Culturally Responsive Teaching Through a Historical Lens: Will History Repeat Itself?

Socio-Emotional and Psychological Issues and Needs of Gifted African-American Students: Culture Matters

Intentional Teacher-School Counselor Collaboration: Utilizing Culturally Relevant Frameworks to Engage Black Males

Special Issue

Donna Y. Ford, Guest Editor
Contents

Interdisciplinary Journal of Teaching and Learning
Volume 2  Number 1  Spring 2012

Message from the Executive Editor
Vera I. Daniels ................................................................. 3

Introduction to the Special Issue
Donna Y. Ford, Guest Editor .............................................. 4

Articles
Culturally Responsive Teaching Though a Historical Lens: Will History Repeat Itself?
Deborah A. Harmon ........................................................... 12

Socio-Emotional and Psychological Issues and Needs of Gifted African-American
Students: Culture Matters
Michelle Trotman Scott ....................................................... 23

Intentional Teacher-School Counselor Collaboration: Utilizing Culturally Relevant
Frameworks to Engage Black Males
Malik S. Henfield and Ebony O. McGee ................................ 34

Departments
Online Resources
Peggy Snowden and Chauncey Carr McElwee ........................ 49

The Event Zone
Martha Jallim Hall and Michael J. Maiorano ........................ 50
Message from the Executive Editor

Vera I. Daniels
Joseph Kermit Haynes-Casino Rouge Endowed Professor

We are pleased to have Dr. Donna Y. Ford as the guest editor of this issue of the Interdisciplinary Journal of teaching and Learning. Dr. Ford is a Professor of Education and Human Development at Vanderbilt University. She holds a joint appointment in the Department of Special Education and Department of Teaching and Learning. Her work focuses on recruiting and retaining culturally different students in gifted education and advanced placement classes, multicultural and urban education, the achievement gap, and family involvement. Dr. Ford has authored more than 100 articles and eight books, along with numerous book chapters; and she has made several hundred presentations. Dr. Ford has been a board member of the National Association for Gifted Children; she serves on numerous editorial boards and reviews for several journals.

Dr. Ford introduces this special issue. Taken as a whole, the articles in this issue address important, worthwhile, and timely topics. What makes them insightful, informative, and impressively unique is the panoramic view and far-reaching perspectives taken by the authors.
Introduction to the Special Issue

Dr. Donna Y. Ford  
Guest Editor

Three demographic realities and trends beg for a special issue on culturally responsive education – the ever-changing demographics of our nation, the ever-changing demographics of our public schools (partly due to White flight), and the unchanging demographics of our education force (e.g., teachers, administrators, counselors, psychologists, etc.). Combined, Blacks, Hispanics, Asians, and Native Americans comprise about 45% of our public schools, and this percentage increases annually. Conversely, less than 10% of teachers are Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Native American (Ford, 2011).

In conceptualizing this volume of the IJTL, two notions regarding storms came to mind – a quiet storm and a perfect storm. One storm relates to terrible weather, while the other pertains to a confluence of forces that come to bear on an issue or situation. For example, frequently before a hurricane comes, there is a great deal of noise. Most animals sense that a storm is coming and take action… however, in education, humans seem not to have this same sense; they appear to not heed warning signs. In this respect, they continue business as usual and get caught up in the storm and associated backlash. The quiet storm in education has been that too many educators have failed to see how something so simple and so complex as culture matters in teaching and learning; cross-cultural clashes are troublesome and prevalent, and the hurricane has come in the form of the stubborn and pervasive achievement gap!

There is also the perfect storm. A perfect storm is the result of the confluence of three powerful forces that is having a significant impact on our country and schools – and, ultimately, the educational progress (or lack thereof) of Black students. If we maintain our present beliefs, attitudes, practices, and policies, it is very likely that our nation will continue to grow apart, with greater inequity in how we educate Black males and females in teaching, counseling, and all other areas. I agree with Nettles (2007): “if we recognize the power of these forces as they interact over the years — and we change course accordingly — then we have an opportunity to reclaim the American dream in which each of us has a fair chance at prosperity” (p. 2).

Kirsch and colleagues (2007) warn us that the convergence of said factors can create a powerful dynamic that continually feeds the storm — putting our nation at even greater risk. They offer hope, however, that if we act now and invest in policies that will help our nation grow together, we can meet our ideals as a nation by offering real opportunities for all its citizens. It requires, as Grantham (2011) argues, that educators cannot be bystanders in the educational process and partnership.

In this vein, the authors of this special issue address the vital need to respond to the storms with cultural responsiveness. Deborah Harmon, in “Culturally Responsive Teaching Though a Historical Lens: Will History Repeat Itself?”, walks readers through a graduate course on how she empowers teachers to understand the need for being culturally competent professionals as well as how to deliver an equitable and excellent education to Black students. This article looks
backward and then forward – where we have been and where we need to go. Several theories and frameworks are shared as Harmon lays out why teacher preparation programs must be culturally responsive. This topic feeds into the next article.

In “Socio-Emotional and Psychological Issues and Needs of Gifted African-American Students: Culture Matters”, Michelle Trotman Scott sheds light on the social-emotional/affective and psychological needs of Black students identified as gifted. Operating under the larger topics of under-representation and underachievement, Trotman Scott adopts the position that educators need substantive and on-going professional training to understand gifted students and Black students, and their cultural interests and needs. Specifically, discussions and scholarship on views of self (e.g., self-esteem and self-concept) are incomplete when racial identity is absent, trivialized, and/or discounted. In other words, culture matters. This article has important implications for counseling, which is addressed in the next article.

Malik Henfield and Ebony McGee focus on the most misunderstood, neglected, and disenfranchised group in our nation and schools – Black males. In “Intentional Teacher-School Counselor Collaboration: Utilizing Culturally Relevant Frameworks to Engage Black Males”, the authors assert that counselors are most effective with Black males when they are culturally competent. Their article draws upon a Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory as a framework. This theory is concerned with understanding the contexts in which an individual exists, and further describes and explains the thoughts and actions of individuals and groups within their specific contexts. Essentially, they use ecological systems theory to unpack the academic achievement and career aspirations of Black males, to understand their identity, and to understand their social environment.

The three articles have in common the goal of closing the achievement gap and recognize that professionals who are culturally competent – who recognize, appreciate, and value culture and their culturally different Black students -- are at the greatest promise for riding out and even preventing the storms in their schools (and the larger society).

**Donna Y. Ford**

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The Interdisciplinary Journal of Teaching and Learning (IJTL) - formerly the E-Journal of Teaching and Learning in Diverse Settings, is a scholarly triple-blind peer reviewed open access electronic refereed journal that is published three times each year by the College of Education at Southern University - Baton Rouge. Publication occurs in the Spring, Summer, and Fall.

The IJTL is designed to provide opportunities for divergent ideas, views, and opinions on various topics and issues from professionals in diverse disciplines and professional arenas. It strives to be highly interdisciplinary in content that is likely to be of interest to teachers, principals, other school administrators, policymakers, graduate and undergraduate students, researchers, and academicians.

Manuscripts that focus on special education, general education (including subject content areas), bilingual education, cultural and linguistic diversity, innovative methods in teaching, assessment, exemplary programs, technology (assistive and instructional), educational leadership and reform, public policy, current issues and practices, and research relevant to education are encouraged.

Manuscripts submitted to the IJTL should be interesting, innovative, informative, well documented, and have practical value that embrace and contribute to effective teaching and learning.

Call for Manuscripts

The Interdisciplinary Journal of Teaching and Learning (IJTL) welcomes submissions that contribute to effective teaching and learning. It provides a forum for the dissemination of articles focused on a wide variety of topics and content subject areas.

The IJTL is comprised of four departments -- Feature Articles, Educational Tweets, Online Resources, and the Event Zone.

**Feature Articles** provide scholarly articles on important topics, theoretical perspectives, current issues, practices, strategies, and research related to teaching and learning in PK-12 and higher education settings. All manuscripts submitted to this department undergo a triple-blind peer review.

Manuscripts for feature articles may be submitted by faculty, graduate students (whose work is co-authored by faculty), school administrators, policymakers, researchers, classroom teachers, and other practicing educators on current and compelling educational topics, issues, practices, and concerns at all levels (PK-12 and higher education) from a wide range of disciplines.

Manuscripts that focus on special education, general education, bilingual education, cultural and linguistic diversity, innovative methods in teaching, assessment, exemplary programs, technology (assistive and instructional), educational leadership and reform, public policy, current practices and issues, and research relevant to education are encouraged. The manuscripts should be
interesting, informative, well documented, appeal to the IJTL diverse audience, and have practical value that embrace and contribute to effective teaching and learning.

Additionally, the manuscripts should be original, well written, and offer new knowledge or a new and insightful synthesis of existing knowledge that has significance or importance to education. They should also have a solid theoretical base and offer an appropriate blend of teaching and practice. The conclusion, summary, final thoughts, or implications should be supported by the evidence presented.

The complete review process for manuscripts submitted to this department may take up to three months. The author guidelines provide additional information on what you should know about the submission process.

**Educational Tweets** feature brief informative tidbits, views, and opinions on hot topics, current events/issues, educational policies, interesting readings, and other areas that impact education or inform teaching and learning. The information, views, and opinions tweeted in this department reflect those of the author.

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**The Event Zone** features educational events such as conferences, meetings, workshops, forums, professional development opportunities, and webinars sponsored by various agencies and organizations that embrace effective teaching and learning. Events featured in this department are generated by the section editors.

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**Submission Deadlines**

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Author Guidelines

The Interdisciplinary Journal of Teaching and Learning (IJTL) is a scholarly triple-blind peer reviewed open access electronic refereed journal that welcomes manuscripts from scholars, academicians, teachers, researchers, graduate students (whose work is co-authored by faculty), administrators, practitioners, and policymakers on a variety of topics and content areas as well as educational issues, evidence-based practices, and topics of educational significance.

Manuscripts submitted must be an original contribution. A cover letter must accompany the manuscript that provides assurances that the manuscript is an original work that has not been previously published (in whole or substantial part), or is being considered concurrently for publication by another publisher.

Manuscripts must be submitted electronically using word processing software. Acceptable formats include Microsoft Word (doc/docx) and Rich Text format (rtf).

Manuscripts should be formatted for printing on standard 8 x 11 inch paper with 1-inch margins, double spaced (including quotations and references), and prepared in Times New Roman 12-point font size. Titles, headings, and subheadings should be in upper and lower case fonts.

Manuscripts should not exceed 25 pages in length, including the title page, abstract, references, and tables or figures.

A separate cover sheet should provide the authors' full name, organization or institutional affiliation, mailing address, phone number, and e-mail address; and the corresponding author should be identified. The authors' names should not appear on any other pages of the manuscript. It is the responsibility of the corresponding author to notify the corresponding editor of the IJTL of changes in address, organization, or institutional affiliation occurring during the review process.

An abstract (100 - 150 words) should be included that summarizes the content of the manuscript. Five or six key words should be placed below the abstract.

Tables and figures should be placed in a separate file, and need not be double-spaced. Tables should only be used when appropriate and should include only essential data. Figures should be camera ready. Indicate the location for tables and figures in the text in boldface, enclosed in brackets, on a separate line.

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Manuscripts received will be screened by the journal editors for conformity to the editorial guidelines, appropriateness of topic, and appropriateness for the journal readership. Manuscripts will also be assessed for content, relevance, accuracy, and usefulness to those in educational settings and stakeholders with an interest in educational policies and issues.

Appropriate manuscripts will be sent to peer reviewers. Poorly written or formatted manuscripts will not be sent out for peer review.

All manuscripts received by the IJTL are assigned an identification number. This number is used to track the manuscript during the review process.

Within two weeks of receipt of the manuscript, an e-mail is sent to the corresponding author acknowledging receipt of the manuscript with notification of the assigned identification number. The corresponding author may contact the journal corresponding editor at any time during the review process to obtain information about the status of their manuscript. Include in the subject line “Request for Manuscript Status Update (Manuscript #____).”

The manuscript review process is generally completed within three months. This process may be slightly longer during major academic breaks or holidays.

Peer reviewers make one of the following decisions concerning a manuscript: (a) accept for publication (b) accept for publication and request minor revisions, (c) consider for publication after major revisions with the stipulation for a second peer review, (d) reject with resubmission invited, or (e) reject and decline the opportunity to publish.

Authors of manuscripts that have been accepted for publication will be notified by e-mail through the corresponding author. In some instances, authors may be asked to make revisions and provide a final copy of the manuscript before it is forwarded for publication.

Manuscripts accepted for publication may be susceptible to further editing to improve the quality and readability of the manuscript without materially changing the meaning of the text. Before publication, the corresponding author will receive an edited copy of the manuscript to approve its content and answer any questions that may arise from the editing process.

The IJTL is always looking for peer reviewers to serve on its Board of Reviewers. If you are interested in being considered as a peer reviewer, click on the link Peer Reviewer to obtain an application. Please return the application by e-mail (coeijtl@subr.edu) or fax (225-771-5810).
One of the greatest outcomes of experiencing culturally responsive teaching is a sense of empowerment. In teaching a graduate course on culturally responsive teaching, I wanted my students to experience that power. To accomplish this, I decided to provide students with a comprehensive understanding of culturally responsive pedagogy and a holistic perspective, but this could not be accomplished by simply sharing exemplars and current research. So, I endeavored to investigate culturally responsive teaching looking through a historical lens at African American education. I became empowered preparing for the class and was anxious to transfer the knowledge, experience, and insight I gained from this hidden treasure to my students. This article gives an overview of culturally responsive education through a historical lens, explaining why it needs to become a part of teacher preparation.

**Keywords:** culturally responsive teaching, culturally responsive pedagogy, culturally responsive education, multicultural education, teacher preparation, African American schools

**What is Culturally Responsive Education?**

Culturally responsive pedagogy has been referred to by many names: culturally responsible, culture compatible, culturally appropriate, culturally congruent, culturally relevant, and multicultural education (Irvine & Armento, 2001). Gay (2000, 2010) describes cultural responsive teaching as multidimensional, empowering, and transformative. She refers to culturally relevant pedagogy as the use of “… cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frame of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning more relevant to an effective… It teaches to and through strengths of the students. It is culturally validating and affirming” (Gay, 2000, p. 29).

Culturally responsive education is one of the most effective means of meeting the learning needs of culturally different students (Gay, 2000, 2010; Ford, 2010; Harmon, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 2010). Qualitative and observational studies confirm that African American students often learn best in an environment that is relational and personal, has high expectations, has accountability for self and others, and is similar to what is present in an extended family (Boykin et al., 2005, Perry & Delpit, 1998; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 2001, 2010; Willis, 2003. For example, Willis (2003) observed faculty and students at elementary schools where African-American students performed higher-than-expected on standardized tests. He found the school climate was one where teachers held positive attitudes about students, high expectations of students, and
positive extended family relations. Teachers felt responsible for themselves but also for others. An effort was made among faculty and staff to form strong relationships with students and their families. In all instances, teachers used culturally responsive teaching (Love & Kruger, 2005).

In 1989, Irvine wrote about the lack of cultural synchronization between teachers and African American students and the negative impact on academic achievement. Eleven years later, she described culturally responsive teaching as student-centered, having the power to transform the curriculum, fostering critical problem solving, and focusing on building relationships with students, families, and communities (Irvine & Armento, 2001). Irvine (2002) further explained that the curriculum is transformed with culturally responsive teaching because the subject matter is viewed from multiple perspectives, including the lens of oppressed and disenfranchised groups.

Studies and researchers assert that successful teachers of African American children use culturally responsive instruction and engage in the following: (a) draw on African and African American culture and history, (b) locate ‘self’ in a historical and cultural context, (c) enable students to create new knowledge based upon life experiences, and (d) view knowledge as reciprocal. Teachers create a community of learners much like an extended family, perceive teaching as a part of their calling, and have high expectations for the success of all students (Ladson-Billings, 1994, 2001, 2010).

To teach using culturally responsive instruction, teachers must incorporate elements of the students’ culture in their teaching. They listen to their students and allow students to share their personal stories. They spend considerable time in the classroom as well as outside of the classroom developing personal relationships with their students and families (Irvine & Armento, 2001).

Irvine (2002) interviewed African American teachers who engaged in culturally responsive teaching. These teachers identified the following beliefs about culturally responsive teaching:

1. Teaching is caring for the whole student, providing honest feedback to students about their performance, maintaining authority in the classroom, and using culturally specific instruction.

2. Teaching requires educators to engage in ‘other mothering’ or a feeling of kinship toward their students.

3. Teaching is believing in one’s own teaching and ability to influence the achievement of students. That is, teachers must have multicultural self-efficacy.

4. Teaching is demanding the best of students holding them to high expectations.

5. Teaching is a calling and has a special purpose.

Ladson-Billings’ (1994) seminal work (and updated in 2010) on effective teachers introduced the idea of culturally relevant teaching as critical pedagogy aimed at empowering students of color. The use of students’ cultural referents in teaching empowers students intellectually, socially,
emotionally, and politically, thereby enabling them to engage in the meaningful learning of knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Culturally relevant pedagogy demands that students experience academic success, develop and/or maintain cultural competence, and develop a critical consciousness, which empowers them to challenge the status quo. Ideally, culturally relevant pedagogy can prepare students to change society – not just merely to fit into society.

James Banks – Multicultural Education

James Banks’ (1999) integration of multicultural content model moves teachers to transformative teaching and social action. Culturally responsive curriculum provides opportunities for students to view issues from multiple lenses. In addition, students can think about issues from a critical lens, engage in authentic problem-solving, and address issues of social justice. This model is not only for students in K-12 settings, it can and must be used in teacher preparation programs so that educators know how to develop curriculum that is multicultural (Ford, 2010).

Banks’ (1999) multicultural content model has four approaches that move toward high quality multicultural curriculum: Contributions, Additive, Transformation, and Social Action. The Contributions Approach is the least effective and involves focusing on cultural aspects such as holidays, traditions, food, heroes, and heroines such as Martin Luther King, Jr. and Kwanzaa. Heroes and events that are chosen are compared to White heroes, support dominant culture’s ideologies and values and often give a distorted and incomplete account of history. Cultural traditions and practices are presented without the benefit of a discussion about the meaning and significance to students of color. The traditional curriculum remains unchanged and stereotypical views are often reinforced.

With the Additive Approach, books and materials are added to the existing curriculum in an attempt to add multicultural content, but the concepts and objectives of lessons are unchanged and do not include the lens or perspectives of students of color. For example, *The Autobiography of Malcom X* may be added to the reading list but the discussion that follows does not include the historical context that influenced his thoughts and actions and its impact on African Americans.

The Transformation Approach enables students to view issues from multiple perspectives and to be more empathetic. The curriculum, concepts, and objectives are changed to include voices that have previously been distorted or excluded. Students are often moved to examine and challenge their own values and beliefs. The Social Action Approach is a natural progression as students are able to further their investigation and engage in authentic problem-solving as they explore ways to affect change. At the core of social action is social justice -- making a difference and addressing inequities.

Boykin’s Cultural Asset-Based Instruction

The Talent Development Model and the subsequent creation of the Talent Quest Model (TQM) came out of examining effective school reforms in urban communities (Boykin et al., 2005). Boykin developed the concept of asset-based instruction, which uses cultural assets as the foundation for instruction. The cultural assets refer to cultural behaviors African American students bring into the classroom that can often be problematic to teachers who are not culturally
competent or who subscribe to a deficit thinking approach toward students (Ford, Harris, Tyson, & Trotman, 2002). Cultural assets include: spirituality; harmony; expressive individualism; affective; oral communication; communalism; movement; verve; and social time perspective.

Boykin et al. (2005) assert that the cultural behaviors of African American (and other) students must not be viewed as deficits but as assets. Viewing cultural behaviors as assets leads teachers to culturally responsive teaching -- teaching in ways that are more congruent to students’ learning styles and needs. Culturally responsive teaching, utilizing asset-based instruction, and incorporating asset-based instruction into the curriculum, is a direct pathway to student engagement, which is required for learning to occur.

**Literacy**

Culturally responsive teaching is clearly situated within the discipline of literacy. Language is the symbolic representation of culture. The ideological approach to literacy acknowledges that literacy is “inherently entwined with culture and heritage” (Lazar, 2011, p. 8).

… literacy practices serve legitimate communicative purposes for all families, but their value is determined by the power that specific communities hold in society…. power relations exist in society and determine how different literacies are valued. It is often assumed that the literacy of nondominant or underrepresented groups are nonexistent or inferior to those of middle-class white Western societies....” (Lazar, 2011, p. 9).

Lazar (2011) states that literacy is a set of cultural practices that can be used to create meaningful classroom instruction. Students bring funds of knowledge and experiences with them into the classroom and teachers access students’ funds of knowledge to motivate students and lead to student engagement.

Multicultural literacy is grounded in the social constructivist view of literacy learning (Au, 2006). Literacy is taught through the use of language tools and multicultural literature. Language tools are curricula and instructional practices that are culturally based and enable students to understand and learn mainstream literacy through their own cultural literacy. Since African American students are considered to be multilingual and may speak African American Vernacular English (Standard Black English, Ebonics) and Standard English, it is essential they have culturally responsive literacy teachers (O’Gilvie, Turner, & Hughes, 2011; Schmidt & Lazar, 2011; Smitherman, 1998).

Culturally responsive literacy teachers are able to use African American students’ languages in meaningful and purposeful ways. They teach students how to code-switch (to switch from one language to another) based upon the audience and context (O’Gilvie, et al., 2011). Additional tools used in multicultural literacy include community discourses or linguistic forms that occur within the African-American community. Perry and Delpit (1998) identified four discourses: (1) call and response; (2) proverbializing; (3) narrativizing; and (4) signifying. Call and response encourages the audience to talk back with the appropriate responses. Proverbializing involves teaching ideals and values through brief statements. Narrativizing is telling stories based on
personal or historical lived experiences. Signifying is the use of exaggeration, irony, and humor to say something or communicate on two different levels at once. Culturally responsive literacy teachers use these language tools in tandem with multicultural literature in their classrooms to promote and support the learning and development of literacy in African American students. In order to accomplish this, teachers must become culturally competent and learn how to use or implement culturally responsive teaching.

**Critical Race Theory**

As with the above topics, a discussion of culturally responsive teaching is incomplete without a discussion of Critical Race Theory. This theory has several tenets. The first tenant states that racism is normalized and embedded in the practices and policies of all institutions (Ladson-Billings, 1998). It is essential to question what appears to be the norm and to examine these norms to uncover racial inequalities. The second tenant states that racism can be understood by listening to the voices of those who experience it. Through the use of narratives of people of color, teachers become aware of the existence and the harmful impact of racism – psychologically, emotionally, socially, professionally, academically, and fiscally. The third tenant states that liberalism is a belief that is based upon freedom and equality and (unfortunately) justice cannot always be served through the legal system. The fourth tenant of critical race theory states that those who are privileged will work for racial justice if it benefits them. To reiterate, Critical Race Theory in the context of education requires us to examine the curriculum through the lens of people of color. Culturally responsive teaching supports critical race theory and visa versa.

As the overview above indicates, many scholars have contributed to the development of culturally responsive teaching, recognizing that it benefits not just students but educators as well. With this context, I now turn attention to the historical roots of culturally responsive teaching. I begin with the history of multicultural education and the appearance of culturally responsive teaching in modern times.

**History of Multicultural Education**

Even though Carter Woodson’s book *The Miseducation of the Negro* published in 1933, clearly spoke to the need for a multicultural curriculum, multicultural education emerged in the 1960s during the Civil Right Movement. The Civil Rights Movement began to change its focus during the mid-1960s. Previously, most of the Civil Rights activities occurred within the courtrooms with civil rights leaders relying on the courts for social justice through changing or enforcing the laws of the land. With the addition of high school and college-age young adults, Civil Rights activities moved out of the courtrooms into the streets of northern and southern states and the campuses of colleges and universities (Gay, 2000, 2010).

Strategies shifted as well from a focus on passive peaceful protesting to self-determination, cultural consciousness, and political power. The evolution of the Black Power Movement ignited a cultural renaissance that now included all minority groups and poets, writers, musicians, politicians and philosophers. The college campus was now the center of Civil Rights activities (Gay, 2000, 2010). Noteworthy, the belief that minority students’ lack of achievement was due to
dysfunctional families and cultural deprivation was replaced with theories about the negative impact of devaluing minority groups’ cultures and the conflicting expectations between school and the home. Civil Rights activists demanded educational institutions to cease their racist and oppressive practices and distorting their cultural heritage and cultural contributions to society. They also demanded the establishment of ethnic studies courses and departments on college campuses so students could learn their true history.

With the *Lau v. Nichols* (1974) decision requiring students to be taught in their primary language and the Bilingual Education Act, federal funds became available to research and design curriculum for bilingual programs and ethnic studies. The development of multiethnic education programs eventually trickled down to K-12 school curriculum. It was in part through this effort that multicultural education was born with the emphasis on content, process, curriculum, and pedagogy. Three ideologies emerged, including teaching racially different students differently, using insights into ethnic or cultural pluralism to improve all educational decision-making, and teaching content about ethnic groups to all students (Gay, 2000, 2010). These ideologies provided the foundation for culturally responsive pedagogy.

To explore the ancestral roots of culturally responsive pedagogy, we must look at the diaries, stories, and school documents of the 1800s, when African Americans were slaves the first half of a century and became American citizens the latter half.

**The Emergence of African American Schools**

Before the signing of the Emancipation Proclamation in 1861, African American slaves were forbidden to read and write. In fact, if they were caught reading or writing, they were cruelly punished, tortured, or even killed. Yet, slaves continued to learn how to read in secret. In the North, there were a few schools available for African Americans that were run by freed African Americans and European Americans. At the end of the Civil War, the South faced one of its greatest challenges -- educating African Americans. Many White Southerners did not believe that African Americans could be educated the same way that White southern children were educated (Anderson, 1988), hence such legislation as *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896). Even though freed slaves flocked to newly formed schools, White Southerners believed that the desire for education would soon pass. When forced to provide schools and curriculum, it was a commonly held belief that African Americans did not deserve and need the same kind of curriculum that was available to White students (Butchart, 2010).

Newly freed African Americans had a great desire for learning how to read and write, which did not dissipate as time went on. Literacy was extremely important as it brought the assurance of emancipation. Emancipation was and is the freedom to think for oneself. Literacy brought protection from being enslaved again. Literacy led to self-respect and independence (Anderson, 1988; Siddle Walker, 2001).

Former slave owners viewed the idea of literate African Americans with fear. The notion of educated African Americans went against beliefs of racial inferiority. They were afraid of former slaves encountering ideas opposed to human bondage and the potential of written communication between conspirators from the North (Butchart, 2010; Siddle Walker, 2001).
The first teachers of southern schools consisted of African American teachers from the North, freed African Americans, African American Union soldiers, people from the Freedman Association, and northern white teachers often associated with aid organizations or churches. Teachers wrote many accounts of how students filled the classrooms. Many school facilities contained one or a few large rooms. Students ranged in age from the very young to the very old. The first book older students and adults wanted to read was the Bible. When students were provided with a recess, they often remained working in the classroom. Students even demanded having year-round schools (Butchart, 2010).

African American teachers ran most of the schools in the South. There are numerous documents and records from these early teachers describing the hundreds of students that came to attend school, the facilities, curriculum and materials (Butchart, 2010). So many schools were established in New Orleans that a public school system was quickly created. Since it was illegal to have a public school system at that time, schools were promptly closed down. An alternative plan was put into action—establishing private schools.

It is important to understand that during Reconstruction, the African American public school system was developing. In addition to African American churches and other organizations establishing schools, some White Southerners were establishing schools. Many of these schools were created out of the perception that there was a need to keep African Americans ‘in their place’. Missionaries with the intent to recruit church members ran some of these schools. Many were established to provide a quality education.

In 1872, Samuel Chapman Armstrong wrote, “the colored student does not come to us bred in the atmosphere of a Christian home and community; but too often with the inheritance of a debased nature, and with all his wrong tendencies unchecked either by innate moral sense or by a good domestic influence” (Butchart, 2010, p. 120). Armstrong had concerns with how African Americans were taught and what they were being taught. He became active in a regional and national education association to critique the curriculum and instruction within African American owned schools and initiated a report on African American schools with recommendations. The report stated that African Americans do not need math in their curriculum but, instead, needed practical life skills. He also asserted that the African American schools were not teaching math, suggesting that there was no need for content areas that required abstract thinking because African Americans could not retain the information.

Other supporters of Armstrong developed a curriculum that they believed was better suited for African Americans. This curriculum did not contain math and science or much of the literature of that time. The instructional strategies were basically traditional, relying solely on lecturers. Textbooks were created, written in vernacular that contained inaccurate and disparaging illustrations of African Americans and other minorities. The curriculum was totally free of charge and was marketed as the official state curriculum and distributed to all schools in the district (Butchart, 2010). Remnants of this thinking continues as African Americans fight to receive an education promised in Brown v. Board of Education (1954).

Conversely, the curriculum in the African American schools contained all of the required subject areas, including math and science. Teachers understood the culture of their students and
incorporated it into their curriculum and their instruction. The curriculum was enhanced with the history and contributions of African Americans. Teachers used students’ experiences in teaching the content. They differentiated the content and allowed students to work in small groups. Students were encouraged to question what they read and to engage in problem solving (Anderson, 1988).

Textbooks and materials were designed for the curriculum that contained accurate illustrations. In 1865, Lydia Maria Child developed a series called the *Freedman’s Book*, which contained biographies of African-American leaders (Butchart, 2010). Another publication, the *Freedman’s Torch*, was a collection of lessons that instilled African American pride in students and spoke of the need to control the education of African American schools. These curricula and materials were available to all schools, but at a cost.

These early African American schools were using culturally responsive teaching, a multicultural curriculum, differentiation, and critical thinking, among other instructional practices that are culturally congruent for African American students. Documents and records indicate that attendance was high and students moved quickly and successfully through the curriculum. A good number of the graduates of these schools became teachers and leaders as well (Anderson, 1988; Butchart, 2010; Siddle Walker, 2001).

Eventually, the Union soldiers left the South. What transpired resulted in the decline of the established African American schools and a take-over by the White schools. Without the protection of the soldiers, African American schools were vandalized. Teachers were warned not to continue to teach at the schools. Eventually, the Klu Klux Klan became involved, resulting in violence. Some African American teachers attempting to fight for their schools were lynched (Butchart, 2010). Many of the African American teachers moved North and found teaching positions. The schools that remained used the curriculum and materials that were developed by Whites for African Americans.

Teachers who migrated to the Northern states ended up in schools within segregated African American communities (Siddle Walker, 2001). While most schools had adopted curricula, African American teachers continued to practice culturally responsive teaching and what they believed to be the best practices for their students. The curriculum continued to be enhanced with multicultural content. Teachers focused on developing meaningful relationships with students, families, and the community. Schools became the center-point of many African American communities. Families were involved in school and schools had the support of the churches as well. Not surprising, however, the funding of schools continued to be inequitable (Anderson, 1988; Siddle Walker, 2001).

In 1954, the United States Supreme Court ruled against *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) and the desegregation of schools began initiating the migration of African American students to predominantly White schools, the closing of a substantial number of African American schools, and the displacement of hundreds of African American teachers, and the repercussions continue to be felt today, as witnessed by the under-representation of African Americans in the teaching force.
Final Thoughts

The history of African American education is a story of resilience - the resilience of people who value education and continue to struggle to achieve educational equity. Today, African American students are attending ‘drop-out factories’ and are continuing to experience the achievement gap. School reforms are created that promise success but are often removed before they even begin to deliver. Many teachers are not prepared or qualified to teach African American students. Best practices are often not congruent with the needs of African American students. Yet, culturally responsive pedagogy has proven its worth and effectiveness over history. Below, I present a few suggestions for change.

1. Teacher preparation programs must prepare teachers to be culturally responsive – have the knowledge, disposition, and skills to effectively teach African American students.

2. Teacher preparation programs must have professors that are culturally competent and knowledgeable about cultural responsive pedagogy to effectively prepare teachers and principals to teach African American students.

3. Professional development is needed in all schools to further prepare teachers to be culturally competent.

4. Schools must work diligently to increase the number of African Americans in the teaching force.

AUTHOR NOTES

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*Plessy v. Ferguson*, 163 U.S. 537, 539 (1896).


Most of the scholarship on gifted Black children focuses, legitimately, in a disproportionate way on underrepresentation, namely, identification and placement issues, barriers, and recommendations. Comparatively speaking, less attention has focused on socio-emotional (or affective) and psychological needs and development of these students. Furthermore, because the characteristics exhibited by African-American children are not the traditional characteristics understood, valued, and accepted in classrooms, their intellectual, academic and socio-emotional needs are rarely met. Considering the many culturally-based interests and needs that gifted children bring into the learning context, teachers of gifted African-American children must make changes in a proactive way. In this article, the author discusses the characteristics and needs of gifted African-American children and strategies that will develop, maintain, and/or enrich their educational experiences.

Keywords: socio-emotional needs, psychological needs, gifted Black or African-American students, multicultural education, underrepresentation

Annemarie Roeper was one of the first scholars to focus on the specific and unique socio-emotional needs of gifted children. She found that gifted children feel as if they are alone and do not fit in or belong, and their voices are not heard, which leads to stress, frustration, sadness, and other negative feelings and beliefs because they do not have an outlet to express their emotions. However, when parents, caregivers, and teachers show a sense of understanding and empathy for gifted children, they emerge from the negativity and begin to enjoy life (Kane, 2003) and school.

Since Roeper’s early work, more emphasis has been placed on the cognitive and academic needs of gifted students, and with Black students in mind. Nonetheless, it cannot be stated enough that these needs and issues have been neglected or relegated to second-class status when compared to cognitive and academic concerns and needs. For this author, developmentally and culturally,
these two are inseparable from socio-emotional and psychological issues and needs. In addition to the above, neglect regarding the development and experiences of gifted students is made more complex when the students are culturally different (i.e., Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Native American). Here, racial identity must also be included in the discussion of socio-emotional and psychological issues, needs, and development. Because of their significant underrepresentation in gifted education (Ford, 2011b), African Americans are the focus of this paper.

**Gifted African-American Students: Definitional Shortcomings**

Historically, federal definitions have neglected the socio-emotional and psychological needs of gifted students. From 1970 - 1993, federal definitions of gifted education focused heavily on academic, intellectual, and creative abilities or gifts and talents. The Education Amendments of 1969 (U.S. Congress, 1969) focused on five areas of giftedness. Specifically, gifted children were those who had outstanding intelligence, academic achievement, creativity, visual and performing arts, leadership, and psychomotor abilities that required special activities or services that were not ordinarily provided by local education agencies. Although the federal definition was revised in 1978, no attention was given to socio-emotional or psychological aspects.

The definition appearing in the Javits Gifted and Talented Students Education Act of 1988 deleted any reference to the level of schooling, while the more recent U.S. Department of Education (1993) federal definition focuses on the same areas as the aforementioned definitions. However, unlike the prior definitions, the latter emphasizes that outstanding talents are present in children and youth from all cultural groups, across all economic strata, and in all areas of human endeavor. The definition also states that these children and youth with outstanding talent perform or show the potential for performing at remarkably high levels of accomplishment when compared with others of their age, experience, or environment. While the wording in this definition is the most philosophical and inclusive and, thus, holds promise for African Americans, it still fails to address the affective and culturally-influenced areas of giftedness.

**Gifted African-American Students: Identification Shortcomings**

Identification instruments, procedures, and policies have been criticized extensively by proponents and opponents of gifted education. For the most part, traditional approaches used to identify and place gifted students neglect socio-emotional, psychological, and cultural needs. Regardless of their cultural experiences, most gifted students are identified and placed in gifted programs using traditional approaches, such as selecting those who score in the top 3 – 5% of intelligence and achievement scores and/or selecting those who are nominated by their classroom teachers (Colangelo & Davis, 2003; Davis & Rimm, 2003; National Association for Gifted Children, 2009) -- despite under-referrals of African Americans for gifted education screening and placement by teachers (see extensive review by Ford, Grantham, & Whiting, 2008).

In most districts, no information or limited information is collected on students’ affective and psychological needs and development. The process tends to be colorblind (Ford et al., 2008). Specifically, it is unlikely that self-esteem, self-concept, and racial identity instruments are
considered and/or used. Unfortunately, these are practices that will likely overlook low income and/or underachieving Black students who historically perform poorly on intelligence tests due to factors such as environmental disadvantages (e.g., prejudice, discrimination, low expectations, negative stereotypes, peer pressures, poverty), psychological factors (e.g., test anxiety, perfectionism, low academic self-concept in a subject area or areas), and instrumentation issues (e.g., test bias, test unfairness) (Ford, 2011a).

Finally, theories about gifts and talents generally fail to include socio-emotional, psychological, and cultural components. Exceptions are: Renzulli’s (1986) Three-Ring Conception of Gifted, which is comprised of task commitment, above-average ability, and creativity; Sternberg’s (1985) Triarchic Theory, which includes componential (analytical), experiential (creative), and contextual (practical) intelligences; and Gardner’s (1999) Theory of Multiple Intelligences, which includes interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences that address socio-emotional aspects of gifted. These theorists and theories proactively consider Black students and endeavor to open doors to African Americans.

**Neglect of the Issues and Needs of Gifted African-American Students**

Formalized attention was finally given to the affective needs of gifted children in a position paper developed by the National Association for Gifted Children (NAGC) in 1995. Even greater attention was gained through the development of the advocacy organization Social Emotional Needs of Gifted (SENG). Again, prior to this, the affective and psychological aspects of giftedness had been neglected in general and was not viewed through a cultural lens. In some ways, this can be traced back to the traditional Western view of emotion and cognition as two separate and contradictory phenomena (Goleman, 1995). The value of emotional intelligence and development was minimal and was not enough to create environments such that socio-emotional needs could be developed and nurtured. However, the link between emotion and cognition and the effect that they have on individuals of high intelligence is being realized.

While the field of gifted education has tangentially focused on the socio-emotional and psychological issue and needs of gifted students, there has been even less of a focus on the needs and issues of African-American students with culture in mind. This void can be and has been detrimental to many gifted African-American students, possibly contributing to both their underrepresentation in gifted programs and under-achievement, even if placed in such programs. For example, when focusing on affect, variables to consider are self-esteem, self-concept, and negative peer relation and pressures. Added to this would be racial identity when the students are African American (Cross, 1995; Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

A number of factors contribute to the challenges that African-American children face which prevent them from fully demonstrating their intellect, including: (1) school factors (e.g., fear and lack of feeling safe in school, low curricular rigor, less teacher preparation, low teacher experience, high teacher absence and turnover, large class sizes, and low instructional technology); (2) health factors (e.g., low birth weight, high hunger and poor nutrition, environment damage); and (3) home factors (e.g., less parent participation, high parent-pupil
ratio, less talking and reading in the home, excessive TV watching, frequent school changing, and high summer achievement loss) (Barton & Coley, 2009). In turn, these factors could cause these students to develop low self-concepts and/or develop an expectation that would be in direct conflict with the effort to succeed - the expectation of failure.

**Characteristics and Needs of Gifted African Americans**

Gifted individuals differ from each other in meaningful and countless ways. Lovecky (1993) identified five traits (i.e., divergent thinking, excitability, sensitivity, perceptiveness, and entelechy) that may lead to both inter-and intra-personal conflicts in gifted children. Children who are divergent thinkers often prefer unusual, original, and creative responses; those who are excitable are described as having a high energy level with emotional intensity and reactivity (Lovecky, 1993). Some gifted students are sensitive, very passionate, and committed to people, issues, and ideas, while those who are perceptive have a keen sense of justice and empathy. These students may have few supportive adults in their lives due to conflicts they encounter with adults, including teachers who do not understand them. Gifted students who have the entelechy trait are identified as being reliable, which may cause them to become burned out. They may also begin to alternate between feeling extremely positive and/or special (valued) or extremely negative and/or alienated (devalued) (Lovecky, 1993).

For at least 20 years, Ford has identified and shared characteristics, needs, issues and problems of gifted Black students. She also classified some characteristics (e.g., perfectionism, fear of success, asynchronous and dysynchronous development, underachievement, introversion, non-conformity, heightened self-awareness and feeling different, idealism; justice, concern over world problems, empathy) that were more specific to Black students than White students.

Many gifted students struggle with their gifts and talents. This is largely due to their need to belong and feel connected with others. Their gifts may make them feel awkward in social situations if they fail to bond with others. This is very likely when they do not have ‘true peers’ who share similar abilities, interests, hobbies, and extra-curricular activities. Moreover, some have the need to be perfect. They may experience self-doubt, anger, and frustration and may also become depressed because of the expectations that they have placed on themselves. In an effort to produce the ‘perfect’ assignment, perfectionists may procrastinate, which may then lead to underachievement because the assignment may be completed hastily in an effort to meet deadlines. The student may even go as far as to not turn the assignment in because of its poor quality (Ford, 2011a).

On the flip side, some gifted Black students may fear success, especially if it means sacrificing social relationships. Such students have a need for affiliation and would much rather be accepted by their peers than deal with rejection, alienation, or isolation. As a result, these students, especially gifted African-American students, may choose to underachieve as a ploy to feel similar to and not different than their peers (Ford, 2011a). Due to perfectionism, fear of success and the need of affiliation, some gifted Black students may underachieve as a way to gain attention or to rebel against those who know that they can do better. Very little effort is put forth and, as a result, they may develop poor study skills. Some may also have tests and/or evaluation anxiety, feel that...
they can’t do any better (hopelessness), have negative self-images, and/or feel unmotivated to achieve (Ford, 2011a).

Like gifted students who fear success, the asynchronous and dysynchronous development of some gifted Black students may make them feel frustrated and depressed. This frustration can be credited to dysynchrony -- the uneven development gifted students experience socially, or asynchrony -- when he/she is out of sync with his/her age group on an emotional and intellectual level. Although these students are physically similar to their classmates, they differ cognitively and emotionally and these dissimilarities often cause stress in many gifted students. This stressor is problematic to Black students because many are communal in their orientation and the need for affiliation may be especially strong (Ford, 2011a).

Gifted students who are non-conformist 'go against the grain'. Although they are creatively expressive, they enjoy freedom and dislike staying within the organizational schemata that are in place. Due to their questioning of and resistance to rules and authority, these students are often considered stubborn and usually isolate themselves from others. On the other hand, some introverts are self-isolated and feel rejected. They look at their differences as a negative attribute, which may affect their self-perception.

Many gifted students are negatively affected by how they and others are treated. They seek equity, justness, and truth, and attempt to put these into place via unrealistic reforms and goals. The inability to make a difference may cause them to feel frustrated, angry and depressed, and may also cause them to feel guilty because they have survived and/or are receiving adequate accommodation (Ford, 2011a). As mentioned above, characteristics of gifted children vary. However, many of the traits harbored by these children may lead to inter- and intra personal conflict which, in turn, often require their affective and psychological needs to be met.

**Affective and Psychological Issues and Needs of Gifted African-American Students**

There are several myths and stereotypes pertaining to gifted children, ranging from the notion that these children are innately well adjusted to the belief that gifted individuals do not have special needs (e.g., Lovecky, 1993). Literature supports these myths by suggesting that, as a group, gifted students show healthy emotional adjustment in general but especially compared to students not identified as gifted (Franks & Dolan, 1982; Janos, Fung, & Robinson, 1985; Tidwell, 1980) and positive peer relations (Austin & Draper, 1981; Janos, Marwood, & Robinson, 1985). However, others suggest that, as the giftedness of a person increases, so do the behavioral and socio-emotional issues associated with being gifted (Janos & Robinson, 1985; Roedell, 1984).

To go a step further, because the needs and characteristics exhibited by African-American students are not the traditional needs and characteristics studied, understood and accepted, their intellectual, academic, socio-emotional, psychological and cultural differences are rarely considered and met. Fordham and Ogbu (1986) found that African-American students who do well in school often face negative peer pressures. They asserted that these students "experience inordinate ambivalence and affective dissonance in regard to academic effort and success" (p. 177). This was partially due to the refusal of some White Americans to acknowledge the fact that
Black students were capable of intellectual achievement. Other research corroborates their work and is reviewed by Ford (2010). Essentially, when African Americans perform well academically, they are likely to encounter negative pressures that significantly affect their experiences, feelings, and eventual behaviors regarding academic effort and success. Cyclically, the students then began doubting their own intellectual ability and potential, and defined academic success as the prerogative of Whites. This belief led Black students to discourage their peers and considered those who were striving academically as 'acting White'. Hence, gifted Black students and/or those who valued school put very little effort into achieving academically (Ford et al., 2008). The socio-emotional price was costly in their minds.

In essence, too many very capable and motivated Black students are living a life of deception. Although brilliant, they choose to perform at average or below average levels in an effort to be accepted among their peers. This double life is rather self-destructive and conflicting. These students know that they are just as smart as their White counterparts. However, they are not willing (or, in some cases, are not able) to show it because they do not want to feel different from or unaccepted by peers and others. Sadly these students may be dying emotionally, psychologically, and socially.

As stated before, for African-American students to be identified as gifted, there are many obstacles that they must overcome. Moreover, once they become identified, the education delivered may not be responsive to their needs and/or they may experience difficulties grasping the reason(s) behind their struggles. For instance, some students may experience difficulty in the area of racial identity development that may lead to conflicts between academic and social self-concepts and cause these students to experience an array of emotions that may influence them to develop a stronger sense of identity, academically.

**Recommendations for Teachers of Gifted African-American Students**

As we consider the many issues and needs that gifted students bring into the learning context, teachers of gifted African-American students have to make changes. On this note, they must be made aware of the characteristics and needs of the students they serve. This can be achieved by using research, theories, and strategies that develop, maintain, and/or enrich the education of students. In order for the socio-emotional, psychological, and cultural needs of gifted African-American students to be met, educators must make concerted efforts to provide these students with: (a) a meaningful and fulfilling education and (b) the support that they need to be successful in schools and gifted programs. A few recommendations follow.

**Recommendation 1: Integrate multicultural content into the curriculum using the Bloom-Banks (AKA Ford-Harris) Matrix (Ford, 2011b).**

Ford (2011a) combined the works of Banks and Bloom to develop a matrix that addresses rigor and multicultural education. For example, Banks’ multicultural curriculum addresses four levels of integration to help students increase their motivation, learning, and knowledge about cultural and racial diversity, as well as acquire a sense of social justice (Gay, 1993, 2010). This model can be very useful to teachers as they develop a framework for multicultural lessons. It offers
different levels of integration, ranging from the very simplistic contributions approach, an approach in which the teacher is not required to change the curriculum, to the more complex social action approach, which allows students to identify and solve problems within their curriculum and environment. This model/matrix also allows both the teacher and the student to gain additional knowledge on multicultural issues and meaningfully apply it.

The first level, the contributions approach, provides a quick and easy way to integrate ethnic content into the curriculum. It focuses on heroes, holidays and other discrete elements within a culture. The understanding of racially and culturally diverse groups acquired by students is, at best, superficial because the ethnic elements of diverse groups are added into the curriculum during special days, occasions and celebrations. This approach is most commonly used within classrooms because it requires minimal planning to implement. Unfortunately, teachers using this approach rarely expand the knowledge base of their students with regards to diverse groups because the delivered information is very common and students may have received the same information or a variation of the information in prior settings.

The second level, the additive approach, is implemented by using the existing curriculum without changing its structure. Ethnic content is added to the curriculum. The background knowledge needed to understand the added content is minimal because this approach does not re-conceptualize the content, concepts, themes, and perspectives of the curricular change. Although the information presented in this level is more substantial, a curriculum change is still not required. Instead, the educator may add an assignment to the existing curriculum that requires each student to answer set questions about a culturally diverse group. Because minimal knowledge is obtained, students may have difficulty completely understanding the content. Teachers should take the lesson a step further by elaborating on the information provided, presenting them with information that goes beyond themes and concepts, and encouraging students to ask questions and seek further knowledge as a means for them to become more aware of diverse groups.

The third level, the transformations approach, changes the basic goals, structure and nature of the curricula by describing the significance of events, issues, problems and themes. Because of the deeper knowledge base obtained by the students, they are able to view the content from the perspectives of groups different from them. This approach may be considered time consuming to teachers because it requires them to make curriculum changes. However, the information provided to the students is more than superficial in that it elaborates on events, facts and characteristics of diverse groups, enabling students to become more aware of and gain additional and meaningful knowledge about different groups.

The fourth level, the social action approach, allows students to identify analyze and clarify important social problems and issues, make decisions, and take reflective actions to help resolve the issues or problems. This level helps the student develop and/or improve their problem solving skills, as well as their skills in working with culturally and racially diverse groups. If teachers use this approach, their students are provided with pertinent information needed to identify and analyze the similarities, differences and inequities within different groups and cultures. Although it requires the teacher to create a new curriculum, students are equipped with the knowledge
needed to deal with personal and societal issues as well as implementing programs that would aid in the development and understanding of diverse groups.

The Ford-Harris/Bloom-Banks Matrix combines Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Bloom, 1956) and the works of the aforementioned Banks’ Model (2009) to provide educators with a multicultural gifted education model that reflects the goals, objects, and perspectives of gifted and multicultural education. This model can be used to guide teachers as they examine the level of both complexity and multiculturalism in their curricular choices and their mode of instruction. It also allows teachers to implement lessons using the higher levels of the Bloom and Banks approaches. Lessons using higher levels will keep the interest of the students, especially lessons that are meaningful to them. This model is also useful in mixed-ability classrooms because teachers can present the same content on differing levels, thereby enabling all students to experience meaning and success on a level that meets their individual needs. Finally, using such an approach may enable African-American students who feel alienated to connect with the content because it may be familiar and relevant.

**Recommendation 2: Understand and capitalize upon the Cross Model (Cross, 2001) when teaching, counseling, and providing socio-emotional guidance to gifted African-American students.**

Understanding the needs of African-American gifted students will help educators address their differential success and failure in terms of their social adjustment and academic performance in school. It will also better equip teachers with the knowledge, dispositions, and skills needed to educate African-American gifted students, as well as help teachers to understand why some of these students may resist traditional routes to academic achievement. Nigrescence Theory helps to explain the psychology of becoming Black in terms of racial identity (Cross, 1995; Cross & Vandiver, 2001). This theory reflects the process that African Americans go through during their lifetime to resolve racial identity questions and dilemmas. When educators understand these transitions, they will have a frame of reference from which to develop lesson plans and counseling sessions that are culturally responsive.

**Summary and Conclusion**

The purpose of this article was to discuss the lack of emphasis placed on the socio-emotional and cultural issues and needs of gifted students in general, and African-American gifted students in particular. Currently, the federal definition of giftedness (1993) does not address the affective needs of gifted students and seldom do theories and models, and identification strategies and instruments. The National Association for Gifted Children has now addressed it, along with the Social and Emotional Needs of Gifted (SENG). If the affective/socio-emotional needs of gifted students in general are barely being addressed, then the affective needs of African-American students are being virtually ignored or discounted.

Although we are now in the second decade of the 21st century, race is still an ongoing and unresolved issue. Inequities are still prevalent within school systems, school buildings, and school classrooms, and Black students, even if gifted, often face and experience the bulk of these inequities.
While the NAGC has formalized its position about the affective needs of gifted students, we can almost be certain that the needs of many African-American students are still not being met because most of the existing curricula do not meet their needs. Furthermore, many of the teaching styles do not address their varying and diverse needs – intellectual, academic, gifts/talents, socio-emotional – which make it extremely difficult for African-American students to achieve educational, psychological, and socio-emotional success.

A knowledge base of African-American and other minority groups will aid educators in the development and enrichment of the many needs of these gifted students. This will also give educators opportunities to help Black students reach their maximum potential and emerge in areas that teachers may otherwise not be aware. Providing an educationally safe haven for gifted African-American students is a primary means to meeting both their cognitive and affective needs. It is the duty of the student to take advantage of the education that is being given to him/her, and it is the responsibility or obligation of teachers to provide an education that allows students to be intellectually affectively, culturally stimulated, integrated, and whole.

**AUTHOR NOTES**

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Intentional Teacher-School Counselor Collaboration: Utilizing Culturally Relevant Frameworks to Engage Black Males

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Teachers and school counselors must be trained to address many issues confronting students, including Black males. Increasingly, interdisciplinary partnerships are becoming the educational norm as a method to address the many problems that directly and indirectly impact students inside and outside school environments. However, too little has been written specifically in the teacher education literature about the potential of teacher-school counselor partnership (TSCP). Moreover, virtually nothing has been written about culturally relevant frameworks that teachers and school counselors can use to build partnerships designed to successfully engage and meet the unique and specific needs of Black males. This article presents the Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST) and Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) as frameworks for establishing culturally congruent TSCPs with the potential to address Black males’ academic and career concerns by meeting their personal and social needs. A vignette is presented to demonstrate the potential utility of the frameworks when working with Black males.

**Keywords:** Black males, teacher-school counselor collaboration, career development, culturally relevant framework

Much has been written about the debatable curriculum in schools all across the nation (Farkas Duffett Research Group, 2012), specifically, as a function of pressures associated with high stakes standardized testing. Many teachers are being forced to “teach to the test” as opposed to teaching and operationalizing effective and responsive educational interventions to support students’ learning. This is not a trivial matter given that school counselors are charged with contributing to students’ learning in this high-pressured environment (Galassi & Akos, 2012; Holcomb-McCoy, 2007. According to the American School Counselor Association’s (ASCA) National Model (2003), this goal can be accomplished by forming strong and collaborative working relationships with other educators inside and outside of school settings.

Given current policies, such as the Common Core State Standards (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010), which draw stark attention to classroom practices and learning, an argument could be made that teachers are under considerably more pressure to improve student achievement than school counselors. We do not concur. Rather, both teachers and counselors are under intense scrutiny and, as such, should collaborate with one another to meet students’ needs, which are inextricably linked to both areas of expertise.
In the era of accountability, high-stakes testing, and equity, it could be argued that Black students–mainly males–have garnered more attention, often negative and reactive, than any other student population in K-12 educational settings (Holzman, 2010; Toldson, 2011; Whiting, 2009). In particular, scholarly and public discourse is replete with information documenting Black males’ relative lack of personal, social, academic and career success relative to other student populations–Black females and White males specifically. These explanations range from placing the blame on the students themselves to societal barriers out of their control (e.g., racism, stereotypes, prejudice, reverse sexism). These seemingly contradictory explanations do not serve to eradicate the issue; instead, the differing findings seem to exacerbate the problem by presenting very confusing information.

One notion that has consistently been agreed upon is the need to take Black males’ culture into consideration when devising interventions to address their issues and concerns (Henfield, in press; Henfield, 2011, Whiting, 2009). With this in mind, this article presents the Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST) and Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) as frameworks for establishing culturally congruent teacher-school counselor partnerships (TSCPs) with the potential to address Black males’ personal, social, academic and career needs.

In the past, school counselors were strong contributors to gaps in achievement by participating in the placement of students into less rigorous educational tracks based on arbitrary factors such as race, gender, social class and so forth (Ford, 2011; House & Sears, 2002). The field has moved toward a vigorous focus on students’ academic achievement in an effort to eradicate achievement gaps.

The Transforming School Counselor Initiative (TSCI) was developed to eradicate the gatekeeping role school counselors had slowly morphed into over time by emphasizing the need to change the way these professionals were trained (Martin, 2002). Among other emphases, TSCI focused on training pre-service school counselors to engage in increased collaboration with educational peers in an effort to raise student achievement. The ASCA National Model soon followed and began stressing students’ personal, social academic and career needs by collaborating with other educators.

The Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) 2009 Standards for School Counseling represent yet another transformation of the school counseling profession at the national level. Adherence to the Standards requires school counseling training programs to concentrate on graduating candidates who are proficient in the skills required to raise student academic outcomes and prepare them for postsecondary opportunities. Again, to meet these standards, candidates seeking master’s degrees are expected to demonstrate their skills and ability to collaborate with other educators and to formulate courses of action (e.g., prevention and intervention) designed to increase student achievement and close the achievement gap.

According to Brown and Trusty (2005), “academic development and career development are inexorably tied to one another….Education problems are career problems, and educational successes are very likely career successes” (p. 57). That said, research indicates that many Black males are not receiving the educational training necessary for employment that requires higher
levels of educational attainment (Lee & Ransom, 2011). For example, in 2008, 33.4% of Black males ages 15-24 with a high school diploma enrolled in some form of secondary education. Of those Black students with and without a high school diploma, Black females represented 55.5% of those enrolled in a two-year, four-year, or vocational institution compared to Black males 15-24 year-olds who represented 44.5%. More specifically, in 2008, fewer Black 15-25 year-old males than 15-24 year-old Black females attended vocational schools (0.9% to 2.1%), two-year institutions (12.9% to 18.4%), four-year institutions (29.0% to 32.6%), and graduate schools (1.7% to 2.5%).

To some, personal, social and career issues may be perceived as separate from academic concerns but we believe they are intimately linked. As such, it makes sense that school counselors, who are trained to meet students’ needs in all four areas, work with teachers whose core mission is to increase students’ academic achievement. Despite the clear emphasis in school counseling policy to raise school counselors’ involvement with increasing students’ academic success, there is no explicit direction regarding measures to be taken to specifically address Black males’ academic issues. With this in mind, Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) and Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST)—given their combined emphases in personal, social, academic and career concepts—are introduced as potential frameworks to develop TSCPs aimed at increasing Black males’ academic achievement, in particular.

**Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT)**

SCCT, an offshoot of Albert Bandura’s social cognitive theory, endeavors to address issues of culture, gender, genetic endowment, social context, and unexpected life events that may interact with and supersede the effects of career-related choices. SCCT focuses on the connection of self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals that influence an individual’s career choice (Bandura, 1977, 1986; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000).

SCCT proposes that career choice is influenced by the beliefs individuals develop and refine from four major sources: (a) personal performance accomplishments, (b) vicarious learning, (c) social persuasion, and (d) physiological states and reactions. How these aspects work together in the career development process is through a process by which an individual develops an expertise/ability for a particular endeavor and meets with success. This process reinforces one’s self-efficacy or belief in future continued success in the use of this ability/expertise. As a result, one is likely to develop goals that involve continuing involvement in that activity/endeavor. Further, through an evolutionary process beginning in early childhood and continuing through adulthood, one narrows the scope of successful endeavors to focus on and form a career goal or choice. What is critical to the success of the process is the extent to which one views the endeavor/activity as one at which they are successful and offers valued compensation. Contextual factors come into play and influence the individual’s perception of the probability of success. If the person encounters or perceives few barriers, the likelihood of success reinforces the career choice; but if the barriers are viewed as significant, there is a weaker interest and fewer choice actions (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, 2000).
Concerns have been expressed that traditional career development theories tend to minimize the role of culture and structural barriers in the career experiences of people from racial/ethnic minority groups and lower economic strata (Constantine, Wallace, & Kindaichi, 2005; Waller, 2006). Castillo, et al. (2006) demonstrated that a student's perception of the university environment mediates the relationship between ethnic identity and persistence attitudes. Byars-Winston (2006) expanded Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent et al., 1994) by incorporating the personal variable of racial ideology from a multidimensional inventory of Black identity developed by Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton, & Smith (1997) for 141 Black undergraduates enrolled at a historically Black university. Her results provided statistically significant support for two of the four racial ideologies (nationalist and assimilationist), both independently and in combination, in predicting career self-efficacy, outcome expectations, career interests, and perceived career barriers. Cheatham (1990) proposed a model of African American career development based on Afrocentricity. According to this model, the dominant feature of career development of African Americans is based on the interplay of two cultural traditions -- African and American -- representing biculturality. Importantly, Parham and Austin (1994) asserted that African Americans might have a propensity toward a collaborative or collectivist career decision-making style rather than toward an independent one. These scholars believe the African American cultural value of collectivism (i.e., family, community, and social orientation) influences this process.

Self-efficacy is central to the SCCT framework. Self-efficacy refers to the beliefs that Black males have about their consequences of performing particular academic/career-orientated tasks (also see Whiting, 2006). Accordingly, Black males’ engagement in schooling, and their effort, persistence, and ultimate success are greatly influenced by both their self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations. Noticeably, PVEST provides one context to understand the factors that may enhance or impede high levels of self-efficacy. For example, Lent et al. (2000) incorporated an SCCT framework and found additional context-focused research that includes family, financial, and emotional support, are important contextual affordances that increase or decrease the probability that people will be able to pursue their interests and this, in turn, will affect their career choices.

SCCT was selected as part of a theoretical framework for working with Black males due to its focus on the role of students’ personal and social beliefs, and their influence on academic and career choices. Also important in the analysis of academic and career choice is the influence of racial/cultural identity of Black males and how they impact decision-making processes (Gainor & Lent, 1998; Whiting, 2006). PVEST contributes to this aspect of the proposed TSCPs.

It is necessary to note that Black males who successfully graduate from high school and/or college may face additional economic and career advancement inequities as they enter the labor market. To wit, Black men are further challenged by discriminatory hiring practices, making them the least likely to be hired and/or the most likely to be unemployed (Wilson, 2010). In February 2011, the unemployment rate for Black males age 20 and over was nearly twice that of White males (17.5% versus 9.1%) (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). Therefore, explorations beyond SCCT are necessary to examine and understand the rugged and unequal terrain situating Black males’ vocational and unique lives.
Phenomenological Variant of Ecological Systems Theory (PVEST)

Ecological systems theory is a framework concerned with understanding the contexts in which an individual exists, and further describes and explains the thoughts and actions of individuals and groups within their specific contexts. This aspect of systems theory suggests that, to unpack the achievement and career aspirations of Black males, understanding their identity and the effects of their social environment is critical.

Building on the work of Anthony’s (1974) adaptation of resiliency theorizing and Bronfenbrenner’s (1999) child development model within the context of the system of relationships and environment, the PVEST (Spencer, 2006) incorporates ecological systems with identity development in describing normative and different processes for youths of color. The context of PVEST emanates from a cultural-ecological perspective, which comprises the interaction of identity, experience and culture; it integrates social, political, and cultural issues with developmental processes (Spencer, 2008). Identity development is the foundation of this framework, which recognizes that protective and risk factors operate differently for youth, depending on their environment and how they make meaning of their experiences. The PVEST also argues that stressors such as racial discrimination and racial stereotypes impact African American students’ emergent identities as they make meaning of racialized situations (Spencer, 2006, 2008a, 2008b). As described, the PVEST interacts dynamically among five basic components, namely (a) net vulnerability, (b) net stress engagement, (c) reactive coping methods and support, (d) emergent identities, and (e) life stage-specific coping outcomes.

**Net vulnerability level.** The net vulnerability level refers to the balance between risk and protective factors. The PVEST considers race a risk factor for a number of conditions and contributes to educational and career disparities. For Black males, race and gender stereotyping are often risk factors (Spencer et al., 2012). In a recent study, high-achieving mathematics and engineering Black college males described their experiences at historically White institutions where they were consistently plagued by notions of Black men cheating and stealing (McGee & Martin, 2011a). In spite of their high achievement in these highly competitive majors, the respondents felt they had to persistently defend themselves against intellectual under-estimation, as well as other demeaning Black male stereotypes. Although the racial and gendered stereotype of Black men being unethical served as a risk factor, the students did not engage in either. These Black male students, however, had protective factors in their lives that assisted in balancing or countering risk factors. How each individual appraises their experiences determines their subsequent actions, reactions, and behaviors. For Black males, under-acknowledged in the literature are their abilities to defy negative societal portrayals and resist the barriers they encounter in educational and labor environments, to effectively cope within these settings (Nicolas et al., 2008).

**Net stress engagement.** Net stress engagement refers to risk and protective factors that manifest in actual real-life encounters, resulting in experiences that challenge the students’ well-being. For example, college-related risk factors for high-achieving Black male mathematics and engineering students included racial isolation in mathematics classes, the anticipation of continued racial bias in their STEM careers, and being viewed as “Affirmative Action students,” to name a few. Some protective factors for these students included culturally-affirming college organizations, such as
the Black Student Union or National Society of Black Engineers (McGee & Martin, 2011a). Resilience is also achieved and negotiated through the process of experience and successful adaption. Many of the Black males in the aforementioned study learned how to manage racial stereotypes and other forms of racial and gender bias over time, by developing a toolkit of strategies to lessen the blow of stereotypes while maintaining proficient levels of college achievement. Whereas risk and protection are potential factors, stress and support are actual manifestations experienced within context.

**Reactive coping methods and support.** The third component of PVEST refers to reactive coping methods and support, which are employed to counter stressors. Reactive coping methods motivate problem-solving strategies that are either adaptive or maladaptive. This component suggests that adaptive coping methods for Black males ought to encompass reflections and subsequent actions that enhance their quality of life and endorse academic achievement and career goals. Contrastingly, maladaptive coping reactions would mostly likely focus on embodying the media-driven and commercialized versions of the ‘stereotypic Black male’. These stereotypic aspects purportedly include underachievement, unemployment, hypermasculinity, hypersexualization, violence, substance abuse, and denigrations of Black women (Nicolas et al., 2008; Whiting, 2006). Despite steady exposure to this normalized narrative, some Black male students are, nonetheless, resilient, displaying the skills and ability to use adaptive coping skills to achieve productive outcomes.

**Emergent identities.** Emergent identities define how individuals view themselves within various contextual experiences. Students find themselves within and between contexts that vary across family, school, neighborhood, and nation. Particularly, Black males often find themselves juggling multiple contexts and making sense of divergent environments. For example, a Black male college student in one year may operate within and across the following spatial contexts: attendance at historically White college, home on semester break returning to his predominately Black home neighborhood, participating in a summer internship in a rural location, joining a Black fraternity on a predominantly white institution (PWI) campus, and so on. A Black male in his freshman year of high school may be less prepared to deal or cope with these multiple environments than a Black male is his junior year of college, where maturity and experience assist in stabilizing these environments and his place in them (Spencer, 2008). Stable reactive coping skills, cultural and racial identity, as well as an understanding of social roles and self-and peer appraisal help define the emergent identity. Black male students that can self-regulate among a host of varying, sometimes hostile experiences, often utilize positive racial identity as a mediator, minimizing the impact of stressful situations (Cokley, 2007; Cross & Strauss, 1998; Helms, 1990; Phinney & Ong, 2007). The emergent identities lead to either productive or unproductive coping outcomes.

**Life stage-specific coping outcomes.** The fifth PVEST component, called life stage-specific coping outcomes, can result in negative or positive coping outcomes. If the outcome is negative, the individual’s foundational identity will suffer from a lack of support from others and general productivity. If positive, the outcomes will result in good health, high self-esteem, and strong, healthy relationships. Productive outcomes may include positive and supportive relationships with friends, academic achievement, school completion, and intrinsic motivation, while unproductive outcomes may include dropping out of school and dismal academic achievement.
Productive outcomes for Black males in college include high-levels of academics and a growing understanding of how race and racism operates within their educational and social lives (McGee & Martin, 2011a).

PVEST remains a dynamic framework throughout the lifespan. There will always be new risks, possible protective factors, stressors, and support systems; when combined with coping strategies, allow for redefinition of the self, which also impact the way others view individuals. Whereas an unresolved crisis in a developmental stage influences future coping and identity formation, PVEST allows for the unresolved crisis to be captured and properly contextualized (Spencer, 2006). In sum, PVEST allows for an understanding of the specific personal and social challenges Black males face during development, which can be associated with academic and career-related outcomes.

**PVEST and SCCT as a Framework for Teacher-School Counselor Partnerships**

Combining PVEST with SCCT has the potential to help teachers and school counselors in recognizing the importance of TSCPs relative to approaching Black males from a strength-based and culturally-dependent standpoint. It may also allow for a theoretical meeting space for teachers, counselors, and Black males to assemble, examine personal and social issues that impact Black male learners within context, share methods and approaches they utilize to address these issues, and brainstorm relevant and responsive steps to move with improving Black males’ educational and career success. This framing takes into account biculturalism—Black male students whose culture, racial identity, linguistic preferences, and educational ability are often devalued by mainstream school curriculum and the need to operate within this mainstream structure to increase their chances for successful educational achievement and upward career mobility. The PVEST model is of particular importance to TSCPs, given that many Black males have been found to underachieve on standardized tests, experience greater drop-out rates, and are often categorized as a population at-risk in educational settings, which can impact their self-efficacy, an important contributor to the SCCT framework.

This multidisciplinary framework, which combines identity development processes with career and counseling practices, could serve as a promising approach toward a creative education model designed to help counter many of the negative experiences encountered by Black males. PVEST could conceivably be used as the first step toward understanding the barriers Black males perceive as obstructing their personal and social success. Once this is understood, SCCT could then be used to support academic achievement and career success.

It should be noted that the framework has yet to be applied. Nonetheless, given the goals of PVEST and SCCT, it stands to reason that the two approaches have the potential to make a lasting impact on the lives of Black males. The following vignette serves as an illustrative example to demonstrate the framework’s potential utility in K-12 educational settings.
Vignette

Marcus is a 16-year old Black male who is contemplating his future plans. As a junior in high school, he knows that decisions need to be made soon regarding what he will do after graduation. Marcus lives with his mother (a high-school graduate working as an administrative assistant), his grandmother, and his two younger siblings, ages 11 and 13. His father, a high-school dropout, does not live with the family and has had a series of jobs, primarily in the restaurant and hospitality field.

Marcus is a 'B' student who takes honors-level science courses and is involved in school athletics. Through the PVEST lens, we conclude that Marcus has a number of potential protective factors, such as multi-generational sources of support, a working parent, and his leadership role as a big brother. Risks factors may seem more apparent, namely, his father’s job, parental status, and mother’s low-income employment and employment opportunities. Unfortunately with Black males, risk factors are often overemphasized and protective factors are deemed as absent or tangential (Spencer, 2006).

Marcus has recently stopped turning in class assignments. His chemistry teacher asked to meet with him to discuss this sudden change in behavior. After class, he disclosed to the teacher that he is “not into school anymore.” When asked why this was the case, Marcus said “Why should I do all of this work for nothing? All of you teachers keep talking to me about college, but I don’t know anybody like me in college. Nobody makes it out of the ‘hood’.”

This interaction concerned Marcus’ teacher. In the past, Marcus had positive interactions with his school counselor during course registration, so the teacher made an appointment with the school counselor to discuss the situation. Marcus’ teacher gave the school counselor a wealth of information about Marcus—information that is not typically found in a formal school file folder, such as classroom interactions, informal conversations, etc. For instance, Marcus once told his teacher that his mother supports the idea of him continuing his education, but wants him to stay close to home so he can continue to work part-time and be available to help care for his brothers. Based on what the school counselor learned from the teacher, it was determined that Marcus should come in for a meeting. Marcus’s change in his achievement attitudes and behaviors suggests that his net stress engagement level, the second component of PVEST, is being challenged by a host of educational and family demands. Marcus’s expressions might possibly represent his vulnerability in response to a challenging context, which undermines positive math and science achievement. Math and science appear counterproductive to his future exploration, as he grapples with an uncertain future.

The school counselor began their first meeting by asking Marcus about a classroom guidance lesson he participated in that was designed to help students develop a sense of their career interests and goals. Marcus reported high scores in Investigative and Realistic (Holland Codes) related occupations, but was uninterested in any of the careers that required an advanced degree. The careers listed as highly matching his interests included engineer, chemist, computer systems analyst, physician, and science teacher. When asked to talk further about this, Marcus said that careers in the science and computer fields were for "white people, geeky white people." He stated that he was considering careers in the automotive industry and that he enjoyed repairing his
mom’s car. Marcus also mentioned that his interests moderately matched those for auto mechanics on the interest inventory. When the counselor remarked on his good grades in science and math, Marcus observed that he simply had lenient teachers and that much of the material seemed easy to him. He also indicated that, although he did well in those subjects, he would never consider jobs related to them because they would require four years of college and no one in his family had gone to college. Marcus has taken an adaptive approach to learning and succeeding in mathematics and science. Certainly, not all students who are proficient in mathematics and science take the opportunity to showcase success through high achievement in quizzes, tests, class work, and homework.

There is a certain amount of agency that Marcus demonstrates in order to achieve by the dominant standards of success, although his attempts to minimize his success by referring to his achievements as “easy.” Marcus has certainly learned to cope with the rigors that accompany high school level mathematics and science including the teachers, his peers, and the curriculum.

During the second and third sessions, Marcus participated in career counseling activities to help him gain a better understanding of the kinds of careers that may be best suited to his personality. He completed a modified card activity, where he sorted various occupations into categories of 'might choose,' 'would not choose,' and 'in question.' Marcus and the school counselor then discussed the discarded activities and examined Marcus's reasons for discarding these activities. The counselor noted that many of the discarded occupations were related to science and math, and Marcus provided reasons such as "there are no Black people in this field" and "I could never do something this hard," which is quite interesting considering that he previously stated that his courses were rather easy. Brown and Lent (1996) recommended this type of exercise to help clients determine if the discarded occupations were due to faulty self-efficacy or outcome expectation beliefs. Spencer’s PVEST (2006, 2008a) would further suggest that Marcus’s emergent identity (i.e.,) how he defines himself within and between his various contexts of development (family, school, neighborhood), does not include a math or science career trajectory, in spite of his high achievement in those areas. In other words, Marcus does not see himself in a math or science field, in part because he envisions those professions as White, but more importantly not Black. Ironically, Marcus had demonstrated yet until recently, productive outcomes in mathematics and science, along with high self-esteem, while believing that he would suffer adverse outcomes in the long run.

The counselor then challenged Marcus to think of other reasons why he did well in math and science classes. Marcus recognized his ability to understand the meaning of scientific theories and saw that he was able to complete complex computations without a calculator. When the counselor asked how others responded to his ability to do well in these subjects, Marcus indicated that his teachers were always pleased with his work, but that his friends often made fun of him for doing well in classes that were just for nerds. This was not the first time the counselor heard of this phenomenon. In fact, it was quite common for many Black students, regardless, of background, to be ridiculed for participating in advanced courses and programs (Ford, 2011). As in other instances, this information suggested to the counselor that Marcus might need new experiences so he could create and envision and expect more positive outcome expectations.
The school counselor also further explored Marcus's feelings about college. Marcus stated that he wanted to go to college but this would be a financial burden on his family. In addition, if he continued his education, his mother only wanted him to consider a school within a 30-mile radius. At this point, the school counselor became curious about the extent to which other students in the school were suffering from similar difficulties. In order to develop a more concrete understanding, the school counselor sent out a survey to all students in the school asking questions designed to capture their perceptions of college, and the likelihood they would attend. To the counselor’s surprise, there were many students in a similar situation to Marcus. With this new understanding, the school counselor decided to develop a number of small (6 to 10 students) counseling groups to help students support one another and develop a better understanding of themselves in relation to college and careers. The counselor also worked with teachers to make arrangements to go to different classes to deliver career and financial aid information. As a homework assignment for Marcus, the counselor asked him to attend a career fair at the high school and talk to at least five people in different careers. Marcus told the school counselor he was uncomfortable going to something like that by himself. The school counselor, in response, said that Marcus’ teacher was taking a group of students to the career fair and that he may be able to accompany them. After leaving the school counselor’s office, Marcus met with his teacher, asked for permission to accompany his teacher and the other students, and was allowed to do so.

Marcus began the fourth session by sharing what he learned at the career fair. He explained that he spent a long time talking with an African American engineer who had grown up in the same type of neighborhood. The engineer had gone to a nearby college and knew of various scholarship opportunities for students who had above-average grades. He offered Marcus the opportunity to shadow him on the job to see what engineering was all about. Marcus also noted that engineers used math and science skills that could be related to the automotive industry. The counselor observed that Marcus had now begun to create self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations related to science and math careers.

The counselor, recognizing some potential barriers facing first-generation students, discussed other possible financial aid opportunities with Marcus and encouraged him to accept the shadowing experience. He was also encouraged to join one of the small counseling groups to find other students like him who were struggling to determine their career goals. Marcus stated that he would call the engineer that evening and planned to attend the next group counseling session. Before he left, the counselor also recommended that Marcus discuss the opportunities of financial aid and nearby colleges with his mother. Marcus had begun to expand his perception of himself and gained tremendous confidence and alternative perspectives through his interaction with the African American engineer. We hypothesized that Black racial identity, including role modeling that incorporates his race and gender, represents an integral aspect of Marcus’s development, in particular how he assesses his career competencies and overall competence formation.

The last session with Marcus focused on ways that he could learn more about college life. Marcus made an appointment to shadow the engineer during winter break, and reported that his mother had expressed interest in the information about financial aid and generally supported his efforts to continue his education. In addition, Marcus was encouraged to accompany the friends he made in the group counseling to use the library's computer to visit various college websites and to explore
additional careers. These activities were designed to help Marcus obtain a more accurate view of college life with the hope that some potential barriers could be eliminated.

This vignette is presented to demonstrate how identity (mathematics, science, racial, gender, etc.) interacts with career projections for some Black high-achieving high school male students. By gaining a more holistic understanding of Marcus, where he positions himself within larger cultural, educational, and structural contexts offers more complex interaction of all of these domains to better understand his ideologies and actions. Learning about his support system, amidst its challenges, helps us appreciate that for Marcus, college attainment is a family decision, with potential geographical and financial constraints. Explorations of role modeling and mentorship through an African American engineer helped Marcus to envision himself in broader career spaces, including engineering, mathematics and science. Without a knowledgeable counselor, who had an understanding of Black youths experiences, including the importance of racial identity, Marcus’s recent behavior might have been misinterpreted and his academic efforts would go un-respected by the school system. Marcus’s story further emphasizes that school counselors of Black male students have a tremendous responsibility for instilling career competence were Black male success is scarce and unreported, and can be a significant factor in determining career and college course choices.

Discussion

The complexity associated with navigating Black male identities in K-12 educational setting is tremendous. Marcus’s vignette sheds light on examples of personal and social barriers Black males must overcome in order to achieve academic success and settle on career goals. Teachers and school counselors are charged with helping Black males achieve success despite the challenges Black males encounter. The most efficient, effective way for this seemingly insurmountable task to be achieved is by educators collaborating with one another to meet students’ needs. Marcus’s vignette also provides an example of a TSCP that used PVEST and SCCT to meet Black males’ personal, social, academic, and career needs using resources in their personal environment.

The counseling sessions gave the school counselor insight into Marcus’ relative to his burgeoning identity and career goals. Marcus was at a life stage in which figuring out his career goals and the courses needed to achieve them was of utmost importance. From the information gleaned, the school counselor was able to gain a better understanding of Marcus’s outcome expectations, perceived barriers related to various careers, as well as information about self-efficacy beliefs regarding his potential for succeeding in college. Being a Black male born into an immediate family bereft of a college graduate served as a source of vulnerability. It seemed that Marcus was reacting to his context by foreclosing on careers that he perceived as not being appropriate for Black males. It was up to the counselor to collaborate with Marcus’s teachers to develop interventions designed to establish systems of support that could help him succeed despite potentially stressful risk factors. Ultimately, it was hoped that TSCPs would result in helping Marcus form a new identity; one in which he would be able to develop and utilize healthy support systems that were appropriate for his current stage in life.
The individual counseling sessions served to help the school counselor gather a wealth of information related to the chasm between Marcus’s academic achievement and career goals. However, before meeting with Marcus, it was important that the school counselor meet with the teacher to gain a better understanding of Marcus aside from the information contained in his school files as was related to Marcus’ presenting problems.

Summary

Marcus’s story should not be unique. Although wide variations exist in school experience, particularly in relation to Black male high school students disproportionately being placed at-risk, school counselors serve as a tremendous resource for students, as well as teachers charged with educating them in increasingly stressful environments. School counselors equipped with identity- and career-based capital, serve as a pivotal resource for healthy and positive identity, college, and career development, along with navigating gainful employment into adulthood. Too often, though, overcrowded schools and public school policies and practices impede school counselors’ efforts to collaborate with teachers and guide underrepresented students toward successful school-to-work transition.

This article is an attempt to highlight the potential for school counselors and teachers to use the theories to work together and meet Black males’ academic and career needs by addressing their personal and social concerns. Although the literature suggests the importance of collaborative partnerships between educators, a particular framework for TSCPs has yet to be developed. This article suggests the possibility of PVEST and SCCT as strong contributors to a potential culturally relevant framework. However, there is much more work to be done. We included a vignette to demonstrate how it could be applied in a school setting, but this is just a first step to illustrate how such a framework might be applied. Scholars should consider the potential in combining the two theories into a more concrete model that can be measured for effectiveness. Only then will its utility truly be determined.

AUTHOR NOTES

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References


Online Resources

Peggy Snowden  •  Chauncey Carr-McElwee

Education Week is a national newspaper that focuses on K-12 education policy. It covers an array of topics on current education policy and practice from around the world. Education Week offers a wealth of news and information, along with opinion blogs, webinars, and a Teacher Book Club. Subscribers to Education Week have access to other affiliated publications such as Digital Directions (a magazine that covers best practices in educational technology); Teacher Sourcebook (a dictionary of professional development products and services for teachers); EPE Research Center (a center that conducts original research yearly for the annual Counts reports, etc.); TopSchoolJobs (a resource that offers premium career resources for teachers and administrators); Education Week Press (publishes books written by educators and experts); and Education Week Events (live and interactive forums on daily events focused on education issues).

Education World is a site where teachers can share and gather ideas. It is a free resource that features a site map with links to educational resources captioned under various headings—e.g., lesson plans, professional development, technology, administrators, school resources, specialties, subject resources, etc.

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) provides unlimited access to an extensive digital library of education-related bibliographic records. The ERIC collection includes records for journal articles, books, research syntheses, conference papers, technical reports, policy papers, and other education-related materials. It is an ideal resource for educators, researchers, policymakers, students, parents, and other users. This site has a feature for conducting basic and advanced searches. ERIC has an alphabetical list of journals from 1966 to the present, an alphabetical list of non-journal sources, and a RSS feeds for access to high interest content.

Federal Resources for Educational Excellence (FREE) provides teaching and learning resources from the federal agencies. This site provides over 1,500 federally supported teaching and learning resources from dozens of federal agencies in a variety of subject content areas. FREE includes links to animations, primary documents, photos, and videos. It is among the most popular K-12 websites maintained by the U.S. Department of Education.

Open Educational Resources (OER) gathers teaching and learning materials from around the world and provides a structured database of links to high-quality resources posted on other websites. Educators, students, and the general public can search, browse, evaluate, and find teaching and learning resources in a number of content areas by using a basic or advance search. Examples of OER materials include: full university courses with readings, videos of lectures, and lecture notes; interactive mini-lessons and simulations about specific topics; adaptations of existing open work; electronic textbooks that are peer reviewed; and elementary and high school lesson plans that are aligned with state standards. The materials on OER Commons can be freely accessed and use without charge.
The Event Zone

IRA 57th Annual Convention
International Reading Association
Celebrating Teaching
April 29-May 2, 2012
Chicago, Illinois

ASTD Conference
American Society for Training & Development
Learn Something New, Perform Something Extraordinary
May 6-9, 2012
Denver, Colorado

Chicago Homeschool Expo
Get Wisdom, Get Knowledge – Forget it not!
May 9-11, 2012
Chicago, Illinois

Florida Literacy Conference
Open Books Open Minds
May 9-11, 2012
St. Petersburg, Florida

Community Schools National Forum
Scaling Up School and Community Partnerships: The Community Schools Strategy
May 9-12, 2012
San Francisco, California

Institute on General Education and Assessment
June 2-6, 2012
Ellicott City, Maryland

Milestones 10th Annual Autism/Asperger’s Conference
Life-Long Strategies for Success
June 19-20, 2012
Cleveland, Ohio

National PTA Convention
Parent Teacher Association
June 21-24, 2012
San Jose, California

ISTE Annual Conference
International Society for Technology in Education
June 24-27, 2012
San Diego, California

AACTE Leadership Academy
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
June 24-28, 2012
Louisville, Kentucky

ASCD Summer Conference
Revolutionizing the Way We Teach and Lead
July 1-3, 2012
St. Louis, Missouri

Free Webinars
Using Bloom's Taxonomy to Formulate Learning Objectives
May 2, 2012
10:00 a.m. - 11:00 a.m. US/Eastern

Cyberbullying: What Educators and Parents Should Know and Do
May 3, 2012
9:00 a.m. - 10 a.m. US/Pacific

Captivate Your Learners With Engaging eLearning
May 17, 2012
8:00 a.m. - 9:00 a.m. US/Pacific

Effective Planning for your eLearning Courses
May 24, 2012
8:00 a.m. - 9:00 a.m. US/Pacific

Workshops/Institutes
Pre-Service Teacher Institute at NASA's Marshall Space Flight Center – July 14-27, 2012, in Huntsville, Alabama. This is “a two-week residential institute for college students who are preparing to teach in an elementary or middle school”. Application Deadline: May 11, 2012.