Attribution, Race, and Gender: The Relationship Between the Perceptions of European American Teachers and the Disproportionate Placement of African-American Males in Special Education

by

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Abstract

      The purpose of this study was to examine factors which may have contributed to the disproportionate placement of African-American males in special education within a particular urban school district. The study examined European-American teachers' (teaching group) attitudes within the school district toward instructing male students, specifically African-Americans. The study compared and examined teachers' perceptions of their general efficacy towards instructing all students and efficacy towards teaching males, particularly African-American males and how teachers' attitudes may contribute to and correlate with the overrepresentation of African-American males in special education. In addition, the study will examine how teachers' attributes (i.e., cultural, racial, gender and educational training) contribute to student performance expectations.

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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

African-America males are the most highly stigmatized and stereotyped group in America (Cunningham, 2001). A diverse array of positive and negative portrayals form the basis of society's stereotypes of the African-American male. Societal stereotypes, in conjunction with numerous social, political, and economic forces, interact to place African-American males at extreme risk for adverse outcomes and behaviors and suggest clear implications for the continued structural conditions that characterize life in the United States (Phillips-Swanson, Cunningham, & Beale-Spencer, 2003). Research has shown that African-American males consistently (a) rank lowest in academic achievement, (b) have the worst attendance records, (c) are expelled and suspended the most, (d) are most likely to drop out of school, and (e) fail to graduate from high school or earn a GED (Penn State Graduate School of Education [GSE], 2008).

This record of poor performance, which most often occurs during the primary and secondary school years, correlates to the limited enrollment, attainment and graduation rates from colleges and universities and the disproportionate number and increased incarceration rates of African-American males in the country's jails and state penitentiaries (Penn State GSE, 2008). The disproportionate representation of African-American males among the lower rungs of the educational ladder (i.e. special education) has been an issue for over four decades (Dunn, 1968); studies have shown a pattern of overrepresentation in classes for students with intellectual

disabilities, specific learning disabilities, and emotional/behavior disorders (Watkins, & Kurtz, 2001).

The problem of disproportionate representation is attributed in part to the intersection of race, culture, disability and the implications said variables have on how racially diverse students are perceived or misperceived and the results of such misperceptions on student-teacher interaction and student engagement (Williams-Shealey & Scott-Lue, 2006). Teachers' beliefs and expectations are vital to the educational outcomes of students and judgments about students' abilities, effort and progress in school. Biased beliefs color the way children's behaviors are perceived, causing some actions to be misperceived and inappropriately handled (Cartledge, 2005). Stark variations between teacher (i.e., racial, ethnic, cultural, education level, social class, world views and residential location) and student populations result in social gaps and cultural divides, which lead to major issues in the classroom/school environment. These issues must be addressed if diverse students are to improve their educational outcomes (Gay, 2002). This lack of cultural synchronization and negative expectation results in hidden, often unintended conflict between teachers and students. This situation may ultimately lead to lower academic achievement (Graybill, 1997). As dissonance between teacher perceptions and students' actions prevail, children suffer, resulting in interference with skill acquisition, cognitive and emotional development and school performance. For African-American students, the prevalence of dissonance of skill acquisition and development can become detrimental to their academic performance (Phillips-Swanson, Cunningham, & Beale-Spencer, 2003).

In summary, teacher's attitudes towards and knowledge about the racial diversity of students, is a powerful determinant to learning opportunities and outcomes that students experience in the classroom environment (Gay, 2002). Demonstration of positive student

outlook on the part of the teacher is directly correlated to the degree of self-efficacy an individual has toward instructing all students. A demonstration of high self-efficacy on the part of the teacher contributes to all students attaining academic success, in comparison to low self-efficacy, where only selected student racial groups fail to achieve and are relegated to the lower rungs of the educational ladder (Gay, 2002). As a group, African-American males have been relegated to the lower levels of the educational ladder through placement in special education. Examining teacher self-efficacy and its impact upon the African-American male is critical in understanding factors contributing to the high-incidence placement in special education and how teachers' beliefs influence expectations, and judgment about student abilities, effort and progress in school.

Overrepresentation

Meyers and Patton (2001) define overrepresentation as the disproportionate placement of students of a given ethnic and /or racial group in special education. Disproportionate placement of a group of students in any educational program signifies that students are represented in the program in a notably greater percentage than their percentage in the school populations as a whole (Harry & Anderson, 1999). An area of specific concern is the overrepresentation of minority (i.e., African-American, Native American, and Latino/a) students in special education. For the purposes of this study, African-American males are the target group.

An array of factors contributing to the overrepresentation of African-American males in special education exists including biased test measurements, social stereotypes, lack of teacher confidence, and the lack of cultural understanding of the African-American culture and the African-American male psyche. Educators play a significant role in the educational experiences of African-American males. Educators unaware of the cultural background and differences

among African-American males may lack an awareness resulting in differences being viewed as deficits, leading to potential placement in special education (Peterz, 1999).

A willingness on the part of the teacher to teach racially diverse students maybe based upon their belief system or expectations of ability. A report on the preparation and qualification of public school teachers, published by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES; as cited in Barkari, 2003), indicates that only 20% of teachers who reportedly teach racially diverse students felt prepared to meet the needs of these students. Given changing demographics of America's public schools, teachers must be prepared to work effectively with students from culturally, linguistically, and racial diverse backgrounds (William-Shealey & Scott-Lue, 2006). As the level of disproportion between culturally, linguistically and racial diverse students and the predominately European-American teacher population widens, further research is needed to examine the link between the cultural identity development of teachers and the implications for pedagogical decision-making and how to better prepare teachers for working with students from cultural and racially diverse populations and its contribution to the disproportionate placement of African-American males in special education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine factors which may contribute to the disproportionate placement of African-American males in special education within a particular urban school district. The major purpose of this study is to examine the attitudes of European-American schoolteachers (dominant group) within the school district towards the instruction of male students, specifically African-American males. The study will compare and examine teachers' perceptions of general efficacy regarding their ability to teach all students and efficacy toward effectively teaching African-American males. In addition, the study will examine how

the scope of teachers' attributes (i.e., ethnicity and race) may contribute to perceptions of student expectations for high or low achievement, and the disproportional placement of African-American males in special education.

Significance of the Study

In 2007, a New England State Department of Education cited seven school districts for labeling a significant number of students of color for learning disabilities. According to this New England State Department, one of the seven school districts was five time more likely to classify African-Americans students as being "emotionally disturbed" more than any other study group. This New England state has one of the highest percentages of students in special education (19%) in comparison to the national average (12–14%).

Classroom teachers assume a critical role in creating classroom environments, which encourage students to become active and self-motivated learners. The beliefs and perceptions teachers have towards their students may be a significant factor in classroom success. Teacher efficacy is perhaps the most important belief system in terms of its effect on the behavior of teachers and subsequently student performance (Collier, 2005). Ashton and Webb (1986) defined teacher efficacy as a teacher situation-specific expectation where teachers' possess the belief that they can help students learn. Teacher efficacy expectations influence their thoughts and feelings, choices of activities, the amount of effort expended, and the extent of their persistence in the face of obstacles (Ashton & Webb). Tollefson (2000) noted teachers' outcome and efficacy expectations exert strong influence on their interaction with students and on their willingness to expend effort working with students of different abilities and different levels of interest in school. Teachers' efficacy rates towards teaching minority students, specifically African-American males, can significantly influence their academic success or failure in school.

The lack of diversity among teaching populations, with nearly 80% of teachers being Caucasian females in the United States, is critical to examining issues that contribute to the overrepresentation of African-American males in special education.

Research Questions

In order to examine the relationship between European-American teachers' attitudes and perceptions of the African-American male student, the following research questions will guide this study:

1.   Is there a difference in self-efficacy beliefs based on self-reported teaching practices, by race, related to the following factors:

      a. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

      b. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

      c. Disability Perceptions

      d. Motivation Perceptions

      e. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

      f. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

2.   Do self-efficacy beliefs vary given teacher type (i.e., regular vs. special) related to the following factors:

      a. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

      b. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

      c. Disability Perceptions

      d. Motivation Perceptions

      e. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

      f. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

3.	Do self-efficacy beliefs vary given the gender of the teacher, related to following

factors:

    a.	Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

    b.	Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

    c.	Disability Perceptions

    d.	Motivation Perceptions

    e.	Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

    f.	Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

4.	How do the self-reported perceptions of sample teachers differ related to African-

American male students?

CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

"I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin, but by the content of their character."

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (2008)

Introduction

The steps of the Lincoln Monument served as the background for delivery of these insightful and poignant words spoken by the late Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. In his historic and most notable speech, *"I Have a Dream,"* Dr. King spoke of a time when all African-Americans in the United States would receive equitable treatment as citizens and would not be judged on the basis of their skin, but the merit of their character. Despite the passage of forty-five years since King's speech, and a myriad of gains achieved by African-Americans in the U.S., there still exist members of this population who are and continue to be judged not by the merit of their character, but by the color of their skin—the African-American male.

While all African-American males do not encounter obstacles which hinder success, a percentage within this population group continues to experience disproportional labeling, discrimination, stereotyping, and disenfranchisement from society. Each of these factors contributes to high percentages of unemployment, high school drop-out and incarceration rates experienced by African-American males, compared to other racial groups. The question becomes what actions can be taken to improve the opportunities and outlook of African-

American males who experience disconnection from membership within the African-American community and from society-at-large? The answer to this challenging question entails examination of the educational system within the United States and its treatment of African-American children. Specifically, the influence attribution, race and gender have upon the European American female teachers' attitudes towards minority males, in particular African-American male students; the role education and schooling have upon the African-American male psyche; and the role of cultural disconnect between teacher and the African-American male student.

History of African-American Children and the American Educational System

Since the inception of this country's legal and legislative doctrines and laws, the rights of African-Americans have been in question, despite early attempts to invoke the ideal of equality and justice for all citizens. Adopted in 1868, the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution states,

> No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities
> of citizens of the United States, nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty,
> property, without due process of law; or deny to any person within its jurisdiction the
> equal protection of the laws.

Despite the passage of this unambiguous guarantee, the Supreme Court for a third of the century distorted the meaning of this amendment and continued to repeatedly rule antidiscrimination laws as unconstitutional (Pettigrew, 2004). Not until the endorsement of Plessy v. Ferguson by the Supreme Court in 1896, allowing for segregation of the races under the "separate but equal clause", was legal interpretation and protection offered to African-Americans (Reschly, 1997). Although Plessy v. Ferguson provided legal protection to African-Americans

regarding separate but equal racial facilities, the White South, too poor to afford even one set of adequate public facilities, had no intention of providing adequate facilities for its African-American citizens. It would take another 58 years for change to occur under the premise of Brown v. Board of Education (Pettigrew, 2004).

The 1954 landmark case of Brown v. Board of Education, Topeka, Kansas, was the first opportunity to improve the educational rights and opportunities of African-American children. Brown was the most significant school inclusion case requiring that schools make a *"good faith"* effort to desegregate schools *"with all deliberate speed."* The intent of Brown was to uphold the Fourteenth Amendment and redefine issues related to equal access of educational programming. This case recognized that separate educational facilities were inherently unequal and unconstitutional (Obiakor, 2004). In addition, Brown was expected to extinguish discriminatory practices and protect the educational rights of children and youth, (Obiakor, 2004). While Brown has been viewed as a celebratory step towards abolishment of segregated practices in the education of African-American learners, segregated educational practices and inequitable schooling still persisted (Ward & Robinson-Wood, 2006), resulting in continued challenges and difficulties in attaining an equitable education. The emergence of litigation by both African-American parents and social organization in the 1970s brought attention to the growing overrepresentation of African-American children in special education through unfair assessment practices and discrimination.

Hobson v. Hansen (1967, 1969) and *Larry P. v .Riles* (1971) (as cited in Reschley, 1997*),* represent legal actions toward allegations of discrimination in general education ability/ achievement grouping, overrepresentation of African-Americans in lower tracks, underrepresentation in higher tracks, discrimination in assessment, classification and placement

of African-Americans. *Hobson v. Hanson* was viewed as the first direct challenge to the use of standardized testing as part of school tracking systems. Initially viewed as a means of creating a disproportionate representation of White and Black students in the upper, middle and lower ability groups by the Washington, D.C. public school system, plaintiffs in the case argued that tracking systems result in unequal educational opportunities for African American students who constituted 90 percent of the total populations and 95 percent of the group relegated to the lower tracks (Reschly, 1997). Due to the disproportionate representation of African-American students in the lower tracks, *Hobson* established an extremely important legal precedent concerning the use of standardized test in situations where disproportionate placement might result (Reschly, 1997).

  Larry P. v. Riles, a class-action suit filed by the Bay Area Association of Black Psychologist on the behalf of African-American students enrolled in the San Francisco Public School District, sought to ban IQ testing, a technique utilized by the San Francisco Public Schools to place African-American students in MMR special education class programs. Presiding Judge Robert F. Peckham ruled that plaintiffs had demonstrated burden and showed disparate treatment (i.e., African-American students were overrepresented in Mild Mental Retarded [MMR] special classes), therefore rejecting defendants justification for using IQ tests to determine MMR and special education need (Reschly, 1997). He concluded:

  Defendants (San Francisco Public School District) to be restrained from placing black students in classes for the educable mentally retarded on the basis of criteria which place primary reliance on the results of IQ tests as they are currently administered, if the consequences of the use of such criteria is racial imbalance in the composition of such classes.

In effect, IQ testing undermines rather than facilitates valid educational planning bringing into question the usefulness of such testing measures (Cartledge, 2005). Continued reliance of standardized testing in the placement of African-American learners into special education is an issue which may often result in the disproportionate placement of individuals into educational tracks promoting low expectations, over identification in lower educational classes, and inappropriate instructional techniques in the classroom environment. Research conducted on disproportionate placement and African American students indicated that African-American students were placed in program for the Educable Mentally Retarded (EMR) at twice the rate expected, and in programs for Trainable Mentally Retarded (TMR) and Seriously Emotionally Disturbed (SED) at roughly one and a half times the expected rate. When gender is taken into account, African-American males are disproportionately placed in special education at a higher rate than other student groups (Harry & Anderson, 1999).

The legal cases of *Hobson v. Hanson* and *Larry P. v. Riles* showcased how IQ testing was inappropriately used to disproportionately place African-American students, in particular the African-American male, in special education. Debate over the misuse of IQ testing and the overrepresentation of minorities has continued into the 21st century, resulting in federal involvement from the Office of Civil Rights (OCR). OCR has investigated complaints associated with the placement of minority students for mental retardation and serious emotional disturbances, equal access of minority students to pre-referral programs, and the lack of access of minority students to programs in general education setting (Zhang & Katsiyannis, 2002). In 2000, OCR and U.S. Department of Education found, through its Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, that African-American children comprised 16 percent of total school enrollment population; however, these same students comprised 38 percent of

individuals labeled as Educable Mentally Retarded (EMR), further demonstrating the misuse of IQ testing and its negative impact on the overrepresentation of African-Americans to special education tracks (Kuykendall, 2004).

The state of education for African-American K–12 students has been in crisis since the close of the Civil War. Jim Crow laws and inadequately resourced segregated schools have resulted in African-Americans struggling to make education a tool of community political empowerment and economic advancement. In the 21st century the definition of what it means to be educated is more rigorous. Teaching to such rigorous standards is a fundamental challenge within the field of education and a special challenge to the field is learning to meet the needs of those who have been underserved by public educators (Lee, 2005). Standard-based teaching and school reform have become the norm as schools utilize accountability as a means of improving education for *"all"* students. For over a decade, accountability-based reform has been America's frontline defense against the public's perception of schools as failing in the academic preparation of today's youth and as an unwitting agent in the stratification of society along racial and economic lines (Epps & Morrison, 2003).

U.S. public education systems in the 21st century have witnessed the onset of several school reform legislations and programs in an effort to address the challenges of public school education — low performance and inequality among and between school system and student groups. The most notable among the reform initiatives was the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB).

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) initially passed in 2001 and was designed to hold schools more accountable for academic performance at the national level. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2005), NCLB reflects an unprecedented bipartisan commitment to

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ensuring that all students, regardless of their background, receive a quality education. Epps and Morrison (2003) state, NCLB places federal pressure on schools to improve with a sharpened focus on the outcomes for subgroups of children by race, disability status, limited English proficient status and socioeconomic status. The broad goal of NCLB is to raise the achievement levels of all students, especially underperforming groups, and to close the achievement gap that parallels race and class distinctions (Darling-Hammond, 2004).

Unfortunately, critics argue that educational reform policies, like NCLB, aggressively promote the use of standardized testing, a practice which historically has led to the continued use of biased tools. NCLB's laws are complex and wisdom weak, resulting in many African-American children being left behind (Obiakor, 2004). To leave no child behind, there must be a comprehensive support model that taps on the energies of students, families, schools, communities and governments in the educational process. The expected benefit of NCLB has not been apparent for many African-American children. Instead of becoming beneficiaries, African-American children become victims of (a) educational bureaucrats, (b) test manufacturers and producers, (c) testing professionals and bureaucrats, (d) politicians, and (e) those that perpetuate phony meritocracy, and fraudulent multiculturalism (Obiakor, 2004).

When the benefits associated with accountability-based reform and increasing equity among minority learners are weighted through the evaluations of states and years of implementation into accountability systems, the data reveals contradictory effects on equity. Although testing appears to improve all subgroups, reports also conclude increased numbers of low-income and minority students being retained in grades, placed in special education, denied graduation, eventually dropping out of school (Epps & Morrison, 2003). Daniels (1998) concluded in *"Minority students in Gifted and Special Education Programs: The Case for*

Educational Equity", that minority students have always been plagued within our educational structure. These inequalities pervade not only gifted and special education, but also general education. Despite advancements in education, and despite reform efforts, inequalities still exist in programming and instructional practices that negatively affect minority students. As demonstrated throughout history, African-American children have endured a number of constitutional, legislative and litigious policies and procedures (i.e., *Brown* [1954], *Hobson* [1967, 1969] and *Larry P*. [1971]) which have served as impediments toward the realization of the "Dream" Dr. King spoke of in his 1963 speech. Although success has been achieved on some level, the attainment of educational equality for all has still not yet be accomplished, for a small and often overlooked section of this population—The African-American male.

Educational Status of the African-American Male in K–12 Educational System

The acquisition of knowledge has been the defining means for advancement in our society. Today, education remains the dominant pathway to earning a viable living in the U.S. Looking at the value of education from this perspective, one could easily infer that education is an essential part of being a productive citizen. As technology advances so too does the diversity, knowledge and information needed to operate and support the national infrastructure. Hence, all Americans should have the opportunity to obtain an education and prosper from it. Unfortunately, this is not necessarily happening for a segment of the society, the African-American male (Thompson, 2007). A troublesome picture of African-American men and boys has been presented in society. They are depicted as a homogeneous, dysfunctional, alienated, and a threatening subpopulation, which some have dubbed a threatened species (Polite & Davis, 1999).

In 2006, Reaching African American Male's Potential (RAAMP; later renamed Raising Academic Achievement Multicultural Program) published a report presenting an alarming picture of the state of education for African American males. Information presented included:

- 60% of African American Males do not graduate with their cohorts

- 85% are placed in Special Education.

- Only 42% graduate nationwide.

- More African American males receive their GED in prison compared to receiving their diploma in high school.

- The national percentage of European American male students at or above the basic level in grade 4 in reading in 2005 was 72%; the national percentage of African-American males students at or above the basic level in grade 4 is reading in 2005 was 36%.

- The national percentage of European male students at or above the basic level in grade 8 in reading in 2005 was 76%; the national percentage of African American male students at or above the basic level in grade 8 in reading in 2005 was 43%.

Data presented in studies like the RAAMP report demonstrate that African-American males in particular experience alarming rates of educational failure (Hudley, 1998). Educational statistics consistently reveal that African-American males cluster at the top distribution of virtually every indicator of school failure, including dropout, absenteeism, suspension, expulsion, and low achievement (Cooper & Jordan, 2005). The plight of African-American males in the United States dates back to the earliest known arrival to these shores in 1661. From 1661 to the 1954 Brown v. Board of Education, Topeka, Kansas ruling that overturned segregated schooling in America, African-American males faced a conscious dilemma – that of

being a commodity at worst and a second-class citizen at best. This dilemma differs in many

respects from the unconscious dilemmas that face African-American male students today. The

latter challenge emanates from a lack of appreciation for the value of education, poor self-

identity, a diminished sense of manhood, and encounters with covert and subtle racism

(Thompson, 2007). Critical to understanding the challenges African-American males face as

they navigate the educational system, societal stereotypes, political and economic forces entails

examining the factors which influence the varying attitudes and perceptions African-American

males have towards school success. As researchers, Jordan and Cooper (2005) report that if

African-American boys are to be sufficiently prepared to meet the challenges of the new

millennium, it is important that they come to see themselves as intellectually and affectively

competent in both academic and social circles, and that they are able to enroll in as well as

graduate from institutions of higher education.

Attitudes and Perceptions of African-American Males

The American educational systems serves two purposes within the context of educating

today's youth: the first is to train a disciplined skilled labor force that can take its place in the

existing order and contribute (mainly its labor power) to the maintenance and expansion of the

capitalist system. The second is to indoctrinate the youth of society in the ideas, beliefs, values,

and practices that are of importance in maintaining the existing socioeconomic order (Thompson,

2007).

The aforementioned qualities represent a middle class value system which has served as

the basis for the formation of the American educational system since its inception in the 1800s.

Hale-Benson (1986), in her book entitled *Black Children: Their Roots, Culture, and Learning*

Styles, further reinforces this ideal, stating that the American educational system has not been

effective in educating African-American children. The emphasis of traditional education has been upon molding and shaping African-American children so that they can be fit into an educational process designed for European-American middle class children.

Students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds arrive at school with a great deal of cultural capital, or funds of knowledge which are rarely recognized, built upon, or accommodated by educators and schools, but in essence are misconstrued in ways that lead to misdiagnosis of disability and inappropriate placement in special education programs (Meyer & Patton, 2001). Thus, the level of achievement experienced by the student is often closely correlated between the home and school environments; the closer the relationship, the greater success experienced by the learner. Unfortunately, the existence of a void between the home and school results in the occurrence of problems and the inability of students to adapt to the school culture, expectations, interpersonal relationships and milieu, which ultimately affect their achievement and learning, a problem which exists for the many African-American males.

The start of school marks a major milestone for most children. First and last year experiences are particularly the most memorable of all school years. During the first year, crucial decisions are made about children's aptitude. During these early schooling years teachers, schools, peers and parents have a critical role in the development of self-image for African-American children. According to Kuykendall (2004), children develop two self-images as they mature into adulthood: social self-image and an academic self-image. Social self-image entails the self-image of individuals within their home and community. Social self-image develops as youth relate to others who are part of their social environment. It determines how individuals feel about interactions with others in social settings. This self-image is reflected in how individuals carry themselves, how they speak, how they adorn themselves, how they react in

social settings and how they develop social skills. Institutions (i.e., family, religion) whose character, structure and function are very often unique to the African-American community (Hale-Benson 1986) provide the experiences through which African-American children develop their sense of self, social orientation, and worldview.

Academic self-image dictates how well children fare in society, where survival requires higher-order thinking and other academic competencies. It is not unusual for some children and teens to display a high degree of positive social self-image within their homes, churches, and communities and commensurate negative academic self-image in educational environments (Kuykendall, 2004). During the academic self-image stage, conflicts often emerge between the culture of the wider society and the African-American child. Conflict results from the wider society being unresponsive to the culturally different African-American youngster; these differences are often defined as deficiencies. These perceived deficiencies are assumed to be significant impediments to "proper" learning in school (Hale-Benson, 1986).

Thompson (2002) reports that the negative feelings African-American boys experience towards school starts as early as the 2nd grade, a factor associated with how they are negatively portrayed in society. Researchers have revealed a paradox about the African-American child: while they enter school with outstanding potential and a thirst for learning, they undergo a negative transformation that manifest itself during the fourth grade (Thompson, 2002). The negative transformation experienced by African-American males between the primary and intermediate division of school refer to the *fourth grade failure* syndrome. Kunjufu (1985) explains that during this period, rates of achievement for African-Americans begin a downward spiral which tends to continue throughout the child's academic career.

Classroom environment begins the transition from a socially interactive style to a competitive, individualistic, and minimally socially interactive style of learning. This shift from cooperative to individualistic led to the development of negative perceptions, compromising one's self-esteem and belief in one's self. In addition, for some young African-American males, experiencing negative stereotypes adds to the burden, as they attempt to figure out who they are and what they want to become. These perceptions can have a profound influence and dictate how they see themselves and what they believe they can achieve (Livingston & Nahimana, 2006). Association with negative portrayals, which is reinforced through cultural norms and values embedded in U.S. social, political and economic intuitions, has resulted in African-American males becoming identified as an "endangered species," as stated by Cooper and Jordan (2005). Kunjufu (1986) explains that the endangered status is a result of African American males being systematically programmed for failure. Despite positive role models, such as Michael Jordan, Mohammed Ali, Colin Powell and President Barack Obama, the majority of African American males, particularly those in urban centers, are categorized and stereotyped by the five D's: *dumb, deprived, dangerous, deviant,* and *disturbed*.

Stereotypes are a major deterrent to achievement for African-American students (Garrison-Wade &Lewis, 2006). Contributing factors of stereotypical attitudes were based upon negative media images of African-Americans. Stereotypical attitudes lead to self-fulfilling prophesy for some and acceptance of preconceived notions by others, leading them to judge themselves with these stereotypes. Instead of considering their own individuality and breaking past stereotypes, students accept them as true—which is detrimental to personal growth (Garrision-Wade &Lewis, 2006).

Societal stereotypes together with a variety of social, political and economic forces interact to place African-American males at a disadvantage in the educational system and in meeting expectations. A myriad of -images presented, in the media results in them being defined by these stereotypes. Overtime, the stereotypical images of African-American males are defined and become a part of America's cultural psyche (Shaffer, Ortman, & Denbo, 2000). The negative images of African-Americans on the street, in school and in the media have worked to seriously harm the self-esteem of the African-American male student (Reglin, 1994). Negative stereotypes experienced in society lead many young African-American males to devalue education and school and develop a macho or hyper masculine posture (i.e., hard or thug mentality) in an attempt to protect and define themselves (Livingston & Nahimana, 2006).

Like their forefathers, many of today's African-American male students have developed a sense of "learned helplessness." Learned helplessness refers to the emotional numbing and maladaptive passivity that sometimes follows victimization (Steele, 2004). Learned helplessness is based upon young African-American males' acceptance that, like their forefathers, all aspects of the American social structure—educational, political, economic and so forth—are beyond their grasp (Thompson, 2007). Moreover, the pervasive negative images of African-Americans influence teachers, who complete the vicious cycle by doubting the abilities of the African-American male students, a vicious cycle which has left African-American males deeply vulnerable and devalued in America's classrooms (Reglin, 1994).

In order to cope with how they are devalued at school and in an attempt to maintain a positive self-concept, many African-American student disengage from school and seek their self-esteem elsewhere (Shaffer, Ortman, & Denbo, 2000). Disengagement leads African-American male students to behave in submissive manners rather than actualizing their intellectual potential

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(Thompson, 2007). Today, many African-American males, especially those in the most challenging urban environments, believe themselves to be victims of this system, leading to the development of a defeatist disposition towards education (Thompson, 2007). This disconnectedness between school and the home becomes a great source of psychological stress. Since schools are based on middle class behaviors and values, African-American students, especially from urban areas, perceive the school setting to be a "foreign establishment." To compensate for feelings of insecurity in a Eurocentric world, African-American males define what it means to be a man in their world. For most, this includes sexual promiscuity, machismo, risk taking, and aggressive social skills and mannerisms, which lead to an overall demeanor — "cool pose" (Harry & Anderson, 1999). Through "cool pose" attitudes and behaviors, African-American males lay their own foundation for personal achievement and self-worth. Many of the academic problems African-American males' encounter surface due to the rejection of academic traits which are viewed as being European or feminine.

African-American male adolescents are more likely to deny and devalue academic interest to avoid the ridicule and shame that accompanies attaining academic success (Harry & Anderson, 1999). Furthermore, Shaffer, Ortman, and Dembo (2000) concluded that adolescent males from diverse ethnic and cultural groups have a tendency to believe they are forced to choose between their ethnic and cultural groups' identity and academic success. To preserve and promote the value of their identity, African-American males must reject academic achievement. This rejection leads to the development of oppositional identity, which can greatly impact academic achievement and student interaction with the larger society.

Harris and Duhon (1999), authors of *The African-American Perspective of Barriers to Success*, report that educators must become cognizant of perceptions held by underachieving

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African-American males toward achievement and learning. In common perceptions including *I do not control my academic destiny* student perceives that a teachers attitude toward him determines his ultimate grade. Student perceives that he received his grade as a result of factors other than effort and ability. During the preadolescent years, peer groups, also serve as contributors to the negative attitudes and pressure experienced toward school and achievement (Thompson, 2002). Another commonly held belief shared by underachieving African-American males' entails 'Real men do not make good grades in school'; in other words it is considered cool to be stupid, to avoid being accused of "acting White," and being the subject of negative pressure, many African-American males seek to divert attention from their academic prowess by misbehaving in class, accenting athletic achievements or associating with socially unacceptable students.

Carter (2006) and Fordham (2001) have researched the notion of "acting White" and its impact on African-American males and academic achievement. Carter (2006) examined how low income African-American and Latino students navigate the boundaries between school and peer group contexts. Results indicate that subjects' resistance to acting White emerged through style of dress and linguistic prose. In addition, Carter's findings highlight the social significance of the processes of resistance to acting White, how students create in-group/out-group stylistic boundaries to maintain ethno-specific identities as measures of inclusion and exclusion. Students' respect for the value of education is not at stake. Rather what is at stake is how students use symbols and the meaning they attach to differential racial, ethnic and cultural identifiers as a measure of inclusion and exclusion. Fordham (2001), studying students attending Capital High School in Washington, DC, found that "acting White," implies (1) acceptance of the ethic that is normal and nurtured by the dominant society and inevitably and

unavoidably practiced by African Americans in the process of living in America; (2) tacit

endorsement of written (text) as embodying African American's social realities; and (3) the

unwitting practice of the dominating ideology by controlling and dominating another, possibly

including domination of other Black people. Some of the attitudes and behaviors Capital High

students associated with "acting White" included (1) speaking Standard English, (2) listening to

"White" music, and (3) getting good grades. Association with *"acting White"* for Capital High

students demonstrates for some the attitudes and behaviors that are to be avoided, and therefore

are avoided by a large number of students.

In terms of images of *"what it means to be masculine"*, African-American males face

challenges which are predominate within the African-American community and conflict with

images that predominate in the broader society, conflict which grows from the duality of

socialization (Hale-Benson, 1986). Conflicting and mixed messages received by African-

American males results in some students questioning of purpose, goals, and objectives of school;

rejection of knowledge claims asserted within the classroom; lack of identification with school;

and turning to alternative knowledge sources situated within their communities. Still others

engage in externalizing (acting out) behaviors which are associated with increased stigmatization

and lead to further alienation in school (Ward & Robinson-Wood, 2006).   Negative perceptions

can compromise one's self-esteem and belief in one self. When African-American youth

become convinced that success will not occur academically, nor succeed in "mainstream"

America—regardless of their achievements or lack thereof—they will take whatever skills and

ingenuity they think they possess and seek the "low road of life." Without the skills and

motivation necessary for legitimate prosperity, even high school graduates are likely to turn to

unproductive pursuits, becoming easy prey to those who would enlist them in criminal and even violent activity (Kuykendall, 2004).

The overwhelming failure of schools to develop the talents and potential of students of color is a national crisis. The character and depth of this crisis are sadly represented by low achievement scores and high school failure and dropout rates. More profoundly, these outcomes are indicators of deeply alienating and unjust educational experiences. These experiences in turn point to a wider set of oppressive, social, and economic conditions—cultural marginality, racism, and disempowerment—that is a daily realty for millions of children of color in the U.S. today (Lipman, 1998).

School Culture: The Hidden Curriculum and the African-American Male

What do you mean when you say I'm rebellious? Cause I don't accept everything that you're telling us, what you're selling us, the creator dwellin' us. I sat in your unknown class while you're failing' us, I failed your class' cause I ain't worth your reasoning. You're trying to make me you by seasoning up my mind with see Jane run, see John walk in a hardcore New York. It doesn't exist, no way, no how. It seems to me that in a school that's ebony; African history should be pumped up steadily. But it's not and this has got to stop. See spot run, run get Spot! Insulting to a black mentality, a black way of life or a jet-black family, so I conclude with one concern … That you must learn! — BDP, 1989.

The words expressed in the song entitled *"You Must Learn,"* by the socially-conscious/ politically charged hip-hop group "Boogie-Down Productions"(BDP) points toward the issue of school culture, the educational experiences of African-Americans, and the existence of a hidden curriculum within school systems serving dense populations of minority students, in particular African-American males. This hidden curriculum spoken of in the aforementioned lyrical verse

speaks of a teacher/school milieu which fails to respect the culture, experience, and history of the African-American learners instead choosing to utilize instruction that is irrelevant to the students' ability, culture and subsequently labels students as a behavioral problem, because they reject what is being taught.

The portrayal of African-Americans within the media can be viewed as a contributing and influential factor to the hidden curriculum encountered by African-American males within school and society. Middleton, Coleman and Lewis (2006) indicate that images featured in the media are used to contribute to the perception of Blacks or African-Americans. Mitchell (2002) reports that in the multi-media age of information, the African-American male has become the scapegoat for society. Stripped of rights as a viable citizen and presented as a menace to society, these men are viewed as perpetrators as well as victims. In addition, media stereotypically portrays Black men as rappers, athletes, gangbangers, pimps, thieves, drug dealers' and criminals; African-American females as maids, pregnant teens, prostitutes, and single mothers on welfare; Black families as living in poverty in urban ghettoes, in dilapidated housing, or in the projects. These portrayals have only heightened the negative view of African-Americans in society. More recently, stereotypes have expanded to include African-Americans with newfound wealth or status demonstrating stereotypical media images, further perpetuating the idea "*you can take them out of the ghetto, but you can't take the ghetto out of them*" (Middleton, Coleman & Lewis, 2006). Faced with stereotypical images in the media, some individuals who interact with African-Americans, particularly African-American males, accept the truths presented in the media, thereby becoming prejudicial and judgmental about the strength and abilities of the African-American male.

School has come to be regarded as an important social institution in which to address problems of at-risk youngsters. It has been argued that youngsters who perceive school as an environment in which they feel cared for and supported will develop psychological resources that promote achievement and good conduct. For adolescents, their perceptions of school climate (i.e., support for competence and autonomy, quality of relationships with teachers) are significantly associated with their psychological well-being (Taylor, 2006). Research on school belonging and African-American adolescents' reports that school belonging refers to students feeling that they are important and respected members of their school. Existing research has connected students' sense of school belonging to the following factors: reading and mathematics achievement, autonomy, extracurricular participation, motivational, emotional functioning, peer relations, feeling of alienation, social rejection and self-esteem. School belonging results in higher levels of academic achievement (Booker, 2004). Furthermore, students' perceptions of the culture of the school involves understanding and internalizing of beliefs, norms and traditions of the school, which are largely influenced by socioeconomic systems, gender affiliations and familiarities (Booker, 2004).

Thompson's (2002) study of African-American teens and their schooling experiences found that at both the middle school and high school levels, students experience change in school belongingness. Middle school represents a critical milestone in the life of students: shifting from having one teacher in the elementary school programs to interactions with multiple teachers. In addition to educational changes, students encounter developmental changes associated with puberty and increased peer pressure and academic demands.

African-American students, especially the male student, experience unique circumstances. Thompson (2002) reports racism affects their identity and self-concept and can

result in anger and confusion. In addition, ambivalent feelings about American society and American values begin to emerge. The concerns some African-American students encounter at the middle school become more problematic at the high school level. Issues encountered are attributed to the fact that most high schools are still biased toward serving the needs of college-bound students and not toward the alternative programs that advocate vocational/skill development. Polite's (1999) research on African-American males attending a suburban high school found that a majority of counselors and teachers had not challenged them academically, particularly in mathematics. In addition, students believed counselors and teachers failed to provide "caring school environments." Polite concluded in his research that the experiences of his study group mirrored those of countless African-Americans nationwide.

Garrison-Wade and Lewis (2006), who examined African-American students enrolled in suburban and urban schools, report that developing connections with teachers resulted in increased student productivity; students developed respect for teachers who listened to and cared for them; and establishing connections with teachers created a comfort zone that opened the doors to learning. Developing a sense of belonging entails the development of effective schools that create school cultures which bring forth an equal percentage of its highest and lowest social classes to minimum mastery and promotes high expectations for all students (Reglin, 1994). For African-American students, the culture of the school is critical to the development of a sense of belonging and ultimately to academic success.

Schools are places where children learn about the meaning of race (Norgurea, 2006). Lessons of race are often acquired through the instructional practices of the teacher, but it is more often learned through school culture; school culture/hidden curriculum can promote, perpetuate and reflect racism within our society. Hidden curriculum refers to the *instructional*

norms and values not openly acknowledged by teachers or school officials. This curriculum is generally concerned with issues of gender, class, race, and authority. Employing this hidden curriculum can be used to explain why minority students who are equally as capable as non-minority students receive a second class education (Vang, 2006).

School culture and structure play a major role in reinforcing and maintaining racial categories and the stereotypes associated with them. As schools sort children by perceived measures of ability and as they single out certain children for discipline, implicit and explicit messages about racial and gender identities are conveyed (Norgurea, 2005). Hidden curriculum can be used to support institutional racism, only exacerbating the plight of minority learners. For African-American males, who are more likely than any other group to be subjected to negative forms of treatment in school, the message is clear: individuals of their race and gender may excel at sports, but not in math or history (Norgurea, 2005). Perpetuation of this climate is simultaneously fueled by the sub-par academic achievement and motivation many African-American students encounter as a result of failure to have high expectations for all, rather than differential expectations specifically for them (Reglin, 1994).

An essential element in the hidden curriculum equation is the teacher and his or her perception of the learner and the school environment. Ward and Robinson-Wood (2006) state, teachers' perceptions of students are grounded in their own location of race, class and gender categories. These social locations form the basis of teachers' interactions with pupils and inform the conditions of their work. Their cultural experiences and racial and gendered knowledge (or lack of experiences and lack of knowledge) provide a framework from which teachers interpret, organize and act out information. Teachers' attitudes and expectations influence classroom climates, shape instruction and method of teaching and thus impact student achievement

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(Graybill, 1997). Irvine (1990) states that teachers socialize and condition students through hidden and stated curriculum. They consciously and unconsciously inculcate students for their appropriate roles in the institutions by delivering messages, sanctions, and reward about appropriate behaviors and expectations.

Cultural misunderstandings between teachers and students result in conflict, distrust, hostility, and possible school failure for Black students. This conflict is exaggerated by cultural inversion and cultural aversion. *Cultural inversion* is related to African-American students' perceptions that certain behaviors are characteristic of White American and hence inappropriate for Blacks. *Cultural aversion* refers to the reluctance of teachers and administrators to discuss race and race-related issues like ethnicity, culture, prejudice, equality and social justice. This color-blend philosophy is linked to educators' discomfort with discussing race, their lack of knowledge of the cultural heritage of their students and the students' peers, and their fears and anxieties that open consideration of difference might incite racial discord (Irvine, 1990). Unexamined responses to differences, unconscious stereotyping and self-fulfilling prophecies create a school climate that is not conducive to Black students' achievement and that weakens the rapport between teachers and Black students (Ward & Robinson-Wood, 2006). Racism, like other forms of oppression, is not only a personal ideology based on racial prejudice, but a system involving cultural messages and institutional policies and practices as well as the beliefs and actions of members of the institutions. Racial prejudice, when combined with social power (access to social, political and economic resources and decision making) leads to the institutionalization of racist policies and practices (Kuykendall, 2004). Kuykendall further states that institutional racism can be covert, indirect, and sometimes unconscious. The origins of institutional racism are in most established and respected institutional norms, societal values and

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beliefs. Lipman (1998) reports that testing, tracking, and discipline policies are institutional

norms that are examples of the taken-for-granted regularities that govern everyday life in schools

and school districts. These regularities are both ideological and structural. They organize, sort,

and regulate students. They also convey messages about students' identities and notions about

their intelligence, behavior and values. School leadership can reinforce institutional racism or

serve as a beacon for institutional change and growth. Thompson (2007) suggests that optimal

achievement of all to occur requires effective leadership, which establishes relationships that are

built on a foundation of mutual respect for all school constituents. Effective leadership creates

learning communities that are permeated by high expectations. A climate of high expectation

leads to school wide "cultural transformation" where a rigorous curriculum results in higher

achievement and where educators strongly believe that all students can succeed academically.

Influence of Attribution, Race and Gender and the Perceptions of the European American

Teacher

"*A master can tell you what he expects of you. A teacher, though, awakens your own*

expectations."

— Patria Neal (2008)

As the United States pushes further into the 21st century, the public educational system

continues to experience dramatic shifts in both its student and teaching populations. Students are

becoming more culturally, ethnically, and racially diverse, while teacher populations are

overwhelmingly European-American. With U.S. teaching populations becoming increasing

monochromatic in terms of the race and gender of the teacher—European-American and

female—compared to student populations which are becoming predominately minority-based

(i.e., African-American and Hispanic-American students).

A 1996 survey indicated that 89 percent of teachers considered themselves as European-American and many preferred not to teach in low-income urban schools, although there are many dedicated teachers who want to make a difference (Lipman, 1998). Given the racial, ethnic and class segregating in the U.S., and the parochialism of many teachers' own educational experiences, most teachers are unprepared to teach children whose racial, ethnic, linguistic and cultural background is different from their own (Lipman, 1998). The question becomes 'What effect does the presence of differences in the front of the classroom (i.e., teacher) have upon the achievement and learning of the individual in the classroom (i.e. student) in particular the African-American male, who is marginalized in the classroom more than any other student group?

The scope of marginalization encountered by African-American males at all levels of the K–12 spectrum is often in direct correlation to the attitudes, beliefs and perceptions teachers have of the Black male; often the viewpoint shared by the teachers is based upon their perceptions of the Black male and their personal belief system. This imbalance between the student and the teacher results in disconnect; with serious consequences for the student in the form of disproportional placement in special education, low placement in gifted education programs, and low expectations in both regular and special education programs (Daniels, 1998). Examining factors which contribute to the aforementioned Black male-White teacher disconnect requires analysis of the attitudes, attributions, and expectations of the teacher and the impact these have on the achievement and disproportionate placement of the Black male in special education.

Teacher Attitude/Expectations of Race and Class—African-American Male

The self-esteem and self-concept of African-American youth are very important because of their link to academic achievement. For the African-American student, teachers' expectations can have positive and negative effects on achievement. Kea and Utley (1998) affirm that what teachers perceive, believe, say and do can disable or empower multicultural students with and without disabilities.

Teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and expectations are shown to be a significant contributor to students' self-concepts and the formation of the self-fulfilling prophecy, regardless of student background (Thompson, 2004). Thompson, Warren, and Carter (2004) agree that teachers form expectations for individual student learning based primarily on their own perceptions of race, class, physical appearance, gender and physical and emotional challenges. Since many African-American students have routinely been subjected to low expectations and a watered down curriculum, high expectations are crucial (Thompson, 2000). Ideological dispositions utilized by teachers in the learning environment influence student expectations in one of two ways: (a) How teachers define and label students and (b) the pedagogical choices implemented in the classroom. Examples of everyday education decisions made by teachers that reflect ideologies in-use are placement of students in slow or fast tracks, validation or denigration of student's knowledge, perceptions of student strengths and weaknesses, and expectations of student performance and behavior.

Hyland (1990) states teachers often engage in classroom practices that fail to meet the needs of students who do not conform to dominant learning styles or values. Therefore, teachers are reluctant to acknowledge racial and ethnic difference in learning and are unwilling to adjust their instruction to address the cultural incongruence between themselves and students of color.

Additionally, at the classroom level teachers' interpretations of African-American student's language usage, interactional styles, and competences influence their assessment of these students' abilities and decisions about their placement in slow or fast tracks (Lipman, 1998). Hyland (1998) reports that dominant paternalistic ideology of individualism and meritocracy permeate society's institutions and individual beliefs. The taken-for-granted attitude of the dominant ideologies among teachers can have a devastating effect on students of color.

Interpretations teachers have towards African-American students are correlated directly to the degree of efficacy they have in their ability to teach students who are culturally and racial different from them (Hyland, 1998). Teacher efficacy has been found to be a multidimensional construct that includes how confident teachers view their personal abilities to be effective teachers and their expectations about the influence of teaching on student learning. Teachers who believe in the underachievement and low expectations about African-American subscribe to the three theoretical models:

- The Deficit Theory – Under this model, teachers assume African-American students lack ability or have had inadequate parenting or both. Teachers believe African-American students have little potential and expect less performance may be less willing to use a variety of instructional methods that will motivate and support student who are trying to learn.

- Cultural Difference Model – Teachers believe that the cause of underachievement in African-American students stems from the cultural conflicts between the home and school (i.e., communication patterns and language dialect).

- Culturally Congruent and Centered Model – Teachers beliefs about the causes of the achievement gap of African-American and mainstreamed students are relatively

negative and fall into factors associated with cultural differences between the groups (Ooka-Pang & Sablan, 1998).

Harris and Blanchard (1999) indicated that the image non-African-American teachers have towards African-American males is the one portrayed by the mass media. Mass media typically present African-American males in a negative perspective. Teachers who accept media definitions of African-American males possess the attitude that the students in their class are incapable of learning, resulting in students being held to low accountability/expectations and provide them with a watered downed version of the curriculum and their evaluation instruments will have a much lower standard of expectations (Harris & Duhon, 1999). In addition, teachers who believe that African-American male students are incapable of being roused from their lethargy of low-achievement, make no effort on their own as catalysts for change. These teachers engage in negative behaviors and utilize non-motivational strategies (Harris & Duhon). Hayes and Price (2000) indicate that most White females, who make-up the largest percent of U.S. teachers, are largely uninformed of and insensitive to the life experiences of their African-American students. Therefore, said individuals do not taken into consideration the knowledge and skills students have gained from their experiences and how these experiences contrast with school skills and knowledge. Often this lack of understanding can lead teachers to enact disciplinary responses that may not have been necessary, if they had understood the meaning of the students' behavior.

Thompson (2004), in her book *Through Ebony Eyes,* discussed five recurring themes about teacher expectations and how they shape student expectations:

(1) teacher expectations significantly influence the quality of learning opportunities provided to students,

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(2) teacher expectations about students are affected by factors that have no bases in fact and may persist even in the face of contrary evidence,

(3) assumptions about students' aptitude are difficult to change,

(4) teachers tend to believe that white students and some Asian American students are smarter than other student, and

(5) teachers who feel less confident about their teaching ability are more likely than others to have low expectations for students.

A review of research by Irvine (1990) on teacher expectations as related to teacher and student race has revealed that teachers, particularly White teachers, have more negative expectations for African-American students than for White students. A review of eighteen studies on teacher attitudes towards and perceptions of African-American students compared to White students indicated that teachers have more negative attitudes and beliefs about African-American children than about White children in such variables as personality traits and characteristics, ability, language usage, behavior and potential. This conclusion demonstrates that as a group White teachers are more likely than African-American teachers to hold negative expectations for African-American children and that White teachers are more likely than Black teachers to be out of cultural sync with the African-American students they teach.

Teachers' racial ideologies and beliefs about race are significant factors, which contribute to the academic success or failure of students (Hyland, 1990). Reglin (1994) states that teachers must be made cognizant of the dangers of self-filling prophecy and must learn how to model behavior, demonstrating high, but realistic expectations. Teachers who expect that African-American male students cannot achieve academically model inappropriate teaching behaviors to support this erroneous assumption. This behavior detracts from achievement opportunities,

resulting in lower achievement by African-American male students. Research indicates that White teachers are resistant to changing beliefs and practices and adopt a "color-blind" approach, or accept a deficit explanation for the failure of student of color than to admit one's own role in racial oppression (Hyland, 1997).

In closing, cultural awareness, sensitivity, and competency assist all teachers in understanding the socio-political problems facing multicultural students in the educational setting. A culturally competent person has knowledge and skill that enables him or her to appreciate, value, and celebrate similarities and differences within, between, and among culturally diverse groups of people.

Cultural Dissonance and Gender – Disproportionate Placement in Special Education and the African-American Male

Teachers' beliefs, values and normative behaviors derive more from a cultural framework than formal ideologies. Culture refers to "the broadly shared understanding of social phenomena." This understanding draws upon concrete experiences that, when interpreted through a shared framework, create everyday explanations through which people make sense of their world (Lipman, 1998). We are all products of our own culture. It is not unusual for us to see people, situations and things the way we have been conditioned to see them. All too often innocently and inadvertently, we draw conclusions about others based on prior conditioning and our own limited cultural perspectives, a process which is especially dangerous in a school or classroom setting (Kuykendall, 2004). Personal beliefs teachers possess about students have a profound effect upon the performance of males (Harris & Duhon, 1999). Personal and cultural experiences as well as teacher attitudes and behaviors are important to the performance of African-American children (Irvine, 1990). Research has demonstrated that when a person has

not had individual association with members of different groups, he has the tendency to consciously or unconsciously assign stereotypical representations to a group based upon the prevailing cultural biases of the day, a factor which manifests itself in the learning environment (Harris & Duhon, 1999). Classroom environments can either support or annihilate the aspiration of achievement and learning. Classroom social systems often perpetuate consciously and or unconsciously teachers' perceptions of and interactions with students. Such social systems are organic structures rooted and grounded in an invisible/unspoken sphere of influence and personal power initiated by the classroom teacher. Furthermore, classroom social systems are founded on teachers' understanding of *who* they are, *what* they think about themselves and their students, *what* level of confidence they bring to teaching, and *how* they choose to use their personal power with their students. Personal power, combined with negative or positive perceptions, serve to form teachers' realities about their students' capabilities and ability to succeed academically (Price, 2006).

A report published in 1963 referenced teachers as "cultural transmitters." Teachers bring their own culture and values into the classroom. When teachers face a conflict in cultural values, they often react by rigidly adhering to their own set of values, thus inadvertently, their behaviors interfere with learning – even limiting the learning of students. Graybill (1997) states that teacher prejudices and stereotyping can lead to assumptions, which influence their own actions and interfere with teaching. The emergence of cultural dissonance for African-American males often results in disproportionate labeling of disability and placement in special education. Disproportionate placement of a group of students in any educational program means that those students are represented in the program in a significantly greater proportion than their percentage in the school population as a whole (Polite & Davis, 1999). A study conducted by the National

Academy of Sciences deemed disproportionate placement as problematic, stating that disproportion is a placement problem when children are invalidly assessed for placement in EMR programs. Problems can arise either in the regular classroom, where opportunities for academic success are limited, or in special education classroom, where educational programs falter due to low and inappropriate expectations (Polite & Davis, 1999). Grossman (2002), in his examination of discrimination in special education, determined that most educators believe they are not biased against students of color and poor students. Teachers, psychologists, and social administrators' treatment of poor students and many groups of students of color reflect the biases that exist in the larger society. Grossman offered explanation as to why teachers are discriminatory against certain students:

- Prejudice is a part of the human condition.

- Much of people's prejudices are unconscious.

- Many teachers discriminate against students who are unlike them because they fear them. This is clearly true of many European-American teachers who keep African-American students at a distance, avoid calling on them, remain on the look-out for signs that they are about to misbehave and cause trouble, and use strict and severe forms of discipline with them.

A 1992 USDOE Fourteenth Annual Report to Congress indicated that school professionals were more likely to refer and place minority and poor children in special education because of lower expectations regarding the educability of these children. Critical to this report is recognizing that Severe Emotional Disorder (SED) describes adult interpretations or impressions of observable student behaviors, rather than presumed underlying mental pathologies. Classification depends significantly upon the moods of those who perceive the

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behaviors as disordered, rather than upon professional concerns related to cognitive deficits, academic failure, superior ability, or sensory or physical differences (Polite & Davis, 1999).

Hayes and Price (2000) indicate that the source of cultural dissonance resides with teacher preparation programs which typically do not address the implications of differential experiences based on race and gender. Several traditional features of the African-American male's behavioral profile exacerbate the average, White female teacher's negative view of them. Features which promote negative viewpoints include high physical activity, historical tensions arising from American Whites' fear of African-American males' physique, and the likelihood of this fear being extended to African-American boys and young men. Major (2001) also found that African-American boys were negatively stereotyped and feared by teachers. Results also indicated that physical size and teachers' viewpoint of African-American boys were more troublesome than other pupils contributed to teacher perceptions; additional characteristics included patterns of language learning and usage of African-Americans males, traits which are generally not valued in school.

Cultural preferences for both physical and verbal behavior have a powerful influence on teachers and become a source of initial referral of children for special education evaluation. Researchers found that referral, assessment, and placement decisions of teachers and school psychologist were influenced by both the perceived ethnicity and socioeconomic status of students. It is proposed that the overrepresentation of African-American males in special education classes is primarily attributed to the fact that most teachers in public schools are White and White teachers refer students five times more often than do minority teachers from other racial groups (Polite & Davis, 1999).

Researchers assert a "close connection" between educators' judgments about students' intellectual ability and the educational experiences which follow from these judgments. Failure to recognize the abilities of students of color and the erroneous belief that certain students lack the ability to learn are likely to create self-fulfilling prophesies (Hyland, 1998). Culture appears to be at the center of debate for minority students and achievement. Scholars have argued that cultural discontinuities between students' homes and the institutionalized structure of schools are a significant factor in the underachievement and failure of minority and low-income students. The degree of success experienced in the school setting is closely related to the correlation between student cultures and the mainstream student population. The greater the students' initial advantage in school and their familiarity with the valued cultural codes the greater the relative ease with which students can conform to school norms and expectations. Conversely, the greater the difference in culture between students' homes and school, the greater the disadvantage students face (Tyson, 2003).

In summary, high-levels of dissonance between teacher-to-student populations have a significant impact upon the attitudes and expectations teachers possess about students of color, in particular African-American males, attitudes and expectations, which may contribute to low student achievement and expectations. As public school education has moved into the 21st century, school systems have witnessed increasing social, cultural, and ethnic and racial divide between teachers and the students. In addition, research indicates that this racial-cultural gap has resulted in the emergence of cultural dissonance, which has contributed to the over representation of African-American males in special education. A crucial factor in the overrepresentation of African-American males in special education may rest with teachers' sense of efficacy and the impact it has upon expectations, instruction, acceptance, image and tolerance

of African-American males in the classroom environment. Understanding the critical factors of teacher efficacy allows educators, administrators and other school personnel to examine how their personal beliefs influence the performance and expectations of the African-American male. Ultimately, when African-American males' are held to the same standards and expectations as other students, success and achievement occurs.

Summary of Review of Literature

This chapter has presented a review of different journal articles, papers, and studies taking place within the field of education pertaining to academic factors which influence the academic failure or success of African-American male. Presentation of information used to explain the state of African-American males within the confines of the public educational system has been shown to support how critical a role educators play in the achievement rate African-American males experience within the school and classroom environment. Evidence presented indicates that teacher expectations and perceptions brought to the classroom may adversely affect the level of accomplishment African-American children, specifically African-American male's experience. Literature also discussed how African-American males perceptions of teacher attitudes towards them foster the emergence of self-fulfilling prophecies, contributing to the level of poor performance witnessed in the classroom. Besides the self-fulfilling prophecy, African-American males and educators have to acknowledge the influence media has upon how young men of color are viewed within society, a view that is often portrayed more negative than positive.

This chapter also presented evidence indicating how the growing social and racial gap between teachers and students contributes to the disproportional number of minority students, in particular African-American males, in special education. This disproportional experience is

often attributed to the level of cultural dissonance, which exists between the teacher and the African-American male student. School culture, litigation and educational equity of African-American students, teacher expectations of race and class, and cultural dissonance and gender were other factors presented within the context of this literature review.

CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The disproportionate representation of minority students is among the most critical and enduring problems in the field of special education. Despite court challenges, federal reports and an abundance of research, the problem of disproportionate representation of minority students in special education persists (Skiba, Simmons, Ritter, Gibbs, Rousch, Cuadrado, & Chung, 2008). A 2007 report generated by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) indicated that among racial groups, African-American students were found to be overrepresented in overall special education services and in the categories of mental retardation (MR) and emotional disturbance (ED). In 2006, Skiba, Ritter, Kohler, Henderson, and Wu concluded that African-American students were more likely than their peers with the same disability to be overrepresented in more restrictive settings, and underrepresented in general education settings. Skiba, Ritter, et al. (2006) further concluded that disproportional placement increased as the severity of the disability decreased, raising the question that the overuse of more restrictive placements for African-American students with disabilities is likely due to factors other than severity of disability.

Hence, the purpose of this study was to measure self-efficacy and self- reported practices of teachers within a particular urban school district. The study examined European-American teachers' (dominant teaching group) perceptions within the school district towards instructing male students, in particular African-American males. The study compared and examined

teachers' perceptions of their general efficacy towards instructing all students and efficacy towards teaching African-American males.

Specific comparisons were made between European-American and minority American teachers regarding perceptions between instructing all students versus African-American males. The four research questions guiding this research were as follows:

1.   Is there a difference in self-efficacy beliefs based on self-reported teaching practices, by race, related to:

   a. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

   b. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

   c. Disability Perceptions

   d. Motivation Perceptions

   e. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

   f. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

2.   Do self-efficacy beliefs vary given teacher type (i.e., regular vs. special) related to:

   a. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

   b. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

   c. Disability Perceptions

   d. Motivation Perceptions

   e. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

   f. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

3.	Do self-efficacy beliefs vary given the gender of the teacher, related to:

    a.	Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

    b.	Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

    c.	Disability Perceptions

    d.	Motivation Perceptions

    e.	Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

    f.	Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

4.	How do the self-reported perceptions of sample teachers differ related to African-American male students?

Research Design

This section describes the research design, population, sample size, data collection, instrumentation, and data analysis procedures utilized to complete the research study. The Teacher Perceptions and the Male Student Survey (TPMSS) was designed by the researcher to examine the relationship between teacher ethnicity and general efficacy in teaching all students versus teaching African-American males. Four different analyses were used to analyze survey results: (1) Content Validity Analysis of the TPMSS, (2) Reliability Analysis of the TPMSS, (3) Factor Analysis, and (4) Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The first three analyses were necessary to complete the ANOVA and remove the possibility of spurious data outcomes.

Population

The target population for this study was teachers in an urban school district, located in a northeastern state. The school district selected by the researcher was based upon a published Rhode Island Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (R.I.D.E.) report on Minority Students and Special Education.

In the report, R.I.D.E cited seven school districts throughout the state for labeling significant numbers of students of color with learning disabilities. Of the seven districts cited, the largest district identified African-American students as eligible for services in the category of Emotionally Disturbed (ED) at a rate five-times that of other student groups. Furthermore, compared to the national average (12–14%), Rhode Island was reported to have one of the highest percentages (19%) of students in special education within the U. S. A 2008 Phi Delta Kappa International Assessment Report entitled "Racial Inequity in School Achievement" concluded that a significant factor contributing to overrepresentation within the system was attributed to the cultural difference amongst the minority student population and the largely white teaching force that resides within the state. According to the article, it was this racial difference, which resulted in misunderstanding or conflicts between student-teacher groups and explained the overrepresentation of minority students in special education programs within the state. Information presented in both the R.I.D.E. and the Phi Delta Kappa reports, led the researcher to examine which specific factor may attribute to the over representation of African-American males in special education within the district. In conducting this research, emphasis was placed upon elementary school teachers, since students are primarily placed in special education at the elementary level. According to demographic data provided by the selected Rhode Island school district, the school system has 25,284 students with 78.6% of the student population being identified as economically disadvantaged, and 18% of students identified as having a disability.

Additional statistical information pertaining to the school district includes the following: student/teacher ratio: 26:1 (General Education), 10:1 (Special Education) and 6:1 (Special Education 230 day program – Self-contained level classes for students with Pervasive

Developmental Disabilities who require a full day, full year program). *Student racial make-up* – American Indian (0.7%), Asian/Pacific (6.5%), Black (22%), Hispanic (57.9%) and White (13%); *Students receiving free/reduced Lunch* -- Elementary 9,486(n=85.4%)(free), 1,090 (10.2%)(reduced), and 525(0.047%) (paid); Middle 3,902 (free), 345 (reduced), and 181 (paid); High School 4,573 (free), 858 (reduced), and 60 (paid).

While Hispanic students' comprise the largest student population within the district, for the purposes of this research, they are not the target study group. Instead, the researcher was approved to study African-American males within the district; hence, they comprise the target group for this study.

Sample

The population for this study consisted of elementary school teachers (i.e., general and special education) who provided educational instruction to all students including African-American students, within their respective schools. According to statistical information furnished by the school district, 2,074 individuals make-up entire K–12 teacher population; the racial demographic/percentage of the teacher population consist of African-American = 7.6%, American-Indian = 0.4%, Asian/Pacific Islander = 1.2%, European-American = 82%, and Hispanic = 8.8%. In regards to gender, females consist of 73% of the teaching staff, compared to males who consist of 27%. Initial participants utilized for this study included 325 elementary school teachers who provided instruction to all students including African-American students enrolled in 13 of the 29 elementary schools within the district. The researcher selected the target number of 325 teachers based upon the total number of teachers who taught at the 13 elementary schools in the district. The procedure utilized to acquire the elementary schools (n = 13) for the

research study entailed the researcher placing the names of all 29 elementary schools within the district in a basket and randomly pulling the schools' names out of a basket to create the 13.

The decision to select only 13 of the 29 schools was based upon the manner in which the school district categorizes the schools within the district. According to the district database, elementary schools within the district are divided into a variety of school models. Given the amount of time allotted by the cooperating district to complete the research study (i.e., three weeks), the district's end-of-year schedule, survey collection procedure, and the setting up of meetings between the researcher, designated school principals and teacher participants, the researcher believed it was appropriate to select only 13 schools. Once the designated schools were chosen, the researcher contacted the principal of each school and arranged a meeting to discuss the components of the research project in accordance with the school districts' research policy. Concluding each meeting, a secondary meeting was set-up for teachers, to explain the purpose of the study and the procedures involved, and to distribute the surveys.

Data Collection and Instrumentation

The data collection methodology used to conduct the research study was that of survey research. Survey research allowed the researcher to examine factors, which may relate to the problem presented in the study. Because survey research allows the researcher to collect a sufficiently large data set for statistical analysis, it provides a means of conducting research. Surveys allow for the collection of quantitative information about demographic data in a population, as well as attitudes, beliefs, values and past behaviors of the selected population which can be utilized to explain the likely causes of observed phenomena.

The survey designed by the researcher and utilized for the study consisted of 38 Likert-scale questions and 11 demographic questions. The Teacher Perceptions and the Males Student

Survey (TPMSS) was divided into three sections: Section I — Teacher Beliefs, which consisted

of 27 Likert scale questions. Participants were asked to read a statement and indicate their

beliefs about the statement in regards to teaching beliefs and the impact upon teachers' practices

and decision-making. Beliefs choice option for research participants on section I ranged in order

from 1= *never*, 2 = *seldom*, 3 = *occasionally*, and 4 = *always*. Table 1 provides sample questions

from section I of the survey.

Table 1

Sample Questions from Section I (Teacher Beliefs)

Question One:	To what extent can you control disorderly behavior in the classroom?
Question Two:	To what extent can you ask higher-thinking questions in your classroom?
Question Three:	To what extent do you have to adjust classroom management styles to meet the needs of diverse student groups?
Question Four:	To what extent do you provide culturally relevant instruction to student in the classroom?
Question Five:	To what extent are you accepting of student with social-emotional disabilities in your classroom?

Section II – TPPMS consisted of 11 questions. Participants were required to read

statements and rank-order male groups with regard to their ability as a teacher to interact with a

particular group in the classroom. Choice options for research participants on section two ranged

in order from 1 = *most likely*, 2 = *likely*, 3 = *somewhat likely*, and 4 = *least likely* (see Table 2 for

sample items from Section II). The third and final section of the survey consisted of 11

demographic questions, designed to provide background information on survey participants.

Table 2

Sample Questions from Section II (TPPMSS)

Question One:	I believe I can motivate __males to become successful learners, by helping them to develop the skills needed to achieve.
Question Two:	I am more likely to automatically send __ males students to the principal or counselor's office when they are disruptive instead of handling the problem
Question Three:	My style of classroom instruction is culturally responsive in meeting the academic needs of _male students.
Question Four:	I have lower expectations for _males in my classroom, based on my interaction with their parents/guardians.

The researcher-designed TPPMSS was loosely based on the Gibson and Dembo (1984) Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Short Form version). The researcher utilized the Gibson and Dembo scale as a guide in the initial formatting of questions presented in section one of the survey only. Final questions utilized in the research survey were based on objectives set forth by the school district, as it relates to instructing students in the district, the researcher's actual experiences as an educator working with diverse student populations, and the unique factors urban school districts encounter in educating students in today's society.

In developing the questions, the researcher and the Office of Assessment, Research and Testing for the designated school district conducted five meetings over the course of several weeks. The researcher in agreement with the district's Office of Assessment, Research and Testing believed that it was necessary to have the initial survey language revised, to ensure that a higher rate of return would be forthcoming from teacher participants who agreed to be involved in the study. Each meeting held between the researcher and the school district entailed revisions

being made to the language used and to the structure of the initial survey. It was necessary for the meetings and revisions to occur for the researcher to gain approval to conduct the study in the district. Once the researcher and school district agreed on the proper format and language used for the survey and the doctoral advisory committee approved the study, approval was granted to conduct the survey, thereby making it possible for the researcher to submit an IRB application to Auburn University for final approval of the study and allowing the research study to occur.

The final format of section I (Teacher Beliefs) of the TPMSS involved 27 statements pertaining to teacher beliefs and perceived impact said beliefs have upon the students they instruct. Participants were instructed to rate and give their honest opinion on their ability to complete the task/ belief about the task, and take into account the dynamics of their classroom environment and student population.

Section II of the TPPMSS survey was the focal point utilized in the research study. The initial design for this section of the survey was based on the works of Barakari (2003) and Irvine (1990) on teacher attitudes and expectations towards African-American males in the classroom. Changes were made to the initial survey based on the premise that the wording for each questions, originally targeted specifically African-American males, participants may not be as willing to respond.

Content Validity of Instrument

Although the TPMSS was utilized for the study, it was not tested prior to its dissemination. To ensure systematic analysis of the survey, a rating scale was developed by a member of the researcher's dissertation committee. The rating scale was designed to assess the content validity of the 38 questions utilized for the research study. The scale involved rating the survey on a scale of 1 to 3, with 1 = *not Relevant*, 2 = *Somewhat Relevant*, and 3 = *Relevant*. To

determine the content validity of each question, the researcher averaged the scores obtained from the members of the dissertation committee on each question. The members of the PhD committee are veteran educators and researchers, so this feedback was considered to be an expert panel. Any question not receiving the cut score of 2.0 was eliminated from the survey. Based on computing of scores from the panel, it was determined that the panel of three experts in the area of diversity were in agreement that the questions presented within the TPMSS were valid, thereby establishing content validity of the survey. All questions were retained for the survey.

Collection of Data

Once the designated school districts' Office of Assessment, Research, and Testing, and Auburn University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Research Involving Human Subjects granted research approval, collection of the survey data were completed and the data were complied. Given the timeframe allotted to the researcher (i.e., three weeks) for the completion of the study, the following format was utilized. The first week of the study involved the researcher meeting with the principals of each of the 13 randomly selected elementary schools within the district. During the first week, the researcher had to reschedule meetings with 4 of the principals due to emergency meetings within the district.

The researcher was able to successfully meet with nine designated school principals and teacher participants groups, and administer surveys during the initial week of scheduled meetings. During teacher meetings, the researcher assured teachers the surveys were confidential, explained where the surveys were to be returned (locked box) and when the data would be collected. The remaining two weeks entailed the researcher meeting with principals and teachers from other schools and collecting surveys from randomly selected elementary schools.

At the conclusion of week three, the researcher had collected a total of 111surveys out of the 325 total surveys distributed to all 13 schools. It is the opinion of the researcher that the relatively low number of surveys received (i.e., 34.1%) could be attributed to a number of factors, including the fact that participants were involved in state curriculum assessments, school improvement committees, afterschool programs, and the daily responsibilities of meeting challenges of educating students within the district.

Data Analysis

To analyze differences in the beliefs of European American teachers towards all students versus the African-American male student, the researcher utilized the statistical package SPSS version 17.0 to examine quantitative data. Again, the four different analyses used to analyze survey results: (1) Content Validity Analysis of the TPMSS, (2) Reliability Analysis of the TPMSS, (3) Factor Analysis of the TPMSS, and (4) Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine self-efficacy and self-reported practices of teachers within a particular urban school district. The study examined European-American teachers' (dominant teaching group) beliefs within the school district towards instructing male students, specifically African-American males. The study compared and examined teachers' perceptions of their general efficacy towards instructing all students and efficacy towards teaching males, particular African-American males, and how teachers' attitudes may have contributed to the disproportionate/overrepresentation of African-American males in special education. To acquire more in-depth analysis of differences in teacher efficacy perceptions, the study examined how teacher attributes (i.e., race and gender) and other demographic factors (i.e., teacher type) contributed to perceptions of student expectations for achievement.

Descriptive Characteristics of Participants

Analysis of research data indicate that 111 teachers participated in the research study out of the original 325-selected sample. Participant population consisted of all instructional personnel within a designated building. Although the study focused on elementary teachers in general, within this group two subgroups were identified for research purposes and were differentiated accordingly. European-American teachers made- up group one and minority teachers made up group two. All individuals provided instructional services to students at the 13 randomly selected elementary schools from a district that was purposively selected for its

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overrepresentation of minority students in general, and African American student in particular in special education. The rate of return the researcher had for surveys distributed equaled 111/325, i.e., 34.1%, which is considered sufficient for analysis participant population based on race indicate that 73 (65.7%) respondents were European-American, 16 (14.4%) respondents were Black/African-American, 16 (14.4%) respondents were Latino-American, no respondents (n = 0) were of Native American descent, 4 (3.8%) respondents identified themselves as biracial, and 1 (0.9%) respondent was Asian/Pacific Islander. Regarding gender, 81 (73%) respondents were female and 30 (27%) respondents were male. All 111 participants stated they had received professional development training in the areas of working with special population students and multicultural/cultural responsive teaching, in accordance to policies of the targeted school districts; all teachers were required to enroll in the aforementioned professional development courses each school year. Participants' area of certification showed 52 (49.05%) with regular/general education certification, 46 (43.39%) participants with both regular and special education certification, and 13 (7.61%) with special education certification. Participants served in the following types of classrooms: 51 (48.5%) served in regular education, 7 (6.6%) served in special education, 44 (41.9%) served in a regular/special education combination, and 3 (2.85%) serve all students; typically this individual is either a reading coach or math coach within the school system.

<div align="center">**Research Questions and Results**</div>

Table 3 breaks down the corresponding four research questions in terms of the independent variable, dependent variable and significance level of the test. The dependent variables derived from an exploratory factor analysis conducted by the researcher. The six

factors yielded are listed under each research question. A total of three one-way between

subjects ANOVAs were used to test the questions.

Question 1: Is there a difference in self-efficacy beliefs based on self-reported teaching

practices, by race, related to:

A. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

B. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

C. Disability Perceptions

D. Motivation Perceptions

E. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

F. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Question 2: Do self-efficacy beliefs vary given teacher type (i.e., Regular vs. Special)

related to:

A. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

B. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

C.   Disability Perceptions

D. Motivation Perceptions

E. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

F. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Question 3: Do self-efficacy beliefs vary given the gender of the teacher, related to:

A. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

B. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

C. Disability Perceptions

D. Motivation Perceptions

E. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

F. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Question 4: How do the self-reported perceptions of sample teachers differ related to

African-American male students?

Table 3

Independent Variables, Dependent Variables and Statistical Techniques for Research Questions 1, 2 and 3

Question	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	*p*
1	Ethnicity (European- American vs. Minority)	Classroom Management Skills	.445
		Social Economic Status Perceptions	.473
		Disability Perceptions	.008
		Motivation Perceptions	.204
		Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions	.072
		Differentiated Instruction Perceptions	.259
2	Teacher Type (Regular vs. Special Education)	Classroom Management Skills	.085
		Social Economic Status Perceptions	.231
		Disability Perceptions	.083
		Motivation Perceptions	.471
		Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions	.278
		Differentiated Instruction Perceptions	.652
3	Gender (Male vs. Female)	Classroom Management Skills	.818
		Social Economic Status Perceptions	.096
		Disability Perceptions	.098
		Motivation Perceptions	.458
		Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions	.226
		Differentiated Instruction Perceptions	.209

Data Analysis Procedure

Inferential statistics were used to draw conclusions from the sample population tested. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17 was used to code and tabulate scores and provide summarized values where applicable. Three one-way between groups analysis of variances (ANOVAs) (i.e., Race X 6 Factors, Teacher type X 6 Factors, and Gender X 6 Factors) were used to test Questions 1–3. Prior to interpreting results, the data were screened for univariate outliers and missing data and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated, by group. Missing data was evaluated using frequencies and univariate outliers were evaluated by transforming raw scores on the DV, by group, to z-scores and comparing the z-scores to a criterion of +/- 3.29, $p < .001$ (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). Scores that exceed this critical value are considered extreme and should not be included in the analysis. The assumption of normality and homogeneity of variance were also evaluated. The assumption of normality requires that the variables are normally distributed in the population. The assumption of homogeneity of variance requires that the variance in the different populations is similar. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was evaluated using Levene's test. Levene's test evaluates whether the variance in groups are similar (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). If the test is not significant at $p > 0.05$, the variances are not significantly different and the assumption of homogeneity of variance is considered to be met. If the assumption of normality was violated, the variables were transformed, as appropriate. If the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, the Welch test was used instead on the univariate F test. The Welch test is more robust than the F test when the assumption of homogeneity of variance is violated (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). Significant mean differences are tested in ANOVA by evaluating the ratio between-group to within-group variance.

When the assumption of homogeneity of variance is violated, this ratio may be misleading. The Welch test adjusts the denominator of the F ratio so it has the same expectation as the numerator when the null hypothesis is true.

Research Question 1

   Findings factor–Classroom management skills. Prior to analyzing Research Question 1, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumption of normality was met but the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met. Since the assumption was not met, the Welch test was used instead of the univariate F test. The sample size for Question 1 was $n = 73$ for White teachers and $n = 38$ for minority teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by ethnicity, are provided in Table 4 below.

Table 4

Classroom Management Skills by Ethnicity

Group	*N*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
White	73	1.17	2.83	4.00	3.47	0.377
Minority	38	1.17	2.83	4.00	3.41	0.463

Note. DV = Classroom Management Skills

   A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in classroom management skill scores depending on ethnicity (white vs. minority). The main effect of ethnicity was not significant (Welch $(1, 63.162) = 0.591$, $p = .445$). There was not a significant mean difference in classroom management skills depending

on ethnicity (Mean = 3.47 and 3.41 for White and minority teachers respectively). Based on this information, results indicate that there was not a mean difference in classroom management skills, depending on ethnicity of the individual. A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Question1 is listed in Table 5.

Table 5

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 1

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.112	1	0.112	0.672	0.414
Within Groups	18.187	109	0.167		
Total	18.299	110			

Note. DV = Classroom Management Skills

Factor 2 findings–Social economic status. Prior to analyzing Factor 2, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers, but one case was missing data. This case was removed. The assumption of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Question 2 was $n = 73$ for White teachers and $n = 37$ for minority teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by ethnicity, are provided in Table 6.

Table 6

Social Economic Status Perceptions by Ethnicity

Group	*n*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
White	73	2.50	1.00	3.50	1.93	0.751
Minority	37	2.50	1.00	3.50	2.04	0.676

Note. DV = Social Economic Status Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in social economic status perceptions scores depending on ethnicity (White vs. minority). The main effect of ethnicity was not significant (F (1, 108) = 0.518, p = .473). There was not a significant mean difference in social economic status perceptions depending on ethnicity (Mean = 1.93 and 2.04 for White and minority teachers respectively). Results indicate that a mean difference does not exist between social economic status perceptions depending on ethnicity of teacher. A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 2 is provided in Table 7.

Table 7

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 2

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.274	1	0.274	0.518	0.473
Within Groups	57.068	108	0.528		
Total	57.341	109			

Note. DV = Social Economic Status Perceptions

Factor 3 findings–Disability perception. Prior to analyzing factor 3, the data were

screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of

variance were evaluated. There was one outlier and one case with missing data. Both cases

were removed. The assumption of normality was met but the assumption of homogeneity of

variance was not met. The Levene's test was significant, indicating that the variances for the

different groups were not equal. Since this assumption was not met, the Welch test was used

instead of the univariate F test. The sample size for Factor is 3 was $n = 72$ for White teachers

and $n = 37$ for minority teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by ethnicity,

are provided in Table 8.

Table 8

Disability Perceptions by Ethnicity

Group	n	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
White	72	2.00	2.00	4.00	3.37	0.557
Minority	37	2.00	2.00	4.00	3.07	0.516

Note. DV = Disability Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a

significant mean difference in disability perceptions scores depending on ethnicity (White vs.

minority). The main effect of ethnicity was not significant (Welch $(1, 77.876) = 7.495$, $p =$

.008). There was a significant mean difference in disability perceptions depending on ethnicity

(Mean = 3.37 and 3.07 for White and minority teachers respectively). Results indicate the notion

that a mean difference in disability perceptions, depending on ethnicity was rejected. White

teachers had significantly higher disability self-efficacy perceptions than minority teachers. A

model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 3 is provided in Table 9.

Table 9

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 3

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	2.108	1	2.108	7.132	0.009
Within Groups	31.621	107	0.296		
Total	33.729	108			

Note. DV = Disability Perceptions

Factor 4 findings–Motivation perception. Prior to analyzing Factor 4, the data were

screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of

variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumptions of normality

and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 4 was $n = 73$ for White

teachers and $n = 38$ for minority teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by

ethnicity, are provided in Table 10.

Table 10

Motivation Perceptions by Ethnicity

Group	*N*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
White	73	1.80	2.20	4.00	3.27	0.445
Minority	38	1.60	2.40	4.00	3.16	0.410

Note. DV = Motivation Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in motivation perceptions scores depending on ethnicity (White vs. minority). The main effect of ethnicity was not significant (F (1, 109) = 1.631, p = .204). There was not a significant mean difference in motivation perceptions depending on ethnicity (Mean = 3.27 and 3.16 for White and minority teachers respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 4 is provided in Table 11.

Table 11

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 4

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.307	1	0.307	1.631	0.204
Within Groups	20.509	109	0.188		
Total	20.816	110			

Note. DV = Motivation Perceptions

Factor 5 findings–Cultural-relevant teaching perceptions. Prior to analyzing Factor 5, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 5 was n = 73 for White teachers and n =38 for minority teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by ethnicity, are provided in Table 12.

Table 12

Culturally-Relevant Teaching Perceptions by Ethnicity

Group	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
White	73	2.00	2.00	4.00	3.17	0.541
Minority	38	1.80	2.20	4.00	2.98	0.495

Note. DV = Culturally-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in culturally-relevant teaching perceptions scores depending on ethnicity (White vs. minority). The main effect of ethnicity was not significant (F (1, 109) = 3.305, p = .072). There was not a significant mean difference in culturally-relevant teaching perceptions depending on ethnicity (Mean = 3.17 and 2.98 for White and minority teachers respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 5 is provided in Table 13.

Table 13

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 5

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.914	1	0.914	3.305	0.072
Within Groups	30.143	109	0.277		
Total	31.058	110			

Note. DV = Culturally-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

Factor 6 findings–Differentiated instruction perceptions. Prior to analyzing Factor 6, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 6 was $n = 73$ for White teachers and $n = 38$ for minority teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by ethnicity, are provided in Table 14.

Table 14

Differentiated Instruction Perceptions by Ethnicity

Group	*N*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
White	73	1.75	2.25	4.00	3.31	0.569
Minority	38	1.75	2.25	4.00	3.18	0.499

Note. DV = Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in differentiated instruction perceptions scores depending on ethnicity (White vs. minority). The main effect of ethnicity was not significant ($F (1, 109) =$ 1.288, $p = .259$). There was not a significant mean difference in differentiated instruction perceptions depending on ethnicity (Mean = 3.31 and 3.18 for White and minority teachers respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 6 is provided in Table 15.

Table 15

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 6

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	0.384	1	0.384	1.288	0.259
Within Groups	32.526	109	0.298		
Total	32.910	110			

Note. DV = Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Research Question 2

  Findings factor 7–Classroom management skills. Prior to analyzing Factor 1 the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 7 was $n = 41$ for regular teachers and $n = 10$ for special education teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by teacher type, are provided in Table 16.

Table 16

Classroom Management Skills Perceptions by Teacher Type

Group	n	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Regular	41	1.17	2.83	4.00	3.48	0.447
Special Education	10	1.00	2.83	3.83	3.22	0.351

Note. DV = Classroom Management Skills

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in classroom management skill scores depending on teacher type (regular vs. special education). The main effect of teacher type was not significant (F (1, 49) = 3.087, p = .085). There was not a significant mean difference in classroom management skills depending on teacher type (Mean = 3.48 and 3.22 for regular and special education respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 7 is provided in Table 17.

Table 17

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 7

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.573	1	0.573	3.087	0.085
Within Groups	9.103	49	0.186		
Total	9.676	50			

Note. DV = Classroom Management Skills

Factor 8 findings–Social economic status. Prior to analyzing Factor 8, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers, but one case was missing data. This case was removed. The assumptions of normality were met but the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met. Since this assumption was not met, the Welch test was evaluated instead of the univariate F test. The sample size for Factor 8 was n = 40 for regular teachers and n =10 for special education teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by teacher type, are provided in Table 18.

Table 18

Social Economic Status Perceptions by Teacher Type

Group	n	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Regular	40	2.50	1.00	3.50	2.08	0.760
Special Education	10	1.50	1.00	2.50	1.83	0.514

Note. DV = Social Economic Status Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in social economic status perceptions scores depending on teacher type (regular vs. special education). The main effect of teacher type was not significant (Welch $(1, 20.121) = 1.528$, $p = .231$). There was not a significant mean difference in social economic status perceptions depending on teacher type (Mean = 2.08 and 1.83 for regular and special education respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis of Factor 8 is provided in Table 19.

Table 19

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 8

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.500	1	0.500	0.964	0.331
Within Groups	24.906	48	0.519		
Total	25.406	49			

Note. DV = Social Economic Status Perceptions

Factor 9 findings–Disability perception. Prior to analyzing Factor 9, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers, but one case was missing data. This case was removed. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 9 was *n* = 40 for regular teachers and *n* =10 for special education teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by teacher type, are provided in Table 20.

Table 20

Disability Perceptions by Teacher Type

Group	*N*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Regular	40	2.00	2.00	4.00	3.18	0.512
Special Education	10	1.00	3.00	4.00	3.50	0.478

Note. DV = Disability Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in disability perceptions scores depending on teacher type (regular vs. special education). The main effect of teacher type was not significant (F (1, 148) = 3.139, *p* = .083). There was a significant mean difference in disability perceptions depending on teacher type (Mean = 3.18 and 3.50 for regular and special education respectively). Special education teachers had a significantly higher disability self-efficacy perception than regular education teachers. A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 9 is provided in Table 21.

Table 21

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 9

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.802	1	0.802	3.139	0.083
Within Groups	12.267	48	0.256		
Total	13.069	49			

Note. DV = Disability Perceptions

Factor 10 findings–Motivation perceptions. Prior to analyzing Factor 10, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 10 was $n = 41$ for regular teachers and $n = 10$ for special education teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by teacher type, are provided in Table 22.

Table 22

Motivation Perceptions by Teacher Type

Group	*n*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Regular	41	1.60	2.40	4.00	3.23	0.430
Special Education	10	1.20	2.80	4.00	3.34	0.443

Note. DV = Motivation Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in motivation perceptions scores depending on teacher type (regular vs. special education). The main effect of teacher type was not significant (F (1, 49) = 0.527, p = .471). There was not a significant mean difference in motivation perceptions depending on teacher type (Mean = 3.23 and 3.34 for regular and special education respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 10 is provided in Table 23.

Table 23

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 10

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	0.099	1	0.099	0.527	0.471
Within Groups	9.169	49	0.1887		
Total	9.267	50			

Note. DV = Motivation Perceptions

Factor 11 findings–Culturally-relevant teaching perceptions. Prior to analyzing Factor 11, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 11 was n = 41 for regular teachers and n =10 for special education teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by teacher type, are provided in Table 24.

Table 24

Culturally-Relevant Teaching Perceptions by Teacher Type

Group	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Regular	41	1.80	2.20	4.00	3.10	0.557
Special Education	10	1.40	2.60	4.00	3.32	0.598

Note. DV = Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in cultural-relevant teaching perceptions scores depending on teacher type (regular vs. special education). The main effect of teacher type was not significant (F (1, 49) = 1.206, p = .278). There was not a significant mean difference in cultural-relevant teaching perceptions depending on teacher type (Mean = 3.10 and 3.32 for regular and special education respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 11 is provided in Table 25.

Table 25

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 11

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Between Groups	0.385	1	0.385	1.206	0.278
Within Groups	15.638	49	0.319		
Total	16.023	50			

Note. DV = Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

Factor 12 findings–Differentiated instruction perceptions. Prior to analyzing Factor 12, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumption of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 12 was $n = 41$ for regular teachers and $n = 10$ for special education teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by teacher type, are provided in Table 26 below.

Table 26

Differentiated Instruction Perceptions by Teacher Type

Group	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Regular	41	1.75	2.25	4.00	3.26	0.567
Special Education	10	1.25	2.75	4.00	3.35	0.459

Note. DV = Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in differentiated instruction perceptions scores depending on teacher type (regular vs. special education). The main effect of teacher type was not significant (F (1, 49) = 0.206, p = .652). There was not a significant mean difference in differentiated instruction perceptions depending on teacher type (Mean = 3.26 and 3.35 for regular and special education respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 12 is provided in Table 27.

Table 27

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 12

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.062	1	0.062	0.206	0.652
Within Groups	14.769	49	0.301		
Total	14.831	50			

Note. DV = Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Research Question 3

Factor 13 findings–Classroom management skills. Prior to analyzing Factor 13, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. No missing data or outliers were detected and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance was met. The sample size for Factor 13 was $n = 81$ for female teachers and $n = 30$ for male teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by gender, are provided in Table 28.

Table 28

Classroom Management Skills by Gender

Group	*n*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	81	1.17	2.83	4.00	3.447	0.408
Male	30	1.17	2.83	4.00	3.467	0.414

Note. DV = Classroom Management Skills

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in classroom management self-efficacy scores depending on gender (female vs. male). The main effect of gender was not significant (F (1, 109) = 0.053, p = .818). There was not a significant mean difference in classroom management scores depending on gender (M = 3.45 and 3.47 for females and males respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 13 is provided in Table 29.

Table 29

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 13

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.009	1	0.009	0.053	.818
Within Groups	18.290	109	0.168		
Total	12.299	110			

Note. DV = Classroom Management Skills

Factor 14 findings–Social economic status. Prior to analyzing Factor 14, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. One case was missing data and was removed. No outliers were detected. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 14 was n = 80 for female teachers and n = 30 for male teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by gender, are provided in Table 30.

Table 30

Social Economic Status by Gender

Group	n	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	80	2.50	1.00	3.50	1.90	0.725
Male	30	2.50	1.00	3.50	2.16	0.702

Note. DV = Social Economic Status Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in social economic status perception scores depending on gender (female vs. male). The main effect of gender was not significant (F (1, 108) = 2.814, p = .096). There was not a significant mean difference in social economic status perception scores depending on gender (M = 1.90 and 2.16 for females and males respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 14 is provided in Table 31.

Table 31

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 14

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	1.456	1	1.456	2.814	0.096
Within Groups	55.885	108	0.517		
Total	57.341	109			

Note. DV = Social Economic Status Perceptions

Factor 15 findings–Disability perception. Prior to analyzing Factor 15, the data were

screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of

variance were evaluated. One case was missing data and one outlier was detected. These cases

were removed. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The

sample size for Factor 15 was $n = 79$ for female teachers and $n = 30$ for male teachers.

Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by gender, are provided in Table 32.

Table 32

Disability Perceptions by Gender

Group	n	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	79	2.00	2.00	4.00	3.207	0.551
Male	30	2.00	2.00	4.00	3.122	0.564

Note. DV = Disability Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a

significant mean difference in disability perception scores depending on gender (female vs.

male). The main effect of gender was not significant (F (1, 107) = 2.787, p = .098). There was

not a significant mean difference in disability perception scores depending on gender (M = 3.21

and 3.12 for females and males respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis

investigating Factor 15 is provided in Table 33.

Table 33

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 15

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.856	1	0.856	2.787	0.098
Within Groups	32.873	107	0.307		
Total	33.729	108			

Note. DV = Disability Perceptions

Factor 16 findings–Motivation perceptions. Prior to analyzing Factor 16, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 16 was $n = 81$ for female teachers and $n = 30$ for male teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by gender, are provided in Table 34.

Table 34

Motivation Perceptions by Gender

Group	*n*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	81	1.80	2.20	4.00	3.22	0.437
Male	30	1.60	2.40	4.00	3.29	0.432

Note. DV = Motivation Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in motivation perception scores depending on gender (female vs. male). The main effect of gender was not significant (F (1, 109) = 0.555, p = .458). There was not a significant mean difference in motivation perception scores depending on gender (M = 3.22 and 3.29 for females and males respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 16 is provided in Table 35.

Table 35

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 16

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.150	1	0.105	0.555	0.458
Within Groups	20.710	109	0.190		
Total	20.816	110			

Note. DV = Motivation Perceptions

Factor 17 findings–Culturally-relevant teaching perceptions. Prior to analyzing Factor 17, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 17 was n = 81 for female teachers and n =30 for male teachers. Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, by gender, are provided in Table 36.

Table 36

Culturally-Relevant Teaching Perceptions s by Gender

Group	*N*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	81	1.80	2.20	4.00	3.15	0.542
Male	30	2.00	2.00	4.00	3.01	0.497

Note. DV = Culturally-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a significant mean difference in cultural-relevant teaching perceptions scores depending on gender (female vs. male). The main effect of gender was not significant (F (1, 109) = 1.483, p = .226). There was not a significant mean difference in cultural-relevant teaching perception scores depending on gender (M = 3.15 and 3.01 for females and males respectively). A model summary of the ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 17 is provided in Table 37 below.

Table 37

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 17

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.417	1	0.417	1.483	0.226
Within Groups	30.641	109	0.281		
Total	31.058	110			

Note. DV = Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

Factor 18 findings-Differentiated instruction perceptions. Prior to analyzing Factor

18, the data were screened for missing data and outliers and the assumptions of normality and

homogeneity of variance were evaluated. There were no outliers or missing data. The

assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. The sample size for Factor 18

was $n = 81$ for female teachers and $n = 30$ for male teachers. Descriptive statistics for the

dependent variable, by gender, are provided in Table 38.

Table 38

Differentiated Instruction Perceptions by Gender

Group	n	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female	81	1.75	2.25	4.00	3.31	0.532
Male	30	1.75	2.25	4.00	3.16	0.582

Note. DV = Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to test if there was a

significant mean difference in differentiated instruction perceptions scores depending on gender

(female vs. male). The main effect of gender was not significant (F (1, 109) = 1.595, p = .209).

There was not a significant mean difference in differentiated instruction perceptions depending

on gender (Mean = 3.31 and 3.16 for females and males respectively). A model summary of the

ANOVA analysis investigating Factor 18 is provided in Table 39.

Table 39

Model Summary of ANOVA for Factor 18

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	0.474	1	0.474	1.595	0.209
Within Groups	32.435	109	0.298		
Total	32.910	110			

Note. DV = Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Research Question 4

To evaluate Research Question 4, descriptive statistics were calculated for each teacher perception item. There were eleven items used to evaluate teachers' perceptions of African-American males compared to Asian American, European American and Latin American males. Teachers rated each item on a scale ranging from 1 = *Not Likely* to 4 = *Most Likely*. Both the percentage of teachers that selected each scale point for each item and the overall mean for each item are provided in Table 40.

Table 40

Percentages, Means and Standard Deviations for Teacher Perception Items

Item	Student Race	Most likely	Likely	Somewhat likely	Least likely	Mean	SD
I believe I can motivate [RACE] males to become successful learners, by helping them to develop the skills needed to achieve.	African American	49.50	33.60	14.00	2.80	1.70	0.82
	Asian American	44.90	33.60	17.80	3.70	1.80	0.86
	European American	65.40	25.20	8.40	0.90	1.45	0.69
	Latino American	38.30	23.40	31.80	6.50	2.07	0.98
I believe I can motivate [RACE] males who show low interest in school work, by creating successful learning opportunities.	African American	57.90	22.40	16.80	2.80	1.64	0.86
	Asian American	45.30	38.70	12.30	3.80	1.75	0.82
	European American	66.40	29.00	4.70	0.00	1.38	0.58
	Latino American	37.40	30.80	22.40	9.30	2.04	0.99
I have difficulty relating to the behaviors and attitudes of [RACE] males in my classroom, due to my lack of knowledge of their culture.	African American	17.90	10.40	24.50	47.20	3.01	1.14
	Asian American	19.00	24.80	25.70	30.50	2.68	1.11
	European American	6.60	15.10	16.00	62.30	3.34	0.96
	Latino American	14.20	27.40	26.40	32.10	2.76	1.06
I typically experience more academic difficulties with [RACE] males and I typically consult with the Teacher Support Team, to develop strategies to use in the classroom with this group.	African American	21.80	28.70	25.70	23.80	2.51	1.08
	Asian American	20.00	29.00	22.00	29.00	2.60	1.11
	European American	6.90	9.90	40.60	42.60	3.19	0.88
	Latino American	35.60	26.70	22.80	14.90	2.17	1.08
I am more likely to automatically send [RACE] male students to the principal or counselor's office when they are disruptive instead of handling the problem myself.	African American	9.60	35.60	29.80	25.00	2.70	0.95
	Asian American	6.80	35.90	30.10	27.20	2.78	0.93
	European American	3.80	23.10	36.50	36.50	3.06	0.87
	Latino American	28.80	30.80	16.30	24.00	2.36	1.14
When measuring the performance of [RACE] males in the classroom, I use a variety of assessment measures which address their specific learning styles.	African American	46.10	32.40	18.60	2.90	1.78	0.85
	Asian American	30.00	36.00	28.00	6.00	2.10	0.90
	European American	61.40	22.80	5.90	9.90	1.64	0.98
	Latino American	33.70	32.70	21.80	11.90	2.12	1.01
My style of classroom instruction is culturally responsive in meeting the academic needs of [RACE] male students.	African American	46.20	38.50	12.50	2.90	1.72	0.79
	Asian American	23.50	31.40	35.30	9.80	2.31	0.94
	European American	69.90	20.40	3.90	5.80	1.46	0.83
	Latino American	30.10	24.30	33.00	12.60	2.28	1.03

(table continues)

Table 40 (continued)

Item	Student Race	Most likely	Likely	Somewhat likely	Least likely	Mean	SD
I consider my classroom management style to be fair and unbiased, regarding the treatment of [RACE] males.	African American	56.70	35.60	4.80	2.90	1.54	0.72
	Asian American	44.60	32.70	17.80	5.00	1.83	0.90
	European American	76.50	14.70	3.90	4.90	1.37	0.78
	Latino American	43.10	29.40	17.60	9.80	1.94	1.00
I have lower expectations for [RACE] males in my classroom, based on my interaction with their parents/guardians.	African American	11.80	13.70	18.60	55.90	3.19	1.07
	Asian American	9.90	13.90	22.80	53.50	3.20	1.02
	European American	10.80	2.90	9.80	76.50	3.52	0.98
	Latino American	18.60	12.70	21.60	47.10	2.97	1.16
I have a more positive relationship with [RACE] males in my classroom and encourage them to do their best at all times.	African American	73.00	22.00	3.00	2.00	1.34	0.64
	Asian American	34.70	43.90	17.30	4.10	1.91	0.83
	European American	75.80	14.10	5.10	5.10	1.39	0.81
	Latino American	36.40	34.30	24.20	5.10	1.98	0.90
I believe the portrayal of [RACE] males in the media, influences teachers expectations within the classroom and school environment.	African American	81.40	6.90	1.00	10.80	1.41	0.96
	Asian American	7.90	25.70	38.60	27.70	2.86	0.92
	European American	9.80	5.90	16.70	67.60	3.42	0.98
	Latino American	42.20	32.40	14.70	10.80	1.94	1.00

Note. n = 98–107, Scale values range from 1 (most likely) to 4 (least likely)

Results indicated a diverse beliefs system as it pertains to the African-American male student and their non-African-American male counterparts. The question which yielded the most significant response rate entailed the role of the media and perception of male students. Approximately 81% of teachers responded *Most* Likely to item *I believe the portrayal of [RACE} males in the media, influences teacher expectations within the classroom and school environment,* regarding African-American students compared to 42%, 10% and 8% for Latino Americans, Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans, respectively. Results indicate the role media portrayal of African-American males plays a significant role and contributor to negative perceptions encountered by this group within the learning environment, compared to other male counterparts.

Analysis of select questions from teacher perception items regarding African-American male students yielded significant difference between African-American males vs. European American males, compared to African-American males vs. Asian and Latino American males. Approximately 49% of teachers responded *Most Likely* to item *I believe I can motivate [RACE][African American] males to become successful learners, by helping them to develop the skills needed to achieve,* compared to European Americans (65%), and compared to Asian American and Latino American males at 44% and 38 % respectively. Approximately 17% of teachers responded *Most Likely* to the item *I have difficulty relating to the behaviors and attitudes of [RACE] [African-American] males in my classroom, due to my lack of knowledge of their culture,* compared to European American males (6.6%), and compared to Asian and Latino American males at 19% and 14% respectively.

Approximately 9.6% of teachers responded *Most Likely* to item *I am more likely to automatically send [RACE] [African-American] males to the principal or counselor's office when they are disruptive instead of handling the problem myself,* compared to European American (3.8%), and compared to Asian American and Latino American males at 6.8% and 28% respectively. Results demonstrate a clear significance of difference in teacher perceptions between African-American males and European American males within the learning environment. Sample teachers have higher perception rating for European American males when compared to African-American male. When teacher perception ratings occur between African-American males and their Asian and Latino American male counterparts, African-American males typically received higher teacher perception rating compared to their Asian and Latino American peers.

In addition to descriptive statistics to evaluate teacher perception of African-American male students compared to Asian American, European American and Latino American male students. The researcher conducted a frequency and percentage analysis of the eleven items utilize to measure teacher perception. The analysis of frequency and percentage ratings was based upon the racial identity of sample teachers. Teacher percentage by race and frequency rate per item selected is provided in Table 41.

Table 41

Rate of Frequency and Percentages for Teacher Perception Items of African American Male Students based upon Teacher Race

Item	Teacher Race	Most Likely	Likely	Somewhat Likely	Least Likely	Frequency Total
I believe I can motivate African American males to become successful learners, by helping them to develop the skills needed to achieve.	African American	75.0	25.0	-	-	16
	Asian American	100.0	-	-	-	1
	European American	42.5	35.6	16.4	2.7	71(2MSG)
	Latino American	56.3	25.0	12.5	6.3	16
	Biracial	33.3	33.3	33.3	--	3
I believe I can motivate African American males who show low interest in school work, by creating successful learning opportunities.	African American	87.5	12.5	-	--	16
	Asian American	--	--	100.0	--	1
	European American	47.9	27.4	19.2	2.7	71(2MSG)
	Latino American	75.0	12.5	12.5	--	16
	Biracial	33.3	33.3	33.3	---	3
I have difficulty relating to the behaviors and attitudes of African American males in my classroom, due to my lack of knowledge of their culture.	African American	25.0	6.3	--	68.8	16
	Asian American	--	--	--	100	1
	European American	16.4	11.0	24.7	43.8	71(2MSG)
	Latino American	12.5	12.5	50.0	25.0	16
	Biracial	33.0	--	--	66.7	3
I typically experience more academic difficulties with African American males and I typically consult with the Teacher Support Team, to develop strategies to use in the classroom with this group.	African American	18.8	18.8	18.8	43.8	16
	Asian American	--	100	--	--	1
	European American	19.2	24.7	24.7	20.5	65(8MSG)
	Latino American	25.0	31.3	31.3	12.5	16
	Biracial	33.3	66.7	--	--	3
I am more likely to automatically send African American male students to the principal or counselor's office when they are disruptive instead of handling the problem myself.	African American	12.5	37.5	25.0	25.0	16
	Asian American	100.0	--	--	--	1
	European American	6.8	28.8	27.4	30.1	68 (5MSG)
	Latino American	12.5	43.8	43.8	--	16
	Biracial	--	100.0	--	--	3

(table continues)

Table 41 (continued)

Item	Teacher Race	Most Likely	Likely	Somewhat Likely	Least Likely	Frequency Total
When measuring the performance of African-American males in the classroom, I use a variety of assessment measures which address their specific learning styles.	African American	75.0	25.0	--	--	16
	Asian American	--	--	100	--	1
	European American	39.7	28.8	19.2	2.7	66 (7MSG)
	Latino American	31.3	50.0	12.5	6.3	16
	Biracial	33.3	-	66.7	-	3
My style of classroom instruction is culturally responsive in meeting the academic needs of African-American male students.	African American	62.5	31.3	6.3	--	16
	Asian American	100.0	--	--	--	1
	European American	41.1	38.4	12.3	1.4	68(5MSG)
	Latino American	43.8	31.3	18.8	6.3	16
	Biracial	--	66.7	--	33.3	3
I consider my classroom management style to be fair and unbiased, regarding the treatment of African-American males.	African American	62.5	31.3	6.3	--	16
	Asian American	--	100.0	--	--	1
	European American	53.4	32.9	4.1	2.7	68(5MSG)
	Latino American	56.3	37.5	6.3	--	16
	Biracial	33.3	33.3	33.3	--	3
I have lower expectations for African American males in my classroom, based on my inter-action with their parents/ guardians.	African American	--	18.8	18.8	62.5	16
	Asian American	--	--	100.0	--	1
	European American	12.3	11.0	16.4	50.7	66(7 MSG)
	Latino American	12.5	12.5	12.5	62.5	16
	Biracial	33.3	33.3	33.3	--	3
I have a more positive relationship with African-American males in my classroom and encourage them to do their best at all times.	African American	93.8	6.3	--	--	16
	Asian American	100.0	--	--	--	1
	European American	61.6	20.5	4.1	1.4	64 (9MSG)
	Latino American	62.5	31.3	--	6.3	16
	Biracial	66.7	33.3	--	--	3
I believe the portrayal of African-American males in the media, influences teachers expectations within the classroom and school environment.	African American	100.0	--	--	--	16
	Asian American	--	100.0	--	--	1
	European American	67.1	6.8	1.4	15.1	66(7 MSG)
	Latino American	93.8	6.3	--	--	16
	Biracial	100.3	--	--	--	3

Results indicate diverse ratings per eleven items as it relates to teacher perception of African-American males based upon teacher's racial identity. Discussion of teacher perception rating as it pertains to teacher's racial identity is presented as follows. Approximately 75% of African-American and 100% of Asian American teachers responded as rating themselves *most likely* to *motivate African American males to become successful learners by helping them to develop the skills needed to* achieve, compared to Biracial, European and Latino American teacher ratings at 33%, 42.5 % and 56.3 % respectively.

Approximately 87.5% of African-American and 75.0% of Latino American teachers responded as rating themselves *Most Likely* to motivate *African American who show low interest in school work, by creating successful learning opportunities,* compared to European, and Biracial teachers rates at 47.9 and 33.3% respectively, while that Asian American teacher was rated as somewhat likely at 100.0%.

Approximately 68.8% of African-American teachers and 100% of Asian American teacher responded as rating *themselves least likely* to *have difficulty relating to the behaviors and attitudes of African American males in the classroom, due to my lack of knowledge of their culture,* compared to European American and Latino American teacher ratings at 43.8% and 25.0% respectively; while Biracial teachers were rated as being most likely to have difficulty at 33.0%. Approximately 43.8% of African American teachers rated themselves *least likely* to *experience academic difficulties with African-American males, typically consulting with the Teacher Support Team, to develop strategies to use in the classroom* in comparison to 100% by Asian American teacher who responded as *likely* to experience academic difficulties. European American teachers rating 24.7 % *likely* and 24.7% *somewhat likely* to experience academic difficulties; 31.3% of Latino American teachers responded as being *likely* and 31.3% *somewhat likely* to experience academic difficulties; while 66.7% of Biracial teachers responded as *likely* to experience academic difficulties with African-American males.

Approximately 37.5% of African American and 100 % of Biracial teachers responded as likely to *automatically send African American males students to the principal or counselor's office when they are disruptive instead of handling the problem themselves. In comparison* to 100% of Asian American teachers who responded as being *most likely* to automatically send; 30.1 % of European American teachers responded as being *least likely* to automatically send

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compared to Latino American teachers who responded as being 43.8% *likely* and *somewhat likely* to automatically send African-American male students.

Approximately 75% of African-American and 39.7% of European America teachers responded as *Most Likely* to *measure the performance of African-American males in the classroom, using a variety of assessment measures which address specific learning styles,* compared to 100% Asian American and 66.7% of Biracial teachers responding as *somewhat likely* to use a variety of assessment measures. Latino American teachers responded as 50% *likely* to measure the performance of African-American males using a variety of assessment measures.

Approximately 62.5% of African-American teachers responded as most *likely* to *having a classroom instructional style that is culturally responsive in meeting the academic needs of African-American male students* compared to 100% of Asian American, 43.8% of Latino American, and 41.1% of European American teachers respectively. Teachers identified as being Biracial responded as 66.7% *likely* to have a classroom instructional style that meets the needs of African-American male students.

Approximately 62.5% of African-American teachers responded as *Most Likely* to consider their classroom management style to be fair and unbiased, regarding the treatment of African-American males compared to 56.3% of Latino American and 53.4% of European American teachers respectively. Asian American teacher responded as 100% likely to have a classroom management style that is fair and unbiased, compared to Biracial teachers who responded as 33% across rate scales of *Most Likely*, *Likely* and *Somewhat Likely* regarding their classroom management style.

Approximately 93.8% of African American teachers responded as *Most Likely* to have more positive relationships with African-American males in their classroom and encourage them to do their best at all time; compared to Asian American, Biracial, European and Latino American teachers who also responded as *Most Likely* with 100%, 66.7%, 61.6 % and 62.5% rating respectively.

Both African-American and Biracial American teachers rated themselves as 100% *Most Likely* to believe the media portrayal of African-American males' does influences teachers' expectations within the classroom and school environment. In comparison, there were ratings of 93.8% for Latino and 67.1 % for European American teachers, who responded *most likely* to believe the role of the media and the expectations for African-American males within the classroom and school environment. Asian American teachers responded as being *Likely* to believe the role of the media and its influence upon the expectations for African American males within the classroom and school environment.

Summary

This chapter was designed to provide an analysis of data utilized by the researcher to investigate self-efficacy and self-reported practices of teachers within a particular urban school district. The study further examined European-American teachers versus minority American elementary teacher beliefs within the school district towards instructing male students, specifically African-American males. In conducting an analysis of data acquired to address the aforementioned issue, researcher examined four research questions designed to examine research study purpose and to examine factors which have contributed to the disproportionate placement of African-American males in special education within a particular school district.

A summary of results from each of the four research questions posed within the study follows. Research question 1 asked: Is there a difference in self-efficacy beliefs based on self-reported teaching practices, by race, related to:

A. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

B. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

C. Disability Perceptions

D. Motivation Perceptions

E. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

F. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Results indicate no significant mean difference between self-reported teaching practices by race in relation to classroom management (3.47 White vs. 3.41 minority teachers), social economic status (1.43 White vs. 2.04 minority teachers), motivation perceptions (3.27 White vs. 3.16 minority teachers), cultural relevant (3.17 White vs. 2.88 minority teachers), and differentiated instruction (3.31 White vs. 3.18 minority teachers). The factor which yielded a mean significant difference was disability perception. Results indicated white teachers had a significantly higher disability self-efficacy perception at 3.37 than minority teachers at 3.07.

Research question 2 asked: Is there a difference in self-efficacy beliefs based on self-reported teaching practices, by teacher type, related to:

A. Classroom Management Skills (CMS

B. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

C. Disability Perceptions

D. Motivation Perceptions

E. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

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F. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Results indicate no significant mean difference by teacher type was attained in analysis of data. Factor classroom management reported (3.48 regular education vs. 3.22 special education teachers); social economic status reported (2.08 regular education vs. 1.83 special education teachers) motivation perceptions (3.23 regular education vs. 3.50 special education teachers);, and cultural relevant (3.10 regular education vs. 3.32 special education teachers), differentiated Instruction (3.26 regular education vs. 3.35 special education teachers). The factor which yielded a mean significant difference was disability perception. Results indicated special education teachers had a significantly higher disability self-efficacy perception at 3.50 compared to regular education teachers at 3.18.

Research question 3 asked: Do self-efficacy beliefs vary given the gender of the teacher, related to:

A. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

B. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

C. Disability Perceptions

D. Motivation Perceptions

E. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

F. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Results indicate no significant mean differences between self-reported teaching practices by gender in relation to classroom management (3.45 male vs. 3.47 female), social economic status (1.90 male vs. 2.16 female), disability perception (3.21 male vs. 3.12 female), motivation perceptions (3.22 male vs. 3.29 female), cultural relevant (3.15 male vs. 3.01 female), and differentiated instruction (3.31 male vs. 3.16 female).

Research question 4 asked: How do the self-reported perceptions of sample teachers differ related to African-American male students? Analysis of research question four was examined utilizing two separate analyzes. Descriptive statistics was the first analysis utilized for the research question. The question which yielded the most significant response rate entailed the role of media and perception of male students. Approximately 81% of teachers responded "most likely," to question "I believe the portrayal of African-American males in the media influence teacher expectations within the classroom and school environment, compared to 42%, 10% and 8% for Latino American, Caucasian American, and Asian American male students respectively. Significant findings occurred when comparisons were made between African-American males vs. European American males and African-American males vs. Asian and Latino American male students.

Frequency and percentage ratings based upon the racial identity of sample teachers, was the second analysis utilized to examine the research question. Response rates for the eleven items utilizing frequency and percentage ratings yielded diverse ratings amongst teachers based upon their racial identity. Item one yielded 75% most likely rating for African-American teachers, 100% for Asian American teacher, and 56.3%, 42.5% and 33.3% respectively for Latino, European and Biracial American teachers. Item two yielded 87.5% most likely rating for African-American teachers, compared to 75%, 47% and 33.3% for Latino, European and Biracial American teachers, while Asian American teacher rated themselves as 100% somewhat likely pertaining to African-American male students.

Item three yielded 68.8% least likely ratings for African-American compared to 43.8% for Caucasian American, 100% for Asian American teacher; Latino American teachers rated themselves somewhat likely (50%) and Biracial American teachers at rating of most likely

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(33.3%). Item four yielded African American ratings of 43.8% least likely, Asian American at 100% likely, European American rated at 24.7 likely and somewhat likely, Latino American rated at 31.3% likely and somewhat likely respectively. Biracial American teachers rated themselves at 66.7% likely as it pertains to African-American male students.

Item five yielded 37.5 likely rating for African American compared to 43.8 likely rating for Latino American teachers. European American yielded 30.1 least likely rating, Asian American 100 most likely rating and Biracial American teachers yielding a 100% likely rating respectively as it pertains to African-American male students.

Item six yielded most likely ratings of 75% and 39.7% for African American and European American teachers, likely rating of 50.0% for Latino American, somewhat likely ratings of 100% and 66.7% for Asian American teacher and Biracial American teachers respectively. Item seven yielded most likely ratings of 62.5%, 100%, 41.1% and 43.6% for African-American, Asian American, European American and Latino American teachers, while Biracial American teachers yielded 66.7 likely rating. Item eight yielded most likely of 62.5% for African-American, 53.4% for European American, 56. 3% for Latino American and 33.3% for biracial teachers respectively; Asian American teacher yielded a somewhat likely rating of 100% as it pertains to African-American male students.

Item nine yielded least likely ratings of 62.5% for African-American, 50.7% for European American, and 62.5% for Latino American teachers; Asian American teacher rated themselves at 100% somewhat likely ratings, Asian American teacher rated themselves as 100% somewhat likely rating. Biracial American teachers rated themselves as 33.3% across ratings of most likely, likely and somewhat likely, respectively. Item ten yielded significantly higher ratings across the racial identity of teachers, with African-American, Asian American, European

American, Latino American and Biracial American rating themselves as most likely at 93.8%, 100%, 61.6%, 62.5%, and 66.7% respectively.

Item eleven yielded significant ratings across the racial identity of teachers, with African-American, European American, Latino American and Biracial American selecting the most likely ratings at 100%, 67.1%, 93.8% and 100% respectively. Asian American teacher rated themselves a likely rating at 100%.

Analysis of the eleven items utilized to sample teacher self-perceptions related to African-American male students, indicated that African-American and Latino American teachers tended to yield higher (i.e., most likely) self-perception ratings of African-American males compared to Asian American, European American and Biracial American teachers. Although European American and Biracial American teachers yielded responses on the most likely rating scale, scores attained were often below the 50 percentile range. The final chapter will provide a brief summary of this study, focusing primarily on conclusions, a discussion of implications, limitations of the study and recommendations for further studies.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS, CONCUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Teacher efficacy is perhaps the most important belief system in terms of its effect on the behavior of teachers and subsequently student performance (Collier, 2005). Teacher efficacy plays a significant role in how classroom teachers view their ability to teach students from diverse academic abilities, cultural and racial backgrounds, and gender make-up. High teacher efficacy can inspire and transform the academic success of student learners. Likewise, low teacher efficacy can have a polar opposite effect upon students, often resulting in low self-esteem, increased behavioral problems and high rates of referral in special education. For the African-American student learner, teacher expectation rather than teacher race or gender is the single most important factor impacting their academic achievement (Kunjufu, 2002).

A review of literature showed teacher attitudes, beliefs, and expectations are significant contributors to the achievement African-American male students experience in the classroom. Evidence indicates that teacher expectations and perceptions in the classroom adversely affect the achievement level of African-American children, specifically African-American males. Educator perceptions of African-American male students typically are grounded in their own locations of race, class and gender (Ward & Robinson-Wood, 2006). Teacher attitudes and expectations influence classroom climate, shape instruction and teaching methodologies, thereby impacting student achievement and adversely affecting the achievement level of African-American males, an idea of thought that could be a contributing factor to the overrepresentation of African-American males in special education (Thompson, Warren, & Carter, 2004).

What research has overlooked to this point was an examination of how teachers' self-perception towards African-American males impact general teaching efficacy. The relationship between teacher self-perception towards African-American males and the impact of such self-perceptions is worth specific examination; in comparisons to other racial groups, African-American males have been disproportionately placed in special education at rates higher than other racial/gender groups. A review of literature on teacher expectation as it relates to teacher and students' racial identity revealed that teachers, particularly European American teachers, possess more negative expectations for African-American students compared to their European American student counterpart. A review of eighteen studies on teacher attitudes towards and self-perceptions of African-American students compared to European American students indicate teachers have more negative attitudes and beliefs about African-American children than European American children in such variables as personality traits, ability, language usage, behavior and potential. Results indicate that as a group European American teachers are more likely than African-American teachers to hold negative expectations of African-American children and European American teachers are more likely, compared to African-American teachers, to be out of cultural sync with the African-American students they instruct (Irvine, 1990).

The purpose of this study was to examine self-efficacy and self-reported practices of teachers within a particular urban school district. The study examined European-American teachers' (dominant teaching group) beliefs within the school district towards instructing male students, specifically African-American males. The study compared and examined teachers' perceptions of their general efficacy towards instructing all students and efficacy towards teaching males, particularly African-American males, and how teachers' attitudes may have

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contributed to the disproportionate/overrepresentation of African-American males in special education. To acquire a more in-depth analysis of differences in teacher efficacy perceptions, the study examined how teacher attributes (i.e., race and gender) and other demographic factors (i.e., teacher type) contribute to perceptions of student expectations for achievement.

Four central research questions provide the basis for this research study.

Research question 1: Is there a difference in self-efficacy beliefs based on self-reported teaching practices, by race, related to:

A. Classroom Management Skills (CMS

B. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

C. Disability Perceptions

D. Motivation Perceptions

E. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

F. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Research question 2: Is there a difference in self-efficacy beliefs based on self-reported teaching practices, by teacher type related to:

A. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

B. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

C. Disability Perceptions

D. Motivation Perceptions

E. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

F. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Research question 3: Do self-efficacy beliefs vary given the gender of the teacher, related to:

    A. Classroom Management Skills (CMS)

    B. Social Economic Status (SES) Perceptions

    C. Disability Perceptions

    D. Motivation Perceptions

    E. Cultural-Relevant Teaching Perceptions

    F. Differentiated Instruction Perceptions

Research question 4: How do the self-reported perceptions of sample teachers differ related to African-American male students?

Questions were analyzed utilizing a quantitative correlation study using a researcher-designed teacher efficacy survey entitled Teacher Perceptions and the Male Student Survey (TTPMSS), which was administered to 325 randomly selected elementary school teachers within an urban school district in New England. Administered surveys netted a rate of return of 34.1% (111/325).

Summary of Findings

Influence of Self-Efficacy Beliefs Based on Teacher Self-Reported Practices by Race

Analysis of data obtained from the six factors utilized to examine self-efficacy beliefs by teacher race, reported no significant difference in five of the six factors. A significant difference was attained with the sixth factor of the question. Perception of Disability yielded a significant difference. Results indicated a significant mean difference in disability perceptions depending on ethnicity: White teachers attained a mean of 3.37 compared to minority teachers who attained

a mean of 3.07 respectively. White teachers had significantly higher disability self-efficacy perceptions than minority teachers.

Influence of Self-Efficacy Beliefs Based on Teacher Self-Reported Practices by Teacher Type

Analysis of data obtained from the six factors utilized to examine self-efficacy beliefs by teacher race, reported no significant difference with five of the six factors. A significant mean difference was attained with the sixth factor, Perception of Disability. Results indicate a significant mean difference in disability perceptions depending on teacher type. Special education teachers had a significantly higher disability self-efficacy perception at 3.50 than regular education teachers at 3.18. Special education teachers had a significantly higher disability self-efficacy perception than regular education teachers.

Influence of Self-Efficacy Beliefs Based on Teacher Self-Reported Practices by Gender

Analysis of data obtained from the six factors utilized to examine self-efficacy beliefs by gender indicated no significant mean difference on self-reported teaching practices.

Sample Teacher Self-Reported Perception and Relationship to African American Male Students

Analysis of data attained for this question was achieved through the utilization of two separate data sets. Descriptive statistics were utilized to measure teacher self-efficacy beliefs in relation to male student groups in general. Within the context of this analysis, researcher examined teacher self-reported perception to the African-American male in relation to all male students. Of the eleven perception-items examined, teacher perception and media influence yielded a significant rate of response. Approximately 81% of teachers responded "most likely," to the question "I believe the portrayal of African-American males in the media influence teacher

expectations within the classroom and school environment," compared to 42%, 10% and 8% for Latino American, Caucasian American, and Asian American male students respectively.

Further examination of self- reported teacher perception and the relationship to the African-American Male Student required the researcher to utilize analysis of frequency and percentage rating as the second descriptive statistic. Analysis of frequency and percentage rating examined teacher self-perceptions based on the identified race of the teacher. Results indicate that African-American and Latino American teachers' yielded higher rates of response (i.e., most likely) on the self-perception ratings of African-American male students compared to Asian American, European American and Biracial American teachers. Although Asian, Biracial and European American teachers yielded response rates for African-American male students, a majority of rates of response were typically below the 50-percentile range.

Limitation of the Study

A variety of limitations naturally constrained the conclusions drawn from this research study. Although limitations are noted, they should not diminish the value of the research. The first limitation was the rate of return for administered surveys. Although the researcher netted a response rate of 111 surveys from the 325 surveys distributed, netting a return rate of 34.1%. The researcher should have distributed the survey to all 29 elementary schools within the district instead of the randomly selected 13 elementary schools. Attainment of rate of return for all 29 schools could have netted higher return rates from a diverse cross section of educators within the district.

A second limitation of this study was the low minority participation within the study. A review of participant involvement in the survey indicated that only 36 minority teachers participated in the study compared to the population of European American teachers. The

researcher attributes low minority participation within the study to low minority teacher employment at the elementary school level.

A third limitation of the study was the length of time the researcher experienced between the submission and approval to conduct survey within designated school district. The researcher spent three months communicating with school district officials regarding the language and format of the survey. Valuable time was lost during this stage, time that could have resulted in attainment of higher response rates from district teachers.

A fourth limitation of the study was the length of time spent scheduling and conducting meetings with school principals to discuss survey/study intention, distribution/collection process, and scheduling of informational meeting with teachers. A fifth limitation of the study was the probability that some teacher participants may have recognized that race was being measured within the survey. As a result, participants may have skewed answer by not truthfully answering questions and/or neglecting to answer questions so as not to appear biased against select male student groups. A sixth limitation of the study is the number of special education teachers who participated in the survey compared to regular education teachers. The researcher attributes this to the fact that within the elementary learning environment, there are a relatively low numbers of special education teachers in comparison to the number of regular educators within a given building.

A final limitation of the study was that over sixty-five percent of study participants were female. National statistics indicate the proportion of male teachers relative to the general population of society is not reflective to the population of males at the elementary level within the school district. Analysis of demographic information indicated that only 30 males participated in the survey versus 81 female participants.

Conclusion and Implications

Influence of Self-Efficacy Beliefs Based on Teacher Self-Reported Practices by Race

A significant relationship was found to exist between European American and Minority teachers in the area of disability perceptions. European American educators reported higher self-efficacy beliefs (mean score of 3.37) towards disability perceptions in comparisons to Minority American teachers, who attained a mean score of 3.07. Such findings suggest that European American educators may possess a greater knowledge base regarding special needs students and are more likely to attribute academic difficulties students experience to a learning disability. As a result, European American educators as a teacher group maybe more likely to refer student to special education as a means of obtaining academic services for students. There exists no clear relationship significance between the other five factors utilized to assess the influence of self-efficacy beliefs based on teacher race.

Influence of Self-Efficacy Beliefs Based on Teacher Self-Reported Practices by Teacher Type

A significant relationship was found to exist between General Education and Special Education teachers in the area of disability perception. Special Education teachers attained higher self-efficacy (mean score of 3.50) in the area of disability perceptions, compared to General Education teachers (mean score of 3.18). Findings demonstrate that Special Educators possess a critical understanding of the impact learning disabilities have upon the student learner and therefore are in possession of extensive knowledge-base of academic and educational interventions/techniques needed to increase academic achievement of special needs student within the classroom environment. Otherwise no clear existence of relationship significance between the other five factors utilized to assess the influence of self-efficacy beliefs and teacher

type. The absence of a significant relationship between the remaining five factors and teacher type could suggest that both teacher groups share similar viewpoints.

Influence of Self-Efficacy Beliefs Based on Teacher Self-Reported Practices by Gender

Analysis of data indicates the absence of significance in relation to self-efficacy beliefs based on self-reported practices by gender. This absence of significance indicates that in terms of gender (male vs. female), neither group reported a significant difference in their self-efficacy beliefs and the impact said beliefs have upon the practices within the classroom environment.

Sample Teacher Self-Reported Perception and Relationship to African American Male Students

Analysis of data netted diverse results given the particular descriptive statistic set examined within the study. Examination of teacher self-reported perceptions and relationship to African-American male students utilized Table 40. Media portrayal and influence upon teacher expectations within the classroom and school environment netted the highest significance of 81.40% for African-American male students, in comparison to other male students.

Literature supports survey results as it pertains to the influence of media on perception of African-American male. According to Garrison-Wade and Lewis (2006) stereotypes are a major deterrent to the achievement of African-American students, with the media functioning as a contributing factor to stereotypical attitudes. Shaffer, Ortman and Denbo (2000) further indicate that the myriad of images presented in the media of the African-American male create and define stereotypes and overtime these stereotypical images of African-American males define and become a part of the America's cultural psyche. Reglin (1994) stated that these pervasive negative images of African-Americans influence teacher beliefs, thereby completing a vicious cycle by doubting the abilities of African-American male students, a vicious cycle which had left

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African-American males deeply vulnerable and devalued in America's classroom. It is evident that media portrayal has significantly influenced teacher perception of African-American male students, influence which could serve as an attributing factor to disproportional placement and overrepresentation of this group within the realms of special education in the district. Although African-American males attained substantial significant of result regarding influence of media portrayal, when compared to other male minorities, no significance existed. When compared to European American males, significance of results was attained within select items. As it pertains to motivating males to become successful learners by helping them develop skills needed to achieve, teachers reported themselves as being most likely to help European American males (65.40%) compared to African-American males (49.50%). As it pertains to difficulty relating to the behaviors and attitudes of males due to a lack of culture knowledge within the classroom (i.e., class management), teachers reported themselves as being least likely to have difficulty with European American males (62.30%) compared to African-American males (47.20%). As it pertains to experiencing academic difficulty with males and consulting with Teacher Support Services Team (TSST), teachers reported themselves as being least likely to have difficulty with European-American males (20.5 %) compared to African-American males (43.8%).

As it pertains to use of cultural-relevant instruction in meeting the academic needs of students, teachers report being most likely to utilize cultural relevancy with European American males (69.90%) compared to African-American males (46.20%). As it pertains to a fair and unbiased classroom management style and treatment of males, teachers report their style as being most likely fair and unbiased to European American males (76.50%) compared to African-American males (56.70%). As it pertains to lowering of expectations based upon interaction

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with student families, teachers report being least likely to lower expectations of European American males (76.50%) compared to African-American males (55.90).

Finally, as it pertains to influence of media on teacher expectation of male students, teachers reported that media influence expectation of European American males (9.80%) compared to African-American males (81.40%). Based on analysis results, teachers in general possess higher self-perception towards European American male compared to African-American male in the areas of motivation perception, culture knowledge; differential of instruction, classroom management, culturally relevant teaching and media-influence of perception. Perceptual differences attained from the data could be viewed as causal factors/attributes contributing to the disproportionate rate of African-American males referred to and staffing into special education programs. To attain additional descriptive data (Table 41), the researcher examined frequency ratings and teacher perception percentages of items ranked by teachers for the African-American male student.

Identified teacher race categories are African-American, Asian American, Latino American, European American and Biracial. Although Asian Americans teachers were represented within teacher category, it is important to mention that only one individual identified themselves as a member of this group and results are representative of this number. Analysis areas that netted significant difference amongst teacher groups consisted of motivation perception, culture knowledge, differentiation of instruction, classroom management, culturally responsive teaching, and media-influence of perception.

As it pertains to motivation perceptions and teacher ability to motivate African-American males to become successful learners by helping them to develop skills for achievement across

groups the following ratings were attained in the category of most likely: African-American (75%), Asian American (100%), European (42.5%), Latino American (56.3%) and Biracial (33.3%).   As it pertains to classroom management of behaviors to due to lack of culture knowledge of African-American males, across groups the following ratings were attained in the category of least likely: African-American (68.8%), Asian American (100%), European American (43.8%), Latino American (25.0%) and Biracial (66.7%).

As it pertains to differential of instruction due to experiencing of more academic difficulties as it relates to African-American males and consulting with Teacher Support Teams, across groups the following ratings were attained in the category of least likely: African-American (43.8%), European American (20.5%), and Latino American (12.5%). Within this category, Asian American and Biracial teachers did not attain a rating; instead, both groups attained scores in the mostly likely scores of 100 and 66.7 percent respectively.

As it pertains to differential instruction due to use of variety in assessment measures addressing specific learning styles of the African-American male, across groups the following ratings were attained in the most likely category: African-American (75%) and European American (39.7%). Within this category scores varied for Asian American, Latino American and Biracial educators, with ratings consisting of Somewhat Likely (100%), Likely (50.0%) and Somewhat Unlikely (66.7%) respectively. As it pertains to the use of cultural responsive teaching in meeting African-American male student needs, across groups the following ratings were attained in the most likely category: African-American (62.5%), Asian American (100%), European American (41.1%), Latino American (43.8) and Biracial educators attained a rate of 66.7 percent in the likely category.

As it pertains to fair and unbiased classroom management styles toward the treatment of African-American males, across groups the following ratings were attained in the most likely category: African-Americans (62.5%), European American (53.4%), Latino American (56.3%), and Biracial (33.3%). It is important to note that Biracial teachers rated themselves across three categories at33.3%, while Asian Americans rated themselves as 100% in the likely category. As it pertains to lowering of expectations of African-American males, across groups teacher ratings attained within the least likely category: African-American (62.5%), European American (50.7%), and Latino American (62.5%). It is important to note that Biracial teachers rated themselves across three categories at 33.3%, while Asian America rated themselves as 100% in the somewhat likely category.

Finally, as it pertains to the portrayal of African-American males in the media and influence on teacher expectations, across groups the following ratings were attained in the most likely category: African-American (66.7%), European American (67.1%), Latino American (93.8), and Biracial (100.3%). It is important to note that Asian American teachers rated themselves as 100% in the likely category.

In reviewing data obtained from sample teacher responses, sampled European American teachers' beliefs towards instructing African-American males netted a variation of results. In critical key areas such as motivation perceptions, classroom management, instructional style and culturally responsive teaching, European American teachers rated themselves in the lower percentiles (i.e., 43.8% – 39.7 %) compared to Minority American teachers. Although scoring in the lower percentile in the aforementioned areas, the same European American teachers attained consistent ratings in use of fairness, lower expectations and utilization of Teacher Support Teams (TST) compared to Minority American teachers.

A review of literature supports research finding regarding teacher viewpoints of African-American males as it pertains to teacher race. Irvine (1990) concluded that teacher expectations as related to teacher and students race revealed that teacher's particularly White teachers, have more negative expectations for African-American students than for White students. This review of literature on teacher attitudes towards and perceptions of African-American students compared to White students indicate that teachers have attitudes that are more negative and beliefs about African-American children compared to White children. Researcher concluded that European-American teachers' perceptions of the African-American male students can contribute to their placement in special education.

Recommendations for Further Study

Several recommendations for future research in this area are suggested. Specifically, there are seven recommendations that might be consider as a natural extension to this study, and hold potential to further advance research in this area. First recommendation would entail replicating this study into the further (i.e., 5 or 10 years) to examine different teacher populations, changes in educational trends and beliefs, and growth/decline of select student population groups.

A second recommendation entails researching a different minority group represented within the district. For example, Latino-American students who represent the largest minority group within the district. Researcher could analyze special education and implication associated with this particular student group.

A third recommendation is to conduct a comparative study of other urban school district within the state to the current district included in this study. Researcher could analyze data between school districts, identifying similarities and differences between teacher perceptions and

impact upon special education placement within the designated district and impact upon minority placement. A fourth suggestion would be to contact national education organizations, such as the National Teacher Association (NEA), National Association of Black Educators (N.A.B.E.) and National Association of Special Education Teachers (NASET). This would afford researcher opportunity to obtain data from a larger participant pool. A fifth suggestion involves the inclusion of middle school teachers. This would afford researcher an opportunity to access more male teachers; typically, more male teachers are found at the secondary level.

A sixth suggestion would be to vary the geographic location of the school districts (i.e., Affluent vs. Suburban) in order to conduct a comparative analysis of impact location has on disproportional placements, teacher perceptions and special education. A final recommendation would entail administering the survey during professional development workshops within the district. This would allow for the attainment of a larger population and hopefully more diversity within teacher population groups – grade level (K–12), experience, race and gender.

Beyond research, the application of this study also shows potential for improving practice in teacher education programs and professional development for practicing teachers. The final section of the paper provides recommendations for improving practices based on the results of the research.

Recommendations for Practice

Based on study findings, researcher recommended solutions for stakeholders involved in the education and placement of African-American males in Special Education. The researcher will address four specific groups in the presenting of recommendations: Educational Administrators, Teacher Education Programs, Professional Development Coordinators and Educators.

Recommendations for Educational Administrators

There are several recommendations Educational Administrators can implement to improve the educational experiences of the African-American male students within the district and decrease the disproportionate placement of African-American males in Special Education:

1. Actively recruit and retain more minority educators. Examination of survey participant demographics indicated that 65.7 percent of participants identified themselves as European-American, which is aligned to the districts actually European American population of 82 percent. Within the study, minority teachers represented only 32.69 percent of research participants and within the district minority teacher represent only 28 percent of the instructional population. The district should recruit an instructional staff that is reflective of the student population, which in this district, minorities' make-up over 60 percent of the total student population. In recruiting minority teachers, it is important for them to understand the difficulties African-American males and other minority students encounter in navigating the educational system within the district and not only service as their instructor, but advocate for their equitable treatment. It is important to hire minorities in the areas of regular and special education, social workers, psychologist and speech pathologist positions.

2. Create Student Support Teams (SST) that are more representative of the diverse student population within the district, who have an understanding of the cultural/ academic needs of African-American males and other minority male students, and who can serves as an advocate to ensure equity treatment.

3. Establish Equity Compliance (EC) teams at the district and school level to assess disciplinary and special education referral issues as it relates to African-American

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males to ensure they are not unfairly disciplined or referred to special education for inappropriate reasons. EC teams should analyze and track disciplinary and special education referral data of teachers who have high referral rates for special education and disciplinary problems. Analysis and tracking of data would be based on a district-wide disciplinary formula for overrepresentation and bias behaviors.

4. Establish Minority Professional Development Team (MPDT). The intent of this team would entail educating school administrators (i.e., Principals and Vice Principals) on such issues as bias in education, culture-relevancy in instruction, and equity in discipline and the impact such factors play in the academic achievement and success of African-American males and other male groups.

5. Actively recruit more minority school administrators. The district could establish administrator academies and ensure that minority administrative population is reflective of student population. In recruiting, the district needs to ensure that administrators clearly understanding equitable treatment in discipline, high expectations of all students, cultural factors, high expectations of educators, and special education process.

6. Establish a District-Wide Multi-Cultural Team (MCT). The purpose of this team would entail celebrating and recognizing the achievement of minority groups representative within the district. The team would establish monthly curriculum guides for educators to utilize within the classroom. Curriculum guides would include literature, multi-media tools, interactive activities and project-based learning activities. Multi-Cultural Teams would be established in every elementary school within the district and have the responsibility of ensuring that curriculum guides are

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followed, assessment are completed and that reports are formulated and reported during monthly, quarterly, and annual district meetings.

7. Establish Master Teacher Programs within the districts to encourage experienced teachers, who have a wealth of instructional experience and knowledge of diverse populations and agree to work in schools with high minority student populations.

Recommendations for Teacher Education Programs

1. Student teaching internships should include extensive opportunities to work with African-American males and other minority groups. This will afford individuals an opportunity to gain experience working with African-American and minority male groups, understand learning styles, gender learning differences, and cultural difference between themselves as the teacher and the student learner.

2. Colleges of education need to offer academic coursework that addresses the African-American male regarding Creative Learning Techniques/Strategies , Bias in Education towards Minority Students, Racial Discrimination in Education, Overrepresentation in Special Education and casual factors, use of cultural relevant educational materials/instruction, and impact of teacher perception on African-American male achievement.

Recommendations for Professional Development Coordinators

1. Create Cultural Diversity/Disproportionate Professional Development series. The intent of professional development series would entail providing monthly training to educators as it relates to African-American males. Areas of professional development include: (A) Using Cultural Responsive Teaching In the Classroom, (B) Bias in Education –The Role of the Classroom Teacher, (C) Equity in Classroom

Management, (D) Influence of Media upon teacher perception and ability of The

African-American Male Learner, and (E) Equity in Discipline. In addition to

workshop series, teacher should participate in mandatory Book Club, where teacher

and administrators read and discuss books on issues relating to African-American and

minority male issues in education.

Recommendations for Educators

1. Regarding disciplinary procedures, educators should be required to provide clear

   documentation and explanation as to why African-American males are referred to

   Special Education. This documentation should include narrative on instructional

   and/or disciplinary procedures teacher utilized with referred student, including

   parental involvement and consultation with Special Education, Behavior

   Interventionist and School Social Worker.

2. Teachers need to have strong classroom management skills in regards to ensuring all

   students are treated equitable in regards to disciplinary practices. School

   Administrators should track classroom management/disciplinary issues per

   teacher/grade level. Teacher identified with high referral rates, should attend

   professional development training on classroom management and equitable practices.

<div align="center">

Conclusion

</div>

The results of the study indicate that self-perception of sample teacher within the district,

does play a role in the attitudes, beliefs and perceptions held toward the African-American male

student. Findings highlighted differences in beliefs systems between European American and

Minority American teachers in select areas, areas that typical serve as key functional evaluators

for the referral and placement of students in special education. The major findings attained

within the study include, influence of media on the perception of African-American male students within the classroom and school environment, differences in teacher expectations/ viewpoints towards African-American and European American male students; and differences of viewpoints between African-American and European American teachers toward African-American males. It is critical to understand that specific areas of concern within the study reflect significance of teacher efficacy within the district and its role in how classroom teachers view their ability to equitable teach students from diverse academic, cultural, racial and social-emotional backgrounds and gender make-up.

To ensure that equitable practices are afforded to all student learners, in particular African-American males, school administrators, teacher education programs, professional development coordinators and educators must collaboratively work to strategize and implement policies that effectively tackle the question of how to overcome disproportional placement of African-American males in Special Education.

Ignoring this critical issue within the American public educational system is to extinguish the academic potential and success of the African-American male learner within society. As poet Langston Hughes wrote, *"What happens to a dream deferred? Does it dry up like a raisin in the sun?..."* As educators, we must ask ourselves do we want the dreams of African-American males to dissipate by unfairly relegating them to the rungs of special education instead of aggressively addressing bias in teacher perceptions, deliverance of education and hidden agendas, which exists in public education systems.

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Appendix 1

Permission to Conduct Study

Providence
Schools

January 16, 2008

Ms. Robbin A. Bibbs
1322 North Dean Road, Apt. 509
Auburn, AL 36830

Ms. Bibbs:

I am pleased to inform you that Providence School Department has approved your request to conduct your study – Attribution, *race, and expectations: The relationship between the attitudes and expectations of European American teachers and the achievement and disproportionate placement of African-American males in special education* – in its schools.

Enclosed are signed copies of the *Research Agreement: Guidelines for Research* and *Data Sharing and Confidentiality Agreement* forms you signed upon submitting your request. It is important that these guidelines be followed throughout your research/evaluation efforts within the district.

The district looks forward to the outcome of your study. As such, please be sure to provide the office with a copy of your findings at the completion of your analysis.

Again, congratulations, and thank you in advance for the work you are doing on behalf of the students of our district.

Sincerely,

Dr. Guy Alba
Interim Supervisor
Office of Research, Assessment and Evaluation

File: approval_letter_final_bibbs

Appendix 2

Auburn University Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval

May 18, 2010

MEMORANDUM TO: Ms. Robbin Bibbs
Department of Educational Foundations, Leadership, and Technology

TITLE: "Attribution, Race and Gender: Relationship between European-American Teachers and the Disproportionate Placement of African-American Males in Special Education"

IRB FILE: # 09-123 EP 0905

RENEWAL DATE: May 18, 2010
NEW EXPIRATION DATE: May 19, 2011

The renewal for the above referenced protocol was approved by IRB procedure. The protocol will continue as "Expedited" under 45 CFR 46.110 (7).

> "Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies."

You must report to the IRB any proposed changes in the protocol or procedures and any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects or others. Reference the above authorization number in any future correspondence regarding this project.

If you will be unable to file a Final Report on your project before May 19, 2011, you must submit a request for an extension of approval to the IRB no later than May 1, 2011. If your IRB authorization expires and/or you have not received written notice that a request for an extension has been approved prior to May 19, 2011, you must suspend the project immediately and contact the Office of Research Compliance.

A Final Report will be required to close your IRB project file.

If you have any questions concerning this Board action, please contact the Office of Research Compliance.

Sincerely,

Kathy Jo Ellison, RN, DSN, CIP
Chair of the Institutional Review Board
for the Use of Human Subjects in Research

cc: Dr. Sheri Downer
Dr. Ivan Watts

AUBURN UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD for RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS.
REQUEST for PROTOCOL RENEWAL

For Information or help completing this form, contact: THE OFFICE OF HUMAN SUBJECTS RESEARCH, 307 Samford Hall
Phone: 334-844-5966   e-mail: hsubjec@auburn.edu   Web Address: http://www.auburn.edu/research/vpr/ohs/index.htm

Complete this form using Adobe Acrobat Writer (versions 5.0 and greater). Hand written forms will not be accepted.

1. **Protocol Number:** 09-123 EP 0905

2. **Original IRB Approval Dates:**   From: May 20, 2009   To: May 20, 2010

3. **Requested ONE YEAR MAXIMUM Renewal Period:**   From: 05/20/2012   To: 05/20/2013

4. **PROJECT TITLE:** "Attribution, Race and Gender: Relationship between European-American Teachers and the Disproportionate Placement of African-American males in Special education

5.

Robbin A. Bibbs	Ph.D Candidate	EFLT	401-338-7834	bibbsra@auburn.edu
PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR	TITLE	DEPT	PHONE	AU E-MAIL
	P.O. Box 72891, Providence, RI 02907			poeticj3@aol.com
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Dr. Ivan E. Watts		EFLT	334-884-5036	wattsie@auburn.edu
FACULTY ADVISOR SIGNATURE		DEPT	PHONE	AU E-MAIL
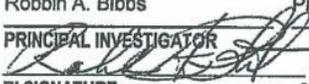
Name of Current Department Head: Dr. Sherida Downer   AU E-MAIL: sheri@auburn.ed

6. **Current External Funding Agency:** _____

7. **List any contractors, sub-contractors, or other entities or IRBs associated with this project:**

8. Briefly list *(numbered or bulleted)* the activities that occurred over the past year, particularly those that involved participants.

1. Student researcher continued writing chapter four of dissertation, after approval of chapter 3.
2. Student researcher has made a substantial number of revisions to chapter 4, in accordance with committee request regarding changes to data presented and/or questions asked.
3. Student researcher, completed final revision to chapter four and was granted approval.
4. Student researcher began working on chapter five of dissertation and has submitted chapter five for approval by committee.
5. Currently, student researcher is awaiting final approval for chapter five of dissertation from committee.

9. Explain why you are requesting additional time to complete this research project.

I am requesting additional time for completion of my dissertation/research project due to the significant number of revisions requested for chapter 4 over the six months and awaiting of final approval of chapter 5 of my dissertation. I am at the final stage of the dissertation process, in order to submit a final report to the IRB committee/Department committee in order to meet deadline and Summer2012 graduation.
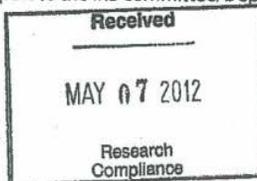
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Research Compliance

1 of 3

Teacher Information Sheet

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS BEING USED AS PART OF MY DISSERTATION/RESEARCH STUDY AT AUBURN UNIVERSITY, AUBURN, ALABAMA ON THE ATTITUDES AND ABILITIES OF URBAN TEACHERS' AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF MALE STUDENTS IN THE CLASSROOM AND SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT.

Thank you for participating in this study. Without your help the completion of this project would not be possible. The following questionnaire is divided into three sections:

- Section I: Contains questions regarding your beliefs as a teacher.
- Section II: Contains questions on your perceptions and practices used towards male students in your classroom environment.
- Section III: Contains demographic information questions.

In completing this questionnaire, you are not required to submit your name. Therefore, you are free to express your honest opinions on the questions posed within the questionnaire; there are no right or wrong answers. Please read each question carefully. When you have completed the survey, please return it to the designated survey location spot within your building.

Please return the survey by: _____

Thank you again for your cooperation and participation.

Robbin A. Bibbs, Researcher
Doctorial Candidate, Auburn University

SECTION ONE: TEACHER BELIEFS

Directions: Below are a series of questions that pertain to your beliefs about teaching and its impact upon the students you teach. Using the four-point rating scale below, please give your honest opinion about your ability to complete the task or belief about the task. Please take into consideration the dynamics of your classroom environment and your students. Since the survey is anonymous, please be as open and honest as you can when answering the questions, there are no right or wrong answers. Write your answer to the left of the question.

1= Never 2= Seldom 3= Frequently   4= Always

1. ___ To what extent can you control disorderly behavior in the classroom

2. ___ To what extent can you maintain a positive learning environment?

3. ___To what extent do you believe a student's home environment influences their academic performance within the classroom?

4. ___To what extent can you calm a student who is disruptive or noisy and still maintain order in the classroom?

5. ___To what extent can you motivate all students' in your classroom to   value learning?

6. ___To what extent can you ask higher-thinking questions in your classroom?

7. ___To what extent do students in your classroom follow classroom directions?

8. ___To what extent can you motivate students to become successful learners?

9. ___To what extent can   you motivate students who lack confidence in their class work to achieve?

10. ___To what extent do you have to adjust classroom management styles to meet the needs of diverse student groups?

11. ___To what extent do you use a variety of assessment strategies to measure student achievement and learning in the classroom?

12. ___To what extent do you provide alternative explanations or examples to students who are confused in your classroom?

13. ___To what extent do you believe you can increase the achievement of students from economically disadvantaged families?

14. ___To what extent do you implement alternative teaching strategies, which meet the individual learning styles of student in within the classroom?

Rating Scale

1= Never 2= Seldom 3= Frequently

4= Always

15. ___To what extent do you believe your school environment is one that encourages and motivates all students to succeed?

16. ___To what extent do you provide culturally-relevant instruction to students in your classroom?

17. ___To what extent do you promote racial& cultural tolerance between students in your classroom?

18. ___To what extent do you create cooperative learning groups that divide students into racial and ethnically diverse small groups?

19. ___To what extent do you provide all students in your classroom with equal academic opportunities?

20. ___To what extent do you create classroom communities that successfully serve students of color?

21. ___To what extent do you react in a more positive manner towards students from higher social economic backgrounds compared to lower social economic backgrounds?

22. ___To what extent do you react in a more negative manner towards students in lower social economic backgrounds compared to higher social economic backgrounds?

23. ___To what extent are you accepting of students with social- emotional disabilities in your classroom?

24. ___To what extent are you accepting of students who have physical disabilities in your classroom?

25. ___To what extent are you accepting of students who have learning disabilities in your classroom?

26. ___To what extent does a student's personal appearance and hygiene influence your academic expectations of them in the classroom?

27. ___To what extent does a student's personal appearance and hygiene influence your tolerance toward their behavior in class?

SECTION TWO: TEACHER PERCEPTIONS AND PRACTICES OF MALE STUDENTS

> **Directions:** Please reach each statement and rank each of the following groups from top to bottom with regard to your ability as a teacher to interact with them in your classroom. Please assign a number to each group from "1" to" 4", where" 1" is most likely, "2" is likely, "3" is somewhat likely, and "4 "being least likely.

1. I believe I can motivate _____ males to become successful learners, by helping them to develop the skills needed to achieve.
   - A. African-American _____
   - B. Asian –American _____
   - C. European-American _____
   - D. Latino-American _____

2. I believe I can motivate _____ males who show low interest in school work, by creating successful learning opportunities.
   - A. African-American _____
   - B. Asian-American _____
   - C. European-American _____
   - D. Latino-American _____

3. I have difficulty relating to the behaviors and attitudes of _____ males in my classroom, due to my lack of knowledge of their culture .
   - A. African-American _____
   - B. Asian-American _____
   - C. European-American _____
   - D. Latino-American _____

4. I typically experience more academic difficulties with _____ males and I typically consult with the Teacher Support Team (SST) , to develop strategies to use in the classroom with this student group.
   - A. African- American _____
   - B. Asian-American _____
   - C. European-American _____
   - D. Latino- American _____

5. I am more likely to automatically send _____ male students to the principal or counselor's office when they are disruptive instead of handling the problem myself.
   - A. African- American _____
   - B. Asian-American _____
   - C. European-American _____
   - D. Latino-American _____

6. When measuring the performance of _____ males in the classroom,
I use a variety of assessment measures which address their specific learning
Styles.
- A. African-American _____
- B. Asian-American _____
- C. European-American _____
- D. Latino-American _____

7. My style of classroom instruction is culturally responsive in meeting the academic
needs of _____ male student
- A. African-American _____
- B. Asian-American _____
- C. European-American _____
- D. Latino-American _____

8. I consider my classroom management style to be fair and unbiased,
regarding the treatment _____ males.
- A. African-American _____
- B. Asian-American _____
- C. European-American _____
- D. Latino-American _____

9. I have lower expectations for _____ males in my classroom, based on my interaction with
their parents/guardians.
- A. African-American _____
- B. Asian-American _____
- C. European-American _____
- D. Latino-American _____

10. I have a more positive relationship with _____ males in my
classroom and encourage them to do their best at all times.
- A. African-American _____
- B. Asian-American _____
- C. European-American _____
- D. Latino-American _____

11. I believe the portrayal of _____ males in the media , influences teachers expectations
within the classroom and school environment.
- A. African-American _____
- B. Asian-American _____
- C. European-American _____
- D. Latino-American _____

SECTION THREE: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Grade level currently teaching

    ___ Pre K ___ K ___1st _ _2nd ___ 3rd ____ 4th ____5th ____ 6th

2. How many years have you worked, as a teacher at your school?

    ____ Less than a year ____ 1 -2 years __ 3-5 years __6-10 years __Over 10 years

3. How many years have you taught overall? _____

4. What subject(s) are you currently teaching (Choose all that apply)

    __ All Subjects __ Reading/Language Arts __Math __Social Studies __ Music/Art

    __Physical Education/Health __Title I __Other:_____

5. What is your highest level of education?

    ___Bachelor's degree (B.A./B.S.) __ Bachelor's degree plus additional credits

    _Master's degree __Master degree plus additional credits __ Education Specialist (CAS or CAGS) __Doctoral degree (Ed.D/Ph.D.)

6. Have you had professional development training regarding

    A. Working with special populations   ___Yes _ _No

    B. Multicultural Education/Cultural Responsive Teaching ___Yes   ___No

7. What is your gender? ____Female __ Male

8. What is your racial identity?

    __ African American/Black   ___Asian American/Pacific Islander

    __Latina/Latino/Hispanic   ___Native American/American Indian

    __White/Caucasian   _ _Biracial/Multicultural

9. What type of students do you serve in your classroom?

    _Regular Education ___Gifted __ Special Education ___ Regular/Special Education/Combined __Remedial (Not special education)

10. Are you certified/licensed as a ...

    __ Special Educator ___ General Educator __ Both

11. Do you live in the neighborhood where you teach? ____Yes   ___No

Appendix 3

Perceptions of Teachers' Attitudes Survey