-American and Caucasian students was over 30% in the following grades: three, four, five, seven, and eight. The smallest achievement gap was in grade eleven where African-American students were still 26.7% less proficient than their Caucasian counterparts.

Looking at national Smarter Balanced Mathematics data from the 2014-2015 school year, African-American students scored lower than all other races. While they did outperform American Indian or Alaska Native students on the ELA assessment for grades three through eight, African-American students scored lower than all races for all grades on the Smarter Balanced Mathematics assessment.

In a head-to-head comparison of data between African-American students and Caucasian students for the Smarter Balanced Mathematics assessment, Caucasian students scored over 30% higher than African-American students in all tested grades except for grade eleven where the gap was still over 20%. In grade three, African-American students had 24.2% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 57.7% of Caucasian students. In grade four, African-American students had 19.3% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 52.5% of Caucasian students. In grade five, African-American students had 14.7% who scored at or above

proficiency compared to 46.5% Caucasian students. In grade six, African-American students had 15.8% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 46.1% Caucasian students. In grade seven, African-American students had 16.6% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 48.0% Caucasian students. In grade eight, African-American students had 15.6% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 45.8% Caucasian students. In grade eleven, African-American students had 13.4% who scored at or above proficiency compared to 37.2% Caucasian students.

The achievement gap between African-American and Caucasian students was over 30% in the following grades: three, four, five, six, seven, and eight. The smallest achievement gap was in grade eleven where African-American students were still 23.8% less proficient than their Caucasian counterparts.

The good news is that, by grade eleven, African-American students are closer to Caucasian students in both the Smarter Balanced ELA and Smarter Balanced Mathematics assessments. The bad news is that, even by grade eleven, the achievement gap for both assessments is still over twenty percent.

As a direct result of the data on African-American students which include high dropout rates, high suspension and expulsion rates, and low achievement scores, more data need to be collected on African-American male teachers to help determine what deters or attracts them to enter and remain in the teaching profession (Smarter Balanced 2014-2015 Technical Report, 2016).

Purpose of the Study

Currently, only approximately two percent of all public education school teachers are African-American males. Children of color are now the majority in public schools nationwide. Because of school populations becoming more diverse than ever, an increase in the amount of

African-American male teachers is critical for the success of all students and particularly African-American male students. The purpose of this comparative case study analysis is to see how barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American males affect their presence in K-12 education.

Need for the Study

In 2010, the U.S. Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan, launched a national teacher initiative, Teach.gov., to address the lack of diversity in the teaching force.

I'm very concerned that increasingly, our teachers don't reflect the great diversity of our nation's young people, and so making sure we have more teachers of color and particularly more men, more black and Latino men, coming into education is going to be a significant part of this Teach Campaign. (Bireda & Chait, 2011, p. 1)

The minority teacher shortage is not limited to any one type of school and there are no teachers of color in over 40 percent of public schools. Even in high-poverty and urban schools where there are more minority teachers employed, the teachers are still predominantly Caucasian females. The low number of African-American male teachers could also mean that few African-American males pursue a teaching career. The low number of African-American male teachers could also mean that there are few candidates with the qualifications and skills necessary to enter the profession.

Increasing the number of teachers of color, especially African-American male teachers, could be instrumental in increasing the number of African-American male teachers in the future. "While there are effective teachers of many races, teachers of color have demonstrated success in increasing academic achievement for engaging students of similar backgrounds" (Bireda & Chait, 2011, p. 2).

Teaching recruitment and retention initiatives need to find ways to increase not only the hiring of African-American male teachers, but they must also prepare these prospective teachers

to be able to successfully and effectively enter the teaching profession. “Finely tuned recruitment efforts that seek teachers who are likely to succeed and provide support while in the classroom, even in challenging schools, can help in increasing retention” (Bireda & Chait, 2011, p. 3).

Recruitment and retention efforts are extremely critical to attract African-American males into the teaching profession, but they are not the only factors that need to be examined while trying to increase the presence of African-American male teachers. In addition to examining recruitment and retention efforts, motivation to teach must also be examined. Some of the reasons why African-American males enter the profession are to help others (Williams, 2012), to be role models (Gershenson, Lindsay, Hart, & Papageorge, 2017), to dispel African-American stereotypes (Walker, 2016), to increase the achievement of African-American students (Bireda & Chait, 2011), and to address and combat oppression and racism (Su, 1997).

Barriers to African-American males entering the teaching profession must also be examined. Many issues prevent or deter African-American males from teaching which forces them to seek alternative careers. Some reasons why African-American males do not enter the profession include low starting salaries, a lack of eligible candidates able to meet the minimal teaching requirements for certification (Williams, 2012), social isolation, being feared, and being placed in low-performing schools with poor working conditions (Bristol, 2014).

The lived experiences of African-American teachers must also be examined so that school districts and school leaders can better understand why this scarcity of African-American male teachers exists. Through the words of these African-American male teachers, these school districts and school leaders can hear, first hand, what barriers, motivations, and experiences these

teachers had that made them want to enter the profession or made them want to leave the profession.

While there is some research that covers the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers, there is still much to learn. This comparative case study analysis seeks to examine and analyze barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American in K-12 education.

Significance of the Study

The purpose of this comparative case study analysis is to examine barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education.

Academic achievement is at the forefront of reasons why increasing the number of African-American male teachers is critical to the success of our African-American male students. African-American students, particularly African-American male students, score at the bottom in terms of test scores, grade point average, and graduation rates; however, research has shown that students achieve at higher levels when they are taught by a teacher of the same race (Irvine, 2002).

When examining the 2013 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) data, it becomes clearer why there is a great need for more African-American male teachers.

When analyzing data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) it becomes apparent that Black students and especially Black males trail both their White and Latino peers. White males outperform Black males in reading by 26 percentage points, 32 percentage points in mathematics, and 36 percentage points in science. (Sanzone et al., 2014, p. 15)

Nationally, 38% of 8th grade Caucasian males scored at or above proficiency on the NAEP assessment in reading compared to 12% of 8th grade African American males. In

mathematics, 45% of 8th grade Caucasian males scored at or above proficiency compared to 13% of 8th grade African-American males. In science, 45% of 8th grade Caucasian males scored at or above proficiency compared to 10% of 8th grade African-American males (Sanzone et al., 2014).

While having access to higher levels of educational opportunities is crucial to the success and achievement of students, African-American students are less likely than Caucasian students to attend schools which offer more rigorous courses and the Advanced Placement (AP) courses.

Having African-American male teachers in the classroom can help to give African-American male students more opportunities to achieve at the levels of their Caucasian counterparts. Therefore, by examining barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and the lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education, schools, districts, and educational leaders will have access to data that will help them determine what needs to be implemented and improved in the current educational system to attract and retain African-American male teachers in K-12 education. Educational leaders will also have the information that they will need to examine the recruitment and retention process to better understand when and where they should begin the recruiting efforts of African-American males.

Research Questions

The current comparative case study analysis of African-American male in K-12 education attempts to answer four research questions. The research questions for this study are:

RQ1: What barriers prevent African-American males from becoming K-12 education teachers?

RQ2: What motivates African-American males to become K-12 education teachers?

RQ3: What can be done to improve the recruitment and retention of African-American males in K-12 education?

RQ4: What are the lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education?

Theoretical Framework

The purpose of this comparative case study analysis is to see how barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American males affect their presence in K-12 education. The current study examines the absence of African-American males in K-12 education by gaining an understanding of what experiences attract or deter more African-American males from entering the profession.

Delgado and Stefancic (2001) acknowledged that Derrick Bell and Alan Freeman presented the Critical Race Theory (CRT) after the Civil Rights Movement as a response to sluggish pacing of the racial reform. The CRT, drawn from the literature that encompasses sociology, law, ethnic studies, history, and women's studies, illustrates the unbalanced racial distribution of privilege and power in the United States (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Bell, 2004; Yosso, Parker, Solórzano, & Lynn, 2004).

The CRT explores how racism, race, and power operate in the school systems in the United States by exploring how education practice and theory are used to suppress a certain ethnic group or race (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001).

Solórzano and Yosso (2002) defined CRT in the educational field as:

“A framework or set of basic perspectives, methods and pedagogy that seeks to identify, analyze, and transform those structural, cultural, and interpersonal aspects of education that maintain the marginal position and subordination of African-American and Latino students” (p. 42). The CRT seeks to understand what roles schools, school structures, and school processes play in the sustenance of ethnic, racial, and gender subordination.

The CRT provides a framework that allows researchers, in the field of education, to not only understand but to improve upon the systemic educational platform that is operating in schools. The current systemic educational platform has hindered equal educational opportunities, equal education resources, and it has also hindered academic growth and achievement for African-American male students. The CRT provides an educational framework to lead to the understanding of the barriers, motivators, lived experiences of African-American male teachers as they pertain to their recruitment and retention in K-12 education (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002).

The CRT was used in the current study to better understand why there is an absence of African-American teachers in K-12 education. Delgado and Stefancic (2001) believed that a platform was needed where people of color could show their lived experiences with racism. Delgado and Stefancic stated that counter storytelling was a method to give a voice to the minority that might cast doubt as to the validity of premises that were established by the majority.

The educational leadership theory that could be used along with the CRT is Instructional Leadership. “Effective school leadership today must combine the traditional school leadership duties such as teacher evaluation, budgeting, scheduling, and facilities maintenance with a deep involvement with specific aspects of teaching and learning” (U.S. Department of Education, 2005). Instructional leaders are often involved in instructional and curricular issues that affect student achievement (Cotton, 2003). As instructional leaders, school administrators can guide their teachers to become culturally sensitive to the needs of its students, particularly its African-American male students. Additionally, these instructional leaders could mentor their teachers by entering the classroom and showing novice teachers, especially African-American male teachers,

how these teachers can make connections with their African-American male students. These connections could help to make these teachers much needed role models for African-American male students, which could lead to an increase in student engagement, student achievement, and student growth.

There are few studies that examine the teaching experiences of African-American. The CRT educational framework (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002) could lead educational leaders into a better understanding of the barriers, motivators, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers as they pertain to their recruitment and retention in K-12 education.

Definition of Terms

During this study, to explore the barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American males in K-12 education, there were several terms that were often used. The following is a listing of terms frequently used in this study:

Achievement Gap - The “achievement gap” in education refers to the disparity in academic performance between groups of students. This term is often used to describe the performance gaps between African-American males, who are at the lowest end of the scale, and their Caucasian peers. The achievement gap shows up in grades, course selection, standardized assessments, dropout rates, and college completion rates (Education Week, 2011).

African-American/Black – These interchangeable terms both refer to individuals of an American of African and especially of Black African descent (Merriam-Webster, 2017)

Caucasian/White – These interchangeable terms both refer to a race of humankind native to Europe, North Africa, and southwest Asia and classified according to physical features – used especially in referring to persons of European descent having usually light skin pigmentation (Merriam-Webster, 2017).

Every Study Succeeds Act – the current incarnation of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, created in 1965, which is aimed at decreasing the achievement gap between races and the rich and poor (National Education Association, 2002).

Delimitations

Delimitations are the characteristics that limit the scope and determine the boundaries of the study (Simon, 2011). A delimitation of this study is that the researcher has chosen to target male teachers for this study as opposed to male and female teachers. Another delimitation of this study is that the researcher has chosen to target African-American male teachers as opposed to all male teachers. This was done intentionally to specifically get the African-American males' perspective on the barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American males in K-12 education.

Limitations

Limitations are potential weaknesses of a study that are out of the control of the researcher (Simon, 2011). A limitation of this qualitative comparative case study analysis is that it will be carried out using the ex-post facto data of three previous studies and, therefore, does not contain any current data. Another limitation of a comparative case study is that, due to using ex-post facto data, there is no way to see if the results of the previous studies could be duplicated in this study. Due to the nature of qualitative studies which have small sample sizes, the findings of this study may not be generalizable.

Relevance to Educational Leadership

Many research studies have been conducted on the recruitment and retention of teachers in K-12 education. Unfortunately, most of these studies have been conducted using Caucasian participants or they have been performed using all races and sexes. There are even fewer

research studies that examine barriers, motivation, and the lived experiences of African-American male teachers. This comparative case study analysis will focus on barriers, motivation, and the lived experiences of African-American male teachers as they pertain to the recruitment and retention of African-American male teachers. This research will help schools, districts, administrators, and other educational leaders gain a better understanding of what issues currently exist in hiring and retaining this specific group of teachers.

While there has been an increased effort to recruit and retain teachers of color, particularly African-American male teachers, the recruiting organizations and school districts need to understand the barriers that have kept, and continue to keep, African-American male teachers from the profession. Recruiting organizations and school districts would also benefit from better understanding what motivates African-American males so that they can do a better job meeting these extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. In addition, hearing the lived experiences of African-American male teachers is crucial to improving the recruitment efforts of organizations and school districts tasked with increasing the presence of African-American male teachers in K-12 public schools. This comparative case study analysis could aid the organizations and districts by giving them the information that they need to improve their practices pertaining to African-American male teacher candidates.

This comparative case study analysis will have a significant impact because it will allow the teacher recruiting organizations, schools, districts, and administrators to better understand what they need to improve and address to attract and retain K-12 African-American male teachers.

Summary

Although a majority population in today's public schools is now comprised of minority students (Camera, 2016), and although African-American male students are more likely to have novice teachers (Toppo, 2016), and continuously score at the bottom of academic achievement tests (Smarter Balanced 2014-2015 Technical Report, 2016), only two percent of the current teaching force is comprised of African-American male teachers (Camera, 2016). This comparative case study analysis examines the barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education.

Chapter I contained an introduction, background of the problem, purpose of the study, need for the study, significance of the study, and relevance to educational leadership. Chapter II contains the literature review and it provides both historical and current literature pertaining to the barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this comparative case study analysis is to see how barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers affect the recruitment and retention efforts of prospective African-American male teachers. The purpose of this literature review is to present studies that were related to and support this comparative case study analysis. This literature review will address how barriers keep prospective African-American males from the teaching profession, how motivation draws prospective African-American males into the teaching profession, and how lived experiences of African-American teachers influences what current teacher education programs do to recruit and retain prospective African-American males.

History of African-American Males in Education

In the time before the Civil War, African-Americans were not given access to higher education. African-Americans, who did get schooling, typically got this in an informal setting. In 1837, the Institute for Colored Youth (now known as Cheyney University of Pennsylvania) was established by a Philadelphia Quakers group (Allen & Jewell, 2002). There was also limited access for African-Americans to get a college education at schools such a Berea College located in Kentucky and Oberlin College located in Ohio (Peatross, 2011).

After the Civil War, with the Thirteenth Amendment's abolition of slavery, the education of African-Americans changed. In the late 1800s, there was a movement to improve higher education with an emphasis on teaching, agriculture, applied sciences, and engineering. "The Morrill Land-Grant Act gave federal lands to the states for the purpose of opening colleges and universities to educate farmers, scientists, and teachers" (Peatross, 2011, p. 19). Unfortunately for African-Americans, only a select few of these higher-learning institutions opened their doors for

them. Twenty-eight years later, with the adoption of the Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1890, states that received federal land grant money had to either open their schools to African-Americans or they had to allocate money for the creation of African-American colleges. As a result, there were sixteen African-American institutions that received Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1890 funds (Jones, 1974).

In 1865, after the conclusion of the Civil War, African-Americans were granted permission to attend public schools in the south; however, many Caucasians were unhappy with this decision. These southern Caucasians believed that the freedom and education of African-Americans would “upset the equilibrium of Southern society by teaching dangerous and subversive ideas to the ex-slaves” (Brazzell, 2002, p. 28). Furthermore, most Southerners did not believe African-Americans were equal to Caucasians.

Between 1861 and 1870, the American Missionary Association (AMA) founded 7 black colleges and 13 normal (teaching) schools. Many of these institutions became the backbone of black higher education, producing African-American leaders for generations to come (Franklin, 1980). Prior to the mid-1800s, it was the support of the AMA, the Freedmen’s Bureau, and African-Americans themselves that was responsible for establishing colleges and universities for African-American people. (Peatross, 2011, p. 20)

During the 30-year span from 1864 to 1894, a total of 37 colleges/universities were established due to the increase in the number of African-Americans seeking higher education and due to the reality that many private and public colleges or universities still would not allow more than a few African-American students into their institutions. Currently, there are 107 African-American colleges/universities in existence.

In the 1940s and during World War II, African-Americans were granted the opportunity to enter technical fields that were previously denied to them due to racial discrimination. During this time, African-Americans who completed physics or engineering degrees were limited to preaching, teaching, or the medical and legal professions.

Before the Civil Rights Movement, professional career opportunities for African-American men were limited to teaching in black-only schools (Peatross, 2011). It was not until the 1970s that many African-Americans chose education as their profession (Jaynes & Williams, 1989).

Brown v. Board of Education

Brown v. Board of Education (1954), now acknowledged as one of the greatest Supreme Court decisions of the 20th century, unanimously held that the racial segregation of children in public schools violated the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. Although the decision did not succeed in fully desegregating public education in the United States, it put the Constitution on the side of racial equality and galvanized the nascent Civil Rights Movement into a full revolution. (McBride, 2007, para. 1)

Since the 1970s, the minority public school enrollment has risen to the point where the minority population is now the majority population in public schools. (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017). While the trends in public education mirror the United States demographics, this has not been matched by similar increases in minority teachers. Less than 20% of the teaching force is comprised of minority teachers and “an overwhelmingly White teaching force is working with a majority non-White student population” (Cherng & Halpin, 2016, p. 407).

Many studies examine the disproportionality of minority teachers to minority students and this disproportionality has been attributed to dissatisfaction with the teaching profession, growing opportunities to pursue careers in other fields, and other factors; “however, frequently lost in the debate surrounding teacher diversity is the 1954 Brown v. Board of Education decision, wherein schools were mandated to desegregate the student body, but the law did not protect the jobs of black teachers and administrators” (Oakley, Stowell, & Logan, 2009, p. 2).

Brown v. Board of Education was a step forward for equal education for African-American students. An unintended consequence, however, was that many African-American teachers lost their jobs.

Following Brown, 38,000 black teachers and administrators in twenty-one southern and southern bordering states lost their jobs. Official language concerning black-teacher retention was included in neither the Civil Rights Act of 1964 nor the subsequent federal desegregation guidelines of 1966. In the 1970s and 1980s, further reduction of black educators occurred as more desegregation orders were enacted and new teacher-certification requirements [were] imposed. It is possible that the systematic policies and practices stemming from Brown that led to fewer black teachers may have had an institutional impact that became embedded in the public-school bureaucracy. (Oakley et al., 2009, p. 2)

Barriers to Entering the Teaching Profession

What prevents African-American males from entering the teaching profession? What have other African-American teachers said contributes to the low percentage of African-American teachers in today's classroom?

In a qualitative phenomenological study by Peatross (2011), he questioned seven African-American male participants on their beliefs on the barriers that prevent African-American males from entering the teaching profession.

Peatross found that all seven participants believed that the greatest barrier for African-American males was the low pay. In his research study, Teacher 4, he had this to say:

I believe that they feel that the pay is low. There's not a status in being a teacher. It is what is it. I think once they move on, they want to feel that they're going something that's more lucrative and where someone is going to say that their job is more important than just being a teacher (Peatross, 2011, p. 86).

In a research study by Allegretto and Mishel (2016), they found that teachers' pay has continued to fall further behind the pay of other comparable jobs. They also had these other findings:

- Average weekly wages (adjusted for inflation) for public school teachers decreased \$30 per weekly from 1996 to 2015, from \$1,122 to \$1,092 (in 2015 dollars) whereas weekly wages for all college graduates rose from \$1,292 to \$1,416 over this period.
- For public school teachers, the relative wage gap (regression adjusted for experience, education, and other factors) has increased significantly since 1994: It was -1.8 percent in 1994 and it grew to -17.0 percent in 2015.
- While the relative wage gap grew -13.9 percent for female teachers, the wage penalty for male teachers is greater. Male teachers had a -22.1 percent gap in 1979 which improved to -15.0 percent in the 2000's; however, as of 2015, the wage gap stood at -24.9 percent.
- The wage gap has fallen more heavily on the experienced teachers with a relative wage gap that was at a 1.9% advantage in 1996 to a 17.8% penalty in 2015.
- Collective Bargaining from being a union member helps to abate the teacher wage gap as teachers who were not union members had a -25.5 percent wage gap compared to a -19.5 percent wage gap for union members. (Allegretto & Mishel, 2016, p.4)

With the increasing pressure from the federal, state, and local governments to improve state assessment scores in reading, math, science, and social studies, “anti-affirmative-action legislation makes it harder to recruit male minorities in the teaching field” (Lewis, 2013, p. 23). The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 has caused enormous stress and pressure for many teachers. As public-school districts try improving their state assessment scores, the education standards are becoming higher at all grade levels. “The United States Department of Education (2012) found that 52% of public school teachers in 2008 possessed a master’s or higher degree (para. 3). Stringent requirements under NCLB could intimidate minority and male

candidates” (Lewis, 2013, p. 23). Although NCLB requires teachers to be ‘highly qualified’ in the subjects that they teach, salaries and working conditions have not improved for teachers.

Futrell (1999) argued that the greatest barrier to recruiting more minority men is their lack of academic preparation. African-American students are less likely to be placed in gifted and talented programs at the elementary level or in advanced-placement courses at the high school level. Even when African-American male students are capable of higher-level classwork, few schools will place them into these programs. “Instead, minority male students are overrepresented in vocational or special-education classes and underrepresented in gifted or academically advanced classes. Hence, minority men start out from a disadvantaged position” (Lewis, 2013, pp. 23-24).

In a 2011 research study by Nettles, Scatton, Steinberg, and Tyler, they found that the percentage of African-American first-time test-takers who passed the Praxis I assessment was less than half the success rate of the percentage of Caucasian first-time test-takers who passed the Praxis I assessment for reading and mathematics. The Praxis I assessment is a “general skills tests in reading, writing, and mathematics” (Nettles, Scatton, Steinberg, & Tyler, 2011, p. 4). The Praxis I is an assessment that all prospective teachers must pass to become a certified teacher. The percentage of African-American first-time test-takers who passed the Praxis I assessment was 40.8 percentage points lower than the percentage of Caucasian first-time test-takers who passed the Praxis I assessment for reading. The percentage of African-American first-time test-takers who passed the Praxis I assessment was 35.3 percentage points lower than the percentage of Caucasian first-time test-takers who passed the Praxis I assessment for writing. The percentage of African-American first-time test-takers who passed the Praxis I assessment was 41.4% percentage points lower than the percentage of Caucasian first-time test-takers who

passed the Praxis I assessment for mathematics. The percentage of first-time African-American test-takers who passed reading was 40.7% compared to 81.5% of first-time Caucasian test-takers. The percentage of first-time African-American test-takers who passed writing was 44.2% compared to 79.5% of first-time Caucasian test-takers. The percentage of first-time African-American test-takers who passed mathematics was 36.8% compared to 78.2% of first-time Caucasian test takers. These data “shows that African-American first-time test-takers had a significantly lower pass rate than White first-time test-takers on each Praxis I exam. The Praxis I Mathematics exam, which had the largest score gap, also had the largest gap in pass rate” (Nettles et al., 2011, p. 9).

Table 1

Differences in Passing Rates on Praxis I Tests by Race/Ethnicity Group

	Reading	Writing	Mathematics
Percentage of first-time African American test-takers who passed	40.7	44.2	36.8
Percentage of first-time White test-takers who passed	81.5	79.5	78.2

Note. Data from Nettles et al. (2011, p.9)

The Praxis II is a content-specific test that all teachers must pass to teach specific content such as middle or high school mathematics, English Language Arts (ELA), social studies, or science. Teachers must pass this assessment in most states as one component to obtaining the Highly Qualified Teacher (HQT) status that is necessary to remain a teacher in these as well as many other content areas. Additional components for obtaining the HQT status are having a minimum of a bachelor’s degree and having a valid state certification.

The results of the Praxis II middle school mathematics assessment showed that, overall, 48.2% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment compared to 80.0% of

first-time Caucasian test-takers. When comparing African-American and Caucasian middle school mathematics education majors, the results showed that 59.1% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment compared to 90.9% of first-time Caucasian test-takers. Comparing African-American and Caucasian middle school mathematics majors, 59.0% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment compared to 89.3% of first-time Caucasian test-takers (Nettles et al., 2011, p 34).

The results of the Praxis II mathematics content knowledge (high school) assessment showed that, overall, 25.3% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment compared to 72.6% of first-time Caucasian test takers. When comparing African-American and Caucasian high school mathematics education majors, the results showed that 34.6% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment compared to 83.1% of first-time Caucasian test-takers. Comparing African-American and Caucasian high school mathematics majors, 36.1% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment compared to 82.1% of first-time Caucasian test-takers (Nettles et al., 2014, p. 34).

The results of the Praxis II social studies content knowledge (high school) assessment showed that, overall, 47.6% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment compared to 83.9% of first-time Caucasian test-takers. When comparing African-American and Caucasian high school social studies education majors, the results showed that 54.5% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment compared to 86.3% of first-time Caucasian test-takers. Comparing African-American and Caucasian high school social studies majors, 45.5% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment compared to 81.7% of first-time Caucasian test-takers. Comparing African-American and Caucasian high school history majors, 52.8% of first-time African-American test-takers passed the assessment

compared to 85.3% of first-time Caucasian test-takers. Comparing African-American and Caucasian high school political science majors, 56.6% of African-American first-time test-takers passed the assessment compared to 90.7% of first-time Caucasian test-takers (Nettles et al., 2014, p. 34).

Similar to the results of the Praxis I, African-American first-time test-takers had significant pass rate gaps when their results were compared to their Caucasian counterparts. The smallest gap found was between African-American and Caucasian middle school mathematics majors which was a gap of 30.3%. The greatest gap found was between African-American and Caucasian high school mathematics education majors which was a gap of 48.5% (Nettles et al., 2011, p. 34). Clearly, the data show that a major barrier for African-Americans is with trying to pass the Praxis I and Praxis II assessments which are partial requirements for licensure, certification, and HQT status.

Table 2

Summary of Passing Rates by Race/Ethnicity Group on Mathematics, Social Studies (SS), and English Praxis II Tests Among First-Time Test-Takers

	White		African American		Pass rate gap
	Total N	% pass	Total N	% pass	
Middle school math overall	28,059	80.0	2,850	48.2	-31.8
MS math - math ed. majors	715	90.9	93	59.1	-31.8
MS math - math majors	782	89.3	268	59.0	-30.3
Mathematics: CK overall	21,440	72.6	2,347	25.3	-47.3
Math CK - math ed. majors	5,393	83.1	286	34.6	-48.5
Math CK - math majors	4,995	82.1	543	36.1	-46.0
Social studies: CK overall	29,853	83.9	2,153	47.6	-36.3
SS CK - social studies ed. majors	6,701	86.3	292	54.5	-31.8
SS CK - social studies majors	2,128	81.7	121	45.5	-36.2
SS CK - history majors	8,963	85.3	540	52.8	-32.5
SS CK - political science majors	1,579	90.7	219	56.6	-34.1
English: CK overall	34,628	88.7	3,226	46.4	-42.3
English - English ed. majors	6,748	91.4	459	51.6	-39.8
English - English majors	12,718	90.7	1,195	51.0	-39.7

Note. Data from Nettles et al. (2011, p. 34), CK = content knowledge, MS = middle school, SS = social studies, Pass rate gap = the gap in passing rates between African American and White candidates (AA – W).

Futrell (1999) also argued that minority males are more likely to go to school in poorer school districts that do not have the funding to hire certified and qualified teachers. As a result, these minority men who attended these schools fail to acquire the academic skills and knowledge necessary for them to be successful at the college level of education. “Poor academic preparation means minority students will not do as well on entry tests to college or meet the requirements for state teacher certification. An increase of African-American teachers within these schools could help motivate young minority students” (Lewis, 2013, p. 24).

In the Schott Foundation’s 50-State Report on Public Education’s from 2012, there were the following findings:

- Forty-two percent of African-American students attend schools that are performing poorly and that are lacking necessary resources.

- African-American boys are three times more likely to be suspended than their Caucasian counterparts, which cause them to miss valuable class instruction time.
- African-American and Hispanic boys comprise approximately eighty percent of the special education population.
- African-American boys are two-and-a-half times less likely to be placed into gifted and talented programs even if their prior academic achievement supports their ability to do so.
- Although African-American boys only nine percent of the student population, they make up twenty percent of students classified as mentally retarded.
- Twenty-eight percent of core academic predominantly minority schools do not have adequate certification.
- Less than half of African-American boys graduate from high school on time, although many of them do later earn a General Education Diploma.
- In 2008, 4.6 million African-American males entered college but only half of them graduated. Nationally, only eleven percent of African-American males graduate from college with a bachelor's degree. (Schott Foundation, 2012)

In a 2010 study by Darensbourg, Perez, and Blake, they state the following:

African-American males are at increased risk for experiencing disciplinary practices that exclude them from the school environment. It is believed that African-American males' overrepresentation in the receipt of these practices contributes to their involvement in the criminal justice system as they approach adolescence and enter adulthood. (Darensbourg, Perez, & Blake, 2010, p. 196)

As of the time of their study, they found that while only 12.4% of the United States' population is comprised of African-American men, 35% of state and federal prisoners were African-American men. Furthermore, African-American men are three times more likely to be

sent to prison than the non-African-American males. Additional facts about African-Americans in the prison pipeline are as follows:

- Fifty-two percent of African-American males who do not receive a high school diploma have been incarcerated at least once by the time they reach the age of 30.
- Sixty-eight percent of African-American male prisoners did not graduate from high school.
- Thirty-five percent of African-American male prisoners reported behavior, academic disinterest, and academic failure as the main reasons for not obtaining their high school diploma. (Darensbourg et al., 2010, p. 197)

“These statistics suggest that issues within the educational system may offer one explanation for understanding the overrepresentation of African-American males in the United States justice system” (Darensbourg et al., 2010, p. 197). As a direct result of the overrepresentation of African-American males in the United States justice system, this accounts for one of many reasons why there is an underrepresentation of African-American males in the education profession.

With approximately 80% of the education force being composed of Caucasian females, it is not surprised that racial and gender biases exist pertaining to the treatment of African-American boys. “Research shows that African-American students, and especially African-American boys, are disciplined more often and receive more out-of-school suspensions and expulsions than White students” (Rudd, 2014, p. 1).

Research suggests that African-American students as early as five years old are suspended or expelled for minor infractions such as writing on their desks or talking back to their teachers. A study by the Indiana Education Policy Center found the following:

Although discriminant analysis suggests that disproportionate rates of office referral and suspension for boys are due to increased rates of misbehavior, no support was found for the hypothesis that African-American students act out more than other students. Rather, African-American students appear to be referred to the office for less serious and more subjective reasons. Coupled with extensive and highly consistent prior data, these results argue that disproportionate representation of African-Americans in office referrals, suspensions and expulsion is evidence of a pervasive and systematic bias that may will be inherent in the use of exclusionary discipline. (Rudd, 2014, p. 2)

‘Implicit bias’, which is defined as the mental process that causes a person to have negative attitudes and feelings about someone based on their characteristics, race, ethnicity, age, or appearance, is what is believed to be the contributing factor as to the cause of racial disproportionality in school discipline. Having a greater presence of African-American male teachers in the classroom would help to offset this implicit bias and it would help to offset the disproportionate amount of suspensions and expulsions that African-American students, particularly African-American boys receive.

Motivation to Entering the Teaching Profession

Maslow (1970) was a key contributor in the development of human psychology and he created the Theory of the Hierarchy of Needs. His theory proposes that there is a hierarchy of needs made up of lower-order (extrinsic) needs which are physiological or life-sustaining and security or safety needs. The higher-order (intrinsic) needs are esteem, social, and self-actualization.

Maslow (1970) states that needs are not single determinants of behavior, as most behaviors are determined by multiple factors. His hierarchy of needs is not a precise theory as movement along his Theory of Hierarchy of Needs can occur in either direction as one’s needs are dissatisfied or satisfied. “Individuals are motivated by the desire to achieve or maintain the conditions that support satisfaction of their basic needs” (Peatross, 2011, p. 44).

Maslow (1970) based his Theory of Hierarchy of Needs on the concept of deprivation versus gratification. Deprivation is based on one's needs being unsatisfied and the theory states that an individual who has been deprived previously will react differently than an individual who has never been deprived. In comparison, gratification allows the individual to move to the next level of needs. "Higher-order needs are intrinsic in nature, whereas lower-order needs to extrinsic in nature" (Peatross, 2011, pp. 44-45).

What motivates someone to enter the teaching profession? And, more specifically, what motivates African-American men to enter the teaching profession?

In a 2013 Gallop Poll of 170,000 Americans, 10,000 of which were teachers, it was found that teaching was the second most satisfying profession training only careers in medicine (Schwartz, 2014).

The research is based on interviewing conducted as part of the Gallup-Healthways Well-Being Index, which consists of six sub-indexes that measure Americans' physical, emotional, and financial health. The nation's teachers score higher than almost all occupational groups on life evaluations plus four of the other five areas of wellbeing -- including emotional health, healthy behaviors, basic access, and physical health. In life evaluations, emotional health, and basic access specifically, teachers come in second -- trailing only physicians, who typically earn a much higher salary. (Lopez & Sidhu, 2013, para. 2)

The National Educational Association as well as the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education conducted several studies from 1989 through 1993 pertaining to the reasons why people enter the teaching profession. "Several themes of motivation emerged from the studies: (a) the desire to work with young people, (b) value of teaching to society, (c) interest in subject matter, (d) influence of family, (e) long summer vacation, (f) job security, and (g) self-growth and actualization" (Williams, 2012, pp. 29-30).

According to the Tes Institute Team (2016), they stated several reasons why someone should enter the teaching profession. They found the following motivators for seeking to

become a teacher: (a) no two days are ever the same, (b) you will get to learn as well, (c) you will make a difference in a child's life, (d) you can work anywhere in the world, (e) you will have flexible hours, (f) you will have holidays off as well as the summer off from work, (g) you will have job security, (h) you will have a highly social job, (i) you will have independence, and (j) you will be in a career that is more than just a job (Tes Institute Team, 2016).

In a study by Kelly (2017), she found similar reasons as to why someone would want to become an educator. Her findings suggested the following motivators for seeking to become a teacher: (a) guiding student potential, (b) increasing student success, (c) teaching a subject helps you learn more about the subject, (d) having something to laugh about each day, (e) molding students for the future, (f) remaining youthful, (g) creating autonomy in your classroom, (h) having a job conducive to family life, (i) having job security, and (j) having summers off.

In a study by Smith, Mack, and Akyea (2004), they conducted a study to identify the interest level of teaching as a career for high school students. The participants included several African-American male honor students as well as recent graduates. Their finding was that problems existed in the school system. While many of these students and graduates had no interest in pursuing teaching as a career, they understood the need and value of teachers (Smith, Mack, & Akyea, 2004). The students and graduates who did show interest in pursuing teaching as a career stated their motivation for teaching included: (a) being influenced by a teacher in their lives, (b) having the opportunity to be a positive influence, (c) learning something from their students, and (d) needing more male figures inside of the classrooms (Smith et al., 2004).

Howard (2007) led a qualitative study that investigated the career-choice variables that influenced African-American males to pursue a career in education. There were 122 African-American male teachers and administrators who taught in Florida. The findings showed that

African-American male teachers' decision to enter the teaching profession was influenced by intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The intrinsic factors were: (a) the importance of teaching, (b) the imparting knowledge to students, (c) the need to work with students, (d) the abilities of the teachers were matched well to teaching, (e) the love of teaching, (f) the betterment of society, and (g) love of the subject matter taught. The extrinsic factors were: (a) the creativity of being a teacher, (b) job security, (c) working schedule and vacation time, (d) class size, and (e) support from staff (Howard, 2007, p. 86). Howard goes on to state that African-American male teachers have vested interest in the well-being of children and their communities which was the reason why these men cited imparting knowledge, the importance of teaching, and the desire to work with children as strong intrinsic motivators.

Johnson (2010) led a phenomenological qualitative study which investigated the lived experiences of African-American men who became elementary teachers in Atlanta school districts. The participants of this study taught at the Pre-Kindergarten through Grade 5 levels. The findings of the study revealed the following motivators for entering the teaching profession: (a) a need to impact students' lives, (b) a positive educational experience, (c) intrinsic motivation, and (d) family (Johnson, 2010, p. 65).

Sargent (2014) interviewed fifteen African-American male teachers to find out what motivated them to enter the teaching profession. Several men responded that they taught because they saw a need for African-American men to be in the classroom. One man responded by saying the following:

I teach because I understand and see the need for *us*, black, male teachers, in the classroom. Not just someone delivering information on a particular subject but someone who looks like, understands, and can relate to our young men. I teach because our young men of today are lost and can't find their way by themselves. I teach because it is my duty to pass down to this generation the tools that were given to me; tools that help me to make the right decisions academically and morally, the tools that taught me that I Am

Somebody and to therefore walk this path with pride, and the tools that taught me what it is to be, and how to become, a black man. (Sargent, 2014, para. 16)

Two of the men responded that they became teachers because they wanted to teach the fatherless African-American boys. One of these men had this to say:

I teach for the fatherless boy, the boy who never knew his father. I teach for the young man whose mother is shouldering the immense load of raising him on her own. If she needs my help, I am fully committed. I will be there. I teach because they are like me. In fact, they *are* me when I was much younger. Young black boys need a steadfast advocate who will always support their best interests and that's what I will do. (Sargent, 2014, para. 21)

Some of the other reasons these men were motivated to teach included: (a) wanting to be a role model, (b) wanting to be an advocate for change in the minority community, wanting to help children see the world beyond their communities, (c) being born to teach, (d) believing that teaching is an art, (e) having a love for youth in the community, and (e) wanting children to be inspired by the pursuit of knowledge (Sargent, 2014, para. 30).

Having more African-American male teachers in the classroom to be role models and particularly role models for African-American boys, has been cited by many researchers as one of the biggest motivators for African-American men in their pursuit of entering the profession. In a 2017 study by Gershenson, Hart, Lindsay, and Papageorge, they found that having just one African-American teacher in grades three through five reduced the probability of low-income African-American boys dropping out of high school by 39 percent. They found that “exposure to a same-race teacher results in higher graduation rates and greater likelihood of taking college entrance examinations” (Gershenson et al., pp. 3-4).

Gershenson et al. (2017) also found that African-American teachers have higher academic expectations than Caucasian teachers do pertaining to the education of African-American students. The researchers also said that “socioeconomically-disadvantaged black boys

disengage from school due to lack of exposure to same-race, educated role models” (Gershenson et al., 2017. p. 5).

In an article by Lynch (2016), he states that “school is a second home to K-12 students, and black boys don’t have role models who look the way that they do” (Lynch, 2016, para. 3). He goes on to say that African-American boys need to see that there are African-American men who are high school graduates, who have college degrees, who are successful in their careers, and who are not incarcerated. Having an African-American male educator in the classroom will give these African-American boys hope and encouragement that someone like themselves not only finished school but they decided to pursue a career helping others fulfill their potentials.

African-American Teacher Recruitment and Retention

In a qualitative research study by Evans and Leonard (2013), they examined teacher preparation programs from the perspective of novice African American teachers.

“In the current political climate, the teaching profession which was once considered a ‘stable, high-status profession for the African American middle-class’ (Ladson-Billings, 2005, p. 2, as cited in Evans & Leonard, 2013, p. 1), has become tenuous and is experiencing decline” (Evans & Leonard, 2013, p. 1). Some of the job-related factors that have contributed to this decline include pressure to improve student performance and high-stakes testing. Other factors related to the decline of African American teachers include school desegregation, standardized testing for teachers, an increased opportunity to pursue other professional careers, and inadequate preparation for college.

While all teachers can be trained to be effective at teaching all races, particularly African American students, some theorists such as Mitchell (1998) believe that minority teachers are best suited to engage and motivate minority students because they bring knowledge of minority

students' backgrounds to their classrooms, which can enhance their minority students' educational achievement and experience.

Since *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) was published, teacher education programs have gone through a transformation. "Teacher education programs shifted away from teacher training that focused on teaching prospective teachers specific classroom behaviors to focusing on teacher thinking, teacher knowledge, and teacher learning" (Cochran-Smith, 2004, as cited in Leonard & Evans, 2013, p. 3).

The study by Leonard and Evans (2013) examined the Critical Race Theory (CRT), which uses counternarratives as a qualitative analysis method to tell stories of "people whose experiences are not often told, including people of color, women, gay, and the poor" (Solórzano & Yosso, 2002, p. 26, as cited in Leonard & Evans, 2013, p. 5).

The participants of their study (Leonard & Evans, 2013) were six African American teachers who were novice teachers of three or less years' experience. Their ages ranged from 22 years old to 60 years old when they began teaching. Five out of the six teachers were female and pseudonyms were used to protect their identities. Of the six teachers, two of the teachers, Dana (25) and Faith (25), went through the Teach for America (TFA) teacher education program, three of the teachers, Carol (24), Alice (53), and Benjamin (60), went through the New York City Teaching Fellows (NYCTF) teacher education program, and the remaining teacher, Elizabeth (31), went through a traditional graduate education program. The teachers taught first grade through middle school as well as regular, bilingual, and special education students.

Surveys were emailed to each of the six teachers for them to complete and then a follow-up phone call occurred with additional queries. The surveys and interview responses yielded two

pages per participant. Leonard and Evans (2013) then analyzed the interview data by searching for patterns and themes using Glaser and Strauss's (1967) constant comparison method.

The participants of Leonard and Evans' (2013) study were asked about the strengths and weaknesses of their teacher education programs. Dana believed that TFA offered her support both inside and outside of her classroom. She said that they 'held her hand' through the process. Faith also had a positive experience from her TFA education program and she said that she received rigorous lesson planning and support throughout her first year. Benjamin from the NYCTF education program said that his program 'prepared you for what [you] will see in terms of curriculum and behaviors' (Evans & Leonard, 2013, p. 6).

There has been much criticism of teacher education programs for preservice and in-service teachers as they pertain to teaching diverse populations including students of color, low-income students, students with academic challenges, and English-language learners. In a research study by Lee and Herner-Patnode (2010), they investigated how a Master of Education (M.Ed.) licensure program prepared its teacher candidates for equity and diversity.

Becoming a teacher who is highly qualified to teach diverse students requires developing teachers' knowledge about diverse learners, their communities, and their families. Fortunately, the significance of preparing teacher candidates for diverse student populations has been recognized in many of today's teacher education programs.

Although multicultural education scholars suggest infusion of multicultural education into all areas of teacher education (Cochran-Smith, 2004; Gay, 1994; McAllister & Irvine, 2000, as cited in Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010, p. 223) for better results, many teacher education programs continue to use stand-alone multicultural education courses. (Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010, p. 223).

Their research study was set in a five quarter M.Ed. Preschool to third grade early childhood licensure program which was related to a first year Professional Development School

(PDS) program and a fourth through ninth grade middle childhood licensure program unrelated to a PDS (Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010, p. 224). There were 17 Caucasian early childhood and 25 Caucasian middle childhood teacher candidates. There were 36 female and 6 male participants in the study, with most of the participants growing up in rural areas which gave them little to no experience interacting with people who had diverse backgrounds. The participants began the study in the Summer of 2007 and ended the study in the Summer of 2008.

“The research design of this study was observation of participation (Tedlock, 2000) with an emphasis on constant comparative analysis” (Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010, p. 226). The researchers conducted interviews with faculty members who taught M.Ed. methods courses and they had focus group interviews with the study’s participants. Results from a survey and interviews indicated that there were many similarities between middle childhood (Non-PDS) and early childhood (PDS) candidates. Both of these groups completed The Personal and Professionals Beliefs about Diversity Scale survey that was created by Pohan and Aguilar (1999). The scores of the middle childhood cohort were compared to the early childhood cohort and the results yielded no statistically significant differences ($p < .05$). When small group interviews were conducted, they did find some differences.

“The early candidates showed a stronger awareness of the needs of diverse learners. While many of their responses were the same as the middle candidates they also added some thoughts that showed a deeper understanding of their students’ culture” (Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010, p. 227). Regarding the differences of children in poverty compared to middle and upper-class students, most of middle childhood and early childhood candidates showed negative perceptions such as a low sense of hygiene, low motivation, and behavior problems. “This tells us that for the early childhood candidates who were placed in urban schools this might reinforce

their stereotypes unless they had guided critical reflection” (Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010, p. 228).

Giving a voice to those teachers who can best represent the minority teachers of the future can provide a response and a solution to the ever-growing concerns over the disproportionate balance of cultures between teachers and students in schools across the United States (Bennett et al., 2006, as cited in Szecsi & Spillman, 2012). While diversity has grown and continues to grow in K-12 education, the number of minority teachers is not keeping pace.

Historically, there have been assumptions as to the low numbers of culturally diverse teachers which range from low pay (Gursky, 2002) to negative school experiences, lack of academic and emotional preparation, and lack of support in college (Gordon, 2005). The most successful efforts to recruit and retain minority teachers has been to seek them in the early part of their postsecondary school experience. Teacher education programs that encourage minorities to choose education as a career and teacher education programs that promote a support system for developing culturally diverse teachers are crucial in the effort to improve teacher recruiting and retention of minority teachers.

A research study by Szecsi & Spillman (2012) examined an undergraduate elementary education program at a predominantly Caucasian university located in the southern United States. The racial breakdown of the teacher candidates is as follows: 3.3% were African American, 1.8% were Asian, 9.4% were Hispanic, 80% were Caucasian, and the remaining 5% were not identified. While most of the teacher candidates who attended this school were Caucasian, their teacher education program implemented a plan of action for recruiting and retaining diverse teachers.

The teacher candidates who identified themselves as having a minority background were contacted to participate in this study. “To represent a variety of cultural backgrounds and diverse status (junior, senior), three female teacher candidates majoring in elementary education out of six volunteers were selected. No male students were identified” (Szecsi & Spillman, 2012, p. 25).

All participants’ identities were kept confidential so the names used in this study were pseudonyms. Heidi, a 21-year-old Haitian-American junior, was in a part-time internship. Esmerelda, a 22-year-old Dominican-American junior, was also in a part-time internship. Aashia, a 22-year-old Asian-American senior, was in her final internship.

After the three participants signed a consent form, the researcher conducted an open-ended, 90-minute structured interview with each student. “Subsequently, during the next ten months, the researcher completed participant observations in university and internship classrooms as well as in extra-curricular activities. Observation notes were taken. The total time of the observations was approximately 20 hours” (Szecsi & Spillman, 2012, p. 25).

The data analysis revealed that all three participants experienced some reluctance about the teaching profession in their family discussions. However, the teachers stated that various experiences led them to teaching and, during these years, they received diversity support in the social-cultural contexts. None of the participants in this study chose teaching as their first career choice because their families considered other professions such as physicians, psychologists, and accountants as more prestigious and better paying than a career in education.

While all three participants mentioned experiencing prejudice and bias during their own schooling, they all believed that their painful experiences made them more caring and sensitive to at-risk children. Finally, “all three participants cherished the variety and quality of courses in

the teacher preparation curriculum and felt prepared for the profession due to the various forms of support available from their families, schools, and community” (Szecsi & Spillman, 2012, p. 26).

The importance of good teachers is one of the few areas where there is a consensus in the current educational debates. No significant educational goals can be attained without having highly capable teachers at the helm.

However, the debate in the United States about how best to develop an increasing supply of quality teachers has increasingly rejected traditional teacher training in which candidates receive pedagogical foundations followed by supervised student teaching in favor of alternative pathways to teacher certification (Sandoval-Lucero et al., 2011, p. 336).

While alternative routes to teacher certification vary in scope, design, and requirements, they typically reduce the number of pedagogical courses and place the teacher candidates into the classroom during their training period (Rosenberg, Boyer, Sindelar, & Misra, 2007, as cited in Sandoval-Lucero et al., 2011, p. 336).

The study by Sandoval-Lucero et al. (2011) examined the experiences of novice teachers from traditional, teacher-in-residence, and PDS regarding their perceptions and feelings of their first years of teaching.

The participants for the study by Sandoval-Lucero et al. (2011) were 36 K-8 teachers from suburban and urban areas surrounding a large city in the western United States. All who participated were employed in professional development schools associated with a local university but not all of them were graduates of the university’s PDS. “A methodological decision was made to interview participants referred to as Teachers in Residence (TIR) while they were still ‘in’ their programs rather than waiting until they had completed the two-year program” (Sandoval-Lucero et al., 2011, p. 338). Data were collected through semi-structured

interviews which consisted of eight interview topics: paths to teaching, influences on practice, assessment of preparation, self-evaluation, testing and accountability, plans for the future, and beliefs about teaching.

Twelve teachers in the study (Sandoval-Lucero et al., 2011) graduated from a traditional teacher education program. Of the twelve teachers in the traditional teacher education program, ten of them were female and two of them were male and their ages ranged from 22 to 45 years old. Six of the teachers were Latina and six of the teachers were Caucasian. These teachers mentioned the influence of their family and friends on their decision to enter the profession. Five of the twelve teachers discussed the reputation of their teacher education program as a factor in their decision to enroll in the traditional teacher education program.

Twelve teachers in the study (Sandoval-Lucero et al., 2011) graduated from the PDS that was run by the local university. Ten of the participants were Caucasian females, one was a Native American female, and one was a Latino male and their ages ranged from 22 to 49 years old. Ten out of twelve of these graduates had a previous career before they entered the profession. In contrast to the traditional teacher education program graduates, the students who graduated from the professional development school overwhelmingly reported that they entered the profession because of their desire to make a difference.

The remaining twelve teachers (Sandoval-Lucero et al., 2011) entered a teacher-in-residence program at a local college. Seven of the participants were female and five of the participants were male and their ages ranged from 22 to 54 years old. Nine of the twelve teachers in this program were Caucasian, two of the teachers were Latino, and one of them was African American. Of the three teacher education groups, this group was the only group to mention dissatisfaction with their previous careers as a deciding factor for entering the

profession. Most of the teachers in this program said that they entered this teacher education program because it was the quickest way to enter the classroom.

Those who walk into public schools today will see that the teachers in these schools are not as diverse as their students.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2014), there are approximately 3.1 million teachers in American public elementary and secondary schools. Of those teachers, 82 percent are White, while teachers of color comprise only 17 percent of the teaching profession. At the same time, student diversity has become gradually more apparent in America's public schools (Skepple, 2014, p. 57).

While the percentage of students of color has risen and while the Caucasian student enrollment has decreased over the years, teacher diversity has not been keeping pace. As the United States continues to increase in diversity, teacher education programs must prepare their preservice teachers for working with culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students.

Several important themes emerged from the analysis of the data. Participants recognized that limited exposure to diversity could influence their cultural diversity knowledge base, which, in turn, could affect their ability to teach CLD students. Furthermore, it was found that "exposure to cultural diversity learning experiences does, in fact, impact preservice teacher candidates' self-efficacy in teaching CLD learners" (Skepple, 2014, p. 63).

Lived Experiences of African-American Male Teachers

According to the United States Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics website (2017), the amount of minority male teachers in preschool through kindergarten ranged from approximately two percent to three percent from 2002 through 2015. The amount of minority male teachers in elementary and middle schools ranged from approximately seventeen percent to nineteen percent from 2002 through 2015. The amount of minority male teachers in high schools ranged from approximately forty-one percent to forty-five percent from 2002 through 2015.

While the overall number of African-American teachers is already low at two percent for all public-school teachers, the earlier grades, especially preschool and kindergarten, have the lowest amount of African-American male teachers. As a result, there have only been a few studies that have examined the lived experiences of Pre-K through second grade African-American early childhood education preservice and in-service teachers (Haase, 2010; Rentzou & Ziganitidou, 2009; Jones, 2008). In a study by Bryan and Browder (2013), they explored the lived experiences of African-American male kindergarten teachers to try to understand why African-American males choose not to enter the profession.

African-American male teachers who enter the profession are often faced with many challenges that are due to how they are positioned within education. Brown (2012) suggests that African-American male teachers are viewed as disciplinarians or coaches instead of as classroom teachers. “Brown (2012) argues that such deficit notions encourage African-American men to be viewed as ‘pedagogical kinds’ or ‘a type of educator whose subjectivities, pedagogies, and expectations have been set in place prior to entering the classroom’” (Bryan & Browder, 2013 p. 145). He goes on to say that, when these African-American male teachers do not live up to the expectations of others, they are told that they are not the ‘right kind of men’ for the profession (Bryan & Browder, 2013).

“Because little is known about African-American male teachers who matriculate through predominantly White pre-service teacher education programs, those who work in the teaching profession, and those who work with young children, their lived experiences must be documented” (Bryan & Browder, 2013, p. 146).

In their study, they used a microaggression taxonomy to examine the lived experience of an early childhood education teacher. The qualitative case study design was used to capture the

voice of one African-American male's preservice and in-service teaching experience as a kindergarten teacher. "The participant was a 26-year-old African-American male kindergarten teacher, whom we refer to as 'Henry'. Henry was enrolled in an early childhood education program at a [Predominantly White Institution] PWI in the Southeastern United States" (Bryan & Browder, 2013, p. 147).

To explore the lived experiences of Henry, Bryan and Browder (2013) used a qualitative semi-structured interview approach. Semi-structured interviews can provide very flexible and very reliable data which allow the researcher to add questions to the interview process based on the participant's responses. Because of the interview process, a central theme was developed. The Cycle of Institutional Tensions includes experiencing hyper-visibility and experiencing microaggressions.

Hyper-visibility is what Jay (2009) refers to when a person's racial identity is always at the head of his experiences. Henry recalled his experience of feeling alone and isolated when he visited the campus of his Early Childhood Education teacher education program because he was one of the only African-American students attending his university. Henry also discussed his experience with members of the campus's administration. His presence was questioned during his early childhood professional development sessions because he was not a woman.

When I attend district professional development sessions, I am always questioned about why I attend early childhood professional development sessions. I stick out because I am a man. On one occasion, I was even directed to attend the professional development sessions for physical education [P. E.] teachers. I guess this happens because people expect me to be a P. E. teacher. (Bryan & Browder, 2013, p. 151)

Henry (Bryan & Browder, 2013) also talked about microaggression during his interview session. Microaggression is defined as a "comment or action that subtly and often unconsciously or unintentionally expresses a prejudiced attitude toward a member of a marginalized group

(such as racial minority)” (Webster-Merriam, 2017). Henry mentioned his first experience entering his first early childhood education course. His professor, a Caucasian female, questioned his being in her class as she believed he was not attending the correct course. Henry recalled that most of his classmates were Caucasian females and he was the only African-American male. Henry stated that, while he was used to people treating him the way they did, he was worried that his first female Caucasian professor did not like African-American men. Henry also told the story about his first gender and race-related microaggression experience that he had during his school’s Open House night.

During an Open House night in my first year of teaching, I was greeted by a parent at my classroom door looking for his child’s kindergarten teacher. He [the parent] stated ‘I am looking for Mrs. Jones, the kindergarten teacher.’ I replied, ‘I am Mr. Jones, the kindergarten teacher.’ The parent just stood in disbelief and said, ‘That can’t be possible. Are you sure you know what you’re doing?’ (Bryan & Browder, 2013, p. 151)

In a phenomenological qualitative study by Wimbush (2012) where he explored the lived experiences of African-American K-12 teachers, he found similar results. He had five participants (Participant 1, Participant 2, Participant 3, Participant 4, and Participant 5) for his study and they unanimously agreed that African-American male teachers were not present in education.

Although two of the five participants stated that they had many African-American men in their undergraduate programs, when they returned to pursue their master’s degrees, they were the only African-American male present. Participant 3 stated the following: “There was me and basically in all my graduate classes and everything, it was generally just me. We had one or two Black women, but as far as males, I am always the only Black man there, always” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 66). Participant 1 said that he was one of three African-American students and the only African-American male student in his graduate program.

The participants were asked if they believed that African-American male teachers are ‘endangered species’. Participant 1 said that he agreed that African-American male teachers are endangered species as he does not see them in his school district. He also went on to say that, when he attends state and national conferences, there is an absence of African-American male teachers. Participant 4 stated that something must be done to address the absence of African-American male teachers and he feels like the issue begins at the recruiting stage. He believes that the presence of African-American male teachers could be improved by better recruiting processes and by sending out the right people to help recruit African-American males. Participant 3 had this to say: “Endangered? Nah, it’s nonexistent. To be endangered, you actually have to have a presence, right” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 67).

Participant 2 (Wimbush, 2012) said he was the lone African-American teacher in his teacher education program and he, like Participant 4, said that something needs to be done to address the absence of African-American male teachers. He addressed this issue by stating the following:

First we have to get them graduating from high school because when you have a 50% drop-out rate and out of that 50% that graduated from high school, only 39% of those graduated from college, I don’t know what the mathematics is, but when you have the statistics like that, it shrinks the pool of African-American male teachers. (Wimbush, 2012, p. 67)

In a phenomenological qualitative study by Peatross (2011), she sought to understand the lived experiences of African-American male teachers and she wanted to know why they chose teaching as their profession. She contacted fourteen teachers and seven (50%) of them agreed to participate in her study. Of her seven participants (Teacher 1, Teacher 2, Teacher 3, Teacher 4, Teacher 5, Teacher 6, and Teacher 7), two (29%) of her participants were suburban school district teachers. The remaining five (71%) participants were urban school district teachers. One

participant taught in elementary school, one participant taught in middle school, one participant taught in middle and high school, and the remaining four participants taught in high school.

Their experience levels ranged from three to 38 years as a teacher.

When the seven participants (Peatross, 2011) were asked about their beliefs why there was an underrepresentation of African-American male teachers, their answers fell into one of nine subgroup categories: lack of patience, low pay, feeling disrespected, not valued, lack of current African-American teachers, lack of confidence, lack of commitment, lack of values, and lack of support.

Of the nine subgroups (Peatross, 2011), the three that appeared the most were: low pay, lack of patience, and feeling disrespected. All seven participants believed that the low pay of a teacher entering the profession was a major contributor the lack of African-American male teachers. Teacher 4 had this to say about the low pay of teachers:

I believe that they feel that the pay is low. There's not a status in being a teacher. It is what it is. I think once they move on, they want to feel that they're doing something that's more lucrative and where someone is going to say that their job is more important than just being a teacher. (Peatross, 2011, p. 86)

Teacher 5 and Teacher 6 talked about African-American males not having the patience required to be a teacher. Teacher 5 said that many African-American men lack patience and do not want to deal with children. Teacher 6 agreed with Teacher 5 by saying "I think children have changed so much that most black males don't have the patience to deal with students today" (Peatross, 2011, p. 86).

Teacher 5 goes on to say that feeling disrespected is yet another major reason why African-American males stay away from the education profession. Teacher 5 said the following: "As educators, we feel disrespected not only by the districts we work for but also the community

and parents and what people need to understand I we're people too; we're parents too. We have problems just like you do" (Peatross, 2011, p. 86)

In a phenomenological qualitative study by Williams (2012), he sought to understand the perceptions and lived experiences of African-American male teachers that were related to their underrepresentation in the teaching profession. He sent out 52 participant consent forms to African-American male teachers in the target school system and he had 37 participant consent forms returned. Since one of the requirements for his study was to have a minimum of 3 years' teaching experience, he had to eliminate 5 applicants. Of the 32 possible participants, he chose 15 participants (African-American Male Teacher (AAMT) 1 through 15). For his study, he required four elementary, middle, and high school teachers. In addition to these 12 participants, he selected two administrators and one retired teacher. The participants' ages ranged from 21 through 70 years old with four of them having a bachelor's degree, six of them having a master's degree, three of them having a specialist degree, and two of them having a doctoral degree. The participants ranged from 3 to 23 plus years of experience as a teacher.

When the 15 participants (Williams, 2012) were asked to give their insight on the current state of the educational profession as it specifically pertains to the absence of African-American male teachers, they had varied responses.

AAMT1 (Williams, 2012) believed that the absence of African-American male teachers is due to the low starting salary of new teachers; however, he did admit that most states are doing much better at recruiting African-American males. AAMT5 also commented that African-American males do not pursue teaching because of the low pay.

AAMT11 (Williams, 2012) agreed that African-American males do not pursue teaching because of the low pay, but he also added that African-American males avoid entering the profession because of the lack of respect and the lack of recruitment.

AAMT3 had this to say:

I think the current state of educational profession is wide open as it pertains to the African-American male; however, the profession is not appealing in most cases because the typical African-American male has had negative experiences within the education system. (Williams, 2012, p. 90)

AAMT7 (Williams, 2012) stated that the profession fails to reach out to African-American males to get them to become teachers and society does not support or promote the notion that teaching is a profession that is appropriate or needed for African-American males.

AAMT9 called for fathers to take more responsibility for their sons by stating “if the parents, the fathers to be specific, who are ultimately responsible for these young males don’t change their paradigm, these students will continue to matriculate through our jails/prisons versus our most prestigious universities” (Williams, 2012, p. 91).

When these participants (Williams, 2012) were asked why there was an underrepresentation of African-American males in the teaching profession, several participants mentioned the low pay as a major factor.

AAMT1 stated that the starting pay of a teacher “makes it impossible for men to take care of their families” (Williams, 2012, p. 104). AAMT2 agreed that the salary is a major deterrent but also added that many African-American males see teaching as women’s work. AAMT5 and AAMT8 also stated the low pay of a teacher. AAMT5 mentioned that other careers have faster advancement and AAMT8 mentioned that African-American men can make more money working in other professions. AAMT9 also stated that African-American men can make more money working in other professions.

AAMT13 stated that he believed that there is an underrepresentation in all professions, not just teaching. He said that “African-American males are not going to college at high enough rates, which affects the overall number of qualified candidates for the job. The ones who go on to college many times choose more lucrative professions” (Williams, 2012, p. 105).

Summary

The purpose of the current qualitative comparative case study analysis was to understand how barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers affect their recruitment and retention in K-12 education. The purpose of this literature review was to present the history of African-American males in education and to present studies that were relevant to the purpose of the study. Through the history and studies presented, the literature showed not only that there is an absence of, and a need for African-American male teachers, but the literature also led to an understanding of the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American males as they pertain to their recruitment and retention in K-12 education. In Chapter III, the methodology and the three case studies have been examined and discussed.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Case studies are used often in qualitative research studies in the education profession. Yin (2002) described the case study methodology to explore how and why events occur within a real-world context to fill the void in the social science methodology. Case studies are also recognized to explore various perspectives to show a pattern and to processes and ideas (Hakim, 2000; Ritchie & Lewis, 2006). In the current comparative case study analysis, three case studies have been analyzed. The case studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; and Wimbush, 2012) presented in this chapter have been examined to better understand the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers as they pertain to their recruitment and retention in K-12 education. These case studies have been compared, contrasted, and discussed so that a thorough understanding develops to explain why there is an underrepresentation of African-American male teachers currently in K-12 education.

Williams (2012) conducted the first case study. Its focus was a phenomenological study that examined the lived experiences of African-American male teachers pertaining to their underrepresentation in K-12 education. Peatross (2011) conducted the second case study. Its focus was a phenomenological study that examined the lived experiences of African-American male teachers pertaining to their underrepresentation in K-12 education in three Midwestern school districts. Wimbush (2012) conducted the third case study. Its focus was a phenomenological study that examined the lived experiences of African-American male teachers pertaining to their underrepresentation in K-12 education. All three studies use a phenomenological qualitative design to demonstrate how barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American males affect their recruitment and retention in K-12 education.

However, each case study uses a different theoretical framework to explain the underrepresentation of African-American males in K-12 education.

To better compare, contrast, and discuss these three case studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012), a table and a figure have been produced. The table has rows and columns that highlight the purpose, research design, participants, participant selection, and the theoretical framework each study used. The figure is a Venn Diagram that compares the barriers to entering K-12 education that African-American males face.

Although all three case studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) were qualitative phenomenological studies, their research questions and their methodologies were the same in some instances, yet different in others. By utilizing a table and a figure to compare, contrast, and discuss the three case studies, common themes have been found.

Study One: Description of Case

Williams (2012) conducted a study on the perceptions and lived experiences of African-American male teachers pertaining to their underrepresentation in K-12 education. This research was performed to add to the body of knowledge that explains the barriers, motivation, lived experiences, and recruiting efforts to increase the presence of African-American male teachers. This study utilized a phenomenological design to examine African-American males.

The problem that Williams (2012) investigated in this research study was the lack of African-American male teachers in K-12 education. The research findings indicated that having a larger presence of African-American male teachers would help to improve the achievement of African-American male students.

The qualitative phenomenological study by Williams (2012) allowed the voices of African-American male teachers to be heard in order to allow them to explain their motivation to

become teachers, to explain why they believed there is an absence of African-American male teachers, to explain why African-American teachers could improve the academic performance of African-American males, and to give suggestions as to how the recruitment and retention efforts of prospective African-American male teachers could be strengthened.

Study One: Research Questions

The qualitative phenomenological research study by Williams (2012) sought to answer the following four research questions:

- RQ1: What is the motivation of African-American males to enter the teaching profession?
- RQ2: Why is there a shortage of African-American male teachers?
- RQ3: How will having more African-American male teachers be instrumental in improving the academic performance of African-American male students?
- RQ4: In what ways can the recruiting efforts of African-American males into the profession be strengthened? (p. 10)

Study One: Methodology

The qualitative phenomenological study by Williams (2012) used a non-statistical purposive sample of 15 participants. Purposive sampling is the process in which participants are chosen because they are likely to provide rich information that is pertinent to a specific subject (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007).

For this study, Williams (2012) chose an African-American homogeneous group to gain insight into a specific phenomenon. Participants for the study needed to have a minimum of three years' experience because the researcher believed this timeframe demonstrated a commitment to the profession.

Since qualitative research uses human input as its data, interviews were the instrument used for this study (Williams, 2012). Qualitative research seeks to describe and define the meaning of themes in the lives of subjects (Kvale, 1996). Interviews are pertinent to get an in-depth understanding about a topic based on a participant's lived experiences (McNamara, 1999).

Williams (2012) divided the interviews into six sections. The first section was used to gauge the overarching feelings of the role of African-American teachers in K-12 education. The second section was used to understand the participants' feelings on what motivates African-American males to enter the field of education. The third section was used to understand the barriers that cause a shortage of African-American males in education. The fourth section was used to connect African-American male teachers to African-American male students to improve student achievement. The fifth section was used to focus on the recruitment efforts of African-American males into education. The sixth section was used to obtain closing remarks, additional comments, or statements crucial to the purpose of the research study.

Case One: Findings of the Study

For this research study (Williams, 2012), there were 15 participants who were given 14 teacher-related questions. There were 4 additional questions that were only given to administrators. Findings of the study were that the shortage of African-American males was a result of the community and society. The participants stated that African-American males are entering prison and jail rather than graduating from high school, which is a major barrier preventing them from entering the profession.

The participants stated that African-American males could positively impact African-American male students academically. They went on to say that being taught by a person of a

similar background could give African-American males a much-needed role model and fill a void in their lives.

The participants also stated that improving the recruiting efforts for African-American male teachers would be beneficial. The participants believed that offering financial incentives would help to attract potential African-American men. “Financial incentives could include but not be limited to higher salaries, bonuses, scholarships for postsecondary education, and loan repayment” (Williams, 2012, p. 171).

This qualitative phenomenological research study by Williams (2012) sought to answer the following four research questions. For the first research question, twelve of the fifteen participants (80%) responded that their motivation to enter the teaching profession was dependent on their desire to help others. “Without this desire to help others, there will not be any interest in entering the profession” (Williams, 2012, pp. 174-175).

For the second research question, eight of the fifteen participants (53%) responded that the low starting salary makes it difficult to attract African-American males to enter the profession. Four of the 15 participants (26%) attributed the shortage of African-American male teachers to the lack of qualified candidates (Williams, 2012).

For the third research question, ten of the fifteen participants (67%) responded that familiarity and cultural synchronization would help to improve the performance of African-American males. Nine of the 15 participants (60%) believed that students would be more receptive to someone who looked like them. Nine of the 15 participants (60%) stated that students who were taught by someone who looked like they did would lead to increased engagement and focus in the classroom (Williams, 2012).

Four the fourth research question, eleven of the fifteen participants (73%) believed that financial incentives would entice more African-American males into the profession. Eight of the fifteen participants (67%) believed that exposing young African-American males to the teaching profession would lead to increased motivation and interest in becoming teachers (Williams, 2012).

Study One: Significance of the Study

This study by Williams (2012) was significant because it helped to find the barriers, motivation, lived experiences, and importance of having African-American males in K-12 education. This research had professional, academic, as well as educational leadership significance. From this research study, educational leadership were given a better understanding of what attracts and deters African-American males from entering the profession. They can use this information to implement changes in plans and policies that will help to increase the presence of African-American male teachers.

Professionally, more African-American male teachers are needed to help achieve a racial balance in the teaching force. Academically, more African-American teachers are needed to help increase the performance of African-American male students which is the worst performing group because research supports that having students taught by someone of the same race has been shown to improve their achievement (Irvine, 2002). Educational leaders would also benefit from the increase of African-American male teachers because these men would be helpful in terms of discipline and special education placement. Additionally, African-American male teachers would help to reverse the trend of African-American male students receiving a disproportionately high amount of disciplinary actions from Caucasian teachers (Foster, 1990).

Study Two: Description of Case Study

Peatross (2011) conducted a study on the underrepresentation of African-American male teachers in K-12 education in three Midwestern school districts. This research was performed to understand the perception of African-American male teachers pertaining to their K-12 experience as a teacher when disaggregated by the years of teaching, their perception of what attracted them to become teachers when disaggregated by the year of teaching, their perception of why African-American male teachers are needed in education, and their perceptions of the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and accomplishments of African-American teachers in the classroom.

The problem that was investigated with this research study (Peatross, 2011) was the underrepresentation of African-American male teachers in K-12 education. The research findings indicated that having a larger presence of African-American male teachers in K-12 education would serve to give African-American male students a positive role model.

This qualitative phenomenological study by Peatross (2011) allowed the voices of African-American male teachers to be heard to allow them to explain their perceptions of why there is an underrepresentation of African-American male teachers in K-12 education and what extrinsic and intrinsic motivators attract African-American male teachers.

Study Two: Research Questions

This qualitative phenomenological research study by Peatross (2011) sought to answer the following three research questions:

RQ1: What are the beliefs of African-American male teachers that have contributed to the underrepresentation of African-American male teachers?

RQ2: What are the lived experiences of African-American male teachers that may have influenced their behavior to go into the teaching field?

RQ3: What factors, or conditions, contributed to the decision of African-American male teachers to enter, stay and/or disaffiliate from the teaching profession? (p. 11)

Study Two: Methodology

The qualitative phenomenological study by Peatross (2011) used a non-statistical purposive sample of 14 participants. The participants were purposefully selected based on the number of years as a K-12 educator. The experience ranges of the participants were: 0-9 years, 10-19, and 20 or more years.

For this study, Peatross (2011) chose a homogeneous group of African-American male teachers to gain information about the subject matter (McMillan, 2000). Of the 14 participants contacted, 7 (50%) agreed to participate.

Since there is little research examining why African-American males choose to teach in a K-12 setting, the qualitative phenomenological study was used to obtain responses from the participants to describe a phenomenon (Creswell, 2009). The study's (Peatross, 2011) focus was to examine what attracted African-American male teachers from different generations to enter the K-12 educational field.

Phenomenology was the specific approach used in the study (Peatross, 2011). According to Polkinghorne (1989), phenomenological studies are designed to produce accurate and clear descriptions of a specific aspect of the human experience. An emphasis is placed on an understanding of the participants' descriptions of their experiences (Creswell, 2009; Polkinghorne, 1989). With the emphasis being placed on these experiences, phenomenology is

the most sensible approach that should be used in understanding why African-American males choose to enter and remain in K-12 education.

To select the participants for the study, the researcher (Peatross, 2011) sent out a recruitment letter inviting them to participate in the study. Those who were interested in the study received a consent letter via email to be signed before they were interviewed. At the conclusion of the interview process, the researcher formed a focus group using pseudonyms for the seven participants to protect their identities.

Through one to two-hour interviews for each participant (Peatross, 2011), the experiences, beliefs, and motivation were examined. The interviews were taped and transcribed to identify themes and subthemes and numbers were used to identify the tapes so that the identities of the participants were kept confidential. Participants listened to the transcription to check for errors and to add further input, details, and feedback.

Next, focus groups were formed to discuss the themes and subthemes that were identified through the interviews so that the participants could share their ideas and thoughts about what could be done to attract African-American males into the K-12 teaching profession. Peatross (2011) did not manipulate the themes or subthemes, but instead allowed the responses of the participants to explain why there was an underrepresentation of African-American male teachers in K-12 education.

Study Two: Findings of the Study

The major themes that came from this research study by Peatross (2011) were discussed from the participants' perspectives. The coding of the data and the drawing out of the major themes were instrumental in the interpretation of the data in an informative manner.

The participants (Peatross, 2011) answered three exploratory questions pertaining to the barriers of African-American males, the lived experiences of African-American male teachers, and the motivation these African-American male teachers had which made them want to enter the teaching profession.

The participants (Peatross, 2011) answered four specific questions which were designed to get an insight into the motivation of entering the teaching profession based on the number of years' teaching experience. The participants also were asked to state why they believed African-American male teachers were needed in K-12 education.

There were seven themes (Peatross, 2011) that were relevant to the lack of African-American males in K-12 education and they included low pay, a lack of respect, and a lack of patience. There were six themes that were relevant to why African-American males wanted to enter the profession and they included a desire to work with children, being called to teach, and being influenced to teach from their families.

The focus group data (Peatross, 2011) uncovered that African-American teachers all shared similar experiences, hardships, triumphs, and victories. These African-American male teachers believed that they must be united and that it is their responsibility to speak out about the benefits and need for more African-American male K-12 educators.

This qualitative phenomenological research study by Peatross (2011) sought to answer the following three research questions. For the first research question, the participants believed that teaching is not a valued or respected profession which has led to the absence of African-American male teachers (Peatross, 2011).

For the second research question, the participants overwhelmingly liked being a teacher. They became teachers to be mentors to their students, to share experiences with their students, and to be a positive influence for African-American male students (Peatross, 2011).

For the third research question, the participants stated several reasons why they became teachers. Some of the reasons included: mentoring programs, having a family of educators, being influenced by former teachers, being called to teach, and a desire to work with children (Peatross, 2011).

Study Two: Significance of the Study

The study by Peatross (2011) was useful because it helped to understand the history of African-American males in K-12 education. The study looked at the underrepresentation of African-American males in K-12 education by identifying what attracts them to become K-12 education teachers. The study also describes and examines the experiences of African-American male teachers with differing degrees of teaching experience to see the similarities and differences based on the level of their teaching experience. Another major emphasis of the study was to identify themes that impact African-American males' decision to enter the teaching profession and how the identified conditions influenced these men to enter and remain in K-12 education.

While there are barriers that deter African-American males from entering the K-12 educational profession, there are also reasons why some chose to become teachers, which is another reason why this study is significant. The findings from the study by Peatross (2011) will allow educational leaders and teacher recruitment agencies to modify and enhance the current recruitment and retention strategies of local and state school districts so that prospective African-American males are attracted and motivated to become and remain K-12 education teacher. Having state and local school districts develop recruitment strategies that focus on the

motivational factors that influence African-American males to enter the K-12 educational field would help to increase the likelihood of hiring African-American males.

Study Three: Description of Case

Wimbush (2012) conducted a study on the lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education. This research was performed to explore the lived experiences of African-American male K-12 teachers to add to the body of knowledge that explains the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers.

The problem that was investigated by Wimbush (2012) was the shortage of African-American male teachers in K-12 education. The research findings indicated that having a larger presence of African-American male teachers would encourage other African-American males to enter the profession.

This qualitative phenomenological study by Wimbush (2012) granted African-American male teachers' voices to be heard so that they could tell about the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences that would deter or attract prospective African-American males into K-12 education. The researcher sought the perspective of African-American male educators' personal knowledge and experiences as K-12 educators to understand why there is an African-American male teacher shortage.

Study Three: Research Questions

This qualitative phenomenological research study by Wimbush (2012) sought to answer the following four research questions:

RQ1: What are the lived experiences of African-American male educators in K-12 public education?

RQ2: What factors attracted African-American male educators to choose a career in

K-12 public education?

RQ3: What motivational factors influenced these African-American male educators to remain in K-12 public education?

R4Q: What were the barriers to entering and remaining in K-12 public education? (p. 43)

Study Three: Methodology

This qualitative phenomenological study by Wimbush (2012) used a non-statistical purposive sample of 5 participants. The participants were purposefully selected to elicit a detailed discussion about being an African-American male educator in K-12 education.

For this study, Wimbush (2012) sought to seek participants who were employed or who were formerly employed in the researcher's school district. The researcher chose a homogeneous African-American male group because a purposive sampling can lead to knowledge of a specific phenomenon (Streubert & Carpenter, 2003). The researcher recruited participants for the study by getting referrals from colleagues, civic, and community organizations.

Wimbush (2012) selected five participants for the study so that the study could be manageable and so that the research could be in depth. To be considered for inclusion in the study, the participants had to be African-American males, they had to be a current or former K-12 education teacher, they had to have experienced the phenomenon described in the study, and they had to be a willing participant.

Wimbush (2012) was the data collection instrument. The researcher utilized a data collection procedure for the participant interviews and a demographic tool developed by the researcher.

The demographic instrument contained questions regarding age, total years of teaching, degrees held, and subjects taught. The interview guide contained open-ended questions designed to elicit a comprehensive discussion about the experience of being an African-American male in K-12 public education. (Wimbush, 2012, p. 47)

Study Three: Findings of the Study

For this research study (Wimbush, 2012), there were 5 participants who were given twenty-one open-ended research questions for eliciting a comprehensive discussion about the lived experiences of African-American male teachers to understand what deters and attracts them into K-12 education. From their responses, six themes were extracted. The participants listed impacting or helping others, inspiration, fulfilling relationships, and being strong role models as motivation for entering K-12 education. The participants listed low pay as a huge barrier for African-American teachers to enter and remain in the profession.

The participants of the study (Wimbush, 2012) stated that African-American male teachers could be role models to African-American students which could attract these students to become teachers later in life. The participants also recognized the need for African-American men to be someone who could reach African-American students and teach African-American male students how to be responsible men.

This qualitative phenomenological research study by Wimbush (2012) sought to answer the following four research questions. For the first research question, the participants stated that fulfilling relationships attracted them to teach and that fulfilling relationships was also a driving force behind the choice to enter and remain in the profession (Wimbush, 2012).

For the second research question, the participants stated that the impact of teaching, helping others, and inspiration attracted them to enter the teaching profession. “The participants found inspiration ranging from a spouse in education, teachers they had as students in the past, the students, and a need to change the face of education” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 72).

For the third research question, the participants stated that working with students, family, community, and colleagues were motivation to remain in the teaching profession. The participants also stated that being a role model for African-American students was motivation to remain in the teaching profession (Wimbush, 2012).

For the fourth research question, the participants stated that low pay and an absence of African-American male educators were barriers to entering and remaining in the teaching profession (Wimbush, 2012).

Study Three: Significance of the Study

The study by Wimbush (2012) was significant because it helped to find the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education. This research had academic, professional, and educational leadership significance because it could allow educational leaders to understand the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers. This knowledge could lead to changes in recruitment plans and policies that will help to attract and draw in more African-American male teachers in K-12 education.

The participants of the research study (Wimbush, 2012) indicated that their motivation to teach came from their desire to impact or help others, their desire to be a strong role model, their realization that African-American male teachers are not present and their desire to have fulfilling relationships. Educational leaders would benefit from the knowledge that research brings because they could tailor their recruitment efforts by highlighting the benefits and joys that only African-American male teachers can bring to K-12 education.

Summary

Chapter III contained a description of the methodologies for Study One, Study Two, and Study Three. This chapter outlined the methodologies so that these studies could be examined further. Chapter IV will compare the findings for Study One, Study Two, and Study Three so that common themes can be found and developed.

CHAPTER IV: FINDINGS

Introduction

Three case studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) were selected to be analyzed to gain a better understanding of the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences as they pertain to the recruitment and retention of African-American males in K-12 education. This chapter compares the three case studies to identify similar and different themes, outcomes, and findings among the studies described in the previous chapter. The purpose of this comparative case study analysis is to see how the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers affect their recruitment and retention in K-12 education. This chapter presents the comparative case study analysis findings of the three case studies in the following areas: methodologies; historical overview; barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention; and lived experiences.

Methodology

Each study used a phenomenological qualitative research design to demonstrate how barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American males affect their recruitment and retention in K-12 education.

Study One (Williams, 2012) used a qualitative phenomenological research design method to explore the perceptions and lived experiences of African-American male teachers as they relate to their absence in K-12 education. The study had four research questions that were used to guide it and data were collected from fifteen African-American male teachers from all levels of K-12 education. This study utilized a purposive sampling for choosing the participants and the fifteen participants were selected based on the following criteria: race, gender, and years of teaching experience.

The researcher mailed the letters of interest to participate in the study; however, to qualify to become a participant, the researcher required a minimum of three years' experience. Those who responded with less than three years' experience were eliminated from the selection process as the researcher believed that three or more years' experience was important to the study as it demonstrated that the participants chosen had a higher commitment level to the teaching profession than those with less than three years' experience. Those who agreed to participate were asked to sign a consent form which protected their identities from all except for the researcher. Data collected from interviews were analyzed to understand what attracted and deterred African-American males from entering the profession.

Three theories were used in this study to help explain the interactions of African-American male teachers in K-12 education: Bandura's (1988) Social Cognitive Theory, Bruner's (1966) Constructivist Theory, and Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory. These three theories helped the researcher explain the earlier life stages for youth to help understand the absence of African-American males in K-12 education.

Study Two (Peatross, 2011) used a qualitative phenomenological research design method to explore the underrepresentation of African-American male teachers in three Midwestern school districts. The study had three research questions that were used to guide it and data were collected from seven African-American male teachers. This study utilized a purposive sampling for choosing the participants and the seven participants were selected based on the following criteria: race, gender, and years of teaching experience. Furthermore, the years of teaching experience were broken down into three categories: 0-9 years of teaching experience, 10-19 years of teaching experience, and 20 or more years of teaching experience.

This study (Peatross, 2011) used ‘Motivational Factors’, established by Moran, Woolfolk, and Hoy (2001), Kimbrough and Salomone (1993), Leong, (1995), and Milner and Howard (2004) as its guide to understanding why African-American males were not entering K-12 education. This study also used the Motivation Theory that was established by the research of Maslow (1970), Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959), and others. The researcher examined intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors that influenced the decision of African-American males to enter K-12 education.

The researcher (Peatross, 2011) began by contacting the Human Resources departments in the three Midwestern school districts. The researcher requested names and email addresses of African-American male teachers. The researcher then contacted each African-American male teacher individually and followed up with recruitment letter which invited them to learn more about the study and to ask for their involvement. Those who were interested in the study received consent forms that they were asked to read and sign before they could be interviewed. The researcher transcribed the interview tapes and identified themes and subthemes, and a story-frame was created.

Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) used a qualitative phenomenological research design method to explore the shortage of African-American male teachers in public education. The study had four research questions that were used to guide it and data were collected from five African-American male teachers. This study utilized a purposive sampling for choosing the participants and the five participants were selected based on the following criteria: African-American males, current or former K-12 educator, experience with the phenomenon discussed in the study, and a willing participant.

This study (Wimbush, 2012) utilized the Critical Race Theory as its theoretical framework to try to understand how race and racism affect the recruitment and retention of African-American males in K-12 education.

The research (Wimbush, 2012) was first approved by the dissertation committee before the research began. After the research was approved, the researcher contacted potential participants by phone to inform them of the study. A letter and a consent form were mailed to the participants to explain the purpose of the study and to explain the procedures. Those interested in being a part of the study had to return the consent form within two weeks and, once they signed the consent form, they were contacted by phone to arrange an interview time and date. Interview data collected during the interviews were kept confidential and they were kept in a locked box for a total of three years. The researcher analyzed the data using a self-created demographic tool and an interview guide. The demographic instrument contained the following information on the participants: age, years of teaching experience, degrees obtained, and content areas taught.

Methodology: Comparison and Analysis

All three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) used a qualitative phenomenological research design method. All three studies explored the absence of African-American males in K-12 education. Each of the studies utilized a purposive sampling for choosing its participants and all three studies had similar criteria such as race, gender, and teaching experience.

While all three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) used a qualitative phenomenological research design method, none of the studies used the same theoretical framework. Study One used Bandura's (1988) Social Cognitive Theory, Bruner's

(1966) Constructivist Theory, and Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory to help explain the interactions of African-American male K-12 educators. Study Two used 'Motivational Factors' (Moran, Woolfolk, & Hoy, 2001) and Motivation Theory (Maslow, 1970; Herzberg et al., 1959) as a guide to understanding the absence of African-American males in K-12 education. Study Three used the Critical Race Theory (CRT) as its theoretical framework to explain how racism and race affects the recruitment and retention of African-American males in K-12 education.

Methodology

Table 3. Summary of Methodology Comparison and Analysis

	Study One (Williams, 2012)	Study Two (Peatross, 2011)	Study Three (Wimbush, 2012)
Purpose	To explore the perceptions and lived experiences of African-American male teachers as it relates to their absence in K-12 education.	To explore the underrepresentation of African-American male teachers in three Midwestern school districts.	To explore the shortage of African-American male teachers in K-12 education.
Research Design	A qualitative phenomenological research design method		
Participants	15	7	5
Participant Selection	Purposive sampling based on race, gender, and years of teaching experience	Purposive sampling based on race, gender, and years of teaching experience which was broken doing into 0-9, 10-19, or 20 or more years of teaching experience	Purposive sampling base on race, gender, current or former K-12 educator, and experience with the phenomenon discussed in the study
Theoretical Framework	Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory; Bruner's Constructivist Theory; and Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory	Moran, Woolfock, and Hoy; Kimbrough and Salomone; Leong; and Milner and Howard's Motivational Factors and Maslow and Herzberg's Motivation Theory	Delgado and Stefancic's Critical Race Theory

Historical Overview

For Study One (Williams, 2012), African-American education was viewed as a passport to freedom. Historically, African-Americans were forbidden from learning to read and write in the days of slavery. Also, in the days of slavery, men and women who could read and write were viewed as respected members of the community and these slaves were tasked with educating the other slaves. However, even the slaves who could read and write were forced to be submissive and they were constantly reminded that they were not as intelligent as Caucasians. Caucasians also told the slaves that they could not achieve at a high level. Furthermore, Caucasians had the mindset that African-American males were violent and they constantly reminded others that African-Americans were an inferior breed.

In the 1900s, African-Americans were kept at the inferior status because of polling taxes which prevented them from voting, literacy tests which hindered their ability to vote, and residency requirements which made them ineligible to vote due to a lack of property. African-Americans were unable to obtain employment outside of their communities and they had a separate educational process which hindered their academic development. African-American schools often lacked supplies, textbooks, or resources and the classrooms consisted of one small room which had to accommodate all students. The separate and unequal funding, materials, and staff continued until 1951 when *Brown v. Board of education* received national recognition as the most important educational court ruling.

School integration during the 1950s and 1960s was met with resistance as Caucasians were openly defiant and violent, which led to riots, hate crimes, and racial slurs. African-American communities did not have seamless integration into Caucasian schools as African-

American students, although they sought the same educational opportunities that Caucasian students were afforded.

Although desegregation and separate but equal were being exercised, African-American students who were integrated into Caucasian schools were treated unfairly, were often labeled as special education students, and often received less qualified teachers.

For Study Two, it was revealed that, “before the civil war, higher education for African-Americans was virtually nonexistent” (Peatross, 2011, p. 18). The few African-Americans who did go to higher education schools were met with hostility.

Sabbath schools, which were schools sponsored by African-American churches, operated on nights and weekends to provide basic literacy instruction for African-Americans.

Approximately 1,500 of these schools existed which was led by approximately 6,100 teachers with a student population of approximately 107,000 students.

After *Brown v. Board of Education*, traditional African-American schools disappeared, and they were integrated with Caucasian schools. However, Caucasian parents refused to allow their children to be taught by African-American teachers, which resulted in the loss of jobs for African-American teachers.

For Study Three, it was stated that African-American colleges and universities played a key role in the education of African-Americans for more than a century.

These colleges and universities are defined by Title II of the Higher Education Act of 1965 as established prior to 1964 with (a) a principal mission of educating Black Americans, (b) accredited by a nationally recognized accrediting agency or association determined by the Secretary of Education, and (c) determined to offer quality training. (Wimbush, 2012, p. 16)

According to Redd (1998), the first African-American universities were Cheyney State (now known as Cheyney University), Lincoln University, and Wilberforce University which

were founded before the Civil War with the purpose of teaching basic skills of religious education. After the Civil War, Jewell (2007) found that over 100 colleges and universities were established to educate the free African-Americans in the southern United States. This increase in African-American institutions was attributed to the passage of the Morrill-McComas Act, which was the second land grant Act. The Morrill-McComas Act made it possible for African-Americans to receive industrial and agricultural instruction.

Baskerville, Berger, and Smith (2007) stressed that the primary mission of African-American colleges and universities, after the Civil War, was for the education of teachers. Prior to 1945, African-American colleges and universities educated 90% of African-American students who sought higher-education degrees and these African-American colleges and universities awarded more than 95% of bachelor's degrees in 1944 (Altbach, Berdahl, & Gumport, 2005; Hoffman, Snyder, & Sonnenberg, 1992).

According to the U.S. Department of Education (2015), the Office for Civil Rights lists a total of 107 accredited African-American colleges and universities. Snyder and Dillow (2010) stated that, during the 2007-2008 school year, African-American colleges and universities had an enrollment of 306,515 students. Of these 306,515 students, 96,316 (31%) were African-American males. During this school year, 31,070 students earned a bachelor's degree, of which 29% (9,010) were obtained by African-American males. Willie, Reddick, and Brown (2006) reported that African-American colleges and universities only represent 3% of the colleges and universities in the United States. Nevertheless, more than 50% of African-American male and female teachers graduated from African-American colleges and universities.

Historical Overview: Comparison and Analysis

For Study One (Williams, 2012) the historical perspective was centered on the students. Emphasis was placed on how students, throughout the 1900s, were often unable to obtain employment outside of their communities and how they had a separate educational process than their Caucasian peers. Study Two's (Peatross, 2011) and Study Three's (Wimbush, 2012) historical perspectives were centered on the teachers. Emphasis was placed on those African-Americans who were seeking a higher-education degree. Both studies reported that there were not many options for African-Americans who sought a degree before the Civil War and that, after the Civil War, African-American colleges and universities were founded to give African-Americans a way to obtain a higher-education degree. Both studies stated that most African-American colleges and universities opened, overwhelmingly, as a response to educate freed slaves. Both studies also said that African-American colleges and universities were established to educate teachers.

While all three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) referenced the importance of *Brown v. Board of Education* as a significant milestone and turning point in the education of African-Americans, only Study Three discussed the unintended impact of *Brown v. Board of Education*. Because of the ruling that acknowledged that African-American students were not being provided an education equal to their Caucasian peers, schools were forced to desegregate. The impact of desegregation on African-American teachers was strongly negative. In 1954, there were more than 82,000 African-American teachers. By 1972, more than 38,000 African-American teachers and administrators lost their jobs. This large reduction of teachers contributed to the absence of African-American educators, particularly, African-American male educators (Wimbush, 2012).

Barriers

In this section, the first research question has been exclusively discussed. The first research question for this study was:

RQ1: What barriers prevent African-American males from becoming K-12 education teachers?

For Study One, the researcher stated several barriers that had led to the absence of African-American male teachers. Low pay was one of the biggest barriers for African-American males entering the teaching profession. While there are many reasons that combine to explain the absence of African-American male teachers, low pay has been one of the main reasons. African-American males who seek a career for monetary profit tend to gravitate towards other professions such as law, engineering, or medicine (Williams, 2012).

Another barrier for African-American males entering the teaching profession is that teaching is perceived as “women’s work”. With today’s teacher population being comprised of 77% Caucasian female teachers (Education Week, 2018), it makes sense that many African-American males perceive teaching as a female career.

Negative experiences during their own K-12 education is another reason why there is an absence of African-American male teachers. African-American males “tend to be immediately reprimanded without warning, [they are] cast out, and [they are] outright embarrassed by teachers” (Williams, 2012, p. 36). The researcher goes on by saying that African-American males often get disciplined for actions that are typically ignored for other students. This action is not only typical of K-12 education, but it carries over into society and the justice system (Ferguson, 2000).

Poor academic preparation and low performance is yet another contributing factor for the absence of African-American male educators. “African-American males are the lowest performing group of students” (Williams, 2012, p. 40). For grades three through eight, the grades that are tested yearly for academic achievement, African-American males are viewed as the weak link (White, 2009). The achievement gap between African-American students and Caucasian students was over 30% in grades, three, four, five, seven and eight for ELA. The only grade where African-American students were under 30% was in grade six where the gap was 26.7%. The achievement gap between African-American students and Caucasian students was over 30% in grades three through eight. Nationally, only 47% of African-American males graduate from high school and data indicate that less than 50% of African-American males receive an appropriate education (Williams, 2012).

The socio-demographics of African-American males are bleak as this group encounters high death rates, incarceration, unemployment, and low college graduation rates (Williams, 2012). The Kaiser Family Foundation found that, in 2004, there were 4.5 million African-American males between ages 15 and 29 who lived in the United States. However, only 7.5% of them graduated from college. Nineteen and a half percent were unemployed, over 40% were imprisoned, and African-American males die at a rate of more than 1.5 times the rate of Caucasian and Hispanic men (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2006).

Special education classification for African-American boys was also stated as a barrier for African-American males who wish to enter K-12 education. Special education classes are overrepresented by African-American males. While African-American students make up less than 10 percent of the total student population, they account for 20% of the students who are classified as mentally retarded, they account for 21% of the students who are classified as

emotionally disturbed, and they account for 12% of the students who are classified as learning disabled (Williams, 2012). Research supports the notion that many African-American male students are incorrectly placed into special education classes due to the lack of cultural understanding by female Caucasian teachers. Research also shows that African-American male students are four times more likely to be labeled as learning disabled than their Caucasian male counterparts (Slater, 2008).

For Study Two, low pay was cited as the major barrier that caused the absence of African-American males in K-12 education. Seven of the seven participants for this study concluded that the biggest reason why many African-American males seek other employment options was because of the low salaries that new teachers receive. “With so many career opportunities available today for African-American males that are more lucrative, the teaching profession is not the career path chosen” (Peatross, 2011, p. 86).

Lack of patience was another barrier which has prevented African-American males from entering K-12 education. Five of the seven participants for this study concluded that many African-American males search for other careers because they do not have the patience to deal with children. One of the participants went on to say “I think children have changed so much that most black males don’t have the patience to deal with students today” (Peatross, 2011, p. 86).

Feeling disrespected was given as a barrier as to why many African-American males refrain from entering the teaching profession. Five of the seven participants for this study stated that feeling disrespected was a major deterrent for many prospective African-American males. One of the study’s participants had this to say: “As educators, we feel disrespected not only by the districts [where] we work for, but also [by] the community and parents. What people need to

understand is [that] we're people too, we're parents too [and] we have problems just like you do" (Peatross, 2011, p. 86).

Some other barriers that were given for the absence of African-American male educators include the following: not valued, lack of current African-American male teachers, lack of confidence, lack of commitment, and lack of support. Two of the seven participants said that teaching is not valued, two of the seven participants mentioned that a lack of current African-American male teachers deters potential African-American males from becoming teachers, and one of the seven participants cited a lack of confidence, a lack of commitment, and a lack of support for other reasons why African-American males did not enter the profession.

For Study Three, the researcher (Wimbush, 2012) listed several reasons why African-American males are absent from K-12 education. Low pay was a major contributing factor as to why African-American males avoid entering K-12 education. Gaines (2000) states that salary ranks as the number one reason why people either choose to enter or leave the teaching profession and Weaver (2005) found that those who have chosen careers other than teaching make 50% more than the average teacher salary. Furthermore, males who are in a career other than teaching make 60% more than male teachers. These figures are more than enough to discourage African-American males from entering K-12 education.

Low respect is seen as another barrier for prospective African-American male educators. Gordon (2005) found that before desegregation, African-American teachers were viewed as part of the 'Black elite' and that teaching in the African-American community was highly respected. However, Ingersol (2003) stated that the field of education has deteriorated as a direct result of 'teaching bashing' and placing the blame of students' underachievement on the educators. "With

a profession that is constantly under attack, potential African-American male teachers would find the profession of teaching unattractive” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 28).

The perception that teaching is “women’s work” is another barrier to entering K-12 education. With the expectation that teachers are caring and nurturing, and with the reality that males are typically less caring and nurturing than females, this could be a significant barrier for African-American males who might have considered entering K-12 education.

Discrimination could prevent African-American males from entering the profession. While the Civil Rights Act of 1964 indicates that it is against the law to discriminate against any individual seeking employment because of race, the reality is that there is prejudice towards African-Americans from Caucasians that has changed from blatant to subtle, cool, and indirect. This discrimination could influence the decisions pertaining to recruiting, hiring, salaries, and promotions (Meerten & Pettigrew, 1997).

Aversive Racism is an unconscious form of bias. Dovidio and Gaertner (2004) defined Aversive Racism as the inherent contradiction that occurs when denying one’s personal prejudice coexists with unconscious negative beliefs and feelings. The underlying meaning behind Aversive Racism is that most of the ethically sound recruiting personnel discriminate towards African-Americans on a regular basis while they portray an image of one who is free from prejudice and bias.

Incarceration is another barrier that prevents African-American males from entering K-12 education. More than half of African-American males do not get a high school diploma and these high school dropouts are more likely to be incarcerated than employed. In 2008, there were more than 475,000 inmates aged 18-24, in federal or state prison systems. Of these inmates, African-American males made up 42.2% of those incarcerated, yet they only comprise

7% of the United States' population and only 5% of the college and university population.

According to Lee, Ransom, and Williams (2011), trends show that about 33% of African-American males will be incarcerated in their lifetime.

These statistics indicate a serious societal problem that must be addressed because incarceration affects families, future employment opportunities, decreases Black voting power due to disenfranchised felons and former felons, and lessens chances of receiving financial assistance and enrolling in college. (Wimbush, 2012, p. 31)

Academic issues have been given as another barrier for African-American males who wish to enter K-12 education. African-American male students are not being adequately prepared for higher education. African-American males are underrepresented in gifted and talented or Advanced Placement courses and overrepresented in special education and remedial classes (Anderson & Sadler, 2009; Belgrave & Allison, 2006; Leach & Williams, 2007; Martin, Fergus, & Noguera, 2010; Moore & Jackson, 2006). Strayhorn (2008) attributed the absence of African-American males in gifted and talented or Advanced Placement courses to the lack of access or to being discouraged from enrolling in these courses. Strayhorn goes on to state that counselors and teachers neglect to inform their African-American male students of their college and university options or they discourage African-American males from seeking higher education.

African-American males have a high dropout rate which has also attributed to their absence in K-12 education. In the United States, only 47% of African-American males who enter ninth grade graduate from high school (Schott Foundation for Public Education, 2010). African-American males have the highest high school dropout rate of any group and they represent about 50% of the students who drop out each year (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2009). The reasons why African-American males drop out of high school vary; however, this dropout rate can be linked to: difficult socioeconomic and family conditions; negative school

experiences such as suspensions, behavior problems, attendance, academic failure, truancy; negative school climate; influence and peer pressure by friends who are dropouts; and disinterest in school (Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Balfanz, 2009; Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Morison, 2006). Strayhorn (2008) stated that, in 2008, of the 15 million United States undergraduates, only 5% of them are African-American males, which is the same graduation percentage as it was in 1976.

For those African-American males who do matriculate at colleges and universities, the number who can potentially become K-12 educators is reduced by low graduation rates, other career choices, and failure of teacher certification tests. African-American male college graduation rates are lower than African-American females, as well as all other groups within the college environment (Harper, 2006; U. S. Department of Education, 2005). Harper reported that less than one in three African-American males who start college in the United States graduate in six years. The remaining two of three African-American males leave higher education due to: lack of finances; the lack of educational support; issues with the community or home life; racism; frustration with professors who lack the skills to adapt curricula for minority students; poor K-12 academic preparation; and difficulty adjusting to the social and cultural aspects of college life.

Barriers: Comparison and Analysis

For all three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012P, low pay was cited as a major contributing factor for the absence of African-American males in K-12 education. For each of these studies, low pay was not only seen as a major deterrent from entering K-12 education, but all three studies stated that many potential African-American males choose other career options. With many career options now available to African-American

males, combined with the low starting salary of teachers, it should not be a surprise that many of these men choose a career path outside of education.

Study One (Williams, 2012) and Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) both stated that African-American males perceive teaching as “women’s work” and, therefore, do not view teaching as a viable career option. With these men viewing teaching as a ‘caring and nurturing’ career choice, those African-American males who are eligible to enter education feel that it is not the correct choice.

Study One (Williams, 2012) and Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) both cited negative K-12 educational experiences as a barrier to entering K-12 education. With negative experiences when African-American males were K-12 students such as being constantly reprimanded, suspended, cast out, embarrassed by teachers, and having other negative experiences, African-American males have become disinterested in choosing to teaching as a career.

Study One (Williams, 2012) and Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) both mentioned poor academic preparation and performance as another barrier to entering K-12 education. With the low performance of African-American males on yearly state assessments, many of the African-American males who might want to teach find that they are ill prepared to enter K-12 education. Even those African-American males who do make it to a college or a university, struggle with finishing college on time or at all. With low college graduation rates and with African-American males struggling to pass teacher certification tests, there is not a large pool of eligible African-American males to choose from.

Study One (Williams, 2012) and Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) also both stressed how incarceration has limited the potential African-American male candidates. While less than 10% of African-American males graduate from college, over 40% of African-American males were

incarcerated and African-American males die at a rate of more than one and a half times the rate of Caucasian and Hispanic males (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2006). More than 50% of African-American males do not earn a high school diploma and these high school dropouts are more than likely in prison than employed.

Study One (Williams, 2012) and Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) both stated that the special education classification of many African-American boys is yet another barrier for African-American males who might desire to enter K-12 education. While gifted and talented and Advanced Placement courses are underrepresented by the African-American boy population, special education classes are overrepresented by African-American boys. While African-American boys make up just 10% of the total student population, they account for 21% of the students who are classified as emotionally disturbed, they account for 20% of the students who are classified as mentally retarded, and they account for 12% of the students who are classified as learning disabled. With research showing that African-American boys are four times more likely to be labeled as learning disabled than their Caucasian peers, African-American boys' education is at a distinct disadvantage (Slater, 2008).

Study Two (Peatross, 2011) and Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) both state that low respect is a barrier that makes African-American males choose another profession other than K-12 education. In a career that was once respected in the past, many African-American males believe that the field of education has deteriorated because of students' underachievement being blamed on teachers.

Study Two (Peatross, 2011) was the only of the three studies to mention reasons such as lack of patience, lack of current African-American male teachers, lack of confidence, lack of commitment, and lack of support as barriers to entering K-12 education.

Barriers

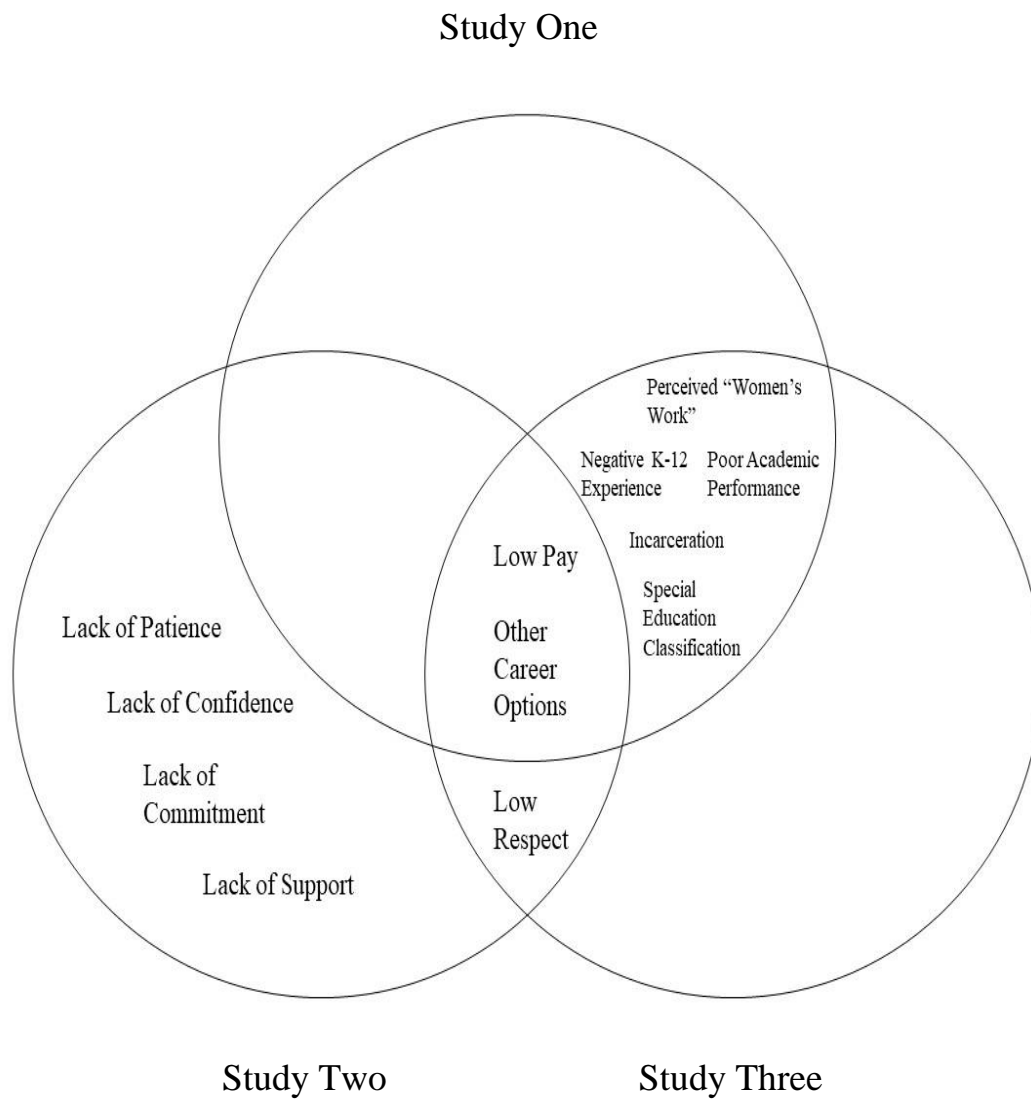


Figure 1. Summary of Barriers Comparison and Analysis

Motivation

In this section, the second research question will be exclusively discussed. The second research question for this study was:

RQ2: What motivates African-American males to become K-12 education teachers?

Study One (Williams, 2012) had all fifteen African-American male participants state what motivated them to enter K-12 education. All fifteen participants stated that their motivation to teach came from within. Common motivational themes that occurred with their responses were: being a role model or father figure, being called to teach, and a desire to help others in the community. Of the fifteen participants, twelve of the fifteen or 80% agreed that the desire to help others, self-motivation, and a personal calling to teach were major motivators to becoming a K-12 educator. Six of the fifteen participants or 40% wanted to teach so that they could serve as a role model or a father figure for African-American boys.

When these fifteen participants were asked whether the motivation to teach had to be intrinsic, extrinsic, or a combination of both, ten out of fifteen or 67% stated that, for African-American males to enter K-12 education, their motivation must be a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation was cited as important because the participants believed that African-American males must have an internal desire to teach, to impact the community, and to help others. The participants stated that extrinsic factors were issues such as salary, benefits, and job security. “The respondents perceived the extrinsic factors as something developed once in the profession because the extrinsic factors alone are not enough to lure African-American males into the profession” (Williams, 2012, p. 99).

For Study Two (Peatross, 2011), seven out of seven participants stated that wanting to work with children was their main motivation to enter K-12 education. Seven out of seven

participants also stated that they enjoyed having the opportunity to share their experiences with their students and they liked serving as positive role models. Four of the seven participants mentioned that they liked to be able to influence youth. Three of the seven participants said that their motivation to enter K-12 education came from their families who were educators. Three of the seven participants stated that their motivation to enter K-12 education came from guidance from their coaches. Two of the seven participants cited that the profession chose them.

For Study Three, a strong motivator to enter K-12 education was the ability to impact or help others. All five participants agreed that helping others was a motivator that influenced their decision to enter and stay in K-12 education. Participant 1 indicated that he entered K-12 education so that he could make an impact on his community. “I felt that, as an African-American, I had something that I could give students in this area and it was important to me to give back at this stage in my life” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 50). Participant 2 agreed with Participant 1 and he went on to say:

As a Black man, we are supposed to be leaders in the community and you can't be a leader in the community when a bunch of your community is getting locked up and shot and the only way we are going to prevent that from happening is try to reach these kids and try to get them to understand the potential they have and they don't have to be drug dealers, baby daddy's and all of that (Wimbush, 2012, p. 51).

Participant 3 (Wimbush, 2012) agreed with Participant 1 and Participant 2 and he added that, to be an African-American male educator, one must be a father, a mentor, a counselor, and other things, in addition to being a teacher.

Inspiration was indicated, by four of the five participants (Wimbush, 2012), as another motivator to entering K-12 education. Participant 4 stated that he found inspiration in African-American leaders who came before him. Participant 5 also attributed his inspiration to enter K-

12 education from a past teacher. He went on to say that he believes that students need inspiration from other African-American males.

Fulfilling relationships was another motivator to entering K-12 education. “The relationships the teachers developed were not limited to teacher-student relationships, but extended out to the community, parents, and colleagues” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 55). The theme of inspiration was indicated 13 times which showed a predominant preference for selecting teaching as a career.

Being a strong African-American role model was yet another motivator given for wanting to enter K-12 education. “The teachers referenced strong African-American male role models many times throughout the interviews. The reference was made, in many cases, to indicate that the education field needed more strong role models” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 59).

Motivation: Comparison and Analysis

For all three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012), intrinsic motivation was shown to be the key for having African-American males to enter K-12 education. All three studies stated that being a positive role model was a major influence for becoming a K-12 educator. All three studies also cited the desire to help and influence others as a strong motivator to entering K-12 education. Participants stated that they wanted to ‘give back’ and to ‘make an impact in their communities’.

Study One was the only study that examined intrinsic and extrinsic motivation closely. The findings were that extrinsic motivation was not enough to lure African-American males into K-12 education (Williams, 2012).

Study Two (Peatross, 2011) and Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) stated that motivation and inspiration to teach came from family, coaches, or other teachers. One of the participants believed that African-American students need inspiration from African-American male teachers.

Recruitment and Retention

In this section, the third research question will be exclusively discussed. The third research question for this study was:

RQ3: What can be done to improve the recruitment and retention of African-American males in K-12 education?

Study One (Williams, 2012) stated that, to attract more African-American males into K-12 education, recruitment efforts need to be increased. There are currently several recruiting efforts in place to combat the scarcity of African-American male teachers. There are programs such as Troops-to-Teachers, Call Me Mister, MenTeach, and Steps to Success that have been implemented in the United States to combat the absence of African-American teachers in K-12 education.

Troops-to-Teacher fulfills two roles; employment of former military personnel and education of children in the classroom with a typically minority authoritative figure. These licensed and certified teachers are then given teaching positions in inner-city areas (Troops-to-Teachers Program, 2010).

Call Me Mister, a South Carolina based scholarship education program, seeks to increase the diversity of teachers, particularly in the state's lowest performing elementary schools. Student participants are typically chosen from under-served, educationally at-risk, and socio-economically disadvantaged communities (Clemson University, 2010). These student

participants are targeted because their background allows them to relate to students like themselves and others who share similar social and cultural experiences.

MenTeach, a non-profit organization based out of Minneapolis, Minnesota, is in the business of consultation, information exchange, and research pertaining to male teachers (MenTeach, 2007). This project was started by founder Bryan G. Nelson because he understood how important teaching was but wondered where all the male teachers were. The mission and goal of this organization are to increase the presence of male teachers in K-12 education by academically and socially influencing children.

Steps to Success, an organization created in Harlem, New York in 2007, centers on the African-American males in grades two through four. The organization provides several programs which includes Life Coach, which is an adult African-American male who serves as mentor, Saturday Academy, which provides culturally and historically enriched activities, Academic Support, in which staff members individually tutor students two times per week, and volunteer African-American males for Everyday Heroes, in which volunteers who support the program are used as positive role models. When the fifteen participants of the study were asked if they were recruited into teaching, twelve of the fifteen or 80% stated that they were not recruited into K-12 education. Of the three or 20% of the remaining participants, none of them were recruited by a school system or by a school but by another educator who felt they would be good teachers. When these participants were asked how recruitment could be improved, “fifteen or 100% of the participant believed that two recruitment tools should be exposing African-American males to the profession and financial incentive” (Williams, 2012, p. 141). Ten of the fifteen or 67% of the participants believed that exposing students to the teaching profession in middle and high school would pique their interest in pursuing teaching as a career. Giving

students the opportunity to shadow teachers and to provide them with internship opportunities would allow these students to view teaching as a viable career option. Ten of the fifteen or 67% of the participants stated that education needed to be cast in a good light by promoting the positive aspects of the profession. Eleven of the fifteen or 73% of the participants felt that the key to recruiting more African-American males is to offer financial incentives such as loan forgiveness, full scholarships, and signing bonuses. While these participants all believed that higher pay would help for starting teachers, they agreed that other financial incentives would help to increase the presence of African-American male teachers.

For Study Two (Peatross, 2011), it was stated that mentor programs could be used to increase the presence of African-American males in K-12 education, according to W. Neal Holmes, director of the Call Me Mister program located at Longwood University in Farmville, Virginia. The Call Me Mister program is an initiative at colleges and universities across the United States with the goal of recruiting young African-American males, with diverse backgrounds, into K-12 education.

It was stated that some local and state districts offer incentives such as signing bonuses and increased teacher salaries to entice potential African-American male to consider a career in education; however, even with these incentive and recruitment strategies, many school districts struggle to place qualified African-American male teachers into poor, minority public schools (Haberman, 1999; National Education Association, 2002).

For Study Three (Wimbush, 2012), the research found that many school districts, colleges, and universities have actively sought to increase the number of African-American male educators in K-12 education. Nelson and Shikwambi (2010) gave five suggestions for increasing the presence of African-American males and they were: “working with children immediately,

providing a mentor, formulating a support group with other men in the education field, providing scholarships or stipends, and creating an educational program with a welcoming environment for men” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 39).

In Arizona, there is a collaborative effort between Arizona State University, Mesa Community College, and Mesa Unified District to rectify the teacher diversity problem. This program’s goal is to provide students with the resources necessary to enter colleges and universities and to train them to become educators (Wimbush, 2012).

South Carolina’s Call Me Mister program is a collaborative effort with Claflin University, Clemson University, Morris College, and Benedict College to increase the presence of African-American male teachers in South Carolina’s public-school system. Founded in 1999, Norton (2005) states that the program provided tuition assistance and personal development.

Another recruitment program that targets African-American males is a program called Grow Your Own. The Grow Your Own program, located in Illinois and founded in 2004, sought to add 1,000 teachers to low-income and hard-to-staff schools by 2016. Teachers from this program received financial incentives and loan forgiveness of up to \$25,000. “As of 2010, the program had placed 22 teachers into the educational pipeline and over 387 in the program” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 41). African-Americans accounted for more than half of the program’s participants and 18% of these African-Americans were male.

In Wimbush’s (2012) study, two of the five participants believed that the right people are not being sent out to recruit prospective African-American males. “The two participants suggested that sending out African-Americans would be best because it allows for other African-Americans to see a face similar to theirs that have already made it in the system” (p. 86). The two participants went on to say that recruitment efforts should occur more often in historically

Black colleges and universities since the pool of African-American males is greater than non-historically Black colleges and universities. One of the participants suggested that recruitment efforts need to start in the freshman year of college and potential African-American males should be allowed to shadow teachers in the classroom so that interest in education as a profession could be increased.

Recruitment and Retention: Comparison and Analysis

All three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) examined recruitment and retention efforts that were in place to attract African-American males into K-12 education. One program, Call Me Mister, was referenced in all three studies as a recruitment and retention option that has been in existence since 1999. With locations in South Carolina and Virginia, the Call Me Mister program has sought to increase the presence of African-American males in elementary at-risk schools.

In addition to the Call Me Mister program, Study One (Williams, 2012) also stated that other programs such as Troops-To-Teachers, MenTeach, and Steps to Success were also attempting to help increase the presence of African-American male teachers in K-12 education.

Study Two (Peatross, 2011) cited the efforts of local and state districts offering incentives, signing bonuses, and increased salaries as measures to increase the number of African-American male teachers in its poor and predominantly minority schools.

Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) stated that many schools, districts, and universities have actively sought to increase the presence of African-American K-12 educators. Arizona has a collaborative effort between Arizona State University, Mesa Community College, and Mesa Unified District to increase diversity in its schools. Grow Your Own, based in Illinois, had a goal of adding 1,000 teachers to low-income schools by 2016. Two of the participants of this

study suggested that recruiters should be African-American, and that recruiting should take place in historically Black colleges and universities.

Lived Experiences

In this section, the fourth research question will be exclusively discussed. The fourth research question for this study was:

RQ4: What are the lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education?

For Study One (Williams, 2012), when the fifteen participants were asked what they thought of the current state of the educational profession as it pertained to African-American males, they had varied, yet interesting responses. Some of the participants focused on the negative aspects of teaching such as poor starting salaries, being a female-dominated profession, lack of recruitment, and a loss of respect for the profession. Other participants focused on the positive aspects of teaching such as being a father figure or role model and being someone who can help to reverse stereotypes society has placed on African-American males. Several of the participants commented that African-American males are not in enough leadership roles.

When the fifteen participants (Williams, 2012) were asked what it would take to motivate more African-American males to enter K-12 education, nine out of fifteen or 60% stated that money is a huge motivator and a great deciding factor when an individual selects a career. These nine participants felt that an increased salary would allow young African-American males to provide a stable living environment for their families.

The fifteen participants of the study were asked if they believed the shortage of African-American male teachers was intentional or unintentional. Eight of the fifteen or 53% of the participants believed that the African-American male teacher shortage happened unintentionally.

Collectively, they felt that African-American males were underrepresented in all professions because African-American males are dropping out of school and because they are being incarcerated. “The shortage happened as a result of community issues such as poverty, single parent homes (usually female), the devaluing of education in the African-American community, and the cycle of imprisonment” (Williams, 2012, p. 110). Seven of the fifteen participants or 46% stated that the underrepresentation of African-American male teachers was a result of the actions and behaviors of the African-American community.

In response to the question (Williams, 2012) of whether they had an African-American male teacher when they were in school, six of the fifteen or 40% of the participants stated that they did not have an African-American male teacher throughout their schooling; however, all six of these participants indicated that having an African-American teacher would have given them someone who could relate to the struggles and challenges that they faced during their K-12 school years.

When they were told that the recruitment efforts of the educational system had come under criticism, they were asked if this criticism was justified (Williams, 2012). Nine of the fifteen or 60% believed that this criticism was unjust. These nine participants stated that the educational system should not be blamed when the lack of eligible African-American male candidates was such a small number.

The participants of the study were asked if they had any final comments on the state of African-American males in K-12 education. While there were many great responses, one of the participants (AAMT2) has this to say:

Black males are very badly needed in the schools. Our young brothers are losing and falling behind in every aspect of life. We cannot sit back and wait on someone else to solve our problems. We must be proactive and not reactive. We must come together as a

community and get our black males back on track before its too late. (Williams, 2012, p. 143)

Fifteen out of fifteen or 100% of the participants (Williams, 2012) expressed the need for more African-American males in K-12 education and five of the fifteen or 33% of the participants stressed how important it is for the status of teaching to return to being an honorable and respectable career choice.

For Study Two, when the seven participants were asked what they thought about their teaching experience, all seven participants stated that they enjoyed sharing their experiences with their students, they liked being viewed as positive role models, and they said that they would not change anything about their choice to become a K-12 educator. As for sharing experiences with their students, Teacher 1 had this to say:

Many times, I talk to my kids being from Louisiana as I definitely have a different viewpoint, and being the age I am, which is 60, and coming through the era in which I did, gave me a lot of experiences and a lot of opinions about certain things and I share that with the kids and they appreciate and enjoy that. (Peatross, 2011 p. 92)

When the seven participants were asked if they perceived a need for African-American males in K-12 education, all seven participants stated that it was necessary for African-American males to be represented. Teacher 6 stated, “All youth need the experience of having a Black educator before them whether it be male or female” (Peatross, 2011, p. 95) and Teacher 7 stated, “Blacks have insight that Whites can’t and don’t have” (Peatross, 2011, p. 95). Teacher 4 had this to say:

From my experience, a lot of our African-American students want to trust someone that they see, that they can relate to, that probably knows their plight, but I think African-American males would be outstanding teachers because that’s who they are. (Peatross, 2011, p. 95)

Like Teacher 4, Teacher 5 states that African-American males can serve as buffers and that they can give children a positive role model that they can look up to. Teacher 6 agreed and

stated that “all youth need the experience of having a Black educator before them whether it be male or female. For our Black males, they need positive Black role models” (Peatross, 2011, p. 95).

For Study Three, the five participants continuously stressed their belief that African-American males were absent from K-12 education. Two of the participants, Participant 1 and Participant 3, indicated that their undergraduate programs had a large presence of African-American males, but, once they returned to pursue a master’s degree, they noticed that they were alone. Participant 1 stated, “I believe I was the one of maybe three, the only male in the program, but if I recall, two females” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 66). Participant 3 agreed by stating “there was me and basically, in all my graduate classes and everything, it was generally just me. We had one or two Black women, but, as far as males, I am always the only Black man there, always” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 66).

When Participant 1 was asked if African-American males were an endangered species, he replied by saying “I think that is a very accurate statement. I do not see a presence of African-American males in my school districts. Normally when I attend state and national conferences, it is evident that the African-American male is missing as well” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 66). Participant 2 and Participant 4 also agreed that African-American males were an endangered species. Participant 2 simply said that this was an accurate statement. Participant 4 stated that something needs to be done about the absence of African-American male K-12 educators. He stated, “I feel it’s bad and I feel that a lot of things could be improved if they would do better recruiting and sending out the right people to recruit” (Wimbush, 2012, p. 67). Like Participant 4, Participant 1 agreed that recruiting efforts need to improve so that the teaching career will become more enticing to prospective African-American males.

When asked his opinion of what needs to be done to get more African-American males in K-12 education, Participant 2 had this to say:

First, we have to get them graduating from high school because, when you have a 50% drop-out rate and out of that 50% that graduated from high school, only 39% of those graduated from college, I don't know what the mathematics is, but when you have statistics like that, it shrinks the pool of African-American male teachers. (Wimbush, 2012, p. 67)

When Participant 4 was asked what prevents African-American male teachers from staying in the profession, he expressed that African-American males were not promoted frequently enough and that this would make some of them unlikely to remain in K-12 education.

Lived Experiences: Comparison and Analysis

In all three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012), the participants confirmed that African-American males are not present in K-12 education. In each of these studies, participants discussed reasons why it has been difficult to attract and retain African-American male teachers. For Study One (Williams, 2012), all fifteen participants expressed the need for more African-American male educators. For Study Two (Peatross, 2011), all seven participants stated that African-American males needed to be present in K-12 education. For Study Three (Wimbush, 2012), all five participants repeatedly stressed their belief that African-American male educators were not present.

Study One's (Williams, 2012) fifteen participants had opinions why African-American males are absent such as poor starting salaries, teaching being a female dominated profession, lack of recruitment efforts, and a low respect for the field of education. But other participants from Study One highlighted the benefits of teaching such as being a father figure or role model and being a person who could lessen the stereotypes that society has associated with African-American males. Study One was the only one of the three studies that asked if the shortage of

African-American male teachers was created intentionally or unintentionally and more than half (53%) of the participants believed that the shortage of African-American male teachers was created unintentionally.

In Study Two (Peatross, 2011), all seven participants expressed how they enjoyed teaching and sharing their experiences with their students, they enjoyed being role models to their students, and they stated that they did not wish to change anything about their teaching experience and their choice to become K-12 educators. Several of the participants discussed the necessity of having African-American males in K-12 education and they said that all youth should have the experience of being educated by an African-American male teacher.

For Study Three (Wimbush, 2012), the participants were asked if they believed that African-American males were an endangered species. All five participants agreed that this was the case and they suggested that better-recruiting practices would attract more African-American males into K-12 education.

Summary

Based on the three case studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012), clear themes emerged. All three studies utilized a qualitative phenomenological research design method. All three studies presented the historical aspects of African-American education, but the historical perspective of Study One focused on K-12 students, whereas the remaining studies focused on the higher education of prospective teachers. All three studies sought to get the opinions of African-American male educators to understand what barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American males as they pertained to their recruitment and retention in K-12 education.

A common theme that was found in all three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) was that low pay was a major barrier for African-American males. All the studies suggested that an increase in pay would help lure more African-American males into K-12 education. Other barriers that were mentioned in at least two of the three studies included teaching being perceived as “women’s work”, negative K-12 educational experience, poor academic preparation and performance, incarceration, special education classification, and low respect.

When the discussion turned to what motivates African-American males to become K-12 educators, all three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) found that intrinsic motivation was the key. All the participants in the three studies stated that being a positive role model or a father figure was a major influence for being a K-12 educator. Another response that was shared by all the participants as a motivator to enter K-12 education was that they had a desire to help and influence others.

All three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) examined recruitment and retention efforts that are in effect to attract African-American males into K-12 education. One of the programs, Call Me Mister, located in South Carolina and Virginia, was a recruitment and retention program that was discussed in all three studies. Study Two (Peatross, 2011) cited that local and state districts were offering incentives, higher salaries, and signing bonuses as means to increase the presence of African-American males in K-12 education. Study Three (Wimbush, 2012) stated that many schools, districts, colleges, and universities have sought to increase the number of African-American educators in K-12 education and two of the study’s participants suggested that recruiters should not only be African-American, but that they should

do their recruiting at historically Black colleges and universities where the number of African-American males would be the greatest.

When the lived experiences of African-American male educators were examined, all the participants agreed that African-American males are not present in K-12 education. For Study One (Williams, 2012), some of the participants believed that poor starting salaries, teaching being a female dominated profession, low respect, and a lack of recruitment were reasons why more African-American males do not enter K-12 education. However, some of the participants from this study highlighted the positive aspects of teaching such as being a role model or father figure and being someone who could minimize the stereotypes that have been associated with African-American males. All the participants for Study Two (Peatross, 2011) indicated that they enjoyed being teachers, they enjoyed sharing their life experiences with their students, they enjoyed being role models, and that they would not change anything about their teaching careers. Study Three's (Wimbush, 2012) participants had suggested that better recruiting practices need to be implemented to increase the presences of African-American male K-12 educators.

This chapter compared the three case studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) for common themes, outcomes, and findings for the barriers, motivation, and lived experiences of African-American male teachers as they pertain to their recruitment and retention in K-12 education. The next chapter will summarize this study, it will include the implications that resulted from this research, it will include recommendations for future research, it will include the relevance for educational leadership, and it will include a conclusion.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and the lived experiences of African-American males as they pertain to their absence in K-12 education. The Critical Race Theory was used in the current study to better understand why there is an absence of African-American teachers in K-12 education. In this chapter, findings of the comparative case study analysis will be further discussed based on the CRT.

Barriers

In this section, the first research question has been revisited and discussed. The first research question for this study was:

RQ1: What barriers prevent African-American males from becoming K-12 education teachers?

Previous studies reported multiple barriers that prevent African-American males from entering K-12 education. For example, Futrell (1999) stated that the greatest barrier that minority males face is their lack of academic achievement. He stated that African-American students were less likely to be placed in a gifted and talented program or an advanced-placement course in high school. He went on to say that, even when African-American males were capable of higher-level courses, few schools would place them into these higher-achieving programs. Nettles, Scatton, Steinberg, and Tyler (2011) found that the passing rate of African-American first time Praxis I and Praxis II test takers was between 30.3% and 48.5% lower than the passing rate of first time passing rate for Caucasians. The Schott Foundation's (2012) report, the study by Darensbourg, Perez, and Blake (2010), and the study by Rudd (2014) all discussed how boys are disciplined more often than Caucasian students.

The three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) discussed in this study found some similar barriers as some of the studies that were mentioned in the literature review such as poor academic preparation and performance and negative K-12 experiences. However, these studies cited additional barriers such as low pay, teaching being perceived as “women’s work”, and incarceration that prevented African-American males from entering K-12 education.

Study One (Williams, 2012) employs socio-cultural perspectives based upon Bandura’s (1988) Social Cognitive Theory, Bruner’s (1966) Constructivist Theory, and Vygotsky’s (1978) Sociocultural Theory, and reveals how poor academic preparation and performance and how negative K-12 educational experiences are a result of environmental and personal factors. The researcher’s theoretical framework suggests that, to overcome harsh personal and environmental factors, good behavior needs to be modeled “by a familiar individual in order for the information to be received in a meaningful manner” (Williams, 2012, p. 20). This leads directly to why it is important for African-American boys to have an African-American male present during their K-12 years and, with many of these boys being raised by a single mother, the need for African-American male teachers becomes even more critical. However, it does not mean that African American male students’ poor academic preparation and performances have been only attributed to their personal reasons such as family. Instead, it is critical for educational leaders to understand how school structures and school processes impact learning environment and experiences that might negatively impact academic preparation and performances.

For Study Two (Peatross, 2011), the researcher used ‘Motivational Factors’ (Moran, Woolfolk, & Hoy, 2001; Kimbrough & Salomone, 1993; Leong, 1995; Milner & Howard, 2004) as the theoretical framework to explain what motivates African-American males to enter K-12

education. While this study did examine the barriers that African-American males face when trying to enter K-12 education, the study's focus was on understanding what motivates African-American males to enter K-12 education. According to the study's findings, motivation to teach came from family, other teachers, or coaches. However, if African-American males have been negatively impacted by the school structures and school processes in their school years, this negative impact might outweigh any positive motivational factors needed for African-American males to enter K-12 education.

For Study Three (Wimbush, 2012), the researcher used CRT as the theoretical framework to explain why there is an absence of African-American male teachers in K-12 education. CRT explores how racism, race, and power operates in the school systems. CRT examines how theory and educational practices keep a certain ethnic group, in this case, African-American males, suppressed. While the researcher does not directly address CRT in his findings, the impact of CRT can be clearly seen through his study's data. With negative K-12 educational experiences, poor academic preparation and performance, special education classification, and incarceration given as barriers for African-American males who seek to enter K-12 education, the impact of CRT is evident. All these barriers keep African-American males from being viable candidates for a career in education because negative K-12 educational experiences, poor academic preparation and performance, special education classification, and incarceration are all barriers that suppress African-Americans and prevent them from becoming K-12 education teachers.

Diverse barriers were found in this study that prevented African-American males from entering K-12 education such as poor academic preparation and performance, negative K-12 experiences, low pay, teaching being perceived as "women's work", and incarceration that. Of

importance is that these barriers are formed not only by personal factors, but also by socio-cultural factors as well as the educational system.

Motivation

In this section, the second research question has been revisited and discussed. The second research question for this study was:

RQ2: What motivates African-American males to become K-12 education teachers?

Previous studies reported multiple motivators that attract African-American males to enter K-12 education. The National Educational Association and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education found that the desire to work with young people, the value of teaching to society, the influence of family, job security, long summer vacation, and personal growth were motivators to enter K-12 education (Williams, 2012). The Tes Institute Team (2016) had similar findings when they stated that you will get to learn as well, you will have job security, you will have holidays and the summer off from work, and you will make a difference in a child's life as motivators to entering K-12 education. Kelly (2017) found similar reasons why someone would want to enter K-12 education. This researcher found that guiding student potential and success, the ability to learn while you teach, molding students for the future, having job security, and having summers off as motivators to enter K-12 education.

The three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) cited in this study found similar motivators as some of the studies that were mentioned in the literature review such as the desire to help and influence others, being a positive role model, and being motivated by family, coaches, or other teachers. While the motivators found in the literature review, as well as the three studies, attract African-American males to enter K-12 education, CRT explains why many of these potential African-American male candidates choose to avoid entering K-12

education. Many African-American boys experience high suspension and expulsion rates, high special education classification, low academic preparation and success, and low high school and college graduation rates. Therefore, when these boys become men, they often cannot see past these barriers.

Recruitment and Retention

In this section, the third research question has been revisited and discussed. The third research question for this study was:

RQ3: What can be done to improve the recruitment and retention of African-American males in K-12 education?

Previous studies reported that teacher recruitment occurred primarily in teacher education programs at the collegiate level. Several of the studies that were discussed in the literature review (Leonard & Evans, 2013; Szecsi & Spillman, 2012; Lee & Herner-Patnode, 2010) stated that teacher preparation and recruitment programs need to first recognize the importance of preparing teachers for diverse student populations. Some of the teacher preparation programs fail to educate preservice teachers on how to teach students of color, low-income students, students with academic challenges, and English-language learners. Furthermore, there was no literature found that primarily addressed the teacher preparation and recruitment of African-American males. While some of these studies had some minority participants, most of the studies had Caucasian or female participants.

The three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) discussed in this study cited some teacher recruitment and preparation programs that were specifically targeted for African-American male teachers. One such program, Call Me Mister, was referenced in all three studies as a program that specifically sought to recruit and retain African-American males to

teach in at-risk elementary schools. Other programs that sought to recruit African-American males were Troops-To-Teachers, MenTeach, Steps to Success, and Grow Your Own. However, none of these teacher recruitment and retention programs were mentioned in the literature review. When viewing teacher recruitment and retention programs, it appears that most of these programs attempt to address the diversity of the students but there seems to be a lack of focus on increasing the diversity of the teachers. Most of the teacher recruitment programs do not seem to address teacher diversity which is strange considering how diverse the student population has become. Looking through the CRT lens, it seems as if minority teachers, particularly African-American males, are being excluded from most teacher preparation and recruitment programs which is evident from the number of studies in the literature review that had mostly Caucasian or female participants. Therefore, they should begin recruiting at the high school level with African-American males who excel in critical needs subjects such as mathematics, ELA, science, or social studies by offering them college credits towards a K-12 teacher education program. School districts and teacher preparation organizations should also collaborate with HBCUs to identify African-American males who show an interest in teaching in K-12 education and offer these candidates financial incentives, mentoring, and student teaching opportunities to make teaching in K-12 education more competitive with other career options.

Lived Experiences

In this section, the fourth research question has been revisited and discussed. The fourth research question for this study was:

RQ4: What are the lived experiences of African-American male teachers in K-12 education?

One of the studies, discussed in the literature review, was a study by Byran and Browder (2013). This study examined the lived experiences of African-American male kindergarten through second grade teachers to better understand why more African-American males refrained from choosing K-12 education as their profession. Through their study, they found that many African-American male teachers felt like they were viewed as disciplinarians or coaches instead of as a teacher. Jay (2009) discussed hyper-visibility which a term that refers to a person's racial identity being at the head of his experiences. Microaggression, which is defined as an action or comment that subtly and unintentionally expresses a prejudiced attitude towards a minority group, was also cited in the literature review as another reality that African-American male teachers must address.

The three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) that were used for the current study appeared in both the literature review and sections after the literature review. All three studies' participants acknowledged the absence of African-American male teachers in K-12 education and all three studies showed the need for African-America male teachers. Some participants of these studies stated that low pay, teaching being "women's work", and lack of recruitment efforts as some of the reasons why there is not a greater presence of African-American male teachers while other participants stated that being a role model or father figure and being a person who could lessen the stereotypes of African-American males were reasons to enter K-12 education. The recruitment practices were also mentioned and some of the participants suggested that better-recruiting practices need to be in place to attract more African-American males into K-12 education. CRT could explain why there is a lack of African-American males in K-12 education as many African-American males do not even see teaching as a viable career choice. With many African-American males believing that teaching is "women's

work”, the school system is partly responsible for their absence. African-American males have been taught that teaching is not for them while they are still K-12 students so that, when they become adults, they do not consider teaching when they seek a career. Therefore, African-American boys need to see more African-American male teachers during their K-12 years and they need to see more African-American males in school leadership positions so that, when these boys are in school, African-American teachers and administrators can promote the benefits and need for more African-American male K-12 education teachers.

Implications of the Study

This research has implications that are related to the theoretical frameworks that were identified in previous chapters. The theoretical framework that drove this research was CRT. CRT explores how race, racism, and power function in the school systems in the United States by exploring how theory and education practices are used to keep a certain ethnic group or race suppressed (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). As the three studies (Williams, 2012; Peatross, 2011; Wimbush, 2012) were read, compared, and analyzed, it became clear that there are many reasons why there are not more African-American male teachers in K-12 education. With reasons ranging from negative K-12 experiences which include high suspension and expulsion rates, high special education classification, high incarceration, and low graduation rates from high school as well as college, this study argues that more educational organizations need a more holistic approach to improve the presence of African-American males in K-12 education.

Instructional Leadership (U.S. Department of Education, 2005) was the other educational theory that helped to drive the current research. As schools’ primary goal is to improve the achievement of all students, since the achievement of African-American boys continues to be at the bottom, instructional leaders need to guide their teachers to be culturally sensitive to the

needs of their minority students. As the percentage of Caucasian females is near 80% in teacher population, this cultural sensitivity training is essential for school districts to improve their relationship with all students, but particularly with the African-American male students.

Relevance to Educational Leadership

The current research study on the barriers, motivation, recruitment and retention, and lived experiences of African-American males in K-12 education is relevant to educational leadership, administrators, and teachers because it will give them a better understanding of what deters and attracts African-American males to become teachers.

Barriers such as low pay can be addressed by educational leaders because, from this study, these leaders can begin to offer financial incentives such as loan forgiveness, bonuses, and higher starting salaries if they want to begin attracting African-American males. Other barriers, such as negative K-12 experiences and poor academic preparation, can be addressed at the K-12 level as a change in the current trend of African-American males must begin in the early years of their education.

Motivation, such as being a role model or helping others, can also be examined and strengthened by educational leaders. Recruitment efforts should start as early as kindergarten so that African-American boys can see the benefits of becoming teachers. Waiting until these boys are almost finished with high school or are entering college is too late to get many African-American males interested and excited about the possibility of becoming a K-12 educator.

From the lived experiences of the African-American male teachers, as narrated in the reviewed studies, it became clear that there is an absence of African-American males in K-12 education and they offered the suggestions of increasing the low pay of beginning teachers and increasing recruitment efforts as means of attracting them to a career in education. These

suggestions should be examined by educational leaders because these suggestions are coming from the specific group that is severely underrepresented currently in K-12 education and this group, more than any others, would best understand what could be done to improve the presence of African-American males.

Recommendations for Future Research

Throughout the current research study on the absence of African-American male teachers in K-12 education, it became clear that there was a significant lack of research on this topic. Therefore, future research studies can be conducted to help answer what keeps African-American males from the education profession. A study that would be most useful would be a study on the administration of African-Americans and Caucasians to see if their recruiting practices are similar or different as they pertain to the hiring of African-American male teachers. Such a study could be further extended by gender to see if the males and females go about this practice in the same manner. A study on educational policy changes that included early intervention or programs for African-American boys would be useful to help gauge the leading predictive factors that contribute to their academic achievement and success. Another noticeable absence in research on the topic of African-American males in K-12 education was the lack of quantitative studies on this topic. Most of the studies were qualitative in nature, therefore there is a need for conducting more quantitative research, particularly on how African-American male teachers can affect the engagement, motivation, and achievement of African-American boys. Recruitment and retention of African-American males is yet another study area that needs to be addressed in future research. While there are numerous studies on the recruitment and retention of Caucasian teachers, there is a clear lack of research on the recruitment and retention of African-American males in K-12 education.

Conclusions

The absence of African-American males in K-12 education has been a problem in education for years. Since the Civil War, African-Americans have been making strides in getting the same education as Caucasians. *Brown v. Board of Education* succeeded in the desegregation of schools; however, the unintended result of this decision was that 38,000 African-American teachers in twenty-one southern states lost their jobs (Oakley et al., 2009). In a career that is dominated by Caucasian females, combined with the low achievement, high dropout rates, and high placement of African-American boys in special education in K-12 schools, the need for more African-American male teachers is obvious. Serving as role models to these African-American boys, African-American male teachers can be the missing element to increasing the achievement of African-American boys. African-American teachers can provide the inspiration that these boys need to finish school and head to college, and these teachers can show African-American boys that teaching is a viable and needed career choice. African-American male teachers are critical in helping to eliminate the numerous negative statistics of African-American boys.

From this study, it became clear that the school districts and teacher recruitment programs are failing miserably in obtaining qualified African-American male teachers. With the diversity of the school population growing daily, more African-American male teachers are direly needed to keep up with the changing school demographics.

The biggest problem that must be solved, however, is to find out what needs to be done immediately to attract more African-American male teachers. While all the studies analyzed in the current research paper cited low pay as a major deterrent for African-American males seeking to enter K-12 education, this is just one of many reasons. School systems must do a

better job, starting in kindergarten, to change the current culture of education. Recruitment efforts must be changed as well. Waiting until college to try to recruit African-American male teachers, in many cases, is just too late. Recruitment is going to have to begin in K-12 education. ‘Career days’ in elementary, middle, and high schools need to occur more often where teachers of all colors and sexes can get an opportunity to show the benefits and joys of teaching. The negative K-12 experiences that many African-American males currently face could begin to change if school districts acknowledged the current issues with racism and bias that African-American boys face daily. School systems need to acknowledge that they are partly responsible for the absence of African-American male teachers in today’s schools and they need to seek out and listen to the opinions of these African-American teachers if they truly want to understand why African-American males are not present and what can be done to increase their presence.

Educational leaders need to make changes and revisions to current educational policies to attract and retain more African-American male teachers. While the studies all cited low pay as a major barrier for African-American males who wish to enter the profession, increasing the low pay of teachers’ salaries cannot realistically be the only solution to increasing and maintaining their presence. One suggested policy change would be to provide financial support for the family members of African-American male teachers such as paying for college courses. Another policy change could be to offer additional years of service for new teachers who enter and remain in K-12 education for a specified amount of time so that they can retire at an earlier age and receive a larger pension.

Educational leaders, administrators, and teachers should also have ongoing data monitoring practices in place to analyze discrepancies in the behavioral and academic referrals of African-American boys. Additionally, changes to school climate, instructional practices and

more culturally sensitive professional development opportunities need to occur to offset the negative trends of African-American boys in K-12 education.

It has been reported through national data (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005) and research studies (Williams, 2011; Bristol, 2014; Hudson, 2017) that only two percent of the K-12 teaching force is comprised of African-American male teachers. Now is the time to not just look at the statistics, but to genuinely try to turn these statistics around. If educational leadership takes a hard look at the suggestions for improving the presence of African-American male teachers that has been presented in the current research, growth in this absent population can begin.

REFERENCES

- 2025 Campaign for Black Men and Boys (2010). We dream a world: The 2025 vision for Black men and boys. *The Twenty First Century Foundation*. Retrieved from <https://www.opensocietyfoundations.org/sites/default/files/we-dream-a-world-20110104.pdf>
- Alliance for Excellent Education. (2009). The high cost of high school dropouts: What the nation pays for inadequate high schools. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2009/2009064.pdf>
- Allegretto, S., & Mishel, L. (2016). The teacher pay gap is wider than ever: Teachers' pay continues to fall further behind pay of comparable workers. *Economic Policy Institute*, 1-28.
- Allen, W. R., & Jewell, J. O. (2002). A backward glance forward: Past, present and future perspectives on historically Black colleges and universities. *Review of Higher Education*, 25, 241-261.
- Altbach, P. G., Berdahl, R. O., & Gumport, P. J. (2005). *American higher education in the twenty-first century: Social, political, and economic challenges* (2nd ed.). Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University.
- Amanchukwu, R. N., Stanley, G. J., & Ololube, N. P. (2015). A review of leadership theories, principles and style and their relevance to educational management. *Management 2015*, 5(1), 6-14.
- Anderson, L. B. (2011). Teacher diversity: Do male and female teachers have different self-efficacy and job satisfaction? *Department of Physical Science*, 1-17.
- Anderson, K. A., & Sadler, C. I. (2009). The effects of school-based curricula on reading

- achievement of African American males in special education. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 78(3), 333-346.
- Azuz, C. (2012). Survey: Teacher job satisfaction takes a dive. *CNN*. Retrieved from <http://schoolsofthought.blogs.cnn.com/2012/03/16/survey-teacher-satisfaction-takes-a-dive/>
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1988). Organizational application of Social Cognitive Theory. *Australian Journal of Management*, 13(2), 275-302.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Baskerville, L., Berger, L., & Smith, L. (2007). Role of historically Black colleges & universities in faculty diversity. *American Academic*, 4, 11-31.
- Bell, D. (2004). *Silent covenants: Brown v. Board of Education and the unfulfilled hopes for racial reform*. New York, NY: Oxford University.
- Belgrave, F. Z., & Allison, K. W. (2006). *African American psychology: From Africa to America*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bennett, C., McWhorter, L., & Kuykendall, J. WINTER 2012 29 Research (2006). Will I ever teach? Latino and African-American students' perspectives on PRAXIS I. *American Educational Research Journal*, 43(3), 531-575.
- Bireda, S., & Chait, R. (2011). Increasing teacher diversity: Strategies to improve the teacher workforce. *Center for American Progress*. Retrieved from https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wpcontent/uploads/issues/2011/11/pdf/chait_diversity.pdf

- Bozeman, T. D., Scogin, S., & Stuessy, C. L. (2013). Job satisfaction of high school science teachers: prevalence and association with teacher retention. *Electronic Journal of Science Education, 17*(4), 1-19.
- Brazzell, J. C. (2002). Bricks without straw: Missionary-sponsored Black higher education in the post-emancipation era. In J. L. Ratcliff (Ed.), *ASHE reader series: Racial and ethnic diversity in higher education*, 28-41. Boston: Pearson.
- Bridgeland, J., Dilulio, J., & Balfanz, R. (2009). On the front lines of school: Perspectives of teachers and principals on the high school drop-out problem. A report by Civic Enterprises in association with Peter D. Hart Research Associates for the AT&T 137 Foundation and the America's Promise Alliance. Retrieved from <http://www.civicerprises.net/pdfs/frontlines.pdf>
- Bridgeland, J., Dilulio, J., & Morison, K. (2006). The silent epidemic: Perspectives of high school dropouts. Retrieved from www.gatesfoundation.org/nr/downloads/ed/TheSilentEpidemic3-06FINAL.pdf
- Bristol, T. J. (2014). *Black men of the classroom: An exploration of how the organizational conditions, characteristics, and dynamics in schools affect black male teachers' pathways into the profession, experiences, and retention* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://academiccommons.columbia.edu/catalog/ac:175595>
- Brown, A. L. (2012). On human kinds and role models: A critical discussion about the African-American male teacher. *Educational Studies: Journal of the American Educational Studies Association, 48*(3), 296-315.
- Bruner, J. S. (1966). *Toward a theory of instruction*, Cambridge, Mass.: Belkapp Press.

- Bryan, N., & Browder, J. K. (2013). Are you sure you know what you are doing?? The lived experiences of an African-American male kindergarten teacher. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Teaching and Learning*, 3(3), 142-158.
- Bush Foundation (2013). *Teacher preparation program exit survey*. Next Common Metrics Exit Survey. Retrieved from https://www.stcloudstate.edu/soe/accreditation/_files/documents/standard2/Exit%20Survey%20-%20Exhibit%202.4.a.6.pdf
- Cambridge Dictionary (2016). Job satisfaction definition. Retrieved from <http://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/dictionary/english/job-satisfaction>
- Camera, L. (2016). Major teacher diversity problems in the U.S. *U.S. News*. Retrieved from <https://www.usnews.com/news/articles/2016-05-06/major-teacher-diversity-problems-in-us-schools>
- Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Borgogni, I., Petitta, I., & Rubinacci, A. (2003). Teachers', school staff's and parents' efficacy beliefs as determinants of attitude toward school. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 18(1), 15-31.
- Cherng, H. S., & Halpin, P. F. (2016). The importance of minority teachers: student perceptions of minority versus white teachers. *Educational Researcher*, 45(7), 407-420.
- Clemson University. (2010). Welcome to call me mister. *Clemson University*. Retrieved from <http://www.clemson.edu/hehd/departments/education/research-service/callmemister>
- Cochran-Smith, M. (2004). *Walking the road: Race, diversity, and social justice in teacher education*. New York: Teachers College Press.

- Cole, B. P. (1986). The black educator: An endangered species. *Journal of Negro Education*, 55(3), 326–334.
- Cotton, K. (2003). *Principals and student achievement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1975). Beyond the two disciplines of scientific psychology. *American Psychologist*, 30(1), 116-127.
- Darensbourg, A., Perez, E., & Blake, J. J. (2010). Overrepresentation of African-American males in exclusionary discipline: the role of school-based mental health professionals in dismantling the school to prison pipeline. *Journal of African-American Males in Education*, 1(3), 196-211.
- Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2001). *Critical Race Theory: An Introduction*. New York, NY: New York University.
- Demirdag, S. (2015). Assessing teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction: middle school teachers. *Journal and Educational and Instructional Studies in the World*, 5(3), 35-43.
- Denler, H., Wolters, C., & Benzon, M. (2014). Social Cognitive Theory. Retrieved from <http://www.education.com/reference/article/social-cognitive-theory/>
- Dovidio, J. F., & Gaertner, S. L. (2004). Aversive racism. *Advanced Experimental Social Psychology*, 3, 95-150.
- Education Week (2004). The Achievement Gap. *Education Week*. Retrieved from <http://www.edweek.org/ew/issues/achievement-gap/>

- Education Week (2011). The Achievement Gap. *Education Week*. Retrieved from <https://www.edweek.org/ew/issues/achievement-gap/index.html>
- Education Week (2018). The nation's teaching force is still mostly white and female. Retrieved from <https://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2017/08/15/the-nations-teaching-force-is-still-mostly.html>
- Evans, B. R., & Leonard, J. (2013). Recruiting and retaining Black teachers to work in urban schools. *Sage Open*, 1-12. Retrieved from sgo.sagepub.com/content/3/3/2158244013502989
- Ferguson, A. A. (2000). *Bad boys: public schools in the making of black masculinity*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Focus on Blacks (2011). Race against time: educating black boys. Retrieved from <http://www.nea.org/assets/docs/educatingblackboys11rev.pdf>
- Francom, G. M., & Reeves, T. C. (2010). John M. Keller: a significant contributor to the field of educational technology. *Educational Technology*, 50(3), 55-58.
- Futrell, M. H. (1999). Recruiting minority teachers. *Educational Leadership*, 56(8), 30-34.
- Gaines, G. F. (2000). Teacher salaries and state priorities for education quality: A vital link. *Education Benchmarks 2000 Series*. Southern Regional Education Board.
- Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (1996). *Educational Research* (6th ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman Publishers USA.
- Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2003). *Educational research: An introduction* (7th ed). Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Gay, G. (1997). A synthesis of scholarship in multicultural education. (Urban Monograph Series). Oakbrook, IL: North Central Regional Educational Laboratory.

- Gershenson, S., Hart, C. M. D., Lindsay, C. A., Papageorge, N. W. (2017). The long-run impact of same-race teachers. *Institute of Labor Economics*, 1-62.
- Glaser, B., & Strass, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Aldine Publishing Company, Hawthorne, NY.
- Gordon, J. A. (2005). In search of educators of color. *Leadership*, 35(2), 30-35.
- Gursky, D. (2002). Recruiting minority teachers. *American Teacher*, 86(5), 11-12.
- Haberman, M. (1999). Increasing the number of high-quality African American teachers in urban schools [Electronic version]. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 26(4), 208.
- Hale, J. (2011). The importance of correlational studies. *World of Psychology*. Retrieved from <http://psychcentral.com/blog/archives/2011/07/18/the-importance-of-correlational-studies/>
- Harper, S. R. (2006). *Black male students at public flagship universities in the U.S.: Status, trends, and implications for policy and practice*. Retrieved from <http://www.jointcenter.org/publications1/publication-PDFs/Dellums%20PDFs/harper.pdf>
- Hawkins, D. (2015). Where are all the Black male teachers? *NeaToday*. Retrieved from <http://neatoday.org/2015/09/22/where-are-all-the-black-male-teachers/>
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hoffman, C. M., Snyder, T. D., & Sonnenberg, B. (1992). *Historically Black colleges and universities, 1976–1990*. Washington, DC: United States Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

- Howard, T. E. (2007). *Factors that influence African-American males to become public school teachers* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (UMI No. 3286237)
- Hudson, T. (2017). *Why teach? What motivates African-American males to choose teaching as a career?* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://knowledge.library.iup.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?referer=https://www.google.com/&httpsredir=1&article=2358&context=etd>
- Hughes, G. D. (2012). Teacher retention: teacher characteristics, school characteristics, organizational characteristics, and teacher efficacy. *Journal of Educational Research*, 105(4), 245-255.
- Hussar, W. J., & Bailey, T. M. (2014). Projections of education statistics to 2022. *National Center of Education Statistics*. Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2014/2014051.pdf>
- Ingersoll, R. M. (2003). The teacher shortage: Myth or reality? *Educational Horizons*, 81(3), 146-152.
- Ingersoll, R. M., & Perda, D. (2010). Is the supply of mathematics and science teachers sufficient? *American Educational Research Journal*, 47(3), 563-594.
- Ingersoll, R., Merrill, L., & May, H. (2014). *What are the effects of teacher education and preparation on beginning teacher attrition?* Research Report (#RR-82). Philadelphia: Consortium for Policy Research in Education, University of Pennsylvania.
- Irvine, J. J. (2002). *In search of wholeness: African American teachers and their culturally specific classroom practices*. NY: Palgrave.

- Jay, M. (2009). Race-ing through the school day: African-American educators' experience with race and racism in schools. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 22(6), 671-685.
- Jaynes, G. D., & Williams, R. M., Jr. (1989). *A common destiny: African-Americans and American society*. Washington, DC : National Academy Press.
- Jewell, J. O. (2007). *Race, social reform, and the making of a middle class: The American Missionary Association and Black Atlanta, 1870-1900*. New York, NY: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Johnson, C. (2010). *Common experiences African-American males have en route to becoming elementary teachers* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1322&context=etd>
- Jones, B. A. (1974). The tradition of sociology teaching in Black colleges: the unheralded profession. In J. E. Blackwell & M. Janowitz (Eds.), *Black sociologists: Historical and contemporary perspectives*, 121-163. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Jones-Wilson et al. (1996). *Encyclopedia of African-American education*. CT: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Kaiser Family Foundation. (2006). *Race, ethnicity, & health care*. Retrieved from <http://www.kff.org/minorityhealth/7541.cfm>
- Keller, J.M. (1987a). Development and use of the ARCS model of instructional design. *Journal of Instructional Development*, 10(3), 2-10.
- Keller, J.M. (1987b). Strategies for stimulating the motivation to learn. *Performance & Instruction*. 26(8), 1-7.

- Kelly, M. (2017). The top 10 reasons to become a teacher. *Thought Co.* Retrieved from <https://www.thoughtco.com/top-reasons-to-become-a-teacher-8343>
- Kena, G., Aud, S., Johnson, F., Wang, X., Zhang, J., Rathbun, A., Wilkinson-Flicker, S., & Kristapovich, P. (2014). *The Condition of Education 2014* (NCES 2014-083). U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC. Retrieved 07/17/2016 from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch>.
- Kimbrough V. D., & Salomone, P. R. (1993). African Americans: Diverse people, diverse career needs. *Journal of Career Development*, 19(4), 265-279.
- Kirp, D. L. (2010). The widest achievement gap. *National Affairs*, 5(1), 54-74.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2009). *Beyond the big house: African-American educators on teacher education*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Leach, M., & Williams, S. (2007). The impact of the academic achievement gap on the African American family: A social inequality perspective. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, 15(2/3), 39-53.
- Lee, Y., & Hemer-Patnode, L. (2010). Developing teacher candidates' knowledge, skills, and dispositions to teach diverse students. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 37(3), 222-235.
- Lee, J., Ransom, T., & Williams, R. (2011). *The educational experience of young men of color: A review of research, pathways, and progress*. Retrieved from <http://youngmenofcolor.collegeboard.org>
- Leong, F. T. L. (1995). *Career development and vocational behavior of racial and ethnic minorities*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Lewis, S. T. J. (2013). *Recruitment and retention of kindergarten through grade 12 African-American male educators in rural environments* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://scholarworks.uark.edu/etd/896/>
- Lopez, S. J., & Sidhu, P. (2013). U.S. Teachers love their lives, but struggle in the workplace. *Gallup News*. Retrieved from <http://news.gallup.com/poll/161516/teachers-love-lives-struggle-workplace.aspx>
- Lynch, M. (2016). Black boys in crisis: the lack of positive role models. *Education Week*. Retrieved from http://blogs.edweek.org/edweek/education_futures/2016/11/black_boys_in_crisis_the_lack_of_positive_role_models.html
- Markow, D., Macia, L., & Lee, H. (2013). Challenges for School Leadership: a survey of teachers and principals. The MetLife Survey of the American Teacher. Retrieved from <https://www.metlife.com/assets/cao/foundation/MetLife-Teacher-Survey-2012.pdf>
- Martin, M., Fergus, E., & Noguera, P. (2010). The academic characteristics of Black and Latino boys that matter in achievement: An exploratory model of boys in single sex schools. New York, NY: Metropolitan Center for Urban Education. Retrieved from https://steinhardt.nyu.edu/scmsAdmin/uploads/006/097/Academic_Model_Final_Research_Brief.PDF
- Maslow, A. H. (1970). *New knowledge in human values*. Chicago: H. Regnery.
- Meertens, R. W., & Pettigrew, T. F. (1997). Is subtle prejudice really prejudice? *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 61, 54-71.
- Merriam-Webster (2017). Definition of African-American/Black. Retrieved from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/>

- Merriam-Webster (2017). Definition of Caucasian/White. Retrived from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/>
- Master, B., Sun, M., & Loeb, S. (2016). Teacher workforce developments: recent changes in academic competitiveness and job satisfaction of new teachers. *Education Finance and Policy*, 1-43.
- McAllister, G., & Irvine, J. (2000). Cross cultural competency and multicultural teacher education. *Review of Educational Research*, 70(1), 3-24.
- McBride, A. (2007). *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). Retrieved from https://www.pbs.org/wnet/supremecourt/rights/landmark_brown.html
- MenTeach. (2007). *Recruiting male teachers for education*. Retrieved from http://www.menteach.org/about_men_teach
- Milner, R., & Howard, T. (2004). Black teachers, Black students, Black communities, and *Brown* and insights from experts. *Journal of Negro Education*, 73(3), 285-297.
- Mitchell, A. (1998). African American teachers: unique roles and universal lessons. *Education and Urban Society*, 31, 104-122.
- Moore, C. M. (2012). The role of school environment in teacher dissatisfaction among U. S. public school teachers. *Sage Open*, 1-16.
- Moore, J., & Jackson, J. (2006). African American males in education: Endangered or ignored? *The Teachers College Record*, 108(2), 201-205.
- Moran, M., Woolfolk, A., & Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 783-805.
- Oakley, D., Stowell, J., & Logan, J. R. (2009). The impact of desegregation on black teachers in the metropolis, 1970-2000. *Ethnic Racial Studies*, 39(9), 1576-1598.

- National Assessment for Educational Progress (2015). *The Nation's Report Card: 2015 Mathematics and Reading Assessments*. Retrieved from:
https://www.nationsreportcard.gov/reading_math_2015/#?grade=4
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2005). Status and trends in the education of racial and ethnic minorities. *U.S. Department of Education: Institute of Education Science*.
- National Center for Education Statistics (2010). *Teacher attrition and mobility. Results from the 2008-2009 teacher follow-up survey, NCES 2010-353*. Washington, DC: Author.
- National Center for Education Statistics (2012). *Digest of education statistics*. Retrieved from
<https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2014015>
- National Center for Education Statistics (2014). *The condition of education*. Retrieved from
http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_clr.asp
- National Center for Education Statistics (2017). *The condition of education 2017*. Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2017/2017144.pdf>
- National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983). *A nation at risk: the imperative for educational reform*. A report to the nation and the Secretary of Education, U. S. Department of Education by the National Commission on Excellence in Education.
- National Education Association (2002). No child left behind act. Retrieved from
<http://www.nea.org/esea>
- National Education Association (2011). Race against time: education black boys. *Focus on Blacks*. Retrieved from <http://www.nea.org/assets/docs/educatingblackboys11rev.pdf>

- Neeson, K. (2017). Students especially African-Americans, thrive with warm, demanding teachers. *UVA Today*. Retrieved from <https://news.virginia.edu/content/students-especially-african-americans-thrive-warm-demanding-teachers>
- Nettles, M. T., Scatton, L. H., Steinberg, J. H., & Tyler, L. L. (2011). Performance and passing rate differences of African-American and White prospective teachers on PraxisTM examinations. *Educational Testing Service*, 1-82.
- Patton, M. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Peatross, K. A. (2011). African-American male teachers in K-12 education: a limited quantity (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://scholarworks.wmich.edu/dissertations/index.8.html>
- Perkins, B. (2011). The critical shortage of Black male teachers: to close the gap, we have to start them young. *New York Amsterdam News*. Retrieved from <http://amsterdamnews.com/news/2011/apr/12/the-critical-shortage-of-black-male-teachers-to/>
- Pohan, C., & Aguilar, T. (1999). The beliefs about diversity scale: user manual and scoring guide. Lincoln: University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Department of Educational Psychology and the center for Curriculum and Instruction.
- Powdermaker, H. (1966). *Stranger and friend: The way of the anthropologist*. New York, NY: W.W. Norton.
- Preston, H. F. (2016). The case for a teacher like me. *American Educator*, 1-3.
- Redd, K. E. (1998). Historically Black colleges and universities: Making a comeback. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 102, 33-43.

- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self Determination Theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68-78.
- Ronfeldt, M. (2012). Where should student teachers learn to teach?: Effects of field placement school characteristics on teacher retention and effectiveness. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 34(3), 3-26.
- Rosenberg, M. S., Boyer, K. L., Sindelar, P. T., & Misra, S. (2007). Alternative route programs for certification in special education: Program infrastructure, instructional delivery, and participant characteristics. *Exceptional Children*, 73(3), 224-241.
- Rudd, T. (2014). Racial disproportionality in school discipline: implicit bias is heavily implicated. *Kirwan Institute for the Study of Race and Ethnicity*, 1-8.
- Sandoval-Lucero, E., Shanklin, N. L., Sobel, D. M., Townsend, S. S., Davis, A., & Kalisher, S. (2011). Voices of beginning teachers: do paths to preparation make a difference? *Education*, 132(2), 336-350.
- Sanzone, J., Aylward, A., Ahram, R., Donchick, L., Flamm, A., & Noguera, P. (2014). The state of Black and Latino students in education. *Metropolitan Center for Research for Equity and the Transformation of Schools*. Retrieved from <http://www.clasp.org/issues/boys-and-young-men-of-color/pages/body/Schott-Foundation-Report-Executive-Summary-January-2015-The-State-of-Black-and-Latino-Students-in-Education-011215-1-2.pdf>
- Sargent, A. (2014). 15 African-American male teachers explain the inspiring reasons why they teach. *Mic Network Inc*. Retrieved from <https://mic.com/#.o2fmyG0vn>
- Schott Foundation for Public Education (2010). Yes we can: the Schott 50-state report on public education and Black males. Retrieved from <http://schottfoundation.org/resources/yes-we-can-schott-50-state-report-public-education-and-black-males>

- Schott Foundation for Public Education (2012). 50-state report on public education. Retrieved from <http://blackboysreport.org/bbreport2012.pdf>
- Schott Foundation for Public Education (2015). Black lives matter. *The Metropolitan Center for Research on Equity and the Transformation of Schools*. Retrieved from <http://www.blackboysreport.org/2015-black-boys-report.pdf>
- Schwartz, K. (2014). What motivates teachers. *Mindshift*. Retrieved from <https://ww2.kqed.org/mindshift/2014/07/30/what-motivates-teachers/>
- Simon, M. K. (2011). Dissertation and scholarly research: Recipes for success (2011 Ed.). Seattle, WA, Dissertation Success, LLC.
- Skepple, R. G. (2014). Preparing culturally responsive pre-service teachers for culturally diverse classrooms. *Kentucky Journal of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning*, 12(6), 57-69.
- Slater, R. (2008). American teachers: what values do they hold? *Education Next Journal*. Vol 8. No 1. Stanford University: Hoover Institute.
- Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium (2016). *2014-15 Technical Report*
- Smith, V. G., Mack, F. P., & Akyea, S. (2004). African-American male honor students' view of teaching as a career choice. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 31(2), 75-88.
- Snyder, T. D., & Dillow, S. A. (2010). *Digest of Education Statistics 2009* (NCES 2010-013). Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, United States Department of Education.
- Snyder, T.D., and Dillow, S.A. (2015). *Digest of Education Statistics 2013* (NCES 2015-011). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC.

- Solórzano, D. G., & Yosso, T. J. (2002). Critical race methodology: Counter-storytelling as an analytical framework for education research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 8(1), 23-44.
- Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 13, 693-713.
- Stephanou, G., Gkavras, G., & Doulkeridou, M. (2013). The role of teachers' self and collective efficacy beliefs on their job satisfaction and experienced emotions in school. *Psychology*, 4(3A), 268-278.
- Strayhorn, T. L. (2008). The invisible man: Factors affecting the retention of lowincome African American males. *NASAP Journal*, 11(1), 66-87.
- Streubert, H., & Carpenter, D. (2003). *Qualitative research in nursing: Advancing the human perspective*. (3rd ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott, Williams, & Wilkins.
- Su, Z. (1997). Teaching as a profession and a career: minority candidates' perspectives. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 13(3), 325-340.
- Szecsi, T., & Spillman, C. (2012). Unheard voices of minority teacher candidates in a teacher education program. *Multicultural Education*, 19(2), 24-29.
- Tate, E. (2017). Graduation rates and race. *Inside Higher Ed*. Retrieved from <https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2017/04/26/college-completion-rates-vary-race-and-ethnicity-report-finds>
- Tedlock, B. (2000). Ethnography and ethnographic representation. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* 2nd ed., pp. 455-486). Thousand Oaks, NJ: Sage.

- Tes Institute Team (2016). *Thinking of becoming a teacher? Here are 10 reasons why you should*. Retrieved from <https://www.tes.com/institute/blog/thinking-becoming-teacher-here-are-10-reasons-why-you-should>
- The National Association for Multicultural Education (2016). Definitions of multicultural education. *The National Association for Multicultural Education*. Retrieved from http://www.nameorg.org/definitions_of_multicultural_e.php
- Toppo, G. (2016). Black students nearly 4x as likely to be suspended. *USA Today*. Retrieved from <https://www.usatoday.com/story/news/2016/06/07/black-students-nearly-4x-likely-suspended/85526458/>
- Troops-to-Teachers Program. (2010). Troops-to-teachers program. *U.S. Department of Education*. Retrieved from: <http://www2.ed.gov/programs/troops/index.html>
- Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, 68, 202-248.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2007). The differential antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 944–956.
- UNESCO. (2005). *Guidelines and Recommendations for Reorienting Teacher Education to Address Sustainability*. Retrieved from unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001433/143370e.pdf
- U.S. Department of Education. (2005). *Digest of education statistics*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
- U.S. Department of Education (2005). Reading first notebook. Retrieved from <http://www.sedl.org/pubs/reading100/RF-NB-2005-Spring.pdf>

U.S. Department of Education (2011). Secretary calls black men to the blackboard. Retrieved from <http://blog.ed.gov/2011/02/secretary-calls-black-men-to-the-blackboard/>

U.S. Department of Education (2016). The state of racial diversity in the educator workforce. *Policies and Program Studies Service*, 1-35.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (2007). The Condition of Education 2007 (NCES 2007-064). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office

U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights (2015). Retrieved from <https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/hq9511.html>

U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics (2017). Retrieved from <https://www.bls.gov/>

Villegas, A. M., Strom, K., & Lucas, T. (2012). Closing the racial/ethnic gap between students of color and their teachers: an elusive goal. *Equity and Excellence in Education*, 45(2), 283-301.

Virginia Wesleyan College (2016). Definition of preservice teacher. Retrieved from <http://www.vwc.edu/images/stories/academics/educ/handbook.pdf>

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. (M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman, Eds.). Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.

Walker, L. (2016). America's extreme need for more black male educators. *Ebony*. Retrieved from <http://www.ebony.com/news-views/black-male-teachers#axzz4uqySx05C>

Weaver, R. (2005). Professional pay for professional: A cause worth fighting for. *NEA Today*, 24(2), 7.

- Webster-Merriam Dictionary (2017). Definition of microaggression. Retrieved from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/microaggression>
- Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist (1967). Manual for the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire. Retrieved from <http://vpr.psych.umn.edu/assets/pdf/Monograph%20XXII%20-%20Manual%20for%20the%20MN%20Satisfaction%20Questionnaire.pdf>
- White, H. (2009). Increasing the achievement of african-american males. Research Brief. *The Department of Research, Evaluation, and Assessment*. Retrieved from http://www.vbschools.com/accountability/research_briefs/aamalebrieffinalamarch.pdf
- Williams, J. (2015). Black brain matters: why are graduation rates so low? *Take Part*. Retrieved from <http://www.takepart.com/article/2015/02/11/black-brains-matter-why-are-graduation-rates-so-low>
- Williams, K. (2012). *A phenomenological study: African-American males in the education profession* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.liberty.edu/doctoral/492/>
- Willie, C. V., Reddick, R. J., & Brown, R. (2006). *The Black college mystique*. Boulder, CO: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Wimbush, J. D. (2012). A phenomenological study exploring shortages of African-American male teachers in public education (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED550947>
- Yosso, T. J., Parker, L., Solórzano, D. G., & Lynn, M. (2004). From Jim Crow to affirmative action and back again: A critical race discussion of racialized rationales and access to higher education. *American Education Research Association*, 28(1), 1-25.