

Running head: THE AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE ACHIEVEMENT GAP

Explaining the Achievement Gap of African American Males Relative to Other
Student Groups

by

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THE AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE ACHIEVEMENT GAP

The African American Male Achievement Gap

Lora A. Adams-King

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Abstract

This research looked at a cumulative, long-standing problem: the academic achievement gap between African American male students relative to other student populations, the reasons for those gaps, including the historical factors, the school-to-prison-pipeline, implications for our society if we allow this problem to continue, and some remedies for this problem. The researcher conducted this study using meta-analysis of existing data. This meta-analytic investigation examined the impact of students' identification with school and motivation on student achievement. Specifically, this meta-analysis looked at existing research using the Identification with School Inventory and the Academic Motivation Scale in order to understand how these factors impact student achievement, and, more specifically, impact the achievement of African American male students. This study is the first documented to assess which one of these factors demonstrates the largest impact on student achievement. Results and implications for school policy and intervention are discussed.

Keywords: academic achievement, academic motivation, African Americans, Black, identification with school

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Dedication

This dissertation is a partial fulfillment of requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education in the Educational Leadership Program, and the culminating work of such. Upon receiving my baccalaureate and master's degrees, I admitted completing them out of necessity. They were done for me. The Doctor of Education Degree is different. I've undertaken this journey for Maude, my great, great-grandmother who died with the scars of the slave masters whip still embedded in her back. I did this for Maggie, my great-grandmother, who never attended school but reared seven children, and, even after the death of her husband, maintained tens of acres in order to leave an inheritance for her descendants. This was done for Susie, my grandmother, who only had a fifth grade education, yet was the smartest woman I've ever known, and taught me at a very early age to read, write, and love. I've done this for Andrew, my grandfather, whose parents died by the time he was eight. He was reared by his older siblings, and a community that was an ethnic melting pot. Though lacking formal education, he learned to speak thirteen languages fluently. In completing this work I also pay tribute to Julia, my paternal grandmother, who taught me that I am my brother's keeper. This was also done for my parents, Andrew and Annie, and though he's no longer with us, I am who I am because of them. I thank my children and grandchildren for their patience and understanding during the completion of this work, and my husband (Howard) for his never ending love and support. Finally, I thank God and give all glory, honor, and praise to Him for He has made it all possible.

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Chapter 1

Statement of the Problem

While we have continued to experience gains in academic achievement for all students, one population continues to lag behind the rest: our African American male population. This problem is not new, nor is it confined to the educational arena. It is a social phenomenon that has infiltrated the academic arena. Nevertheless, it cannot be left as is. It is crucial that this problem be adequately researched in order to be effectively addressed. The lack of academic achievement causes other, more severe problems. There exists what Toldson (2011) referred to as a school-to-prison pipeline. This problem is believed to begin early. In light of the aforementioned information, the following primary questions will be posed:

1. Is academic achievement associated with identification with school, as measured by the Identification with School Inventory?
2. Is academic achievement associated with academic motivation, as measured by the Academic Motivation Scale?
3. Is the achievement of African American males different from other student demographic groups influenced by identification with school?
4. Is the achievement of African American males different from other student demographic groups influenced by academic motivation?
5. If, in fact, an achievement gap does exist, is the effect more associated with identification with school or academic motivation?

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6. What are the other significant moderators in the association of achievement to identification with school?
7. What are the other significant moderators in the association of achievement to academic motivation?

The term African American will refer to Americans of African descent. While this study was originally intended to make a distinction between *Black* males and *African American* males, current data, to support this distinction, was too scarce to measure. Therefore, the terms Black and African American are used synonymously. This study compares the academic achievement between African American males and their White, Latino, and female counterparts.

Historical Perspective

More than 200 years of slavery has had a lasting, negative effect on African Americans that still exists today. This negative effect is especially seen in African American males. Douglas (2007) argued that African American males in this country have encountered an experience unlike any other immigrants, in that they were “dehumanized and treated as inferior based solely on skin color” (p. 6).

Because African Americans in general have been the direct beneficiaries of the ongoing stereotypes, stigmas, hatred, and oppression of slavery, a number of African American males have adopted and internalized these “negative stereotypes about themselves, their looks, and their abilities” (Bell, 2010, p. 4). These internalized, negative stereotypes include, but are not limited to laziness, dishonesty, violence, lack of intelligence, and possession of extraordinary athletic talent. It is believed that the

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negative stereotypes held by the dominant culture could be retarding the academic growth of Black males, and that the treatment received from White society is a major contributing factor to the development of their self-hatred (Douglas, 2007). In other words, what others have believed about them has now become their self-fulfilling prophecy.

Another negative effect of slavery, “the African holocaust” (McGoldrick, 2005), has been the diminished family structure. According to McGoldrick (2005), families were torn apart due to the sale of slaves. Marriages were prohibited and frequent changes in partners became the norm (McGoldrick, 2005). Black men were not permitted to be husbands, fathers, heads of households, and providers, but were instead used as breeders to increase the labor supply, while women were sexually exploited by their owners (McGoldrick, 2005). Remnants of this type of lifestyle continue today, as too many families are still fragmented, leaving many women as heads of households, and men as breeders instead of fathers. This fragmented family structure also impacted the academic achievement of Black males. It has often left young Black males without one of two things: (a) a Black male role model, and (b) a positive Black male role model. Nevertheless, the dismantled family structure caused by slavery has given way to a broader family unit. This extended family, which has operated in lieu of traditional bloodlines, has served as a source of support and strength in the African American community (McGoldrick, 2005).

In addition to slavery, African Americans have historically experienced other oppressive setbacks. Post-slavery, the systemic oppression of African Americans was

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further promulgated legally through the United States Constitution and this nation's courts, including the United States Supreme Court (Douglass, 2007). Plessy v. Ferguson, and Jim Crow laws, while operating under the guise of "separate but equal", actually served as the national and legal license for institutionalized racism.

In the 1857 Dred Scott Decision, Chief Justice Roger B. Taney, in writing the majority opinion for the court held that the proclamation of human equality specified in the Declaration of Independence was not intended for the enslaved African race. This case, decided by the nation's highest court, legally endorsed the oppression of African Americans (Burt, 1985).

In order to experience a level of success and normalcy, some Blacks were relegated to *passing*. Passing was what some fair-skin-colored African Americans chose to do. They could disguise themselves and pass for being White, in order to enjoy all the rights and privileges of the dominant culture. Williams (2007) described this behavior in her book *Open House: Of Family, Friends, Food, Piano Lessons, and the Search for a Room of My Own*. This attorney and writer recalled how her Aunt Mary polished, honed, and transformed herself so as not to look black. "When she donned her magical cloak, her hindersome [*sic*] African ancestors became invisible; they disappeared as though by the wave of a wand" (p. 41). Douglas stated "For many post slavery blacks, in order to partake in the opportunities reserved only for whites, one would have to recreate him or herself to pass for anything but black" (p. 7).

Cook (1998) used the cultural-ecological framework to discuss the "history and development of involuntary minorities (particularly African Americans) in America, the

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effects of and coping strategies in response to discrimination and racial oppression, and the negotiation of African American cultural values with mainstream American values” (p. 5). Though this work is highly regarded among many, some scholars have uncovered some faulty assumptions within this framework. They admit that the framework of minority underachievement “does not adequately consider how the variables at play may influence boys and girls separately; nor does it explicate why ethnic minority boys tend to fair worse academically and behaviorally than their girl counterparts” (Matthews, 2010), p. 5).

Gaps in Mathematics Achievement

The achievement gap between African American males and other groups is not a new problem. It appears that achievement gaps in mathematics have existed for more than 30 years. When looking at the long-term trend results between all Black and White nine-year-olds from 1978-2004, the gap narrowed from 31 points to 23 points. The gap between Black and White students of the same age from public schools from 1990-2007 went from 31 points to 26 points (Vannerman, 2009). At the same time, long-term trend results between all Black and White 13-year-olds from 1978-2004 showed the achievement gap narrowed from 41 points to 32 points. The gap between Black and White students of the same age from public schools from 1990-2007 went from 33 points to 31 points (Vannerman, 2009). The instrument used to identify the reported achievement gaps in the aforementioned research was the NAEP (National Assessment of Educational Progress). Also, a study of tenth graders reported White students answering 49 out of 81 mathematics questions correctly, while their Black counterparts answered almost 37 out of 81 questions correctly (Brown-Jeffy, 2009). The High School

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Effectiveness Study (HSES), composed as a portion of the initial follow-up of the Department of Education's National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS) was the reporting instrument used to identify the achievement gaps in this research (Brown-Jeffy, 2009).

The data show that the difference between the two mean scores is so significant, with the African American students having the lower mean score, that the null hypothesis must be rejected (Haj-Broussard, 2003). In Haj-Broussard's dissertation (2003), she stated the following null hypothesis: "There is no significant difference between the LEAP mathematics scores of white 4th grade students and the LEAP mathematics scores of African American 4th grade students" (p. 27).

Gaps in Reading Achievement

Haj-Broussard (2003) stated the following null hypothesis in regards to language scores:

"There is no significant difference between the LEAP language scores of white 4th grade students and the LEAP language scores of African American 4th grade students" (p. 27).

Similar to the findings in mathematics achievement, Haj-Broussard (2003) posited the same pattern of results for reading achievement.

National reading scores show that nine-year-old Black students average nearly 0.9 standard deviation points below White students of the same age (Alvarez, 2004). In 1980, the achievement gap for all students (based upon the NAEP) in reading for all nine-year-olds was 32 points for all students, including those in public schools. In 2004, the gap had only decreased to 26 points for all nine-year-olds and 27 points for those in

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public schools. For 13-year-olds, that gap was 32 points for all students in 1980 and 21 points in 2004. Yet for public school students of that same age, the gap was 29 points in 1980, and 26 points in 2004 (Vannerman, 2009). The U.S. Census of 1900 showed that 57% of Black males were illiterate. According to the 2000 Census, 44% of Black males were reported as illiterate. While progress has been made, albeit slight, the question remains as to why it took 100 years to increase the rate of literacy for Black males by 13% (Jenkins, 2006). While some may try to dispute these claims, because the data are consistent, Alvarez (2004) states “Race gaps in test scores are undisputed facts” (p. 395).

Reasons for the Achievement Gap

If this were merely an educational issue, while still a national tragedy, it would be less worthy of a time-intensive and thorough examination. However, the lack of academic achievement causes other, more severe problems. Therefore, in order to address this critical issue, we must turn our attention to the reasons for its existence. One of the reasons for the gap in academic achievement for African American male students is excessive suspensions and expulsions.

For instance, African American boys are likely to be criticized more by their teachers than any other student group. Based on the research of Skiba (2002), they are also more inclined to receive the most severe disciplinary sanctions, which include a disproportionate number of suspensions and expulsions unequal to their statistical representation. Further research has shown that teachers discipline African American male students more severely, “even when students of other ethnicities demonstrate similar behaviors” (Matthews, 2010, p. 15). These behaviors include, but are not limited to aggression, speaking out, being off task, acts of violence, non-compliance, disrespect,

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and any other behaviors that are deemed to be unacceptable or inappropriate by the dominate culture.

Regarding what Toldson (2011) referred to as a school-to-prison pipeline, this problem is believed to begin early and usually starts with the disparity in suspension rates between African American and Latino or White students. “Nationally, African American and Latino males are more likely than any other group to be suspended and expelled from school” (Noguera, 2012, p. 174). Research has shown that removing students from school does not improve their behavior, but instead increases the likelihood that they will drop out of school and end up behind bars (Elias, 2013). Subsequently, even though they are considered a minority, there are now more African American men in prison, on probation, or on parole than there were in slavery in 1850 (Flounders, 2013b).

Zero tolerance policies, a widely used term to describe policies in America’s schools which order the enforcement of pre-determined consequences meant to be applied regardless of the severity of behavior, mitigating circumstances or situational context (American Psychological Association, 2008) have not helped, but have instead exacerbated the problem. A result of zero tolerance policies has been a consistent overrepresentation in suspensions and expulsions for African American students (American Psychological Association, 2008). Subsequently, as they lag further and further behind academically and societally, much of this population grows up entrenched in our judicial system, or becomes a victim of violence. An example of this occurred in 2012 when, Trayvon Benjamin Martin, a 17 year-old African American male was fatally shot by a neighborhood watch volunteer in Sanford, Florida, while walking to his father’s

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fiancé's house. Trayvon was wearing a hoodie and "looked" suspicious. Ironically, Trayvon Martin was suspended from school at the time he was murdered.

Another contributing factor to the academic achievement gap for African American males is substandard teachers. Data seem to support that those schools with a high concentration of Black and Hispanic students are likely to have relatively inexperienced and lower-paid teachers. On a national average, teachers in schools with high minority populations were paid \$2,251 less per year than their colleagues elsewhere (Lewin, 2012). In New York high schools, the difference was more than \$8,000, while Philadelphia's was more than \$14,000 (Lewin, 2012). In addition, Davis and Jordan's (1995) study showed that teachers having difficulty motivating students and high rates of teacher absenteeism were directly related to lower grades for African American boys (Davis & Jordan, 1995).

Another contributing factor to the gap in African American male achievement to be addressed is misperception. African American males, both young and old, are still oftentimes perceived as more or less than they really are. This misperception directly affects the way many African American male students perceive themselves, and subsequently impacts academic achievement. Steele and Aronson (1995) looked at the effect stereotypes have on academic achievement when they are present during testing conditions. In their experiment, African Americans and Whites were grouped according to ability level to complete difficult items from the Graduate Record Examination (GRE). The instructions given at the beginning of the test were manipulated by the absence or presence of stereotypes. Where a stereotype was present, participants were led to believe that the test was either a predictor of intellectual ability or that Whites outperform

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African Americans on these tests. The control group approached it from that of being a problem-solving test, unrelated to ability. African Americans in the stereotype group underperformed in comparison to their White counterparts, while African Americans in the control group performed commensurate with their White counterparts (Steele, 1995).

According to Frazier-Kouassi (2002), teachers of African American boys have a tendency to perceive them as behaviorally and academically deviant, therefore leading to qualitatively different treatment by these teachers within the classroom and school setting. “It is without a doubt that African American children, particularly males, are at risk in the American educational system” (p. 155).

Not only does this perception of African American males lead to feelings of hopelessness and despair, but also to academic disengagement. Newman (1981) suggested that academic engagement is a key component that must exist in order to keep students engaged. According to Aronson (2002), students respond to academic failure by no longer caring about that particular academic domain. This response, known as disidentification, would be no less true for African American male students. A 2012 study completed by Cokley, McClain, Jones, and Johnson showed that Black males have higher levels of academic disidentification when compared to Black girls and their White peers, both male and female.

Ogbu (1987) described the *job ceiling* and its impact on meritocracy for secondary school students:

By denying the minorities opportunity to gain entry into the labor force and to advance according to their educational qualifications and ability, and by denying them adequate rewards for their education in terms of wages, American society

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discouraged the minorities from investing time and effort into pursuit of education and into maximizing their educational accomplishments. (p. 318)

In other words, African American male students lose faith in the educational system, its benefits and rewards, as they directly relate to them. Regardless of valuing education and having a desire to succeed, “the core of their belief system is clouded by a perception that they do not have the same chances at success as White students” (Smith, 2011, p. 76). “Thus, the identity development of adolescent African American boys in regard to school belongingness and academic ideals may suffer adversely from the negative effects of low teacher expectations, disciplinary actions, and lack of support” (Matthews, 2010, p. 16).

Suggestions for Closing the Gap

In spite of the reasons for the achievement gap between African American male students and their various counterparts, some researchers believe there is a remedy. According to Comer’s 1985 study, school environments promoting high expectations for students, opportunities for involvement in the classroom, and supportive and caring measures can promote competence and protect against the effects of adverse conditions. This implies that the factors working against African American male students can be eradicated. Wang, Haertel, and Walberg (1994) reported that the resiliency of these students is influenced and promoted by teachers and other adults in the school environment who care about them and are supportive of the students. Therefore, the environment matters, as do the actions and sentiments of teachers and administrators. When students are able to identify with their school environment at a high level and perceive a great amount of teacher support, they experience levels of hope (Ludwig &

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Warren, 2009). This hope inspires them to succeed academically, as they feel that they are valued and able to achieve in academics.

Challenges to Closing the Gap

While we recognize the need to close this overwhelming achievement gap and our responsibility to do so, we realize that closing the gap is not without its challenges. We are approximately 150 years removed from the Emancipation Proclamation, yet the effects of slavery in the centuries that have followed have proven to be oppressive and damaging to African Americans, in particular the family unit (Jenkins, 2006). This has subsequently led to the way society views this population and the way in which they view themselves. These perceptions, misperceptions, and prejudices have caused what one researcher refers to as “Black self-hatred” (Douglas, 2007).

While those exist within any race that have a dislike for themselves and those within their racial group, “The treatment blacks have received from the white American society has contributed greatly to the development of their self-hatred” (Douglas, 2007). Douglas (2007) further stated that African Americans “relegation to second class citizens, and the white’s insistence of black inferiority have created problems in the self-evaluation of blacks” (p. 4). Based upon the existing literature and research, an examination of the impact of student’s self-perceptions and identification with their school environment is imperative.

Purpose of the Study

Existing research suggests that marginalization of African American male students may be one of the factors moderating the ongoing achievement gap for this group. The goal of this current investigation was to conduct a meta-analytic examination of the

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impact of students' identification with school and motivation on student achievement. Specifically, this meta-analysis looked at reported existing research using the Identification with School inventory and the Academic Motivation Scale in order to understand how these factors impact student achievement, and specifically, how they impact the achievement of African American male students. Secondly, this study was one of the first reported to assess which one of these factors demonstrated the largest impact on student achievement.

Methodology

The primary focus of this investigation was on African American male students, with available existing data. The research that is referenced in this investigation includes the Identification with School and the Academic Motivation Scale inventories. Data was examined across racial groups.

Procedure

The proposed investigation used meta-analytic techniques to address the stated research questions. Specifically, the existing research from 2001 to present was included in this investigation. A comprehensive literature review was conducted, using the key search phrases such as African American Males and (1) academic achievement, (2) mathematics achievement, (3) reading achievement, (4) Identification with School Questionnaire, and (5) Academic Motivational Scale (Motivation Toward Education Scale). Research that met the basic criteria of the proposed investigation was acquired and a list of relevant moderators was generated. The dependent variable for this work was academic achievement results. The reference lists of each of the manuscripts was also examined for any additional resources. The goal was that no less than 25 studies would

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be found for inclusion in this investigation. Objectivity, reliability, and internal validity were tested and improved through triangulation, while external validity was improved by the comparison of samples to demographic data (Hatch, 2002).

Definition of Key Words

Academic Achievement – a learning outcome, pre-established for the students that will be measured (Ganai & Muhammad, 2013).

Academic Motivation – that which causes the enjoyment of school learning and increases the students' level of engagement (Lai, 2011).

Achievement Gap – the disparity in achievement between African American students and other demographic groups as stated by Jencks and Phillips (1998).

African Americans currently score lower than European Americans on vocabulary, reading, and mathematics tests, as well as on tests that claim to measure scholastic aptitude and intelligence. This gap appears before the children enter kindergarten, and persists into adulthood. It has narrowed since 1970, but the typical American black still scores below 75 percent of American whites on most standardized tests. (Jencks & Phillips, 1998, p. 1)

African Americans – A preferred term since the 1970s used to identify persons of African ancestral origin living in America. While most African Americans originated from sub-Saharan Africa, the descendants of slaves coming to the United States between the 17th and 19th centuries, the term does not apply to Africans from northern African countries, such as Morocco. The term also does not apply to people who came from Africa in the 20th or 21st centuries, or from the Caribbeans (Agyemang, Bhopal, & Bruijnzeels, 2005).

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Black – a broad term generally referring to people with African ancestral origins, but also sometimes used to identify all non-White minority populations. This term is potentially offensive, and covers such a broad range of ethnic and cultural backgrounds that it may be unreliable for use in scientific studies (Agyemang et al., 2005).

Identification with School – the degree whereby students feel a sense of belonging, membership, and value in school. In this study, it will be assessed through the use of a 16-item Identification with School questionnaire (Finn & Frone, 2003).

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Chapter 2

Literature Review

In examining the existence of the achievement gap between African American males relative to other subgroups, it is imperative to explore contributing factors to its longstanding existence in addition to its historical perspective. The longstanding nature of this problem speaks to both the complexity of the issue and the generational challenges that remain in the attempts to address it.

The American education system has failed to adequately and fairly educate African American students, in general, and African American male students in particular. A glance at our education system, from *Plessy v. Ferguson*, to *Brown v. Board of Education*, shows the overwhelming injustices African Americans have suffered historically (Orfield, 1996). Unfortunately, to say that these historic injustices have residual effects lingering into the twenty-first century is an understatement. Because of this, there still exists an element of dissatisfaction and mistrust of our nation's school system by some African Americans. According to Ogbu and Simons (1998), this longstanding history of discrimination and mistrust has led to suspicion and a feeling by some African Americans that their children will not be educated and treated like White children (Ogbu, 1998). While these feelings are unfortunate, history has not proven them to be unfounded.

The vulnerability of the African American male population has been displayed throughout our nation's history in the horrific murder of Emmitt Till, a 14 year-old Black male who was murdered by a mob in Mississippi in 1955 for allegedly flirting with a

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White woman while on vacation, and continues to be displayed in the twenty-first century in the 2012 senseless murder of Trayvon Benjamin Martin (Noguera, 2012). Trayvon was fatally shot while walking to his father's fiancée's home and looking suspicious; he was young (17), black, and wore a hoodie. He died that evening, armed with a can of juice and a pack of Skittles. The man who killed him was acquitted of his murder the following year.

The vulnerability of African American males is especially noticeable in the educational arena. In many schools and districts in our country there is an overrepresentation of African American and Latino males in educational categories that are associated with failure and less than academically successful performance. Likewise, in classes and programs that are typically associated with honors or high academic performance, African American and Latino males are grossly underrepresented (Noguera, 2012). When looking at most indicators of academic performance, the aforementioned subgroups are most likely to have rankings at the bottom in most subjects (Noguera, 2012). According to the research of Jencks and Phillips (1998), these academic deficiencies are seen in middle-class Black males as they are consistently lagging behind their White male peers on standardized tests (Jencks, 1998). Both Pollard's (1993) study and an earlier study of Noguera (2008) mentioned that African American males fall behind their African American female counterparts in science and math when it comes to standardized tests and grade point averages. This is also the case when comparing them with their White male and female peers. In addition, whether rural, urban, or suburban, African American males, across this country, are more likely to be identified with some type of learning disability or special education label, and are placed in special education

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more than any other student population (Noguera, 2012). According to Pollard (1993), while Black male students have a greater likelihood of being identified as mentally retarded or suffering from some type of learning disability, they also are more likely to be excluded from honors and advanced placement classes. However, since there appears to be a disproportionate number of Black children suffering from some type of learning disability, some of the research seems to provide an explanation for at least a portion of these alleged disabilities.

According to Harry (2000), the disabilities that are experienced by children are not biological in nature, but can oftentimes be attributed to their socioeconomic status of poverty. Therefore, since children of poverty often lack access to preventive healthcare, some of their medical conditions, such as vision problems, are incorrectly diagnosed as reading problems. Consequently, large numbers of these students, usually Black males, are placed in remedial and special education programs (Noguera, 2003).

It appears that African American males also experience an inordinate number of suspensions and expulsions from school. Data from the U.S. Department of Education state the following:

Results from a 2009-10 survey by the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights shows that one in five Black boys and more than one in ten Black girls received an out-of-school suspension, compared with 9 percent of Hispanic boys and 4 percent of Hispanic girls, and 7 percent of White boys and 3 percent of White girls. Additionally, Black and Hispanic students represented more than 70

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percent of those involved in school-related arrests or referrals to law enforcement. (Breaking Schools' Rules, 2011, p. 1)

This study revealed suspension patterns among Texas ninth graders which indicated that 83% of African American males and 74% of Latino males had been suspended at least once, while one in seven of those students had been suspended at least 11 times (Governments Council of Space, 2011). The likelihood of African American and Latino males suspended or expelled from a school in this country is greater than that of any other demographic group (Noguera, 2012). These suspensions and expulsions also pave the way for what Toldson (2011) referred to as a school-to-prison pipeline.

New York City has a prison population of approximately 14,000, which encompasses 10 separate jails, an annual budget of \$860 million, and a staff of 8,500 (Noguera, 2012). This includes Rikers Island, one of the largest prisons in the world. The overwhelming majority of inmates on Rikers Island are Black and Latino males between the ages of 16 and 25 (Noguera, 2012). It appears that many of these incarcerated Black and Latino males have done poorly academically, and have been victims of the school-to-prison pipeline.

Addressing Existing Misconceptions

While this African American male achievement gap and its domino effect problems may be disturbing, unfair, and appalling, it cannot be characterized as a crisis, for a crisis (although urgent) signals a temporary condition (Noguera, 2012). Nevertheless, at some point, there must be a sense of urgency in addressing these issues. The question is: how can this problem be addressed effectively and with fidelity? The

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interventions must be comprehensive in nature in order to meet the multiplicity of needs. One of the interventions must be disciplinary policies that are designed to address and correct inappropriate behaviors.

For example, while disciplinary policies should impose consequences that are suitable for the infractions that have occurred, they must not be solely punitive, but must also address underlying issues that cause the behaviors (Noguera, 2012). Some of the underlying causes of disciplinary issues are as follows: mental health, illness, family issues, academic standing, abuse, and neglect. While these are non-disciplinary issues, they manifest themselves as disciplinary issues causing students, in this case, African American male students, to behave in a manner oftentimes deemed unacceptable by the dominant culture.

The power of peer pressure cannot be underestimated, either. It is believed that many African American males underachieve, academically and otherwise, because of how they will be perceived by their peers and/or family members. Since the perception is that Black males are to excel in sports, but not in math or history, when they do excel outside of the established norms, these young Black males become targets for scrutiny from their peers (Noguera, 2003). In order to avoid that type of scrutiny for “selling out”, they may hold themselves back and underachieve in order to avoid being ostracized by their peers (Noguera, 2003). Unfortunately, their peers are not the only problem. Many times the very people who are responsible for helping these students are the ones who do the most damage.

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As stated earlier, African American boys are more likely to be criticized by their teachers than any other student group. In addition to facing constant criticism, they are also more likely to be channeled (if not forced) into marginal roles, and discouraged from challenging themselves and being challenged by way of courses, curriculum, experiences, and opportunities by the very adults who should be helping them (Noguera, 2003). These adults, many of whom, in their ignorance, are well-meaning, continue to do more harm than good to the Black male student population because they lack the training, experience, expertise, resources, and desire to serve these students in the students' best interest.

Obstacles to Achievement

While African Americans, in general, experienced a steady increase in college enrollment between 1973 and 1977, Carnoy (1994) and the National Research Council (1989), as cited by Noguera (2003), reported a sharp and continuous decline since 1977, especially among Black males. Their declining enrollment into college is not an indication of their academic ability, or lack thereof.

The average SAT scores between 2005 and 2007 for males in general were higher than all females, and Black males were higher than Black females (Garibaldi, 2007). In 2005, the SAT scores were as follows: all males 1,051, all females 1,009, Black males 874, Black females 858; in 2006, the SAT scores were as follows: all males 1,041, all females 1,004, Black males 868, Black females 860; in 2007, the SAT scores were as follows: all males 1,037, all females 1,001, Black males 866, Black females 859.

Despite these scores, the American Council on Education (2006) reported some grim statistics regarding African American male college enrollment (Education, 2006).

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In 1993, 526,610 Black men were enrolled in our nation's colleges while 842,002 Black women were enrolled, a difference of 315,392 (Garibaldi, 2007). In 2003, 686,615 Black men were enrolled in college while Black women accounted for 1,266,107 of the college enrollment, a difference of 579,492. According to Garibaldi (2007), the cumulative effect of those 10 years was so significant that 54% more African American females than males enrolled in college in 2003 than in 1993 (Garibaldi, 2007). However, as seen by the data, African American males have not experienced that same type of growth, thus widening the achievement gap within their own ethnic group. While women have comprised a larger portion of college students than men attaining degrees, overall and within each racial/ethnic subgroup, the sex gap remains more pronounced within the Black population than any other group (Nettles, Schwartz, & Haijiang, 2012). The African American male achievement gap does not only exist outside of the African American community, but its existence is glaring within its race as well.

The American Council on Education (2006) also reported the statistical enrollment data of African American female and male students between 1993 and 2003 in both public and private Historically Black Colleges and Universities ([HBCU], Education 2006). The data are presented in Table 1 and Table 2:

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Table 1. *African American Enrollment at Public HBCUs by Gender: 1993 and 2003*

Category	1993	1998	2003
Men	63,940	58,750	66,043
Women	93,948	92,184	109,801
Gap	30,008	33,434	43,758

American Council on Education (2006)

Table 2. *African American Enrollment at Private HBCUs by Gender: 1993 and 2003*

Category	1993	1998	2003
Men	27,864	26,939	26,843
Women	41,766	41,863	42,807
Gap	13,902	14,924	15,964

American Council on Education (2006)

Based upon the data, not only is there an observed increase in the enrollment of African American female students enrolled in both public and private HBCUs between 1993 and 2003, but a decrease in the amount of African American males enrolled in those same schools during that same time period (Garibaldi, 2007). In 2009, approximately 15% of the nations' undergraduates were African Americans. Of that total, roughly 64% of them were females and 36% were males (Nettles et al., 2012).

Not only are black women enrolling in numbers above their black male counterparts, but also in the completion of degree programs. From 1993-94 and 2003-04, Black women's share of bachelor degrees grew by 62.7%, while Black men's grew by 40.6% (Garibaldi, 2007). In 2003-04, Black women earned 32,453 masters' degrees and 1,780 doctoral degrees, while Black men earned 13,017 masters' degrees and 946 doctoral degrees (Garibaldi, 2007). The true minority in 2009 accounting for 6% of the U.S. population, African Americans earned 4% of the associate degrees and 3% of the

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bachelor degrees in this country. Black women earned slightly better than two-thirds of both (Nettles et al., 2012).

In addressing the tragedy known as the African American male achievement gap, the action must be one of urgency with a focus on two issues: (1) Factors external to schools, such as parental support, housing, crime, peer influences, and public health must be recognized, as they impact the development and academic success of African American males. Therefore, whatever support system that is developed must be holistic, and conducive to the success of Black males; and (2) the issues confronting African American males cannot be treated as just a problem of the African American community. It must be treated as an *American* problem (Noguera, 2012). This will call for academic achievement to be reinforced at every level of society. The halls of academia, beginning at preschool, and, certainly, elementary grades, are an excellent place to begin.

An inadequate amount of time is devoted to recognizing students' academic achievement, while the celebration of athletes' success is usually given more attention in schools. With a stronger emphasis on college preparation, more Black boys and young men will internalize the importance of attending college and its linkage to their long-term economic security. (Garibaldi, 2007, p. 331)

Since we are aware that these male students are capable of scoring higher than females, as indicated by the SATs and the supporting data, we must relay this message to these students in hopes that it will cause them to improve their classroom performance, ignore peer pressure, and resist the many societal and negative influences that would cause them to fail (Garibaldi, 2007).

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This responsibility does not merely rest with elementary and secondary schools. Colleges and universities must also do their part. Colleges and universities must turn back the hands of time in attempts to revive successful pre-college programs in order to increase the number of African American students enrolled in the nation's colleges. With the assistance of federally-funded weekend and summer pre-college programs during the 1960s and 1970s, the enrollment of Black students in colleges and universities increased significantly (Garibaldi, 2007). Funded through the U.S. Department of Education, programs such as Talent Search, Upward Bound, and other similar programs have been instrumental in exposing high school students to college experiences who may not otherwise have had that opportunity, especially those from low-income families (Garibaldi, 2007). The impact of these programs was especially experienced in 1976, the peak year for African American students attending college (Garibaldi, 2007). The effect of the aforementioned programs continued to be experienced during the first decade of the twenty-first century, in spite of the continued underrepresentation of degree recipients among African Americans (Nettles et al., 2012). While Upward Bound and Talent Search have had to "plead their case for survival" in recent years to both Congress and the Executive Branch of the federal government, as they have faced potential elimination (Garibaldi, 2007) because of the aforementioned reasons that serve as some of the remedies for the ailment of this achievement gap, these programs must remain intact.

Consequently, African American male and female students are also at a severe financial disadvantage in relation to their White counterparts (Nettles et al., 2012). Seventy percent of African American males in the incoming college cohort needed financial aid to meet their college needs in comparison to 60% of White male students.

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Approximately 56% of African American males were dependent upon grants with 44% dependent upon loans, while the totals were 44 % and 35 %, respectively, for their White male counterparts (National Postsecondary Student Aid Study [NPSAS], 2008).

Black males must also be exposed to college experiences early. In addition to being exposed to college experiences, while still in their formative years, Black male students (and all students) must be exposed to the right role models. Current college students can effectively serve in this capacity as mentors and role models to Black male adolescents. Those students currently in college can demonstrate to pre-college students the excitement of college life, while sharing with them the benefits of pursuing a bachelor degree, career exploration, and life after college (Garibaldi, 2007).

Garibaldi (2007) implied that the media can contribute to this exposure as they did in the 1980s when they aired two popular television programs, *A Different World* and *The Cosby Show*. One show was centered on a historically Black college setting, and the other show was about a positive, Black family in which the father was a successful doctor, who stressed the importance of college and often wore HBCU sweatshirts, and the mother was an attorney (Garibaldi, 2007).

These role models can contribute to students' identification with school, as well as students' motivation. These two factors have been investigated for their impact specifically on student achievement, across different demographic groups.

Identification with School

Identification with school appears to play a major role in the academic success of minorities as well as other student groups, as evidenced in the research. Steele's (1997)

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concept of disidentification was a Stereotype Threat Model which claimed to cause some African American students to not value academics, therefore disidentifying with school and any personal connection to academic success.

Based on the research identified in Majors' (1994) and Billson's (1992) "Cool Pose" Theory, African American males learn quite early to act aloof as a coping mechanism that also serves to protect their egos and self-confidence. This bravado/machismo attitude, while not referring to sexual activity or behavior, does refer to the hyper hetero-sexualized attitudes and behaviors of African American males (Matthews, 2010). Cool pose is an amplified form of masculinity, used as a coping mechanism and form of survival in oppressive and harsh environments (Matthews, 2010). Some of these are home environments to African American males. Nevertheless, this same behavior is misinterpreted and seen as fearful and disrespectful by the dominant culture, and often puts African American male students at odds with teachers and other school personnel. The researcher was able to hear a mother's account of her son's cool pose experience at an athletic association appeal hearing. As the mother testified about her family's decision to relocate from a predominately White town to a more urban setting, more than 50 miles away, she recounted the many unpleasant, racially charged experiences her Black sons had encountered. She described one situation, in particular, where her son (who was involved in the athletic hearing) was disciplined for disrespectful behavior. When she asked the teacher to specify the behavior, the teacher could not. She only continued to say that his behavior and demeanor were disrespectful. When the mother insisted that the teacher be specific, she could only say, "There's just something about the way he walks now." The researcher will never forget the mother's reply.

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“There’s something about the way he walks now?” The mother stated, “I wanted to say to the lady, of course, there’s something about the way he walks. He’s Black!”

Some believe that this tough exterior is, in fact, a coping mechanism. Anderson (1990) held that Black males learn at an early age to present this tough persona in order to avoid attacks and threats. Others believe that the way in which they are mistreated, targeted, and singled out at school, on the streets, by law enforcement, and society, in general, has led to these postures of aggression and ferocity aimed at the world (Noguera, 2003). Yet, “given the range and extent of the hardships that beset this segment of the population, there is no doubt that there are some legitimate reasons for young Black males to be angry” (Noguera, 2003, p. 455).

Majors (1994) found that these types of cool pose behaviors, while bolstering self-esteem, simultaneously conflicted with established behavioral norms of the dominant culture believed to be beneficial for the traditional school setting (Majors, 1994). For African American male students and ethnic minority boys, in general, it is a Catch-22, for they are seen as the stars and sinners of their school (Matthews, 2010). According to Ferguson (2000), they are praised and admired by their peers socially, for their looks, athleticism, and other talents, yet condemned by the school for their lack of motivation, academic failures, and externalizing behaviors. The results of these behaviors can also be a downward spiral of school related problems that result in disidentification with academics (Mitchell, 2004).

This disidentification also causes them to become disengaged. Many authors suggest that urban minority youth become disengaged from postsecondary planning as a

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result of not viewing their current educational situation as relevant to their future, or as a means to better themselves (Blustein & Phillips, 1997; Jobin-Davis, Finkelberg, & Roarke, 1995; Ogbu, 1998; Kenny & Bluster, 2003; Worthington & Juntunen, 1989). Instead, they perceive immovable factors which they believe serve as barriers to their success leading them to view school as irrelevant (Kenny & Bluster, 2003).

Although most research does not connect academic identification specifically to a certain stage in a young person's life, adolescence is a unique period in the life of a student (Matthews, 2010). Therefore, some of the problems with the achievement gap may be attributed to the natural crises of adolescence. In addition, Matthews (2010) suggested that there is existing, circumstantial evidence suggesting that low-resourced, ethnic, minority adolescents may encounter difficulties transitioning to and through secondary school. According to Simpson and Erickson (1983), African American adolescent males are more likely to receive a greater amount of teacher criticism than any other ethnic or gender group of students (Simpson, 1983). Based upon the research of Skiba (2002), they are also more likely to be the recipients of the most severe disciplinary sanctions, including a disproportionate amount of suspensions and expulsions that exceed their statistical representation. Therefore, in regard to school belongingness, the academic ideals and identity development of adolescent, African American boys may have a tendency to suffer from the adverse effects of the following: disciplinary actions, low teacher expectations, teacher misperception and misidentification, and lack of support (Matthews, 2010).

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Matthews' (2010) conclusion about the disidentification of African American boys is not without criticism. While Matthews' research is absent of a non-minority comparison group, the skewing to the left of the various distribution measures indicates high reports of identification. Also, his results produced minimal gender and ethnic differences between African Americans and Latino subgroups. The gender difference that had a notable effect between identification and achievement was self-efficacy. Efficacy seemed to play a moderating role between achievement and identification (Matthews, 2010).

Because Matthews' work finds little evidence that supports the existence of severe disidentification attitudes for ethnic minority students or boys, it counters the 1997 research of Osborne (1997). According to Osborne (1997), African American boys are the most disidentified when compared to girls and other ethnicities, including Latinos. However, it may be important to note that Caucasian students were not included in the comparison group. In addition, Morgan and Mehta (2004), and Voelkl (1997) provided confirming information that there is no difference between severe disidentification attitudes between African American boys and Caucasian students.

Osborne (1997) and Walker (2006) believed that there is a connection between disidentification and withdrawal, or, dropout. "In 2002, dropout rates for African American and Latino males remained well above 50 percent in most American cities" (Noguera, 2012, p. 174). This was one decade after the passing of No Child Left Behind (Noguera, 2012). According to the research of Finn and Rock (1997), some engagement behaviors, or a lack thereof, (such as preparedness for class, punctuality, effort expended

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on an academic task, truancy, disruptive behavior, and delinquency) are all predictors of early withdrawal (Finn & Rock, 1997).

The research of Osborne (1997) and Walker (2006) also included Claude Steele's (1997) stereotype threat hypothesis. The basis of this hypothesis of Osborne (1997) and Walker (2006) held the following:

The more strongly a student of colour is invested in academics, the more likely that student is to experience stereotype threat (wherein situationally-specific anxiety is significantly increased due to the effects of the negative group stereotype). In other words, students of colour can be highly identified with academics, and doing well in school, yet the more strongly identified a student of color is, the more aversive schooling could be, and therefore the more likely they should be to seek to escape the aversive situation, through either disidentification or withdrawal. (p.566 – 567)

An important caveat to Steele's theory is that only identified, minority students are affected by stereotype threat. However, he makes it clear that disidentification, or, early withdrawal are ways of escape for minority students from an ever increasing adverse academic environment (Walker, 2006).

Some of the disparities in academic achievement are believed to be attributed to disengagement, or a lack of school engagement. According to Frederick (2004), school engagement entails having a positive attitude about one's school, peers, teachers, and academics. On the other hand, disengagement involves student attitudes towards school as boring, uninviting, and, for the most part, irrelevant, while also being closely linked to

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academic motivation and the students' willingness to make a psychological investment in their education.

In Toldson's study (2013), disengagement was the best predictor of disciplinary referrals for students in each racial group. However, it was the strongest predictor of truancy for Black males. These same results were not observed with White males. Hispanic males were more likely to drop out of school when feeling disengaged (Toldson, 2013).

Academic Motivation

There is extensive research which supports the impact motivation has on student academic success. In fact, motivation is believed to be one of the most important psychological concepts in education (Vallerand et al., 1992). It is especially important for at-risk and minority students, many of whom are first generation college students who lack the first-hand parental knowledge of the college experience, and its benefits, that other students experience (Dennis, Phinney, & Chuateco, 2005). That motivation can be extrinsic, intrinsic, or amotivated.

A student is extrinsically motivated when behavior is controlled or influenced by external sources. According to Horyna and Bonds-Raacke (2012), researchers have divided extrinsic motivation into three segments along a continuum of self-determination, and refer to them, from lowest level to highest level, as: external regulation, introjected regulation, and identification. External regulation regulates behavior by utilizing rewards and/or constraints. While not totally self-determined, introjected regulations' internalization is limited to past external contingencies (Horyna & Bonds-Raacke, 2012). Because identification is marked by one's choice to engage in an activity or behavior

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deemed to be of significance to them, it ranks at the highest level of the self-determination continuum (Vallerand et al., 1992).

Intrinsic motivation occurs when one is involved in activities for self-satisfaction. “Intrinsic motivation to know refers to the desire to perform an activity for the enjoyment one receives while exploring, learning, and understanding new things” (Simek & Grum, 2010, p. 27), while the aspiration to engage in an activity simply for the purpose of gaining pleasure and satisfaction from accomplishing the activity is known as intrinsic motivation to accomplish (Simek & Grum, 2010).

Amotivation refers to the student providing no definitive proof as to regulation toward an activity (Boiché, Sarrazan, Grouzet, Pelletier, & Chanal, 2008). These students are absent of motivation, fail to believe their behavior can influence future events, lack initiative, and have a negative attitude toward school tasks (Simek & Grum, 2010).

Role models play an extremely vital role in the motivation of students to succeed academically, as this extrinsic motivator provides them with adults to emulate and admire. Ogbu (1998) discussed the motivational impact that successful, professional, role models have on the voluntary minority community (those who have chosen to migrate to this country). However, these types of role models (e.g., minority attorneys, physicians, administrative professionals, engineers) are envied and criticized, lacking, or far removed from the involuntary minority, therefore, leaving little hope of motivating them (Ogbu, 1998). Today’s youth are influenced by, and seek to emulate, the role models they see who are glamorized by society and the media, such as athletes and entertainers. For this reason, measures should be taken to extrinsically motivate young

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Black males by rewarding them verbally and substantially for their academic achievement in the same manner society rewards and acknowledges athletes and entertainers for success in their fields (Garibaldi, 1992).

Students are also influenced by the negative role models glamorized by the streets such as drug dealers, ex-cons, and gang members. The latter reinforces the dire need to ensure that African American males have a more than adequate number of positive, successful role models in their lives.

In addition to motivating students by serving as role models, teachers can also motivate students intrinsically by using various strategies to motivate them and setting goals for them. When teachers fail to do this, or do it with a lack of fidelity, their students also fail. Garibaldi (1992) reported findings in support of the consequences of teachers not motivating students through goal setting when he surveyed more than 2,250 African American male students from a school district in New Orleans. Forty percent of those surveyed believed that the goals set by their teachers weren't high enough for them, while 60 % felt that they should have been pushed harder by their teachers (Garibaldi, 1992). Subsequently, it is unlikely that these students were motivated to succeed academically. According to Ogbu and Simmons (1998), "Teachers should have clearly stated high standards and expect students to meet these standards" (p. 182).

Elementary students were evaluated in a study by Ryan and Grolnick (1986) as to whether or not their teachers were autonomy-supportive or controlling. Students who felt their teachers were autonomy-supportive had higher levels of intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, and competence perception than those students who felt their teachers were more

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controlling. Autonomy-supportiveness refers to a method of teaching which attempts to promote behaviors and strategies that will promote the students' propensity to engage in learning because they value the activity, or find it interesting (Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007).

In another study done by Vallerand, Deci, Pelletier, and Ryan, (1991), high school students completed the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) in addition to rating their teachers' autonomy-supportiveness and controllingness. Students who perceived that their teachers displayed autonomy-supportiveness had higher levels of self-determined forms of motivation, such as intrinsic motivation. Those students who felt their teachers were more controlling were positively associated with extrinsic or amotivated types of motivation (Vallerand et al., 1991).

However, teachers can only push, challenge, and motivate their students when they sincerely believe their students can achieve. When 500 teachers (of which 318 responded) were randomly surveyed and asked if they believed their Black male students would attend college, Garibaldi (1992) found that nearly six out of every 10 responded negatively. It is appalling to note that 60% of the teachers surveyed were elementary teachers, with 70% having 10 or more years of experience, and 65% were Black (Garibaldi, 1992).

According to Vallerand et al. (1992), amotivation is neither extrinsic nor intrinsic, and occurs when students do not associate a connection between outcomes and their own actions. Individuals who are amotivated lack the intention to act, fail to act at all, or merely go through the motions (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This type of apathy, caused and

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exacerbated by a variety of factors (i.e. peer pressure, Cool Pose Theory, etc.), is believed to be another cause of academic failure in African American male students. Also, when examining types of motivation through the framework of the Self-Determination Theory, amotivation is purported to be the lowest level of self-determination of this particular motivational continuum (Boiché et al., 2008).

Students are also motivated differently to pursue a college education. They can be individually motivated based upon their own desires, interests, intellectual curiosity, and personal longing to attain a fulfilling career. However, they can also be driven by collectivist motives, which are more group oriented, such as going to college in order to satisfy the expectations of their family, or a particular group (Dennis, Phinney, & Chuateco, 2005). The latter is an especially popular concept in the African American community.

Proposed Investigation

The data are startling; the task of changing things is daunting. However, the assignment is not impossible. Existing research overwhelmingly suggests that marginalization of African American male students may be *one* of the factors moderating the ongoing achievement gap for this group. While this one factor has been demonstrated by the existing literature to have influenced and impacted the lives of the African American male community, it is imperative to be cognizant of personal variables as well as environmental variables that factor into this persisting achievement gap (Hines & Holcolm-McCoy, 2013). Specifically, the current investigation examined both the environmental and personal variables using both the Identification with School and the Academic Motivation Scale. As indicated in the review of the literature, both extrinsic

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and intrinsic factors can encourage or obstruct personal, social, and academic success, and these impacts can be influenced by students' academic motivation and level of identification with the education system.

Identification with school is “the extent to which an individual defines themselves through a particular role or performance, which in this case would be schooling” (Walker, 2006, p. 563). Motivation has been referred to not only as the psychological feature that arouses an organism to action toward a desired goal, but the reason for that particular action, or the driving force behind the direction and behavior (Miller, 2009). Therefore, academic motivation is a psychological feature that arouses students to achieve academically, and the driving force behind their academic success. Similarly, when Academic Motivation and/or Identification with School do not exist, there is an absence of student achievement, in this case, with African American males.

This current investigation compared and examined the effects of these two factors, by using the existing research which incorporated the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) and the Identification with School (IWS) inventory. This investigation is unique in that no other known investigation has meta-analytically examined the impact of AMS or IWS on student achievement data. Subsequently, no known investigation has investigated the impact of IWS relative to AMS, when specifically looking at student achievement. Finally, the current investigation focused on the impacts measured by the AMS and the IWS on African American male achievement relative to other demographic group achievement.

Chapter 3

Method

Overview of Meta-Analysis

The analytical method for this study was a meta-analysis. A meta-analysis is defined as the “Analysis of analyses” (Glass, McGaw, & Smith, 1981). The purpose of a meta-analysis is to analyze multiple studies in order to determine the significance of multiple variables against an outcome variable, specifically, student achievement, for the current investigation. Glass et al. (1981) explained that a meta-analysis allows for studies with smaller sample sizes to be combined, thus, producing a much larger sample size, which in turn increases the statistical power.

According to Glass et al. (1981), there are three steps necessary to perform a meta-analytical study. Research studies are collected in step one to analyze against the outcome variable within each study. The studies collected must fit the established parameters of the investigation, as well as, match the data of the specific research topic. Bias was discovered while performing and analyzing the relevant studies. However, in order to minimize bias, an exhaustive search for available studies took place.

The second step, according to Glass et al. (1981), is to analyze the data. In conducting the analysis, it is suggested that the studies be described, classified, and coded. An important aspect of this step involves measurement consistency. In order to obtain this, Glass et al. (1981) suggested coding the studies twice in order to establish rater agreement, which is essentially a score of homogeneity for the ratings. In order for this to occur, the moderator variables were clearly defined so that apparent differences were evident between the various classifications. This process created reliability of the

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coding processes in the data, and was found to be reliable in the classifications more than 95% of the time.

The third step in a meta-analysis is the analysis of the complete mean effect size measures, including each individual mean effect size measure for each research variable studied. Once all the effect size measures were calculated, the results were analyzed, interpreted, and reported as findings. More specifically, a singular effect size measure was computed for all of the studies followed by individual effect size measures for each of the moderator variables.

A more linear approach to conducting a meta-analytic study is described by Lipsey (2011) in seven basic steps:

1. Problem definition –topic, empirical relationships of interest, type of research, and acceptable methods;
2. Defining the population of relevant studies and determining eligibility criteria;
3. Locating and retrieving eligible studies – attempt to obtain entire population, published and unpublished;
4. Developing and testing a coding scheme and coding manual;
5. Coding eligible studies; constructing a database;
6. Statistical analysis of the meta-analytic data; and
7. Interpretation and reporting of analysis results.

The overall use and integration of the methods proposed by both Glass et al. (1981) and Lipsey (2011) improved the validity and reliability of this investigation.

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Research Questions

The purpose of the current study was to examine the achievement gap of African American male students (primarily in high school) relative to other student demographic groups. In order to examine the multiple variables against the outcome variable of student achievement, data from the studies was meta-analyzed to examine the following primary research questions:

1. Is academic achievement associated with identification with school, as measured by the Identification with School Inventory?
2. Is academic achievement associated with academic motivation, as measured by the Academic Motivation Scale?
3. Is the achievement of African American males different from other student demographic groups influenced by identification with school?
4. Is the achievement of African American males different from other student demographic groups influenced by academic motivation?
5. If, in fact, an achievement gap does exist, is the effect more associated with identification with school or academic motivation?
6. What are the significant factors in the association of achievement to identification with school?
7. What are the significant factors in the association of achievement to academic motivation?

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Sample of Studies

The studies for the current investigation were found using electronic search engines at Youngstown State University, specifically, data bases such as: Academic Search Complete, ERIC, EBSCO, and Dissertation Abstracts. Searches included data generated between 2001 and 2014. The search descriptors included such phrases as: African American males and Identification with School Inventory, Academic Motivation Scale, and Student Achievement. Abstracts, summaries, and table of contents of articles were reviewed in order to select which studies to examine more thoroughly. The inclusion criteria for the current investigation was:

1. Data from manuscripts that included the Identification with School Inventory;
2. Data from manuscripts that included the Academic Motivation Scale;
3. Data from manuscripts that included African American male students;
4. Data from manuscripts that provided student achievement data.
5. Additional data from previous administrations of the Identification with School Inventory; and
6. Additional data from previous administrations of the Academic Motivation Scale.

Articles were coded in an effort to address all proposed research questions. Student achievement data was used in the metric provided in the research, or decomposed for inclusion as needed. All the calculations for this investigation were computed using Comprehensive Meta-Analysis.

Also, data were provided for the investigation by local high school students, from three separate school districts in western Pennsylvania, who completed the AMS and the

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IWS during the previous school year for internal purposes. Sample sizes for each of the local school districts surveyed are as follows: School District 1, 59 students; School District 2, 128 students; and School District 3, 178. Most of the students completing the surveys were in tenth grade.

The first district (School District 1) is the only school district in this small urban-like city with a population of approximately 5,000 (City-Data.com, 2015). Of the approximately 5,000 residents of this city, 48.2% are Black, 45% White, 1.4% are Hispanic, and the remaining 5.4% of the population is represented by other ethnic groups including American Indian, Asian, Pacific Islander, and multi-racial (City-Data.com, 2015). The school district has approximately 900 students who are not reflective of the city's racial demographics. This particular district is predominately Black. It consists of one k – 6 elementary building, and a 7 – 12 middle/high school building on one campus. The district also has an early childhood building which houses its' Family Center, Head Start/Early Head Start classrooms and the county-wide Head Start/Early Head Start administrative offices, as the school district is the delegate for the county-wide Head Start/Early Head Start program. Since the school district is located in a distressed city, it is also one of the poorest school districts in its' state.

School district 2 is the sole school district in a small urban-like city where the White population is 80.7%, Black population 12.7%, and there is a small representation of other ethnic groups including Asian, Hispanic, and American Indian (City-Data.com, 2015). The school district reflects the aforementioned racial demographics. They have three neighborhood elementary schools each with a grade k – 6 configuration, and one

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middle/high school building consisting of grades 7 – 12. Two of the elementary schools are located in poorer neighborhoods, while the third is located in the more affluent section of the city. This same elementary school shares a campus (adjacent location) with the middle/high school building. There are approximately 2,300 students in this district.

School District 3, also the sole public school district in its' city, has a student population of 3,200, and is reflective of the city's demographics. The city's racial demographics are as follows: 80.8% White, 13% Black, 1.7% Hispanic, and a small representation of other ethnic groups including Asian, Hispanic, and American Indian (City-Data.com, 2015). This district has four buildings which include the following: a pre-kindergarten building, primary building, intermediate building, and a middle/high school. All three school districts have high poverty rates for their student population.

Psychometric Properties for the Academic Motivation Scale

The Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) contains 28 questions that are grouped into seven different sub-factors. These sub-factors include (a) Intrinsic Motivation to know, (b) Intrinsic Motivation towards accomplishment, (c) Intrinsic Motivation to experience stimulations, (d) Intrinsic Motivation –Identification regulation, I Intrinsic Motivation –Introjected regulation, (f) Intrinsic Motivation –External Regulation, and (g) Amotivation (Vallerand, et al. 1992). Each sub-factor has four items. The scoring of the AMS was accomplished by averaging the total score for each sub-factor. Each sub-factor is made up of four questions. The construct validity of the AMS has been established for all sub-factors (Fairchild, Horst, Finney, & Barron, 2005) and the reliability of these sub-

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factors range from $\alpha = .83-.87$ (Vallerand, Guay, & Fortier, 1995). A copy of the AMS is provided in Appendix B.

Psychometric Properties for the Identification with School Inventory

The Identification with School inventory (IWS) contains 16 questions that are scaled on a “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” response (Voelkl, 1996). The IWS inventory has been demonstrated to measure two sub-factors: feelings of identifying with school (10 items) and feelings of valuing the school attended (6 items). The construct validity of the subfactors has been established (Osborne, 1997) with reported reliabilities ranging from $\alpha = .87$ to $.91$. A copy of the IWS scale is provided in Appendix C.

Chapter 4

Results

The current investigation examined reported levels of academic motivation and reported levels of identification with school for African American males relative to other student groups. In an effort to accomplish this, data were extracted from existing data in two forms. First, data were drawn from completed studies using either the Academic Motivation Scale ([AMS], Vallerand et al., 1992), or, the Identification with School Inventory ([IWS], Voelkl, 1996) with secondary students.

Next, data were provided for the investigation by local high school students, from three separate school districts in western Pennsylvania, who completed the AMS and the IWS during the previous school year for internal purposes. Sample sizes for each of the local school districts surveyed were as follows: School District 1, 59 students; School District 2, 128 students; and School District 3, 178. Most of the students completing the surveys were in tenth grade. The data from both the secondary (existing published research) and primary (local high schools) were used to answer all research questions. Data from these previous administrations were used for aggregate values only.

Pre-Existing Published Data Descriptive Statistics

For the current investigation, data acquisition began with existing research findings using either the AMS or the IWS. A comprehensive search of the existing data was conducted over a three month period, and revealed 15 existing, quantitative research studies for the IWS, and nine existing quantitative research studies for the AMS. Careful

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examination of each research study revealed that many of the studies used only part of the items for the respective scales, therefore, not meeting qualification for inclusion in this investigation. The final studies included in the current investigation included four existing studies of the AMS, providing a total of 14 effect size measures, and, four existing studies of the IWS, providing six effect size measures.

Table 3. Published Research Studies

Academic Motivation Scale	<i>Number of reported effects</i>	<i>d</i>
Bialis	9	3.09 to 4.39
Brown-Wright et al.	1	-0.262
Schultz-Leon	1	-0.088
Taylor	3	.036 to .481
Identification With School		
Fallon	1	0.735
Ludwig	1	-0.231
Matthews	3	.0259 to 1.09
Ruiz	1	0.702

When examining the AMS in Table 3, Bialis (2013) represents a significantly higher number of effect size measures (9), and range of effect size measures (3.09 to 4.39), than the three existing studies. A review of the Identification with School Survey in Table 3 reveals that Matthews represents the greatest number of effect size measures (3), and range of effect size measures (.0259 to 1.09), when compared to the three existing studies.

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The following tables will display the data of local high school students, from three separate school districts in western Pennsylvania, who completed the AMS and the IWS.

An explanation of the findings will follow each table.

Primary Data Descriptive Statistics

All surveys included student responses to a question about their gender. The distribution of reported gender is provided in Table 4.

Table 4. *Gender Distributions*

Sample	1	2	3
Male	45	53	68
Female	42	42	63

The distribution of gender does not significantly differ from the number of males and females within the sample population. Table 5 displays the reported age distributions for the three high schools.

Table 5. *Age Distributions*

Sample	1	2	3
16	25	73	73
17	19	6	8
18	25	1	1
18+	6	1	0

The distribution of age, for the population from which the data were extracted, is predominately represented by 16-year-old students. These age distributions do not

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significantly differ from the distribution of ages within the sample population. Table 6 provides the reported race distribution for the three high schools.

Table 6. *Race*

Sample	1	2	3
African American	64	15	34
Caucasian	12	60	76
Native American	2	2	5
Asian	0	2	0
Latino	0	0	7

The distribution of race, for the population from which the data were extracted, is predominately African American for Sample 1, and, Caucasian for Sample 2 and Sample 3. These distributions do not significantly differ from the distribution of race within the sample population. Due to the small representation of Native Americans, Asians, and Latinos, primary data analysis will be limited to students reporting under African American and Caucasian populations.

Reliability Estimates of AMS and IWS

Table 7 provides the basic reliability data from the AMS Belonging factor across the three high schools.

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Table 7. *Reliability Analysis*

Sample	α
Sample 1	.902
Sample 2	.757
Sample 3	.890

All of the reliability estimates for the AMS exceed the established acceptable levels (α .60, Field, 2009). Through careful examination of the data in Table 7, a slightly higher Cronbach's Alpha is observed in Sample 1.

Table 8 provides the basic reliability data from the IWS Belonging factor across the three high schools.

Table 8. *Reliability Analysis*

Sample	α
Sample 1	.457
Sample 2	.308
Sample 3	.628

The Sample 3 responses meet acceptable standards for Cronbach's Alpha. While the responses for Sample 1 and Sample 2 do not reach this standard, this likely reflects missing responses to some of the questions. Through careful examination of the data in Table 8, a slightly higher Cronbach's Alpha is observed in Sample 3.

Academic Motivation Scale, Primary Data Analysis

The tables below reflect the data for AMS responses across intrinsic, extrinsic, and atrinsic scales for Samples 1, 2, and 3. In Table 9, the mean for AMS Extrinsic

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(4.77) represents the highest mean for Sample 1, while AMS Atrinsic is significantly lower (2.70).

Table 9. *Sample 1* ($n = 95$)

Scale	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
AMS Intrinsic	4.29	1.12	-.367	-.134
AMS Extrinsic	4.77	1.04	-.409	.088
AMS Atrinsic	2.70	1.07	-.505	-.240

AMS Intrinsic is slightly lower (4.29) than AMS Extrinsic (4.77). AMS Extrinsic represents the highest mean (5.08) in Sample 2, as indicated in Table 10, just as it did in Sample 1.

Table 10. *Sample 2* ($N = 82$)

Scale	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
AMS Intrinsic	4.22	1.02	-.289	-.157
AMS Extrinsic	5.08	1.04	-.869	.497
AMS Atrinsic	2.43	1.33	1.187	1.430

Also, consistent with Sample 1 is AMS Atrinsic, having a significantly lower mean (2.43), while AMS Intrinsic is slightly lower (4.22) than AMS Extrinsic (5.08). Table 11 provides the data for Sample 3.

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Table 11. *Sample 3 (n = 141)*

Scale	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
AMS Intrinsic	3.73	1.18	-.003	-.574
AMS Extrinsic	4.53	1.15	-.537	.471
AMS Atrinsic	2.55	1.41	1.015	.894

Examination of this data reveals slightly higher means for the AMS Extrinsic data in all three sample groups. Also, the mean for AMS Atrinsic is consistently the lowest across all three sample groups. Due to the nature of the items of the Atrinsic factor, this pattern in the responses is expected.

Identification with School, Primary Data Analysis

Table 12 provides the basic descriptive data from the IWS Belonging factor across the three high schools.

Table 12. *Belonging*

	N	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Sample 1	94	2.43	.375	.036	.224
Sample 2	91	2.49	.336	.063	-1.172
Sample 3	138	2.54	.387	.532	1.413

Examination of this data reveals slightly higher means for the Sample 3 data. The same pattern is found for the Valuing factor on the IWS. Careful examination of this data reveals a slightly higher mean on Valuing for the Sample 3 data. Table 13 provides the basic descriptive data for the IWS Valuing factor.

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Table 13. *Valuing*

	N	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Sample 1	94	2.26	.368	.202	.128
Sample 2	93	2.27	.434	-.378	.737
Sample 3	138	2.38	.424	.671	1.738

Table 14 provides the basic descriptive data for AMS GPA factor.

Table 14. *GPA*

Sample	N	M	SD
Sample 1	94	2.75	.679
Sample 2	97	3.17	.656
Sample 3	141	3.00	.661

When examining the AMS GPA factor in Table 14, the data suggests a slightly higher mean for Sample 2.

Due to the fact that this was a meta-analytic study, two articles, 21 dissertations, and 45 primary data sources were also included. The following tables will display the findings from those sources. An explanation of the findings will follow each table.

Meta-Analytic Estimations

Table 15 provides the number of effect measures separated out by the sources of data that were used throughout this study.

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Table 15. *Data Source*

Group	Effect Size	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	P-value
Articles	0.243	-0.476	-0.010	0.041
Dissertations	1.147	1.079	1.215	0.000
Primary Data	0.056	0.000	0.111	0.049

As indicated in Table 15, the greatest number of effect size measures were provided by dissertation research with the largest effect size measures (1.147), followed by research articles (.243). Table 16 indicates the effect size measure that was computed using IWS measures with student reported GPAs.

Table 16. *IWS by GPA*

Group	Effect Size	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	P-value
IWS GPA	0.146	0.001	0.291	0.048
IWS Belonging	-0.247	-0.509	0.015	0.064
IWS Valuing	-0.171	-0.431	0.089	0.197

The measures indicated in Table 16 refer to African American students, specifically, as the reference group of the investigation (reference to all other groups held at a constant at .00). As seen in Table 16, IWS GPA global measure presents the largest significant effect size measure on the IWS by GPA scale (0.146) followed by IWS Valuing (-0.171). The effect size for IWS Belonging has the lowest effect size (-0.247). Table 17 presents the AMS measures relative to GPA, with African American student responses as the reference group (reference to all other groups held at a constant at .00).

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Table 17. *AMS with GPAs*

Group	Effect Size	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	P-value
AMS GPA	0.091	-0.079	0.260	0.293
Intrinsic GPA	0.242	-0.018	0.501	0.068
Extrinsic GPA	0.561	0.290	0.831	0.000
Amotivation GPA	-0.672	-0.991	-0.353	0.000

Table 18 presents the IWS and AMS measures relative to the listed comparison measures, and, is a direct comparison of the sub-factors across the IWS and AMS for the current investigation. For these measures, African American student responses are the reference group (reference to all other groups held at a constant at .00).

Table 18. *Comparison Measures*

Group	Effect Size	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	P-value
Belonging	-0.339	-0.464	-0.214	0.000
Valuing	-0.059	-0.183	0.065	0.355
Intrinsic	1.202	1.094	1.311	0.000
Extrinsic	0.643	0.533	0.753	0.000
Amotivation	0.626	0.508	0.744	0.000

As indicated in Table 18, Intrinsic Motivation has a greater effect size than any other motivator listed on the Comparison Measures table, while Amotivation has the least effect size. Table 19 indicates the IWS measures in relation to Gender. Males are the reference group for the IWS measure (with females held at a .00 constant).

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Table 19. *IWS by Gender*

Group	Effect Size	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	P-value
IWS Global	-0.194	-0.295	-0.094	0.000
IWS Belonging	-0.366	-0.509	-0.224	0.000
IWS Valuing	-0.025	-0.166	0.116	0.725

As seen in Table 19, IWS by Valuing presents the largest significant effect size measure on the IWS by Gender scale (-0.025) followed by IWS Global (-0.194). The effect size for IWS Belonging has the lowest effect size (-0.366). Table 20 presents the AMS measures for Gender, with males serving as the reference group.

Table 20. *AMS by Gender*

Group	Effect Size	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	P-value
AMS Global	0.981	0.911	1.051	0.000
AMS Intrinsic	1.512	1.385	1.639	0.000
AMS Extrinsic	0.780	0.653	0.907	0.000

Table 20 indicates that the largest significant effect size measure is represented by AMS Intrinsic (1.512), followed by AMS Global (0.981). The effect size for AMS Extrinsic is a large, positive, significant effect for extrinsic academic motivation for males.

Table 21 indicates the effect size measures for the IWS across different racial groups.

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Table 21. *Race across Global IWS Measure*

Group	Effect Size	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	P-value
Black	0.201	0.139	0.262	0.000
Latino	0.717	0.483	0.951	0.000
White	-0.439	-0.685	-0.193	0.000

As seen in Table 21, Latinos present the largest significant effect size measure on the Global IWS scale (.717), followed by Black students (.201). Noteworthy, is that the effect size for Whites is a negative significant moderate-level measure for IWS. Table 22 presents AMS across the different racial groups.

Table 22. *Race across Global AMS Measure*

Group	Effect Size	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	P-value
Black	0.386	0.316	0.456	0.000
Latino	3.296	2.988	3.603	0.000
White	2.000	1.848	2.151	0.000

As seen in Table 22, Latinos, once again, present the largest significant effect size measure on the Global AMS scale (3.296) followed by White students (2.000). The effect size for Black students is a significant moderate-level measure for AMS.

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Table 23 provides a break out of effect size measures for students' responses by race and gender.

Table 23. *Race and Gender Effect Size Measures*

Variable	Sub-Factor	d	sig
Gender By Race	IWS Belonging	0.008	0.574
	IWS Valuing	0.003	0.894
	AMS Intrinsic	0.004	0.804
	AMS Extrinsic	0.006	0.717
	AMS Amotivation	0.046	0.010

As indicated in Table 23, the only sub-factor that demonstrates a significant difference across race and gender is the AMS Amotivation scale. A closer examination of the five factors relative to GPA across gender by race (examining specifically African American and Caucasian students) is presented in Table 24.

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Table 24. *Gender by Race on GPA*

Factor		African American Males n = 57	African American Females n = 48	Caucasian Males n = 70	Caucasian Females n = 62
Belonging	<i>r</i>	-0.045	0.168	-.290*	-0.209
	Sig.	0.738	0.265	0.012	0.094
Valuing	<i>r</i>	0.119	-0.065	-.257*	-0.084
	Sig.	0.375	0.668	0.027	0.502
Intrinsic	<i>r</i>	0.209	-0.089	0.133	0.177
	Sig.	0.118	0.546	0.270	0.170
Extrinsic	<i>r</i>	.389**	-0.091	.336**	.350**
	Sig.	0.003	0.539	0.004	0.005
Amotivation	<i>r</i>	-0.124	-.364*	-.445**	0.043
	Sig.	0.357	0.011	0.001	0.738

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As indicated in Table 24, African American males and Caucasian males and females have positive significant correlations between their GPAs and their responses on the Extrinsic motivation factor. African American females and Caucasian males GPAs are found to be negatively correlated with their reported level of amotivation. Caucasian males GPA's are also found to be negatively correlated with their reported levels of Belonging and Valuing.

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The relationship between race and gender, with the primary data, is demonstrated in Figures 1 through 5.

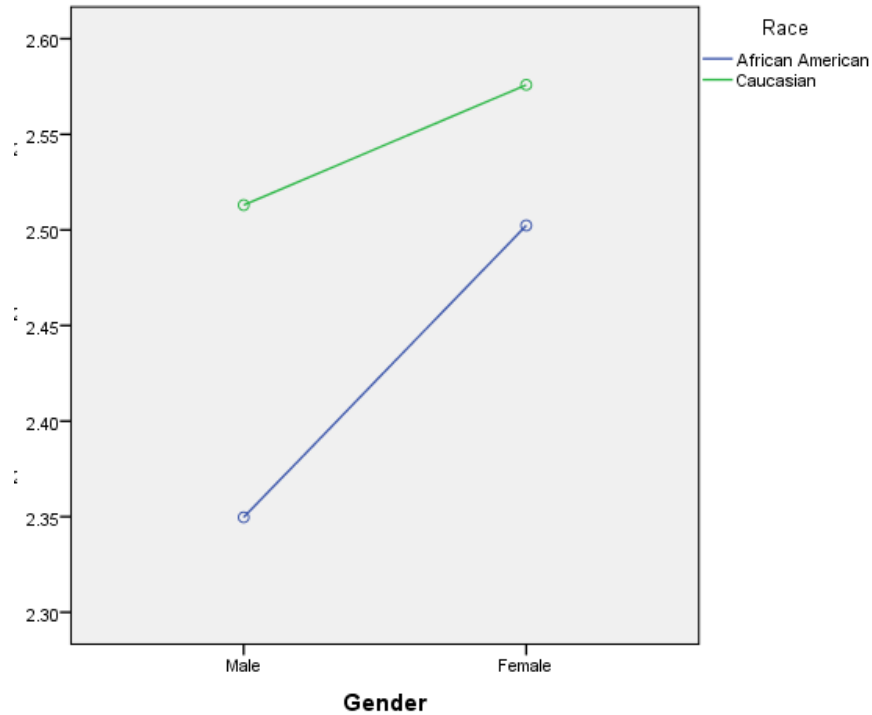


Figure 1. Race by Gender on IWS Belonging

African American males' sense of belonging ($M = 2.35$, $SD = .311$) was lower than all other subgroups, including African American females. African American students, in general, report a lower level of valuing based upon the IWS, as indicated in Figure 2.

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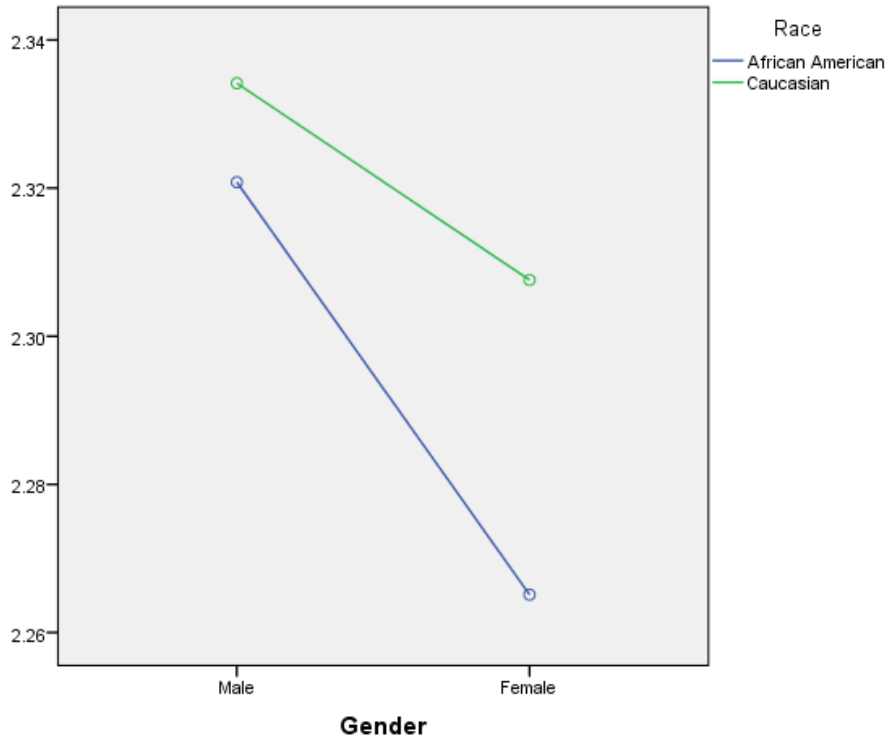


Figure 2. Race by Gender on IWS Valuing

African American male students' sense of valuing is slightly higher than African American female students. However, Caucasian students, overall, ranked higher than African American students.

In Figure 3, African American male students measured higher than any other subgroup when measuring intrinsic motivation on the AMS ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.107$). According to this data, African American male students are intrinsically driven to achieve in school.

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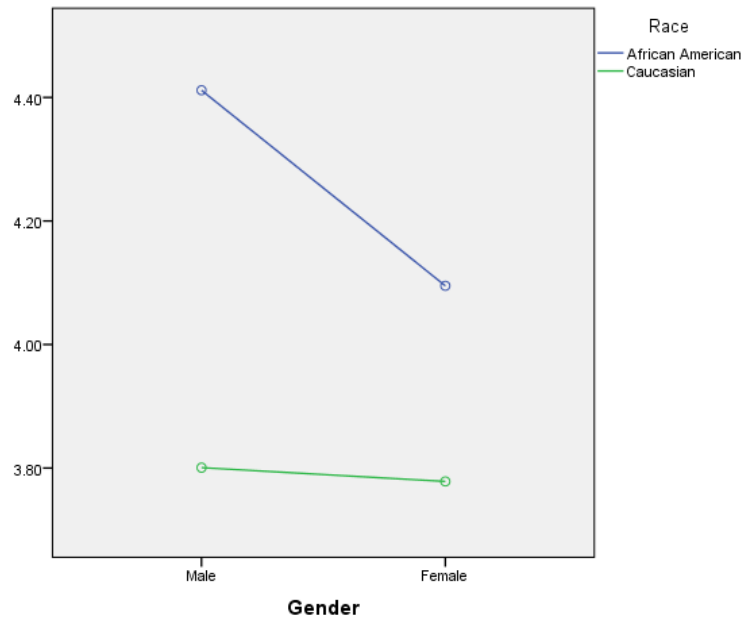


Figure 3. Race by Gender on the AMS Intrinsic Scale

African American students are highly extrinsically motivated, with African American male students ($M = 4.95$, $SD = 1.059$) falling slightly below African American female students. The data on Figure 4 indicate that all other subgroups fall below African American male students in extrinsic motivation.

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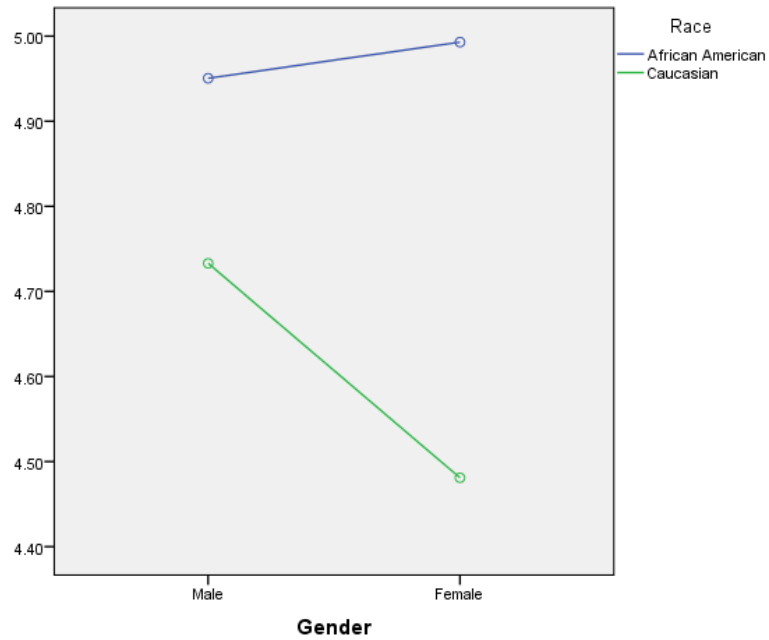


Figure 4. Race by Gender on AMS Extrinsic Scale

African American males ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.185$) rank higher than Caucasian males in amotivation on the AMS scale, as indicated in Figure 5. Only Caucasian females rank higher than African American males in amotivation on the AMS scale.

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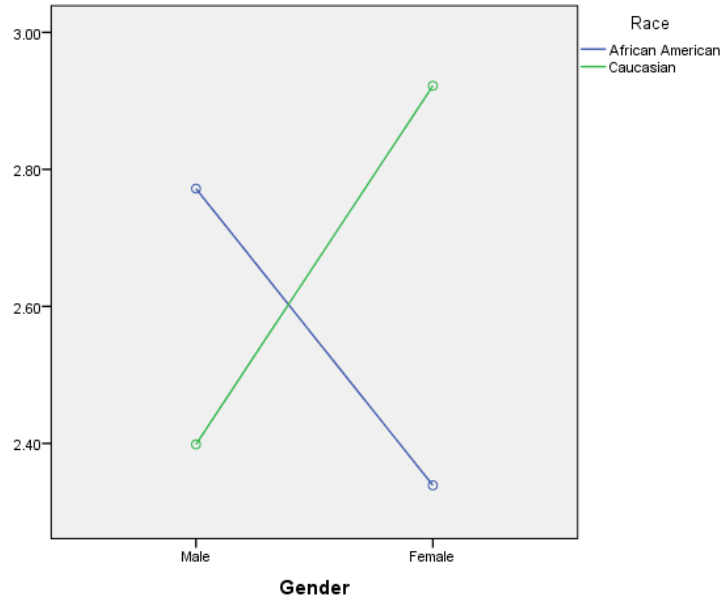


Figure 5. Race by Gender on the AMS Amotivation Scale

A complete list of the gender by race data is provided in Appendix A.

Summary

The data displayed in this chapter have been examined using comprehensive meta-analysis. The two instruments used to gather and compute the data were the Identification with School Questionnaire (IWS) and Academic Motivation Scale (AMS). Initially, secondary data were collected via dissertations, publications, and presentations that were located through a comprehensive search. After this data collection concluded, and it was discovered that few existing studies with quantitative data provided gender, race, and gender by race break-downs, data were collected from local schools that had recently administered the two inventories. The respondents surveyed were secondary students between the ages of 16 years old to 18 years and older at three local schools.

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The surveys were administered by the schools and provided to the current investigation with the understanding that the results of the outcomes would be provided to each location for internal purposes.

Therefore, the following investigation incorporates 43 different effect size measures in various analyses intended to address the stated research questions. These effect size measures are provided by the existing sources and the primary data. The primary data provided five measures from each sample of data collected and two global measures. Secondary data provided measures for each sub-factor, global measures, or a mixture of both global and sub-factor data. Primary data were examined for reliability, and aggregate information was reported, similar to what is provided in most of the secondary sources. The primary data provided the ability for the research to examine the gender by race question that was not addressed in the secondary data.

While the focus of this investigation was African American male students in comparison to other subgroups, Native American, Asian, and Latino students were removed from the equation due to such small representations of these students in the primary and secondary data. Three secondary sources (Fallon, 2010; Ruiz, 2009; Schultz-Leon, 2012) did provide extractable data for Latino students, which was captured in the reporting.

Findings of this investigation indicate that IWS GPA global measure presents the small, positive, significant effect size measure on the IWS by GPA scale (0.146) followed by a small, negative, effect size measure for IWS Valuing (-0.171) and IWS Belonging (-0.247). The implication from this data is that African American students reporting,

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demonstrate a significant relationship between their GPA and IWS, when compared to other groups of students. However, when the data are examined with the research, which breaks out the specific sub-factors of valuing and belonging, this effect is found not to be significantly different from the other groups of students.

AMS inventory was examined relative to GPA. African American student responses revealed a large, significant, positive effect for the Extrinsic factor on GPA (0.561). No other effect size measure examined in this group of measures demonstrated significant results. The implication from this data is that African American students report having significantly larger levels of motivation regarding their school work, specifically, for extrinsic reasons.

When examining the measures comparatively, with African American students as the reference group, the analysis reveals a consistent pattern of findings: the IWS sub-factors of Belonging (-.339) and Valuing (-.059) reveal negative, effect size measures while the AMS sub-factors Intrinsic (1.202), Extrinsic (0.643), and Amotivation (0.626) are large, positive, significant measures. This comparative measure only examined how the students responded to the questions for each of the sub-factors. These findings suggest, as above, that the sense of belonging and valuing of the educational experience is negative for African American students, while their motivations are all positive.

Also, consistent with the above results, are the comparisons of the Valuing and Belonging measures across Gender, where male students are the reference group. Specifically, these results indicate a large, negative, significant result for both the IWS

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global (-0.194) and the belonging sub-factors (-0.366). Valuing was also negative, but the effect measure was negligible (-0.025).

A review of AMS measures for Gender, with males serving as the reference group, reveals that the largest, significant effect size measure is represented by AMS Intrinsic (1.512), followed by AMS Global (0.981). The effect size for AMS Extrinsic is a large, positive, significant effect (.780) for extrinsic, academic motivation for males. This data imply that males, overall, are intrinsically motivated.

Race across Global IWS measure and Race across Global AMS measure find that Latinos present the largest, significant effect size measure (Global IWS scale .717 and Global AMS scale 3.296) on both scales. However, these results were supported by a small amount of data and should be interpreted cautiously. Black students' responses, overall, reveal a small, positive, significant effect size measure for IWS (.201) and a moderate, positive, significant effect size measure for the AMS (.386). White students, overall, reported a moderate, negative, significant effect for IWS (-.439) and a small, positive, significant effect for AMS.

Lastly, the data were examined for race by gender differences. These results indicate that reporting African American males reported the lowest on Belonging relative to all other groups, but higher on the Valuing sub-factor relative to the female African American participants. However, African American males reported highest on the intrinsic measure relative to the African American females, Caucasian females, or Caucasian males. African American males reported higher than all subgroups, except

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African American females, on the extrinsic measure. African American males reported higher than all subgroups, except Caucasian females.

Introduction to Conclusion

The current investigation examined the impact of both academic motivation, as measured with the Academic Motivation Scale, and identification with school, as measured with the Identification with School inventory, for African American male students relative to other student groups. This chapter discusses the findings of this investigation.

This meta-analytic investigation is the first reported study to assess which factor (identification with school, or academic motivation) demonstrates the largest impact on student achievement, and, more specifically, impacts the achievement of African American male students. Although previous research has been conducted in these two areas, no research has specifically linked the impact of these two factors, alone, into one study. Additionally, this study is unique in that it meta-analyzes the results of data generated on two inventories, across two forms of data collection: that which existed in published research and that which was collected from three local schools. As a result, this is the first known multi-level, multi-inventory, meta-analytic investigation.

In the first inventory, the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS), students had to identify why they went to school by responding to 28 different questions, and rating each answer on a scale of 1 – 7. An answer of 1 meant *Does not correspond at all*, while 7 meant *Corresponds exactly*. They also had to describe their grades (A, B, C, D, or F) in English, math, and, their overall grade in school. The only identifiers on the survey were gender, age, and race. The AMS measured whether students were motivated intrinsically,

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extrinsically, or through amotivation. This survey did not measure the degree to which students were motivated by one of the three factors. All three high schools surveyed showed that students, in general, are extrinsically motivated to achieve in school.

Students also completed the Identification with School Questionnaire (IWS). This survey consisted of 16 questions and students had to choose one response for each question from the following answer options: 1 (Strongly Agree), 2 (Agree), 3 (Disagree), and, 4 (Strongly Disagree). While there were no identifiers on this particular survey, students were already identified (by age, gender, and race) from the Academic Motivation Survey, as all students completed both surveys.

This chapter provides a discussion of the results of this investigation, and the potential implications for practice and policy. Specifically, what was garnered regarding the Identification with School and Academic Motivation with African American males relative to other groups is deliberated and connected back to the existing research. This discussion is followed by suggestions for future research, and the researcher's conclusions.

Discussion

According to the data, academic achievement is associated with identification with school as measured by the Identification with School Inventory. The majority of African American male students (and male students in general) believe they are treated with as much respect as other students, and have teachers who care about them. They also feel proud about being a part of their school, enjoy participating in many school activities, and like other student subgroups, they state that school is not one of their

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favorite places to be. The aforementioned results imply that African American males desire to be a part of the school culture. However, many of them do not feel that what they learn in class is useful, and half feel that what is learned in school will not be useful when they obtain a job. In other words, they fail to see the relevancy of school and academics. This is in line with the research of Kenny et al., (2003), who suggested that urban minority youth become disengaged from postsecondary planning because they do not view their current educational situation as relevant to their future, or as a means to better themselves. They, instead, perceive immovable factors which they believe serve as barriers to their success leading them to view school as irrelevant.

African American male students perceive that school and academics are irrelevant. Two of the factors that could aid in changing this are (1) being exposed to college experiences early, and (2) being exposed to positive African American male role models. As stated in Chapter 2, current college students can demonstrate to pre-college students the excitement of college life, while sharing with them the benefits of pursuing a college degree, career exploration, and life after college (Garibaldi, 2007). These positive role models can contribute to students' identification with school, as well as students' motivation.

When examining whether identification with school affects other student demographic groups in the same manner it does African American males, we note some differences and similarities. Unlike Black males, their female counterparts (White and Black) do not feel that they are treated with as much respect as other students. Also unlike African American males, the majority of other student sub groups (African

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American females, Caucasian males and females) believe that people at school are not interested in what they have to say. Half of the Caucasian females surveyed failed to believe that their teachers cared about them. Like African American male students, Caucasian females didn't feel that what they learned in school was useful. At least half of African American females and half of the Caucasian males believed that what they learned in school would be useful. The majority of Caucasian males stated that what they learned in school would be useful when they obtained a job. Most other responses such as feeling proud to be a part of their school, wanting to be anywhere other than school most of the time, and considering school their favorite place to be were consistent among all four subgroups.

Based upon the responses on the Academic Motivation Scale, African American male students are academically motivated to achieve academically. According to the data, they are both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated to achieve academically. Since extrinsic motivation is a factor that can contribute to their academic success, it is, again, important for them to have positive role models in their lives, and in their view, who they can admire and emulate. Ogbu and Simmons (1998) stressed the motivational impact experienced by the minority community from the exposure of successful, professional role models. Since they are also motivated by aspirations of acquiring things such as a high paying job, prestige, and having the "good life", measures should be taken to extrinsically motivate young Black males by rewarding them verbally and substantially for their academic achievement, in the same manner society rewards and acknowledges athletes and entertainers for success in their fields (Garibaldi, 1992).

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Responses from the Academic Motivation Scale also showed that students are intrinsically motivated to succeed academically. This can be achieved by teachers using a variety of strategies to motivate these students, and setting goals for them. However, teachers can only challenge, push, and, subsequently, motivate their students when they believe their students can succeed. In a random survey of 500 teachers (318 responded) who were asked if they believed their Black male students would attend college, Garibaldi (1992) found that nearly six out of every 10 responded negatively. This is a wide-spread issue that must be addressed in order to positively impact African American male achievement, as 60% of the teachers surveyed were elementary teachers, 70% of them had 10 or more years of experience, and 65% were black.

When examining whether academic motivation affects other student demographic groups in the same manner it does African American males, once again, some differences and similarities were noted. African American male students surveyed were not motivated by the pleasure and satisfaction of learning new things or the feeling that a high school education would allow them to be more career ready. However, all other subgroups were intrinsically motivated by those feelings. Overall, other responses displayed similarities between all four subgroups regarding extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

Based upon the data, it is still clear that an achievement gap does exist between African Males and other subgroups. The data also suggests that the effect of this achievement gap is associated more with identification with school than academic motivation. While motivation is certainly a factor which influences student achievement,

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African American male students seem to be influenced to a greater degree by identification with school. The fact that they like to participate in numerous school activities, feel proud of being a part of their school, yet, would rather be anywhere else other than school implies the following:

- African American male students have a desire to “fit in” the school environment.
- The relevance of school and academics is missing from these students.
- There is little or no connection between what they are learning in school and the world in which they live.
- Since they’ve failed to establish relativity to their academics, they do not, or cannot identify with the school’s academic environment, and, subsequently, lack academic success.

One significant factor in the association of achievement to identification with school is disidentification. As mentioned in Chapter 2, disidentification is a Stereotype Threat Model which is claimed to cause some African American students to not value academics, therefore disidentifying with school and any personal connection to academic success (Steele, 1997). Another factor is disengagement, which is when the student’s attitude towards school is that school is boring, uninviting, and, for the most part, irrelevant. In Toldson’s study (2013), disengagement was the best predictor of disciplinary referrals for students in each racial group, and, the strongest predictor of truancy for Black males.

Significant factors in the association of achievement to academic motivation included role models and teachers, especially those who were autonomy-supportive.

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Autonomy-supportiveness refers to a method of teaching which attempts to promote behaviors and strategies that will promote the students' propensity to engage in learning because they value the activity, or, find it interesting (Roth et al., 2007). According to Ryan and Grolnick (1986), students who felt their teachers were autonomy-supportive had higher levels of intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, and competence perception.

Implications for Further Research

Based upon the findings of this study, implications for further research have surfaced in order to provide additional insight into questions not answered by this study, regardless of its comprehensive nature.

Since this was a meta-analytic study, embarking upon a qualitative study to include sitting down and talking with students could provide another perspective not thoroughly addressed in this study. Another implication for further research is the study of African American female students. While it is believed that the achievement gap for this particular subgroup has not been as egregious as their male counterparts, it is believed that their achievement gap may now be widening. Understanding what is moderating this widening gap among African American females can help to ameliorate this gap, early, and provide insights into the gap that continues with males.

Finally, since the data suggests that the achievement gap is more inclined to be attributed to identification with school, a study should be done to explore avenues and strategies that can effectively support African American males in finding school academics relevant. This could be especially pivotal since it was already shown in this research that Black males want to be a part of the school environment. Some of the

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questions to be answered could be: What school activities do they identify with most? How can we, as educators and society, use the school activities they identify with most to help them identify with academics, thus helping to close the achievement gap? Two recent studies suggest that providing urban middle school students with choices regarding their learning was shown to have a big impact on academics (Hiscox, 2015; Hogheim & Reber, 2015). Hiscox found that for the predominately high poverty African American students, choice programming with an embedded technology curriculum resulted in a 30-40-point increase in academic achievement test scores after one year, and upwards to a 55-point increase over their peers who did not participate in the choice programming. Likewise, Hogheim and Reber (2015) reported that when provided with simple choices in the daily academic setting, within the parameters of the academic standards, it resulted in increased and maintained interest in studies, revealed an increased sense of value of the academic content, and helped to develop a lasting personal interest in learning (p.1).

Limitations

The current investigation was based on a sample of existing published research and a sample of collected data. While the results are based on a sample, the results from the collected data reflect that of students in tenth grade in Western, PA. How well these results generalize to a broader population of perspectives is supported by the data extracted from the existing published studies. Additional qualitative investigations would be necessary to further understand the perspectives of the student participants, and their opinions as to how they responded to the inventories. Additionally, due to the study

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design, the potential moderators of family structure, education level of parents, and socio-economic status were not measured.

Conclusion

As stated early on, even though we have continued to experience gains in academic achievement for all students, our African American male population continues to lag behind the rest. While this is not a new problem, not confined to the educational sector, but, a societal issue that has infiltrated this country's educational system, it will take a collaborative effort of both the educational system and society to effectively address this crisis.

This study has attempted to do what no other scientific work prior to this has done: to use an empirical approach to research identification with school and academic motivation, simultaneously, in order to determine which factor has the greatest effect on African American male achievement. The findings of this study suggest that identification has the greatest effect on African American male achievement. However, the greater problem is not merely the inability of this minority population to identify with school, but their inability to identify with a society who is inclined to misidentify the majority of them based upon misperceptions, preconceived notions, and the actions of the ill-behaved minority.

Although we are approximately 159 years removed from the Dred Scott Decision, 150 years from the official end of slavery, 62 years from Brown v. Board of Education, and 61 years from the death of 14-year-old Emmett Till, this country's fear,

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misperception, and prejudice of Black people in general, and, Black males, specifically, still exists, unfortunately.

While most people in this country are familiar with the deaths of unarmed Black men such as Trayvon Martin, Eric Garner, Michael Brown, Walter Scott, Freddie Gray, and 12-year-old Tamir Rice, who some have argued helped facilitate their own demise, there are more. They include, but certainly are not limited to: John Crawford, shot and killed inside a Walmart for holding a toy pistol he picked up in the store while shopping; Jeremy Lake, shot and killed by his White girlfriend's off-duty policeman father when he tried to introduce himself to the man after being approached by him; Levar Jones, who was shot, but survived, for reaching for his driver's license, which is what the officer told him to do. His infraction was a traffic violation for an alleged seat belt violation. Although there are many more, limitations regarding time and space will not permit this researcher to present a more extensive list. While these are societal examples, they have implications that reach into, and, infect the educational system.

An example of the previous illustrations occurred locally when a recent email message was leaked about a well-known, longtime policeman, city councilman, and newly appointed chief of police. The email, sent to more than 40 people, was a solicitation for a PTO fundraiser for a predominately White elementary school that read: "Good morning. Please click and review. Even a \$1.00 bill will be greatly appreciated. Them (name of city omitted) niggas gotta learn how to read." While he gave a public apology amidst public outcry, he admitted that he used the racial slur often, and considered it a term of endearment. The use of such racial insults and the mentality

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which accompanies them, used to describe innocent elementary children by those sworn to protect and serve, and, be leaders in our society is a glaring signal that a very serious problem exists.

Therefore, all stakeholders in education and society must see this as a societal problem with implications that affect everyone, and work, collaboratively, to address it. As Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. stated in his letter from a Birmingham jail, “Injustice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere”. The failure to educate all United States citizens, including African American males, is an injustice that we cannot afford to continue to endure.

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APPENDIX A

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Descriptive Statistics

	Gender	Race	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
IWS_Belong	Male	African American	2.350	0.311	57
		Caucasian	2.513	0.412	69
		Latino	2.706	0.431	4
		Native American	2.292	0.277	4
		Total	2.443	0.378	134
	Female	African American	2.502	0.358	46
		Caucasian	2.576	0.321	62
		Latino	2.500	0.393	2
		Native American	2.306	0.227	3
		Asian	2.611	0.236	2
	Total	2.539	0.334	115	
	Total	African American	2.418	0.340	103
		Caucasian	2.543	0.372	131
		Latino	2.638	0.392	6
		Native American	2.298	0.236	7
Asian		2.611	0.236	2	
Total	2.487	0.361	249		
IWS_Value	Male	African American	2.321	0.409	57
		Caucasian	2.334	0.384	69
		Latino	2.446	0.422	4
		Native American	2.232	0.270	4
		Total	2.329	0.390	134
	Female	African American	2.265	0.395	46
		Caucasian	2.308	0.332	62
		Latino	2.643	0.101	2
		Native American	2.238	0.218	3
		Asian	1.857	0.606	2
	Total	2.287	0.362	115	
	Total	African American	2.296	0.402	103
		Caucasian	2.322	0.359	131
		Latino	2.512	0.345	6
		Native American	2.235	0.229	7
Asian		1.857	0.606	2	
Total	2.309	0.377	249		
AMS_Intrinsic	Male	African American	4.412	1.077	57
		Caucasian	3.801	1.177	69
		Latino	4.317	1.169	4

THE AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE ACHIEVEMENT GAP

		Native American	4.050	1.502	4
		Total	4.083	1.169	134
	Female	African American	4.095	1.155	46
		Caucasian	3.778	1.166	62
		Latino	4.371	0.654	2
		Native American	4.000	1.386	3
		Asian	5.388	0.984	2
		Total	3.949	1.168	115
	Total	African American	4.270	1.118	103
		Caucasian	3.790	1.167	131
		Latino	4.335	0.952	6
		Native American	4.029	1.330	7
		Asian	5.388	0.984	2
		Total	4.021	1.168	249
AMS_Ext	Male	African American	4.951	1.059	57
		Caucasian	4.733	1.163	69
		Latino	4.563	1.222	4
		Native American	4.438	1.070	4
		Total	4.812	1.114	134
	Female	African American	4.993	0.985	46
		Caucasian	4.481	1.041	62
		Latino	4.917	0.943	2
		Native American	4.500	1.984	3
		Asian	5.250	0.707	2
		Total	4.707	1.055	115
	Total	African American	4.969	1.022	103
		Caucasian	4.614	1.110	131
		Latino	4.681	1.052	6
		Native American	4.464	1.373	7
		Asian	5.250	0.707	2
		Total	4.763	1.086	249
AMS_A	Male	African American	2.772	1.185	57
		Caucasian	2.399	1.267	69
		Latino	4.438	2.045	4
		Native American	1.125	0.250	4
		Total	2.580	1.307	134
	Female	African American	2.339	1.276	46
		Caucasian	2.922	1.473	62
		Latino	2.500	0.707	2
		Native American	2.000	1.000	3
		Asian	1.875	1.237	2
		Total	2.639	1.393	115

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APPENDIX B

THE AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE ACHIEVEMENT GAP

Are you? Male
 Female

How old are you? 16
 17
 18
 18+

What is your race?
 African American
 Caucasian
 Latino
 Other

	90's (A's)	80's (B's)	70's (C's)	60's (D's)	50's (F's)
How would you describe your grade in English?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How would you describe your grade in Math?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How would you describe your <i>overall grade</i> in school?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Using the scale below, indicate to what extent each of the following items presently corresponds to one of the reasons why you go to school.

Does not correspond at all	Corresponds a little	Corresponds moderately	Corresponds a lot	Corresponds exactly
1	2	3	4	5

Why Do You Go To School?

1. Because I need at least a high-school degree in order to find a high-paying job later on.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. Because I think that a high-school education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4. Because I really like going to school.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
5. Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
6. For the pleasure I experience while surpassing myself in my studies.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
7. To prove to myself that I am capable of completing my high-school degree.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
8. In order to obtain a more prestigious job later on.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
9. For the pleasure I experience when I discover new things never seen before.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

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Does not correspond at all	Corresponds a little		Corresponds moderately		Corresponds a lot		Corresponds exactly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

10. Because eventually it will enable me to enter the job market in a field that I like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Because for me, school is fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I once had good reasons for going to school; however, now I wonder whether I should continue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. For the pleasure that I experience while I am surpassing myself in one of my personal accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Because of the fact that when I succeed in school I feel important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Because I want to have "the good life" later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. For the pleasure that I experience in broadening my knowledge about subjects which appeal to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Because this will help me make a better choice regarding my career orientation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. For the pleasure that I experience when I am taken by discussions with interesting teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I can't see why I go to school and frankly, I couldn't care less.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult academic activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. To show myself that I am an intelligent person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. In order to have a better salary later on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Because my studies allow me to continue to learn about many things that interest me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Because I believe that my high school education will improve my competence as a worker.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. For the "high" feeling that I experience while reading about various interesting subjects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I don't know; I can't understand what I am doing in school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Because high school allows me to experience a personal satisfaction in my quest for excellence in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Because I want to show myself that I can succeed in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

©Vallerand, R.J., Pelletier, L.G., Blasi, M.R., Briere, N.M., Senecal, C.B., Vallieres, E.F. (1992).
Academic Motivation Scale (High School Version)

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APPENDIX C

THE AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE ACHIEVEMENT GAP

Identification with School Questionnaire

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Place an "X" next to the word that is closest to how you feel or what you think. Please answer all items, even if you are not sure.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel proud of being a part of my school.	①	②	③	④
2. I am treated with as much respect as other students in my class.	①	②	③	④
3. I can get a good job even if my grades are bad.	①	②	③	④
4. The only time I get attention in school is when I cause trouble.	①	②	③	④
5. I like to participate in a lot of school activities (i.e., sports, clubs, plays).	①	②	③	④
6. School is one of the most important things in my life.	①	②	③	④
7. Many of the things we learn in class are useless.	①	②	③	④
8. Most of my teachers don't really care about me.	①	②	③	④
9. Most of the time I would like to be any place other than in school.	①	②	③	④
10. There are teachers or other adults in my school that I can talk to if I have a problem.	①	②	③	④
11. Most of what I learn in school will be useful when I get a job.	①	②	③	④
12. School is one of my favorite places to be.	①	②	③	④
13. People at school are interested in what I have to say.	①	②	③	④
14. School is one of my favorite places to be.	①	②	③	④
15. Dropping out of school would be a huge mistake for me.	①	②	③	④
16. School is more important than most people think.	①	②	③	④

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APPENDIX D

THE AFRICAN AMERICAN MALE ACHIEVEMENT GAP

Youngstown
STATE UNIVERSITY

One University Plaza, Youngstown, Ohio 44555
Office of Grants and Sponsored Programs
330.941.2377
www.yzu.edu

August 27, 2015

Dr. Karen Larwin, Principal Investigator
Ms. Lora Adams-King, Co-Investigator
Department of Educational Foundations, Research, Technology & Leadership
UNIVERSITY

RE: HSRC Protocol Number: 013-2015
Title: Explaining the Achievement Gap of African-American Males Relative to Other
Student Groups: A Multi-level Meta-analytic Investigation

Dear Dr. Larwin and Ms. Adams-King:

The Institutional Review Board has reviewed the abovementioned protocol and determined that it is exempt from full committee review based on a DHHS Category 5 exemption.

Any changes in your research activity should be promptly reported to the Institutional Review Board and may not be initiated without IRB approval except where necessary to eliminate hazard to human subjects. Any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects should also be promptly reported to the IRB.

The IRB would like to extend its best wishes to you in the conduct of this study.

Sincerely,

Mr. Michael A. Hripko
Associate Vice President for Research
Authorized Institutional Official

MAH:ec

c: Dr. Charles Vergon, Chair
Department of Educational Foundations, Research, Technology & Leadership

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