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TEACHER AND CHILD INTERACTION: THE EFFECTS OF FAMILIAL DISTRESS,
CHILD BEHAVIOR, AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS

by

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B.A. May 2015, Old Dominion University

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ABSTRACT

TEACHER AND CHILD INTERACTION: THE EFFECTS OF FAMILIAL DISTRESS, CHILD BEHAVIOR, AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS

Jessekah R. Ennis
Old Dominion University, 2019
Director: Dr. Ingrid Whitaker

There has been a significant amount of research that has studied the ecological conditions that create behavioral problems for children from families that are female headed, in poverty, and live in areas where there is violent crime. There has also been evidence that revealed statistically significant associations between the way teachers perceive students from low socioeconomic backgrounds and their beliefs of the capacity of the children to learn. Studies have also examined how teachers interact with children that are exhibiting behavioral problems that are from low socio-economic status. However, to date there has been no study that has combined these ecological conditions of female headed households, poverty, exposure to violent crime, behavioral problems, and teacher perceptions effects on the way teachers interact with them through reading instructional activities. This thesis uses a three-model analysis that examines this relationship as well as relevant control variables that have been found to be significantly associated with teacher interactions and instructional time. The results indicated that the greater the perception of violent crime the greater amount of time children spend in teacher directed individual reading activities. Also, the results indicated that teachers who responded neutrally to perceived problem behaviors affecting instruction were more likely to spend a greater amount of time with students in teacher directed individual reading activities whose families are female headed, living in poverty, and from communities where violent crime is a big problem. These results indicate that while controlling for relevant control variables violent crime and perception

of behavior have a significant effect on the amount of time teachers spend in teacher directed individual reading activities. The findings of violent crime and neutrality concerning problem behavior effects on the amount of time spent in teacher directed individual reading activities are of interest for future research.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In 1965, President Lyndon Johnson signed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) into law (Department of Education). President Johnson believed that education should be America's first priority providing full educational opportunity (Department of Education). From its inception, the ESEA was a civil rights law (Department of Education). The law provided funding for districts serving low-income students with the intent of improving the quality of secondary and elementary education (Department of Education). Later, in 2002 another act was signed called the No Child Left Behind Act (Department of Education). This act put in measures to expose achievement gaps among traditionally underserved students and spurred a national dialogue about America's quality of education for all children (Department of Education). However, the measure of accountability NCLB provided exposed the challenges of the effective implementation of this goal (Department of Education). Then in 2015 Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) was signed by President Barrack Obama due to the realization for the need of an updated law that would help to strengthen education for disadvantaged families (Department of Education). This law maintains the expectation of accountability and action to effect positive change in low-performing schools serving distressed families (Department of Education). It pushes for the advancement in equity by upholding critical protections for America's disadvantaged and high-needs students (Department of Education). However, there continues to be an educational gap for America's disadvantaged students with remarkable evidence that supports this proposition.

In particular, researchers have examined how the structural conditions of families living in poverty influence a number of student outcomes (Brooks-Gunn et al 1997; Harrikari 2014; Kim et al 2014; Whitherspoon and Ennett 2011). Much of this research has investigated how female headed households, poverty, and violent crime effect childhood and adolescent behavior and academic outcomes in school settings (Humphrey 2016; Humphrey 2017; Brooks-Gunn et al 1997; Duplechain et al 2008; Kim et al 2014; Henricon and Rydell 2004; Mazza and Overstreet 2000; Morrissey and Vinopal 2018; Swartz and Gorman 2003; Thompson and Massat 2005). There is substantial evidence in a variety of disciplines that these variables are associated with long term consequences for children and adolescents from families living in distress (Bronfenbrenner 1977; Humphrey 2016; Humphrey 2017; Brooks-Gunn et al 1997; Duplechain et al 2008; Kim et al 2014; Henricon and Rydell 2004; Mazza and Overstreet 2000; Morrissey and Vinopal 2018; Swartz and Gorman 2003; Thompson and Massat 2005; Harrikari 2014). Researchers have also examined teachers' beliefs and attitudes about children from low socio-economic status (SES) families (Alvidrez and Rhonda 1999; Auwater and Aruguete 2008; Dunkake and Schuchart 2015; Sallee and Boske 2013; Sobal and Graham 1988; Walter et al 2006 Williams et al 2007). However, there is not any research that combines the variables female headed households and crime along with SES to determine if teachers hold bias perceptions of children from these families. There is also evidence that teachers have beliefs about childhood and adolescent SES and behavioral problems that in turn affect the way teachers interact with these children (Hoglund et al 2015; Roorda et al 2013; Henricon and Rydell 2004). However, there is no current study that combines family structure, poverty, exposure to violent crime, behavioral problems, and teacher's perceptions to determine if there is a statistical association with the way and amount of time teacher's interact with children from these families.

Students from these families are less likely to have access to medical care, potentially affecting whether they have been seen by a professional to assess if these children need additional support in and outside the classroom (Ullucci and Howard 2015). The disproportionate amount of violence families like these are exposed to have profound effects on their social, psychological, and emotional well-being (Ullucci and Howard 2015; Duplechain et al 2008; Foster and Brooks -Gunn; Garo 2013; Kliewer and Sullivan 2008; Mazza and Overstreet 2000; Spilsbury et al 2007; Swartz and Gorman 2003; Thampson and Massat 2005; Turner et al 2013). There is a countless number of studies that suggest these students are more likely to have diminished reading outcomes and increased problems both socially and emotionally (Ullucci and Howard 2015; Garo 2013; Duplechain et al 2008; Kliewer and Sullivan 2008; Thompson and Massat 2005; Swartz and Gorman 2003).

In addition to the problem's children experience based on familial adversity, they also experience disadvantages in the classroom. Teacher's perceptions of poverty, crime, and fragmented households may influence students much like preconceived notions of race (Ullucci and Howard 2015). Teacher are admonished to be mindful of these perceptions and the possibility of their prejudice and stereotypical beliefs (Ullucci and Howard 2015). Similarly, class conscious teachers should understand how the stressors of living in a family with only one parent, poverty, and in a community with violent crime, and behavior works and does not work and an awareness of how stereotypes and implicit or explicit bias affects their interactions with these children (Ullucci and Howard 2015; Alvidrez and Weinstein 1999; Aurwartger and Arguguete 2008).

Sallee and Boske (2013) gave an example in a case study, where a principal was asked to reform an inner-city school. She conducted a survey where she collected information from

teachers, families, children and the community. The principal found that more than 95% of the children lived in poverty, that many of them came from fragmented families, and there were high rates of criminal behavior such as gangs and violent crimes within four blocks of the school. The elementary school had student population of 700 where more than 65% of students received disciplinary referrals, an average of 226 out-of-school suspensions, 437 detentions, and 359 in school suspensions per academic year for behavioral problems. Further, more than one quarter of the children were referred for special education services due to poor reading outcomes. The case study also reviewed teacher beliefs about the students. One teacher expressed, “This is not complicated, these kids are poor and have no future....” (Sallee and Boske 2013). Other teachers expressed concern about their capacity to improve student learning and what was the source of the poor academic outcomes, sighting poverty and their families (Sallee and Boske 2013). When the principal surveyed the children about their teachers, they rated them as “good” to “below average.” However, the children grades K-5 overwhelmingly emphasized their desire to spend more one on one time with their teachers rather than engaging in test taking strategies (Sallee and Boske 2013).

The Brookings Institute reports that the differences in student performance across SES are well documented (Figlio and Kartbownik 2017). However, most of the research on achievements gaps are descriptive rather than causal but vary dramatically across school districts (Brookings 2018). According to Doumen et al (2008) the family is only part of what shapes a child’s behavior. The quality and quantity of teacher interactions within the school environment influences child development including the development of problem behavior and disharmonious interactions with the teacher may further amplify the maladaptive behaviors over time (Doumen et al 2008). Auwater and Argutte (2008) noted that teachers hold perceptions about children

based on SES and rate them as having less desirable personal characteristics that affect teacher expectations of student achievement. Dunkake and Schuchart (2015) found that teachers hold stereotypical views about child behavior based on social class and personal characteristics such as lacking discipline and concentration and being noisy which in turn affects the behaviors of the teacher toward these children. These stereotypes were shown to influence teacher disciplinary practices of low SES students (Dunkake and Schuchart 2015). Low SES students are disciplined more harshly than students from middle- or upper-class backgrounds exhibiting the same behavior (Dunkake and Schuchart 2015). Problem behaviors of children from living with these stressors have been shown to be related to traumatization and victimization and the associated mental health and social adjustment rather than a child merely lacking discipline (Humphrey 2016; Humphrey and Root 2017; Morrissey and Vinopal 2013; Turner et al 2013; Duplechain et al 2008).

A child's desire to interact with their teacher one on one at school is not enough evidence to implicate policy change. However, the evidence that teacher perceptions of children from distressed families with behavioral problems could affect the quality of instruction and the way teachers interact with them may warrant a change. The argument that a child living in distress fails to operate in a way that would impact schools and the instructional interaction between a child and his or her teacher is weak at best (Ullucci and Howard 2015). Students who are experiencing familial distress are impacted in real and tangible ways but this does not mean that students who are experiencing the immediate consequences of these adversities are less intelligent, able, motivated, or worthy (Ullucci and Howard 2015) The knowledge, values and perceptions of educators about these children are imperative as they could potentially adopt deficit and pathological beliefs (Ullucci and Howard 2015). Applying the "poor" label to

children, teachers may convince themselves that their teaching plays little or no role in a student's academic outcomes (Ullucci and Howard 2015). In light of this, it is a necessity that teachers pay attention to the manner in which they prepare to educate students from this type of background (Ullucci and Howard 2015).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine the amount of time that teachers interact in individual reading activities with students from families that are female headed, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime that are exhibiting behavioral problems. This study also examines whether teacher perceptions of these children's ability to learn is associated with the amount of time in teacher directed individual reading activities. Previous research has shown that teachers have biased beliefs of children from low SES backgrounds that exhibit behavior problems. Research has also shown that the time and frequency that teachers interact with children who exhibit externalizing and internalizing behaviors are significantly associated. Past research has demonstrated significant outcomes that show that living in poverty, violent crime, and female headed households is associated with externalizing and internalizing behaviors for students in an academic setting. This study will address two central research questions.

- 1- Do teachers interact less in individual reading activities with students from families that are female headed households, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime who have behavioral problems?
- 2- Do teacher beliefs affect the amount of time they spend in individual reading activities with students from families that are female headed households, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime with behavioral problems?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Given the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) in 2015 that has called to help teachers and students fully concentrate on learning and instruction, while reducing labels in order to facilitate a more positive school environment, and improve academic achievement for disadvantaged students, this study may provide valuable insight as to why children from these families continue to have poor academic outcomes (Kalberg et al 2012). It may also provide insight into additional training and classroom supports that teachers need to facilitate a more constructive learning environment and improve academic outcomes. While much attention has been given to the effects of poverty and criminal victimization on child behavioral problems and academic outcomes, to date no study has examined the relationship between students from distressed families exhibiting behavioral problems, and teacher beliefs effects on teacher directed individual reading activities in the classroom.

The following chapter will provide an overview of the empirical studies that have examined familial effects on student behavioral problems, teacher beliefs, and teacher interaction time with students.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will discuss literature that examined the relationship between teacher interaction and perceptions of children from families characterized by female headed households, poverty, that live in communities with violent crime who are exhibiting behavioral problems. The chapter will begin with the ecological conditions of familial distress, child and adolescent behavioral problems, teacher's beliefs about problem behaviors, and teacher interactions with children. The chapter will conclude with a summary and critique of the literature.

A survey of the literature reveals various themes regarding teacher interaction with students who are from families that are female headed, live in poverty, and live in areas with violent crime. Studies have shown that these variables affect behavioral and reading outcomes for children (Garo 2013; Turner et al 2013; Duplechain et al 2008, Schwartz and Gorman 2003; Kliewer and Sullivan 2018; Kim et al 2013; Humphrey and Root 2017; Morrissey and Vinopal 2018; Humphrey 2016). The themes that emerged included, high rates of internalizing and externalizing behaviors for these children that are experiencing the ecological conditions of familial distress (Mazza and Overstreet 2000; Swartz and Gorman 2003; Kim et al 2013; Thonpson and Massat 2005; Schwartz and Gorman 2003; Humphrey and Root 2017; Morrissey and Vinopal 2018).

Themes that emerged that reflected teachers' perceptions of children from low SES backgrounds and teachers' interaction with children exhibiting behavioral problems. The themes that emerged from research examined teacher perceptions include under estimation of

intelligence, vulnerability of children from low SES due to teacher expectations, class related stereotypes (Alvidrez and Weinstien 1999; Auwarter and Arugette 2008; Dunkake and Schuchart 2015). Teacher interaction was related to perceptions of externalizing and internalizing behaviors (Henricson and Rydell 2004; Roorda et al 2013; Hoglund et al 2015).

ECOLOGICAL CONDITIONS OF FAMILIAL DISTRESS

Research presented in this section discusses the ecological conditions of familial distress in relationship to childhood behavioral problems which include female headed households, poverty, and exposure to violent crime.

Female Headed Households

The ecological perspective suggests that children's behavioral and social development are shaped by the broader household, school, and neighborhood contexts. A study conducted by Kim et al (2013) sought to reflect the influence on children's behavioral and reading outcomes which included household variables within poor neighborhoods. Kim et al (2013) used data on 424 children, originally collected for a longitudinal study of school, behavioral, and social outcomes for children living in poor residential areas in Chicago from 1997 to 2002. Children and parents who participated in the study were interviewed every 6 months over a 5-year period for a total of seven-time points. Female headed households were considered as a variable that effects childhood behavioral problems. The sample revealed that (29) percent of children that lived in female headed households had behavioral problems. Of the sample population (21.3) percent repeated one or more grade due to behavioral problems. Also, Kim et al (2013) found that children living with their fathers were less likely to report behavioral problems or to repeat a grade.

Humphrey and Root (2017) examined whether female headed household sociodemographic characteristics moderate effects on behavior, and how these relationships vary between the ages of seven and eleven as children become more independent. Humphrey and Root (2017) found that family structure significantly effects externalizing behaviors (effect size: $\frac{1}{4}$.02). Social contexts that were characterized by high numbers of female headed households had an increased effect on externalizing behaviors (effect size $\frac{1}{4}$, 0.15 standard deviations). A child living with married parents was associated with decreased externalizing behaviors by about (1/10) of a standard deviation.

Poverty

Morrissey and Vinopal's (2018) study tested the relationship between family poverty, based on the federal poverty line, and children's reading scores for kindergarteners, first, and second graders. Their results indicated that the associations between poverty and achievement diminished substantially once background characteristics were controlled for. Children in families of moderate-low-poverty scored about (1/20 to 1/10) of a standard deviation lower than those in low-poverty families in reading. Children living in moderate to high and high-poverty scored about (1/10 to 1/5) lower in reading than those in low-poverty. These associations remained strong as children aged through elementary school. When Morrissey and Vinopal (2013) tested for the interaction between family poverty and living in a moderate-high-poverty neighborhood, the reading scores ($b=-0.10$, $p<.05$) were significant. The research indicates that living in a moderate-high-poverty is associated with diminished outcomes for children who are from distressed families. Morrissey and Vinopal (2013) also found that there was an interaction between family poverty and living in a moderate-high-poverty neighborhood for reading scores ($b=-0.10$, $p<.05$) which suggests that living in a moderate-high-poverty is associated with worse

reading scores for children who are poor. There was a positive interaction between living in a poor family and a moderate-low-poverty neighborhood for externalizing behaviors ($b=0.09$, $p<.05$) (Morrissey and Vinopal 2013).

There were several limitations concerning Morrissey and Vinopal's (2013) study. First, there was an inability to draw causal associations, because neighborhood poverty and household poverty, is associated with other characteristics that may affect children's development such as parenting behaviors and early education. There are also data limitations, the ECLS-K:2011 lacks refined measures of household income to adequately control for income differences across neighborhoods.

Duplechain et al (2008) found that distressed families were characterized by living in poverty as well. Social economic status was measured by the free and reduced lunch program: (62) of these students (38%) were from low SES families (those receiving free lunch), (19) (12%) were from middle SES families (those receiving reduced lunch), (55) (34%) were from high SES families (ineligible for free or reduced lunch), and (26) (16%) were missing SES data (Duplechain et al 2008). In another study conducted by Swartz and Gorman (2003) results indicated that in communities with concentrated poverty approximately (70) percent of the children attending school participate in federally supported lunch programs, and approximately (20) percent of the children live in publicly supported housing projects.

Humphrey and Root (2017) defined poverty through a combination of proxies that were analyzed and tested for effect modifiers on behavior which included student eligibility for reduced and free lunch and familial poverty level. Family SES adversely modified the effect of living in poverty on externalizing behaviors one standard deviation increase in family SES amplified the effect (effect: $1/4 .14$). Garo (2013) measured poverty through living below the

federal poverty and income. Garo's (2013) indicated strong associations between poverty and behavioral problems that resulted in out of school suspension. In another study Humphrey (2016) found that there was a direct association between living in poverty and child social adjustment.

Violent Crime

One study that looked at violent crime was conducted by Garo (2013). Garo (2013) investigated violence with poor academic outcomes and short-term out-of-school suspension. Indicators of violence came from the 2008 Quality of Life Study conducted by Metropolitan Studies at UNC-Charlotte which were joined with Mecklenburg County Sheriff's Department data on drug arrest rates and Charlotte-Mecklenburg Police data on juvenile victimization rates. In all of the school's that Garo (2013) studied, drug violence rates correlated with child behavior at school. The results showed moderate to high visual and statistical associations of violence and behavioral problems. The limitations in Garo's (2013) study included that children do not per se live in the neighborhoods where their school is located and may be exposed to higher levels of violence and poverty during out of school hours, making it difficult to determine visual correlations when viewing data on maps at varied scales for different sets of schools. Lastly, the interpretation of visual correlations is highly subjective and not all school data can be compared with violence variables.

Turner et al (2013) conducted a study that examined the effects of violence on symptoms of distress in order to explain mediating factors of community violence on academic performance. They used a subsample (ages 10-17, N=2039) of the 2008 National Survey of Children's Exposure to Violence that was conducted through telephone interview of a caregiver and one child within the household. The independent variables, community violence and

exposure to victimization, was defined as past-year exposure to property crime, peer assault, and witnessing community violence, as well as exposure to multiple other forms of victimization.

Turner et al (2013) found that of the victimization measures there were substantial effects that ranged (1.5) to (4) times the rate of exposure to violence in lower versus higher crime communities. The average number of victimization types for the lower disorder group was (1.5), while it was (3.6) for those living in higher crime communities. Turner et al (2013) reported several factors that significantly mediate the social disorder association with strong positive associations to recent negative life events (Beta = .40) and a strong negative association with level of family social support (Beta = $-.39$). The next strongest indirect effects of community violence on distress is through property victimization ($.36 \times .13 = .05$; $p < .001$; 13 percent), and adverse life events ($.40 \times .07 = .03$; $p < .001$; 8 percent). The indirect effect of violence on distress through multiple victimization is (.22) ($.64 \times .35$; $p < .001$), which accounts for (57) percent of the total indirect effect of (.39). However, because this was a cross-sectional study, a causal relationship cannot be established. Also, adolescent mental health problems may have contributed to lower perceptions of family support.

Also, Duplechain et al (2008) studied how the prevalence of violence exposure impacts learning and the relationship that exists between the trauma of violence and student reading achievement. Duplechain et al's (2008) work used a sample that consisted of 162 elementary school students from eight inner-city elementary schools located in the Midwest region of the United States. (Duplechain et al 2008). Duplechain et al (2008) found that for those children who reported violence exposure, main effects significantly associated with family income, ($F = 10.95$, $df = 2, 134$, $p < 0.01$). Duplechain et al (2008) also conducted a repeated measure general linear model (GLM) analysis to determine the relationship between violence exposure and reading

achievement over a 3-year period and found that violence exposure affected reading achievement over time. A significant interaction was found when comparing the level of violence across the 3 years, ($F = 2.71$, $df = 4, 312$, $p \leq 0.05$). Duplechain et al (2008) used t-tests to examine each group separately, significant findings were revealed for the moderate violence exposure groups and for the high exposure group. The reading scores of the moderate exposure group dropped significantly from Year I to Year III ($M = 53$ and 44 , respectively), ($t(70) = 2.96$, $p < .01$), and from Year II to Year III ($M = 52$ and 44 , respectively), ($t(70) = 3.45$, $p < .01$). The reading scores for the high exposure group dropped significantly from Year II to Year III ($M = 58$ and 51 , respectively), ($t(42) = 2.29$, $p < .05$). Duplechain et al (2008) suggest that victimized children have a more difficult time concentrating on their schoolwork due to this heightened state of fear. The limitations for this study were due to its cross-sectional design.

Kliewer and Sullivan (2018) conducted a study in Richmond, VA for the purpose of describing the development and initial validation of a threat appraisal measure in response to violence in relationship to the development to internalizing and externalizing of behavioral problems. They introduced concepts from Lazarus's and Folkman's 1984 theory of stress processing where researchers have shown that children cognitively process the experience of violence exposure differently during their developmental years and its impact is determined in part by a child or adolescent's appraisal of the negative implications of the event on their wellbeing. They theorized that appraisals by definition are situational versus dispositional. They thought threat appraisals were important because they a) drive coping efforts, b) are implicated in a wide range of adjustment difficulties, and c) reflect the meaning and importance to individual attachment during stressful events. They found all correlations among the Appraisals of Negative Events subscales were significant. In addition, all of the threat appraisal subscales

were positively associated with victimization and witnessing violence. Significant indirect (mediational) effects were found for all six threat appraisals on the relationship between exposures to violence. The limitations to Kliewer and Sullivan's (2018) study included the correlational nature of the design, which limit statements about causality.

Swartz and Gorman (2003) investigated the link between violence and psychosocial adjustment at school. The relationship between violence and academic functioning was tested and there were significant- moderate to strong factor loadings. The model designed by Thompson and Massat (2005) correlation design found associations between academic achievement and community violence exposure ($-.3246, p < .01$), violence and traumatic life event exposure were significantly correlated ($.4748, p < .01$), and traumatization and witnessing violence ($.5130, P < .01$). They found that witnessing violence was significantly related to exposure to family and community factors. They concluded that violence exposure may exert an influence on a child's ability to self-regulate. Children who reported high exposure to violence had behaviors that were characterized by aggression and hyperactivity, they are also more vulnerable to bullying due to emotional regulation and social processing.

Thompson and Massat (2005) reported several significant correlates between frequency of violence exposure and behavior in their study of urban school children. ($-.3320, p < .01$). Thompson and Massat (2005) concluded that children and adolescence who have high exposure to community violence will have increased rates of behavioral problems. They also found that increased exposure to violence was associated with school location and the frequency of this exposure was related to the level of the childhood behavioral problems (Thompson and Massat 2005). The study had several limitations, the sample was entirely composed of children living in

urban communities which affects generalizability. Also due to the correlational design causation cannot be established.

BEHAVIORAL PROBLEMS

Children from homes that are female headed, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime have been shown to have an increase chance of developing behavioral problems. The literature that was reviewed for this study broke behavioral problems into two categories, externalizing and internalizing behaviors. The research presented in this section examines the relationship of female headed households, poverty, and living in communities with violent crime on internalizing and externalizing behavioral problems.

Internalizing Behaviors

Mazza and Overstreet (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of literature that examined the exposure to chronic community violence and its relationship to behavioral health and the implications for school psychology when working with at risk youth to reduce effects of exposures associated with violence. Mazza and Overstreet (2000) noted that behavioral health outcomes show poverty, family structure, and violence exposure effects are not specific to one behavioral domain stating that there are both direct and indirect relationships with trauma, depression, suicidal behavior, anxiety, antisocial behaviors, and academic difficulties. Mazza and Overstreet (2000) findings revealed that chronic community violence is related to anxiety and how social emotional adjustments are affected in children. Findings have also shown heightened anxiety levels in preschoolers and elementary school children who have experienced a traumatic event that was related to community violence (Mazza and Overstreet 2000)

Thompson and Massat (2005) measured levels of traumatic life events, behavioral problems, and academic achievement for students that were from age 11 to 13 years from

distressed families. Self-reports yielded several factors that may interfere with school performance such as: concentration problems where (58.7) percent of the sample reported they had difficulty paying attention. Avoidance was also reported where (66.6) percent practiced avoidance behaviors.

Swartz and Gorman (2003) had children complete the Children's Depression Inventory- a self-report assessment of depressive symptoms. The findings demonstrate a relationship between violence exposure and depressive symptoms. Also, that school reading performance is hindered by symptoms of depression (decreased motivation and low energy) which was associated with victimization through community violence. Swartz and Gorman (2003) expounded on past research dedicated to violence exposure associated with depression or other forms of internalized distress.

Humphrey and Root (2017) using the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study- Kindergarten [ECLS-K] (N=21,400) sponsored by the Department of Education that followed children from kindergarten to eighth grade found that the largest impact on internalizing behaviors was for fifth graders that lived in poverty. Females who live in homes with married parents reduced internalizing behaviors by about one-fifth of a standard deviation. Also, Morrissey and Vinopal (2018) found there was a negative interaction between living in a poor family and a moderate-low-poverty neighborhood for attention and focus ($b=-0.21, p<.01$).

Externalizing Behaviors

Thompson and Massat (2005) measured levels of traumatic life events through community violence exposure, behavioral problems, and reading achievement for students that were ages 11 to 13 years from distressed families. Thompson and Massat (2005) found results that indicate that the sample self-reported some severe behavioral problems. The most frequently

reported included engaged in physical fights (66) percent, suspended from school (52) percent, stayed out all night without permission (33) percent, had to see police (28) percent, and played with matches or set fires (28) percent. The mean behavior score was ($m=14.0$), the median was (12.0) and the standard deviation was ($SD=10.4$). There were 44 students with scores below the mean representing (56.4) percent of the cases. There were 34 students with scores above the mean, representing (43.6) percent of the cases. The highest score (51) included one case. Fifteen of 94 of the cases reported having smoked marijuana, and 21 of 94 respondents reported hurting an animal.

Furthermore, Swartz and Gorman (2003) studied the effects of violence exposure on externalizing behaviors. To measure disruptive behavior Schwartz and Gorman (2003) had teachers complete a Social Behavior Rating Scale which has 43 descriptors of children's social adjustment with peers it included aggressive behavior (starts arguments, threatens or bullies, teases, hits, pushes) and hyperactive impulsive behavior (impulsive, easily distracted, difficulties with attention, can't wait turn, does not stay seated, does not play quietly). The two latent variables violence and academic functioning predicted strong factor loadings for the observed indicators disruptive behavior rated by teachers ($\chi^2=94.5$, $df=47$, $CFI=.96$, $RMSEA=.07$) and peers ($\chi^2=94.9$, $df=48$, $CFI=.96$, $RMSEA=.07$) included correlations between the error terms for the teacher ratings of hyperactivity and aggression (Schartz and Gorman 2003).

Swartz and Gorman (2003) work was dedicated to violence exposure associated with disruptive behavioral problems and social maladjustment in peers. Violence exposure may interfere with the developing child and adolescent's self-regulation and behavioral control. Although, Swartz and Gorman (2003) study showed significant relationships between

community violence, behavior, and academic functioning careful consideration should be given to the nature of the violence exposure assessment which relied on children's self-report.

Also, Mazza and Overstreet (2000) found associations with exposure to chronic community violence and attacking or engaging in violent behavior against someone an adolescent has known. They found that previous exposure to violence was the strongest predictor to current violent behavior (Mazza and Overstreet 2000). Also, findings indicate that pre-school and elementary school aged children exposed to chronic violence were at or above ranges for externalizing behavioral problems (Mazza and Overstreet (2000). Also, Morrissey and Vinopal's (2018) study that measured SES effects on child behavioral outcomes present similar evidence. There was a positive interaction between living in a poor family and a moderate-low-poverty neighborhood for externalizing behaviors ($b=0.09, p<.05$).

Humphrey and Root (2017) results were significant for age 11 externalizing behaviors, where males were the largest group ranging from (.48 to .57) standard deviations for effect size. Children that lived with married parents and increased socioeconomic status showed decreased effect sizes for externalizing behaviors by about (1/10) of a standard deviation. Female headed households were associated with an increase in effect for externalizing behaviors (effect size: .25, .15 standard deviations). Humphrey and Root (2017) found that family structure significantly modifies the effect of living in high poverty communities on externalizing behaviors (effect size: $\frac{1}{4}$.02). Family SES adversely modified the effect of living in a high poverty neighborhood on externalizing behaviors one standard deviation increase in family SES amplified the effect (effect: $\frac{1}{4}$.14).

The outcomes for Kim et al's (2013) study which examined the multilevel factors (family structure and income) on children's behavioral outcomes. Kim et al (2013) reported that (29)

percent of the sample had behavioral problems. Children living with household adversity were significantly associated with externalizing behaviors and repeating a grade. Participant children who lived with their fathers were less likely to report externalizing behavioral problems.

Children in homes with a household income of \$10,000-US\$20,000 compared to less than US\$10,000 had better academic outcomes measured through reading scores (Kim et al 2013).

Kim et al's (2013) study presented several limitations- first, although the study deliberately sought to understand children living in high-risk neighborhoods, the sample was recruited from seven elementary schools located in predominantly poor minority areas. These schools were all from high-risk poverty areas but were not randomly sampled which may affect generalizability. Second, the parents reporting of their child's problems potentially had biases because of varying levels of parent participation in school activities. Lastly, differential attrition could have been a source of potential bias.

TEACHER PERCEPTIONS AND TEACHER INTERACTION

Previous literature that was reviewed showed a connection between female headed households, poverty, and exposure to violent crime and how these elements produce behavioral problems and negative reading outcomes. However, there has been little research that has examined these specific elements with teacher beliefs and interaction with students from families that live in these conditions. After a review of literature, most studies focused on the perception's teachers have of students from families with low socioeconomic status and poverty. According to the literature that was reviewed in the previous sections of this chapter, the position of this study is that female-headed households and violence exposure are interconnected with poverty and low socioeconomic status, although no studies currently have combined these specific elements to understand how all three of these variables interact with teacher perception and instructional

interaction. The research discussed in this section examines teachers' beliefs and teacher interactions with children from distressed families with behavioral problems.

Teacher Perceptions of Children's Characteristics

Alvidrez and Weinstein (1999) examined naturally occurring early teacher perceptions of children age 4 and 11, to identify child demographic and personality characteristics associated with a discrepancy between teacher ratings of intelligence and I.Q. scores. The purpose of the study was to determine if household characteristics moderate the relationship of an over or underestimation of a child's intelligence. The study used data from Jack and Jeanne Block's 20-year longitudinal investigation of ego and cognitive development that began in 1968, where the sample (n= 128) children (Alvidrez and Weinstein 1999). The participants were recruited from Berkley, CA pre-schools when the children were 3 to 4 years of age. The children were assessed through observation, interviews, and task performance on personality, behavioral, and cognitive measures. Alvidrez and Weinstein (1999) utilized a 100-item questionnaire, teachers were asked to rate child characteristics which contained a range of items about social, personality, and cognitive traits at ages 4 and 11 to measure the dependent variable. Teachers assigned each item a score from 1 to 9 on the basis of the traits in relationship to the child's personality, with one representing most uncharacteristic and nine representing most characteristic. Teacher rating of intelligence (TRI) was measured by the item "appears to have a high intellectual capacity" to represent the teacher's perception of the child's ability. The mean score of the teacher rating was (m= 6.6, 7.3) for ages 4 and 11.

Alvidrez and Weinstein (1999) used socio-economic status as one of the independent variables. Alvidrez and Weinstein (1999) utilized actual IQ scores which were measured through a standardized intelligence scale the mean for age 4 (m=117.3, SD=12.4) and for age 11

($m=119.0$, $SD= 12.3$) as a control. The home environment was also measured through home psychologist visits, they used a 59-item instrument. The instrument included items such as home setting (physical and social atmosphere), emphasized family values, and characteristic behavior patterns of the mother.

To determine whether child demographic variables were associated with the TRI at age 4, Alvidrez and Weinstein (1999) ran simultaneous regression analysis which included rating of intelligence as the criterion variable and IQ score at age 4, SES, and school attended as predictor variables. IQ score ($\beta = .57$) and SES ($\beta = .32$) were significant predictors of teacher ratings. After the researchers controlled for IQ, the higher the child's SES, the higher the teacher's rating of the child's intelligence. Teachers overestimated the ability of children from higher socioeconomic backgrounds and underestimated the ability of children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds.

In Alvidrez and Weintein's (1999) study personality traits associated with teacher underestimation relative to IQ score were related to the child's immaturity and anxiety. These items include the items "becomes immobilized under stress" ($r=-.35$, $p<.001$); "tends to go to pieces under stress" ($r=-.32$, $p<.001$); and "is easily victimized by other children" ($r = -.32$, $p < .001$). When measuring the moderation by home environment the linear interaction was significant predictor of student outcomes for Career/Community Orientation of Mother ($B = -.52$) and a marginally significant predictor for Orderly/Predictable Home Environment ($B = -.71$). The interaction was greatest for children whose ability was underestimated where the mother was considered to be less career and community oriented and lived in a less orderly/predictable environment.

Alvidrez and Weinstein (1999) concluded that teacher underestimating through evaluation can be considered a warning sign for later underachievement. If teachers were biased in expecting less of children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds and perceived attributes of immaturity and insecurity despite comparable IQ scores, then teacher expectations and accompanying behaviors that may contribute to underachieving trajectories in schooling should be targeted. The limitations to Alvidrez and Weinstein's (1999) study included an over representation of children from higher socio-economic backgrounds. Also, the data that was collected for the project began 25 years prior to the study which may affect generalizability.

A similar study conducted by Auwarter and Aruguette (2008) sought to test the influence of SES on teacher's expectations which may have causal influences in the formation of academic achievement. Auwarter and Aruguette (2008) hypothesized that teachers would indicate that low-SES students would have less positive personal characteristics, show a greater need for academic support, and show less promising future than would other students. The average years of teaching was 15.85 (SD=9.48). The sample included 44 (41%) elementary school teachers, 19 (18%) middle school teachers, and 43 (41%) high school teachers.

Auwarter and Aruguette (2008) had each of the participants read a paragraph of a hypothetical situation that varied the student's SES that exhibited behavioral difficulties in the school setting. The participants were assigned randomly to one of the four experimental conditions and then asked to fill out a questionnaire as though they were the teacher of the child. Teacher expectations were measured through a nine-question instrument using a 5-point Likert scale. Also, "need for academic support services" was measured through 5-point Likert-like statements. Personal characteristics were measured with 13 seven-point questions on a differential scale (competent to incompetent). The participants rated the child on a seven-point

scale that ranged from poor to wealthy. Auwarter and Arugette (2008) controlled for the participant's years of teaching experience.

Auwarter and Arugette (2008) predicted that teachers would negatively evaluate personal characteristics of children from low-SES scenarios. There were significant interactions between SES and teacher perceptions, ($F(1,101) = 4.72$, $MSE = .49$, $p = .03$, $\text{partial } \eta^2 = .05$). Finally, Auwarter and Arugette (2008) findings revealed significant main effects for SES ($F(1,101) = 36.89$, $MSE = .18$, $\text{partial } \eta^2 = .27$), indicating the teacher perceived that children from low-SES backgrounds had a less promising futures.

The findings in the Auwarter and Arugette' (2008) study were congruent with other studies on teacher expectations that children from higher-SES backgrounds are judged more favorably than are children who preform equally from low-SES backgrounds. According to Auwarter and Arugette (2008), (75) percent of teachers in low income schools show low teaching efficacy. The results reveal that multiple student characteristics work together to affect teacher perceptions indicating that low SES students may be vulnerable to negative effects associated with teacher expectations.

The Auwarter and Arugette (2008) study presented several limitations, it used a convenience sample and did not imply that a random sample would yield similar results. The sample was also derived from one small midwestern town which relates to the generalizability of the study to urban areas. The increase experimental control of the study compromised external validity. The way teachers evaluate a hypothetical student may not correspond with how they behave towards the student in real life, and many of the teachers said they needed more information about the student to better evaluate the child.

Teacher Interaction

Henricson and Rydell (2004) investigated 2nd and 3rd grade children who had been identified as problematic by exhibiting externalizing and internalizing behaviors in first grade. The key issue was the role of teacher-child interactions according to teachers' perceptions of the relationship in the classroom. They expected children with externalizing behaviors to have more conflicts and fewer positive interactions with teachers, and more conflictual, dependent and negative, or less close relationships as perceived by teachers than do either problem-free group of children or those with internalizing behaviors (Henricsson and Rydell 2004). They hypothesized that children with internalizing problems would have more dependent, more conflictual, and less close teacher-rated relationships than non-problematic children (Henricsson and Rydell 2004).

Henricson and Rydell's (2004) sample consisted of ninety-five children and 23 teachers living in a mid-sized Swedish city to participate in the study that was followed from first grade through third grade from 23 classes in 20 different schools, representing all the city's school districts. The children were between 7 and 8 years old when the study began. The teachers, with ($M=21$, $SD=8$) years of experience, with formal teacher training and one quarter had additional schooling. The teacher child relationship was assessed using three measurements at two points in time. The first measurement was conducted through observations of child-teacher interaction. Teacher behavior had 29 codes of these 24 capturing behaviors toward the child. Five of the codes captured behaviors toward other children/whole class which were children excluded from the study. The scales consisted of the Disruptive Behavior-Correction Scale, the Mutual Anger Scale and the Positive Interaction Scale.

Children with externalizing behaviors had more disruptive behavior-corrections and mutual anger interactions which differed from the internalizing behavior group (Henricson and Rydell 2004). However, contrary to Henricson and Rydell's (2004) expectations, the children with externalizing behaviors had more positive teacher interactions than children with nonproblem behavior. Teacher interaction with children from the internalizing behaviors group did not differ from the nonproblem behavior group on any scale. The externalizing behaviors group had more interactions ($t=4.34$, $p<.001$ and $t= 2.37$, $p<.05$) than both internalizing behavior and nonproblem behavior group. However, after further analysis the externalizing behavior group had a higher proportion of mutual anger interactions with the teacher than the nonproblem group ($t=2.47$, $p<.05$).

Also, according to Henricson and Rydell (2004), both internalizing and externalizing behavior group had a more negative relationship according to teacher assessment than the nonproblem behavior groups. Children with externalizing behaviors also had more teacher conflicts than children with internalizing behaviors. However, the externalizing group did not differ from the nonproblem behavior group in closeness. There was demonstrated consistent and strong associations, between externalizing problems and troubled teacher relationships. Mutual anger interactions had a significant effect on the level of dependency.

The limitations associated with Henricson and Rydell's (2004) study did not have data on all measures at each assessment which precluded the time-series analyses. The children with problem behaviors had marked problems with similarities near clinical significance.

Dunkake and Schuchart's (2015) study sought to answer the question: if teachers are confronted with a specific behavior, do the disciplinary actions match in the case of the middle-class students as compared with lower-class students? Dunkake and Schuchart (2015) used four

situations of disruptive behavior in the pictures: playing games on cell phones, sitting with one's feet on the table, listening to music with headphones, and fighting. For each of the situations teachers were asked to spontaneously choose an adequate disciplinary action for the situation. Dunkake and Schurchart (2015) found that teachers expect middle-class students to behave more properly than lower class students.

Discriminatory practices to the disadvantage of lower-class children showed that participants with strong class-related stereotypes are more likely to punish students with behavioral problems harsher ($B=0.14$, $p<.01$). There are a few limitations in Dunkake and Schurchart's (2015) participants were asked about a hypothetical situation and were not responding under pressure, so effect sizes could be larger. Also, these students were preservice teachers and not all of them had experience with children's disruptive behavior, so it is difficult to really estimate the effect sizes for young, inexperienced teachers.

Roorda et al (2013) investigated teacher's and children's mutual interactive behaviors and tendencies during small group tasks in kindergarten classrooms. The goal of the study was to investigate whether complementary principle applies to child-teacher interactions. The sample of children were specifically chosen because they demonstrated a variety of externalizing and internalizing behaviors. Roorda et al (2013) formed two aims: 1- was to examine the teacher's and children's complementary tendencies and 2- to examine whether teachers' and children's mutual interactive behaviors and complimentary tendencies could be explained by children's externalizing and internalizing behaviors as rated by the teacher, interaction time, and interaction frequency.

The theoretical framework that Roorda et al (2013) used was complementarity principle, which is a part of interpersonal theory. It states that a person's dominant behaviors tend to elicit

submissiveness in the interaction partner while someone's friendly behaviors tend to elicit friendliness in the interaction partner and hostile behaviors elicit hostility. Most interpersonal models consist of two orthogonal dimensions: control and affiliation (Roorda et al 2013). According to Roorda et al (2013) affiliation refers to the degree of proximity, warmth, and support in the interaction, it ranges from friendly (high end) to hostile (low end). Control describes the degree of power and influence within the interaction and varies from dominance to submissiveness (Roorda et al 2013).

Roorda et al (2013) proposed that teachers and children would respond complementarily to one another with negative associations on the control dimension and positive associations on the affiliation dimension. Also, they expected that higher levels of externalizing behaviors would be related with relatively low teacher affiliation and higher levels of internalizing behavior would be related to higher levels of teacher control. They also hypothesized that higher levels of externalizing behaviors would be associated with relatively low child affiliation and high child control, whereas high levels of internalizing behaviors would be associated with relatively low child affiliation and low child control.

Roorda et al (2013) used a sample that consisted of 48 teachers and 179 kindergartners from 23 Dutch regular schools. The sample was part of a short-term intervention study where children were observed on five occasions in a nine-week period. Children were selected based on their scores on the externalizing and internalizing behavior scales of a Dutch adaption of the preschool behavior questionnaire which were completed by the child's teacher. Teachers and children were observed during an interaction task in a small group setting in the kindergarten classroom during regular school hours. Interaction time was based on the number of episodes in which there was an interaction between the teacher and an individual child. Interaction frequency

represents the number of times there was a continuous series of interactions between the teacher and an individual child. Children's behavioral characteristics were measured through the behavior questionnaire for two to six years old-modified. Teacher child interactive behaviors were rated independently by different groups of trained observers on four six-point scales.

Roorda et al (2013) examined the effects of externalizing and internalizing behaviors, interaction time, and interaction frequency on teachers' behaviors. Both internalizing and externalizing behavior and interaction time were significantly related with teacher control, ($B=.06$, $p<.01$) and ($B=.13$, $p<.001$). Roorda et al (2013) found that higher levels of internalizing behavior and longer interaction time were associated with more teacher control. Also, both externalizing and internalizing behavior were significantly associated with teacher affiliation ($B=-.08$, $p<.001$) and ($B=.04$, $p<.05$). To simplify, according to Roorda et al (2013) teachers showed more control and more affiliation if children had higher levels of internalizing behavior. Teachers showed less affiliation with children who had higher levels of externalizing behaviors.

Roorda et al's (2013) study presented several limitations, most of the statistically significant regression coefficients were small in magnitude. Also, although the observations took place in the ecology of the classroom, the small group setting was relatively structured. Interactive behaviors are considered to be influenced by the degree of structure. Children were selected on their relative scores on externalizing and internalizing behaviors compared to the classmates in a regular kindergarten class. The study did not consider that the setting in which the observations were made were controlled and only children with high levels of internalizing and externalizing behaviors were selected, so observations may be skewed. The study also did not consider dynamics such as poverty, race, socio-economic status, or family structure.

Hoglund et al (2015) investigated the change and variability in teacher burnout and classroom quality over one school term and examined how these co-varied over time with aggregate externalizing behaviors. The study describes children nested in the classroom in relationship to teacher burnout and classroom quality with externalizing behaviors to predict change in child social adjustment. The participants in Hoglund et al's (2015) study included 461 children and 65 of their teachers in 63 kindergarten to grade three classrooms located in an urban elementary school in Western Canada.

The measures in Hoglund et al's (2015) study included classroom quality which was assessed through classroom scoring system, the elementary version. It is an observational instrument designed to assess the classroom through two domains: emotional and instructional support. Emotional support includes four dimensions that assessed the quality of the interactions; positive climate (i.e. respect and support), negative climate (expressed negativity), teacher sensitivity, regard for student perspectives. Instructional support includes three dimensions which assessed the promotion of critical thinking and language: concept development, quality of feedback, and language modeling. The independent variable externalizing problems was measured through teacher assessment on a behavioral assessment system for children II. Hoglund et al (2015) controlled for child gender and age in years, colleague support and learner-centered pedagogy.

Hoglund et al (2015) found that aggregate externalizing behaviors co-varied with depersonalization ($r_s = .16-.28$ and $-.14$). Classroom emotional support remained stable whereas instructional support decreased across the term in quality while classroom organization increased (Hoglund et al 2015). Ethnically diverse classrooms predicted significant decreases in overall classroom quality, and in specific instructional support (Hoglund et al 2015). Externalizing

behaviors co-varied with instructional support significantly and negatively ($r_s = -.12$ to $-.30$, $-.11$ to $-.14$, and $-.22$ to $-.30$) (Hoglund et al 2015).

Child adjustment showed that externalizing behaviors predicted significantly poorer teacher-child relationship quality (Effect Size [ES]=.520) at the start of the school term, but had greater increases in relationship quality over the term (ES=.04) (Hoglund et al 2015). Classroom quality predicted significantly lower teacher-child relationship quality (ES=.05) (Hoglund et al 2015). Individual externalizing behaviors varied significantly and negatively over the term with teacher-child relationship quality ($r_s = -.60$ to $-.69$) (Hoglund et al 2015).

To summarize, Hoglund et al (2015) drew from ecological, dynamic systems, and developmental systems theories. Hoglund et al (2015) focused on teacher job-related burnout, classroom quality, and child adjustment in high needs, ethnically diverse schools. Teacher burnout interacted with externalizing behaviors and classroom quality interacted with aggregate and individual externalizing behaviors to predict change in teacher interaction. The limitations presented in Hoglund et al's (2015) study include that some classroom and teacher constructs may have been measurement error due to marginal internal consistencies which may have limited the ability to detect some effects across the constructs. The time of their assessment may have also contributed to an underestimation of the associations between teacher burnout of the associations between teacher associations, classroom, and child constructs.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

The relationship of the variables examined in this study are complex. The present study sought to see how certain stress factors associated with children may be related to teacher's perceptions as well as the amount of time teachers spend interacting with these children. The following section is a discussion of social disorganization and labeling theory. While social

disorganization theory is typically used to explain community and/or neighborhood phenomenon, many of the characteristics of neighborhoods this theoretical perspective examines can also be applied to families. Many of the same factors that produce problematic factors for neighborhoods produce problematic outcomes for children who are from families with similar characteristics (i.e. female headed household, poverty, and exposure to violent crime). Just as communities are likely to have unfavorable outcomes when they rank high on measures of social disorganization, the same can be said for the children these families.

In contemporary neighborhood effects research ecological models, such as social disorganization have been used as a framework for studies of child and adolescent development. According to Kohen et al (2008) neighborhood processes are likely to be transmitted through familial processes that are similar to neighborhood ecological effects. This section briefly reviews the concepts of social disorganization and applies them to familial distress and child behavioral problems. Then labeling theory is reviewed and the model will be applied to the teacher's perceptions of these children and their response to those labels through teacher interaction.

Social Disorganization

Social disorganization theory was originally developed by McKay and Shaw (1942) when they used a variety of structural variables to study juvenile delinquency. Social disorganization theory refers to the inability to realize common values and maintain effective social controls (Makay and Shaw 1942; Sampson and Groves 1989; Kohen et al 2008; Witherspoon and Ennett 2010). The concept is that the structural dimensions can be empirically measured in terms of prevalence and interdependence of the social networks (Sampson and Groves 1989; Kiarrikari 2014). These networks are both formal (i.e. organizational participation)

and informal (i.e. family ties) and result in the collective supervision that is directed towards problems (Sampson and Groves 1989). These networks create control mechanisms that go beyond the physical, demographic, or institutional properties, they are the fundamental qualities of the social environment that are determinates of social outcomes (Brooks-Gunn et al 1997). The interaction of these networks have qualities that both directly and indirectly affect social outcomes by which the content and qualities of the social interaction shape behavior which are referred to as social processes (Brooks-Gunn et al 1997).

The original work of social disorganization included three structural variables poverty, racial heterogeneity, and residential mobility as indicators for high juvenile delinquency rates (Mackay and Shaw 1942; Brown et al 1991; Sampson and Groves 1989; Harriki 2014; Brooks-Gunn et al 1997; Schmallegger 1999; Akers 1997; Kohen et al 2008). According to Akers (1997), the communities that Shaw and Mackay (1942) originally studied had high rates delinquency associated with adult crime. Sampson and Groves (1989) expanded upon the original work by demonstrating that SES alone was significantly related to organizational participation. Sampson and Groves (1989) also demonstrated that family disruption retained significant and substantial direct effects on crime and the associated violent crime victimization rates (Veysay and Messner 1999). These variables were the exogenous factors in social break up within a community's ability to regulate itself through social control (Sampson and Groves 1989; Harrikari 2014). The processes that are broken through these structural barriers include collective efficacy, social cohesion, and social ties (Sampson and Groves 1989; Harrikari 2014)

Collective efficacy is the ability of a community to effectively articulate and realize the common shared values, norms, mutual trust, and the willingness of that community to intervene for the common good (Kohen et al 2008; Witherspoon and Ennett 2011). To realize these

common values, norms, and mutual trust collective efficacy operates through both formal and informal control mechanisms (Hiarrikari 2014). Communities with high rates of crime disrupts the ability to form mutual trust between formal (school) and informal social networks (families). The lack of trust reduces the willingness of the community (both family and school actors) to intervene on behalf of children who have experienced increased occurrence of child victimization that result in behavioral problems.

Social cohesion incorporates networks of exchange and reciprocal obligation that are particularly important for influencing behavior (Whiterspoon and Ennet 2011). It suggests that the interaction of family, neighborhood, and community are played out in multiple settings with multiple actors which moderate deviance through prosocial norms, values, and beliefs (Whiterspoon and Ennett 2011). The density of formal and informal networks within communities where distressed families live affects the degree of collective participation in activities within institutions (Hiarrikari 2014; Sampson and Groves 1989). Low institutional participation affects communal solidarity and its capacity to defend interests is weakened (Harrikari 2014; Sampson and Groves 1989).

Social cohesion is impeded on through familial disruption (female headed households) and high rates of crime. High numbers of female headed households that live in poverty affects a family's ability to supervise children and institutional participation in schools. The inability to supervise children is also related to an increased likelihood of child victimization through crime. These increased risks also disrupt social cohesion in the classroom between teacher and student.

Social ties imply that friends, families, neighbors in informal networks and organizational participation in formal networks are part of a complex system (Brooks-Gunn 1997; Whiterspoon and Ennett 2009). This complex system that roots community members in on going social

processes (Sampson and Groves 1989). However, in a disorganized community the structural barriers impede on the social ties that promote the ability to solve common problems (Sampson and Groves 1989). The weakened social ties in the community due to high rates of crime, female headed households, and poverty affects the ability for families and teachers to solve the common problem of poor academic achievement of children with behavioral problems. The diminished amount of organizational participation negatively affects a community's ability to advocate on behalf of these children in a classroom setting to solve the common problem.

Labeling Theory

The labeling perspective is situated in a larger sociological framework known as symbolic interactionism (Inderbitzin et al 2018). Symbolic interactionism is a micro, relativist perspective that focuses on the meaning individuals attach to objects, people, and interactions around them (Inderbitzin et al 2018). Labeling theory examines the social meaning of "deviant" labels, how they are understood, and how the label affects the groups that they are applied to (Inderbitzin et al 2018). According to the labeling perspective, deviance is a status that is imposed on an individual or a group of individuals that may not be related to crime or actual rule breaking (Inderbitzin et al 2018). Power is a key element where the status of deviance is imposed, those with power are better able to reject a label or to impose a label (Inderbitzin et al 2018). According to Matsueda (1992) labeling is not distributed across the social structure but is more likely applied to the powerless, the disadvantaged, and the poor.

Edwin Lemert (1951) made an important distinction in the labeling process, between primary and secondary deviance. Primary refers to the common instances where individuals break norms without viewing themselves as being involved in a deviant role (Lemert 1951; Inderbitzin et al 2018). In these instances, the act of norm violation is incidental and is not

chronic, however this can serve to trigger the labeling process. Once caught in these acts the person has the potential to move in to secondary deviance which is a means of defense to the reactions of those in power thus, creating a self-fulfilling prophesy (Inderbitzin et al 2018). According to Inderbitzin et al (2018) the labeling process has four key components: primary deviance, the reaction to it, role engulfment, and secondary deviance. Of interest to this study are the first two components, primary deviance and the reaction to it.

Disadvantaged students from families that are impoverished, female headed, and live in communities with violent crime are more susceptible to be labeled by teachers who come into socially disorganized areas. These teachers may hold stereotypical beliefs about low socioeconomic status, and the child's behavior, and the ability of the child to learn. Teachers are in a substantial power differential with their pupils those who do not have neutral beliefs about these children may also have reactions to their behavior. Some of this behavior may be due to the amount of trauma they have experienced living in violent communities. However, the label has a specific meaning that is attached to this group and elicits the potential response of increased or decreased interaction with these children through instructional activities.

SUMMARY AND CRITIQUE OF LITERATURE

Based on the research presented in this review, various themes have emerged regarding teacher interaction with students from families that are female headed, in poverty, live in communities with violent crime, that exhibit behavioral problems. The available research discussed the ecological conditions of families and the surrounding communities. The literature examined poverty, which included both household/ familial poverty and low income that was measured through living below the poverty line. Also, these families attend schools and live in communities that are characterized by violent crime. Research also addressed the effects of this

type of distress on behavioral problems. A theme that emerged included, high rates of internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Research examined teacher beliefs and perceptions about children from low socioeconomic status, common themes include under estimation of intelligence of low socio-economic children and mothers who were less involved due to class related stereotypes. Also, research examined teacher interaction which was related to perceptions of children with more externalizing and internalizing behaviors. Collectively the research indicates that children with high poverty backgrounds that exhibit problem behaviors have fewer positive classroom interactions.

Although limitations were discussed throughout the review of literature there are several more that were evident. The literature demonstrated a strong connection between concentrated poverty (both home and community), violent crime, children's problem behaviors, and academic functioning. However, none of the connections were made to the larger classroom environment that involve teacher perceptions and teacher interaction through individualized instruction. Furthermore, literature showed a strong connection between teachers' beliefs about students from low socio-economic background, but the literature did not include variables such as poverty and crime to demonstrate a possible correlation. Lastly, teacher interaction time with students who exhibited problem behavior was negatively associated but no literature was found that conceptualized the dynamic between female headed households, poverty, crime and teacher perceptions.

This chapter provided a review of the relevant literature in regard to the variables of interest in this study. The next chapter will discuss the methodology of the study in terms of the data set, the hypothesis and the data analysis techniques.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the research methods that were employed in this study. It includes a description of the research design, data source, the measurement of variables, and the type of statistical analysis that was utilized.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is a cross-sectional study that examines the relationship of school aged children from families that are female headed house-holds, in poverty, and that live in areas with violent crime that are exhibiting behavioral problems, and teacher cultural perceptions that may affect the way teachers interact with them. The current data was originally a longitudinal study that followed children from kindergarten to eighth grade but, the current study will rely on data only from one time point which is the fifth-grade interviews with parents, teachers, and administrators. This study included the entire sample from the original data set.

DATA SOURCE AND SAMPLE

The source of data is secondary, the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study [United States]: Kindergarten Class of 1998-1999, Kindergarten-Eighth Grade Full Sample (ECLS-K). It was obtained from the ICPSR. The data source includes kindergarten through eighth grade data collections that can be used in cross-sectional or longitudinal studies or other combinations of years. The original data set focused on children's early school experiences kindergarten through eighth grade. ECLS-K is a nationally representative sample that collected information from children, their families, their teachers, school administrators, and their schools. ECLS-K provides data about family, school, community, and individual variables on children's cognitive, social,

emotional, and physical development which includes their early learning and early performance in school. Information is provided on the children's home environment, educational activities, school environment, classroom environment, classroom curriculum, and teacher qualifications. The original sample included 21,409 children and their cognitive, social, emotional, and physical development.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1- Do teachers interact less in individual reading activities with students from families that are female headed households, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime who have behavioral problems?
- 2- Do teacher perceptions affect the amount of time they spend in individual reading activities with students from families that are female headed households, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime with behavioral problems?

HYPOTHESIS

H1: Teachers will spend less time in individual reading activities with children who exhibit behavioral problems from families that are female headed households, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime in individual reading activities.

H2: Teachers who hold negative beliefs concerning learning capability will interact less with children in teacher directed individual reading activities who exhibit behavioral problems from families that are female headed households, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime.

VARIABLES IN THE STUDY

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in the study is the amount of time the teacher spends directing students in individual reading activities. The dependent variable's level of measurement is interval and is operationalized by the question, "In a typical day how much time do the children spend in teacher directed individual reading activities." The responses were originally coded as (1= no time, 2= half hour or less, 3= about 1 hour, 4= about 2 hours, and 5= 3 or more hours). The responses will be recoded into three categories (0= no time 1= about one hour or less, and 2= about two hours).

Independent Variable

There are five independent variables, female headed households, poverty, violent crime, behavioral problems, and teachers' beliefs. Family structure in the initial survey was a categorical level of measurement which is operationalized by the question, "Types of parents in the household?" responses were coded as (1=biological mother and father, 2=biological mother and other father, 3= other mother and biological father, 4= biological mother only, 5= biological father only, 6= 2 adoptive parents, 7= 1 adopted parent and 1 step parent, 8= related guardians, 9= unrelated guardians). The responses were recoded into (0= biological mother only 1=biological mother and father, 2= all others). Family poverty is a categorical variable that was originally coded (1= below poverty threshold, 2= at or above the poverty threshold) and was recorded as (0= below the poverty threshold, 1= all others). Crime is a categorical level of measurement and is indicated by "How much of a problem is violent crime like drive by shootings in the neighborhood where the school is located? Responses from the school

administrator were coded as (1= big problem, 2= some problem, 3= no problem). It was recoded into (0= big problem, 1= some problem, 2= no problem).

Behavioral problems observed is indicated by the teacher response to “ The level of misbehavior in this school interferes with teaching,” it is a categorical level of measurement and responses were coded as (1= strongly agree, 2= agree 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= disagree, 5= strongly disagree). Teacher beliefs is a categorical level of measurement, “Many of the children that I teach are not capable of learning the material that I am supposed to teach them” and responses are coded were (1= strongly agree, 2= agree 3= neither agree nor disagree, 4= disagree, 5= strongly disagree).

Control Variables

The control variables for the study include the type of teaching certificate, highest level of education, number of years of teaching experience, and classroom size. Previous research has shown teacher interaction and teacher perceptions have associations with whether the teacher is certified, level of educational attainment, number of years teaching experience, and classroom size these variables are being controlled for to rule out covariance (Alvidrez and Weinstein 1999; Dunkake and Schuchart 2015; Dunne and Gazeley 2008; Pas et al 2010; Roorda et al 2013) The measurement level of teacher certificate is categorical, “what is the type of teaching certificate you hold?” Responses were coded as (1= Regular Standard State Certificate, 2= Probationary Certificate, 3= Provisionary Certificate or other type of teaching certificate, 4= Temporary Teaching Certificate, 5= Emergency Teaching Certificate or Wavier). The responses were recoded into a dummy variable (1= Regular Standard State Certificate, 0= all others).” “What is your highest level of education?” responses were coded as (1= High School Diploma, Associates Degree, Bachelor’s Degree, 2= Master’s Degree, and 3= Educational Specialist).

However, they were recoded into two dichotomous variables, (1= High School Diploma, Associates, Bachelor's Degree, 0=all others) and (1=Master's Degree, 0=all others). "How many years have you been a schoolteacher?" is a scale variable. "How many students on average are in your class?" is a scale variable.

TABLE 1. VARIABLES IN STUDY

| <u>Dependent Variable</u> | <u>Operationalization</u> | <u>Coding</u> |
|------------------------------|---|---|
| Teacher Interaction | In a typical day how, much time do the children spend in teacher directed individual reading activities? | 0= no time, 1= about half an hour or less 2= about an hour |
| <u>Independent Variables</u> | | |
| Family Structure | Types of parent in the household? | 0= biological mother only, 1= biological father and mother, 2= all others |
| Family Poverty | Poverty threshold | 0= below the poverty threshold, 1= at or above |
| Violent Crime | How much of a problem is violent crime like drive by shootings in the neighborhood where the school is located? | 0= big problem 1= some problem 2= no problem |
| Behavioral Problems | The level of misbehavior in the school interferes with teaching. | 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neither agree or disagree, 4= disagree, 5= strongly disagree |
| Teacher Perceptions | Many of the children that I teach are not capable of learning the material that I am supposed to teach them. | 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neither agree or disagree, 4= disagree, 5= strongly disagree |
| <u>Control Variables</u> | | |
| Teaching Certificate | What type of teaching certificate do you hold? | 1= regular state certificate, 0= all others |
| Teacher Education | What is your highest level of education? | 1= high school diploma, Associates Degree, Bachelor's Degree, 0= all others; 1= Master's degree, 0= all others; |
| Years of Teaching Experience | How many years have you been a school teacher? | Scale |
| Classroom Size | How many students on average are in your class? | Scale |

TABLE 2. DESCRIPTION OF VARIABLES

| <u>Dependent Variable</u> | <u>Respondent</u> |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Teacher Interaction | Teacher |
| <u>Independent Variables</u> | |
| Family Structure | Parents |
| Family Poverty | Parents |
| Violent Crime | School Administrator |
| Behavioral Problems | Teacher |
| Teacher Beliefs | Teacher |
| <u>Control Variables</u> | |
| Teaching Certificate | Teacher |
| Teacher's Education | Teacher |
| Years of Teaching Experience | Teacher |
| Classroom size | Teacher |

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

Several statistical techniques were employed in this study to provide descriptive, bivariate, and multivariate analyses.

Univariate Analysis

The measure of central tendency used in this study is the mean and frequencies which are the most appropriate for categorical level variables. The mean indicates the arithmetic average of the categories (Sweet and Grace-Martin 2012).

Bivariate Analysis

Concerning bivariate analysis, crosstabulations were utilized. Crosstabulations is the most appropriate for categorical variables, this technique examines all possible combinations of the variable's categories (Sweet and Grace-Martin 2012). Pearson's Chi Square is reported which explains the variation between the sample and the population (Sweet and Grace-Martin

2012). The significance of the chi square statistic determines if the relationship of the observations is by chance (Sweet and Grace-Martin 2012).

Multi-variate Analysis

For the multivariate analysis, logistic regression was used to examine the relationships between the dependent, independent, and control variables. This statistical method is appropriate because the dependent variable's level of measurement is ordered but not continuous (IDRE, 2018). Ordinal logistic regression uses the independent variables to estimate the likelihood of falling into one of the three categories (Sweet and Grace-Martin 2012; IDRE 2018).

Significance Level

Based on previous research, the p-value that that was reported is 0.05. The significance level of 0.05 reveals the likelihood that chance did not cause the pattern in the data (Sweet and Grace-Martin 2012).

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Several limitations for this study exist. First, the study used a secondary data set from the National Center for Educational Statistics the ECLS-K that studied children entering kindergarten in 1998 to their eighth-grade year in 2007. A newer version of the ECLS-K has been released; the older data may affect the generalizability of the study since there have been various educational policy reforms. Also, the cross-sectional design of the study limits the ability to establish a causal relationship between the three independent variables, family distress (female headed households, poverty, and violent crime), behavioral problems, and teacher's perceptions and the dependent variable teacher directed individual reading activities. Another limitation is that poverty and female headed household is based on parental response rather than aggregate data which could skew results. Also, violent crime is perceptive however, it is by a third-party

school administrator rather than aggregate data. Lastly, the dependent variable, “teacher directed individual activities” may have a broader meaning than individualized instruction.

The chapter presented the research design, data set and source, the research questions, the hypotheses, the variables in the study, and the data analysis that was employed for the study. The next chapter will present the findings for the research study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter describes the findings of univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analyses which were used to assess the relationship between individual teacher directed reading activity, problem behavior, female headed households, poverty, violent crime, and teacher perceptions about the child's capability to learn including the relevant control variables.

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS

Table 3 provides an overview of all the variables included in the study including their means and frequencies. Out of the total number of respondents ($n=21,409$) for this study there were ($n=1161$) respondents for the dependent variable teacher directed individual reading activity. The mean response was ($m=1.08$) indicating that (69.1) percent of the teachers spent a half hour or less in teacher directed individual reading activities with a standard deviation of (1.2). According to the responses (11.3) percent spent no time and (19.6) percent of the teachers spent an hour in teacher directed reading activities with their students.

The independent variable familial distress was operationalized through family structure, family poverty, and exposure to violent crime. There were ($n=1289$) families that responded to the type of family structure the mean response was ($m=.947$, $SD=0.545$) indicating that the average family responded that both the biological father and mother lived in the home. Of the respondents (18) percent of the families were female headed, (70) percent indicated that both biological father and mother resided in the home, and (12.3) percent said that the family is structured in another way. Also, the mean response for living below the poverty threshold was ($m=.873$, $SD=.333$), (12.7) percent of these families lived below the poverty threshold and

(87.3) lived at or above the poverty threshold. There were (n=1236) respondents that answered if their communities were affected by violent crime. The mean response was (m=1.9, SD=.33) indicating on average the respondents lived in areas where violent crime was not a big problem. Of the (n=1236) respondents (1.1) percent of these families live in communities where violent crime was a big problem, (7.3) percent lived in a community where violent crime was somewhat of a problem, and (91.6) percent of the families lived in communities where violent crime is no problem. There were (n=1237) teachers that responded to the statement regarding the level of misbehavior that affects teaching within school of these (6.1) percent strongly agreed, (14.8) percent agreed, (12.7) percent neither agreed nor disagreed, (38.9) percent disagreed with the statement, and (27.5) strongly disagreed. The mean response was (m= 3.66, SD= 1.2)) indicating that on average teacher's disagree with the statement. Also, (n=1239) teachers responded to the statement regarding whether they believe the students they teach are incapable of learning the material that they are supposed to teach them. The mean response was (m=3.9, SD=1) indicating that on average the respondents disagreed with the statement, "the children I teach are incapable of learning the material I am supposed to teach them." Of these (2.5) percent strongly agreed with the statement, (9.4) percent agreed, (12.6) percent neither agreed or disagreed, (46.4) percent disagreed, and (29.1) percent strongly disagreed that the children they teach are incapable of learning.

Descriptive statistics were also calculated for the control variables. There were (n=1253) teachers who responded to the type of teaching certificate that they hold the mean response was (m=.86, SD=.347). There were (n=1253) responses and of these (14.0) percent did not hold a teaching certificate, and (86) percent held a standard state teaching certificate. There were (n=1240) teacher respondents that identified their level of education, (m=.20 SD=.40) this

indicates that (20) percent held a high school diploma, Associates, or Bachelors' degree and (47) percent have a Master's degree ($m=.473$, $SD=.499$). Of the ($n=1255$) respondents the average number years of teaching experience ($m=16$, $SD= 10.6$). The average number of students in the class was ($m=21.1$, $SD=5.5$) which was indicated by ($n=1274$) teacher respondents.

TABLE 3. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

| <u>Dependent Variable</u> | <u>Mean</u> | <u>S.D.</u> | <u>N</u> |
|--|-------------|-------------|----------|
| Time in Individual Reading Activities | 1.08 | 1.2 | 1161 |
| <u>Independent Variables</u> | | | |
| Family Structure | 0.947 | 0.545 | 1289 |
| Family Poverty | 0.873 | 0.33 | 1289 |
| Violent Crime | 1.9 | 0.33 | 1236 |
| Behavioral Problems | 3.66 | 1.2 | 1237 |
| Teacher Beliefs | 3.9 | 1 | 1239 |
| <u>Control Variables</u> | | | |
| Teaching Certificate | 0.86 | 0.347 | 1253 |
| Teacher Education | | | |
| High School Diploma, Associates, Bachelors | 0.202 | 0.401 | 1240 |
| Master's Degree | 0.473 | 0.499 | 1240 |
| Years of Teaching Experience | 16 | 10.6 | 1255 |
| Classroom Size | 21.1 | 5.5 | 1274 |

The following two section will discuss results from Bivariate and Multivariate analyses that was used to explore the following research questions:

- 1- Do teachers spend less time in teacher directed individual reading activities with students from families that are female headed, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime who have behavioral problems?

- 2- Do teacher beliefs affect the amount of time they spend in teacher directed individual reading activities with students from families that are female headed, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime with behavioral problems?

BIVARIATE ANALYSIS

Crosstabulations with chi square (see table 4) was utilized to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The first measure discussed is the association between the dependent variable teacher directed individual reading activity and family structure. The relationship was not statistically significant and the calculated chi-square for family structure ($\chi^2=3.13$, $p=.536$). The dependent variable and poverty also did not show a statistically significant association with familial poverty the chi square that was calculated was ($\chi^2= .816$, $p=.665$). Both independent variables, family structure and poverty's interaction with the dependent variable non-significant results are not supportive of either the first nor the second hypothesis.

There was a strong statistically significant relationship between teacher directed individual reading activity and the independent variable violent crime ($\chi^2= 24.2$, $p<.001$). Results revealed those that lived in areas where violent crime is a big problem (8) percent participated in no time, (23) percent in about a half hour or less, and (69) percent participated in about an hour of teacher directed individual reading activities that those who live in areas where violent crime is somewhat of a problem (18) percent received no time, (60) percent about half an hour or less, and (23) percent received about an hour of teacher directed individual reading activities. Also, (11 percent) of children who lived in communities where there was not a problem with violent crime participated in no teacher directed reading activity, (70) percent received a half an hour or less, (19) percent received about an hour of time in teacher directed individual reading activities.

The presented chi square and percentiles indicate that with the increase of violent crime in the community teachers spent more time in teacher directed individual instructional activities with students. These results are not consistent with either hypothesis as they both predicted that teachers would spend less time in these activities with children from families that live in communities with violent crime.

The relationship between misbehavior and teacher directed individual reading activities had a significant association. The chi square that was calculated was ($\chi^2= 25.94$, $p<.01$). The teachers who strongly agreed (19) percent spent no time, (64) percent spent a half hour or less, and (17) percent spent an hour in teacher directed individual reading activities with their students. Of those who said that they agree (38) percent spent no time, (60) percent spent half an hour or less, and (23) percent spent about an hour in teacher directed individual reading activities with their students. Of those who said that they neither agreed nor disagreed, (4.9) percent no time in teacher directed reading activities, (72) percent spent half an hour or less, and (24) percent spent about an hour. Those who disagreed (10) percent spent no time, (69) percent spent half an hour or less, (21) percent spent about an hour in teacher directed individual activities with their students. Those teachers who strongly disagreed that the misbehavior affected their ability to teach (11) percent spent no time, (75) percent spent half an hour or less, and (14) percent spent about an hour in teacher directed individual reading activities with the students. The results are partially supportive of both hypotheses. Those who strongly agreed and agreed had the largest percentiles in spending no time in teacher directed individual activities. Both hypotheses stated that teachers would spend less time with children who had behavioral problems.

There was a statistically significant relationship between teacher's beliefs about children's ability to learn the course material the results from the calculations were ($\chi^2= 15.63$,

$p < .05$). Those who strongly agreed with the statement (15) percent spent no time, (62) percent spent half hour or less, and (23) percent spent about an hour in teacher directed individual reading activities with their students. Of those who agreed that the children they taught were incapable of learning (12) percent spent no time, (67) percent spent a half hour or less, and (20) percent spent about an hour or less in teacher directed individual reading activities with their students. Of the teachers that responded that they neither agreed or disagreed that the children they taught were incapable of learning (8) percent spent no time, (64) percent spent about a half hour or less, and (28) percent spent about an hour in teacher directed individual reading activities. Those who disagreed (13) percent spent no time, (67) percent spent about a half hour, and (19) percent spent about an hour of time in teacher directed individual reading activities. Teachers who strongly disagreed with the statement (8) percent spent no time, (75) percent spent a half hour or less, and (17) percent spent about an hour in teacher directed individual activities. Those who strongly agreed had the largest percentile that spent no time in teacher directed individual reading activities which is supportive of both the first and second hypothesis.

TABLE 4. CROSSTABULATIONS FOR INDEPENDENT VARIABLES BY AMOUNT OF TIME IN TEACHER DIRECTED INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITIES

| <u>Variable</u> | <u>NO TIME</u> | | <u>HALF HOUR</u> | | <u>One Hour</u> | | <u>Chi Square</u> | <u>Sig.</u> |
|--|----------------|----------|------------------|----------|-----------------|----------|-------------------|-------------|
| | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> | <u>n</u> | <u>%</u> | | |
| Family Structure | | | | | | | 3.13 | 0.54 |
| Biological Mother Only | 26 | 14.2 | 80 | 10.7 | 15 | 10.9 | | |
| Biological Father and Mother | 120 | 65.6 | 531 | 71.2 | 93 | 67.9 | | |
| Other | 37 | 20.2 | 135 | 18.1 | 29 | 21.2 | | |
| Familial Poverty | | | | | | | 0.82 | 0.67 |
| At or Above Poverty Threshold | 105 | 11.3 | 654 | 70.2 | 172 | 18.5 | | |
| Below Poverty Threshold | 16 | 11.8 | 90 | 66.7 | 29 | 21.5 | | |
| Violent Crime | | | | | | | 24.2*** | 0 |
| Big Problem | 1 | 8 | 3 | 23 | 9 | 69 | | |
| Some Problem | 13 | 18 | 44 | 60 | 17 | 23 | | |
| No Problem | 110 | 11 | 696 | 70 | 191 | 19 | | |
| Behavioral Problems | | | | | | | 25.94** | 0 |
| Strongly Agree | 13 | 18.8 | 44 | 63.8 | 12 | 17.4 | | |
| Agree | 29 | 16.4 | 107 | 60.5 | 41 | 23.6 | | |
| Neither Agree or Disagree | 7 | 4.9 | 103 | 71.5 | 41 | 23.2 | | |
| Disagree | 42 | 10.2 | 282 | 68.8 | 86 | 21 | | |
| Strongly Disagree | 35 | 10.9 | 241 | 75.3 | 44 | 13.8 | | |
| Teacher's Beliefs/ Learning Capability | | | | | | | 15.63* | 0.05 |
| Strongly Agree | 4 | 15.4 | 16 | 61.5 | 6 | 23.1 | | |
| Agree | 14 | 12.4 | 76 | 67.3 | 23 | 20.4 | | |
| Neither Agree or Disagree | 12 | 8.2 | 93 | 63.7 | 41 | 28.1 | | |
| Disagree | 67 | 13.3 | 339 | 67.4 | 97 | 19.3 | | |
| Strongly Disagree | 28 | 8.4 | 250 | 74.9 | 56 | 16.8 | | |

N=1122

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05: p-values computed for two-tailed significant tests

MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS

A series of ordinal logistic regression models were computed to analyze the impact of the predictor variables (female headed households, poverty, and violent crime, behavioral problems, and teacher's beliefs) as well as the control variables (teaching certificate, number of years of experience, highest level of education, and classroom size) on the dependent variable (amount of time in teacher directed individual reading activity).

The first model (see model 1, table 5) that was analyzed used of the independent variables (family structure, poverty, and violent crime) to evaluate their impact on the dependent variable. The model explained about (2) percent of the variance ($R^2=.02$). The variables in this model indicated that community violence was a predictor variable for the amount of time spent in teacher directed individual reading activities. Families that lived in communities where school administrators perceived that violent crime was a big problem increases the likelihood of falling into less than a half hour to a about an hour of time in teacher directed individual activities. With all other variables being held constant, for school administrators who perceive violent crime as being a big problem the log-odds of being in one of these two (a half hour or less or about an hour) categories increases by ($\beta=2.487$, $p<.001$). Contrary to both hypothesis teachers spent more time in these activities when there was a higher perception of violent crime in the community. The results for family structure and poverty threshold were not significantly associated and support neither hypotheses.

TABLE 5. MODEL 1. LOGISTIC REGRESSION PREDICTING TIME IN
TEACHER DIRECTED INDIVIDUAL READING ACTIVITIES

| <u>Predictor Variables</u> | <u>β</u> | <u>St. Error</u> |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|
| Family Structure | | |
| Biological Mother Only | -0.191 | 0.252 |
| Biological Father and Mother | -0.07 | 0.21 |
| Other Structure | | |
| Poverty | | |
| Below the Poverty Threshold | 0.046 | 0.213 |
| At or Above the Poverty Threshold | | |
| Violent Crime | | |
| Big Problem | 2.487*** | 0.665 |
| Some Problem | 0.048 | 0.283 |
| No Problem | | |
| N= 1002 | | |
| R ² = .02 | | |

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05: p-values computed for two-tailed significant tests.

The second model includes (see model 2, table 6) the predictor variables family structure, poverty and violent crime as well as the teacher perception of misbehavior affecting teaching. The model explained about (4) percent of the variance (R²= .04). The variables in this model indicated that the perception of community violence was a predictor variable for the amount of time spent in teacher directed individual reading activities. School administrators that perceived violent crime was a big problem increased the log-odds of being in one of these categories (half hour to a about an hour of time) by ($\beta=2.564$, p<.001) in teacher directed individual activities with all other variables being held constant. This result is not supportive of the first hypothesis as it was predicted that there would be a negative relationship between teacher directed individual activities and the perception of violent crime being a big problem. Also, teachers who were

neutral (neither agreed nor disagreed) about the behavior in the school affected teaching the log-odds increases the chance by ($\beta = .801, p < .001$). This result is not directly supportive of the first hypothesis but the concept of neutrality indicates partial support. The other independent variables (family structure and poverty threshold) were not significantly associated with the dependent variable which is not supportive of the first hypothesis.

TABLE 6. MODEL 2 LOGISTIC REGRESSION PREDICTING TIME IN TEACHER DIRECTED INDIVIDUAL READING ACTIVITIES

| <u>Predictor Variables</u> | <u>β</u> | <u>St. Error</u> |
|---|---------------------------|------------------|
| Family Structure | | |
| Biological Mother Only | -0.116 | 0.252 |
| Biological Father and Mother (Ref: Other Structure) | -0.052 | 0.338 |
| Poverty | | |
| Below the Poverty Threshold (Ref: At or Above the Poverty Threshold) | 0.129 | 0.219 |
| Violent Crime | | |
| Big Problem | 2.564*** | 0.658 |
| Some Problem (Ref: No Problem) | 0.19 | 0.219 |
| Problem Behavior | | |
| Strongly Agree | -0.154 | 0.338 |
| Agree | 0.213 | 0.227 |
| Neither Agree or Disagree | .801*** | 0.229 |
| Disagree (Ref: Strongly Disagree) | 0.333 | 0.176 |
| N= 965 | | |
| R ² = .04 | | |

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$: p-values computed for two-tailed significant tests

The final model (model 3, see table 7) uses the independent variables (family structure, poverty, violent crime, misbehavior, and teacher's beliefs of the capability of the children to learn the material they teach), as well as the control variables (years of teaching experience, level of education, whether the teacher hold a state teaching certificate, and classroom size) impact on the dependent variable. The model explained about (6) percent of the variance ($R^2 = .06$). The model indicated after controlling for years of teaching experience, class size, level of education, and number of years of teaching experience. That community violence was still a predictor of the amount of time spent in teacher directed individual directed teaching activity. In communities where the school administrator perceived that violent crime is a big problem the log-odds indicate that for an increase in the perception of violent crime the chance of participating in teacher directed individual reading activities increases by ($\beta = 2.64$, $p < .001$). This result is not supportive of the second hypothesis as it was proposed that there would be a negative relationship between teacher directed individual activities and the perception of violent crime being a big problem. Also, teachers who were neutral (neither agreed nor disagreed) with the statement about misbehavior affecting teaching increased the likelihood of the children participating in teacher directed individual activity increased the log-odds by ($\beta = .789$, $p < .01$). This result is not directly supportive of the second hypothesis, but the concept of neutrality indicates partial support.

TABLE 7. MODEL 3. LOGISTIC REGRESSION PREDICTING TIME IN TEACHER DIRECTED INDIVIDUAL READING ACTIVITIES

| <u>Predictor Variables</u> | <u>B</u> | <u>St. Error</u> |
|---|----------|-------------------|
| Family Structure | | |
| Biological Mother Only | | -0.16 0.262 |
| Biological Father and Mother (Ref: Other Structure) | | -0.019 0.221 |
| Poverty | | |
| Below the Poverty Threshold (Ref: At or Above the Poverty Threshold) | | 0.128 0.228 |
| Violent Crime | | |
| Big Problem | 2.64*** | 0.697 |
| Some Problem (Ref: No Problem) | | -0.129 0.303 |
| Problem Behavior | | |
| Strongly Agree | | -0.159 0.553 |
| Agree | | 0.217 0.244 |
| Neither Agree or Disagree | .789** | 0.247 |
| Disagree (Ref: Strongly Disagree) | | 0.324 0.189 |
| Teacher Beliefs | | |
| Strongly Agree | | 0.516 0.512 |
| Agree | | -0.322 0.304 |
| Neither Agree or Disagree | | 0.034 0.254 |
| Disagree (Ref: Strongly Disagree) | | -0.188 0.177 |
| Teacher Certificate | | -0.364 0.239 |
| Teacher Education | | |
| High school Diploma, Associates, Bachelor's Degree | | 0.339 0.218 |
| Master's Degree | .343* | 0.166 |
| Years Teaching Experience | | 0.001 0.008 |
| Classroom Size | .029* | 0.014 |

N= 938

R²= .06

***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05: p-values computed for two-tailed significant tests

R1: There is a significant positive statistical association between violent crime and the amount of time spent in teacher directed individual reading activities in all three models.

R2: There is a significant positive statistical association between the amount of time spent in teacher directed individual activity and teachers who responded neutrally (neither agree or disagree) to the statement the level of misbehavior in the school affect my ability to teach in the second and third models.

This chapter presented the results of univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analyses and the associated tables. The next chapter will discuss the results and associated conclusions.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The under achievement in schools of children who are from families that are female headed, in poverty, and exposed to criminal violence has been well documented. Research has found strong association between familial distress and both internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Also, children from these backgrounds that have developed externalizing and internalizing behavioral problems have been shown to score lower in reading than children who are not experiencing these stressors. Other research has shown that teacher's carry bias and class related stereotypes about children with behavioral problems from low socioeconomic status and in turn have perceptions about these children's intelligence and capability to learn the material being taught. These factors have also been shown to affect the amount of time and type of interaction that teachers have with these children. This study sought to investigate the relationship between teacher directed individual reading activities with children from families that are female headed, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime who exhibit behavioral problems. It also sought to examine whether teacher perceptions of a child from a distressed family who exhibit behavioral problems ability to learn effect the amount of time that a teacher spends engaging in teacher directed individual reading activity.

Using data from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study [United States]: Kindergarten Class of 1998-1999, Kindergarten-Eighth Grade Full Sample the present study was guided by two research questions. These included: Do teachers spend less time in teacher directed individual reading activities with students from families that are female headed, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime who have behavioral problems? Do teachers' beliefs

affect the amount of time they spend in teacher directed individual reading activities with students from families that are female headed, in poverty, and live in communities with violent crime that exhibit behavioral problems? Previous research that has investigated the interaction of familial distress (female headed households, poverty, and exposure community violent crime) and in school child behavior have used ecological models to guide their research. Social disorganization theory helps to guide the relationship of both formal (school) and informal networks (familial distress) and how these structural dimensions affect social outcomes (behavior). The original work of Mackay and Shaw (1942) used one of the variables of interest to this study, poverty which was found to affect behavior. Later, Sampson and Groves (1989) expanded the theory and found family disruption was associated with violent crime and high victimization rates, they also found that SES alone was a predictor of child and adolescent behavior. These variables break the social processes known as collective efficacy, social cohesion, and social ties (Sampson and Groves 1989; Harrikari 2014).

The integral part of these social processes is used in this study to help guide the understanding of the behavioral outcomes of these children. Collective efficacy is the ability of institutions to intervene for the common good of the child who live within these structural dimensions. It is closely related to social cohesion which incorporates the networks of social exchange that happen within the school environment between teachers who teach in low income areas with high incidence of crime and children who experience structural barriers associated with familial distress. When social ties are disrupted within these networks of social exchange between, family, school teachers, and child the structural barriers impede on the ability to solve the common problem poor reading outcomes.

However, social disorganization is a macro-level theory that explains the interactions of formal and informal networks of exchange and social outcomes. This study sought to further explain the micro level dimensions that happen through these social processes between children from distressed families and their teachers. In order to do this a second theory was used to guide the micro-level processes between teacher and child. Labeling theory which is a symbolic interactionist and relativist perspective helps to guide the understanding of how teachers attach meaning to objects and people and the social interactions around them. It explains why teachers may hold biased and stereotypical beliefs about children with behavioral problems from distressed families. The labeling process that is triggered through the child's status and the associated behavioral process which is a norm violation. The reaction to this norm violation triggers the labeling process and future social interaction with these children.

The univariate analyses indicated that (69) percent of teachers spent a half hour or less in teacher directed individual reading activities. Also, (6.1) percent of the teacher respondents strongly agreed that the level of misbehavior at the school affected the ability to teach, (14.8) percent agreed, (12.7) percent neither agreed nor disagreed, (38.9) percent disagreed, and (27.5) percent strongly disagreed. On average teacher's disagreed that the children they taught were incapable of learning the material they teach ($m=3.9$, $SD=1$). There were (2.5) percent of the respondents who strongly agreed, (9.4) percent agreed, (12.6) percent neither agreed nor disagreed, and (29.1) percent strongly disagreed. The findings for bivariate analyses indicated several statistically significant associations. Crosstabulations yielded that there is a strong association between violent crime and teacher directed individual reading activity ($\chi^2= 24.2$, $p<.001$). Also, there was a statistical association between level of misbehavior affecting teaching and the amount of time in teacher directed individual reading activity ($\chi^2= 25.94$, $p<.01$).

Teacher beliefs about whether the children they teach are capable of learning was also statistically significant ($\chi^2= 15.63, p<.05$). Although there was an association between perception of violent crime and teacher directed individual reading activity, the results did not support either hypotheses due to the positive association. The teachers actually spent more time in individual reading activities with the increase of violent crime. Consistent with labeling theory teachers who perceived that the misbehavior in the school affected their ability to teach spent less time in teacher directed individual reading activities. Those teachers' who were neutral spent more time in these activities. The association between the belief of the children's capability to learn the material they are taught and teacher directed individual activities revealed that the highest percentage (74.9) of teachers who spent half an hour or less were those who strongly disagreed with the statement. The largest percentage (28.1) of teachers that spent about an hour in teacher directed individual activity were those who responded neutrally (neither agreed or disagreed). The findings do not support either hypotheses but support the concept of reaction to labels in labeling theory- indicating that those who responded neutrally or strongly disagreed with biased statements were more frequently willing to spend more time in individual reading activities.

The results for multivariate analysis statistical significance varied. All three models indicated that neither family structure nor living below the poverty line were significant predictors for the amount of time spent in the classroom in teacher directed individual reading activities. This is not consistent with social disorganization theory concept of formal and informal networks that create interdependent structural dimensions produce negative social outcomes. Sampson and Groves (1989) demonstrated that low socioeconomic status alone was a significant predictor of behavior. Also, Sampson and Groves (1989) indicated that family disruption was significantly associated with crime and high victimization rates. However, two of

the three variables used to measure familial distress were not predictors of teacher reaction through teacher directed individual reading activity contrary to labeling theory as well. Previous literature has demonstrated a significant association between interaction time, parental structure and poverty. In all three models there was a significant association between violent crime being a big problem and the amount of time teachers spend in the classroom with children in teacher directed individual reading activity. However, the strength of the relationship varied slightly in each model. The first model yielded the lowest log-odds ($\beta=2.487$, $p<.001$), the likelihood of the relationship happening by chance is very low. This is partially supportive of both social disorganization theory and labeling theory. Families that live below the poverty threshold are more frequently exposed to violent crime and high levels of victimization according to social disorganization theory. Also, the reaction of the teacher is associated with labeling but contrary to both hypotheses, the teachers were more likely to spend around half an hour to an hour in these activities as compared to students who live in areas with little to no crime. Literature has actually shown that this phenomenon of interaction can go either way- in particular the labeling of students from low socio-economic status with behavioral problems having a need for additional classroom support (Auwater and Arugette 2008).

The second model for multivariate analysis included the indicators for familial distress and problem behavior. As mentioned previously neither family structure nor poverty were indicators for the amount of time spent in teacher directed individual reading activities. The strength of the relationship between violent crime and teacher directed individual reading activity increased slightly in this model ($\beta=2.564$, $p<.001$) and the likelihood of the relationship being by chance is very low. There was a statistically significant relationship of child behavior affecting teaching, the more neutral the response the more likely the teacher's engaged with

students in a half hour to an hour of individual instructional activity ($\beta = .801, p < .001$). The results of neutrality about child behavior affecting teaching is supportive of labeling theory. A teacher who does not stereotype or show bias through neutrality would affect the reaction of the teacher positively. This is partially supportive of both hypotheses.

The third model included all of the predictor variables: female headed households, poverty, and violent crime exposure, problem behavior, teacher beliefs. It also included all the control variables: teaching certificate, teacher education, years of teaching experience, and classroom size. The strength in the relationship increased between violent crime and teacher directed individual reading activities ($\beta = 2.64, p < .001$) and the relationship has a low likelihood of being by chance. However, the relationship was positive and with the increase in crime there is an increase in time spent in teacher directed individual reading activity, which does not support either hypotheses. However, this may support labeling theory because it may be perceived by teachers that children who live in areas with violent crime need additional academic support. The reaction to this perception maybe that within the classroom more time is spent in teacher directed individual reading activities. Although it is difficult to say as the study proposed that teacher directed individual reading activities was time spent between the teacher and student in individual instruction but, the survey question is ambiguous. Due to the ambiguity of the survey question it leaves room for broad interpretation. Teacher perception of misbehavior yielded statistically significant results. The more neutral a teacher is (neither agreeing nor disagreeing) the more likely they are to spend more time in teacher directed individual reading activity ($\beta = .789, p < .01$). However, the strength of the relationship decreased once adding the control variables and the final independent variable, 'teacher perception of the children's

capability of learning the material they are required to teach.’ The likelihood of the relationship being by chance also slightly increased.

Additional findings from the final model revealed that the perception of crime being a ‘big problem,’ ‘misbehavior affecting teaching,’ and the control variables’ resulted in these two independent variables remaining indicators for the amount of time spent in ‘teacher directed individual reading activities.’ Specifically controlling for ‘classroom size’ and ‘teacher education’ indicated that these two independent variables remain significant predictors of time spent in these activities.

The multivariate findings indicated that female headed households and poverty associated with social disorganization were not good predictors of teacher directed individual reading activities. Although violent crime was a good indicator variable. It is unclear whether this is fully supportive of labeling theory as the dependent variable is ambiguous and does not indicate if these activities are a positive or negative reaction to children who live in areas with violent crime. The results should be interpreted with care. However, there are different types of stereotypes that are related to a child’s ability. If the label includes the need for additional classroom supports, then the finding would support labeling theory (Alvidrez and Weinstein 1999; Auwarter and Arugette 2008). It remains unclear why family structure and poverty did not yield significant results because one could argue that these are highly related to high crime areas, it may be due to attrition because of both housing instability and residential mobility which is supported by social disorganization theory. It should be noted that when all of these variables were included for analyses (60) percent of the sample population was lost which may have affected the findings. Although the findings about teacher perceptions do not fully support either hypotheses it is noted that neutrality increased the log-odds of having children participate

in teacher directed individual activities. This concept is partially supportive of labeling theory indicating that when teachers are not biased the strength of the relationship in the independent and dependent variable increases.

In conclusion, the major findings of this study revealed that perceptions of crime, behavior, and a child's ability to learn are associated with the amount of time spent in teacher directed individual reading activities through bivariate analyses. Also, through multivariate analyses findings indicated that areas that are perceived to have a 'big problem' with crime and teacher perception of child's behavior affecting their ability to teach are significant predictors of the amount of time spent in teacher directed individual reading activities. The concepts presented through social disorganization theory of female headed households and poverty were not indicators to affect child behavior or the labeling process. However, crime was an indicator of potential labeling and the reaction. Teacher perception of child behavior was partially supportive of labeling theory indicating that the more neutral the response the more likely teachers are to spend in these activities.

Additional research is required that examines the effects of teacher perceptions of children from female-headed households, who live in poverty and communities with violent crime, behavioral problems, and how teachers interact with them. Due to the loss of (60) percent of the sample during analysis the results should be interpreted carefully. Also, the ambiguity of the variable "teacher directed individual reading activities" leaves the question is this a positive or negative reaction. This study proposed it to be a positive reaction with more individualized instruction but it could mean less individualized instruction, more classroom instruction while students work independently. The relationship between these variables must further be explored to better understand how teachers can be positively supported in the classroom environment

while teaching this population of at-risk children. Additional research should be conducted where the interpretations of these activities can be more clearly interpreted.

The findings from this study implicate that there is a need for a better understanding of the association to direct positive policy change. However, specialized training for teachers that teach in areas with high crime rates in order to provide an adequate amount of individual instruction in reading is paramount for at risk youth. Also, training programs and classroom supports that emphasize neutrality are important for increasing the amount of time spent in these activities.

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