

From the Editor

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Welcome to the 2012 summer issue of *The Charter Schools Resource Journal* as we enter the 20th anniversary of the charter school movement and 8th anniversary of *The Charter Schools Resource Journal*. Charter schools are public schools that operate under a contract or charter from an authorized agency dealing with public education systems. Supporters hope that charter schools will give new options to families and prove educationally effective by virtue of greater accountability to parents while opponents argue that greater choice may exacerbate current racial segregation and create fiscal strains for states and school districts. Despite this debate, charter schools have grown rapidly since the first one opened its doors in Minnesota in 1992. A recent report from *The Center For Education Reform* shows that there were over 1.5 million students enrolled in about 5,700 charter schools throughout the United States in 2011. The number of charter schools will increase in the foreseeable years since President Obama has added governmental support through the "Race to the Top" initiative.

The Charter Schools Resource Journal also enters its eighth year since its inception. In this eighth volume summer issue, I am delighted to present to you three articles on charter schools: one on the changing ethnic makeup of teachers and students in Texas elementary charter schools; another on what charter schools can learn from independent schools regarding enrollment management; and the third on the challenges, solutions, and important decisions that faced a novice charter school teacher.

In the first article entitled "Teacher and Student Ethnicity in Texas Elementary Charter Schools: Changes in the Past 11 School Years," Borgemenke, Hinojosa, Bone, and Slate examined the ethnic diversity of teachers and students at Texas elementary charter schools, and found that along with a substantial increase in the number of elementary charter schools, there was a significant change in the ethnic diversity of the teaching staff. That is, the percentages of African American students and teachers fell, the percentages of Hispanic students and teachers increased slightly, and the percentages of White students and teachers in Texas elementary charter schools had the largest increases. Further research needs to be conducted on the reasons and implications of the decrease of the African American students and teachers in Texas charter schools.

In the second article entitled "What Charter Schools Can Learn From Independent Schools: Regarding Enrollment Management," McGlone, a former Director of Admissions and Financial Aid at an independent school in South Florida, brought his experience in enrollment management plan into charter schools. The strategic enrollment management is a comprehensive process designed to help an institution achieve and maintain the optimum recruitment, retention and graduation rates of students. I encourage the charter school administrators to implement the step-by-step implementation of the strategic enrollment management plan to boost their recruitment, retention and graduation rates of students.

Finally, I am thrilled to present the article entitled "Out of the Frying Pan and Into the Fire: A Story from a Novice Charter School Teacher" by Ms. Carolyn Whale. Carolyn is a first year 4th Grade Teacher in Commonwealth Community Development Academy, a charter school in Detroit, Michigan. While not so long ago, charter schools were not the first choice

for our teacher candidates, Carolyn chose charter schools for her teaching career upon receiving her teaching degree. The challenges, solutions, and important decisions that faced her along the way, I am sure, will benefit not only prospective teachers, but charter administrator as well. We welcome more stories from charter schoolteachers, both novices and experts.

Together these articles serve as an eyewitness for the charter school movement. As always, your comments and suggests are greatly appreciated.

Happy Reading!

Out of the Frying Pan and Into the Fire: A Story from a Novice Charter School Teacher

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In this article, a novice 4th grade teacher in a Michigan charter school shared some of the challenges, solutions, and important decisions that faced her along the way towards her goal.

Keywords: charter school, novice teacher, story

Finally, the day arrived. After years of schooling, teaching practicums around the world, and developing a philosophy about students and learning, I was offered a teaching position. I would like to share some of the challenges, solutions, and important decisions that faced me, in the hope that my experience will benefit novice teachers as they start their career.

Let's start with a critical consideration for pre-service candidates: The university you attend and what you do as a student. The decisions you make while attending college have the potential to make or break you. Taking the time to find a college with a reputable program is critical. If you are currently at the stage of choosing a college, carefully consider your potential school's reputation, history, and accreditation in the field of education.

Your success in a teacher preparation program will depend in part not just on your grades, but also on the relationships you form with your professors, what student organizations you join, and perhaps, most importantly, the people with whom you associate during your college years. Making a wise decision in choosing a school and making college a positive experience through hard work, diligence, and positive relationships will pay off when it is time to get a job.

Building relationships deserves a closer look. The more doors a person can open through networking, the better. Networking is the relationships with professionals both inside and outside the educational field that you form. I made it a point to get to know my professors and be involved with organizations where I could meet people who could help me down the road. I also worked in the college's department of educational leadership for two years and that was very helpful in terms of meeting people and learning more about the field. These relationships proved to be very fruitful and helped me obtain my first job.

One of the biggest and most important decisions you will make during your college years is where to do field experiences. The best advice I could offer regarding field experiences stems from one word: diversity. Get into as many diverse classrooms as possible. Through my observations and teaching experiences in urban Great Britain, family-oriented West Africa, and rural Michigan, I was able to observe some exemplary teaching techniques to bring to my own classroom.

Observing both successful techniques and unsuccessful techniques are beneficial and will help make you a more effective teacher. During observations, keep a notebook to fill with ideas that can be used in your future classroom. I seem to learn as much from mistakes and failures as from successes. Unquestionably, robust field experiences will give the graduate many resources and experiences to become a successful and effective first year teacher.

Full of enthusiasm, the new college graduate exits college with strategies for the classroom, but with minimal career strategies. A resume may look impeccable on the surface, but it has to be part of an overall strategy and portfolio to be successful. Before I found my job at Commonwealth Community Development Academy, I had to produce a quality packet for my potential employer to view. The preparation and interview process, of course, will likely determine your success in getting a job.

My immediate goal was to get an interview, and by having a packet of information including my resume, letters of recommendation from professors and teachers, as well as reviews of my teaching abilities, I was able to get that first interview. Remember that the goal of an application is not to get a job, but to get an interview. And the goal of the interview is not to get a job; it is to get a job offer. Take one step at a time.

My portfolio packet was of high quality, and my next step was to choose where to put forth efforts in applying for openings. Initially, you must lay out the factors that you are looking for in a school. For me, the world was my limit for locations, but I primarily applied to charter schools in the United States. Other factors that I considered were type and level of school, location within the U.S., and mentoring programs available. I started with my dream schools that included these characteristics: a charter-based school, an urban environment, and a strong mentoring program. To be able to teach at a charter school was a high priority for me because of the focused curriculum and the flexibility allowed in delivering lessons.

Commonwealth Community Development Academy is a math- and science- centered charter school on the north side of Detroit. My science-related degree, teaching background, and preferred environment made this school a first choice for me. Given that charter schools generally allow their teachers more flexibility, and because many charters have researched-based programs that have been proven effective, this was highly appealing to me. More importantly, the school offered one of the best mentoring programs I had ever seen, which proved to be invaluable during my first full year in the classroom.

My school's leadership team hired me mid-year and allowed me to "learn the ropes" before getting my own classroom, but I also received considerable mentoring. At the time I was hired, I was not entirely sure what my exact position would be at the school, but with the mid-year hiring it was a perfect opportunity to learn and discover. The administration at Commonwealth Community Development Academy allowed me to make observations in every classroom starting with kindergarten and working my way through 8th grade over the course of about two months. I gained valuable experience working in several classrooms by teaching lessons and substitute teaching.

In addition to gaining experience through observations and diverse teaching experiences in different kinds and styles of classrooms, another piece of advice I can offer a first year teacher is to ask questions and get advice from veteran teachers. The teachers that have been at Commonwealth Community Development Academy know what works and what does not work. Experienced teachers will be one of your top resources for success, as they have seen

what makes the students thrive, and what makes the students fail. I must have asked over one hundred questions to the staff at Commonwealth Community Development Academy over the last three months this year, and the answers and advice I received from them has shaped me into the effective teacher that I know I can be, and for this I am extremely grateful. Additionally, mentoring was the key for me to feel comfortable and believe that I am in the right place at the right time. Without mentoring, I would have been lost. Because it is such an important topic, I would like to review some of the literature and fundamental aspects of mentoring.

Extensive research (Davis & Higdon, 2008; Holloway, 2001; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Johnson, 2011; Strong, 2009) around the country shows the many benefits of quality mentorship programs. These programs have been around for approximately one generation, and over half of the states in the country require mentorship programs for entry-level teachers. Statistics show that most schools with mentorship programs keep teachers longer than those without (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). For example, a study by Johnson (2011) on the effects of comprehensive induction programs on new teacher motivation, satisfaction, and retention suggests that comprehensive induction can positively influence the retention and development of new teachers, specifically teachers in urban, hard-to-staff schools.

In addition to the mentee receiving imperative information and practice, the mentors also receive many benefits. First, mentors reported that mentoring encouraged reflective practice (Huling & Resta, 2001; Jonson, 2008), and secondly, most mentors felt a professional renewal to the teaching profession (Steffy, Wolfe, Pasch, & Enz, 2000). Lastly, and possibly most importantly, collaboration between mentor and mentee has proven effective to produce some of their most meaningful interactions in the profession (Niday, Boreen, Potts, & Johnson, 2009).

When a multitude of mentorship programs are available, it can be difficult to find the most successful program. Interestingly, no one mentorship program has been proven to be the best; in fact, the best mentorship program for your school depends on many factors. Questions identified by the National NEA Foundation for the Improvement of Education (n.d.) that one should consider when choosing a mentorship program include:

1. Do we have existing state or local mentoring policies and are these effective?
2. What partners should be involved in the creation of the mentoring program and how?
3. Which teachers will receive mentoring?
4. Who will be involved in providing ongoing direction for the mentoring program?
5. How long will a protégé participate in a mentoring program?

Fortunately, mentorship at my school allowed me to observe and participate in each classroom in the school, to take notes, and learn about teaching styles and students. The program had three main components:

1. Observation: The first three weeks included observing every classroom.
2. Discussion: Post classroom observation, I had the opportunity to discuss educational strategies with each member on staff.
3. Implementation: After three weeks, I planned and taught lessons in nearly every classroom, giving me ample opportunity for teaching practice as well as time to learn students' names.

I would like to end with some comments about getting to know the greater community. It is critical that a new teacher gets to know the students and their families as well as the community in which they are teaching. By knowing what students experience at home will allow the new teacher to shape his or her teaching for maximum success. Doing this helps me implement one of the best teaching strategies available, relating new information to prior knowledge. By being familiar with students' interests, home life, and activities, the teacher can shape his or her teaching to meet the students' needs. Above all, show the students you care, and they will be motivated to be successful in your classroom and in their future endeavors.

I wish you the most success as you pursue your educational career. Times will be rocky, but continue communicating with teachers, students, and administration. Try to find a school that offers a strong mentoring program because, without one, you may be lost. Be aware of your surroundings, be smart, and be effective. Overall, education is the best and most rewarding field you can be in, and you will have some of the best days of your life in the classroom.

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What Charter Schools Can Learn From Independent Schools

Regarding Enrollment Management

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Enrollment management is an area of concern for both independent and charter schools. However, independent schools have an advantage: They have been around longer than charter schools, and therefore, are more experienced in enrollment management. As a result, charter schools should look at how independent schools address enrollment management and learn from their experiences.

Keywords: independent schools, charter schools, enrollment management

Introduction

Charter schools and independent schools have many common issues. One of the common issues is enrollment management. Both types of schools must monitor their enrollment, market their programs, and encourage families to enroll their children. Their survival depends on a healthy enrollment (National Association of Independent Schools [NAIS], 2011; National Education Association, n.d.). Independent schools have an advantage: they have been around longer than charter schools, and are therefore, more experienced in enrollment management (NAIS, 2011). As a result, it would behoove the public charter schools to exam how independent schools have managed their enrollment and learn from their many years of experience.

For the purposes of this article, I will use the National Education Association's definition of a charter school: "Charter schools are publicly funded elementary or secondary schools that have been freed from some of the rules, regulations, and statutes that apply to other public schools, in exchange for some type of accountability for producing certain results, which are set forth in each charter school's charter" (National Education Association, n.d.). Moreover, I will use the National Association of Independent School's definition of an independent school:

- Independent schools 'own themselves' (as opposed to public schools owned by the government or parochial schools owned by the church) and govern themselves, typically with a self-perpetuating board of trustees that performs fiduciary duties of oversight and strategic duties of funding and setting the direction and vision of the enterprise, and by delegating day to day operations entirely to the head of school.
- Independent schools finance themselves (as opposed to public schools funded through the government and parochial schools subsidized by the church), largely through charging tuition, fund raising, and income from endowment. (National Association of Independent Schools, 2011)

This article focuses on how some independent schools approach enrollment management through a strategic enrollment management plan. The strategic enrollment management plan outlined here can serve as a starting point for a public charter school that is experiencing problems with enrollment management and would like to create a plan to increase student enrollment.

The Beginning of Enrollment Problems

When independent schools begin to experience enrollment problems (e.g., decrease in applications, decrease in inquiries, dwindling student populations, low retention rates), very often, school administrators turn to the directors of admission and ask them to “fix” the problem; however, as McPhee (2001) explains, the entire school must be involved in the process. After many years in independent school admission, my experience has been that many administrators and educators view enrollment problems as the sole purview of the admission officer. During independent school conferences, I have often heard educators comment that enrollment problems begin and end in the admission office. Nothing could be further from the truth.

There are two main problems with recognizing a problem after it happens and assuming the admission office alone can fix the situation: 1) schools should not react to enrollment problems, but rather, they should anticipate them and plan for fluctuations, and 2) the entire school (faculty, administrators, students, and parents) is responsible for enrollment management, not just the admission officer. An effective approach to enrollment issues is to create a strategic enrollment management plan (SEMP). According to Dolence (as cited in Wilkinson, Taylor, Peterson, and Machado-Taylor, 2007), "strategic enrollment management is a comprehensive process designed to help an institution achieve and maintain the optimum recruitment, retention and graduation rates of students, where optimum is defined in the academic context of the institution-" (p. 7). What is unique about this definition is that “it facilitated the involvement of the academic enterprise in enrollment management” (Henderson, 2005, p. 3).

Thus, the SEMP takes control of the enrollment process; it is a map or chart that guides the entire institution with enrollment management. This plan anticipates fluctuations in enrollment, outlines a course of action to increase applications, identifies who is responsible and how each person/group can contribute to enrollment management, and finally, suggests ways to assess the effectiveness of the plan. It is a plan that involves everybody in the entire institution, not just the admission officer.

A SEMP for an independent school can have any number of areas. Although each school is different and experiences fluctuations in enrollment in various ways, a SEMP should contain, at a minimum, the following sections: 1) Goals for the SEMP, 2) Internal Marketing, 3) External Marketing, 4) Retention, 5) Research, 6) Financial Aid, 7) Timeline, and 8) Assessment. For the process to be effective, a committee or a group needs to be formed for each of the above sections (Wilkinson, Taylor, Peterson, and Machado-Taylor, 2007). Each group, led by an admission officer, business officer, or other administrator would then be responsible to create a plan of action that addresses each area. This plan of action for each group should include goals, a plan of action, a timeline, and assessment of their plan. Below is an explanation of each area of a SEMP and examples of how to implement a course of action.

The Strategic Enrollment Management Plan

Goals

The Goals section of a SEMP is perhaps the most important section of the plan. According to Wilkinson, Taylor, Peterson, and Machado-Taylor (2007), "The goals, objectives and strategies you articulate within the planning model, are the defining features of the road to success" (p. 18). Having goals set the tone of the SEMP; it clearly defines what you want to accomplish, and who is involved. It should contain, at a minimum, the following: What enrollment goals does the school have? Is it to increase applications only, so as to increase the applicant pool? Or is it to actually increase enrollment? Who will be responsible for each area of the plan? Who is ultimately responsible? And finally, there should be a brief timeline (Wilkinson, Taylor, Peterson, and Machado-Taylor, 2007).

Because this section describes the enrollment goals of the school and because it determines who is responsible for various actions, the head of school (or principal) must be actively involved. Assigning goals and a timeline when to produce results must come directly from the head administrator based on the committee or group's recommendation. Without the support of the head administrator, a SEMP will not succeed (Wilkinson, Taylor, Peterson, and Machado-Taylor, 2007).

Internal Marketing

The internal marketing strategy is a very important section of the SEMP. "Internal marketing...begins with creating a positive organizational culture within a school. This means that the first people who need to understand and believe in your mission are already part of your community" (McPhee, 2001, p. 72). What students, faculty, administration, and staff say and do affect the entire community. If there is a segment of the school population that is not speaking positively about the school community, it can poison the image of the institution. Parents and students listen to faculty, administration, and staff; students, especially, hear what is being said, and they repeat it! If a member of the community makes disparaging remarks about a program, a colleague, or the school in general, it can have a negative impact on strategic enrollment. Therefore, it must be made clear that everyone's comments shape individual perceptions of the school and can affect enrollment.

The group or committee that addresses internal marketing needs to make sure the entire community understands the importance of their participation in promoting a positive image of the school. Quite often, people just do not know how their words and/or actions can have an impact on the community (McPhee, 2001). Communicating this idea and getting a commitment from the entire community might be a challenge. Those in charge of internal marketing might develop activities (e.g., role play, team activities, skits, case studies) that demonstrate how positive and negative comments about colleagues or the institution can have an effect on the entire community, specifically, enrollment. Through these different activities, the entire community can see how their actions and comments can affect the image of the school, and thus, the enrollment.

External Marketing

While internal marketing addresses issues within the existing school community, external marketing refers to those who are outside the school community. As a result, this would be a significant part of a SEMP. Defining what marketing actually means or entails can be very complicated. According to Kotler (as cited in Orem, 2001, pp. 9-10), marketing refers to “the analysis, planning, implementation, and control of carefully formulated programs designed to bring about voluntary exchanges of values with target markets to achieve institutional objectives.” For an independent school (or charter school), this could mean making itself known to the local community, encouraging families to consider your school for educating their children, and actually making the decision to enroll their children in your school. It is quite possible your director of admission, business officer, or principal does not have a degree in marketing and may have limited experience with this area. Although this is a complicated area that often requires the assistance of a specialist, there are some things a school can do on its own to market itself to potential families and encourage them to consider your school. The list below gives some examples of how an independent school or charter school can market itself to potential families:

Realtor Breakfasts – Top realtors in your school’s area are excellent resources. The realtors come into contact with families on a daily basis. And one of the top questions potential home-buyers ask a realtor is “What are the schools in the area like?” During the breakfast, the inclusion of professionals have a golden opportunity to talk about the school and discuss the many qualities of their educational environment. The breakfast could be followed by a tour of the campus. Do not forget to give the departing realtors a “goodie-bag,” filled with applications, brochures, and the appropriate business cards.

Direct Mailing – It is very easy to create beautiful postcards. Many of the printing companies can help you create impressive works of art (e.g., school buildings, happy students) on a postcard that might encourage families to investigate your school. This postcard can be mailed out to prospective families, inviting them to visit your campus and learn about the many educational opportunities that await their children. Getting mailing addresses is simple: just contact any marketing company (e.g., Nielsen Claritas) and ask for mailing addresses for families in your area (i.e., households with school age children).

Print Advertising – Although this can be costly, it can also be effective. Most magazines offer assistance with creating a visually captivating ad. The difficult part to advertising can also be choosing which venue would be most appropriate. Some schools choose local publications (e.g., community magazines, realtor publications, neighborhood newspapers) and schools with international populations might choose a publication more widely read (e.g., airline magazines).

Open House – There is no better way than an open house to show the local community what you have to offer. An open house can give prospective families an opportunity to meet teachers, administrators and students, tour the facilities, learn about your programs, and ask questions. It is a golden opportunity to shine and promote the value of your program (Mitchell, 2001).

Retention

Retention refers to current students who remain at the school. The higher the number of students who reenroll, the higher the retention rate will be. And remember, it costs money to replace a student (interviewing, paperwork, advertising); a high retention rate lowers costs. Therefore, not only does it speak well for a school when the retention rate is high, but it is also cost effective. What directly affects retention is how a student feels about the school, the curriculum, his/her classmates, and the teachers. McPhee (2001) states: “Independent school leaders agree that the first ingredient of a positive school culture is a good staff” (p. 72). If a student is dissatisfied with any of the above, the parents may begin to look for a school that will better serve their child’s needs.

One effective means to assess why students/families leave is to ask them. This can be done via exit interviews, surveys, or a simple phone call. Quite often, families will speak more openly with, for example, the director of admission or a counselor, than with the principal or the child’s teacher. Because the director of admission or other administrator is not directly involved with the daily activities of the classroom, the parent may feel freer to criticize a program, or a school, or a faculty member with someone who is not being criticized. This administrator could then relay this information to the appropriate personnel and begin to try to address the issue.

Research

Research applies to many areas of admission, marketing, and enrollment management. In order to understand the institution, the students, the faculty, the staff, and the surrounding community, research must be conducted. In essence, decisions must be data driven (Wilkinson, Taylor, Peterson, and Machado-Taylor, 2007). In an effort to gain this understanding of the needs of the student body, retain the current enrollment, and increase applications, the school needs to fully understand who is applying and why. Also, the school must understand the needs of the current population.

The research needed should focus on at least three areas: the current school population, families who leave, and the general population in the school area. To gain a full understanding, surveys, demographic studies, and statistical analysis should be used. Once the school has a full understanding of these issues, it can orient marketing and management to address these needs. The following types of surveys can be very helpful in understanding the school and local communities:

Current Families – This survey should be sent to all current families (for a higher response rate, my experience has been that hard copies should be mailed out with return, stamped envelopes). This survey should attempt to measure what the family finds most appealing about the school community, their feelings about the educational level their children are experiencing, and what they would like to change in the school.

New Families – This survey should be sent to new families, about two months into the academic year. This survey should attempt to measure why they choose the school, what appealed to them most, what affected their decision to enroll, and their overall feelings of the school.

Accept/Withdrawal – This would be the families who initially returned an enrollment contract, but then decided not to attend (often before the deadline to withdraw the —contract). This survey should attempt to measure what happened that the family decided not to attend in the fall.

Exit Survey – This survey should be sent to families who decide not to reenroll their child. It can be mailed to the families, or an administrator could call a parent and ask the survey questions in a conversational style. Obviously, this survey should focus on why the family did not return, what went wrong at school, how does the child feel, and where they are going to send their child the following year.

The committee that is responsible for this section can create its own surveys or purchase new ones. Another option may be to contact schools in your area and ask for the surveys they use. You can then create your own survey by using questions from other surveys and adding questions/statements of your own. There are organizations that offer surveys for purchase, and you may want to consider them (e.g., The National Association of Boarding Schools). The information the committee can obtain from these surveys will enable the committee to suggest ways to increase applications, enrollment, and retention.

Financial Aid

Financial aid is a means independent schools use to attract qualified candidates who otherwise would not be able to attend due to the cost of tuition. It is also a means to maintain a diverse student body. By having funds set aside to assist families with tuition, schools can increase enrollment, create a more diverse student population, and help meet enrollment goals. This is an area that public charter schools do not have to address. However, the strongest advantage that a public charter school has is that it is free. Public charter schools should emphasize this. This advantage over an independent school should be a significant part of the marketing plan. Many charter schools offer an independent school like environment but at zero cost to the families.

Timeline

An effective SEMP will have a timeline. This timeline will identify each area of the SEMP, the responsible parties or committees, when goals/plans are due, when meetings should take place, and dates when the results of their actions are due. In essence, a timeline helps to ensure that the SEMP is on course.

Assessment of the SEMP

Finally, there should be an assessment of the SEMP (Wilkinson, Taylor, Peterson, & Machado-Taylor, 2007). After the SEMP is created, committees are formed, goals established, and plans of action are enacted, some form of assessment should be undertaken in order to measure the effectiveness of the SEMP. The assessment should answer, at a minimum, the following questions: 1) Were the steps the institution took to achieve its goal(s) effective?; 2) Are there tangible results?; and 3) What is to be done next?

Conclusion

This article does not purport to solve all issues with enrollment management in public charter schools. It is merely a starting point. Each school has its own goals and challenges with enrollment management, and no single article can address all issues with all schools and provide a simple answer. But hopefully, this article has given the appropriate school administrator ideas for creating his/her own SEMP that can be implemented in the near future.

An extensive search on various education databases produced no research on SEMP's at the independent or charter school levels (specifically, successes and failures in the admission office). It is recommended that research be conducted and published that measures various techniques in a SEMP at the charter school and independent school levels. In essence, provide data of what is most effective for various schools.

The most important reason to create a SEMP is to take control of enrollment. Just waiting for families to apply, relying solely on word-of-mouth, and hoping families continue to apply is not an acceptable approach to enrollment management. By taking control of enrollment, the school becomes actively involved in who applies, how many students apply, and controlling the image of the school. The SEMP is a living document; it should constantly undergo changes during the planning and implementation segments. According to Anderson (2004), a SEMP

provides an opportunity to look at resources needed (i.e., money, time and personnel), allows the school to better orchestrate the student body, improves brand recognition, and prepares the school to respond to marketing conditions. A strategic enrollment management plan instills a proactive approach instead of a reactive approach to doing business. Best of all, it places you in better control of your candidate pool. (p. 7)

So, before your school experiences difficulties with enrollment, start working on your SEMP and take control of enrollment.

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Teacher and Student Ethnicity in Texas Elementary Charter Schools: Changes in the Past 11 School Years

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In response to growing concerns about a lack of ethnic diversity in charter schools, the authors examined the ethnic diversity (i.e., Black, Hispanic, and White) of teachers employed at and students who attended Texas elementary charter schools. Along with a substantial increase in the number of elementary charter schools was a significant change in the ethnic diversity of the teaching staff. The percentages of Black students and Black teachers substantially decreased, whereas the percentages of Hispanic students and Hispanic teachers increased slightly. Of particular note was that the percentages of White students and White teachers in Texas elementary charter schools substantially increased. Statistically significant relationships and large effect sizes were calculated between teacher ethnic diversity and student ethnic diversity in elementary charter schools in Texas, and implications of findings are discussed.

Keywords: teacher diversity, student diversity, elementary charter schools, statewide study

Introduction

The National Alliance for Public Charter Schools (NAPCS) reported that charter schools in the United States have experienced explosive growth in the last 11 years, expanding from 722 schools to 2,107 schools in that time period (NAPCS, 2011). This growth has been spurred, by the enactment of legislation such as the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act (2002), which provided additional funding and a favorable regulatory environment for charter schools (NCLB Act, 2002). Governmental support for charters has continued in such form as an education act recently enacted by President Obama. The "Race to the Top" initiative, where charters are specifically labeled (American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 [ARRA], 2009), provides increased award funding for education including charter schools. Charter schools would seem to have an expanding role in the U.S. education arena for the foreseeable future.

Charter schools do not constitute a one-size-fits-all definition. As such, a common, universally accepted definition does not exist. In Texas, for example, three types of charter schools are permitted by statute: open-enrollment charters, campus charters, and home-rule school district charters (Walsh, Kemerer, & Maniotis, 2005). Open enrollment charters are granted by the state with a cap of 160 schools unless the school serves at least 75 percent "at-risk" or drop-

out students; campus program charters are granted by a school district with no cap; and home-rule school district charters are also granted by a school district with no cap. Public or private higher education institutions, nonprofit organizations, government entities, and groups of parents or teachers may start a charter school (Texas Education Agency, 2011)

Open-enrollment charter schools in Texas are sponsored by institutions of higher education (private or public); non-profit organizations as set out in the Internal Revenue Code; or government entities (TEA, 2011). In 1997, the Texas Legislature provided for an additional 100 open-enrollment charter schools as well as an unlimited number of 75 Percent Rule charter schools, which serve students at risk of failure or dropping out of school. To qualify as a 75 Percent Rule charter school, enrollment must include 75% or more at-risk students. Further provisions by the Texas Legislature in 2001 allowed for an unlimited number of specialized charter schools sponsored by public senior colleges and universities. As a result of all the reforms in the educational system of Texas, the number of charter schools has increased dramatically. As of August 2008, 207 open-enrollment charter schools were in operation and 45 home-rule charter schools (Center for Education Reform [CER], 2010; TEA, 2009). As of January of 2009, charter schools in Texas served a total of 106,368 students (TEA, 2009).

A basic conceptualization of charter schools may be present in the definition proffered by the Education Commission of the States (2010):

Charter Schools are semiautonomous public schools, founded by educators, parents, community groups or private organizations that operate under a written contract with a state, district or other entity. This contract, or charter, details how the school will be organized and managed, what students will be taught and expected to achieve... Many charter schools enjoy... freedom from rules and regulations...
(<http://www.ecs.org/html/issue.asp?issueid=20>, April 29, 2010)

The Texas Education Agency (TEA, 2011) lists five purposes of charter schools: improve student learning; increase the choice of learning opportunities within the public school system; create professional opportunities that will attract new teachers to the public school system; establish a new form of accountability for public schools; and encourage different and innovative learning methods.

In 1991, the state of Minnesota enacted the first legislation providing for establishment of public charter schools. From that point in time until the 2009-2010 school year, only 11 states have failed to pass laws allowing for the formation of charter schools. The state of Texas had 52 elementary charter schools in the 1999-2000 school year, and that number had grown to 166 in the 2009-2010 school year. This surge in numbers may lead to the conclusion that many school districts and parent groups continue to support the concept of the charter school.

Although that support is presumably widespread, when judged by charter school rapid expansion, support is certainly not universal (e.g., Hutton, 2009; Resnick, 2010; Teske & Schneider, 2001). The growth of charter schools has generated concern among several authors. For example, Frankenberg, Siegel-Hawley, and Wang (2011) noted that charter schools can segregate students by socio-economic class and by race and ethnicity. In their study,

Frankenberg, et al. (2011) examined the numbers of White, Black, Hispanic, and socio-economically disadvantaged students who were enrolled in charter schools. Conclusions reached by Frankenberg, et al. (2011) about charter school enrollment were that the charter school student population was becoming increasingly segregated, based on racial, ethnic, and socio-economic status. Frankenberg, et al. (2011) expressed strong concern that patterns of segregation seem to be emerging in charter schools across the nation.

The need for students to have teachers of the same ethnicity has long been espoused. In fact, several researchers (e.g., Guyton, Saxton, & Wesche, 1996; Johnson, 2008; Jones, Young, & Rodriguez, 1999; Ochoa, 2007) have contended that the primary reason why minority teacher candidates want to teach is to serve as a role model for minority students. Additionally, minority teacher role models have been noted as a possible explanation for increased academic success of minority students in multiple studies (Dee, 2004; Evans, 1992; Hess & Leal, 1997; Pitts, 2007; Stewart, Meier, & England, 1989). The Center for Applied Linguistics emphasized the need for second language learners to have role models who demonstrate cultural diversity (CAL, 2000). Seeing others who have experienced the same educational challenges experienced by second language learners may provide motivation for success in the school setting (CAL, 2000).

Researchers (e.g., Casteel, 1998; Dee, 2004) have linked minority student performance to a diverse and demographically reflective faculty in the classroom. Recently, the National Education Agency released the report, *Assessment of Diversity in America's Teaching Force: A Call to Action* (NEA, 2004). Stated in this report was that a diverse teaching faculty maintains higher expectations and promotes higher student achievement both socially and academically. Furthermore, positive impacts in student achievement have been attributed to increased percentages of minority teachers in schools with large minority student populations in numerous studies (Branch & Kritsonis, 2006; Tyler, Yzquierdo, Lopez-Reyna, & Saunders-Flippin, 2004; Villegas & Irvine, 2010). This continuing pattern of diversity in elementary charter schools could be positive predictors for student academic and social achievement across the state of Texas.

The purpose of this study was to examine the ethnic diversity of both charter school teachers and charter school students in the state of Texas. Data were gathered for 11 school years to determine the extent to which statistically significant relationships were present in the diversity of teacher and student demographics in Texas elementary charter schools. Starting with school year 1999-2000 and extending through school year 2009-2010, the researchers examined TEA data about the ethnic make-up of elementary charter schools viewed through the lens of the following research questions: (a) What is the ethnic diversity (i.e., Black, Hispanic, and White) of teachers employed in Texas elementary charter schools for each school year from 1999-2000 to 2009-2010?; (b) What is the ethnic diversity (i.e., Black, Hispanic, and White) of students in Texas elementary charter schools for each school year from 1999-2000 to 2009-2010?; and (c) What is the relationship between teacher ethnic diversity (i.e., Black, Hispanic, and White) and student ethnic diversity (i.e., Black, Hispanic, and White) in Texas elementary charter schools for each of the 11 school years from 1999-2000 to 2009-2010?

Method

Participants

Participants in this investigation were teachers employed in Texas elementary charter schools during an 11-school-year time period, from 1999-2000 to 2009-2010, and students who were enrolled in Texas elementary charter schools during this same time period. The number of charter schools increased over this time period, with 52 elementary charter schools present in the 1999-2000 school year, and 166 elementary charter schools present in the 2009-2010 school year. The number of elementary charter schools in Texas increased more than three times from the 1999-2000 school year to the 2009-2010 school year. Readers are referred to Tables 1 through 6 for the specific number of Texas elementary charter schools by school year.

Instrumentation and Procedures

Data were downloaded from the TEA (2010a) Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) database. The TEA (2010a) AEIS contains an extensive set of data regarding teacher characteristics, student characteristics, student performance, and school-related factors. For the purposes of this investigation, the researchers downloaded for each year the following variables: charter schools (yes/no); school level (i.e., elementary, middle, secondary, and both); teacher ethnic percentages (i.e., Black, Hispanic, and White); and student ethnic percentages (i.e., Black, Hispanic, and White). Data from the TEA AEIS website are directly downloadable as *.dat files. Three separate *.dat files (i.e., charter schools and school level file, teacher ethnic percentage file; and student ethnic percentage file) were converted into SPSS and then merged into a single file for each school year. Thus, 11 separate SPSS data files were created, one for each school year.

Reliability and validity, as traditionally conceptualized, were not appropriate for this study. Rather, the researchers conducted this study based on the assumption that TEA verifies the accuracy of data reported to them. The TEA requires that school districts and school campuses provide verifiable information through the Public Education Information Management System (TEA, 2010b). Audits are conducted regarding the quality of the reported information, and sanctions are provided when inaccurate data are consistently submitted to the state. Thus, these findings are based upon the assumption that the data pertaining to charter schools were correctly reported; that school levels were correctly identified; that teacher ethnicity was correctly represented; and that student ethnic membership was correctly coded. To the extent that these data were not reported correctly to the state, the findings would be influenced.

Of concern to these authors and to the readers should be data from the 2004-2005 school year. Data for this school year were markedly different from the data for each of the other 10 school years. To ensure accurate downloading and merging, the authors downloaded and merged the data files two times, only to find the same results. Problems with this school year have also been noted by Greeney (2010) and by Bone (2011). No reasons have been provided for this anomaly.

Results

Ethnic Diversity of Teachers

Percentages of Black teachers, Hispanic teachers, and White teachers were calculated for each of the 11 school years. These percentages are present in Tables 1 through 3. Medians, not traditionally provided in most quantitative studies, are present because some of the data were skewed. That is, some Texas elementary charter schools had high percentages of, as well as low percentages of, Black teachers and Hispanic teachers. As such, providing only means could lead to an inaccurate picture of teacher ethnic percentages at Texas elementary charter schools. An examination of Tables 1 through 3 shows, in some cases, markedly different medians and means for the same school year.

For Black teachers employed in Texas elementary charter schools in 1999-2000, the highest percentage was in the 2000-2001 school year. In that school year, 49.57% of the teachers employed in Texas elementary charter schools were Black. Interestingly, the percent of Black teachers employed at Texas elementary charter schools began decreasing in the 2002-2003 school year and continued to decrease. The most recent school year, 2009-2010, for which data were available yielded only 10.25% of teachers employed at Texas elementary charter schools were Black. Depicted in Table 1 are the median and mean percentages of Black teachers employed at Texas elementary charter schools over the 11-school-year time period. In addition, the number of charter schools and standard deviations regarding teacher employment are present.

Concerning Hispanic teachers employed in Texas elementary charter schools in 1999-2000, the median percentage was less than 2.00%. Mean percentages of Hispanic teachers were 15.07% in 1999-2000, compared with a high of 24.82% in 2004-2005. The most recent school year, 2009-2010, for which data were available yielded only 16.99% of teachers employed at Texas elementary charter schools were Hispanic. Table 2 delineates the median and mean percentages of Hispanic teachers employed at Texas elementary charter schools from the 1999-2000 through the 2009-2010 school years. In addition, the number of charter schools and standard deviations regarding teacher employment are present.

Regarding White teachers employed at Texas elementary charter schools, in the 1999-2000 school year, 39.02% of the teachers were White, compared with the 2009-2010 school year in which 71.67% of the teachers were White. Present in Table 3 are the median and mean percentages of White teachers employed at Texas elementary charter schools over the 11-school-year time period. In addition, the number of charter schools and standard deviations regarding teacher employment are present.

Ethnic Diversity of Students

As mentioned in the section for teacher ethnicity, we provided median percentages, not traditionally provided in most quantitative studies, because some of the data regarding student enrollment were skewed. That is, some Texas elementary charter schools had high percentages of, as well as low percentages of, Black students and Hispanic students. As such, providing only means could lead to an inaccurate picture of student ethnic percentages at Texas elementary

charter schools. An examination of Tables 4 through 6 shows, in some cases, markedly different medians and means for the same school year.

More than half of the students enrolled in Texas elementary charter schools in the 1999-2000 school year were Black. From 2004-2005 to present, however, the average percentage of Black students enrolled in Texas elementary charter schools decreased, from 43.05% in the 2005-2006 school year to 15.57% in the 2009-2010 school year. Table 4 depicts the median and mean percentages of Black students enrolled in Texas elementary charter schools from the 1999-2000 school year through the 2009-2010 school year. In addition, the number of charter schools and standard deviations regarding student ethnicity are present.

Regarding Hispanic students, 26.41% of the students enrolled in Texas elementary charter schools in the 1999-2000 school year were Hispanic. These percentages, as shown in Table 5, increased to the 40.00% range for the most recent five school years. Hispanic students comprised the highest percentage of student enrollment in Texas elementary charter schools in the last five years. In addition, the number of charter schools and standard deviations regarding student ethnicity are present in Table 5.

Concerning White student enrollment in Texas elementary charter schools, 20.92% of the students were White in the 1999-2000 school year. For eight of the 11 school years, the average percentage of White students was in the 10 to 20 percent range. Readers should note the substantial increase in the percent of White students (38.69%) for the most recent school year. Depicted in Table 6 are the median and mean percentages of White students enrolled in Texas elementary charter schools from the 1999-2000 to the 2009-2010 school years. In addition, the number of charter schools and standard deviations regarding student ethnicity are present.

Relationships Between Black Teacher Employment and Black Student Enrollment

Following the calculation of the percentages of Black teacher employment and Black student enrollment in Texas elementary charter schools, correlations were calculated to determine the relationships between where Black teachers were employed and where Black students were enrolled. Prior to such calculations, checks for linearity and for normality of data occurred (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002) and the appropriateness of parametric correlation procedures was verified.

The Pearson r correlation for the 1999-2000 school year between where Black teachers were employed and where Black students were enrolled yielded a statistically significant relationship, $r(52) = .85$, $p < .001$, and a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The strength of association was 72.25% (i.e., squaring the r value), which revealed a large degree of overlap between where Black teachers worked and where Black students went to school. Table 7 contains the r values, r squared values, and the effect size range for all 11 school years.

Similar results were present for the 2000-2001 school year, $r(50) = .78$, $p < .001$, and a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). A large degree of overlap, 60.84%, was present between where Black teachers worked and where Black students went to school. For the 2001-2002 school year between Black teachers and Black students, the relationship was statistically significant, $r(71) =$

.84, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The degree of overlap, 70.56%, was commensurate with the previous two school years. Concerning the 2002-2003 school year, a statistically significant relationship was yielded, $r(74) = .85$, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The degree of overlap, 72.25%, was quite similar to the previous three school years. Regarding the 2003-2004 school year, a statistically significant result was revealed, $r(82) = .86$, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The extent of overlap, 73.96%, between where Black teachers were employed and where Black students were enrolled was congruent with the previous four school years.

As indicated previously, the 2004-2005 school year data yielded markedly different results from the other 10 school years. The relationship between Black teacher employment and Black student enrollment was not statistically significant for the 2004-2005 school year, $r(87) = .14$, $p = .21$. This result was in stark contrast to the statistically significant results for the other 10 school years.

Regarding the 2005-2006 school year, the relationship was statistically significant, $r(95) = .82$, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The extent of overlap, 67.24%, was commensurate with the 1999-2000 through the 2003-2004 school years. For the 2006-2007 school year, a statistically significant correlation was yielded, $r(111) = .84$, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The overlap, 70.56%, between where Black teachers worked and where Black students went to school was congruent with previous findings.

Concerning the relationship between where Black teachers were employed and where Black students were enrolled for the 2007-2008 school year, a statistically significant association was present, $r(134) = .82$, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The degree of overlap, 67.24%, was commensurate with previous results. Regarding the 2008-2009 school year, the result was statistically significant, $r(157) = .78$, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The extent to which Black teacher employment and Black student enrollment overlapped, 60.84%, was congruent with previous results. Finally, for the 2009-2010 school year, the relationship between where Black teachers were employed and where Black students were enrolled was statistically significant, $r(166) = .80$, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). Again, the overlap, 64.00%, was quite similar to the strength of associations for the other years of data analyzed.

Relationships Between Hispanic Teacher Employment and Hispanic Student Enrollment

Following the calculations of the percentages of Hispanic teacher employment and Hispanic student enrollment in Texas elementary charter schools, correlations were calculated to determine the relationships between where Hispanic teachers were employed and where Hispanic students were enrolled. Prior to such calculations, checks for linearity and for normality of data occurred (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002), and the appropriateness of parametric correlation procedures was verified.

For the 1999-2000 school year, a statistically significant relationship was yielded between where Hispanic teachers worked and where Hispanic children went to school, $r(52) = .72$, $p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The strength of association was 51.84% (i.e., squaring the

r value) revealed a large degree of overlap between where Hispanic teachers worked and where Hispanic students went to school. Table 8 contains the *r* values, *r* squared values, and the effect size range for all 11 school years.

Statistically significant relationships were yielded for the 2000-2001 school year, $r(50) = .74, p < .001$, for the 2001-2002 school year, $r(71) = .79, p < .001$, for the 2002-2003 school year, $r(74) = .80, p < .001$, and for the 2003-2004 school year, $r(82) = .79, p < .001$. All effect sizes were large (Cohen, 1988). The strength of association for these four years was 54.76%, 62.41%, 64.00%, and 62.41%, respectively, indicating that the extent of overlap between where Hispanic teachers were employed and where Hispanic students were enrolled was large for all four school years. Readers are referred to Table 8 for the strength of association values for these school years.

The relationship between where Hispanic teachers were employed and where Hispanic students were enrolled for the 2004-2005 school year was markedly discrepant from the other results, $r(87) = .29, p = .007$, with a small effect size (Cohen, 1988). Though statistically significant, the amount of overlap was only 8.41%. Again, results for this school year are anomalous. Statistically significant relationships were present between Hispanic teacher employment and Hispanic student enrollment for the 2005-2006 school year, $r(95) = .71, p < .001$, for the 2006-2007 school year, $r(111) = .73, p < .001$, for the 2007-2008 school year, $r(134) = .76, p < .001$, for the 2008-2009 school year, $r(157) = .70, p < .001$, and for the 2009-2010 school year, $r(166) = .75, p < .001$. All effect sizes were large (Cohen, 1988). The extent of overlap between where Hispanic teachers were employed and where Hispanic students were enrolled was large for all five school years. Readers are referred to Table 8 for the strength of association values for these school years.

Relationships Between White Teacher Employment and White Student Enrollment

Following the calculation of the percentages of White teacher employment and White student enrollment in Texas elementary charter schools, correlations were calculated to determine the relationships between where White teachers were employed and where White students were enrolled. Prior to such calculations, checks for linearity and for normality of data occurred (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002), and the appropriateness of parametric correlation procedures was verified.

For the 1999-2000 school year, a statistically significant relationship was revealed between where White teachers worked and where White students went to school, $r(52) = .83, p < .001$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The degree of overlap, 68.89%, was large. Readers are referred to Table 9 for the strength of association and effect size ranges for the 11 school years of data analyzed. Similar results were yielded for the 2000-2001 school year, $r(50) = .76, p < .001$, for the 2001-2002 school year, $r(71) = .78, p < .001$, for the 2002-2003 school year, $r(74) = .77, p < .001$, and for the 2003-2004 school year, $r(82) = .72, p < .001$. All effect sizes were large (Cohen, 1988). The extent of overlap between where White teachers were employed and where White students were enrolled was large for all four school years. Readers are referred to Table 9 for the strength of association values for these school years.

Congruent with the results for Black teachers and Black students and for Hispanic teachers and Hispanic students, the relationship for the 2004-2005 school year was markedly discrepant from the other results, $r(87) = .21, p = .057$, with a small effect size (Cohen, 1988). Though statistically significant, the amount of overlap was only 4.41%. Again, results for this school year were anomalous.

Statistically significant relationships were present for the 2005-2006 school year, $r(95) = .65, p < .001$, for the 2006-2007 school year, $r(111) = .71, p < .001$, for the 2007-2008 school year, $r(134) = .67, p < .001$, for the 2008-2009 school year, $r(157) = .59, p < .001$, and for the 2009-2010 school year, $r(166) = .76, p < .001$. All effect sizes were large (Cohen, 1988). The extent of overlap between where White teachers were employed and where White students were enrolled was large for all five school years. Readers are referred to Table 9 for the strength of association values for these school years.

Discussion

The data generated pertaining to the research questions in this study show changing patterns of ethnicity in both teacher employment and student enrollment in Texas elementary charter schools. These changes are not unexpected in light of the changing demographic patterns of the nation at large and the state of Texas in particular (Cho & DeCastro-Ambrosetti, 2005; Fry, 2007; Orfield & Lee, 2007; Petersen & Assanie, 2005). Data from the 2010 U.S. Census show a continuing increase in the numbers of ethnic minority students entering all schools across the country and particularly in the state of Texas (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

The percentages of Black students in Texas elementary charter schools have fallen from approximately 50% of the elementary charter school population to about 15% in the 11 school years examined. This decrease in Black student population in Texas elementary charter schools is not what one would have predicted from the shifting demographic patterns of the state. These changes could be because initial charters school applications specifically targeted under-served minorities and thus high percentages of Black students were enrolled. Then, as charters proliferated, multiple student population groups had opportunities to attend charters and demographics shifted to more closely represent general public school population trends.

Conversely, the numbers of Hispanic students enrolled in charters has grown from approximately 26% to around 40%. The percentage of White students in Texas elementary charter schools has grown from approximately 21% to about 39%. These statistics might tend to support the aforementioned supposition that as more charters were opened, student demographics mediated and more closely match the general student population across the state.

One troubling postulate that can't be confirmed with these findings is the possibility of a kind of re-segregation taking place in charter schools in Texas. Could, as suggested by Frankenberg, et al. (2011), charter schools be segregating students socio-economically resulting in high percentages of like ethnic and minority students attending individual charters? If this segregation is indeed occurring in Texas, has it had an effect on student achievement in those charter schools with dense ethnic minority and low socio-economic populations? Changes in student academic performance whether positive or negative would assist charter school administrators and state

education administrators in rethinking levels of support for new and existing charter schools. This suggests an important line of further inquiry regarding charter school populations and student achievement in Texas and across the nation.

The mean percentages of Black teachers in Texas charter schools have also declined from a high of about 50% in school year 1999-2000 to 11% in the final school years examined in the study. Hispanic teachers have maintained a nearly steady presence growing only from approximately 16% to 17%. The percentage of White teachers in Texas elementary charter schools has had the largest increase. Their percentages have swollen from about 39% in the 1999-2000 school year to approximately 72% in the 2009-2010 school year. The demographic changes in the instructional ranks in charters might easily be explained by the increased numbers of charter schools opened since the 1999-2000 school-year. More charter schools in which to be employed in more diverse communities across the state might tend to even out the demographics of the teachers employed at those schools.

Statistically significant relationships were documented between all three ethnic teacher/student categories under examination. Relational data about Black teacher/Black student, Hispanic teacher/Hispanic student, and White teacher/White student categories might be interpreted to mean that elementary charter school students are likely to see their own ethnicity modeled within the faculty in Texas elementary charter schools. Although it is likely that Texas elementary charter school students could have teachers of the same ethnicity as role models, no attempt was made to determine that specific classrooms had a preponderance of ethnic teachers paired with students of similar ethnicities. An investigation into the locations of charter schools, whether urban, suburban, or rural, is merited. Examining the demographic patterns of individual charter schools may validate whether the re-segregation phenomenon is occurring in Texas charter schools.

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Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Percent of Black Teachers in Texas Elementary Charter Schools From 1999-2000 to 2009-2010

Year	<i>n of schools</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1999-2000	52	38.50	44.02	41.18
2000-2001	50	55.30	49.57	38.59
2001-2002	71	50.00	47.11	38.46
2002-2003	74	36.60	45.29	37.76
2003-2004	82	34.40	45.39	38.26
2004-2005	87	8.82	16.48	20.71
2005-2006	95	27.24	39.89	37.01
2006-2007	111	21.56	37.54	37.48
2007-2008	134	17.71	35.83	37.57
2008-2009	157	15.00	32.24	35.94
2009-2010	166	2.33	10.25	19.98

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for the Percent of Hispanic Teachers in Texas Elementary Charter Schools From 1999-2000 to 2009-2010

Year	<i>n of schools</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1999-2000	52	1.70	15.07	25.79
2000-2001	50	1.45	16.74	26.61
2001-2002	71	6.90	17.63	25.34
2002-2003	74	8.45	20.69	28.31
2003-2004	82	10.60	19.49	26.01
2004-2005	87	9.39	24.82	28.45
2005-2006	95	8.24	19.50	26.76
2006-2007	111	8.33	21.66	28.66
2007-2008	134	7.10	20.99	28.61
2008-2009	157	9.38	21.67	28.39
2009-2010	166	7.38	16.99	23.07

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for the Percent of White Teachers in Texas Elementary Charter Schools From 1999-2000 to 2009-2010

Year	<i>n of schools</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1999-2000	52	29.30	39.02	36.82
2000-2001	50	20.00	31.31	34.61
2001-2002	71	20.00	31.37	34.24
2002-2003	74	18.80	31.25	33.06
2003-2004	82	22.30	32.52	31.34
2004-2005	87	59.93	54.89	30.86
2005-2006	95	28.26	36.42	31.62
2006-2007	111	30.49	37.21	32.60
2007-2008	134	25.69	37.48	33.97
2008-2009	157	34.69	39.61	34.35
2009-2010	166	82.34	71.67	28.35

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the Percent of Black Students in Texas Elementary Charter Schools From 1999-2000 to 2009-2010

Year	<i>n of schools</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1999-2000	52	43.00	51.03	39.21
2000-2001	50	48.20	49.93	38.49
2001-2002	71	44.65	48.19	37.76
2002-2003	74	42.20	47.27	38.52
2003-2004	82	39.25	46.87	37.63
2004-2005	87	7.70	14.63	18.53
2005-2006	95	31.25	43.05	36.54
2006-2007	111	23.70	38.36	35.38
2007-2008	134	25.00	36.94	34.00
2008-2009	157	26.80	36.39	33.89
2009-2010	166	8.40	15.57	19.96

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for the Percent of Hispanic Students in Texas Elementary Charter Schools From 1999-2000 to 2009-2010

Year	<i>n of schools</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1999-2000	52	8.10	26.41	31.68
2000-2001	50	20.45	33.18	34.76
2001-2002	71	20.10	32.40	32.65
2002-2003	74	27.20	35.95	34.40
2003-2004	82	30.25	37.81	34.32
2004-2005	87	27.60	35.62	26.93
2005-2006	95	34.80	40.56	33.62
2006-2007	111	38.55	45.87	34.01
2007-2008	135	33.20	43.83	34.11
2008-2009	157	36.10	45.13	33.99
2009-2010	166	36.40	42.73	29.58

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for the Percent of White Students in Texas Elementary Charter Schools From 1999-2000 to 2009-2010

Year	<i>n of schools</i>	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1999-2000	52	6.60	20.92	29.02
2000-2001	50	5.95	15.09	24.62
2001-2002	71	4.40	17.70	25.45
2002-2003	74	3.70	15.29	24.58
2003-2004	82	3.85	13.97	22.11
2004-2005	87	41.90	47.43	29.86
2005-2006	95	3.05	14.28	22.33
2006-2007	111	3.40	13.24	20.07
2007-2008	134	4.40	16.38	22.95
2008-2009	157	3.90	15.48	22.42
2009-2010	166	25.80	38.69	29.93

Table 7

Correlation Coefficients, Coefficients of Determination, and Effect Sizes for Black Teachers and Black Students in Texas Elementary Charter Schools

	Correlation	r	r^2	Effect Size
1999-2000		.85	72.25%	Large
2000-2001		.78	60.84%	Large
2001-2002		.84	70.56%	Large
2002-2003		.85	72.25%	Large
2003-2004		.86	73.96%	Large
2004-2005		.14	1.96%	Small
2005-2006		.82	67.24%	Large
2006-2007		.84	70.56%	Large
2007-2008		.82	67.24%	Large
2008-2009		.78	60.84%	Large
2009-2010		.80	64.00%	Large

Table 8

Correlation Coefficients, Coefficients of Determination, and Effect Sizes for Hispanic Teachers and Hispanic Students in Texas Elementary Charter Schools

	Correlation	r	r^2	Effect Size
1999-2000		.72	51.84%	Large
2000-2001		.74	54.76%	Large
2001-2002		.79	62.41%	Large
2002-2003		.80	64.00%	Large
2003-2004		.79	62.41%	Large
2004-2005		.29	8.41%	Small
2005-2006		.71	50.41%	Large
2006-2007		.73	53.29%	Large
2007-2008		.76	57.76%	Large
2008-2009		.70	49.00%	Large
2009-2010		.75	56.25%	Large

Table 9

Correlation Coefficients, Coefficients of Determination, and Effect Sizes for White Teachers and White Students in Texas Elementary Charter Schools

	Correlation	r	r^2	Effect Size
1999-2000		.83	68.89%	Large
2000-2001		.76	57.76%	Large
2001-2002		.78	60.84%	Large
2002-2003		.77	59.29%	Large
2003-2004		.72	51.84%	Large
2004-2005		.21	4.41%	Small
2005-2006		.65	42.25%	Large
2006-2007		.71	50.41%	Large
2007-2008		.67	44.89%	Large
2008-2009		.59	34.81%	Large
2009-2010		.76	57.76%	Large

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