University of Louisville

ThinkIR: The University of Louisville's Institutional Repository

Electronic Theses and Dissertations

12-2006

Effective teaching of African American students who receive special education services.

Nancy Stone Bealmear
University of Louisville

Follow this and additional works at: <https://ir.library.louisville.edu/etd>

Recommended Citation

Bealmear, Nancy Stone, "Effective teaching of African American students who receive special education services." (2006). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. Paper 87.
<https://doi.org/10.18297/etd/87>

This Doctoral Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ThinkIR: The University of Louisville's Institutional Repository. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of ThinkIR: The University of Louisville's Institutional Repository. This title appears here courtesy of the author, who has retained all other copyrights. For more information, please contact thinkir@louisville.edu.

EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF AFRICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS
WHO RECEIVE SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES

By

Nancy Stone Bealmear
B.S.E. Northeast Missouri State University, 1974
M.S.E. Western Illinois University, 1980

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate School of the University of Louisville
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Teaching and Learning
Louisville, KY

December 2006

Copyright 2006 by Nancy S Bealmear

All rights reserved

EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF AFRICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS
WHO RECEIVE SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES

By

Nancy Stone Bealmear
B.S.E. Northeast Missouri State University, 1974
M.S.E. Western Illinois University, 1980

A Dissertation Approved on

November 13, 2006

By the following Dissertation Committee:

Dr. Tom Simmons, Dissertation Director

Dr. Ann Larson

Dr. Debra Bauder

Dr. Blaine Hudson

Dr. William Penrod

Dr. Tom Reio

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to God who gave me
the guidance, strength, and perseverance to continue,
my mother for her continual prayers
and
my husband for his continuous support.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my major professor, Dr. Tom Simmons, for his guidance and support. I would also to thank my other major professor, Dr. Ann Larson, for her support through my entire doctoral program. She was there when no one else was. Additionally, I would like to thank my other committee members, Dr. Tom Reio, for his willingness to come aboard late in the process, Dr. Deb Bauder, Dr. Blaine Hudson, and Dr. Bill Penrod, for their input and suggestions. I would especially like to thank my husband, Jim, for his continuous support, help, and encouragement during the times when it seemed it would never end. I appreciate the support of my two daughters, Erin and Jennifer, throughout the years of listening to me, and my mother, Dorothy, and two sisters, Betty and Sue, for their encouragement and prayers.

ABSTRACT

EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF AFRICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS WHO RECEIVE SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES

Nancy S. Bealmear

November 13, 2006

This dissertation is an examination of effective teaching of African American students who receive special education services by teachers who are either National Board Certified Teachers or Highly Qualified Master's Level teachers. It begins with an overview of the history of special education in the United States and the current conditions of special education. It then covers the matter of overrepresentation of African American students in special education and the various contributors to that problem. The conceptual framework is to examine the self-efficacy and best practices of National Board Certified Teachers (NBCTs) or Highly Qualified (HQ) Master's Level teachers from middle and high schools. It examines the literature addressing learning and cultural styles of African American students and how these learning styles may affect the achievement levels of African American students. The latter part of the dissertation provides examples of positive school practices for African American students.

The dissertation is divided into five chapters, addressing special education policies and laws, overrepresentation of African American students in special education, literature on cultural and learning styles of African American students, effective teaching, and teaching standards. Chapter One looks at the history of African American education

in the United States and how the Civil Rights Law affected their education and affected the education of students with disabilities. It also provides definitions of legal terminology for the special education law and disability categories. In addition, it covers teacher self-efficacy and teacher standards. The differences between National Board Certified Teachers and Highly Qualified Master's Level teachers are also addressed in Chapter One. Chapter Two is divided into three different sections that address literature and research about the history of African American education in the United States, the causes of overrepresentation, curriculum in the schools and multicultural curriculum, effective teaching, standards, critical race theory, African American cultural styles, and effective teaching of African American students. The first section is about the history of African American education in the United States and the history of civil rights for students with disabilities, and factors that contribute to overrepresentation. The second section pertains to curriculum models developed by researchers for multicultural education, what researchers consider as effective teaching, and teaching standards. The third section discusses critical race theory, cultural styles of African American students, and effective teaching of African American students.

Chapters One and Two are theoretical in nature, and Chapters Three and Four focus on the methodology of the study and the results of the study. Chapter Three focuses on the type of study, the survey instrument, and the groups chosen for participation. This study uses a descriptive correlational design that employs a Likert-scale survey with a cross-sectional group of teachers. Survey responses from National Board Certified teachers (NBCT) are compared with responses from Master's Level Highly Qualified (HQ) teachers to determine possible differences and similarities in perceptions about

classroom instruction, beliefs, and behaviors. This study investigates what both NBCT and HQ teachers perceive that makes them effective with African American students who receive special education services. This study also examines whether teachers' effectiveness consists explicitly of attitudes towards students, specific teaching technique, or methods, or a combination of both. Chapter Four examines the results of the survey questionnaire returned, and the demographics of the participants in the study. Chapter Five is a summary of the entire study and a detailed explanation of the specific questions indicating statistical differences in scores. The dissertation ends with recommendations for future research and educational implications for the findings.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
II. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	21
History of African American Education.....	21
Curriculum Models.....	37
African American Cultural Styles.....	52
III. METHOD.....	77
Design of the Study.....	81
Research Advancements.....	83
Ethical Procedures.....	83
Sample.....	84
Research Measure.....	84
Data Collection.....	85
IV. RESULTS.....	88
Participants.....	88
Analysis.....	96
Summary.....	97
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.....	98
VI. REFERENCES.....	124
VII. APPENDICES.....	144

VIII. CURRICULUM VITAE.....	147
-----------------------------	-----

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1. Descriptive Information about Demographic Variables.....	89
2. Means and Standard Deviation of Research Scales by Two Teacher Groups.....	90
3. Cronbach's Alphas of Research Measures.....	91
4. One-Way ANOVA Results Summary of Differences Between NBCT and HQ Teachers.....	92
5. One-Way ANOVA Results Summary of Differences Between NBCT and HQ Teachers on Diversity and Special Education Items.....	93

CHAPTER I

EFFECTIVE TEACHERS OF AFRICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS WHO RECEIVE SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES

Introduction

In 1983, a report by the U.S. Department of Education titled *A Nation at Risk* started the reform movement that has focused on ways to improve U.S. schools. According to Zemelman, Daniels, and Hyde (1993), throughout the extensive conversations about reform, what is missing is what should be taught, and how. Best practices include child-centered curriculum, authentic activities, cognitive experiences, learning that is experiential, reflective, holistic, collaborative, and social that involves constructing ideas and that is challenging. These researchers also state that if schools follow the model of family and community partnership, educators can tap into the power of those relationships to promote learning. However, traditional classroom activities involve structure that promotes working individually, in addition to frequent competitiveness, and these practices are opposite of contemporary African American cultural behaviors (Boykin, 1982).

What kind of instruction is effective for African American students? Some teachers are more effective with African American students than are other teachers. What do those teachers do in their practice that make them more effective? Are there specific instructional practices these teachers use, or do they have particular beliefs and attitudes

about African American students in general that make them more effective? The research literatures documents that teacher development and teacher knowledge are grounded, in part, in professional efficacy (Goddard, Hoy & Hoy, 2000; Bandura, 1993; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). According to Bandura (1993), perceived self-efficacy is defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave. Individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy believe in what they are doing, set goals for themselves, communicate their needs, and approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Teachers with high self-efficacy perceive students who are different from themselves as a challenge and devise ways to help the students achieve. Conversely, teachers with low self-efficacy display low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. They lessen their efforts and give up quickly. They give up quickly when situations become difficult. This is a significant factor in the success or failure of a teacher to make a difference with students in classrooms. That, in turn, becomes a significant factor in the success or failure of students. For this study, the spotlight is on the effective practices of teachers who teach African American middle and high school students who receive special education services.

Problem Statement

The educational system replicates the norms of society, rather than changing them. The cultural differences between mainstream society and minority cultures exist in schools just as they do in society. Differences become apparent between the cultures in the teaching styles of the society's teachers and the learning styles of students. Many

teachers do not recognize the differences in the students' cultures with regard to styles of learning. Given those teachers do not always recognize these differences, their lessons may not reflect those differences. According to Gay, (2002), the ability of a teacher to recognize and understand cultural differences is the "key factor" in the instruction and the lesson. Because many teachers do not recognize the cultural differences, countless students from minority groups do not achieve at the same levels as White, middle class students (Ogbu, 1987). In fact, teachers refer many students of color for special education, who are then, subsequently placed in special education classrooms (Lomotey, 1990; Coutinho & Oswald, 2000; Coutinho, Oswald, & Best, 2002; Losen & Orfield, 2002).

In 1975 the designers of the Education for All Handicapped Children (PL-94-142) did not intend for special education placement to be segregated places for students who need help in order to do well in school; it was created to serve and provide support to students with disabilities (Losen & Orfield, 2002). However, the overrepresentation of minorities in special education classes in the U.S. has been a continuous issue for over 20 years. According to the Harvard Civil Rights Project (Losen & Orfield, 2002), minorities have been overrepresented in programs for students identified as mildly mentally disabled, severe emotional or behavior disorders, and learning disabled. According to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), formerly Public Law 94-142, the intent of the legislation is to place students in the least restrictive environment. That means students who qualify to receive special education services should receive as many of their educational services in the regular education classroom to the maximum extent possible (Federal Register, 300.601d, 2004). The students receive accommodations or are removed only if the nature of severity of their disability is such that without the

accommodations or removal the student will not be successful (FR, 300.550, 2004). Data from the Civil Rights Project studies (Losen & Orfield, 2002) indicate that during 1998-1999, 55% of White students with disabilities receive services in full inclusion classrooms, while 37% of African American students with disabilities receive services in full inclusion classrooms. In addition, 30% of African American students with disabilities receive services in a resource room, and 29% of White students with disabilities receive services in a resource room. A resource room, or pull-out special class, is one in which a special education teacher will work individually with students for up to two hours a day (Kentucky Administrative Regulations, 2000). In Kentucky, African American students have a 3.87% greater risk of identification and placement in a program for emotional and behavioral disorders than do White students (Losen & Orfield, 2002). According to the Office of Special Education, (2001) the percentage of African American students in the United States who receive special education services is 10.89 while the percentage of White students who receive special education services in the United States is 8.06.

With the large numbers of African American students in special education, it is imperative to know what types of instruction works best for these students. What kind of instruction is most effective for African American students to advance their achievement? Some teachers are more effective with African American students than are other teachers. What do those teachers do that make them more effective? Are there specific instructional practices they use, or do they have beliefs and attitudes about African American students in general that make them more effective?

History of Special Education

The decision of *Brown v. the Board of Education* (347 U.S. 483, 1954) was the foundation for the passage of the Civil Rights Act in 1964. The Act opened the doors for

a number of people who experienced discrimination, including individuals with disabilities, women, and minorities (African American, Hispanics and Native Americans), to demand and receive equal rights. People who experienced discrimination for a variety of reasons looked to the fourteenth amendment of the United States Constitution, which guarantees the same rights and benefits (i.e. equal protection of the laws) to all citizens with respect to government, and which prohibits discrimination (Cong.Rec.110). Because of the activism of the Civil Rights Movement in the United States, there are now five influential laws on the current practice of special education. These laws are Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act, 1973; the Education for All Handicapped Children Act 1975; the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act; the Americans with Disabilities Act 1990; and the 1997 Reauthorization of IDEA (Office of Special Education Programs [OSEP] 2004). Several revisions in the Education for All Handicapped Act produced the new name of the Individuals with Disabilities in Education Act (IDEA) in 1990.

Before the passage of IDEA, children with disabilities were either not formally educated, or were educated in substandard classrooms, in separate facilities, isolated from other “normal” students (History of the IDEA, 2000, U. S. Department of Education). Today, more than six million children ages birth to 21 with disabilities in the United States receive a free and appropriate education (FAPE), with a significant number attending college (Losen & Orfield, 2000). Current law maintains that all students, regardless of disabling factors, are entitled to an education just the same as non-disabled students. The regulations include the least restrictive environment, which means students are placed in the regular education classroom and receive modifications of instruction, unless the severity of their disability makes success improbable. In addition, the law

requires procedural safeguards in which schools are not able to place students in special classes without prior parent permission, educational testing, and confidentiality (Federal Register, 300.601d, 2004).

However, minority students ages 6-21, such as African American, Hispanic, and Native American, who are identified as disabled, more likely than not, still receive substandard education through inadequate services, low-quality curriculum and instruction, and isolation from peers (Losen & Orfield, 2002). According to the Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP), as recently as the 2001-2002 school year, 59.6% of African American students ages 6-21 received special education services outside the general education classroom greater than 21-60% of the time. In the category of learning disabilities, 18.72% of the students are African American; 28.23% of African American students received services in classrooms for students with emotional disturbance or behavior disorders, and 34.08 % of African American students are identified as mentally retarded. In short, approximately 81% of African American students in the United States are served in some type of special education classroom. In the District of Columbia alone, 96.58% of students in classes for mental retardation are African American students (Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 2003 [Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services]). In light of these data, this calls into question whether placement in a special education category is a help or hindrance for African American students.

Once students' placements in special education classes occur, they typically do not receive a high quality education that would enable them to return to full placement in the regular class (Heller, Holtzman & Messick, 1982; Hilliard, 1992). In addition, both Latinos and African American students, placed in special education classes, are less

likely than White students to receive education in an inclusive setting (Fierros & Conroy, in Losen & Orfield Eds. 2002). Some of the placements may be a result of racial bias of educators within the schools. Many teachers who do not know how to work effectively with, and teach students from cultural and economic backgrounds different from their own may refer students for special education in order to have the student removed from the classroom. Many regular classroom teachers do not want to have to make accommodations for students with disabilities in their classrooms and request other placements under the guise of assessing that the student does not have the necessary skills required for functioning in regular classrooms.

Contributors to overrepresentation of minorities in special education

Several factors contribute to the overrepresentation of minorities in special education programs. The causes for the overrepresentation vary from failure of the educational system (Artiles & Trent, 1994; Deno, 1970; MacMillan & Hendrick, 1993; McDermott, 1987; Townsend, Thomas, Witty, & Lee, 1996) to inequalities in the referral process, assessment tools, and the placement process (Harry & Anderson, 1994; Mercer, 1973). According to Losen & Orfield (2000), “research does suggest that unconscious racial bias, stereotypes, and other race-linked factors have a significant impact on the patterns of identification, placement, and quality of services for minority children, and particularly African American children” (p.xxii). The political nature of the educational system sorts students into socioeconomic “boxes” in which students who do not fit into these boxes, are outliers within the system. The educational system manipulates the special education structure and often exploits the students placed within that system. According to Hilliard, the special education system is used to sustain the current social and economic stratification order in the U.S. (1992). Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995)

have called for a “critical race theory” of education that acknowledges that U.S. political and social systems are based on property rights rather than human rights. Critical race theorists maintain that the education and special education structures uphold the position of advantage by the dominant social, political, and economic classes over minorities. For example, in Dixson & Rousseau (2005) according to Oakes (1995) and Darling-Hammond (1997), tracking can be viewed as one of the current means through which the property right of whiteness is asserted in education. Property of whiteness is based upon the theory that property is a right rather than a physical object. Harris (1993) states that historically in the United States, holders of property are accorded certain privileges. In the theory of property of whiteness, one of the privileges is exclusion, and who is excluded. When groups of people exclude other groups of people, the excluded groups usually develop their own lifestyles and cultures, which may not always connect with the mainstream culture.

According to Gay (2000, as cited in Losen & Orfield, 2002) cultural discontinuity is a significant factor in the educational problems experienced by minority students. The work of Boykin (1983, as cited in Losen & Orfield, 2002) has posited this through research on behavioral and perceptual learning styles among African American students. Boykin’s research suggests there are enough cultural differences that may explain discrepancies in abilities and achievement levels between White students and minorities. This researcher contends that because of these cultural differences, special education placement of large amounts of minority students occur.

African American students, as well as students from other ethnic cultures, learn from modeling and cooperation (Tharp & Gallimore, 1989). Much of the work in classrooms is individual work. When African American students walk around the class,

talk to other students, and talk very loudly, as is part of the dominant African American culture, a classroom teacher may consider the student to have a problem (Delpit, 1995). Rather than working with the student and become proficient as a cross-culturally competent educator who understands the student's culture, a teacher may eventually refer the student for testing in special education (Sleeter, 2001). It is because of this mismatch between cultures of home and school that the problem of overrepresentation of minorities exists (McIntyre, 1992). In general, individuals understand their own culture, but find it difficult to understand the nuances of other cultures. Teachers are no different. As a result of of this lack of understanding, Allen and Boykin (1992) argue a Cultural Disadvantage Theory exists in education, in which a large number of African American students fail to achieve in school simply because their home environments do not develop the type of cultural interactions necessary for success in the educational system. Hale-Benson (1982) contends that an African American child may have a large amount of prior knowledge, but it is not the background that is required for school. When this happens, a cultural conflict occurs because the child is operating with a learning style that is different from the dominant one required for school (p. 39).

Because of lack of adequate preparation in preservice education programs, teachers frequently interpret students' culturally based behaviors as problem behaviors, which results in a referral for special education (Foster, 1986; Garcia, 1978; Grossman, 1990; Hanna, 1988; McIntyre, 1992). Teachers expect students to be compliant, docile, and responsive to authority. The expectation of students is to conform to a standard indicative of the teacher's own upbringing (Dent, 1976, p. 178). When students are not able to comply with dominant majority expectations, teachers determine that it is the fault of the student and that something is "wrong" with the student, and that he or she needs

placement in special education.

In educational and social science research literature, African American students are often referred to as “culturally deprived” or “culturally disadvantaged” (Ladson-Billings, 1995b). African American students as a demographic group do not experience life on the same playing field as middle-class White students in any manner-- economically or socially-- because what is valued in African American culture may not be what is valued in the mainstream culture (Boykin & Tom, 1985). According to Delpit (1988, 1995), many of the academic problems associated with students of color are the result of miscommunications, inability to deal with imbalances of power in U. S. society, and the dynamics of inequality in the public schools.

In summary, three problem areas exist in the U. S. educational system that contribute to the overrepresentation of minorities: misunderstanding of cultural behavioral styles; the rigidity of the traditional American school; and characteristics of schools desired by the teachers usually correlate with those components of gifted programs (Hilliard, 1992). The misunderstanding of cultural behavioral styles alone contributes to inaccuracy in assessing intellectual potential and misplacement of students in lowered reading groups (Hilliard, 1983, 1987). Sadly, the students themselves are aware of these inequities.

As students are aware of the inequities and have been aware of them throughout their experiences in U.S. schools, this issue is entrenched in socio-political structures of American public education. According to Ogbu (2004), African Americans have formed a collective identity. That collective identity is what all groups of people form through similar experiences or a series of experiences. Two factors create and maintain collective identity: status problems and minority response to status problems. Status problems are

external forces that “mark” a segment of the population as different from the rest of the population. Ogbu’s research posits that African American oppositional collective identity was formed prior to the emancipation of slaves.

During the period of slavery, slaves were forced to “act white” because they lived and existed in two worlds, the world of slavery to white masters and the world of the slavery community (Ogbu, 2004). While in white environments, slaves were expected to act and talk a certain way, but it was considered inappropriate to do so within the slave community (Becknell, 1987, as cited in Ogbu, 2004). Contemporary African Americans still experience the two worlds of white, mainstream society and the world of African American society. This has implications for education settings and for teaching and learning of P-16 students.

Teacher Self-Efficacy

Teacher efficacy has been defined as “the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance” (Berman, et al., 1977, p. 137, as cited in Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A. & Hoy, W.K., 1998). Bandura (1977) identified teacher efficacy as a type of self-efficacy in which individuals develop beliefs about their ability to perform at a specific level. These beliefs affect how much effort individuals put forth, how much resilience they have in dealing with failure, how long they persist when situations become difficult, and how much stress and depression they experience while coping with demanding situations (Bandura, 1997).

According to Gibson and Dembo (1984, as cited in Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A. & Hoy, W.K., 1998), teacher efficacy, as a motivational construct, determines the amount of effort a teacher will put forth in a teaching situation and how much persistence the teacher will exhibit. In a study by Podell and Soodak (1993), when

a child with mild learning problems comes from poverty, teachers with low self-efficacy are less likely to persevere in a regular education setting for that student. The teacher with low self-efficacy is less likely to view regular education as an appropriate setting for the student. A teacher with high self-efficacy is more likely to view placement in a regular education class as appropriate. In addition, Podell and Soodak (1993), found that when teachers do not believe that teaching can overcome effects of external influences, those teachers are more likely to refer children with mild learning problems for special education services. This finding may be a significant factor in the overrepresentation of minorities and children from poverty in special education classes.

Educational Standards

Research on the achievement gap of African American students and other ethnic groups and those of White students occurred as early as World War I (Jencks & Phillips, 1998). The achievement gap is defined as the difference in educational success between White students and African American and Hispanic students (Chubb & Loveless, 2002). In addition to the achievement gap is the issue of the large number of African American students placed in special education. As was stated previously, students who do not achieve at grade level frequently receive referrals for special education testing, rather than determining what should happen in the classroom to advance the student's success and academic achievement. In addition, the behavior of the student usually determines special education testing. Once that student begins receiving special education services, the likelihood of return to regular class instruction is slim. The longer a student is in special education classes, the more restrictive the placement becomes (Hosp & Reschly, 2002). Researchers have indicated that African American students require a different type of instruction and stimulus in order to achieve academically (Boykin, 1983).

These learning styles are based upon Boykin's (1983) theory of nine dimensions of African American cultural life: spirituality, harmony, movement, verve, affect, communalism, expressive individualism, oral tradition, and social time perspective. It is necessary to address these issues in educational settings to determine whether African American students receive the culturally appropriate instruction they need to successfully achieve academically. For example, research studies by Boykin and Ellison (1995), Boykin and Allen (1988), Allen and Boykin (1991), and Boykin and Cunningham (2001) indicate that achievement levels for African American students are higher when provided with syncopated music and movement opportunities (Boykin & Bailey, 2000).

The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) has developed standards for working with exceptional learners (CEC Performance-Based Standards, 2002, www.cec.sped.org). The standards, originally developed by the Council in 1983, incorporate the foundations of special education, which include policies and laws, current theories and philosophies and how each affects delivery of special education services. The standards also incorporate rich descriptions of the development and characteristics of learners, learning differences, individual planning and individual instructional strategies, environmental and social interactions, use of assessment for teaching, language differences, professional ethics, and collaboration. In the first standard special education professionals are described as being committed to developing the highest educational and quality of life potential of individuals with exceptionalities and focusing on high expectations for students with disabilities. In the third standard, special education professionals are described as engaging in professional activities which benefit individuals with exceptionalities, their families, other colleagues, students, or research subjects and focusing on professional activities that encompass not just the students, but families as

well, all of which are very crucial in effectively working with special education students.

Another set of diversity standards comes from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). NBPTS was established as an independent, nonprofit, nonpartisan and nongovernmental organization. It was formed in 1987 to advance the quality of teaching and learning by developing professional standards for accomplished teaching, creating a voluntary system to certify teachers who meet those standards and integrating certified teachers into educational reform efforts. The NBPTS also has specific standards for working with exceptional learners (NBPTS, 2004 www.nbpts.org). These standards incorporate knowledge of students, effective communication, and diversity. The standards also integrate meaningful learning, strategies for learning, and social development. Lastly, reflective practice and contribution to the profession of education are addressed.

The NBPTS diversity component is a significant part of the evidence required for successful certification of National Board Certification for candidates. For each standard, the NBPTS candidates must reflect upon lessons and activities within their classrooms. In addition, they must provide proof of demonstration and adherence to the standard. The NBPTS diversity standard addresses such concepts as knowing the background of each student, treating all students fairly, and finding ways in pedagogy and assessment to meet all students' needs. According to research by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2004), 91% of NBCT teachers report that going through the national certification process has positively influenced their teaching. Moreover, 83% of NBPTS teachers report that they have become more reflective in their teaching. Teachers who reflect upon their teaching look consistently and systematically analyze their practice to see what they could have done to improve a lesson or to more effectively

reach specific students, particularly those who struggle.

Because of the diversity standard in National Board for Professional Teaching Certification, teachers who achieve board certification use teaching methodologies that reflect diversity, and incorporate and integrate the standard into their instruction, assessment, and professional development. In addition, they are more likely, than non-board certified teachers, to look at students holistically rather than just as students. In light of this, they are more likely to be successful with African American students who receive special education services (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2004). NBCTs extract from their knowledge of students ways to understand where their students are, where to go with them, and how to effectively address and teach individual students and groups of students.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the attitudes and beliefs of teachers who are successful with African American students who receive special education services. The study examined what teacher behaviors contribute to a positive classroom climate at the middle and secondary levels, for African American students, which may be a factor in contributing to best practices for African American students. The study addressed what reflective and analytical practices teachers have that contribute to effective practices in classrooms.

Research questions

The quantitative study was conducted using the following research questions:

1. What are the distinctions, or differences, between teachers certified by National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) and non-NBPTS certified teachers who are Highly Qualified (according to No

Child Left Behind guidelines) in the area of self-efficacy for effective teaching of African American students who receive special education services in middle or high schools?

Hypothesis: There are differences between National Board Certified teachers and Highly Qualified teachers in the area of self-efficacy.

2. What may be learned from National Board for Professional Teacher Standards certified teachers and teachers of students with special needs in relation to what is considered best practices for African American students in implementation of instruction and the culture of their classrooms?

Hypothesis: There are differences between NBCTs and Highly Qualified teachers in the area of best practices for African American students.

Conceptual framework

The study examined the self-efficacy and best practices of two groups of teachers: National Board Certified Teachers from middle and high schools and highly qualified masters' level teachers, all of whom teach African American students with special needs. Teachers are considered "highly qualified" according to requirements established by the No Child Left Behind Law. The law defines a highly qualified teacher as someone who has a bachelor's degree, full state certification, and licensure as defined by the state, and demonstrated competency as defined by the state, in each core academic subject he or she teaches (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). Teachers certified through NBPTS are exemplars of teaching as they have been determined to have met national standards in the areas of content and diversity through a rigorous portfolio and standardized assessment process. The NBCT's teaching practice must be evidence based, research based, and judged by national standards. Highly qualified masters' level degree teachers must meet

state and university standards in their content area. Data sources for each group consisted of a survey instrument that addressed the teachers' advanced degree programs, teacher efficacy, diversity beliefs, classroom diversity practices, and special education practices.

Definitions

According to the Federal Register ([p.12422] Vol. 64, No. 48; Friday, March 12, 1999) Rules and Regulations, the definitions of categories used in special education placement are:

Emotional-behavior disorders:

The term means a condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree that adversely affects a child's educational performance; an inability to learn that cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors; an inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers; inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances; a general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; a tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems. The term includes schizophrenia. The term does not apply to children who are socially maladjusted, unless it is determined that they have an emotional disturbance.

Specific learning disability:

General: The term means a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, that may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations, including conditions such as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia.

Disorders not included. The term does not include learning problems that are primarily

the result of visual, hearing, or motor disabilities, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage.

Mental Retardation:

Mental retardation means significantly sub-average general intellectual functioning existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period that adversely affects a child's educational performance

Overrepresentation of minorities:

The percentage of minority students in special education classes is higher than the overall percentage of minority students in the district or within the disability category (CEC & NASBE, 2002)

Culturally relevant teaching:

Using the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant to and effective for them (Gay, 2000).

Limitations of the Study

There are potential limitations to this study in that with a survey instrument, actual observation of teacher practices did not occur. The cross-sectional survey design offers a picture of the participants at one point in time. In addition, in survey studies, the participants may answer what he/she believes the researcher wants them to answer. Therefore, validity may be affected by the responses of the participants. Furthermore, the response rates for survey studies are usually not 100%; therefore, not all invited participants will respond. The response rate for this study was 17%, thereby limiting the generalizability of the study. Internal validity may be a factor because of the length of the survey affecting the response rate. External validity may be affected only if the sample is

representative and may be applied to the general population. An additional limitation is that a glossary of terms was not included with the survey when it was mailed to the teachers.

Chapter two addresses the literature in the areas of the history of African American education in the United States, the history of civil rights for students with disabilities, and factors that contribute to overrepresentation. The second section pertains to curriculum models developed by researchers for multicultural education, what researchers consider as effective teaching, and teaching standards. The third section discusses critical race theory, cultural styles of African American students, and effective teaching of African American students to ground and support the study and to provide a framework for data analysis.

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview of Review of the Literature

This chapter is divided into three different sections that address literature and research about the history of African American education in the United States, the causes of overrepresentation in special education, curriculum in the schools and multicultural curriculum, effective teaching, standards, critical race theory, African American cultural styles, and effective teaching of African American students. The first section summarizes the history of African American education in the United States and the history of civil rights for students with disabilities, and factors that contribute to overrepresentation. The second section pertains to curriculum models developed by researchers for multicultural education, what researchers consider as effective teaching, and teaching standards. The third section reviews literature on critical race theory, cultural styles of African American students, and effective teaching of African American students.

History of African American Education in the United States

Throughout the history of African Americans in the United States, education was something strived for, but denied. During the years of slavery, slave owners were not allowed to educate their slaves. Once the Civil War ended, segregation of blacks and whites was instituted in railroad cars.

In 1892 man named Homer Plessy went to court to argue about the “white” section of the train, contending that it violated his constitutional rights according to the Thirteenth and Fourteenth amendments to the Constitution. The case went to the United States Supreme Court, which ruled against Plessy in 1896 (Cozzens, 1995). The ruling set the precedence for “separate but equal,” meaning that facilities of any type could be separated for blacks and whites. This quickly led to segregated restaurants, theatres, restrooms, drinking fountains, and public schools.

However, as public school facilities were not equal during the 1940s and 1950s the injustices were challenged. Those injustices were very difficult for veterans of color World War II who had fought for their country, but then, once back in the U.S., were second-class citizens. Several cases were tried before the Supreme Court concerning admissions to law schools where applicants were denied because of race. They argued, in their cases, that the black law school was not equal. In the case of Sweatt v Painter, Sweatt won and the University of Texas had to admit him. In the case of McLaurin v Oklahoma State Regents, McLaurin was admitted, but was forced to sit in isolated seats in the classroom, library, and cafeteria. The Supreme Court ruled this was illegal. This provided incentive for families wanting equal education for their children as they entered public schools (Cozzens, 1995).

In 1954, the Supreme Court ruled in the landmark case Brown v Board of Education and decreed that segregation in public schools was unconstitutional (Ladson-Billings, 1994). That was the beginning of the Civil Rights Movement in America. The movement continued until the mid-1970s. During that twenty-year period, segregation in separate schools of African American students no longer

occurred. From the period after the Civil War until 1954, the education of African American students was an after thought. The population had substandard buildings, substandard materials, and very little monetary funding.

The Supreme Court ruling energized African Americans to begin the struggle against the segregated society that existed at this time. African Americans fought for their due rights through non-violence as their leader, Martin Luther King, directed. They boycotted buses in Montgomery, AL; nine high school students, The Little Rock Nine, integrated Central High School in Little Rock, AK, and the National Guard troops had to be called for protection, but they integrated; James Meredith integrated at the University of Mississippi; and restaurants, buses, churches, and schools, all became integrated (Brown, 2004).

Yet, this wave of reform did not end the struggle for African American families advocating for equal education for their children. The Civil Rights Movement did open doors for other groups who experienced discrimination. In 1964, the Civil Rights Act was signed into law. This law states that no person can be discriminated against because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin and titled the United States Equal Employment Opportunity of 1964 (Cornell Law, 2004). This law ended segregation according to race (specifically for African Americans) in public establishments such as restaurants, hotels, bars, places of entertainment, and countless other contexts where segregation was practiced. The most significant outcome of that legislation was the end of segregation in schools and universities.

Once other subgroups saw the progress of the Civil Rights Movement, they

felt empowered to fight for their rights as well. Thus, discrimination against students with disabilities became an social, spotlight issue. Parents lobbied for the rights for their children to receive a quality, equitable education. This group of parent activists looked at the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which states that the government cannot deny equality to any people, nor deny any person the pursuit of life, liberty, or property without due process (United States Constitution, 1868 [Cornell Law]). In addition, parents looked at the same arguments used on behalf of African American students' equal protection in *Brown v Board of Education*, 1954. Two previous cases, *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Citizens v Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* and *Mills v Board of Education of the District of Columbia*, resulted in decrees that outlined basic constitutional ideology of the right to an appropriate education in the least restrictive environment (Office of Special Education Programs [OSEP] 2000). This was the foundation for what eventually became the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. In 1973, Congress passed Public Law 94-142. This law stated that all children have the right to a free, appropriate public education, and discrimination against them because of their disabilities is against the law.

Unfortunately, the United States is still not doing an adequate job of providing an education for African American students and students at-risk that will enable them to be economically and socially successful as adults. The reasons for this are wide and varied. However, one reason, according to Nespor (1987) is that the knowledge taught and learned in schools is a social construction built around historical and structural processes. Those historical and structural processes contribute to the power

relationships, economic and social reproduction of the society (Nieto, 2004). Those student who do not fit into the social and economic categories frequently end up in lower track classes and special education classes (Oakes, 1995). When a teacher believes in the reproduction of societal beliefs and categories, those beliefs are carried into the classroom.

Teacher Belief Systems

The ability to change beliefs is very difficult and may take generations to change. An example of this is racial prejudice. If a child grows up hearing parents speak negatively about a specific racial group, the child will most likely develop the same thoughts. Only when the child is away from the family and learns a different paradigm of anti-racism is that child able to change his/her views. Nespor states that the teacher perceives beliefs about students' abilities, as beyond his/her own control. Beliefs also become personal pedagogies or theories to guide teachers' practice (Nespor, p 324).

Because of the difficulty of change, the educational system institutionalizes marginalization of specific groups such as minorities and students with disabilities through tracking, magnet programs, and high stakes testing. This contributes to further gaps in educational achievement levels. A report in 1996 by the Department of Education stated that magnet schools championed as education contexts that promote equity, have been of limited value as a tool for desegregation (Hendrie, 1996). In the study, it was also confirmed that in 42% of magnet schools there were no specific goals for eliminating, reducing, or preventing isolation of minority students. In another study by Goldring and Smrekar (2000), magnet programs that were voluntary

except for neighborhood students, had established goals of reducing minority isolation. The schools established goals to reach an 85% reduction in minority isolation. In reality, however, they reached only a 44% reduction in minority isolation (p. 21). There are still questions today about how effective magnet programs are for African American students. There is a need for more research in this area.

One specific problem is that there is very little dependable literature about effectively educating minority students, particularly African American students. Despite thorough searching of such databases as Ebsco, ERIC, ProQuest, First Search, Digital Dissertations, and others, reviews to date of existing literature produced only 16 studies that directly and empirically, address effective teaching of African American students. Ladson-Billings (1994) contends that the concept of the deficit model still exists in the schools today. The deficit models maintain that because many African American students do not live in middle class neighborhoods, or speak mainstream English, they come to school without the knowledge and “background” they need for success in school. A deficit perspective does not consider that African American students come to school with knowledge of their own culture and lifestyle that is just as valuable as mainstream culture and knowledge. With a thought process of a deficit model, teachers and administrators are less inclined to pursue what the school can do to assist students in higher achievement (Ladson-Billings, 1994). From personal observation and experience, it is clear that principals and teachers lack the knowledge required to raise the academic achievement of African American students. The literature supports the position.

History of African American Education in the United States

Prior to 1954, African American children lived separately from White children and attended school separately. The African American community was completely separate from the rest of the American society. Their livelihood was dependent upon the rest of the African American community. When the Supreme Court ruled in 1954 (*Brown v Board of Education*, 1954) that separate education for African American students was unconstitutional, many African Americans surmised they would finally receive an equal education. However, what this group did not realize was how the belief system in U.S. society of African Americans being “less than” Whites would permeate the educational system and still deny children of color an equal education. According to Hale-Benson, (1982, p.1) “The emphasis of traditional education has been upon molding and shaping Black children so that they can be fit into an educational process designed for Anglo-Saxon middle-class children.”

Historically, American social scientists have perceived the home environments of African American children to be lacking and deficient in preparation of their children for school (Hale-Benson, 1982, 2001). American educators perceive that African American children need to be educated with White students in a dominant, majority context, to ameliorate the affects of growing up in an African American environment.

Although *Brown v Board of Education* (1954) made segregated schooling against the law, it was not until the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that all citizens were given voting rights, equal access to public facilities, citizenship, and school desegregation (Hale, 2001). From 1964 until the present, the focus in education has

been on alleviating the achievement gap that exists between minority students and White students. That gap contributes, in part, due to the large number of African American students who receive services in special education classrooms.

Influencing factors of overrepresentation

Demographic factors play a large part as students receive referrals for testing and ultimate placement in special education classes. Research by Coutinho, Oswald, and Best (2002) indicates that characteristics such as gender, ethnicity, and other sociodemographics increase the likelihood of identification for Learning Disabilities (LD). In addition, poverty is an indicator for increased identification among African American, Hispanic, and Asian male students. However, poverty for White and Native American students is associated with lower identification rates, which indicates the possibility of an inadvertent or deliberate bias. According to Serwatka, Deering, and Grant (1995) the placement of African American students in segregated settings occurs more frequently than that of White students. Hosp and Reschly (2002) maintain that males spend more time outside the general education classroom than females, and that the younger age at which the placement occurs, the more time the student will spend outside the general education setting.

As well, social skills can be a determining factor in special education placement. Students with poor peer relations spend more time outside the general education classroom than students with positive peer relations. In addition, African American students with poor anger control also spend more time outside the general education classroom (Hosp & Reschly, 2002). These researchers also state most common reasons for referrals are distractibility and aggression. Once the referrals

determine qualification, three variables determine restrictiveness of placement: severity of the problem, presence of behavioral problems, and family involvement. When parents do not show up for meetings with teachers, there is a higher possibility of placement of a student into a more restrictive classroom.

As was stated previously, specific student behaviors and/or characteristics frequently determine the referral of a student. The referral of a student for possible placement in special education programs is a subjective decision. In a study by Abidin and Robinson (2002), they found that teachers' perceptions of students were grounded in the students' actual behavior. Results of the study also indicate that the best predictor of teachers' judgments about the possibility of a referral for testing is the teacher's judgments about the presence of behavioral problems and the academic competence of the student. These results correlate with beliefs and/or findings of other researchers. According to Giesbrecht and Routh (1979) and Hutton (1985), student misbehavior is the most influential factor in teachers' decisions to refer a student to special education programs. In addition, teachers are more likely to refer a student with externalizing behaviors as opposed to internalizing behaviors (Greene, Clopton, & Pop, 1996; Lloyd, Kauffman, Landrum, & Roe, 1991; Percy, Clopton, & Pope, 1993; Walker, Bettes, & Ceci, 1984). Externalizing behaviors are behaviors by students that disrupt class, such as out of their seat walking around, talking, and disrespecting the teacher. Internalizing behaviors by students are exhibited by withdrawn, quiet students, who may not understand the work, but don't call attention to themselves, and just sit quietly not working.

Many students who are not behavior problems but have either unidentified

learning disabilities or experience academic problems for a variety of reasons, do not get the help they need because they do not draw attention to themselves with inappropriate classroom behaviors. Teachers do not want to have to deal with behavior problems so they often refer students knowing there is a possibility of removal of the student from their classroom for all or part of the day (Hosp & Reschly, 2002).

There are students in classrooms that stretch the patience of the teacher. In a study by Webb-Johnson (2002), it was reported that teachers are unprepared for dealing with meeting the needs of diverse students in classrooms. The research posits that teachers frequently do not know how to respond to the behavioral systems that are different from the norms of public school settings. Many teachers expect classrooms and students to be exactly as they were when they were going through school and do not know how to handle students who do not act in the same manner.

Additionally, Webb-Johnson (2002) found there are certain distinctive impressions and perceptions by teachers about male African American students. Those perceptions include that they are too active, in need of placement in classrooms for students with behavior disorders, and that they need to be placed on medication for Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). What teachers deem to be problematic is very likely students exhibiting what is considered “verve” in the African American culture. Verve is a propensity towards high levels of activity (Boykin, 1983) and most African American children are socialized to be active and dynamic learners (Boykin & Bailey, 2001; Webb-Johnson, 1999). Their homes and communities encourage movement, exploration, inquiry, and challenge in the

appropriate manner. In the home, African American children are usually not reprimanded when they take things apart to examine, when they run through the house, when they continually ask questions, or even when they question why they are not allowed to engage in a particular activity. Teachers raised in White, middle class families do not understand this type of behavior and view it as abnormal and inappropriate. The dominant white culture typically socializes its children to be compliant, obedient, and less physically active in formal settings.

Webb-Johnson's study (2002) identified patterns of cultural competence and coping patterns exhibited by African American males in classrooms for students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (EBD). Some of those coping strategies in the study are dissembling, which is trying to distract the teacher as a way to avoid the assignment; game playing as a way of not doing the work; defiance; and challenging behaviors. A negative teacher action and reaction usually triggered the challenging behaviors exhibited by the African American students. The challenging behaviors observed closely align under Boykin's theory of expressive individualism (1983), but are also a way to save face in front of peers.

Cultural styles

Boykin's (1986) theory of African American cultural life consists of nine dimensions, which include: *Spirituality*, which views life as vitalistic with the conviction that nonmaterial forces influence everyday lives. *Harmony*, the idea that one's fate is interrelated with other elements, such as humans and nature are connected. *Movement*, with an emphasis on music and dance as central to psychological health. *Verve*, a propensity for high levels of stimulation and action.

Affect, an emphasis on emotions and feelings with a sensitivity to emotional clues and to emotionally expressiveness. *Communalism*, a commitment to social connectedness, which includes social bonds and responsibilities. *Expressive individualism*, cultivation of distinctive personality and spontaneous personal expression. *Oral tradition*, a preference for oral and auditory modes of communication as these are treated as performances. Social time perspective, an orientation towards time as passing through a social space rather than a material space. These dimensions provide a framework important to the research questions and data analyzed in this study.

Children learn the cultural process through an indirect understanding of the cultural process. Research studies have shown that many academic and social problems experienced by African American youth are a result of teacher perceptions of the behavioral, language, and communication skills brought to school by students (Brown, Palinscar, & Purcell, 1986; Neal, McCray, & Webb-Johnson, 2001).

The interactions and behaviors observed in the study of Webb-Johnson (2002) show evidence of Boykin's theories and dimensions (1986). African Americans value personal interaction and are capable of attending to multiple tasks, which many teachers do not understand. Students observed in multiple, cited studies demonstrated this ability, which usually resulted in negative interactions with teachers. Students also demonstrated coping behaviors that allowed them to protect and survive their feelings in an environment that does not respect or positively support their cultural frames of reference. Students avoid academic challenges because they have learned to manipulate the school environment (Larke, Webb-Johnson, Rochon, & Anderson, 1999). They would frequently challenge the teacher by questioning or offering

insolent statements. These behaviors align with Boykin's (1986) dimension of Expressive Individualism.

According to Webb-Johnson (2002), teachers of African American students would benefit from instructional activities that use the characteristics of African American culture, rather than fighting against the behaviors of students. Teaching techniques that connect with the African American culture correlate with the Talent Development Model ([TDM] Boykin, 2000) what Gay (2000) terms power pedagogy, and what Ladson-Billings (2001a) defines as effective teacher preparation. Hale (2001) describes effective teaching of African American students as that which includes kinesthetic orientation, affective orientation, orality and literacy, emphasis on the creative arts, and vervistic, dynamic activities.

Ellison, Boykin, Towns, and Stokes (2000) conducted a study to examine the daily routines of classrooms that serve low-income African American children. According to these researchers' theory, American public schools function based upon European/Anglo values (Tyack, 1974; Kaestle, 1983). Under this system teachers attempt to bring students into conformity of competition, individual autonomy, cognition over affect, and materialism, which are all opposite of African American cultural values. In this study, researchers explored social/psychological issues (personality of the teacher, interaction between students), instruction, and structure of the learning environment, discipline, and classroom management, as well as perception of the learning environment.

Ellison, Boykin, Towns, and Stokes (2000) found that the personality and demeanor of the teacher are major factors in setting the tone of the classroom in the

degree of approachability, the teacher's tolerance for noise and movement, and the teacher's manner of speaking. There is an out of the ordinary demand for quietness by teachers, yet students ignore the admonitions of the teacher and still talk and get up and walk around. Teachers react in a very negative manner to any type of rule breaking, regardless of how minor. In addition, there is a continual pressure of "time" and "covering content" by the teachers. The recommendations of Ellison et al.(2002), are that the school system must look at how social-psychological dynamics such as personality characteristics, social interaction, demeanor, and instructional dynamics influence the behavior and academic achievement of African American students.

Researchers at the Center for Students Placed At Risk (CRESPAR) at Johns Hopkins University developed a specific school model they call the Talent Development Model (TDM) that enables all students to achieve high academic levels by not sorting, classifying and using inappropriate evaluations (Boykin & Cunningham, 2001). The perspective of the TDM is to enhance students' academic and cognitive performance by capitalizing on the culturally manifested assets children bring to the formal learning environment (Boykin, 2000). Specific themes dominate these instructional practices and those themes are movement expressiveness and interwoven mosaic of music, movement, and percussive dance. Previous research conducted by CRESPAR researchers have indicated that the incorporating polyrhythmic, syncopated music, and opportunities for movement expression into learning contexts facilitate low-income African American students' performance on tasks (Allen & Boykin, 1991; Allen & Butler, 1996; Boykin & Allen, 1988). In addition, previous research cited has shown that low-income African American

children display considerable preference toward learning literary writings and historical academic content about African Americans versus the standard school curriculum (Lee, 1994) which honors a “white canon.”

In a study about incorporating movement and physical stimulation into the learning context, Boykin (2001) used two instruments to study students’ reactions to music stimulation in the background while learning. The Child Activity Questionnaire (CAQ) is seven-item inventory designed to measure the perceived motoric activity level of each student (Boykin & Allen, 1988). The Home Stimulation Affordance Questionnaire (HAS) assesses the amount of physical stimulation provided in one’s home environment based upon a five-item inventory (Tuck & Boykin, 1989). Two different instructional settings were utilized and each student participated in both. In one context, the students sat and listened to a story. In the other context the investigator read the story while the beat of a rhythmic/percussive/syncopated tune was playing in the background and students danced or clapped if desired. Cognitive processing was measured through a series of questions. The findings were equivalent with previous findings that indicate African American students’ overall performance markedly improved under high movement learning than under low movement learning. The findings also indicate that students who do not fit “into the box” of mainstream educational environments are more likely to be sorted out and referred for special education or fall through the cracks and barely get by in school.

As previously mentioned, expressive movement is a significant part of the African American culture. One particular movement that is a stereotype of a negative,

hostile, angry male prone to violence is what is known as the “cool pose” (Carby, 1998). The cool pose is part of a ritualized form of masculinity that entails behaviors, scripts, physical posturing, impression management, and carefully crafted performances that attempt to deliver a single, critical message of pride, strength, and control (Majors & Mancini-Billson, 1992). The cool pose walking style adopted by many African American males consists of a deliberately swaggered or bent posture, head held slightly titled to the side, one foot dragging and an exaggerated knee bend or dip (Neal, Davis, McCray, Webb-Johnson, Bridgest, 2003). Conversely, what is considered a standard walking style used by most White males is an erect posture and straight head with a steady pace.

Researchers have determined that perceptions made by teachers of students’ future academic abilities or achievements are usually based upon what they know of the student (Good, 1987). Stereotypes of ethnic and social classes frequently affect expectations by teachers, which in turn might lead to a degree of difference in treatment of students from poverty or ethnic groups. For example, many students from Asian countries, Middle Eastern countries, India, and Eastern Europe do very well academically and behaviorally in schools in the United States to the extent that teachers consider the high academic and behavioral achievement the norm. However, a significant number of African American students have different styles of behavior and lower academic achievement levels than most White students and teacher perceptions become negative early in the school year because of those perceptions.

Neal (1997) conducted a research study for her doctoral dissertation that studied the reactions of teachers to different walking styles of both African American

and White high school males. The teachers were shown four video tapes; one showed an African American male with a standard walk, a second one showed a White student with a standard walk, a third tape showed an African American male with a stroll, and the fourth showed a White male with a stroll. All the students were dressed in the same manner of jeans, sneakers, a white t-shirt, and an NBA jersey over the t-shirt, which is a style of dress most middle and high school males wear. The students were also of approximately the same height and weight. The teachers' perceptions of the students were that the students with the stroll were higher in aggression and lower in academic achievement than students with the standard walk. Teachers also perceived the students with the stroll to be in need of special education services.

The results of this study (Neal, 1997) support the theory that teachers perceive the cultural differences of African American students as deficits and are explanatory about teacher referral judgments. Findings are also indicative of the fact that teachers' knowledge and understanding of diverse cultures is far removed from their students' educational potential and genuineness. The current structure of the educational system does nothing to change the perceptions of classroom teachers.

Curriculum in the Schools and Multicultural Education

According to Banks, (2001) there is a nature of culture in the United States and that nature is a macroculture and microculture. The macroculture is the larger, shared culture of the mainstream society. The microculture is the various small cultures that are part of the larger culture. Within the microculture are the values, norms, and characteristics of the mainstream culture. However, those are frequently encroached upon by the various microcultures. The differences among the macro and

microculture often lead to cultural misunderstandings and institutional discrimination. Institutional discrimination occurs within large segments of society such as schools, work places, hospitals, organizations, and other areas where large amounts of people come together for a variety of purposes.

Culture is the knowledge, concepts, and values shared by group members through systems of communication (Banks). A microculture may share most of the values of the mainstream culture, but sometimes has values that are dissimilar to those of the macroculture. A major goal of multicultural education is to teach students the core values of the mainstream culture while maintaining their own culture. Banks states that all people have multiple group memberships such as race and ethnicity, religion, nationality, exceptionality or no exceptionality, social class and gender. The interaction of all the multiple group memberships influences the behaviors of students and teachers alike.

Schools are a reflection of mainstream society. This is reflected through educational policy and politics within the system itself. Other variables of the social system of schools are assessment and testing procedures, instructional materials, formalized curriculum, learning styles of the school and teaching styles of the teachers along with the *hidden curriculum* (Banks, 2001). Nieto (2004) includes power relationships, economic and social reproduction, and communication styles within the social system of the schools. Erickson (2001) and Nieto (2004) both refer to the hidden curriculum as subtle or implicit messages, not subtle or explicit messages, that children learn in their environments that affect their initial orientation to school. Those messages may include conversation rules, voice levels in

conversation, clock time, and displays of emotions.

Cultural differences can lead to conflict when those differences are considered either a boundary or a border (Barth, 1969; Giroux, 1991; McDermont and Gospondinoff, 1979/1981). A cultural boundary is some type of difference while a border is a social construct that is political in nature. An example of this would be voice levels of many African American students. A loud speaking voice is a cultural habit within the African American community. It is a cultural boundary, but becomes a cultural border for students when teachers discipline them for speaking so loudly. Frequently, cultural differences are used in schools as sources of conflict. This author of this dissertation study repeatedly tells the students not to give the teachers an excuse to chastise them, which frequently happens because of lack of understanding of the cultural boundaries and differences. Many of these students are either already placed in a special education program, or if the teachers believe the students should be placed. The personal opinion of this author is that many of those currently placed in special education programs qualified because of cultural differences, which resulted in their making lower scores on psychological tests.

According to Delpit (1995), students can be taught to reframe borders into boundaries. She proposes that students need to be able to master mainstream speaking and writing for success in the wider society, which is the culture of power. Teachers can handle the reframing either successfully or unsuccessfully. A teacher who is unsuccessful with teaching students to reframe informs students of how they have to act because it is the “right way,” which leads to resentment by the students. The successful manner of handling reframing is to present it as situational. Teachers

should inform the students of the appropriate manner (code of power) in which to speak and write for situations such as formal writing and speaking for school and workplace environments.

Banks (2004) developed levels of integration of multicultural content into the education curriculum. These approaches illuminate the extent that diversity is included in the curriculum. His approach consists of four levels, which are the Contributions Approach, the Additive Approach, the Transformation Approach, and the Social Action Approach.

The Contributions Approach is the minimum amount of diversity added, focusing on heroes and sheroes, holidays such as Martin Luther King Day, and discrete cultural elements. The Additive Approach extends a little further focusing on content, concepts, themes, and perspectives, without changing the basic assumptions or structure. The themes are usually showing movies such as *Roots* or *The Diary of Jane Pittman*. In Social Studies classes, teachers present Thanksgiving and the Westward Movement without giving the perspective of Native Americans. This approach is what exists in most current classrooms.

The Transformation Approach changes the basic perspective of the curriculum from presenting only the mainstream perspective. It enables students to learn concepts, issues, themes, and problems from several different perspectives and different ethnic viewpoints. It explains how mainstream U.S. culture developed from a complex mixture of diverse cultural elements originating from the various ethnic, racial, and religious groups that make up the society in the U.S. (Banks).

The Social Action Approach also includes all the elements of the

Transformation Approach but also adds goals of educating students for social change, social criticism, and decision-making skills. The decision-making skills focus on concepts, issues, and problems that exist in society. It also provides inquiry into data, value inquiry, and moral analysis.

The Social Action Approach looks at educational equality for students with disabilities. It questions the labeling and placement of students into segregated classes when the “disabilities” are primarily a result of culture, class, or gender influences that are different from the mainstream culture. The mainstream culture establishes assessment procedures based upon cultural norms that are different from most ethnic cultural norms, and uses those norms to determine who is able and who is disabled.

In addition, the Multicultural Consensus Panel (Banks, Cookson, Gay, Hawley, Jordan-Irvine, Nieto, Schofield, & Stephan, 2000 p. 5) developed what they consider as Essential Principles for Teaching and Learning in a Multicultural Society. Those principles consist of twelve guidelines, which educational policy and practice related to diversity can use to improve and to increase student academic achievement and group skills. Those principles consist of:

Teacher Learning

Principle 1: Professional development programs should help teachers understand the complex characteristics of ethnic groups within the U.S. society and the ways in which race, ethnicity, language, and social class interact to influence student behavior.

Student Learning

Principle 2: Schools should ensure that all students have equitable

opportunities to learn and to meet high standards.

Principle 3: The curriculum should help students understand that knowledge is socially constructed and reflects researchers' personal experiences as well as the social, political, and economic contexts in which they live and work.

Principle 4: Schools should provide all students with opportunities to participate in extra and co-curricular activities that develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes that increase academic achievement and foster positive interracial relationships.

Inter-group Relations

Principle 5: Schools should create or make salient super-ordinate crosscutting group memberships in order to improve inter-group relations.

Principle 6: Students should learn about stereotyping and other related biases that have negative effects on racial and ethnic relations.

Principle 7: Students should learn about the values shared by virtually all cultural groups (e.g., justice, equality, freedom, peace, compassion, and charity).

Principle 8: Teachers should help students acquire the social skills needed to interact effectively with students from other racial, ethnic, cultural, and language groups.

Principle 9: Schools should provide opportunities for students from different racial, ethnic, cultural, and language groups to interact socially under conditions designed to reduce fear and anxiety.

School Governance, Organization and Equity

Principle 10: A school's organizational strategies should ensure that decision-making is widely shared and that members of the school community learn collaborative skills and dispositions in order to create a caring environment for students.

Principle 11: Leaders should develop strategies that ensure that all public schools, regardless of their locations, are funded equitably.

Assessment

Principle 12: Teachers should use multiple culturally sensitive techniques to assess complex cognitive and social skills.

Nieto's (1996) model of a multicultural curriculum is similar to that of Banks' (2004). Her model consists of Tolerance, Acceptance, Respect, and Affirmation, Solidarity and Critique. The Tolerance level, again, is the lowest level that endures, but does not embrace diversity. The Acceptance level acknowledges differences and importance. This level includes English as a Second Language (ESL) programs and multicultural fairs. The Respect level uses diversity as a basis for most of the educational programming. It exposes students to different ways of approaching situations and allows students to look at the world through a variety of perspectives. The highest level is the Affirmation, Solidarity, and Critique approach, based upon the foundation that the most powerful learning occurs when students work through issues together. It accepts the various cultures of the students, their language, and their families as contributors to the lives of the students. It accepts conflict between cultural beliefs and norms as a part of learning. This model is difficult to achieve because there is a lack of examples or models from which to follow.

Sleeter and Grant (2003) developed five approaches for what they believe multicultural education could be. They contend that schools operate in ways that favor the “haves” (Sleeter and Grant , 2003, p. iv). The first approach is Teaching the Exceptional and Culturally Different. In this approach teachers focus on ways to help low-achieving students catch up in order to be successful in mainstream society. This approach does not advocate changing the existing power structure but focuses on developing practices that help students negotiate between their cultures and the mainstream. Again, this approach is what exists in most classrooms.

The Human Relations approach concentrates on improving emotional and psychological dimensions of the classroom. It looks at how students relate to each other, how they feel about themselves, and their opinions, and reactions to other groups in the community and society. Sleeter and Grant’s third approach is the Single-Group Studies approach which looks at various groups individually, including Native Americans, African Americans, females, or people with disabilities. This approach uses a foundation of research and theorizing from ethnic or cultural studies departments at universities.

The Multicultural Approach involves advocating complete reform of the entire education process to reproduce and maintain diversity. It addresses the scope of curriculum, tracking, grouping, staffing, and testing. In addition, it focuses on improvement of student achievement, but calls for development of a culturally pluralistic mainstream that does support assimilation.

The synthesis and review of literature in this section leads to critical questions such as How does Multicultural Education correlate with effective teaching of

African American students? And What can schools and teachers learn if Multicultural Education is implemented at higher levels in their schools? Further research in these areas in schools and classrooms is needed.

Effective and culturally relevant teaching

In 1954, the Supreme Court ruled in the landmark case *Brown v Board of Education* that it was against the Constitution to have separate schools for African American students (BrownvBoard, 1994). Thurgood Marshall argued not only that separate schools were physically substandard, but that the existence of these was psychologically damaging to African American students (Ladson-Billings, 1994). Fifty years later, some questions have arisen whether the progress promised in the Supreme Court decision has yet been realized since so many African American students fail in school and drop out. It is clear that effective teaching of African American students still does not occur in public schools on a large scale basis (NAEP, 2005)

According to Ladson-Billings (1994), there is a difference between effective teaching and effective teachers. Ladson-Billings states that effective teaching, or the way teachers teach, overwhelmingly affects the way students comprehend the content of the curriculum. According to Giroux and Simon (1989) pedagogy influences how and what knowledge is produced within and among particular sets of social relations. Pedagogy organizes a variety of understandings of the world and draws attention to the process of knowledge production.

If pedagogy influences knowledge and the production of knowledge, in order to be effective for all students, it must address the production of knowledge both in

and out of school. Unfortunately, the research shows that this does not happen. Knowledge that is produced in schools focuses on what is important in the mainstream society, which reflects middle class White standards. Ladson-Billings coined the term *culturally relevant teaching*, which means teachers exhibit pedagogy and create curricula using student culture in order to maintain their culture and transcend the negative effects of the dominant culture (1994). Culturally relevant teaching enables African American students to maintain their culture while achieving academic excellence (Jordan-Irvine, 1990). This is achieved this by empowering students through a holistic approach using aspects of their culture to convey knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Teachers who practice culturally relevant teaching view themselves as part of a community that involves themselves with parents and students working together as a team (Ladson-Billings, 1994). Their relationships with the students extend beyond the classroom.

Vygotsky (1978) research focused on the premise that learning occurs in the social environment. Havinghurst (1976) posited that social classes and ethnic groups are major ecological structures that produce diversity in human lifestyle and development. Ethnicity and cultural behaviors that are a part of that ethnicity have a significant influence on the development and learning of children. Learned behaviors, language, interpersonal patterns, values, and beliefs all greatly influence characteristics of each individual. A very good example of this among White people is found in the differences in the U.S. among people raised in various regions such as the northeast, the midwest, the south, the southwest, and the northwest. These regions all have distinctive cultures, lifestyles, and differences. Many of these differences

stem from the ethnic groups that settled in the regions during the early years of our country. With that in mind, why is the educational system so unwilling to acknowledge cultural differences, not deficits, among African Americans?

Many researchers have developed, or theorized, about different learning styles. Gardner (1993) conceived of the theory of multiple intelligences in which each individual has a specific area he or she is most talented in, whether it is analytical, interpersonal, and/or athletic. Gardner's "MI theory" (1993) has evolved to now include nine intelligences: linguistic, logical mathematical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, kinesthetic, spatial, naturalist, existentialist, and musical. Another theory hypothesized is that of field dependent and independent (Ramirez and Castaneda, (1974) learning. Field independent learners focus on parts, rather than whole, prefer to work independently, are task oriented and inattentive to social environment and seek nonsocial rewards. Conversely, field dependent learners focus on the whole rather than the parts, like to work with others, are sensitive to feelings and opinions of others, and relate to lessons in which concepts are presented in humanized or story format. Cohen (1969) identified two styles of learning, the analytical style, and the relational style. The analytical style refers to methods of selecting and classifying information, while the relational style refers to the process of growth of information. Ball and Cohen (1969) argue that the school requires analytical cognitive organization and theorizes that students who have not developed these skills will often be poor achievers in school.

Furthermore, Ball and Cohen state that cultural differences occur when children have not had experiences that provide them with the required informational

skills for school. Cultural conflict occurs when the child's learning style differs from the analytical and behavioral style emphasized at school. Learned behavior, language, interpersonal patterns, values, beliefs, and general cultural context of a person typically and historically determine a learner's cognitive style .

When teachers work with students, they may not understand the cultural differences and background experiences students bring to their classrooms. Those problems of a cross-cultural disconnect can be overcome through engaging in guidelines and standards for effective teaching.

Teaching Standards for general and special education

Two educational organizations developed standards for the preparation and licensure of teachers. The Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) defined a set of procedures and standards for certification of new teachers, and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) established standards for experienced teachers. In addition, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) is the institution responsible for accreditation of teacher education programs and developed a specific set of standards for teacher preparation (National Research Council, 2001). Each of these standards "sets" explicitly address diversity.

The three different agencies/professional organizations have specific "criteria" or characteristics they deem imperative for a teacher of quality. Standards include that teachers should: Understand the process through which children learn and develop; be committed to furthering students' learning; have deep knowledge of the subject they teach and be able to convey this knowledge to students in ways that engage

student inquiry; manage and monitor students' learning and reflect on teaching practices, making any needed adjustments to keep all students engaged in the learning process; and forge relationships with members of the broader educational community in order to foster students' learning.

Specifically, there are NBPTS standards for teachers of students with exceptional needs. Those standards include: Preparing for Student Learning, Knowledge of Students, Knowledge of Special Education, Communications, Diversity, Knowledge of Subject Matter, Advanced Student Learning, Meaningful Learning, Multiple Paths to Knowledge, Social Development, Supporting Student Learning, Assessment, Learning Environment, Instructional Resources, and Family Partnerships.

Different studies indicate student achievement gains on test scores are higher for students taught by an NBCT teacher than for students who were taught by non-certified board teachers. In a study by Goldhaber and Anthony (2004) it was determined that student gains of those taught by NBCT exceeded those taught by non-certified teachers by approximately 4 percent in reading and 5 percent in math.

Vandevoort, Amrein-Beardsley, and Berliner (2004) confirmed higher achievement as well as higher ratings by building principals in their research of NBCT teachers and student achievement. Between the years 1999-2003 students of NBCT teachers achieved higher than students taught by teachers non-NBCT teachers on 72.9% of tests. The mean difference in effect sizes for all subjects over all the years was +0.12 (p. 34). An analysis of this indicates that on average, students of NBCTs made over 1.3 and 1.4 months greater gains in reading and math,

respectively, than did their peers taught by non-NBCT teachers.

Cavalluzzo (2004) addresses the question of whether National Board Certification is an indicator of effective teaching. The findings of this study indicate that students with teachers certified through NBPTS gain 12 percent of a standard deviation in mathematics compared to students who were not taught by NBCT teachers. In addition, students with NBCT teachers gain from 7 to 8 percent of a standard deviation higher overall, than students taught by teachers not certified by NBPTS. Significantly, further results indicate that NBCT teachers benefit African American and Hispanic students more than they benefit other students.

Presently, several on-going research studies will end and be published within the current year. Research at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill by O'Sullivan (2005) focuses on the use of assessment by NBCTs as compared to teachers not board certified. A study by McColskey (2005) at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro questions how the effectiveness of NBCT teachers compares with non-board certified teachers in the areas of student achievement data, and secondly, what changes in teaching occur during the certification process. Research at Appalachian State by Smith (2005) questions whether NBCT teachers can be distinguished from non-board certified teachers based upon the quality of student work. Herrington (2005) at Florida State University examines what difference certification through NBPTS makes, whether it has broader effects on teaching and schools, and what factors support or hinder NBPTS certification.

Classroom achievement and other measures of teacher performance are factors Kane, Rockoff, and Staiger (2005) are researching at UCLA. Lustick (2005),

an NBCT teacher at Michigan State, questions what teachers learn from National Board certification. The effects of mentors for candidates for NBPTS certification is also being studied by Freund (2005) at George Washington University, and a similar study by Cohen and Rice (2005) with The Finance Project looks at what factors and resources are most significant in the preparation for board certification. At the University of Washington, Goldhaber and Anthony (2004), who have previously conducted studies about the effectiveness of National Board certification, are looking at National Board certification and the impact of the certification on teacher career paths.

Humphrey (2004), of SRI International is examining the effect of National Board certification on low-performing schools. Increasing the support and number of African American candidates for certification through NBPTS is the focus for Howard's research (2005) at UCLA. School improvement and the use of NBCT teachers as resources for schools is currently being studied by Darling-Hammond of Stanford and Sykes (2003) at Michigan State, while Graham (2005) at the University of Georgia looks at the motivation factors for participation in National Board certification, nature of change throughout the process, and is teacher change reflected in student work. As NBPTS certification research is a relatively new field in the research on teaching, many studies are underway or in progress, and little research is available in this area.

Students require knowledge and skills at a much higher level than was previously seen at the K-12 level. Many myths exist that lead potential future teachers into the field. Those myths create the impression that teaching is not hard, that anyone

can walk into a classroom, open a book, and teach, will have their summers off, and that veteran teachers require only minimal amounts of professional development. Many of those people who do not understand the realities of teaching, may perpetuate the status quo of a “one size fits all” model which still exists in education.

Critical Race Theory

A body of literature supports that school districts need to incorporate critical race theory into their professional development trainings (Ladson-Billings and Tate, 1995, Ladson-Billings, 1999, Dixson and Rousseau, 2005). Critical race theory tackles discussions about racism in all contexts. With the history of the U.S., and its diverse population, it is inevitable that prejudices and biases will and do exist. What is essentially the most damaging to an ideal of equality of education for all students is the extent those biases and prejudices effect teachers and administrators in schools, which ultimately, effects most notably the education of minority students and students with learning problems. As long as education structures, systems, and pedagogies exist without addressing biases, prejudices and socioeconomic inequities, there will be continued problems (Freire, 1990) which limit the life opportunities for significant numbers of students.

The provision of special education services is intended as an array of services for students, not as a place to put students, so general education teachers do not have to work with them. The fact is that most students placed in special education classrooms exhibit behavior that general education teachers are not trained to handle and do not want to have to handle. That is a significant contributing factor to students' placement in special education.

Based upon the research reviewed and cited in this dissertation and elsewhere, behaviors exhibited by many African American students, both male and female, are cultural behaviors, yet, the behaviors are often deemed inappropriate for classroom settings. Educators do not have the right to throw a child out the window, so to speak, because tolerance and acceptance levels do not match with the child's cultural behaviors.

For too long the educational system has expected students to fit into a little White, middle class background box. When a particular student does not fit, then the student typically is labeled as the one "with the problem." No longer can administrators and teachers demand behaviors of students that are not in accordance with students' own lifestyles and traditions. No longer can teachers penalize students for not turning in forms, work, etc., when that child may possibly not have had the sleep or the food necessary to enable that child to function in school. No longer should teachers assume a student doesn't want to learn and let them sleep or not work and just fail them. The entire student needs to be addressed, not just the academic portion (Ladson-Billings, 1994). Educators must look at the cultural styles of students to serve them effectively.

African American cultural styles

According to Hale (1982), African American students grow up in a distinct culture and need the educational system to recognize their strengths, abilities and their culture and incorporate this into the educational process in the same manner the mainstream culture is incorporated.

African American families have strong family and community bonds. This is

evident in the various families involved in students' lives. As a classroom teacher, this author frequently hears students talking about grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins living with them or visiting them. When parents work late hours, the children often go to the grandparents' house and frequently spend the night there. Relatives usually live within the same neighborhood or close to the neighborhood. Adolescent children may even go to live with a grandparent or aunt when having conflicts with a parent.

According to Hill (1999), these strong family bonds stem from African tribal culture. The two pivotal characteristics of the African way of life are survival of the tribe and the oneness of being. Along with this are principles of cooperative work and collective responsibility. All family members, men, women, and older children share the responsibility for childcare. In addition to the family members sharing the responsibility, African American families usually have a strong religious orientation, which provides an additional extended family fellowship for childcare and also material and human resources for the family.

Hale (1982) conducted a study with African American and White grandmothers about how they transmit their culture to their children and grandchildren. As noted previously, African Americans provide support throughout their community to raising children. Hale's study supported this theory when the researcher found differences in beliefs about abortion among young, unmarried women. African American grandmothers were opposed to abortion while White grandmothers supported abortion because of lack of marriage. In child rearing, African American grandmothers were more inclined to use corporal punishment,

while White grandmothers were not. In addition, African American grandmothers believed it was important for their grandchildren to know how to fight, and to fight back if they were hit in school. White grandmothers, however, believed their grandchildren should tell their parents or the teacher rather than engage in fighting.

African folktales have survived the tragedy of slavery and are still passed down to children through the grandmothers. One part of Hale's survey (1982) questioned the grandmothers about certain magical beliefs surrounding childbirth. The African American grandmothers were familiar with the stories, while White grandmothers were not. This is another indication of retention of African culture by African American families, while White grandmothers shared folklore from their own ethnic heritages.

As with all cultures, African Americans have certain characteristics that influence child rearing. One of those is the high emotional level in demonstrated behaviors of African Americans as a cultural group. They are typically feeling-oriented, people-oriented, and more proficient at non-verbal communication, which is shown through students' need to talk frequently, get up and visit with friends on the other side of the room, or talk with friends in the hall. This is in direct contrast to the educational system that is very object oriented and more "top down" in nature (Hale-Benson, 1982).

Studies conducted in the sixties and seventies indicated that African American infants are more developmentally advanced than White children are during the first year (Ainsworth, 1967; Brazelton, Koslowski, and Tronick, 1976). Morgan (1976) found that African American children are more active and have more physical energy

than White children have. He further suggests that African American children need an active environment for successful learning. This correlates with studies conducted by Boykin (2001), which indicate African American children are more successful in an atmosphere that allows music and physical movement opportunities to respond to the music.

Cultural and familial practices determine the manner in which parents raise their children. According to Franklin (1992), typically, White children are more object oriented than African American children. White children have available to them from infancy on manipulative objects for exploration. African American children may not. The focus of their upbringing is on people. As babies, the mother or other family members hold African American children most of the time. Few objects are made available for them.

African American children are also expected to be responsible at an early age (Bartz & Levine, 1978). Mothers direct children in their chores in a “call-response” style similar to that used in church and music (Hale-Benson, 1986). Parents of African American children value strictness, while at the same time value creative functioning. They are not easily frustrated by “typical” childhood behavior, and in fact, encourage creative behavior (Greathouse, Gomez & Worster, 1988), which may contribute to cultural conflicts between the home and school.

Because of the emphasis on socialization and people, African American students frequently need teacher attention, nurturance, and acceptance. Constant encouragement, recognition, warmth, and reassurance are all characteristics of African American learners as a cultural group (Silverstein & Krate, 1975). This

finding correlates with field dependent learners. When these needs are not met in the classroom, students often become frustrated, angry, and disruptive (Franklin, 1992).

What teachers consider disruptive behavior of African American students in classrooms may be encouraged by parents at home in order for their children to avoid victimization in the neighborhood (McIntyre, 1992). Many African American parents encourage their children to fight because of the dangers of the neighborhoods in which they live. The same behaviors that keep them safe at home impede success at school. Typical behaviors exhibited that cause problems are aggression, fighting, defiance, and ridicule (McIntyre, 1992).

In addition, many individuals from low socioeconomic backgrounds, regardless of ethnicity, use harsh, inconsistent physical discipline at home (Horton & Hunt, 1968; Hanna, 1988). As a result, low-income students may act up in defiance to the teacher because they know the teacher is not allowed to use physical punishment, and they view the alternative punishments (detention, in-school suspension) as insignificant. Students also may have developed an avoidance reaction style to discipline because of the physical punishment at home, and may come to view physical punishment as a form of caring (Rosenfeld, 1971; Silverstein & Krate, 1975).

Many minority youth are under great pressure from peers to not succeed in school (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990; Hanna, 1988; Ogbu, 1990). There is a resistance to “acting white” documented in the research (Fordham, 1988; Gibson, 1988; Ogbu, 1988; Ogbu, 1990). This is manifested through such behaviors as being the class clown, not participating in class, not doing the work, etc. In the motion picture,

Finding Forrester (2000) public high school officials discover a young man has exceptionally high test scores, which greatly surprises the school administration because he is a “C” student. The young man turns out to be exceptionally bright and a gifted writer and transfers to a private high school for elite students. The movie portrays how African American students do not want to be perceived as crossing over to the “other side” And how this young man deals with his potential with the support of caring mentors and advocates.

The characteristic of African American students that almost certainly causes significant cultural conflict in school is their need for stimulation or “soulfulness” (Hale, 2001). African American children enter school excited but become bored and turned off by the traditional restrictive environments of school (Boykin, 1986). The home environments of African American children are what White middle class perceptions view as “hectic.” There is often continual stimulation in the form of music constantly playing in the background, televisions are on, many people come and go throughout the day, and loud conversations occur with the people present. Children grow up in this environment, and as was previously stated are capable of performing several tasks at one time and being able to attend to each of those tasks.

When compared with the classroom environment, it is no wonder African American children appear to be bored and uninterested by school. If students fall asleep during class, more likely than not, that behavior is from boredom. According to Hale (2001), children who cannot conjecture a future for themselves are not motivated to defer gratification. Society now relies on sports figures to encourage students to stay in school. Once schools become culturally significant, we may no

longer need sports figures for that “role model” purpose (Hale, 2001). At the current time, however, school is often not a place of acceptance and reassurance, and the behavioral problems experienced by many African American students exhibits are manifested through resistant behaviors.

Students of low economic status, underachievement, low achievement, and living in urban areas, which describe many special education students, are at a high risk for suspension from school (Townsend, 2000). Cultural conflicts such as physical aggression (Costenbader & Markson, 1994), noncompliance, and insubordination (Skiba, Peterson, & Williams, 1997) often result in disciplinary referrals for African American students. In addition, African American students are able to be involved in multiple tasks at the same time such as talking with friends and doing schoolwork. This behavior frequently results in teachers perceiving students as not attending to task and willfully ignoring the directives. The ensuing verbal confrontations between the teacher and student usually also result in discipline referrals for the student. Another behavior African American students frequently exhibit is what is known as “stage setting” (Townsend, 2000). Students execute certain behaviors such as sharpening pencils, socializing, or using the bathroom before beginning the assigned task. Teachers interpret this behavior as task avoidance and assume the student is not capable or unwilling to complete the task. The conclusion of this interchange may end in an ultimate referral for special education, particularly if the student is experiencing academic problems.

Effective teaching of African American Students

In a study conducted by McIntyre and Battle (1998), characteristics, were

identified by African American and White students, of teachers of students with behavior disorders. A good teacher in an ineffective school can still increase a student's desire to attend class, work harder and better, and have better behavior, than a weak teacher. A significant factor for students, in McIntyre and Battle's research (1998) was that they like, admire, and respect, the teacher.

According to Morsink, Fardig, Algozzine and Algozzine, (1987) three groups of teacher competencies exist: generic, those required by both general and special education teachers; core, those needed by teachers of disabled students regardless of the disability; and specialized, those skills specific to effective teaching in a particular area of disability. The generic skills surface for adequate management of typical behavior problems. However, different attitudes and additional skills appear to be necessary for effective teaching of students with behavioral disorders (Kaufmann & Wong, 1991, p 225). Teachers who work with students with behavioral disorders are more tolerant and less demanding than are general education teachers (Algozzine, 1980; Kerr & Zigmond, 1986; Safran & Safran, 1987; Walker, 1986; Walker & Lamon, 1987; Walker & Rankin, 1983). According to Cullinan, Epstein and Schultz (1987) specific characteristics that are required by teachers who work with students with emotional and behavior disorders (EBD) are fairness, sensitivity, empathy, persistence, humor, enthusiasm, and ability to remain calm in a crisis. In addition, other beneficial skills are self-efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986), counseling skills (Mackie, Kvaraceus & Williams, 1957), and establishment of clear-cut classroom expectations (Polsgrove & Rieth, 1979). McIntyre's research (1991; 1996a) found that students with EBD respect teachers they consider to be humorous, confident, and

“street-smart” and provide opportunities for action-oriented lessons.

McIntyre and Battle (1998) gathered data from their study conducted with different students in EBD programs at eleven different sites. There were seven focus groups of EBD students who addressed four perceptions. Those perceptions consisted of personality traits, respectful treatment of students, behavior management techniques, and instructional skills. The demographics of the group surveyed included 188 students of which 82% were African American, 14% were female, and the average age was twelve. According to the results of surveys, students’ perceptions were that personality traits and respectful treatment of students were most important. In addition, African American students believed humor, being entertaining, having a relaxed personality, and exhibiting caring were the most important characteristics for teachers. This correlates with other research that indicates community and interpersonal relationships are highly important in school.

As was indicated in the previous chapter, cultural misunderstandings between White teachers and African American students are a significant contributor towards the achievement gap between academic levels of African American students and White students. The cultural mismatch theory (Howard, 2001) proposes that when critical components of teaching and learning conflict between the student and the teacher, negative outcomes for students may exist. Critical components are those that empower students in all areas of social, emotional, political, and intellectual context by enabling students to use the knowledge they possess from their cultures in school. These components are what educational researchers define as culturally relevant (Ladson-Billings, 1995a). In a study by Howard (2001), the researcher chose four of

twelve teachers to observe based upon a minimum of 15/20 practices considered a framework for culturally relevant teaching. Those practices consist of communication styles, culture and learning, and perceptions of knowledge. Communication styles involve the ability to use expressive individualism, being straightforward, having a direct approach with students, using Black Vernacular English (BVE), exhibiting effective oral expression, possessing social interaction styles that are common among the African American community, and demonstrating non-verbal communication. Howard (2001) found that culture and learning encompass community solidarity, warm demands of students, affirmation of students' cultural identity, high expectations for students, emphasis on collaboration and the collective good of the class, and learning as a social process. The perceptions of knowledge consist of a subjective view of knowledge, critical view of knowledge, emphasis of skill development, use of students' cultural knowledge, and creating new knowledge.

Data collected by Howard (2001) revealed three major pedagogical themes in cross-culturally competent classrooms: holistic instructional strategies, culturally consistent communicative competencies and skill-building strategies to promote academic success. The holistic instructional strategies teachers of African American students embrace include concern with not just academic and cognitive growth, but also social, emotional, and moral growth. Additionally, according to Howard (2001), this approach stresses character building in order to develop students into people who have traits of honesty, responsibility, respect, skills in a wide range of areas, cooperation, sympathy, and empathy, and behavior consistent with the social norms of their classrooms and communities. Furthermore, holistic instructional strategies

exemplify the belief that education is a comprehensive and integrative approach to develop students' cognitive aptitudes, integrity, and good judgment.

Teachers who encompass a holistic approach of serving students through their practice utilize community service learning, stress public behavior and social etiquette, and instruct students on negative stereotypes about African Americans and ways to refute those stereotypes through their behaviors. Moreover, holistic teachers incorporate into their daily routines values of perseverance and respect for authority (Howard, 2001). They believe that students must learn that all societal positions, whether students, parents, teachers, or principals, have people with authority over them to which they must answer whether they agree or not. Teachers try to convey that respecting authority is not giving away who you are as a person or changing yourself to please the authorities, but that this is a necessity in an information based society.

The use of culturally consistent communicative skills is the practice of discourse and language patterns, person-to-person interactions, and vocabulary in the classroom that is similar to that which the students use in their homes. Frequently, teachers of the mainstream culture address students in a different manner than what the students hear at home (Delpit, 1995). An example is that of a middle class, White female teacher who might say to a student "Would you please sit down?" or "Would you please be quiet?" whereas a mother (or a teacher familiar with cultural styles) might say "Sit down in that desk *now*!" The difference between the styles can alter the effects of the classroom in management and behavioral styles alone. Parents of urban students raise their children to be aggressive and assertive as a survival instinct,

and when that aggressiveness and assertiveness is missing from a person in authority, students lose respect for that person (Delpit, 1995; Tatum, 1997).

Additionally, most ethnic cultures are verbal as opposed to the written communication styles of mainstream society. The difference in communication styles contributes to a breakdown in communication between the groups (Michaels, 1981; Heath, 1981; Gee, 1985). That breakdown manifests itself through the lower achievement levels of minority students. Teachers may overcome this obstacle with analogies or metaphors to help students make the connections. Students will make connections with application to their real world. Teachers should address differences in language of Black English Vernacular (BEV) and mainstream language and explain the differences and appropriate use. The concept of “code switching” is something students need to understand (Delpit, 2002). In addition, discussions about different kinds of intelligence or levels of “smartness” help all students understand strengths and weaknesses of each student’s learning potential and aids in processing concepts of disabilities and abilities.

In a study of nineteen individual expert special educators, Stough and Palmer (2003) found several interrelated categories that contribute to success with students in special education classrooms. The study took place across a range of instructional settings, instructional levels, and student disability classifications. The most significant study was the teacher concern directed not just at academic, but also emphasis on behavioral and emotional progress and the student’s ability to function independently in the classroom.

Expert special educators relied heavily upon their prior knowledge about

education practices used within the daily confines of their classrooms (Stough & Palmer, 2003). Specifically, these educators looked at knowledge of their students and their various learning styles, behavioral patterns, home environments and the role each plays, student emotionality, and diagnostic categories. The teacher's own knowledge of educational practices consisted of curriculum, the overall school culture, content, specific tasks, and general pedagogical best practices. Regardless of their specialization field, expert teachers continually reflected upon their daily instruction to determine what they could have improved upon or changed to make the lesson better.

The central phenomenon of teacher concern permeated all areas in the study, previously described, not just in the academic area (Stough & Palmer, 2003). Students were the central focus and motivator of the teacher, and the concern was directed at individual students not at the class as a whole. Increasing the self-esteem and independence level of students was a significant factor for teachers. The knowledge level of the teacher contributed to successful relationships with students. Each teacher appeared to have an impressive knowledge about each individual student in his or her classroom. The teacher knowledge included the issues of each student's individual ability, personal history, learning problems, and best learning situations for the students. The knowledge of the personal history and home environments of students was a crucial piece of information as so many times what happens outside of school, at home, or in the neighborhood, transfers into school and disrupts the student's ability to focus and learn. Through the teacher's awareness of those situations, he/she could design instructional strategies that have a high probability of effectiveness.

Instructional strategies that might be implemented by teachers are repeating material, reinforcing students, modeling, scaffolding students' learning, mediation of the assignment, reteaching material, prompting/cueing, more practice, presentation of material through various modalities, use of visuals and manipulatives, decreasing the amount of copying, peer tutors, cooperative learning, and altering pace of the instruction (Stough & Palmer, 2003).

Effective teaching does not include simply instructional strategies but behavioral and classroom management strategies also. The classroom management procedures involve established routines for students as a means of preventing behavioral problems (Stough & Palmer, 2003; McIntyre, 1992; Webb-Johnson, 2002). Those might include seating arrangements and the overall classroom environment. Behavioral strategies implemented would ideally incorporate proactive means of preventing problems, as was previously noted in this review. Prior to intervention, teachers would take into consideration the extent to which the behaviors affected the teacher's ability to deliver instruction or the extent to which these students impeded other student's ability to learn.

Frequently, teachers would ignore low levels of misbehavior such as quiet talking. Intervention would occur once the teacher reflected upon his or her knowledge of the specific students and the specific incident. Teachers watched behavioral patterns to determine when something *might* happen, or *was about to happen*, and then would intervene (Stough & Palmer, 2003, Webb-Johnson, 2002). They frequently used behavioral strategies that redirected the student or de-escalated potential management challenges rather than call attention to the behavior. Many

times the behaviors students exhibit actually is a negative attention-getting behavior used for a specific purpose, and redirection removes the negative attention of the behavior rather than buying into students' game playing. Teachers in this study (Stough & Palmer, 2003) appeared to resort less to reactive strategies and focus instead on the prevention of behavior problems by the use of proactive strategies. The positive or proactive strategies typically consisted of encouragement, praise, and motivation to do well and succeed.

According to Clark and Peterson (1986) and Doyle (1990), special educators must make extensive behavioral and instructional decisions on a daily basis. Students with learning and behavioral problems have specific challenges and needs, and teachers must be able to manage the complexity of the daily requirements of students with special needs. The strategic, knowledgeable, and reflective utilization of instructional interventions in the middle, or the focus of the instructional moment, appear to be the essence of effective instruction (Stough & Palmer, 2003). General education teachers channel pedagogical and content knowledge into the design of the instruction (Shulman, 1986) whereas special education teachers channel their extensive knowledge into concern for the academic and emotional needs of the individual students (Berliner, 1987; Clark & Peterson, 1986).

The holistic approach or concept of looking at the entire student, not simply academics, is the essence of effective teaching. Complex knowledge about the whole child, coupled with concern about academics, behavioral, emotional and independence needs of the student is central to effective teaching in special education.

Educators must question themselves about how they can most effectively

reach African American children. Since the initial reform movement of the 1980s, the goal of educators is to reach each student at his or her level, to teach according to the individual styles of the children, and to adapt the classroom to the children, rather than attempting to adapt the children to the classroom (Stough & Palmer, 2003).

When looking at achievement scores of African American students, it is apparent the latter philosophy of adapting the children to the classroom is not occurring. What then is effective with African American children? What must the educational system do to improve the educational outcomes of African American students both in regular and special education classes?

Haberman (1995) has developed guidelines to ascertain what his body of research defines as effective teachers of children and youth in poverty. He maintains that teachers of students in poverty fall into categories of “star” or “quitters and burnouts”. According to Haberman (1995), effective teachers of urban students have a vision and demonstrate a humane, respectful, caring attitude towards the students. They exhibit persistence in an endless search of what works well with their students. Their philosophy is that there will always be students who are “at-risk” in every class so rather than attempting to change the student, the teacher needs to adapt to the needs of the student. Effective teachers (Haberman, 1995) are able to identify institutional causes that contribute to at-risk populations such as irrelevant curriculum, poor teaching, racism, classism, and bureaucracy. Not only do effective teachers acknowledge problematic issues, they also address these issues to the extent that they are involved in a daily struggle to broaden the boundaries enforced by required curriculum. They frequently find themselves at odds with the bureaucratic

administration of urban schools.

Other characteristics of effective teachers of urban students are that they are able to generate practical, specific applications of theories and philosophies, and have the physical and emotional stamina required to persist in situations characterized by continual crisis, a predisposition to violence and apathy (Haberman, 1995). Effective teachers also realize that for children of poverty, education is a matter of life or death in that these children frequently lack the family resources, networks, and out-of-school experiences required for advancing through high school, into college, and achieving success in college.

In addition to philosophical differences, there are also practical, pedagogical differences between effective and ineffective teachers of African American students (Haberman, 1995). Teachers who are successful with African American students use task variability in the lessons. They understand the importance of socialization to the students and incorporate that into peer group and cooperative learning groups, and are able to adapt the curriculum to the needs of students.

Rather than using stories and examples from only White middle class and dominant, majority cultures, teachers should incorporate heroes and sheroes from a variety of cultures (Haberman, 1995). When students are not able to relate to something they read, it is difficult to be interested in the topic. An example of this may be seen from a set of released items from Kentucky Core Content Tests (KCCT, 1999). Throughout the test for 7th and 8th grades for the year 1999, with the exception of using “ethnic” names such as Juan, there are no stories or references to diversity backgrounds and experiences. Many of the content pieces involve topics with which

students from low economic backgrounds would not be able to identify.

Stimulus variability is integrated into teachers' daily lessons through faster pacing of instruction, incorporating body movement, and varying the instructional format. Use of technology in the form of computer software and Power Point lessons, and media such as music and videos, are all utilized to grab attention of students. With music and videos, teachers are able to address the need for verve and rhythm of the students (Franklin, 1992). Verbal interactions such as rap, chants, and responsive readings (Piestrup, 1973) are also important teaching tools. As was previously mentioned, the African American culture has an abundance of stimulation, intensity, and variation. It produces an almost chronic activation level, which results in children having an increased behavioral level and a psychological propensity for stimulus change and intensity (Boykin, 2001).

Boykin (1986) maintains that the African American cultural themes of verve (receptiveness toward high levels of stimulation), movement, and communalism (interdependence upon people) are opposite that of mainstream cultural themes. Those themes that dictate the atmosphere in schools are individualism, competition (in order for someone to win, someone must lose), and bureaucratic orientation of strict adherence to structured roles and regulations. A significant number of White, middle class teachers interpret the African American cultural need for movement and stimulus as attention deficit and hyperactivity, attention-seeking behavior, irritability and quarrelsome behavior (Boykin, 1982; 1986; Gay, 2000).

It is ethically necessary for the educational system and teachers to acknowledge that the learning and behavioral styles of African American students are

not deficient, just different, and incompatible with rigid and “majority-based” school standards. The ecological perspective (Hallahan, Kauffman & Lloyd, 1985) purports that because standards of normality and abnormality “vary among cultures and social groups and change with such factors as time, socioeconomic conditions, and political realities...one cannot arbitrarily classify a given social behavior as desirable or undesirable, but must take into account the context in which the behavior occurs” (p. 142).

Another issue the literature review spotlights is how teachers make necessary, cross-cultural change in attitudes, beliefs, and required behaviors. The answer lies in professional development and continuing education in both areas of inservice and preservice teachers (Spindler & Spindler, 1993, 1994). Teachers must become aware of their own cultural socialization, determine how it affects their personal beliefs about people from diverse cultures, and in turn, how these beliefs and disposition inform practice.

Spindler and Spindler (1993, 1994) developed what they term cultural therapy, which combines critical cultural consciousness with pedagogical skill development. The cultural therapy model consists of teachers revealing and analyzing their own cultural values, stereotypes, and philosophies, and reflecting how these shape their own behavior and interactions with students of color. The cultural therapy model also helps to determine ways to minimize the effects of negative influences and how to eliminate those influences from instructional practices. The model also addresses what values from other cultures it is important to have knowledge of and to affirm through pedagogies and assessments.

These specific values are communication styles, learning styles, contributions, social problems, and levels of ethnic identity and affiliation (Gay, 1994). A specific example of how communication styles might present a conflict in the classroom correlates to African American call-response. During church services, African American participants make responses to things the minister might say. While in school, many African American students respond in a similar manner while the teacher is presenting a lesson. The teacher may make a statement for which the student has an opinion, and the student may make a comment. The comment is usually not directed at anyone in particular, but the teacher may interpret the comment as being disrespectful and disrupting the lesson. The interaction between the teacher and student could escalate to a level in which a disciplinary referral is made.

As was previously reviewed in the literature, the behavior of “stage setting” is something teachers need to be aware of and able to accept that behavior without viewing it as disruptive. Another perspective that could be of assistance to teachers is to choose their battles or the “so what” test (Townsend, 2001), which is the teacher must ask herself how disruptive the behavior is and if it really makes a difference whether the student begins the task immediately or takes a few minutes to sharpen pencils, etc.

Historically, the concept of a qualified teacher is one with advanced degrees, experience and certification. The existing body of research, however, indicates those qualities as poor predictors of teacher quality. What is documented in the research elsewhere to be a significant contributor, however, is teacher academic proficiency (Goldhaber, 2002).

With the new requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act ([NCLB Section 9101(23)] (U. S. Department of Education, 2002), schools are now aware they no longer can just shove students aside who don't achieve. The law requires each state to determine what it considers adequate yearly progress, which defines what, is minimum progress in terms of student performance, and which schools must achieve at what levels within a specific time period. In addition, all teachers who teach core content (reading, mathematics, social studies, science, and writing) must be highly qualified by the 2005-2006 school year. The law defines a highly qualified teacher as someone who has a bachelor's degree, full state certification, and licensure as defined by the state, and demonstrated competency as defined by the state, in each core academic subject he or she teaches (U.S. Department of Education, 2002).

The profession of teaching has some of the most extensive economic and social consequences for children in the U.S. A growing body of research indicates the quality of teaching a student receives is the single most important determinant, outside of home and family circumstances, of the student's academic success. Sanders and Rivers' research (1996) in Tennessee found that students who had effective teachers for three consecutive years showed a significant increase in their percentile rankings on state required tests, regardless of socioeconomic factors.

Research published since the Coleman Report (1966) confirms that high quality teachers raise student achievement levels. The research even further indicates that teachers are the most important single education factor influencing student outcomes (Goldhaber & Eide, 2003; Goldhaber, 2002; Ferguson, 1998; Goldhaber, Brewer, & Anderson, 1999; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 1999; Wright, Horn, &

Sanders, 1997). Further studies with data collected with the Dallas Public Schools indicate that teacher quality has a greater impact on student success than any other schooling factor. These studies suggest that there is a wide range of quality and effectiveness among teachers; effective teachers are effective with all populations of students, but also particularly with diverse populations; and the impact of teacher effects can be long reaching even after students no longer have a specific teacher (Jordan, Mendro, & Weeasinghe, 1997).

Using data from the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System ([TVAAS] Sanders & Rivers, 1996), researchers grouped teachers into quintiles based upon teacher effectiveness ranging from highest to lowest. They then estimated what student gains on standardized tests would be realized within a year period when taught by the various teachers. The results were alarming. Researchers found high achieving students with the most effective teachers gained an average of 25 points while high achieving students with ineffective teachers gained only 2 points. In addition, Sanders and Rivers (1996) found that low-achieving students with effective teachers gained 50 points while low achieving students with ineffective teachers gained 14 points.

Pedagogical methods also significantly influence achievement levels of students but research is unclear with regard to which aspects of pedagogical preparation are the most critical. Brophy and Good (1986) found evidence that teaching practices of highly effective teachers were different from their peers. Effective teachers plan lessons carefully, select appropriate materials, made their goals clear to students, maintained a brisk pace, check the students' work regularly,

assessed the students formatively and summatively, and retaught when necessary. The teachers in this research also had high expectations for students, and believed all students can learn.

Conclusion

This chapter was divided into eight sections that addressed literature and research about the history of African American education in the United States, the causes of overrepresentation, curriculum in the schools and multicultural curriculum, effective teaching, standards, critical race theory, African American cultural styles, and effective teaching of African American students. The first section focused on the history of African American education in the United States and the history of Civil Rights for students with disabilities, and including factors that contribute to overrepresentation. The second section pertained to curriculum models developed by researchers for multicultural education, what researchers consider as effective teaching, and teaching standards. The third section reviewed critical race theory, cultural styles of African American students, and effective teaching of African American students.

This chapter has attempted to selectively review an extensive body of multi-disciplinary research on the history of education of African American students in the United States. The landmark case of *Brown v Board of Education* (*Brown v Board*, 2004) was the beginning of the change in segregated educational facilities for African American students. The struggle continued with the Little Rock Nine integrating schools in Little Rock, Arkansas, James Meredith integrating the University of Mississippi, and Dr. Martin Luther King directing non-violent protests for equality.

Passage of the Civil Rights Law in 1964 ended other areas of discrimination against minorities, which eventually led to passage of P.L.94-142, which ultimately became the Education for All Handicapped Children Act passed in 1973.

Although laws protect the education of all students and the intent is to provide an equal education for all students, not all students do receive equality in education. Belief systems of teachers and administrators many times determine the equality of a child's education. If a teacher believes students are capable of only "so much," they may not provide a curriculum with high standards for those children, relying more upon a general curriculum rather than one that challenges or differentiates for students. According to Nespor (1987), the knowledge taught and learned in schools is a social construction built around historical and structural processes. A teacher's belief system becomes a personal pedagogy or private theory to guide the teacher's practice (Nespor; Ryan, Metcalf-Turner, & Larson, 2002).

Many minority students, particularly African American students, do not achieve at the academic levels required for specific grade level, which ultimately leads to placement in special education programs. African American students are overrepresented in special education, as is indicated consistency in the research literature. The literature review in this chapter substantiates the various causes of overrepresentation. Curriculum models developed by researchers for multicultural education and effective teaching of African American students are also addressed in this review, along with cultural styles of African American students. According to researchers, many of the causes of overrepresentation are due to the focus of the educational system on middle class, White standards that conflict with the cultural

nuances of different ethnic groups (Boykin, 1983; Boykin & Bailey, 2001; Webb-Johnson, 1999).

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2000) developed standards that reflect what the board and its affiliated constituency groups contend that teachers should know and do in order to be effective board certified teachers. These NBPTS standards are guidelines for experienced teachers with regard to what teachers can do to become more effective and focus on specific instructional areas such as exceptional children. Other educational organizations that have established standards or criteria for effective teaching of minorities are the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC); the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE); and the National Research Council (NRC).

Finally, the literature review in this chapter addressed both critical race theory and future implications of this theory for teaching. Critical race theory addresses racism, biases, prejudices, and power structures. The most damaging element to equality of education for all students is the extent to which those biases and prejudices effect teachers and administrators in schools ultimately effect the education of minority students and students with learning problems. If all students are to have an equitable opportunity in life, the nature of the educational system must change in order to meet the needs of all students. Multicultural curriculum and pedagogy need additional study, specifically related to learning, as does research the needs of special education populations.

Chapter Three discusses the methodology and design of the study, data

sources, the research approval process, and data analysis procedures. The guiding constructs/context for the research questions are also reviewed.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The prevailing theme of this study is focused on what makes a teacher effective when working with African American students who receive special education services in middle and high school settings. One of the goals of the study has been to determine the differences between teachers certified through National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) and Highly Qualified Master's Level degree teachers. An additional goal of the study has been to determine what may be learned from NBPTS teachers and Highly Qualified teachers in relation to best practices for African American students who receive special education services.

Research questions

1. What are the distinctions, or differences between teachers certified by National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) and non-NBPTS certified teachers who are Highly Qualified (according to No Child Left Behind guidelines) in the area of self-efficacy for effective teaching of African American students who receive special education services in middle or high schools?

Hypothesis: There are differences between National Board Certified teachers and Highly Qualified teachers in the area of self-efficacy.

2. What may be learned from National Board for Professional Teacher Standards certified teachers and teachers of students with special

needs in relation to what is considered best practices for African American students in implementation of instruction and the culture of their classrooms?

Hypothesis: There are differences between NBCTs and Highly Qualified teachers in the area of best practices for African American students.

Chapter three presents the design and methodology for investigating what specific practices teachers NBPTS certified and non-NBPTS certified teachers who are highly qualified (according to No Child Left Behind guidelines) use for effective teaching of African American students who receive special education services in middle or high schools. The similarities, distinctions, or differences, between teachers NBPTS certified, and those who are not board certified but who hold a master's degree, and what we can learn from NBPTS certified teachers, were a focus of this study. As was indicated in Chapter Two, the pedagogical practices teachers use in their classrooms can make a difference in achievement levels of *all* students, but perhaps most notably, and for the context of this study, on the achievement levels of African American students in middle and secondary classrooms who receive special education services (Bailey & Boykin, 2001). This study explored what may be learned from NBPTS teachers and non-NBPTS teachers in schools who are highly qualified regarding what each group does “differently” that makes the classroom climate more conducive to teaching African American students who receive special education services.

For example an affirmation of diversity is an NBPTS teacher standard

(NBPTS, 2004). This example from the Adolescence and Young Adulthood English Language Arts Standard, states: “Accomplished Adolescence and Young Adulthood/English Language Arts teachers demonstrate through their practices toward all students their commitment to the principles of equity, strength through diversity, and fairness.” Teachers who are certified through NBPTS undertake a rigorous process in performance-based assessments that require them to demonstrate principled, professional judgments in a variety of situations (Adolescence and Young Adulthood English Language Arts Standards, p 4 resulting in certification. The components consist of the compilation of a teacher’s portfolio of practice during the course of a school year, and participation in one day of assessment center activities (Adolescence and Young Adulthood English Language Arts Standards). The definition of National Board Certification is a demonstration of a teacher’s practice as measured against rigorous standards (National Board of Professional Teacher Standards, 2004).

National Board certification was established in the late 1980s (NBPTS, 2005) and is a relatively “new” area in education for professional knowledge enhancement and “upward” trajectory of those who teach (<http://www.nbpts.org/about/hist.cfm>). It has been compared to board certification in medicine and other professions (Backgrounder, National Board of Professional Teacher Standards, 2004). There is a gap in the literature concerning the effectiveness of National Board Certified Teachers (NBCT) as compared with the amount of research on effective teaching by non-board certified teachers in relation to the research questions posed by this researcher. According to a 2005 review of the literature, only four studies on NBCTs

have been completed. Several currently in progress examine the effectiveness of NBCTs on student learning and achievement (NBPTS, 2005). There appear to be no studies that address the impact of NBCTs on African American students receiving special education services (NBPTS, 2005).

One feature of the NBPTS process is the diversity standard for the 27 certification areas. NBPTS has a policy position of five core propositions which are summarized as: (1) teachers are committed to students and their learning, (2) teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students, (3) teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning, (4) teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience, (5) and teachers are member of learning communities (NBPTS). The core propositions entail what the board expects teachers to know and be able to do. One of the propositions is that teachers are committed to students and their learning, which encompasses understanding how students learn and the influence of culture on learning. The NBPTS has also developed standards teachers must use as guiding constructs in their classrooms. Three of the standards specifically address diversity. The first standard requires knowledge of students as individual learners. The fourth standard addresses fairness towards students demonstrated through equity and strength of diversity. The fifth standard calls for an inclusive, caring, and challenging environment. As part of the NBPTS certification process, teachers are required to develop a portfolio in which they reflect upon an array of pedagogy, pedagogical content knowledge, and content knowledge, demonstrating the application of NBPTS standards to their teaching. Intensive reflective writing is a component of certification through NBPTS.

In comparison, portfolios for masters level teacher education programs focus on 10 Kentucky Experienced Teacher Standards: Demonstrates Professional Leadership; Demonstrates Knowledge of Content; Designs/Plans Instruction; Creates/Maintains Learning Climate; Implements/Manages Instruction; Assesses and Communicates Learning Results; Reflects/Evaluates Teaching/Learning; Reflects/Evaluates Teaching/Learning; Collaborates with Colleagues/Parents/Others; Engages in Professional Development; and Demonstrates Implementation of Technology;. The standard reflection has only three indicators to that standard. The University of Louisville College of Education and Human Development expands its expectations for initial and advanced candidates with an added standard, Standard XI: Understands the Complex Lives of Students and Adults in Schools and Society (Department of Teaching and Learning, College of Education and Human Development, 2005). The standard encompasses recognition of diversity at individual, group, and societal levels, proposes that educational equity is based on fairness and promotes equality of outcomes, and stresses awareness of curriculum in both expressed elements and unexpressed elements in the hidden curriculum.

Design of the Study

Research studies involve the description of natural or social phenomena in their form, structure, activity, relationship to other phenomena and various other situations (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996). Descriptive research is important in education because it involves making careful description of educational phenomena (Gall et al., 1996). Descriptive studies are concerned with “what is.” However, the types and quality of measurements limit them.

There are two types of descriptive research. Measurements of characteristics or attitudes involve the sample at a one-time instance. The other type is a longitudinal study in which the sample is followed over time. A survey is a form of descriptive research. A survey collects data about characteristics, opinions, and experiences in order to generalize the findings to a population (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996).

The researcher employed a descriptive correlational design that used a Likert-scale survey with a cross-sectional population of teachers. The purpose of the design is to compare responses from National Board Certified teachers with responses from Master's Level Highly Qualified teachers to determine differences and similarities in responses about classroom instruction, beliefs, and behaviors. This study investigated what teachers, both NBPTS and highly qualified teachers, do that makes them effective with African American students who receive special education services.

The first chapter addressed the general problem of overrepresentation of African American students in special education. The first chapter also addressed the complexities of the situation concerning the history of education of African Americans in the United States, the structure of the educational system based upon White, middle class standards, and the resulting achievement gap between achievement levels of African American students and achievement levels of White students. Therefore, the possibility of large numbers of African American students who receive special education services in core content classes is considerable. It is imperative that core content teachers realize and understand what is considered as effective teaching of African American students who receive special education services.

The rationale of this study was to look at different components of teaching, and what teachers do to make their teaching of African American students who receive special education services effective. The research was conducted through a cross-sectional survey.

According to Yin (1984) three questions about the research determine the research strategy. Those questions determine the form of the research question. Does the question try to explain some social phenomenon, does it seek to control behavior or to describe naturally occurring events, and is it contemporary or historical? This particular study examined what specifically Highly Qualified Masters Level teachers, and teachers certified through the National Board of Professional Teacher Standards do that makes them effective with African American students who receive special education services in middle and high schools.

Research Advancements

This study is unique in the fact that very little research has been published regarding the efficacy of National Board Certified Teachers in relation to African American students and their achievement. As well, little research has been published regarding the efficacy of National Board Certified Teachers and African American students receiving special education services. Likewise, very few studies have been completed with regard to efficacy of Master's Level, Highly Qualified teachers working with special education students.

Ethical Procedures

Preparation for the study included application to and approval from the University of Louisville's Institutional Review Board for permission to conduct the

study. The Institutional Review Board protects the rights and confidentiality of the subjects of the study.

Sample

The research population consisted of 300 NBCT teachers throughout the state, and 900 Highly Qualified teachers. The sample had proportional representation in every county for both the NBCT and Highly Qualified teachers. Selections of the teachers for the study were made from different sources. NBPTS certified teachers were chosen from a list provided by a state representative of National Board Certified Teachers. It was determined from the NBCT list that of the 300 NBCT teacher in the state, only 38 taught in an urban school district. The remainder were rural. The Highly Qualified Master's Level teachers were randomly selected from a list provided by the Education Professional Standards Board of Highly Qualified teachers throughout the state. The requirements for invitation to participate included that the teacher be employed by a local school district, the teacher be a core content teacher, and that she/he has, or previously had, African American special education students in his/her class, as well as a willingness to participate in the study.

Research Measure

The instrument is a survey designed to address the areas of the National Board Certification process and Master's Highly Qualified teachers, and how the advanced preparation may have influenced their teaching. Questions in the survey addressed their perceptions of whether participation in their respective "programs" helped them grow professionally as teachers, and whether the "programs" changed, or developed their belief systems about low-income and diverse students. A self-rated teacher

efficacy scale based on research by Bandura (1986) provided data on teachers' expressed beliefs about their abilities to work with specific populations of students and how much influence they have about different education situations. The instrument was a Likert scale, addressed the NBCT process, the HQ process, the diversity component, classroom diversity component, and understanding needs of special education students in their classrooms. General diversity components and classroom diversity components asked respondents to provide data regarding teacher belief systems about diverse populations of students and acceptance of those populations, and ended with data about teachers' knowledge and understanding of the needs of special education students in general education classrooms.

Data Collection

The study's participants are teachers who are NBCT teachers, and Highly Qualified Masters' Level teachers. All of the teachers are core content teachers who have African American students in their classes who receive some type of special education services. These services primarily consist of specific accommodations in the classroom which must be made according to law. These accommodations may include preferential seating, extended time for completion of work, small group instruction on specific skills, use of a reference notebook, small group testing, and/or having tests read to the student. These are just some of the "usual" or "typical" accommodations that teachers make within regular education classes for students who receive special education services. What may be learned from NBCT and Highly Qualified Teachers in relation to these accommodations?

Data collection occurred by distribution of 1212 surveys through postal mail

with a self-addressed, stamped envelope included for return of the completed instrument. Based on the pilot study where six participants were asked to complete the survey and provide constructive feedback, the survey took approximately 8-10 minutes to complete. A second mailing was sent after a week as a reminder to the teachers to return the survey. Participants returned 216 responses of 1212 for return rate of 17%.

Limitations

As in any study, there are limitations. First, the researcher collected data about teacher perceptions, which did not include observation of actual teacher practices. Second, the cross-sectional survey design offers a picture of the participants at one point in time, not longitudinally. Third, the participants may have answered what he/she believed the researcher wants them to answer. Fourth, the response rate was not 100% therefore, there is the possibility of nonresponse bias. Consequently, the results of this study should be applied with caution (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996).

Conclusion

The research literature supports the notion that a significant amount of preservice and inservice teachers are uncomfortable working with African American students, due in part, to a lack of cross-cultural knowledge about African American culture (Delpit, 1995). In combination with African American students who are in special education, the documented lack of responsiveness and success with African American students receiving special education services is a concern addressed in this study and overviewed in the literature review in chapter two. The research examined whether NBCT teachers and Highly Qualified Master's Level teachers may have

more efficacies with students of color receiving special education services than other teachers. Research on NBCT teachers is relatively recent and has provided a body of research with regard to the effectiveness of NBCTs with special education students. However, research on general education students is providing evidence that NBCT teachers are better at effectively improvising when faced with unexpected situations (Goldhaber, & Anthony, 2004). In addition, in the 13 generally recognized measures of good teaching (NBPTS, 2006), the differences between NBCT teachers and non-board certified is dramatic (National Board for Professional Teacher Standards, 2004). This study did not focus exclusively on the latter group but rather, on teachers who have professional expertise and advanced degrees both by NCOs and HQML teachers. This study may contribute to a larger research literature related to closing the achievement gap of how to address and close the achievement gap between African American students and White students (Haberman, 1995). Students receiving special education services are a part of the achievement gap data. The researcher believes that findings from this study will contribute to larger policy and teacher quality issues, both of which affect the success of students in school and their future life possibilities.

Chapter four provides a discussion of the study's results.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to survey middle and secondary NBCT and HQ Master's Level teachers who teach African American students and who receive special education services to determine what they do that is effective with those students. The results of this study might be useful to and informative for inservice and preservice teachers to help them be more effective with students who receive special education services, regardless of the ethnicity of the student. This study uses a descriptive correlational design that employs a Likert-scale survey with a cross-sectional group of teachers. Survey responses from National Board Certified teachers (NBCT) are compared with responses from Master's Level Highly Qualified (HQ) teachers to determine possible differences and similarities in perceptions about classroom instruction, beliefs, and behaviors. This study investigates what both NBCT and HQ teachers perceive that makes them effective with African American students who receive special education services. This study also examines whether teachers' effectiveness consists explicitly of attitudes towards students, specific teaching technique, or methods, or a combination of both.

Participants

There were 216 respondents ($N = 216$) of 1212 surveys disseminated. Of those who responded, 103 (47.6%) were National Board Certified Teachers (NBCT) and

109 (50.4%) were Highly Qualified (HQ) teachers. The ethnicity of the participants was 98% White ($n = 209$) and 1% Asian ($n = 1$); and four (1.7%) did not specify their ethnicity. The educational levels of the teachers varied. For the NBCT teachers, there were 5 bachelor's degrees, 26 master's degrees, 4 Rank II levels (30 hours of coursework beyond the bachelor's degree or a master's degree), 65 Rank I levels (30 hours beyond the master's degree), and 1 PhD. For the HQ teachers, no teacher had only a bachelor's degree. However, there were 28 master's degrees, 7 Rank II levels, 74 Rank I levels, and 2 PhDs. Chi-square analysis ($\chi^2 = 5.01$, $df = 8$, $p = .76$) indicated no differences by teacher group for educational level. In Kentucky, a teacher with a bachelor's degree holds a Rank III; a Rank II has 30 hours of graduate coursework beyond the bachelors or a master's degree, and a Rank I has 30 semester hours of approved graduate credit beyond a master's and/or National Board for Professional Teaching Standards Certification.

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the participants. The majority of the respondents worked at the secondary level ($n = 111$); the middle school level was ($n = 100$) and two were in consultative or resource positions outside of the classroom. For the NBCT teachers, the mean number of years taught was 15.4 ($SD = 8.5$), ranging from 3-36 years. For the HQ teachers, the mean number of years taught was 15.9 ($SD = 6.2$), ranging from 4-34. An ANOVA test suggested that there was not a statistically significant difference in teaching experience by teacher group ($t = -.43$, $df = 207$, $p = .67$). Mean years teaching in current assignment for NBCT teachers was 8.6 years ($SD = 8.6$) and 7.6 years ($SD = 6.2$) for HQ teachers. An independent samples ANOVA suggested there was a difference in years in current teaching

assignment with NBCT teachers demonstrating a higher mean score ($t = -2.87$, $df = 204$, $p = .005$). The ethnicity results of the three groups of teachers indicate that there were no African American teachers in either group and 1 Asian teacher. The NBCT teachers had a total of 99 African American students and 100 special education students. The HQ teachers had 98 African American students and 103 special education students. See Table 2 for the means per teacher group on each research variable.

Table 1

Descriptive Information about Demographic Variables

Variable Range	<i>n</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
National Board Certified (NBCT)	103	47	1.52	.50	
Highly Qualified (HQ)	109	50	1.55	.54	
Other	4				
Teaching Level NBCT					
Middle School	49	47			
High School	55	53			
Teaching Level HQ					
Middle School	51	46			
High School	56	51			
Years Taught NBCT	103		15.4	8.6	3-
36					
Years Taught HQ	106		15.9	6.2	4-
34					
Other					
Years Current Assignment NBCT	101		8.6	6.4	1-
35					
Years Current					

Assignment HQ 26	109	7.6	5.5	1-
Other 22	3			3-
Ethnicity NBCT				
African American	0			
Asian	0			
White	102			
Hispanic	0			
Ethnicity HQ				
African American	0			
Asian	0			
White	107			
Hispanic	0			
Ethnicity Other				
African American	0			
Asian	1			
White	1			
Hispanic	0			
# African American Students NBCT	99	11.1	15.6	
# Special Education Students NBCT	100	7.2	9.6	
# African American Students HQ	98	7.4	6.2	
# Special Education Students HQ	103	9.2	11.7	

H1: There are differences between NBCTs and Highly Qualified teachers in the area of self-efficacy.

H2: There are differences between NBCTs and Highly Qualified teachers in the area of best practices for African American students who receive special education services.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Research Scales by Two Teacher Groups

	<i>Teacher Group</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Diversity Total	1.00	97	67.06	8.03
	2.00	102	68.60	6.60
Instructional	1.00	97	30.95	4.35
Self-Efficacy	2.00	107	32.28	4.07
Disciplinary	1.00	97	12.13	1.66
Self-Efficacy	2.00	105	12.30	1.62
Parental	1.00	98	9.9	1.66
Involvement	2.00	108	10.71	1.72
Self-Efficacy				
Community	1.00	96	12.42	3.13
Involvement	2.00	102	12.75	2.67
Self-Efficacy				
Positive School	1.00	98	16.11	3.70
Climate Self-	2.00	105	16.70	2.23
Efficacy				
Teacher	1.00	91	81.49	10.54
Self-Efficacy	2.00	96	85.11	9.17
Total				

Note. *Teacher = 1 National Board Certified; 2 = Highly Qualified

Table 3 presents the internal consistency coefficients of the research measures (Cronbach's alphas). The particularly low Cronbach's alpha for the Positive School Climate Self-Efficacy scale precludes further analysis with the variable. In general, appropriate statistical analysis calls for reliability coefficients of .60 or greater in exploratory research such as this, preferably greater than .70 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Table 3

Cronbach's Alphas of Research Measures

Scale	α	Number of Items
Diversity	.884	16
Teacher Experience	.754	7
Instructional Self-Efficacy	.809	9
Disciplinary Self-Efficacy	.619	3
Parental Involvement Self-Efficacy	.648	3
Community Involvement Self-Efficacy	.874	4
Positive School Climate Self-Efficacy	.434	4
Teacher Self-Efficacy Total	.861	23

Supporting the first hypothesis, the one-way ANOVA results (see Table 4) suggest there were differences between NBCT teachers and HQ teachers in the areas of Experience, Diversity, Special Education, Instructional Self-Efficacy, Parental Involvement Self-Efficacy, and Total Teacher Self-Efficacy, as the HQ teachers demonstrated higher means than the NBCT teachers on each measure ($F_s > 3.88$, $dfs = 1, 185$, $ps < .05$). There were no statistically significant differences between NBCT teachers and HQ teachers in the areas of Disciplinary Self-Efficacy and Community Involvement Self-Efficacy ($F_s < 2.24$, $dfs = 1, 196$, $ps > .05$).

Table 4

One-Way ANOVA Results Summary of Differences Between NBCT and HQ Teachers

	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.(2-tailed)
Experience	31.02	1, 188	.000
Diversity	3.88	1, 197	.041
Special Education	6.47	1, 202	.012
Instructional Self-Efficacy	4.97	1, 202	.027
Disciplinary Self-Efficacy	.543	1, 200	.462
Parental Involvement Self-Efficacy	10.96	1, 204	.001
Community Involvement Self-Efficacy	.592	1, 196	.443
Teacher Self-Efficacy Total	6.29	1, 185	.013

Supporting the second hypothesis, the one-way ANOVA results indicate that there are differences between NBCT and HQ teachers in the area of best practices for African American students who receive special education services. Table 5 presents the results of the statistical analyses on the individual Diversity and Special Education items of the survey.

Table 5

One-Way ANOVA Results Summary of Differences Between NBCT and HQ Teachers

on

Diversity and Special Education Items

Items	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.(2-tailed)
<hr/>			
Diversity 9	.48	1, 211	.488
Diversity 10	2.41	1, 211	.122
Diversity 11	1.29	1, 210	.258
Diversity 12	4.23	1, 211	.041
Diversity 13	5.29	1, 211	.022
Diversity 14	.86	1, 209	.355
Diversity 15	.87	1, 211	.353
Diversity 16	.93	1, 211	.336
Diversity 17	4.33	1, 211	.039
Diversity 18	2.72	1, 211	.101
Diversity 19	1.89	1, 211	.170
Diversity 20	1.32	1, 209	.253
Diversity 21	.80	1, 210	.373
Diversity 22	.77	1, 210	.382
Diversity 23	.22	1, 208	.638
Diversity 24	4.29	1, 209	.040
Special Education 25	2.56	1, 208	.111
Special Education 26	3.52	1, 210	.062

Special Education 27	.00	1, 209	.966
Special Education 28	1.67	1, 206	.198
Special Education 29	4.11	1, 208	.044
Special Education 30	5.75	1, 210	.017
Special Education 31	6.30	1, 208	.013

Analysis

Specifically, in the area of Diversity, three items show differences. HQ teachers demonstrated higher scores than NBCT teachers on the three following questions:

12. I respectfully accommodate differently-abled students in my classroom.
13. I recognize and acknowledge the value of languages other than standard English.
24. I recognize that tracking forces “classism” and is counterproductive to student learning at all ability levels.

In the area of Special Education, three items showed a higher score for HQ teachers, while the fourth demonstrated marginal significance (item # 26):

29. I actively create learning environments for exceptional learning needs that foster cultural understanding....
30. I seek to uphold and improve where necessary the laws, regulations, and policies governing the delivery of special

education and related services and the practice of their profession.

- 31. I regularly collaborate with the special education teacher to assure the needs of individuals with exceptional learning needs are addressed throughout my instruction.
- 26. I demonstrate respect for my students first as unique human beings. (marginal significance)

Consequently, there is preliminary evidence that HQ teachers perceive that they affirm diversity more than NBCT teachers in the aforementioned three areas. Second, there is preliminary evidence also that HQ teachers perceive they have more knowledge about special education and its application in three areas as well.

Summary

The results support each hypothesis; thus, there are differences between NBCTs and HQ teachers both in the areas of self-efficacy and best practices for African American students.

In the areas of Instructional Self-Efficacy, Parental Involvement Self-Efficacy, and Teacher Self-Efficacy Total, the HQ Teachers scored higher (all three were different) than the NBCT teachers. To be clear, the HQ teachers believe they have higher efficacious levels concerning their instruction, parental involvement, and overall teaching.

In addition, HQ teachers demonstrated higher means on three diversity questions and three special education questions, suggesting that HQ teachers perceive that they affirm diversity more and had greater knowledge about special education

and its application concerning the items measured. Findings indicate that NBCT teachers did not perceive they possess as much affirmation of diversity and/or understanding about special education in this study.

Chapter five reports on the summary and conclusion based on data analysis for the study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study addressed two questions. First, what are the distinctions, or differences between teachers certified by National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) and non-NBPTS certified teachers who are Highly Qualified (according to No Child Left Behind guidelines) in the area of self-efficacy for effective teaching of African American students who receive special education services in middle or high schools?

Second, what may be learned from National Board for Professional Teaching Standards certified teachers and Highly Qualified Master's Level teachers of students with special needs in relation to what is considered best practices for African American students in implementation of instruction and the culture of the classroom?

The primary data source for this study was a survey of teachers who are Nationally Board Certified (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2004) and teachers who are considered Highly Qualified based upon years of experience, educational attainment levels, and professional development (according to No Child Left Behind guidelines). Data was collected from 216 teachers out of 1212 surveys mailed for a return rate 17%. The teacher population was randomly chosen from lists in Kentucky of highly qualified teachers at the middle and secondary levels (Education Professional Standards Board, 2006). The National Board

Certified teachers (NBCT) were chosen according to middle and secondary teaching levels, from a list that was provided by the state Association of National Board Certified Teachers. There were 216 respondents ($N = 216$). Of those who responded, 103 (47.6%) were National Board Certified Teachers and 109 (50.4%) were Highly Qualified teachers. The results were evaluated by comparing the two groups of teachers by an ANOVA of statistical analysis.

The research literature supports the notion that a significant amount of preservice and inservice teachers are uncomfortable working with African American students, due in part, to a lack of cross-cultural knowledge about African American culture (Delpit, 1995). In combination with African American students who are in special education, the documented lack of responsiveness and success with African American students receiving special education services is a concern addressed in this study. The research examined whether NBCT teachers and highly qualified teachers may have more efficacies with students of color receiving special education services than other teachers.

The design methodology used was a descriptive correlational design using a Likert-scale survey with a cross-sectional population of teachers. The purpose of the design was to correlate responses from National Board Certified teachers with responses from Master's Level Highly Qualified teachers to determine differences and similarities in responses about classroom instruction, beliefs, and behaviors. This study investigated what teachers, both NBPTS and highly qualified teachers, do that make them effective with African American students who receive special education services. This study looked at whether the teachers' effectiveness is attitude towards

students, specific teaching techniques or methods, or a combination of both.

The instrument is a survey designed to address the areas of the National Board Certification process, and how it effected the participants' teaching, a master's program and how it effected their teaching, a self-rated teacher efficacy scale based upon research by Bandura (1986), general diversity components and classroom diversity components, and ending with the teacher's knowledge and understanding of the needs of special education students in general education classrooms. A correlation design was used with the two specific groups of teachers as the variables. The correlational method allows for analysis of the variables, either singly or in combination. Comparisons were made between the two groups on selected dependent variables in order to identify similarities and differences in teaching (Gall, et al., 1996).

The total number of respondents was 216, a 17.8% return rate. A total of 105 National Board Certified Teachers responded and a total of 111 Highly Qualified teachers responded. The ethnicity of the teachers was determined to be 211 White, 1 Asian; and 4 did not indicate ethnicity. The educational levels of the teachers varied in that 6 held bachelor's degrees, 53 held master's degrees, 2 had reached a Rank II level, 141 had obtained a Rank I level, and 3 held a PhD. In Kentucky, a teacher with a bachelor's degree holds a Rank III, a master's degree or a 32 semester-hour non-degree Education Planned Fifth-Year Program (graduate level); or the Kentucky Continuing Education Option. A Rank I is 30 semester hours of approved graduate credit in addition to Rank II; 60 semester hours of approved graduate credit including a master's degree; National Board for Professional Teaching Standards Certification;

or the Kentucky Continuing Education Option (Kentucky Education Professional Standards Board, 2004).

The majority of the respondents taught at the secondary level, which was 113, while 100 worked at the middle school level, and two were in consultative or resource positions outside of the classroom. The total number of African American students noted by the teachers was 1824, while the total number of special education students in general was 1693. The average number of years taught was 18 years with 3 being the fewest number of years taught and 36 being the highest number of years taught. Table 1 shows the demographic information of the participants. Table 2 indicates the means and standard deviations of the research scales of the two groups. Table 3 presents the internal consistency coefficients of the research measures (Cronbach's alphas). The reliability looks at individual questions or groups of questions to determine how much they measure the same thing (Huck, 2000). The one-way ANOVA results (see Table 4) suggest there were differences between NBCT teachers and HQ teachers in the areas of Experience, Diversity, Special Education, Instructional Self-Efficacy, Parental Involvement Self-Efficacy, and Total Teacher Self-Efficacy. Table 5 depicts the one-way ANOVA results summary of differences between NBCT and HQ teachers on Diversity and Special Education items.

The two hypotheses in this study were the following: 1. Hypothesis: There are differences between NBCTs and Highly Qualified Master's Level teachers in the area of self-efficacy; and 2. Hypothesis: There are differences between NBCTs and Highly Qualified teachers in the area of best practices for African American students. For hypothesis one, the results indicate there are differences between National Board

Certified Teachers and Highly Qualified Teachers in the area of self-efficacy.

The questions guiding this study are as follows: 1. What are the distinctions, or differences between teachers certified by NBPTS and teachers who are Highly Qualified Masters' Level teachers who work with students who have special needs, in the area of self-efficacy?, and 2. What may be learned from National Board for Professional Teacher Standards certified teachers and Highly Qualified Master's Level teachers of students with special needs, in relation to what is considered best practices of African American students in implementation of instruction and culture of the classroom? The results of the study indicate the field can learn from Highly Qualified teachers in the areas of Instructional Self-efficacy and Diversity.

The survey questions were grouped into certain categories based upon the type of question. The categories listed above and below were based upon teacher standards from the Council of Exceptional Children, Essential Principles for Teaching and Learning in a Multicultural Society (the Multicultural Consensus Panel [Banks, Cookson, Gay, Hawley, Jordan-Irvine, Nieto, Schofield, & Stephan, 2000 p 5]), Bandura's (1997) Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale, and teacher standards from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

In the areas of Instructional Self-Efficacy, Disciplinary Self-Efficacy, Parental Involvement Self-Efficacy, Community Involvement Self-Efficacy, Positive School Climate Self-Efficacy, Special Education, Diversity and Teacher Self-Efficacy Total, the Highly Qualified Teachers scored higher in these areas than the NBCT teachers. Succinctly, HQ teachers report that they believe they have influence or control over their instruction, discipline, parental involvement, community involvement, positive

school climate, and overall belief in themselves and their contributions to their students. These findings are explained further. While there are differences between the scores, these differences are not statistically different.

Special Education

Four specific questions indicated there are differences between HQ teachers and NBCT teachers. Those questions are as follows:

Question 26. I demonstrate respect for my students first as unique human beings.

Question 29. I actively create learning environments for individuals with exceptional learning needs that foster cultural understanding, safety and emotional well-being, positive social interactions, and active engagement of individuals with exceptional learning needs.

Question 30. I seek to uphold and improve where necessary the laws, regulations, and policies governing the delivery of special education and related services and the practice of their profession.

Question 31. I regularly collaborate with the special education teacher to assure the needs of individuals with exceptional learning needs are addressed throughout my instruction.

The results of question 26 indicate that HQ teachers are more likely than NBCT teachers to accept the whole student, rather than looking at a student with labels of Advanced Placement, Special Education, a specific ethnicity, etc.. The ANOVA test indicates a difference of .063 ($M = 4.73$, $SD = .504$). This may be important to a student's academic success. Haberman (1995) has developed

guidelines to ascertain what knowledge, skills and dispositions effective teachers of children and youth in poverty possess. Haberman maintains that teachers of students in poverty fall into categories of “star” or “quitters and burnouts.” According to Haberman (1995), effective teachers of urban students have a vision and demonstrate a humane, respectful, caring attitude towards the students. They exhibit persistence in an endless search of what works well with their students. Their philosophy is that there will always be students who are “at-risk” in every class so rather than attempting to change the student, the teacher needs to adapt to the needs of the student. Effective teachers are able to identify institutional causes that contribute to at-risk populations, such as irrelevant curriculum, poor teaching, racism, classism, and bureaucracy.

Question 29 results indicate HQ teachers report that they are more likely than NBCT teachers reported to change their instructional approach and/or activities to accommodate the needs of not only special education students, but also all students who learn better from different instructional styles than the traditional styles used in most classrooms. There was a significant difference of .044 ($M = 4.27$, $SD = .694$). Cultural misunderstandings between White teachers and African American students are a significant contributor towards the achievement gap between academic performance levels of African American students and White students. The cultural mismatch theory (Howard, 2001) proposes that when critical components of teaching and learning between the student and the teacher are missing, negative outcomes for students may exist. Critical components are those that empower students in all areas such as social, emotional, political, and intellectual contexts by enabling students to

use the knowledge they possess from their cultures. These components are what educational researchers define as culturally relevant (Ladson-Billings, 1995a).

Question 30 addresses the legal components of working with students who have special learning and/or behavioral needs and shows a higher degree of reported willingness by HQ teachers, as compared to NBCT teachers, to follow the guidelines of the law. The difference on that question was .017 ($M = 4.32$, $SD = .681$).

Considering that a significant number of special education students receive 80% of their instruction in general education classrooms, it is imperative for general education teachers to follow the legal requirements. Today, more than six million children with disabilities receive a free and appropriate education (FAPE), with a significant number attending college (Losen & Orfield, 2000). The law maintains that all students, regardless of disabling factors, are entitled to an education just the same as non-disabled students. The regulations include the least restrictive environment, which means students are placed in the regular education classroom and receive modifications of instruction, unless the severity of their disability makes success improbable.

Question 31 also addresses the legal components of working with students who have special learning and/or behavioral needs. The difference was .013, again shows that HQ teachers report that they are more willing than NBCT teachers reported to collaborate with general education regarding best practices for special education students, than NBCT teachers ($M = 4.38$, $SD = .845$). The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) has developed standards for working with exceptional learners (CEC Performance-Based Standards, 2002). The standards incorporate the

foundations of special education, which include policies and laws, current theories and philosophies and how each affect delivery of special education services. The standards also incorporate development and characteristics of learners, learning differences, individual planning and individual instructional strategies, environmental and social interactions, use of assessment for teaching, language differences, professional ethics, and collaboration. The special education law requires collaboration between general and special education teachers.

Diversity

Four specific questions in the area of Diversity indicated that HQ teachers report that they are more likely than NBCT teachers to accommodate diversity of students in their classrooms. Those questions are as follows:

Question 12. I respectfully accommodate differently-abled students in my classroom.

Question 13. I recognize and acknowledge the value of languages other than standard English.

Question 17. I encourage all students to understand and respect the feelings of others who are different from them.

Question 24. I recognize that tracking forces “classism” and is counterproductive to student learning at all ability levels.

Question 17 addresses acceptance of others and others’ feelings. The difference here is .040 ($M = 4.79$, $SD = .467$). This compares with question 26 in the Special Education category of looking at students as unique human beings. Question 27 also compares with question 26 in the Special Education category.

Question 12 indicates HQ teachers report that they are more willing than NBCT teacher to accommodate students in their classrooms who have different ability levels. The difference here is .042 ($M = 4.68$, $SD = .484$). This question indicates a connection to question 29 in the Special Education category of being able to change instructional approaches and activities.

Question 24 addresses the institutional restrictions of the educational system and has a difference of .042 ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 1.21$). The classism that exists in schools and other institutions contribute to students in special education, the achievement gap, and other academic differences within schools. Institutional discrimination occurs within large segments of society such as schools, work places, hospitals, organizations, and other areas where large amounts of people come together for a variety of purposes. Most institutional restrictions and discriminations are based upon cultural differences.

Culture is the knowledge, concepts, and values shared by group members through systems of communication (Banks). A microculture may share most of the values of the mainstream culture but sometimes has values that are dissimilar to those of the macroculture. A major goal of multicultural education is to teach students the core values of the mainstream culture while maintaining their own culture. Banks' research posits that all individuals have multiple group memberships such as race and ethnicity, religion, nationality, exceptionality or non-exceptionality, social class and gender. The interaction of all the multiple group memberships influences the behaviors of students and teachers alike.

Schools are a reflection of mainstream society. This is reflected through

educational policy and politics within the system itself. Other variables of the social system of schools are assessment and testing procedures, instructional materials, formalized curriculum, learning styles of the school and teaching styles of the teachers along with the *hidden curriculum* (Banks, 2001). Nieto (2004) includes power relationships, economic and social reproduction, and communication styles within the social system of the schools. Erickson (2001) and Nieto both refer to the hidden curriculum as subtle or implicit messages and not subtle or explicit messages that children learn in their environments that affect their initial orientation to school. Those messages can include conversation rules, voice levels in conversation, clock time, and displays of emotions.

Teacher Self-Efficacy

For the means in the area of Teacher Self-Efficacy, the HQ teachers reported that they possessed a stronger belief in their own abilities to work with all different kinds of students ($M = 32.28$, $SD = 4.07$). Teacher self-efficacy is the belief about capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect one's life. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how individuals feel, think, motivate themselves, and behave. Individuals with a strong sense of self-efficacy believe in what they are doing, set goals for themselves, communicate their needs, and approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided. Teachers with high self-efficacy look at students who are different from themselves as a challenge and devise ways to help the students achieve. Conversely, teachers with low self-efficacy display low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. They lessen their efforts and give up

quickly when situations become difficult. This is a significant factor in the success or failure of a teacher to make a difference with students in classrooms. That, in turn, becomes a significant factor in the success or failure of students.

Teacher efficacy is also related to students' own sense of efficacy (Anderson et al., 1988) and student motivation (Midgley, Feldlaufer & Eccles, 1989). Regarding teacher behaviors, effectual teachers persist with struggling students and criticize less after incorrect student answers (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). They are more likely to agree that a low SES student should be placed in a regular education setting and less likely to refer students for special education (Meijer Foster, 1988; Podell & Soodak, 1993; Soodak & Podell, 1993.)

Community Involvement

According to research by Hale (1982) African Americans provide support throughout their community to raising children. This involves support from other family members, neighbors, churches, and other community organizations. Based upon results from the survey with a $M = 12.74$, and a $SD = 2.67$, HQ teachers report that they are more inclined than NBCT teachers report to look towards the community for support in teaching students.

Parental Involvement

As was previously stated, research shows a strong connection between parental involvement and academic achievement. HQ teachers in the present study reported that they are more confident than NBCT teachers reported about their ability to involve parents in their children's education ($M = 10.71$, $SD = 1.72$).

The categories represent different concepts addressed in the study. Some of

those concepts were based upon the belief, labeled self-efficacy in the research literature, that individuals have control, input, or influence over situations in their lives. Perceived self-efficacy is defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how individuals feel, think, motivate themselves and behave (Bandura, 1994). Those concepts based upon self-efficacy are Instructional Self-efficacy: the belief a teacher has about his/her self to effectively teach; Discipline Self-efficacy: the belief a teacher has about him/her ability to effectively use classroom management strategies in order to create an environment conducive to learning; Parental Involvement Self-efficacy: the belief a teacher has in his/her ability to effectively involve the parents of his/her students in the education of their children; Community Self-efficacy: the belief the teacher has in his/her success at involving the community in the academic achievement of the students; and Positive School Climate Self-efficacy: the belief a teacher has that he/she can make a difference in the climate of the school to make it more welcoming and accepting for all students.

In the present study, the Diversity and Special Education Self-Efficacy survey categories focus on the beliefs the teacher has about acceptance and willingness to effectively work with all students, regardless of race, ethnicity, socioeconomic class, religion, or “ableness” to handle the academic requirements.

This research indicates that Highly Qualified teachers report that they possess more self-efficacy, more willingness, and more ability to work with diverse student populations that walk into their classrooms on a daily basis than National Board

Certified Teachers report. Teaching is not just about instruction and academics. For many students, unless the emotional, social, and physical needs are addressed, they cannot handle academic requirements. Teachers, who are successful with all kinds of students, realize their success because of the overall acceptance they have for all students.

Findings from this research have implications for audiences that include special educators, advanced practitioner teachers, teacher educators in university teacher certification programs, principals and superintendents, and district professional development leaders. This study is unique in that little research has been completed regarding the efficacy of National Board Certified Teachers who teach African American students. No research has been completed regarding the efficacy of National Board Certified Teachers and African American students receiving special education services. Very few studies have been completed with regard to reported efficacy of Master's Level, Highly Qualified teachers working with special education students.

The purpose of this study was to explore the attitudes and beliefs of teachers who are successful with African American students who receive special education services. The study examined what teacher behaviors contribute to a positive classroom climate for African American students that may be a factor in contributing to best practices for African American student who receive special education services. The study also addressed what reflective practices teachers report that they have that contribute to effective practices with African American students in their classrooms.

Previous studies have indicated teachers who are certified through the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards possess more skills for effective teaching of students, especially students from diverse populations. However, based upon results of this study, the group that reports that they possesses more skills for working with diverse students is the group Highly Qualified teachers.

Even though the instrument was a survey, teachers were invited to make additional comments on the instrument. Two NBCT teachers stated they did not develop their beliefs about diverse populations from their NBCT training. They characterized the learning through their teaching experiences at juvenile justice centers and alternative schools. One stated the NBCT training helped him/her with planning and lesson development. Another NBCT teacher stated he/she needed to work on keeping students on task during instruction of difficult topics and on motivation of students who have low interest in school. Two other teachers stated that class sizes and lack of knowledge by the administration about special education and culturally diverse students hindered their ability to successfully work with those populations of students. One NBCT teacher stated that research such as this causes too much attention and alienates groups rather than looking at educating students as a whole. In addition, another teacher stated that students need to be looked at as individuals and not according to race, religion, or ability. Several NBCT teachers reported that they believe NBCT training helped them be better teachers through content knowledge and depth, but very few expressed learning about how to work with diverse populations through their NBCT training.

Several HQ teachers expressed concern throughout their districts and the state

about a lack of professional development and teacher preservice training for helping them work effectively with diverse populations. The research literature on teaching supports this perception. Some even expressed knowledge of segregation of diverse populations and diverse abilities within schools and buildings. One HQ teacher stated that general education teachers usually do not want special education students in their classrooms. This teacher reported that she works well with all students and believes she is a dumping ground for all the “problem” students because other teachers will not work with them. Another HQ teacher expressed dislike of surveys such as the one for this study because he/she believes no differences should ever be made for ethnicity or abilities. Four teachers stated they had never taught African American students. One teacher stated, “I do not at this time, nor have I ever taught or had to deal with an African American special education student.” Conversely, another teacher stated, “I’m afraid in my 28 years of teaching I have never had the opportunity to teach or work with an African America student.” The differences in the tone of these two comments are striking.

Educational Implications

This study looked at whether teachers’ effectiveness is attributed to attitudes towards students, specific teaching techniques or methods, or a combination of both. These findings indicate overall, what teachers report that they do that provides them with success in working with all students, originates from their attitudes and perceptions about their own abilities, and secondly, from their acceptance of students first, as unique individuals, regardless of whatever abilities, disabilities, economic or cultural background, they bring to the classroom. This is what appears to make an

effective teacher. Without the self-belief and acceptance of all children, the content knowledge and pedagogical skills are not as effective as they should be.

Some teachers have very little tolerance for students who do not appear to have at least average intelligence and come from a middle class background. An example of this was witnessed by the researcher at a department meeting. A teacher who presents at professional development was announcing classes she would be teaching during the summer for students. She stated, “Don’t send me all your LD kids. These classes are for those kids who want to learn and already know how to solve problems.” This teacher has won several awards for her teaching but one must question her commitment to work with diverse students in light of her statements.

Universities and school districts must improve screening processes for potential teachers. To determine whether applicants are able to handle the stresses and situations, organizations such as law enforcement, FBI, Secret Service, etc. use psychological screening (U.S. Department of Labor, 2006). While teaching does not have life threatening consequences such as those stated, there are life-threatening consequences with regard to potential long-term consequences for students. A teacher’s attitude can either make or break a student, whether it is a positive or negative belief in the student. This is a reality. Many preservice students go into teaching because they liked school and liked to learn. Does that mean they will be an effective teacher? While Graduate Record Exam scores and Praxis Test scores are continuous assessment points for admission into programs, they do not predict or determine the success of a teacher. The success of a teacher is determined, in part, by his/her ability to accept all students. When a teacher meets teacher standards and can

accept all students for whoever that student is, be willing to work with that student and help that student achieve, then, and only then, will achievement gaps be closed.

School districts need to improve inservice training for teachers on knowledge and acceptance, not tolerance, of students with learning differences and from diverse backgrounds. School districts should require mandatory yearly diversity training that is in-depth and not superficial. Specific strategies that close the achievement gap should be addressed and required to be implemented in classrooms as part of teachers' repertoires or pedagogies. The cultural capital teachers bring to the classroom shapes the perceptions teachers have of themselves and their students.

One area of research that is addressing the concept of teacher self-efficacy is professional development with the hope of increasing teacher self-efficacy (Villarreal, 2005). There is very little research in this area, however. Long-term professional development that incorporates teachers as decision makers will have a positive effect on teacher self-efficacy. This will transfer to the classroom. The more opportunities teachers have to develop their leadership skills, the stronger their sense of self-efficacy will become.

A Harvard University program called The Tripod Project (2005) looks at three components of successful teaching, hence the reference to Tripod. Those components are Content, Pedagogy, and Relationships, and how they intertwine. This model assesses five fundamental tasks of social and intellectual engagement. Those tasks are trust and interest vs. mistrust and disinterest; balanced vs. imbalanced teacher control and student autonomy; ambitiousness vs. ambivalence; industriousness vs. discouragement and disengagement; mastery and consolidation vs. confusion and

irresolution. Three conditions they determined to be key to relationships and ambitiousness are enjoyment, adult support, and peer support. Two conditions determined as key to success are feasibility and relevance. The component of Content, Pedagogy, and Relationships support the results of this study in that attitudes and beliefs about students appear to have an affect on reported teacher beliefs about own abilities to work with diverse students.

Future Research Recommendations

Many responses from the survey in the research presented in this dissertation study indicated that the majority of NBCT teachers report that they teach Advanced Placement and gifted classes. Therefore, very little, if any, diverse populations of students are likely to be present in those classrooms. This indicates the experiences NBCT teachers have are most likely with higher achieving students, who typically are White, and middle class. The exposure to low income, special education, and/or African American students is likely limited. Research about NBCT teachers and low income, special education, and/or African American students is limited, and the reason is, more likely than not, that NBCT teachers may not teach this population of students.

This may be a research area needed. Further research could be conducted to determine what kinds of teachers go into NBCT and what are the belief systems of teachers who enter into the NBPTS certification process? However, if NBCT teachers are not, as a demographic group, able to work with this population of students, achievement levels will not raise. Findings indicated that NBCTs, based on student achievement gains, appeared to be more effective than their non-certified

counterparts, and that NBPTS is successfully identifying the more effective teachers among NBPTS applicants. certification, (Goldhaber & Anthony, 2004). In light of that, more research should be conducted on NBCT teachers working with low-income, African American, special education students, and why there is little emphasis placed on this population?

The NBPTS includes a standard about special education. However, that standard focuses more on severe and profound disability levels rather than high incidence disability levels such as learning disabilities, mild mental disabilities, and behavior disorders. In view of the fact that the high incidence special education populations are the kinds of students in general education classrooms, the standard for NBPTS should reflect knowledge of that population.

Research about diverse population schools which are successful should look at pedagogies and curriculum for various populations and look at the links between teachers who successfully work with diverse populations and what they actually do in the classroom.

Further research about effective inclusion of students with disabilities needs to be completed and results and findings shared in professional development for implementation in classrooms. With each revision of IDEA more and more special education students are in general education programs. Researchers also need to look at the impact of cultural and learning styles on teachers' belief systems about referral to of students special education. Further theory and research about professional development and teacher self-efficacy is imperative if the education system is to improve. Studies of the contextual nature of teacher experiences and how these

impact student achievement is necessary. Universities may want to consider adding required sociology coursework to teacher education requirements. Sociology studies would enable preservice and inservice teachers to understand the cultural capital of themselves and their students. Self-reflection is imperative in teaching and if a teacher is not able to look at himself or herself and attitudes and beliefs about certain groups, the effectiveness of that teacher diminishes because it impacts his/her ability to relate and connect with students.

Both quantitative and qualitative studies about teacher self-efficacy, teacher cultural capital, and student achievement would bring to the field of education increased knowledge that would contribute to student achievement for all students, the ultimate goal of the educational system.

The original study was to have been a qualitative study in which the researcher observed and videotaped in classroom, and interviewed eight teachers: four NBCT teachers and four Highly Qualified Master's Level teachers. The purpose of the study was to observe what regular class teachers do that makes them effective with African American students who receive special education services.

The initial contact for that study was with a local school district in which the researcher is a teacher and for which permission was granted. After contacting 38 NBCT teachers, only one agreed to participate. Approximately 30 Highly Qualified teachers were contacted and all expressed willingness to participate. Subsequently, an additional 18 other school districts were contacted and only two other districts agreed to participate. However, once again, no NBCT teachers agreed to participate. The districts who denied the request for the study gave reasons of interference in the

classroom and increased workloads for teachers because of the No Child Left Behind Act. Of the 19 districts contacted, only three agreed to the study and only three other districts replied to requests even though they denied access for the study in the district.

When the researcher did contact a potential teacher, once the teacher saw the permission form required by the IRB, the teacher refused to sign the form and withdrew from the study. Another potential teacher also withdrew from the study once he learned videotaping was involved. It is the opinion of the researcher and the committee members that because special education students were involved, districts and teachers, in this case, were unwilling to participate because of fear of potential problems if the teachers were not making the required special education accommodations.

Special education instruction and accommodations, which are mandated by each student's Individual Education Plan (IEP) are legal, binding, contracts which must be followed. Research about instruction provided for special education students in general education is limited. Unless districts and teachers become willing to allow researchers into their schools and classrooms, empirical research will be limited in this area.

The two observations the researcher was able to conduct in the initial, proposed study, showed two instances of differences within classrooms of accommodating special education students. In one classroom, taught by a Highly Qualified Master's Level teacher, the special education students were able to fully engage in the lesson. The activity involved a book discussion and question session

along with their individual reading. The second observation in which the students were required to write portfolio pieces showed no accommodations made by the teacher because the special education teacher pulled the students out of the room. The NBCT general education teacher stated, “That is his job to take them out of the room and help them in his room.” Education is not about individual jobs. It is about an entire delivery system, which should take place in the classroom in an inclusive, collaborative model. Pulling students out to give extra help limits the equality of the educational experience. Special education students are not the only students who need extra help and/or differentiation. When teachers still refer to “your” students and “my” students, in reference to special education students, acceptance of the student for where they are and who they are does not occur.

In summary, based upon information learned while conducting the study it appears that NBCT teachers most often teach gifted and AP classes, which means they have very little, if any, contact with diverse students. Because of their lack of exposure to diverse populations, NBCT teachers may not possess the skills HQ teachers have to work effectively with African American students who receive special education services

These findings point to overall, two indicators of what teachers do that makes them successful in working with all students. First, teacher attitudes and perceptions about their own abilities is key, and secondly, teachers’ acceptance of students as unique individuals, regardless of abilities, disabilities, economic and/or cultural background, they bring to the classroom must be at the foundation of practice. How can the attitudes and perceptions of teachers, towards working with low-income

African American students and special education students, be changed? What types of professional development would bring about more acceptance of African American students who receive special education services? Without the self-belief and acceptance of all children, the content knowledge and pedagogical skills are not as effective as they should be enacted in practice. In addition, without the self-belief and acceptance of all children, equality of education and academic achievement will be difficult reach.

Chapter five presents a discussion of a summary of the study and the researcher's conclusions.

REFERENCES

- Abidin, R., & Robinson, L. (2002). Stress, biases, or professionalism: What drives teachers' referral judgements of students with challenging behaviors. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 10(4), 204-212.
- Ainsworth, M. D. S. (1967). *Infancy in Uganda: Infant Care and the Growth of Love*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Algozzine, B. (1980). The disturbing child: A matter of opinion. *Behavioral Disorders*, 5, 112-115.
- Allen, B. & Boykin, A. (1992). The influence of contextual factors on Afro-American and Euro-American children's performance: Effects of movement opportunity and music. *International Journal of Psychology* 26 (3), 373-387.
- Allen, B. A., & Butler, L. (1996). The effects of music and movement opportunity on the analogical reasoning performance of African American and White school children: A preliminary study. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 22(3), 316-328.
- Anderson, M.G. (1994). Perceptions about behavioral disorders in African American cultures and communities. In Peterson, R. L. & S. Ishii-Jordon, (Ed.), *Multicultural Issues in the education of students with behavioral disorders* (pp. 93-104). Cambridge, MA: Brookline.
- Artiles, A. J. Trent, S. C. (1994). Overrepresentation of minority students in special education: A continuing debate. *The Journal of Special Education*, 22, 410-436.
- Ashton, P., & Webb, R. (1986). *Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement*. New York: Longman.
- Bailey, C. T. & Boykin, A. W. (2001). The role of task variability and home contextual factors in the academic performance and task motivation of African American elementary school children. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 70, ½.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1995). Social learning. In A. S. R. Manstead & M. Hewstone (Eds.), *Blackwell encyclopedia of social psychology* (pp. 600-606). Oxford: Blackwell.

- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28, 117-148.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Banks, J. A. (2004). *Multicultural education: Issues and perspectives*. Fifth Edition, New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Banks, J.A., Cookson, P., Gay, G., Hawley, W. D., Jordan-Irvine, J., Nieto, S., & Stephan, W. G., (2004). *Diversity within Unity: Essential Principles for Teaching and Learning in a Multicultural Society*. Center for Multicultural Education, University of Washington, Seattle, WA.
- Banks, J. A., Cookson, P., Gay, G., Hawley, W. D., Jordan-Irvine, J., Nieto, S., Schofield, J., Stephan, W. (2001). *Diversity within unity: Essential principles for teaching and learning in a multicultural society*. Center for Multicultural Education, College of Education, University of Washington.
- Banks, J. A. (2001). Multicultural education: Characteristics and goals. In J.A. Banks. & C. A. M. Banks (Ed.), *Multicultural Education: Issues and Perspectives* (4th ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Baron-Cohen, S. (1989). The autistic child's theory of the mind: A case of specific developmental delay. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, and Allied Disciplines*, 30, 285-297.
- Barth, F., (1969). Introduction. *Ethnic Groups and Boundaries: The Social Organization of Culture Difference*. In F. Barth, (Ed.) 1-38. Boston: Little Brown.
- Bartz, K., & Levine, E. (1978). Childrearing by Black parents: A description and comparison to Anglo and Chicano parents. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 40, 709-719.
- Becknell, C. F. (1987). *Black's in the workforce: A Black manager's perspective*. Albuquerque, NM: Horizons Communications.
- Berliner, D.C., (1987). Simple views of effective teaching and a simple theory of classroom instruction. In D. C. Berliner & B. V. Rosenshine (Eds.), *Talks to teachers: A festschrift for N. L. Gage* (93-110). New York: Random House.
- Berman, P., McLaughlin, M., Bass, G., Pauley, E., & Zellman, G. (1977). *Federal programs supporting education change. Vol. VII: Factors affecting implementation and continuation* (Report No. R-1589/7-HEW). Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corporation (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 140 432).

- Boggs, G. L. (1974). The great obsession. *Harvard Educational Review, Monograph No. 2*, 61-81.
- Boykin, A. W., & Cunningham, R. T., (2001). The effects of movement expressiveness in story content and learning context on the cognitive performance of African American children. *The Journal of Negro Education. 70*, 1/2 (Winter/Spring 2001).
- Boykin, A.W., & Bailey, C.T., (2001). The role of task variability and home contextual factors in the academic performance and task motivation of African American elementary school children. *Journal of Negro Education, 70*, 84-95. 2001/2002.
- Boykin, A. W., (2000). The Talent Development Model of Schooling: Placing Students At Promise for Academic Success, *Journal of Education for Students Placed At Risk*, Volume 5 (1 & 2), 3-25.
- Boykin, A. W. & Bailey, C. T. (2000). *The role of cultural factors in school relevant cognitive functioning. Synthesis of findings on cultural contexts, cultural orientations, and individual differences.* Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed at Risk, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U. S. Department of Education, Washington, D. C.
- Boykin, A. W., & Ellison, C. (1995). The multiple ecologies of black youth socialization: An Afrographic analysis. In R. Taylor (Ed.), *African American youth socialization: Their social and economic status in the United States* (83-128). Westport: Praeger.
- Boykin, A.W. & Allen, B. (1988). Rhythmic movement facilitation of learning in working class Afro-American children. *Journal of Genetic Psychology, 149*, 335-348.
- Boykin, A. W. (1986). The triple quandary and the schooling of Afro-American children. In U. Neisser (Ed.), *The school achievement of minority children: New perspectives* (pp. 57-92). Hillsdale, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Boykin, A. W. & Toms, F. D., (1985). Black child socialization: A conceptual framework. In H. McAdoo & J. McAdoo (Ed.), *Black Children: Social, educational and parental environments* (pp. 33-51). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Boykin, Wade. (1983). On task performance and Afro-American children. In U. R. Spencer (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motives* 324-371.
- Boykin, A.W. (1982). Task variability and the performance of Black and White children: Vervistic explorations. *Journal of Black Studies, 12*(4), 469-485.
- Brazelton, T.B., Koslowski, B., & Tronick, E. (1976). Neonatal behavior among urban Zambians and Americans. *Journal Academy of Child Psychiatry, 15*. 97-108

- Brisco, D.B. (1991). Designing for diversity in school success: Capitalizing on culture. *Preventing School Failure*, 36, 13-18.
- Brophy, J., & Good, T., (1986). Teacher behavior and student achievement. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (340-370). New York: Macmillan.
- Brown, A. L., Palincsar, A. S., & Purcell, L. (1986). Poor readers: Teach, don't label. *The Lawrence school achievement of minority children: New perspectives* (pp. 105-43). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Brownvboard (1994) In pursuit of freedom and equality: Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, retrieved August 15, 2006 from <http://brownvboard.org/index.htm>.
- Bromley, K. D. (1998). *Language art: Exploring connections*. Needham Heights, MA: Allen & Bacon.
- Carby, H. V., (1998). *Race Men*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Cavalluzzo, L. C. (2004). Is national board certification an effective signal of teacher quality? The CNA Corporation.
<http://www.cna.org/documents/Cavaluzzostudy.pdf>.
- Chubb, J. E., & Loveless, T. (2002). *Bridging the achievement gap*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Civil Rights Act. (1964). Congressional Record Document Number: PL 88-352.
- Clark, C. & Peterson, P., (1980). Teachers?? Thought processes. In M. Witrock (ed.) *Handbook of research on teaching*, 255-96. New York: Macmillan.
- Cohen, C.E., & Rice, J. K, (2005). National board certification as professional development: Design and cost-executive summary. The Finance Project.
- Cohen, R.A. (1969). Conceptual styles, cultural conflict, and nonverbal tests of intelligence. *American Anthropologist*, 71, 828-856.
- Collins, M. T., C. (1982). *Marva Collins way*. Los Angeles: Jeremy P. Tarcher.
- Coleman, J. S. (1966) *Equality of Educational Opportunity Study* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education/National Center for Education.
- Cooper, J. D. (2000). *Literacy: Helping children construct meaning*. Boston:: Houghton Mifflin.

- Cornell Law (2004., Civil Right Law, Cornell Law School retrieved April 5, 2006 from http://www.law.cornell.edu/wex/index.php/Civil_rights.
- Costenbader, V. K. Markson, S. (1994). School suspension: A survey of current policies and practices. *NASSP Bulletin*, 78, 103-107.
- Cozzens, L. (1995). Brown v. Board of Education. *African American History*. Retrieved September 25, 2006 from <http://fledge.watson.org/~list/balckhistory/civilrights-55-65>.
- CEC (2006). Council for Exceptional Children website CEC.sped.org retrieved October, 2006 from <http://www.cec.sped.org//AM/Template.cfm?Section=Home>.
- Coutinho, Oswald, & Best. (2002). The influence of sociodemographics and gender on the disproportionate identification of minority students as having learning disabilities. *Remedial & Special Education*, 23(1), 49-60.
- Coutiho, M.J. & Oswald, D.P. (2000). Disproportionate representation of special education: S synthesis and recommendations. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, (9), 2 135-156.
- Cullinan, D., Epstein, M., & Schultz, R., (1986). Importance of SED teacher competencies to residential, local, and university education authorities. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, (9), 63-70.
- Cureton, G. O., (1978). Using a Black learning style. *The Reading Teacher*, 31, 751-756.
- Darling-Hammond, L. & Sykes, G. (2003). Wanted: A national teacher supply policy for education: the right way to meet the "highly qualified teacher" challenge. *Education Policy Analysis Archives* (11), 33.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). Teacher quality and student achievement: A review of state policy evidence. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 8 (1).
- Darling-Hammond, L. *The right to learn*. New Jersey: Jossey-Bass.
- Delpit, L.D. (2002) No Kinda Sense, in Delpit (Ed) *The skin that we speak* (34-48), New Press, NY.
- Delpit, L. D. (1995). *Other people's children: Cultural conflict in the classroom*. New York, NY: The New Press.
- Delpit, L. D. (1988). The silenced dialogue: Power and pedagogy in educating other peoples' children. *Harvard Educational Review*, 58,280-298.

- Demographics by District*. (2003). Retrieved 6/27/03, 2000-2001, from
 hM://kdemg,xW1.kde.state.ky.us:7777/discoverer4ii/viewer?ac=discoverer public-4OoLaprod3.kde.state.ky.us.&eul=DISCOVE.
- Deno, E. (1970). Special education as developmental capital. *Exceptional Children*, 37, 229-237.
- Dent, H.L. (1976). Assessing black children for mainstream placement. In R.L. Jones (Ed.), *Mainstreaming and the minority child*. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children.
- DeRidder, L. M. (1991). How suspension and expulsion contribute to dropping out. *The Education Digest*, 44-47.
- Dillon, D. R. (1989). Showing them that I want them to learn and that I care about who they are: A microethnography of the social organization of a secondary low-track English-reading classroom. *American Educational Research Journal*, 26(2), 227-259.
- Dixon, A. D. & Rousseau, C. K. (2005) Are we are still not saved: Critical race theory in education ten years later. *Race Ethnicity and Education* 8 (1) p. 7-27.
- Doyle, W., (1990). Case methods in the education of teachers. *Teacher education quarterly*, 17 (1), 7-15.
- Draper, I. (1999). Preamble, relationship, community, and positive reframing: Addressing the needs of urban schools. *First Annual Urban Schools Symposium Report*. Denver, CO; Boston, MA; & Eugene, OR: National Institute for Urban School Improvement.
- Eckstrom, R. B., Goertz, M.E., Pollack, J.M., & Rock, D.A. (1986). Who drops out of high schools and why? Findings from a national study. *Teachers College Record*, 87,357-373.
- Ellison, C.M., Boykin, A.W., Penn Towns, D., Stokes, A. (2000). *Classroom Cultural Ecology: The Dynamics of Classroom Life in Schools Serving Low-Income African American Children*. (Technical Report) Baltimore, MD and Washington, DC: Johns Hopkins University & Howard University, Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk. Report No. 44.
- Erickson, H. L. (2001). *Stirring the Head, Heart, and Soul: Redefining Curriculum and Instruction*. Thousand Oaks, CA., Corwin Press.
- Federal Register (1999) Federal Register/Vol. 64, No. 48/Friday, March 12, 1999/Notices.retrieved September, 2006 from
<http://www.ed.gov/legislation/FedRegister/other/1999-1/031299i.pdf>.

- Federal Register (2004). Individuals with Disabilities Act. U.S. Department of Education, retrieved from <http://ide.ed.gov/explore/view/p/,root,statute,l,B,612a>.
- Ferguson, R. (1998). Can schools narrow the black-white test score gap? In C. Jencks & M. Phillips (Eds.) *The black-white test score gap*. Washington, D. C. Brookings Institution Press.
- Fierros, E.G. & Conroy, J.W. (2002). Double jeopardy: An exploration of restrictiveness and race in special education. In D.J. Losen & G. Orfield (Eds), *Racial inequity in special education* (39-70). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- Fordham, S. (1988). Racelessness as a factor in black students' school success: Pragmatic strategy or pyrrhic victory? *Harvard Educational Review*, 58 (1), 54-84.
- Fordham, S., & Ogbu, J. (1986). Black students' school success: Coping with the burden of "acting white." *Urban Review*, 18, 176-206.
- Foster, H. (1986). *Ribbin', jivin' and playin' the dozens: The persistent dilemma in our schools*. New York: Ballantine.
- Franklin, M. E. (1992). Culturally Sensitive Instructional Practices for African-American Learners with Disabilities. *Exceptional Children*, 59 (2), 115-122.
- Freund, M. (2005). A study of the role of mentoring in achieving certification by the national board for professional teaching standards. U. S. Department of Education.
- Galda, L., Cullinan, B., & Strickland, D. S. (1997). *Language, literacy, and the child* (2nd ed.). Fort Worth, TX Harcourt Brace.
- Gall, M.D., Borg, W.R., & Gall, J.P. (1996). *Educational research: An introduction*. White Plains, NY, USA: Longman Publishers.
- Garcia, R. (1978). *Fostering a pluralistic society through multi-ethnic education*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.
- Gardner, H. (1999). *The discipline mind: What all students should understand*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice*. New York: Basic Books.
- Gay, G. (1994). *At the essence of learning: Multicultural education*. West Lafayette, IN: Kappa Delta Pi.
- Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally Responsive Teacher Theory, Research & Practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.

- Gay, G. (2001). Educational equality for students of color. In J. A. B. Banks, C. A. (Ed.), *Multicultural education: Issues and perspectives* (4th ed., pp. 197-224). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gay, G. (2002). Culturally responsive teaching in special education for ethnically diverse students: setting the stage. *Qualitative Studies in Education*, 15(6), 613-629.
- Gee, J.P. (1985). The Narrativization of Experience in the Oral Style. *Boston University Journal of Education* 167 1.
- Gibson, M. (1988). *Accommodation without assimilation: Sikh immigrants in an American high school*. New York: Cornell University Press.
- Gibson, S., & Dembo, M. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76, 569-582.
- Gilmore, P. (1985). "Gimme room": School resistance, attitude and access to literacy. *Journal of Education*, 167, 111-128.
- Giesbrecht, M.L., & Routh, D.K. (1979). The influence of categories of cumulative folder information on teacher referrals of low-achieving children for special education services. *American Educational Research Journal*, 16(2), 181-187.
- Giroux, H. A., (1991). *Postmodernism, feminism, and cultural politics : redrawing educational boundaries* SUNY series, teacher empowerment and school reform. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Goddard, R.D., Hoy, W. K., Hoy, A.W., (2000) Collective teacher efficacy: Its meaning, measure, and impact on student achievement *American Educational Research Journal*, 37, 2 479-507.
- Goldhaber, D. & Anthony, E. (2004). *Can teacher quality be effectively assessed?* Urban Institute, Washington, D. C. <http://www.urban.org/>.
- Goldhaber, D. & Eide, E. (2003). Methodological thoughts on measuring the impact of private sector competition on the educational workplace. *Education Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 25 (2), 217-232.
- Goldhaber, D. (2002). Teacher quality and teacher pay structure: What do we know, and what are the options? *Georgetown Public Policy Review*, 7 (2), 81-94.
- Goldhaber, D., Brewer, D., & Anderson, D., (1999). A three-way error components analysis of educational productivity, *Education Economics*, 7, (3), 199-208.
- Goldring, E.B. & Smrekar, C.E. (2000) Magnet schools and the pursuit of racial balance *Education and Urban Society* 33 (1) 17-35.

- Gollnick D. M., & Chinn, P. C. (1990). *Multicultural education in a pluralistic society*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Good, T.L. (1987). Two decades of research on teacher expectations: Findings and future directions. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(4), 32-47.
- Gould, S. G. (1981). *The mismeasure of man*. New York: Norton.
- Graham, P. (2005). An interdisciplinary study of teacher change and it's impact on student work. University of Georgia.
- Grant, C. A., & Secada, W. G. (1990). Preparing teachers for diversity. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 403-422). New York: Macmillan.
- Greathouse, B., Gomez, R., & Wurster, S. (1988). An investigation of Black and Hispanic parents' locus of control, childbearing attitudes, and practices and degree of involvement in Head Start. *Negro Educational Review*, 39 (1-2), 4-17.
- Green, M.T., Clopton, J.R., & Pope, A.W. (1996). Understanding gender differences in referral of children to mental health services. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 4(3), 182- 190.
- Grossman, H. (1995). *Special education in a diverse society*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Grossman, H. (1990). *Trouble-free teaching: solutions to behavior problems in the classroom*. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield.
- Haberman, M. (1995). Selecting 'star' teachers for children and youth in urban poverty. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(10), 771-78 1.
- Hale, J. E. (200 1). *Learning while black creating education excellence for African American children*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Hale-Benson, J. E. (1986). *Black children: Their roots, culture and learning styles*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Hale-Benson, J. E. (1982). *Black children: Their roots, culture and learning styles*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Hallahan, D. P., Kauffman, J.M. & Lloyd, J.W. (1985). *Introduction to learning disabilities* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hanna, J. (1988). *Disruptive school behavior: Class, race and culture*. New York: Holmes & Meier.

- Harvard University, (2005) *The Tripod Project* retrieved August 6, 2006 from <http://www.ksg.harvard.edu/tripodproject/about.html#whatis>
- Harris, C. (1993). *Framing dropouts: Notes on the politics of an urban high school*. Albany, NY, SUNY Press.
- Harry, B., & Anderson, M. (1994). The disproportionate placement of African American males in special education programs: A critique of the process. *Journal of Negro Education*, 63, 602-619.
- Hanushek, E., Kain, J. F., & Rivkin, S. G., (1999). Do higher salaries buy better teachers? *NBER Working Papers 7450*, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc.
- Havinghurst, R.J. (1972). *Human development and education* (3rd ed.). New York: McKay.
- Heath, S.B.(1983). *Ways with Words: Language, Life and Work in Communities and Classrooms*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Heller, K. A., Holtzman, W. H., & Messick, S. (Ed.), (1982). *Placing children in special education: A strategy for equality*. Washington, D. C.: National Academy Press.
- Hendrie, C. (1996) 'Magnets' value in desegregating schools is found to be limited. *Education Week November 13, 1996*.
- Henson, R. K.(2001). *Teacher self-efficacy: Substantive implications and measurement dilemmas*. Educational Research Exchange. Texas A & M University, College Station, TX.
- Hermstein, R. J. M., C. (1994). *The bell curve: Intelligence and class structure in American life*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Herrington, C. D. & Cohen-Vogel, L. (2005). Introduction: Teacher and leadership preparation and development: No stranger to politics. *Educational Policy* 19 (1) 5-17.
- Hill, R. B. (1999). *The Strengths of African American Families: Twenty-five Years Later*. New York: University Press of America, Inc.
- Hilliard, A. G. 1. (1983). Psychological factors associated with language in the education of the African-American child. *Journal of Negro Education*, 52 (1), 24-34.
- Hilliard, A. G. 1. (1987). Testing African American Students [Special Issue]. *Negro Educational Review*, (213).
- Hilliard, A. G. 1. (1992a). Behavioral style, culture, and teaching and learning. *Journal of Negro Education*, 6 (3), 370-377.

- Hilliard, A. G. 1. (1992b). The pitfalls and promises of special education practice. *Exceptional Children*, 59, 168-172.
- Hollins, E. R. (1990) Debunking the myth of a monolithic White American culture, or moving toward cultural inclusion. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 34, 201-209.
- Hollins, E. R. (1996). *Culture in school learning: Revealing the deep meaning*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Horton, P. & Hunt, C. (1968). *Sociology (2nd ed.)*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hosp, J. L., & Reschly, D. J. (2002). Regional differences in school psychology practice. *School Psychology Review*, 31, 11-29.
- Howard, T. (2005). *National board certification: Supporting African American teachers*. University of California, Los Angeles.
- Howard, T. (2001). Powerful pedagogy for African American students A case of four teachers. *Urban Education* (36), 2, 179-202.
- Huck, S. (2000). *Reading Statistics and Research*. New York: Longman.
- Humphrey, D. (2004). *Sharing the wealth: National board certified teachers and the schools that need them most*. SRI International.
- Hutton, J. B. (1985). What reasons are given by teachers who refer problem behavior students? *Psychology in the Schools*, 22, 79-82.
- Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) (2005) Model state teacher policy. Council of Chief State School Officers. Retrieved September 6, 2006 from <http://www.ccsso.org/>.
- Jackson, S. (1992). *Autobiography: Pivotpoints for the study and practice of multiculturalism in teacher education*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.
- Jencks, C. & Phillips, M. (1998). *The Black-White Test Score Gap*. The Brookings Institution, Washington, D. C.
- Jensen, A. R. (1969). How much can we boost IQ and scholastic achievement? *Harvard Educational Review*, 39(1), 1-125.
- Jordan, H. Mendro, R., & Weeasinghe, D. (1997). *Teacher effects on longitudinal student achievement*. Paper presented at the National Evaluation Annual Meeting, Indianapolis.

- Jordan-Irvine, J. (1990). *Black Students and School Failure: Policies, Practices, and Prescriptions*. Greenwood Press, Westport, CT.
- Kaestle, C.F. (1983). *Pillars of the Republic: Common Schools and American Society, 1780-1860*. New York: Hill and Wang.
- Kailin, J. (1994). Anti-racist staff development. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 10, 169-184.
- Kane, T. J., Rockoff, J. E. & Staiger, D. O. (2005) Identifying effective teachers in New York City. Paper presented at NBER Summer Institute.
- Kauffman, J. & Wong, K. (1991). Effective teachers of students with behavioral disorders: Are generic teaching skills enough? *Behavioral Disorders*, 16, (3), 225-237.
- Kentucky Administrative Regulations, (2000). Special Education Programs, 707 KAR 1:280, Kentucky Department of Education retrieved October 4, 2006 from <http://www.education.ky.gov/>
- Kentucky Core Content Tests ([KCCT], 1999) Kentucky Department of Education retrieved November 6, 2004 from <http://www.education.ky.gov/>
- Kerr, M. & Zigmond, N., (1986). What do high school teachers want? A study of expectations and standards. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 9, 239-249.
- Ladson-Billings, G., (2001) *Crossing Over to Canaan: The Journey of New Teachers in Diverse Classrooms*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1996). "Your blues ain't like mine": Keeping issues of race and racism on the multicultural agenda. *Theory Into Practice*, 35 (4), 248-255.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995a). Multicultural teacher education: Research, policy, and practices. In J. A. Banks & C. A.M. Banks (Ed.), *Handbook of research on multicultural education* (pp. 747-759). New York: MacMillan.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995b). Toward a theory of culturally irrelevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32, 465-491.
- Ladson-Billings, G.J., & Tate, W. F., (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. *Teacher College Record*, 97 (1), 47-68.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1994). What we can learn from multicultural research. *Educational Leadership*, 51 (4), 22-26.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1994) *The Dreamkeepers: Successful Teachers of African-American Children* Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

- Larke, P. Webb-Johnson, G.C., Anderson, M.G. & Rochon, R. (1999) Instructional racism in American schools: A call for culturally responsive pedagogy. In N. L. Quisenberry & D.J. McIntyre (Eds.), *ATE commission on racism from a healing perspective* (49-66). Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Education.
- Lee, C. (1994). African-centered pedagogy: Complexities and possibilities. In M. Shujaa (Ed.), *Too much schooling: Too little education* (pp. 295-318). Trenton: African World Press.
- Lee, E. (1985). *Letters to Marcia: A teacher's guide to anti-racist education*. Toronto, Ontario: Cross-Cultural Communication Centre.
- Lefevre, C. (1966). Inner city schools: As the children see it. *Elementary School Journal*, 7, 8-15.
- Leu, D. J., & Kinzer, C. K. (1999). *Effective literacy instruction, K-8* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.
- Library of Congress (1975). Public Law 94-142. Education for All Handicapped.
- Lightfoot, S. I. (1983). *The good high school*. New York, NY: Basic Books, Inc.
- Lloyd, J., Kauffman, J., Landrum, T., & Roe, D., (1991) Why do teachers refer students for special education: An analysis of referral records. *Exceptionality*, 2, 115-126.
- Lloyd, J. W., Forness, S. R., & Kavale, K. A. (1998). Some methods are more effective than others. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 33, 195-200.
- Lomotey, K. (1990). *Going to school: The African-American experience*. Albany, NY: State University of New York.
- Loscocco, L. (1994, April 17). It's Tough to Convince Black Men That Prostate Cancer Test is Vital. *Columbus (Ohio) Dispatch*, pp. IC-2C.
- Losen, D.J., & Orfield, G. (2002). *Racial inequality in special education*. (Eds). The Civil Rights Project. Harvard Education Press.
- Lustick, D. (2005). National board certification as professional development: Pathways to success. The Finance Project.
- Mackie, R., Kvaraceus, W. & Williams, H. (1957). Teachers of children who are emotionally maladjusted. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. 1-25.
- MacMillan & Hendrick, (1993). Evolution and legacies. In Goodlad, K.I. and Lovitt, T.C. (Eds.) *Integrating general and special education* (23-48). New York: Merrill.

- Majors, R. & Mancini-Billson, J. (1992). *Cool pose: The dilemmas of Black manhood in America*. New York: Lexington Books.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B., (1995) *Designing Qualitative Research. Second Edition*. Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- McCloskey, W. (2005). Teacher effectiveness and student learning. University of North Carolina at Greensboro.
- McDermott, R. P. & Gospodinoff, K (1979). Social contexts of ethnic borders and school failure. In *Nonverbal behavior: Applications and cultural implications*. A. Wolfgang, (Ed.) 175-196. New York: Academic Press.
- McIntyre, T. (1991). Understanding and defusing the streetcorner tactics of black socially maladjusted youth. *Severe Behavior Disorders of Children and Youth*, (14), 85-97
- McIntyre, T. & Battle, J. (1998). The traits of 'good teachers' as identified by students with emotional and/or behavioral disorders. *Behavioral Disorders* 23 (2): 57-77.
- McIntyre, T. (1995). *The McIntyre Assessment of Culture*. Columbia, MO: Hawthorne Educational Services.
- McIntyre, T. (1992). Teaching urban behavior disordered youth. In R. Peterson & S. Ishii-Jordan (Eds.), *Multicultural issues in the education of students with behavioral disorders*. Boston: Brookline.
- McDermott, R.P. (1987) Explaining minority school failure, again. *Anthropology and education quarterly* 18, 361-364.
- Mercer, J. R. (1973). *Labeling the mentally retarded: Clinical and social system perspective on mental retardation*. Berkeley, CA. University of California Press.
- Michaels, S. (1981). Sharing Time: Children's Narrative Styles and Differential Access to Literacy." *Language in Society* 10.
- Montgomery, W. (2000). Literature discussion in the elementary school classroom: Developing cultural understanding. *Multicultural Education*, 8(1), 33-36.
- Montgomery, W. (2001). Journal writing: Connecting reading and writing in mainstream education settings. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 17(1), 93-96.
- Morgan, H. (1976). Neonatal precocity and the Black experience. *Negro Educational Review*, (27), 129-134.
- Morsink, C., Fardig, D., Algozzine, K., & Algozzine, B. (1987). Competencies for teachers of students with high incidence handicaps. *British Columbia Journal of Special Education*, 11, (2), 109-122.

- National Assessment of Educational Practice (NAEP, [2005]). Mathematics Grade 8 2005. Retrieved November 15, 2006 from <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/nde>
- National Association of State Boards of Education (2002). Retrieved September, 2006 from <http://www.nasbe.org/>.
- National Board for Professional Teaching Standards ([NBPTS], (2004). retrieved October, 2006 from <http://www.nbpts.org/>
- National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education ([NCATE], 2006). *Professional Standards for the Accreditation of Schools, Colleges, and Departments of Education*.
- National Research Council, (2001). Testing teacher candidates: The role of licensure tests in improving teacher quality. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Neal, L. V. I., McCray, A.D., Webb-Johnson, G., Bridgest, S.T., (2003). The effects of African American movement styles on teachers' perceptions and reactions. *Journal of Special Education* (37) 1.
- Neal, L.V. I., McCray, A. D., & Webb-Johnson, G. (2001). Teachers' reactions to African American students' movement styles. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 36(3): 168-174.
- Neal L.V.I. (1997). The Effects of African American Movement Styles on Teachers' Perceptions and Reactions. University of Texas at Austin.
- Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19, 317-328.
- Nieto, S. (1996). *Affirming diversity: The sociopolitical context of multicultural education* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Longman.
- Nieto, S. (2004). *Affirming diversity: The sociopolitical context of multicultural education* (4th edition). New York: Allyn & Bacon.
- Nobles, W. (1991). Psychometrics and African American reality: A question of cultural antimony. In A. G. Hilliard (Ed.), *Testing African American students: Special re-issue of the Negro education reviews* (45-55). Morristown, NJ: Aaron.
- Oakes, J. (1995). Two cities' tracking and within-school segregation. *Teachers college record*, 96, 681-690.
- Obiakor, F. E. (1999). Teacher expectations of minority exceptional learners: Impact on "accuracy" of self-concepts. *Exceptional Children*, 66, 39-53.

- Obiakor, F. E. (2001). *It even happens in good schools: Responding to cultural diversity in today's classrooms*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Obiakor, F. E., & Ford, B. A. (Ed.). (2002). *Creating successful learning environments for African American learners with exceptionalities*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Office of Special Education Programs (2003). Twenty-fourth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act retrieved October, 2006 from <http://www.ed.gov/about/reports/annual/osep/2003/25th-vol-1.pdf>
- Office of Special Education Programs (2000) History twenty-five years of progress in education children with disabilities through IDEA. Retrieved June 17, 2002 from <http://www.ed.gov/policy/speced/leg/idea/history.pdf>
- Ogbu, J. U. (2004). Collective identity and the burden of “acting white” in black history, community, and education, *The Urban Review*, 36, 1.
- Ogbu, J. (1990). Minority education in comparative perspective. *Journal of Negro Education*, 59 (1), 45-57.
- Ogbu, J. (1988). Class stratification, racial stratification, and schooling. In L. Weiss, *Class, race, and gender in American education*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Olneck, M. (1995). Immigrants and education. In J.A. Banks. & C. A. M. Banks (Ed.), *Handbook of research on multicultural education* (310-327). New York: Macmillan.
- O’Sullivan, R. (2005). Investigating the classroom assessment literacy of board certified teachers. University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Western Region Education Service Alliance, and the Assessment Training Institute.
- Patton, J. M. (1998). The disproportionate representation of African Americans in special education: Looking behind the curtain for understanding and solutions. *The Journal of Special Education*, 32 (1), 25-35.
- Pearcy, M.T., Clopton, J.R., & Pope, A.W. (1993). Influences on teacher referral of children to mental health services: Gender, severity, and internalizing versus externalizing problems. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioural Disorders*, 1, 165-169.
- Piestrup, A. (1973). *Black dialect interference and accommodation of reading instruction in first grade*. Berkeley, CA: University of California, Language Behavior Research Laboratory.

- Podell, D. M. & Soodak, L. C. (1993) Teacher efficacy and bias in special education referrals. *Journal of Educational Research* 86, 4, 247-253.
- Polsgrove, L. & Rieth, H. (1979). A new look at competencies required by teachers of emotionally disturbed and behaviorally disordered youth. In F. H. Wood (Ed.), *Teachers for secondary school students with serious emotional disturbance: Content for training programs* (25-46). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota.
- Purcell-Gates, V. (1995). *Other People's Words*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Ramirez, M., & Alfredo C. (1974). *Cultural democracy, bicognitive development, and education*. New York: Academic.
- Rego, M., & Nieto, S. (2000). Multicultural/intercultural teacher education in two contexts: Lessons from the United States and Spain. *Teacher and Teacher Education*, 4, 413-427.
- Rohwer, W. D., & Harris, W. (1975). Media effects on prose learning in two populations of children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 67, 651-657.
- Ryan, S., Metcalf-Turner, P. and Larson, A. (2002). Standardization or Standards for Professional Practice: Public and Private Theories of Teaching in Professional Development Schools in *Rethinking Standards through Teacher Preparation Partnerships*, Griffin, G. (Ed). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Rosenfeld H. (1971). A clinical approach to the psychoanalytic theory of the life and death instincts: An investigation into the aggressive aspects of narcissism. *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis* 52, 169-178.
- Safran, S. & Safran, J., (1987). Teachers' judgments of problem behaviors. *Exceptional Children*, (54), 240-244.
- Sanders, W. L., & Rivers, J. C. (1996). *Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future student academic achievement*. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee Value-Added Research and Assessment Center.
- Serwatka, T., Deering, S., & Grant, P. (1995) Disproportionate representation of African Americans in emotionally handicapped classrooms. *Journal of Black Studies*, 25, 492-506.
- Shulman, L. S., (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching, *Educational Researcher*, 15, 4-14.
- Shulman, L. (1985). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57, 1-22.

- Silverstein, B., & Krate, R. (1975). *Children of the dark ghetto: A developmental psychology*. New York: Praeger.
- Skiba, R. J., Peterson, R.L. & Williams, T. (1997). Office referrals and suspension: Disciplinary intervention in middle schools. *Education and Treatment Of Children*, 20, 295-315.
- Sleeter, C. E. and Grant, C. A. (2003). *Making Choices for Multicultural Education: Five Approaches to Race, Class, and Gender*. N.Y.: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sleeter, C. E. (2001). Preparing Teachers for Culturally Diverse Schools Research and the Overwhelming Presence of Whiteness. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 52 (2), 94-106.
- Smith, T. (2005). An examination of the relationship between depth of student learning and national board certification status. Appalachian State University.
- Spindler, G. D., & Spindler, L. (1993). The process of culture and person: Cultural therapy and culturally diverse schools. In P.D. Phelan, A. L. (Ed.), *Renegotiating cultural diversity in American schools*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Spindler, G. D., & Spindler, L. (1994). *Pathways to cultural awareness: Cultural therapy with teachers and students*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- St. John, N. (1971). Thirty-six teachers: Their characteristics and outcomes for Black and White pupils. *American Educational Research Journal*, 8, 635-648.
- Stough, L. & Palmer, D., (2003). Special thinking special settings: A qualitative study of expert special educators, *The Journal of Special Education*, 36 (4), 206-222.
- Tatum, B.D. (1997) *Why are all the Black kids sitting together in the cafeteria? And other conversations about race*. New York: Basic Books.
- Tharp, R. G. & Gallimore, R. (1989). *Rousing minds to life: Teaching and learning in social context*. New York: Cambridge University
- Townsend, B. L. (2000). The disproportionate discipline of African American learners: Reducing school suspensions and expulsions. *Exceptional Children*, 66 (3), 381-391.
- Townsend, B., Thomas, D., Witty, J., & Lee, R., (1996). Diversity and a school restructuring: Creating partnerships in a world of difference. *Teacher education and special education*, 19, 102-118.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A. & Hoy, W.K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research*, 68, 202-248.

- Tuck, K., & Boykin, A. W. (1989). Verve effects: The relationship of task performance to stimulus preference and variability in low-income Black and White children. In A. Harrison (Ed.), *The eleventh conference on empirical research in Black psychology*, (84-95). Washington, DC: NIMH Publications.
- Tyack, D. B. (1974). *The one best system: A history of American urban education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- U. S. Department of Education (2002). *No Child Left Behind [NCLB] Section 9101(23*
- U.S. Department of Labor (2006). Police and Detectives, Training, Other Qualifications, and Advancement retrieved November 17, 2006 from <http://www.bls.gov/oco/ocos160.htm>
- Vandevoort, L. G., Amrein-Beardsley, A., and Berliner, D. C., (2004). *National Board Certified Teachers and their students' achievement*. Education Policy Analysis Archives 12 (46).
- Villegas, A. M. (1991). *Culturally responsive pedagogy for the 1990s and beyond* (No. Trends and Issues Paper No. 6). Washington, D. C.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind and society: The development of higher mental processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Walker, E., Bettes, B. and Ceci, S.J. (1984). Teachers' assumptions regarding the severity of causes and outcomes of behavior problems in preschoolers. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 52, 899-903
- Walker, H. & Rankin, R. (1983). Assessing the behavioral expectations and demands of less restrictive settings. *School Psychology Review*, (12), 174-184.
- Walker, H. (1986). The assessment for integration into mainstream settings (AIMS) assessment system: Rationale, instruments, procedures, and outcomes. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, (15), 55-63.
- Walker, H. & Lamon, W. (1987). Social behavior standards and expectations of Australian and U.S. teacher groups. *Journal of Special Education*, 21, (3), 56-82.
- Walker, V., S., (1996). *Their highest potential: An African American community school in the segregated south*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press.
- Webb-Johnson, G. (2002). Are schools ready for Joshua? Dimensions of African - American culture among students identified as having behavioral/emotional disorders. *Qualitative Studies in Education*, 15(6), 653-671.
- Webb-Johnson, G. C. (1999). Cultural Contexts: Confronting the overrepresentation of

African American learners in special education. In L. Meyer & J. Scotti (Eds.). *Behavioral intervention: Principles, models, and practices* (pp. 449-464). Baltimore, MD: Brookline Publishers.

Wehlage, G. G. R., R. A. (1986). Dropping out: How much do schools contribute to the problem? *Teachers College Record*, 87, 374-393.

Wlodkowski, R. J. Ginsberg, M.B. (1995). *Diversity and motivation: Culturally responsive teaching*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wright, S.P., Horn, S.P., & Sanders, W.L., (1997). Teacher and classroom context effects on student achievement: Implications for teacher evaluation. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 11, 57-67.

Wu, S. C., Pink, W. T., Crain, R.L. & Motes, O. (1982). Dropping out: How much do schools contribute to the problem? *Teachers College Record*, 87, 374-393.

Yin, Robert K., 1984. *Case study research: design and methods*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Young, V. H. (1970). Family and childhood in a southern Georgia community. *American Anthropologist*, 72, 269-288.

Zeichner, K. (1992). *Educating teachers for cultural diversity*. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning.

Zeichner, K. (1993). Traditions of practice in U. S. preservice teacher education programs. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 9, 1-13.

Zemelman, S., Daniels, H., & Hyde, A. (1993) *Best practice: New standards for teaching and learning in America's schools*. Troy, MO: Heinemann.

APPENDICES

Effective Teaching of African American Students							
Current teaching level:	Elementary	Middle	High School	Other			
Number of years taught:							
Highest degree attained:	Bachelors	Master's	Rank II	Rank I	Doctorate		
Number of year in present teaching assignment:							
Ethnicity:	African American	Asian	Caucasian	Hispanic			
	Native American	Other (please specify)					
Number of African American Students in your classroom:							
Number of special education students in your classroom:							
National Board Certification	No _____		Yes _____				
Please complete the following regarding your post baccalaureate training (including your Master's, National Board certification, Rank I or II) questions as well as you can.			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The post-bachelor program helped you learn about yourself as a teacher.			1	2	3	4	5
2. The portfolio process was significant in your development as a teacher.			1	2	3	4	5
3. The post-bachelor program diversity/equity/access standard had an effect on your beliefs about students who receive special education services.			1	2	3	4	5
4. The post-bachelor program diversity/equity/access standard had an effect on your beliefs about students from low-income backgrounds.			1	2	3	4	5
5. The post-bachelor program diversity/equity/access standard had an effect on your beliefs about students with lower academic skills.			1	2	3	4	5
6. The post-bachelor program diversity/equity/access standard had an effect on your work as a teacher.			1	2	3	4	5
7. The post-bachelor program diversity/equity/access has changed you as a teacher.			1	2	3	4	5
8. You have pursued leadership roles since completing your post-bachelor program.			1	2	3	4	5
9. I am knowledgeable about the religious, cultural, linguistic, and socioeconomic backgrounds of my students and people in my community.			1	2	3	4	5
10. In my classroom I model respect for, and inclusion of, people who are different than myself in race, religion, language, abilities, and socioeconomic class.			1	2	3	4	5
11. Students perceive me as sincerely interested in, and respectful of, contributions made by women and the many ethnic, religious, racial and socioeconomic groups that make up the country.			1	2	3	4	5
12. I respectfully accommodate differently-abled students in my classroom.			1	2	3	4	5
13. I recognize and acknowledge the value of languages other than standard English.			1	2	3	4	5
14. I recognize and constructively address value conflicts based on race, religion, or socioeconomic class.			1	2	3	4	5
15. I am careful not to prejudge a student's performance based on cultural differences, socioeconomic status, or gender.			1	2	3	4	5
Please complete the following questions as well as you can.			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
16. I promote high self-esteem for all children in my classroom.			1	2	3	4	5
17. I encourage all students to understand and respect the feelings of others who are different from them.			1	2	3	4	5
18. My students see me as actively confronting instances of stereotyping, bias, and discrimination when they occur.			1	2	3	4	5
19. I teach my students to identify instances of prejudice and discrimination.			1	2	3	4	5
20. I help my students develop proper responses to instances of prejudice and discrimination.			1	2	3	4	5
21. I involve parents and other community members to help children develop greater understanding of the benefits and challenges of living in a culturally diverse society.			1	2	3	4	5
22. I use opportunities such as current events to discuss different cultures and religions.			1	2	3	4	5

23. I provide students with opportunities to problem-solve issues of inclusiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I recognize that tracking reinforces "classism" and is counterproductive to student learning at all ability levels.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I understand the field of special education as an evolving and changing discipline based on philosophies, evidence-based principles, and theories, relevant laws and policies, diverse and historical points of view and human issues that have influenced the field of special education.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I demonstrate respect for my students first as unique human beings.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I understand the effects than an exceptional condition can on have an individual's learning in school and throughout life.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I possess a repertoire of evidence-based instructional to strategies individualize instruction for individuals with and without exceptional learning needs.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I actively create learning environments for individuals with exceptional learning needs that foster cultural understanding, safety and emotional well-being, positive social interactions, and active engagement of individuals with exceptional learning needs.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I seek to uphold and improve where necessary the laws, regulations, and policies governing the delivery of special education and related services and the practice of their profession.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I regularly collaborate with the special education teacher to assure the needs of individuals with exceptional learning needs are addressed throughout my instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
Instructional Self-efficacy	Nothing	Very Little	Some	Quite A Bit	A Great Deal
32. How much can you do to influence the class sizes in your school?	1	2	3	4	5
33. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	1	2	3	4	5
34. How much can you do to promote learning when there is a lack of support from home?	1	2	3	4	5
35. How much can you do to keep students on task on difficult assignments?	1	2	3	4	5
36. How much can you do to increase students' memory of what they have been taught in previous lessons?	1	2	3	4	5
37. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in schoolwork?	1	2	3	4	5
38. How much can you do to get students to work together?	1	2	3	4	5
39. How much can you do to overcome the influence of adverse community conditions on students' learning?	1	2	3	4	5
40. How much can you do to get children to do their homework?	1	2	3	4	5
41. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	1	2	3	4	5
42. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
43. How much can you do to prevent problem behavior on the school grounds?	1	2	3	4	5
44. How much can you do to get parents to become involved in school activities?	1	2	3	4	5
45. How much can you assist parents in helping their children do well in school?	1	2	3	4	5
46. How much can you do to make parents feel comfortable coming to school?	1	2	3	4	5
47. How much can you do to get community groups involved in working with the schools?	1	2	3	4	5
48. How much can you do to get churches involved in working with the school?	1	2	3	4	5
49. How much can you do to get businesses involved in working with schools?	1	2	3	4	5
50. How much can you do to get local colleges and universities involved in working with the school?	1	2	3	4	5
51. How much can you do to make school a safe place?	1	2	3	4	5
52. How much can you do to make students enjoy coming to school?	1	2	3	4	5
53. How much can you do to get students to trust teachers?	1	2	3	4	5
54. How much can you help other teachers with their teaching skills?	1	2	3	4	5
Comments: Is there anything else you would like to share in writing related to this survey?					

CURRICULUM VITAE

NANCY STONE BEALMEAR

3902 Olympic Avenue
Louisville, Kentucky 40207
502-896-9891 (h)
502-314-1845 (c)
nsbealmear@bellsouth.net

ACADEMIC BACKGROUND:

Ph.D. Student in Curriculum and Instruction, University of Louisville Special Education Strand GPA 3.7 Dissertation: Effective Teaching of African American Students Who Receive Special Education Services Dissertation Chair: Dr. Tom Simmons Defense: November 13, 2006	1996-Present Louisville, KY
---	--------------------------------

Future Professor Program, 2003
Selected Participant
Dr. Deborah Voltz, Director

Masters of Science in Education Special Education/Learning Disabilities Western Illinois University	1978-1980 Macomb, IL
---	-------------------------

Bachelors of Science in Education Certification K-12 Special Education Northeast Missouri State University	1971-1974 Kirksville, MO
--	-----------------------------

TEACHING CERTIFICATION:

Iowa Teaching Certification; Special Education K-12; Elementary Education K-8
Missouri Teaching Certification Special Education K-12
Kentucky LBD Certification K-12

CURRENT RESEARCH AND ACADEMIC INTEREST AREAS:

Special Education; Diversity and Equality; Teacher Education; Teacher Professional Development; Curriculum and Instruction

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Jefferson County Public Schools Special Education Teacher Middle School LD, BD, MMD High School PDOHI/LD	1998-Present Louisville, KY
The Learning House Content writer for online courses for teacher education	2004 Louisville, KY
Adjunct Faculty University of Louisville Taught Preservice education classes	1996-1998 Louisville, KY
Graduate Assistant University of Louisville Served as a research assistant on CREDE grant studying nongraded primary programs	1996-1998 Louisville, KY
Teacher/ Liaison/ Coordinator, Title IX Indian Education Grant Davenport Community Schools Served as tutor, advocate, liaison and coordinator for the school district in working with Native American students and their families	1994-1996 Davenport, Iowa
Adjunct Faculty Teikyo Marycrest University Taught special education methods courses to Preservice teachers	1993-1994 Davenport, Iowa
Part-time Faculty Scott Community College Taught preservice foundations level and field experience education courses; developed and implemented field experience and multicultural education classes	1991-1996 Davenport, Iowa
Elementary Classroom Teacher Davenport Community Schools	1977-1988 Davenport, Iowa

K-3 Mental Disabilities Teacher
K-6 Learning Disabilities Teacher
Primary Classroom Teacher

Elementary Special Education Teacher
Central Dewitt Community Schools
K-3 Mental Disabilities Teacher

1974-1977
DeWitt, Iowa

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- Faculty training on accommodations for Special Education students
- Multicultural Education Curriculum and Implementation
- Jefferson County Public Schools Professional Development Diversity Committee member
- Developed and presented workshops on curriculum for Native American students and subsequent implementation in elementary classrooms
- AERA Division B Graduate Student Seminar, Selected Participant, 1998, San Diego

RESEARCH

Quantitative experience on effective teaching of African American students
Qualitative experience on a grant for non-graded primary programs

PUBLICATIONS

McIntyre, E., Kyle, D., Hovda, R., & Stone, N. (1998). Non-graded primary programs: Reform for Kentucky's children. *Journal of Education for Students Placed At-Risk*, 4 (1), 47-64.

McIntyre, E. & Stone, N. (1998). Culturally contextualized instruction in Appalachian-descent and African-American classrooms. *National Reading Conference Yearbook*, 47, 209-220.

PRESENTATIONS

NAACP Conference (September 2006) School Desegregation: The Great Issue of Our Past, Present, and Future, Chosen Presenter

Help Me, Help My Child (October, 2000)
Learning Disabilities Association, Louisville, KY.
Parent Symposium-Invited Presenter

Guest speaker presentations in UofL MAT classes

Journal of Curriculum Theorizing Conference on Curriculum
Theory and Classroom Practice, (October 21-24, 1998). Bloomington, IN
Refereed Presentation

Varieties of Non-graded Primary Classrooms in Kentucky (1998). (Division
H-Interactive Symposium) American Educational Research Association, San
Diego, CA.
Refereed Presentation.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS

- National Teacher Review Board Member Division of Learning Disabilities
Council for Exceptional Children
- Kentucky Teacher Internship Program Resource Teacher Certification
- Commitment to urban schools and social justice/equity throughout career
- Developed mentoring program for middle school students with university
students
which included training of the mentors
- Diversity curriculum alignment for Native American students
- Served as home/school liaison for Native American families and the
school
- Developed three new classes for a teacher education program at the
community college level, increasing courses from one to four courses
- Alignment of curriculum for teacher education program at community
college with that of two four-year universities
- Served as supervisor for students in field experience classes
- Served as student teacher cooperating teacher
- Received UofL grant to invite/host Dr. Patrick Slattery, Texas A & M,
Professor of Curriculum Theory

AWARDS

Golden Key International Honour Society, October, 2006
Who's Who Among America's Teachers, 2006
Who's Who In America Millenium Edition
Who's Who of American Women Millennium Edition
Distinguished Teaching Award Nominee, 1995, 1996

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS AND ASSOCIATIONS

Golden Key International Honour Society
Council for Exceptional Children