

The Effects Of Teacher Ideology On Student Performance As Related To Poverty And Ethnicity

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THE EFFECTS OF TEACHER IDEOLOGY ON STUDENT PERFORMANCE
AS RELATED TO POVERTY AND ETHNICITY

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the Department of Educational Research, Technology, and Leadership
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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to explore the impact of teacher ideology on student performance. A definition of teacher ideology was drawn from the pupil control ideology, PCI, created by Willower, Eidell and Hoy (1967). Research concerned with teacher ideology has suggested that there is a definite difference between the custodial ideology and the humanistic ideology (Gaffney, 1997). In particular, the custodial teacher views rules and regulations as a priority, while the humanistic teacher views the student as the priority.

Factors which influenced student achievement, such as socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and behavior in relation to how teacher ideology affects student performance were investigated. More specifically, the researcher investigated whether teacher ideology had any effect on student achievement of the entire student body, on student achievement of economically disadvantaged students, and on student achievement of non-white students. In addition to achievement, the effect of teacher ideology on student behavior was also investigated.

A slightly positive relationship was found between teacher ideology as indicated by the PCI score, and the percentage of students making learning gains. This learning gain was evident in mathematics scores for all students, economically disadvantaged students, and non-white students. A learning gain was only evident among non-white students in reading.

The results demonstrated the need for professional development on teacher ideology and its effects. This study has also indicated the need for further research into

the effects of teacher ideology on classroom management and teaching styles. The researcher determined that due to a limited number of responses, further research is needed.

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CHAPTER 1 THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARIFYING COMPONENTS

Introduction

Willower, Eidell and Hoy coined the phrase, pupil control ideology, in 1967. It has been described as “the amounts of control teachers assume they should exercise to manage students” (Malow-Iroff, O'Connor, & Bisland, 2004, p. 3). The pupil control ideology that a teacher exhibits shapes the dynamics of his/her classroom. This pupil control ideology creates the foundation for which instructional delivery, classroom management and student discipline is constructed. In addition to setting the tone for the classroom, pupil control ideology may also have an effect on student performance, specifically in terms of student achievement. It is this dynamic, along with the attributes of each individual child, socioeconomic status, and ethnicity, which sets the stage for whether that student will be successful.

Statement of Problem

There is a plethora of research that supports the notion that teacher attitude towards students' impacts student performance (Lunenburg & Mankowsky, 2000). Yet teachers seem to disregard that research and overlook the influence their behavior has on their students. To date, there is little research concerning the effects of teacher ideology on student performance in terms of achievement and behavior. This study analyzed teacher ideology as defined by Willower, Eidell, and Hoy (1967) with the pupil control ideology in relation to high school student performance on the FCAT and student

behavior. This study serves to further improve teacher awareness toward the impact of their own behavior toward their students. Such awareness toward students should improve student performance.

Significance of the Study

This study focused on teacher pupil control ideology and the impact of such on student performance. The pupil control ideology survey was utilized to analyze the tendency of teacher pupil control ideology and related behaviors toward their students and the resulting student performance. The findings of this study will serve to increase awareness about teacher to student interactions, provide educational opportunities on better personnel recruitment and management, and provide a basis from which professional development can be geared toward increasing student and overall school performance. Principals may be interested in the findings of this study in order to be proactive in monitoring teacher ideology and treatment of students and the impact of teacher ideology on school culture and climate. District level personnel may utilize these findings to create professional development concerned with teaching students from poverty as well as different ethnicities. Teacher education programs could also find this research useful to incorporate into the curriculum for new teachers entering the profession. Finally, the results of this study will both add to the body of knowledge, and serve as a foundation for further research on the impact of teacher ideology on student performance.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze whether teacher pupil control ideology had any relationship to student performance. Teacher pupil control ideology was delineated into Custodial and Humanistic categories (Hoy, W. K. (2005-2009). Performance was delineated into student academic achievement and student behavior. The effect of teachers' pupil control ideology was further examined regarding students living in poverty and ethnicity.

Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Variables

The study was guided by the following research questions which led to the following hypotheses:

1. Which is the most prominent teacher-learner ideology, custodial or humanistic, represented among teachers at the high school level?

H₀: There will be more teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic.

2. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and student performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic. The dependent variables are FCAT reading and mathematics scores.

3. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of economically disadvantaged students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and economically disadvantaged students performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic.

The dependent variables are economically disadvantaged students FCAT reading and mathematics scores.

4. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of non-white students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and non-white students' performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic.

The dependent variable is non-white student performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

5. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology in managing student behavior, as determined by the number of discipline referrals?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the number of discipline referrals written.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic.

The dependent variable is number of discipline referrals written.

Definition of Terms/Abbreviations

Custodial refers to one end of a continuum derived from the pupil control ideology. Educators having a relatively custodial pupil control ideology can be expected to be distrustful of students and hold views that favor rigid controls including authoritarian rule administration, coercive sanctions based on external control of students, and teacher domination of the classroom (Lunenburg, 1990a, p. 5-6).

Discipline Referral refers to the form that is utilized to document when a student has been involved in a situation that exceeded class or school rules and expectations. "In the field of child development, discipline refers to methods of modeling character and of teaching self-control and acceptable behavior" (Reference.com, n.d.).

School discipline refers to regulation of children and the maintenance of order ("rules") in schools. These rules may, for example, define the expected standards of clothing, timekeeping, social behavior and work ethic. The term may also be applied to the punishment that is the consequence of transgression of the code of behavior. For this reason the usage of school discipline sometimes means the administration of punishment, rather than behaving within the school rules. (Reference.com, n.d.)

Economically Disadvantaged is defined by the Florida Department of Education as: “such families or individuals who are determined to be low income according to the latest available data from the Department of Commerce (PL 101-392, the Carl D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act Amendments of 1990)” (Florida Department of Education, n.d.).

FCAT is the acronym for:

The Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT) is part of Florida’s overall plan to increase student achievement by implementing higher standards. The FCAT, administered to students in Grades 3-11, consists of criterion-referenced tests (CRT) in mathematics, reading, science, and writing, which measure student progress toward meeting the Sunshine State Standards (SSS) benchmarks. (Florida Department of Education, 2010)

FERPA is the acronym for:

The Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) (20 U.S.C. § 1232g; 34 CFR Part 99) is a Federal law that protects the privacy of student education records. The law applies to all schools that receive funds under an applicable program of the U.S. Department of Education. (*FERPA* [Policy], n.d.)

Free/Reduced Lunch (FRL) is defined by the Florida Department of Education as:

The National School Lunch Program, established in 1946 under the National School Lunch Act, provides free and reduced-price lunches to schoolchildren from economically disadvantaged families. The program operates in all 50 states and the District of Columbia, as well as in Guam, Puerto Rico, the U.S. Virgin Islands, and Department of Defense schools. Each year, the United States Department of Agriculture (www.fns.usda.gov) publishes income guidelines for program eligibility that factor household income and size in relation to federal poverty guidelines. In 2009-10, for instance, a student from a four-person household in Florida with annual household income less than \$28,665 is eligible for free lunches. (Florida Department of Education, n.d.)

Grade Point Average (GPA) is defined by the Florida Department of Education as the:

numeric value (with an implied decimal point) of the student's cumulative grade point average calculated on an unweighted 4.0 scale. This grade point average is calculated as specified in Section 1003.437, F.S., by assigning quality points of "A" = 4, "B" = 3, "C" = 2, "D" = 1, "F" = 0, and "Incomplete" = 0 to the letter grades displayed on the automated permanent record. (Florida Department of Education, n.d.)

High School is described to be:

. . . any three- to six-year secondary school serving students about 14–18 years of age. Four-year schools are by far the most common; their grade levels are designated freshman (9th grade), sophomore (10th), junior (11th), and senior (12th). Comprehensive high schools offer both general academic courses and specialized commercial, trade, and technical subjects. Most U.S. high schools are tuition-free, supported by state funds. (Reference.com, n.d.)

Humanistic refers to the one end of a continuum, opposite from custodial, derived from the pupil control ideology. Teachers with a humanistic approach "hold more permissive, student-centered attitudes and flexible application of rules. These educators are inclined to opt for less severe action when students misbehave, which is more consistent with encouraging self-discipline" (Lunenburg, 1990a, p. 6).

Ideology: "The term was coined in 1796 by the French writer Antoine-Louis-Claude, Comte Destutt de Tracy (b. 1754—d. 1836), as a label for his "science of ideas." (Reference.com, n.d.).

Learning gain is defined by the Florida Department of Education by monitoring the following criteria. In essence, a learning gain is whenever a student improves their test score from one year to the next.

Since FCAT reading and mathematics exams are given in grades 3-10, it is possible to monitor how much student learn from one year to the next. Student can demonstrate learning gains in any one of three ways: improve achievement levels from 1-2, 2-3, 3-4, or 4-5; or maintain within the relatively high levels of 3, 4, or 5; or demonstrate more than one year's growth within achievement levels 1 or 2 (does not include retained students). (Florida Department of Education, n.d.)

Non-White Students is the term used throughout this research to include all students that are not of the Caucasian race.

Positive Behavior Support (PBS) has been described by Sugai and Homer (2006), as “the integration of valued outcomes, behavioral and biomedical science, empirically validated procedures, and systems change to enhance quality of life and minimize or prevent problem behaviors” (p. 246).

Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) was coined by Willower, Eidell and Hoy in 1973 and has been described as “the amounts of control teachers assume they should exercise to manage students” (Malow-Iroff, et al., 2004, p. 3). From this definition, a survey was created by Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, which they called the pupil control ideology or PCI.

Socioeconomic Status (SES) is the

combined measure of an individual's or family's economic and social position relative to others, based on income, education, and occupation analyzing a family's SES, the mother's and father's education and occupation are examined, as well as combined income, versus with an individual, when their own attributes are assessed. Socioeconomic status is typically broken into three categories, high SES, middle SES, and low SES to describe the three areas a family or an individual may fall into. When placing a family or individual into one of these categories, all variables are assessed. (Reference.com, n.d.)

Self-Fulfilling Prophecy (SFP) is the term created by Robert K. Merton in 1948.

The SFP has been described with the following steps:

One: The teacher forms expectations. Two: Based upon these expectations, the teacher acts in a differential manner. Three: The teacher's treatment tells each student . . . what behavior and what achievement the teacher expects. Four: If this treatment is consistent, it will tend to shape the student's behavior and achievement. Five: With time, the student's behavior and achievement will

conform more and more closely to that expected of him or her (Tauber, 1998, p. 4).

Methodology

To conduct this study, a Florida public high school was selected for participation. The teachers at this high school were given a 20-question survey entitled: pupil control ideology (PCI) created by Willower, Eidell and Hoy in 1973 (Hoy, 2005, 2009). This survey provided a single variable on a continuous scale. Additionally, data from this Florida public high were obtained. These data were reviewed for demographics, percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch, as well as the number of referrals that teachers wrote for the 2008-09 school year. Additionally, student FCAT scores for the 2009 administration of the test were obtained.

The design of this research was to compare the teachers' scores from the PCI with several factors. First, the teachers' pupil control ideology scores were compared to see how many teachers were custodial and how many were humanistic in ideology. This was looked at through the use of descriptive statistics. Second, the teacher pupil control ideology score was compared to the students' performance on the FCAT. Third, the teacher pupil control ideology was compared to economically disadvantaged students' performance on the FCAT. Fourth, the teacher pupil control ideology score was compared to student ethnicity and performance on the FCAT. Finally, the teacher pupil control ideology score was compared to the number of referrals written by that teacher. For Research Questions 2-5, this was achieved through the use of the independent t-test. This information is represented in Table 1.

Table 1
Methodology for Research Questions

Research Question	Variables Tested	Methodology
1. Which is the most prominent teacher-learner ideology, Custodial or Humanistic, represented among teachers at the high school level?	The independent variable is either Custodial or Humanistic.	The teachers' ideology scores were compared. This was looked at through the use of descriptive statistics.
2. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a Custodial ideology versus a Humanistic ideology and the achievement of students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?	The independent variable is either Custodial or Humanistic. The dependent variables are FCAT reading and mathematics scores.	The teacher ideology score was compared to student performance on the FCAT through the use of the independent t-test.
3. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a Custodial ideology versus a Humanistic ideology and the achievement of economically disadvantaged students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?	The independent variable is either Custodial or Humanistic. The dependent variables are economically disadvantaged students FCAT reading and mathematics scores.	The teacher ideology was compared to economically disadvantaged students' performance on the FCAT through the use of the independent t-test.
4. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a Custodial ideology versus a Humanistic ideology and the achievement of non-White students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?	The independent variable is either Custodial or Humanistic. The dependent variables are the non-White students FCAT reading and mathematics scores.	The teacher ideology score was compared to non-White students' performance on the FCAT through the use of the independent t-test.
5. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a Custodial ideology versus a Humanistic ideology in managing student behavior, as determined by the number of discipline referrals?	The independent variable is either Custodial or Humanistic. The dependent variable is number of discipline referrals written.	The teacher ideology score was compared to the number of referrals that teacher wrote through the use of the independent t-test.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to the population from which the sample was drawn.

Since the sample was a public high school within Seminole County, Florida, that

population was the only one to which the conclusions could be realistically generalized. his study further relied upon the responses of the teachers working at this school and the data surrounding the students who attended this high school. Another delimitation of this study was that the level of the referral offense was purposely not examined. This could be a topic for further investigation.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations were applied to this study:

1. The validity of the study was dependent on the respondents' accuracy in answering the survey.
2. Internal and external validity were limited to the reliability of the instrument used with the population of the study.
3. The researcher conducting the study was an administrator at the school in which the survey was administered. This may have intimidated potential respondents and/or swayed survey responses.
4. A severe limitation to this study is the sample size. Student records were protected by FERPA. This law restricted access to student information, thus restricting the size of this sample.
5. The organization, processing and submission of discipline referrals was subjective in nature.

Theoretical Framework

The foundation for this research stemmed from the work of Jean Piaget on how perception is formed. In 1969, Piaget and Inhelder wrote *The Psychology of the Child*. In this work, the authors traced the origin of perception from infancy through the teenage years in human development.

During infancy, perception is initially entirely in the optic arena. Throughout the first year of life, perception improves in two ways: Constancy of size and constancy of form (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969).

Constancy of size refers to the maintenance of perception of the real size of an object viewed from a distance, regardless of its appearance shrinking. Constancy of form is the perception of the habitual form of an object, regardless of its perspective presentation. (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, p. 30)

Piaget and Inhelder continued by describing an example of constancy of form. They found that, as an infant, perception is based on recognition of something familiar. Piaget and Inhelder depicted an example of handing infants a bottle backwards. If the infants could see part of the red nipple, which was further away from them, they could determine the need to turn the bottle around. If they could not see the red nipple, they were not familiar with the object that was being handed to them. In this case, the infants did not know to turn the bottle around because they did not perceive the object as a bottle without the frame of reference of the red nipple (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969).

The constancy of size begins around six months of age. The example given by Piaget and Inhelder revolved around different sized boxes. Piaget and Inhelder described the process by saying that “once the child has been trained to choose the larger of two boxes, he continues to choose correctly if you move the larger box farther away” (Piaget

& Inhelder, 1969, p. 31). This example demonstrated that infants were able to distinguish depth perception once they understood the concept of size.

As humans reach the age of four and above, it becomes much easier to perform laboratory experiments to test perception (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). “Perceptual activities develop with age both in number and in quality. A child of nine or ten makes use of references and directions (perceptual coordinates) that are overlooked at five or six” (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, p. 35). Furthermore, the authors explained that perception is further developed “with age until they are able to obey the directives of the intelligence” (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, p. 43).

At this point, Piaget’s theory on perception began to coincide with intelligence. Piaget and Inhelder (1969) described an experiment where between ages seven and 10, humans improved their perception of being able to select the appropriate sized rod. Once the concept became clear to the child, they were able to select the correct sized rod. The researchers explained, however, that adults consistently selected the wrong sized rod. Piaget and Inhelder (1969) stated that “perception deteriorates, whereas the concept develops – proof in itself that the concept is not simply derived from the perception. Indeed, in this realm perception provides only instant impressions” (p. 45).

Piaget and Inhelder provided the groundwork for understanding perception, its origination, and its connection to intelligence. Generally speaking, it is therefore impossible to maintain that the concepts of thoughtful intelligence come from abstract and generalized perceptions. Piaget and Inhelder (1969) explained:

intelligent thought are simply derived from the perceptions through abstraction and generalization . . . It seems obvious, therefore, that operations, or intelligence

in general, do not derive from the perceptual systems. Even if in the preoperatory forms of thought there are intermediate states that resemble the perceptual forms, there is still a fundamental duality of orientation between the irreversibility of perceptual adaptations to specific situations and the reversible constructions . . . (pp. 49-50)

Piaget followed his study of perception with information describing child development, specifically as the child's brain develops. Subsequent to perception, Piaget and Inhelder (1969) discussed "concrete operations of thought and interpersonal relations" (p. 92). "Concrete operations provide a transition between schemes of action and the general logical structures involving both a combinatorial system and a 'group' structure coordinating the two possible forms of reversibility" (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, p. 100). Concrete operations evolved into causality. Causality is referred to as "the relation between a cause and its effect or between regularly correlated events or phenomena" (Merriam-Webster, nd). "Causality becomes objectified and spatialized: that is, the subject becomes able to recognize not only the causes situated in his own actions but also in various objects, and the causal relationships between two objects or their actions . . ." (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, p. 19)

These advanced stages of child psychological development served as links between the work of Piaget and this study.

Representative intelligence begins with the child's systematic concentration on his own action and on the momentary figurative aspects of the segments of reality with which this action deals. Later it arrives at a decentering based on the general coordination of action, and this permits the formation of operatory systems of transformations and constants or conservations which liberate the representation of reality from its deceptive figurative appearances. (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, p. 128)

The idea of perceptual distortions grew out of these foundations. “Truly objective perceptions rarely occur; rather, most perception is subjective and hence suffers from inaccuracies and distortions” (Gordon, 1996, p. 34). Several perceptual distortions that can occur are stereotyping, the halo effect, projection, and the self-fulfilling prophecy. Piaget’s research on perception has provided the background knowledge as to how perception is developed. Piaget and Inhelder (1969) also provided understanding of the link between perception and intelligence. As a young child, perception is typically the first, or only, frame of reference to draw information. As young children mature and become adults, they can depend on intelligence rather than perception for understanding situations.

Summary

The foundation of this theoretical framework has provided a relationship between perception and intelligence. It is this connection that alludes to teachers’ pupil control ideology, and how teachers’ perception of students can affect student performance. A review of the theoretical framework related to this study revealed that there was a need for more research on how teacher pupil control ideology relates to student performance in terms of achievement and behavior. It was anticipated that this research would provide insight and better understanding of how teacher pupil control ideology impacts the performance across all students, students from poverty, and by ethnicity. This research was initiated to provide a better understanding of how teachers’ pupil control ideology determines their reactions to behavior problems in the classroom.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature and research was reviewed for the present study to provide foundational and background information in regard to the significant areas of this study. To that end, the researcher has first presented the connection between Piaget's work on perception, linking it to intelligence. The subsequent sections of the chapter were organized to address literature and research related to each of the research questions that were used to guide the study.

Teacher Pupil Control Ideology:

Its Foundations and Relationship to Student Achievement

Piaget laid the groundwork for child developmental psychology (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). Through his work with child development, Piaget was able to provide explanations for how perception is formed in the human mind. Through extensive experiments with children of various ages, Piaget was able to discern that "perception provides only instant impressions corresponding to a given viewing point" (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, p. 45). Many of the words associated with perception derive from the visual world. This is likely because vision is the one of the first "sensori-motor" functions available to an infant (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, p. 3).

Mental development during the first eight months of life is particularly important, for it is during this time that the child constructs all the cognitive substructures that will serve as a point of departure for his later perceptive and intellectual development . . . (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969, p. 3)

Perception leads to causality which is the act of being able to form associations between a cause and an effect (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). Causality gives way to distortion or “a lack of proportionality in an image resulting from defects in the optical system” (Merriam-Webster, nd). There are several different types of distortions. For purposes of this research, the following will be explored: (a) stereotyping, (b) the halo effect, (c) projection, and (d) the self-fulfilling prophecy.

The first distortion, stereotyping, “occurs whenever we assume others have certain characteristics or attitudes simply because they belong to a certain group or category” (Gordon, 1996, p. 34). It is thought that stereotyping occurs because of a lack of information. This lack of information is what leads to assumptions being made. An assumption, by definition, is “assuming that something is true; a fact or statement (as a proposition, axiom, postulate, or notion) taken for granted” (Merriam-Webster, nd).

Another distortion to consider is the halo effect (Gordon, 1996). “The halo effect occurs when an individual lets one salient feature or trait of a person dominate his or her evaluation of that individual” (Gordon, 1996, p. 35). Gordon provided several examples of the halo effect. A superior may view an employee more positively because of working over time. Another example is based on attractiveness. Two female employees with identical performance may be judged differently based on one’s being more attractive than the other (Gordon, 1996).

An additional perceptual distortion that exists is projection. “Projection occurs when an individual attributes his or her own attitudes or feelings to another person” (Gordon, 1996, p. 35). Projection is often used as a “defense mechanism, to transfer

blame to another person, or to provide protection from their own unacceptable feelings Projection involves an emotional biasing of perceptions. Fear, hatred, uncertainty, anger, love, deceit, or distrust may influence an individual's perceptions" (Gordon, 1996, pp. 35-36).

These examples of the halo effect and projection lend themselves to becoming self-fulfilling prophecies. Researchers have shown that teachers create perceptions of their students prior to actually knowing how them as students. Teachers can form opinions of students based on "such characteristics as body build, gender, race, ethnicity, given name and/or surname, attractiveness, dialect and socioeconomic level, among others" (Tauber, 1998, p. 4). These opinions can, and often do, affect the expectations that teachers hold for students. "The existence of a teacher expectation for a particular student's performance increases the probability that the student's performance will move in the direction expected, and not in the opposite direction" (Brophy, 1983, p. 633).

Additional knowledge for this research was drawn from the work of Merton in 1948. Merton developed the Self Fulfilling Prophecy (SFP) (Tauber, 1998). The SFP was detailed by Tauber (1998) in five steps:

One: The teacher forms expectations. Two: Based upon these expectations, the teacher acts in a differential manner. Three: The teacher's treatment tells each student . . . what behavior and what achievement the teacher expects. Four: If this treatment is consistent, it will tend to shape the student's behavior and achievement. Five: With time, the student's behavior and achievement will conform more and more closely to that expected of him or her. (p. 4)

Brophy explained that there were varying opinions on how true the SFP really was in becoming a student's reality. There was support, however, for the SFP's effect on student achievement, even if only 5 to 10% (Brophy, 1983). "Expectations can function

as self-fulfilling prophecies . . . only when they involve sustained, systematic over- or underestimates of students' actual achievement potential" (Brophy, 1983, p. 636).

These perceptions can be based on "gender, ethnicity, social class, stereotypes, diagnostic labels, physical attractiveness, language style, the age of the student, personality and social skills, the relationship between teacher and student background, names, other siblings, and one-parent background" (Rubie-Davies, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2006, p. 430). "Research on teacher expectations . . . has indicated that expectations for academic performance are lower for students from low SES backgrounds and that lower teacher expectations are generally associated with less frequent, less positive, and less stimulating teacher behavior toward students" (Solomon, Battistich, & Hom, 1996, p. 4). Interestingly, Rumberger and Palardy (2005) found that "after controlling for the effects of school policies and practices (namely teacher expectations and the academic climate), the socioeconomic composition had no significant impact on student learning" (p. 2021). This is evidence to support the importance of teacher perceptions.

While it may not seem professional for a teacher to formulate opinions on students before ever getting to know them, "most teacher perceptions of students are accurate and based on the best available information . . . school records (especially test scores) and on what they hear about students from other teachers . . ." (Brophy, 1983, p. 636). If, once teachers have become acquainted with students, they adjust their perceptions, ultimately no harm is done. It is dangerous, however, when teachers allow this initial perception to taint their actions and tone with that student. Researchers have shown that teacher perception alone can inhibit a child from succeeding. "Sustaining

expectation effects occur when teachers expect students to continue to act or perform according to previously established patterns and may disregard contradictory evidence of change” (Rubie-Davies et al., 2006, p. 430).

The first research of this kind was conducted in 1968. *Pygmalion in the Classroom* (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968) was written after Rosenthal and Jacobson conducted their now famous experiment. This research has been summarized well by Hoge (1979):

The hypothesis developed in that book was that a teacher’s expectations for a pupil’s achievement function as a self fulfilling prophecy. In other words, if a teacher expects high achievement from a pupil, the teacher will treat the pupil in such a way as to insure high achievement. If, on the other hand, the teacher thinks that a child has little potential for achievement, the teacher will interact with the child in such a way as to promote low achievement. . . . In telling the teacher that certain children had high potential, Rosenthal was attempting to induce an expectation in the teacher. Actually the information given the teacher was false in the sense that the children identified as having high potential had been selected at random . . . The effects were not particularly strong, and they tended to become weaker as grade level increased, but, in general, children identified as having high potential showed greater gains than those not so identified. (Hoge, 1979, pp. 4-5)

In summary, there are three stages to this phenomenon: “(1) teachers develop expectations for students’ future achievements, (2) they treat students differently according to these expectations, and (3) this differential treatment influences the achievement of the students . . . ” (Al-Fadhi & Singh, 2006, p. 53).

A parallel to the Pygmalion Effect is the Self Fulfilling Prophecy (SFP). Wagar (1963), in describing the SFP, stated that “the ultimate function of a prophecy is not to tell the future, but to make it” (p. 66) and Tauber (1998) further added, “. . . then each time teachers size up or size down a student they are, in effect, influencing this student’s

future behavior and achievement” (p. 3). The effect of this teacher perception can be seen throughout the student’s academic career. They start acting in a way to prove that teacher right. This becomes the habit for that child educationally. “Teachers’ expectations for students, whether high or low, can become a self-fulfilling prophecy. That is, students tend to give to teachers as much or as little as teachers expect of them” (Lumsden, 1997, ¶ 6). On the positive side of this situation,

there is . . . evidence that when students are placed higher, they rise to the challenge, for example, when students were placed in higher level mathematics courses than they were qualified to be in on the basis of their scores, they performed better than comparable students in lower level classes. (Weinstein, Gregory & Strambler, 2004, p. 513)

This fabricated perception can have a lasting effect. “Teacher expectancy research has identified ways in which teachers treat high and low expectation students differently that may account for the expectancy-confirming impact of teacher expectations” (Hughes, Dyer, Luo, & Kwok, 2009, p. 183). When the teacher’s perception is positive, the student reaps the benefits. “Scholars all indicate that discriminatory practices by school personnel can have serious implications on students’ performance and achievement in school” (Thomas, Caldwell, Faison, & Jackson, 2009, p. 426). Unfortunately, when a teacher has a negative or low expectation for a student, it can mold the child into a low achieving student (Lumsden, 1997).

Interestingly, studies have shown “that students are highly aware of their teachers’ expectations” (Bae, Holloway, Li & Bempechat, 2007, p. 211).

It is implied that teachers form expectations that some students will not do well and that negative expectancy also causes or is associated with poor performance and intellectual decline. It is further asserted that this expectancy is related to the teacher’s behavior toward the student. (West, 1974, p. 2)

Perhaps this is due in part to the interactions that occur between the teacher and the varying achievement level of the students in the class.

. . . compared to low achievers high achievers tend to be more attentive to lessons and engaged in tasks, more likely to volunteer to answer questions or offer comments, more likely to respond correctly when called on and to complete independent work assignments without help . . . Lows, in contrast, present their teachers with fewer opportunities to call on them or to reinforce them for academic success, and they force their teachers to criticize or discipline them more often for off-task behavior or disruption. (Brophy, 1983, p. 637)

The SFP theory, in conjunction with research on how poverty effects education, provides another dynamic for the present study. “Children living in poverty have fewer resources, increased health problems, more psychological difficulties, and greater obstacles that hinder their education” (Hebert, 2002, p. 127). “Students from low SES backgrounds are: twice as likely to under-perform in literacy and numeracy; more likely to have negative attitudes to school, truant, be suspended or expelled and leave school early” (Black, in press, pp. 2-3). It is the combination of teacher perceptions, which can become student reality, and the struggles attributed to living in poverty, that leads to this research.

One of the benefits of being a teacher is the allowance of professional autonomy within his/her own classroom. This allows a teacher to infuse some of his/her own personality, personal beliefs and qualities into managing his/her classroom. A professional term for this is “control ideology.” “Control ideology is defined as the amounts of control teachers assume they should exercise to manage students” (Malow-Iroff, et al., 2004, p. 3). Bodine, Olivarez, & Ponticell (2000) found that “individual

control orientation can affect teacher-student interpersonal communication and classroom relationships” (p. 4).

In 1973, Willower, Eidell and Hoy coined the phrase, pupil control ideology, and created a 20-question survey, titling it Form PCI (Akhter, n.d.; Cadavid & Lunenburg, 1991; Denig, 1996; Griepenstroh & Miskel, 1976; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). The possible scores on the PCI “range from 0 to 100, with most actual scores falling between 45 and 65. Low scores are associated with a relatively humanistic ideology about students, while high scores are associated with a custodial ideology” (Killian & McIntyre, 1986, p. 4). The Form PCI has been widely used, as evidenced by the preceding list of sources and, as such, has been tested for validity and reliability. “Willower, Eidell and Hoy (1967) reported split-half reliability coefficients corrected by the Spearman-Brown prophesy formula, for the PCI form of .95 (N = 170) and .91 (N = 55)” (Gaffney, 1997, p. 9; Cadavid & Lunenburg, 1991; Killian & McIntyre, 1986; Lunenburg, 1990b). A teacher’s pupil control ideology may fall anywhere on the continuum from custodial to humanistic (Gaffney, 1997; Harris, Halpin, & Halpin, 1985; Schmidt, 1992).

The PCI is a self-report form that sorts teachers into two groups – custodial and humanistic. The custodial teacher is authoritarian, directs student’s behaviors and expects orders to be obeyed without question. The humanitarian teacher is authoritative, seeks positive relations, and exhibits trust and mutual respect for their students. (Malow-Iroff, et al., 2004, p. 3)

Teachers with a custodial orientation “view the school as an autocratic organization . . . (where) rigid control of students is the central concern” (Gaffney, 1997, p. 9). “In schools where the custodial ideology predominates, students are not participants in the decision-making process; priorities are rigid control and maintenance

of order” (Killian & McIntyre, 1986, p. 4). Custodial teachers also believe that “power and communication flow unilaterally and downward, and students are expected to accept the decisions of teachers without question” (Gaffney, 1997, p. 9; Denig, 1996; Ferguson & Miskel, 1973). Additionally, custodial teachers tend to stereotype their students based on “appearance, behavior and parents’ social status” (Lunenburg, 1990a, p. 2).

Custodial educators strive to maintain a high degree of order among pupils. These educators are impersonal and aloof in their relationships with students and are stringent and unyielding in dealing with them. Threats and punitive sanctions are used as means of control. Custodial educators manifest suspicion and distrust of pupils, often addressing them in an unpleasant or angry manner. These educators react personally and judgmentally toward students who misbehave. (Lunenburg, 1990a, p. 4)

Teachers with a custodial view are also “characterized as low in frustration tolerance, easily upset and annoyed, exacting in character, responsible, planful, conventional, rule bound, overwrought, moody, and low in self-concept” (Harris et al., 1985, p. 347). “In brief, impersonality, pessimism, and watchful mistrust pervade the atmosphere of the custodial school” (Lunenburg & Mankowsky, 2000, p. 8). Several researchers mentioned that “student alienation has been found to be higher in schools where the teachers in general have a more custodial orientation” (Denig, 1996, p. 3).

On the other end of this spectrum are the humanistic teachers. Humanistic tendencies have been attributed as desirable personal features in our society (Willower, 1974). “Schools in which the humanistic ideology predominates tend to have a strong sense of community; students’ cooperation and interaction are essential” (Killian & McIntyre, 1986, p. 4). Additionally, humanistic teachers are known for “stressing the importance of the individuality of each student and the creation of a climate to meet a

wide range of student needs” (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990, p. 84). These teachers attempt to create relationships with students based on mutual respect. They tend to have a patient, congenial approach with students (Akhter, n.d.; Lunenburg, 1990b; Lunenburg & Mankowski, 2000; Schmidt, 1992).

The humanistic teacher is optimistic that, through close personal relationships with pupils and the positive aspects of friendship and respect, student self-discipline will be substituted for strict teacher control . . . tend to desire a democratic classroom atmosphere with its attendant flexibility in status and rules, open channels of two-way communication, sensitivity to others, and increased student self-determination. (Gaffney, 1997, p. 9)

In general, humanistic teachers “show more favorable attitudes toward and greater use of classroom practices recommended in an innovative curricular program” (Willower, 1974, p. 4).

Researchers have provided several factors that affect a teachers’ pupil control ideology. They have indicated that the amount of student contact tends to determine where one lies on the custodial-humanistic continuum (Longo, 1972, ¶8). In addition to student contact, the grade level and length of time teaching have also been reported to have an effect on a teachers’ ideology (Killian & McIntyre, 1986). “High school teachers tend to be more custodial than elementary” (Denig, 1996, p. 5). And finally, school location (urban, suburban, or rural) also plays a part in whether a teacher is custodial or humanistic (Williamson & Campbell, n.d.). Williamson & Campbell stated that

student teachers in suburban schools were more custodial at the conclusion of their student teaching experience than they were at the beginning of the experience . . . another significant finding was that student teachers in the inner-city schools were significantly more custodial before student teaching than were student teachers in suburban schools after student teaching. (p. 3)

Although there was no mention of teacher gender in most studies, several researchers did find that “female student teachers consistently scored more humanistically than their male counterparts” (Griepenstroh & Miskel, 1976, p. 5).

Packard also found that “teachers tend to become more custodial in their pupil control ideology from the time prior to student teaching to the end of their second year of teaching” (1971, p. 13; Denig, 1996; Killian & McIntyre, 1986; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). These findings emphasized the fact that teachers tend to be more custodial with increased student contact and in inner city schools. Another study conducted by Packard found that “teachers have been shown to be more custodial in their orientation to pupils than are principals or counselors, and secondary school personnel have been shown to be more custodial in ideology than their elementary school counterparts” (Packard, 1971, p. 11; Longo, 1971; Willower, 1974; Yuskiewicz & Donaldson, 1972). Interestingly, Willower also cited a Canadian study that “found that parents were more custodial in PCI than teachers” (Willower, 1974, p. 4). As a final example of a group that leans toward custodial, Longo reported that “yet another example of educators who are removed from the actual classroom situation reflecting a less custodial orientation . . . college teachers tend to express more humanistic pupil control attitudes” (1972, ¶15).

Packard offered explanations as to why secondary teachers would be more custodial. First he said that “pupil control problems at the secondary level tend to be more threatening” (1971, p. 35-36). Killian and McIntyre described this threat as including “size and maturity of students, the greater diversity of subcultures” (1986, p. 14). Packard’s(1971) second suggestion had to do with “proximity to the battle. Those

closest to the pupils, teachers, espouse more custodial ideologies than those removed from the action, principals and counselors” (p. 36). Another possibility to explain this is concerned with teacher socialization. In 1968, Hoy, one of the creators of the Form PCI, stated “teacher socialization results in the eventual adoption of a less humanistic pupil control orientation” (Gaffney, 1997, p. 22).

Past research brought up some interesting points regarding teacher pupil control ideology. To summarize the above mentioned trends, it appears that those professionals who have the closest contact with students and those with longevity in their career tend to be more custodial. This leaves room for future research to explain why this may be accurate. Additionally, “the PCI form is seen as being both time and place bound. Thus, socioeconomic changes over time are likely to be reflected in changes in the distribution of PCI Form scores” (Gaffney, 1997, p. 12). This too could account for discrepancies and should be understood while researching. This section addressed information related to research question one. The next section continues to address the research questions by exploring research question number two, and how it relates to the study.

Student Achievement and Pupil Control Ideology

Student performance is dependent upon many factors. “There are differences in academic achievement among students of various socio-economic backgrounds, genders, and so forth” (Mertens & Flowers, 2003, p. 33). For the purposes of this study, student achievement has been viewed in relation to pupil control ideology, socioeconomic status, and ethnicity.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA) was revised in 2001, under President George W. Bush, and called No Child Left Behind Act (NCLBA) (United States Government Accountability Office, 2009). NCLBA sought to strengthen the accountability requirements federally for education.

Specifically, NCLBA's accountability provisions require states to develop education plans that establish academic standards and performance goals for schools to meet AYP (Adequate Yearly Progress) and lead to 100 percent of their students being proficient in reading, mathematics, and science by 2014 . . . Under NCLBA, schools' assessment data generally must be disaggregated to assess progress toward state proficiency targets for students in certain designated groups, including low-income students, minority students, students with disabilities, and those with limited English proficiency. (United States Government Accountability Office, 2009, p. 4)

The State of Florida has, in alliance with NCLBA, provided specific guidelines for meeting AYP. The Florida State assessment tool that was created for this purpose is known as the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT). This "is the primary measure of students' achievement of the Sunshine State Standards. Students scores are classified into five achievement levels, with 1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest" (Florida Department of Education, n.d., p. 3). These parameters are described in terms of learning gains.

Students can demonstrate learning gains in any one of three ways: (1) Improve achievement levels from 1-2, 2-3, 3-4, or 4-5; (2) Maintain within the relatively high levels of 3, 4, or 5; (3) Demonstrate more than one year's growth within achievement levels 1 or 2 (does not include retained students). Special attention is given to the reading and mathematics gains of students in the lowest 25% in levels 1, 2, or 3 in each school. Schools earn one point for each percent of the lowest performing students who make learning gains in reading and mathematics from the previous year. It takes at least 50% to make "adequate progress" for this group. If a school has less than 50% of this group making gains, schools can still make "adequate progress" for the group if they demonstrate improvement over the prior year. (Florida Department of Education, n.d., p. 3)

Complicating the actual source of individual student achievement has been the notion that there is a cumulative affect that teacher efficacy has on student performance (Prince, Koppich, Morse Azar, Bhatt & Witham, n.d.). “Estimates of teacher effect revealed that highly effective teachers tended to be effective with all groups of students regardless of initial achievement level, while highly ineffective teachers produced unsatisfactory gains among all groups of students” (Prince, et al., n.d.). Sanders and Rivers (1996) found that “students benefiting from regular yearly assignment to more effective teachers (even by chance) have an extreme advantage in terms of attaining higher levels of achievement” (p. 7). This groundbreaking research was the impetus for the idea that a culmination of all a student’s teachers had an affect student performance.

In addition to focusing on learning gains to gauge student performance, research supports the importance of high achievement. High achievement is defined as a level of performance that is higher than one would expect for students of the same age, grade, or experience . . . proficiency is demonstrated by successfully mastering content (instructional) material beyond what is considered to be grade-level curriculum. (Burney & Beilke, 2008, p. 176)

While educational systems may not have plentiful funds, and they cannot change the living environment of their students attending them, there are several strategies that can be incorporated to improve student achievement. Researchers have suggested that “partnerships between schools, families and communities strongly and positively affect student achievement” (Dorfman & Fisher, 2002, p. 8). “The opponents of desegregation argue that allowing students to attend schools in their home neighborhoods will allow parents to be more actively involved in their children’s education, thus enhancing student achievement” (Hartigan, Jabaily, Kay, & Nelson, 2000, p. 14). Students whose parents have been actively involved in the educational process are given the sense that education

is important. “Involvement at home, especially parents discussing school activities and helping children plan their programs, has the strongest impact on academic achievement” (DePlanty, Coulter-Kern, & Duchane, 2007, p. 361). “Interaction analyses suggest that the involvement of parents with low socioeconomic status may be more effective than that of parents with high socioeconomic status” (Domina, 2005, p. 233). More importantly than the perceived value of education has been the actual time spent helping with homework and communicating with teachers. “Attending parent-teacher conferences, and PTA meetings, volunteering both in and out of the classroom, and checking homework are all positively associated with subsequent scores on achievement tests” (Domina, 2005, p. 240). This lets students know that parents are holding their children responsible for their education.

Another strongly correlated strategy for improving the achievement of students of poverty is to “provide higher-quality early childhood care so that low-income children are not parked before televisions while their parents are working” (Rothstein, 2008, p. 12). School districts that have been able to offer this service to their students have provided that essential first step in the educational ladder for students of poverty. Without this step, these students of poverty enter the public education system so far behind other more advantaged students that they rarely ever catch up.

The first two strategies mentioned are still outside the realm of the classroom. From inside each classroom, every teacher has the ability to reach students. This can, in some cases, have life altering effects on the achievement of students from poverty. One repeatedly successful strategy for making a positive impact on students has been in

providing a mentor. While this strategy has not been successful with all students, it is students from poverty who are often times most in need of such a relationship. Merriam-Webster defined a mentor as “a trusted counsel or guide.” A mentor is a teacher that makes a point of getting to know a particular student, forming a professional relationship with, and providing a source of accountability to that student, which is typically absent from the home environment. The mentor will meet frequently with the student, assess grades and homework, provide tutoring if necessary, listen when appropriate, encourage when needed and congratulate whenever possible. This relationship can make the difference between success and failure for students from poverty (Burney & Beilke, 2008; Hebert, 2002).

The final strategies accumulated from the literature review are classroom-based techniques. While these strategies happen at the classroom level, they must be required and supported by the school’s administration. “Sustainable good practice has to happen on a whole-school basis: reforms not integrated into the school culture will fail” (Black, in press, p. 5). These strategies are effective teaching styles that enrich achievement for all students, the first of which involves relevancy. Best practices in education say that when a subject is made relevant to students, they are able to learn and use the information in the real world (Roth, 2008). When students can see a use for information that is given to them, that information is more likely to be retained. One common trend in education is to provide career and technical classes within the curriculum (Blassingame, 2000). This avenue of coursework supplies students with the motivation needed to continue with school and provides skills they can use upon graduation.

The use of critical thinking connects to relevancy by taking these learned skills and being able to solve real world problems (Black, in press). Teachers of every subject have the capability of requiring students to think critically. It is this type of teaching that requires a student to synthesize the information, connect with past experiences and provide an answer that they can support. This particular skill has been lacking among recent high school graduates entering the work force. Perhaps being able to think critically is the ultimate test of student achievement and educational success.

Another effective strategy for improving the achievement of low performing students has been to increase the attendance of low SES students in upper level classes (Weiler, 1998). In addition, establishing a teaching schedule so that the teachers who teach the upper level classes are also teach lower level classes has been proven to be effective at increasing achievement in students from poverty. This gives students that particularly need high quality teaching exposure to those teachers. An additional bonus is that low achieving students can experience the pressure that comes from a high quality teacher to perform (Black, in press; *USA Today*, 2006). In combination with student contact with a high quality teacher, it has also been found that “minority students in integrated classrooms participate more when wait time is longer, this improves their performance relative to whites and changes teacher expectations” (Ferguson, 2003, p. 484). Race is mentioned as opposed to SES. Rubie-Davies et al. (2006) attempted to clarify why race has been mentioned more frequently than SES.

Many researchers claim that it is less ethnicity and more social class that influences teachers’ expectations . . . but since a large portion of the African-American students attend school in the poorest areas, teachers’ expectations for those students may inevitably be connected to their social class and so whether or

not it is ethnicity of social class (or both) that influences teachers is difficult to unravel. (Rubie-Davies et al., 2006, p. 431)

This leads to the final, and perhaps most important, strategy that teachers can employ in their classrooms, that of holding high expectations for all students (Lumsden, 1997; Rist, 1996). “Teachers and schools must hold high expectations and provide the extra study support, summer programs, caring staff, and college tours that will allow those students from economic disadvantage to gain familiarity and proficiency needed in the culture of success” (Burney & Beilke, 2008, p. 185).

Civil rights leaders have come to believe that integrating schools is less important than providing adequate resources and setting high standards for all students and schools . . . According to Jencks and Mayer (1990), students with high achievement and motivation levels can help create a “culture of success” in school, while students with low achievement and motivation levels can create a sense of deprivation and despair. This schoolwide culture can have a negative effect on otherwise high-achieving students in low-achieving (generally poorer) schools because it means that the schools are organized around lower expectations and less challenging curriculum. (Rumberger & Palardy, 2005, pp. 2000, 2007)

“The effects of teacher expectations have been well examined in education literature . . . what is typically unaccounted for is the effect that teacher expectations have on the cognitive antecedents of academic performance” (Tyler & Boelter, 2008, p. 27). High expectations can lead to high achievement (Tyler & Boelter, 2008).

Teachers at all levels should accept nothing but the most that the student can give on every assignment. By relaxing on the quality of work accepted, teachers perform the greatest disservice to their students and lower their work ethic (Lumsden, 1997). McKinney et al. (2008) mentioned a study by McDermott and Rothenberg (2000) that triangulated data and was able, therefore, to summarize the effective strategies to improve student achievement quite nicely.

They concluded that (a) building trusting relationships with both students and families, (b) communicating frequently with families, (c) demonstrating high expectations, and (d) integrating students' cultural knowledge throughout the curriculum were the characteristics and practices identified as essential for teacher and student success. (McKinney et al., 2008, p. 72)

“Poverty may be the current reality of many of these children’s lives, but it need not be the final determinant of their futures . . . while one may be poor economically, they can be rich in spirit and effort” (Jacobson, Brooks, Giles, Johnson, & Ylimaki, 2007, pp. 310-311). It is evident that there is a need to impress upon teachers the importance and the effects of their expectations. The repercussions of lowered expectations can dramatically affect students for the rest of their lives. Further information is also needed to supply teachers with avenues to not only improve, but to continually raise their expectations of their students. For, it is this ever-lifting ceiling of expectations that can really allow a student to grow. This section has provided a review of the literature and research related to Research Question 2 which was concerned with teachers’ ideologies as they impacts student achievement. The following section continues to address the research questions by exploring socioeconomic status as it relates to student achievement and teachers’ pupil control ideologies.

Socioeconomic Status: Relationship to Student Achievement and Pupil Control Ideology

Poverty refers to “one’s relative standing in regards to income, level of education, employment, health, and access to resources” (Burney & Beilke, 2008, p. 173). There are two types of poverty: generational and situational. “Generational poverty is defined as being in poverty for two generations or longer. Situational poverty involves a shorter

time and is caused by circumstances, i.e. death, illness, divorce” (Payne, 1996). Another way to examine poverty is through looking at “hardship“ which has been explained as “the degree to which families experienced financial problems and budget shortfalls . . . (which) closely embody the central concern of poverty policy--the degree to which families are able to meet their basic needs” (Bauman, 2008, p. 3).

Poverty is colorblind. “No racial or ethnic group is immune from poverty, nor do they experience poverty in universal ways” (Burney & Beilke, 2008, p. 175). According to the 2005 Census, the poverty level for a single parent with two children was \$15,219 (Burney & Beilke, 2008, p. 173). It has been estimated that between 20 and 25% of students live below the poverty level (Obiakor, 1992). As an act of assistance, the government created the Free and Reduced Price Lunch program, which allows that “children whose families have an income of 130% or less of the Federal poverty guideline can receive free meals at school, and those whose families have incomes from 131%-185% of the poverty guideline are eligible for reduced-price meals” (Burney & Beilke, 2008, p. 173).

For clarification purposes, it is important to mention that oftentimes, ethnicity and decreased socioeconomic status tend to go hand in hand. “African-Americans and Hispanics were three times as likely to be poor as non-Hispanic Whites in 2001” (Castro Atwater, n.d., p. 246). That being said, many of the early research articles discussed poverty and ethnicity, specifically in conjunction with African Americans.

There are several strongly supported reasons why poverty has been positively correlated with low achievement. One of the first studies regarding poverty and student

achievement was what has come to be called “the Coleman Report.” Titled “Equality of Educational Opportunity”, the Coleman Report was a massive 737-page document that “reached the unsettling conclusion that school might not be society’s great equalizer after all” (Viadero, 2006, ¶2). The Coleman Report noted that black students started school behind white students, and, basically, never caught up (Viadero, 2006). The most significant finding that came from the Coleman Report “was that it changed the perspective to concentrating on student performance, and that has endured” (Viadero, 2006, ¶16). In 2001, Abbott and Joireman linked the incongruence between poverty and high achievement. They stated “low income explains a much larger percentage of the variance in academic achievement than ethnicity” (p. 13). Further research has made a comparison of the grossly negative effects that poverty can have on intellectual development. Monastersky (2008) cited a physician’s study in which it was suggested that poverty does more damage to a child’s brain than drug use.

Another “correlate of poverty that impedes a school’s ability to successfully address student achievement is a high transiency rate” (Jacobson et al., 2007, p. 293). While examining school climate, Sellstrom and Bremberg (2006) concluded that “pupils from high SES schools perform better than pupils from low SES schools” (¶ 19). Whelan and Teddlie (1989) conducted a study and found that “SES influences expectations which in turn influence attributions of responsibility, which in turn influence achievement” (p. 4).

It has been found that “a student must have the opportunity and background preparation to do well, which is often absent in low income households” (Burney &

Beilke, 2008, p. 178). “Education plays a key role in providing equality of opportunity to individuals” (Hartigan et al., 2000, p. 7). Equitable education has been defined as:

providing the opportunity to achieve for all; commitment through allocation of sufficient resources; participation, representation and advancement of diverse students groups; accessibility and sensitivity to student needs, and establishment and adherence of policies and procedures for equitable distribution and utilization of resources. (Maddahian, 2004, p. 1)

Burney and Beilke also cited several sources that support that “few children from high-poverty schools get the education needed in their early years that would prepare them for the advanced curriculum they will need for college preparation” (Burney & Beilke, 2008, p. 179).

In a study by Rothstein entitled *Who's Problem is Poverty?*, the author described the following reasons why children from low-income families are at an initial disadvantage. Because children in poverty tend not to have health care insurance, they tend to be sick more often. This leads to increased absenteeism and a difficult time catching up on missed instruction. Parents in poverty are more likely to be working when the child is home from school. Not only does this allow for less attention for the child from the parent, this also decreases time spent working on homework or simply reading to the child. Alongside that, families in poverty usually do not have the abundance of reading material in the home that are found in the homes of middle-class income families. This lack of exposure to literature leads to a smaller vocabulary (Rothstein, 2008).

Parents in poverty typically have had less education. This may imply to the child that education is not important in that family (Kahlenberg, 2006). Because of the lower level of education, the parents in poverty usually find lower paying jobs and tend to be

laid off more frequently. Loss of employment increases the stress felt within the household. A lower family income lends itself to low income housing, which tends to be located in an environment that does not provide the best scenarios for role models (Burney & Beilke, 2008; Monastersky, 2008; Rothstein, 2008; Southern Education Foundation, 2007).

The communities where low income families live, and therefore send their children to school, often times result in a school that is considered low-performing. This tendency is due to the fact that “racial segregation is strongly related to socioeconomic segregation” (Rumberger & Palardy, 2005, p. 2001). “Schools have very little control over the demographics of their student populations, . . . income levels of student families is still the predominant influence on student achievement” (Mertens & Flowers, 2003, p. 42). The historical solution to this problem of segregated schools has been busing. “The rationale behind busing has been described as ‘the promotion of educational equality’, and ‘the provision of interracial contact” (Chandler, 1997, p. 5). Busing resulted in “the focus of change moved from the emotionally charged issues of race and equity to less sensitive issues of good education and school improvement” (Rust, 1988, p. 2).

Interestingly, since desegregation began in the 1950s, and reached its peak during the 1970s and 80s, there has been a trend toward segregation in schools. This is due in part to the “1991 Supreme Court decision: *Board of Education of Oklahoma v. Dowell*, 1991” (Rumberger & Palardy, 2005, p. 2022). This segregation movement can be attributed to community schools (Kahlenberg, 2006; Kohn, 1996). The reason for this is that schools have tended to reflect the neighborhoods and communities in which they are

situated (Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2001; Hartigan, et al., 2000). “Racial isolation, reinforced by socioeconomic isolation, defines the political geography of the contemporary United States” (Rist, 1996, p. 32).

The teachers within these schools have not only faced the challenges of educating children from poverty. The school, itself, may not have received funds necessary to buy adequate materials, refurbish buildings, or attract and retain high quality teachers to overcome low performance (Black, in press). These burdens increase the work load on the teacher, which in turn decrease the amount of creativity used in creating lesson plans. Researchers have supported that “having an effective teacher in every classroom should be first priority for high-poverty schools and is critical for improving urban schooling” (McKinney et al., 2008, p. 71). Unfortunately, it has also been found that “schools with a higher minority and low-income student population are less likely to offer rigorous curricula and Advanced Placement courses” (Burney & Beilke, 2008, p. 178-9). Solomon, Battistich & Hom (1996) stated that students who attend high poverty schools tend to:

receive language arts instruction that relies more on basal readers and textbooks and less on literature and trade books; do less creative writing; do less silent reading and more reading aloud in turn; receive less emphasis on analytic concepts in mathematics instruction through problem-solving, word problems, or work on mathematical reasoning; and experience less frequent use of cooperative learning for both reading and mathematics. Data from these studies also show teachers in high poverty schools to be relatively frustrated and dispirited, dissatisfied with their schools, administrators and colleagues, and to feel that they have little influence on school policy. (p. 4)

There have been several studies that have linked socioeconomic status with teacher pupil control ideology. In these studies, it was found that “teachers in low

socioeconomic status (SES) elementary schools were more custodial in teacher pupil control ideology than those in middle or high SES schools, while another indicated that the lower the SES of the community, the more custodial the teacher pupil control ideology of the high school faculty” (Willower, 1974, p. 5). In another study, Packard (1971) found that “Gossen ranked elementary schools by socio-economic status . . . and found that pupil control ideologies of teachers in low SES schools were more custodial” (p. 26). Malow-Iroff et al. (2004) provided a possible explanation as to why this may be accurate. “Pupil control is negatively correlated with SES, which indicates that when the SES is perceived to be low, teachers feel more need to try to control students in the classroom” (p. 6). This section of the review has addressed socioeconomic status as it relates to the third research question in the present study. The following section addresses ethnicity as it relates to Research Question 4 of the study.

Ethnicity: Relationship to Student Achievement and Pupil Control Ideology

Many variables have been examined with relation to ethnicity. Perhaps this is due to the fact that “race is a key organizing category” (Picower, 2009, p. 198). For the purposes of this study, race has been viewed in relation to pupil control ideology, socioeconomic status, and student achievement.

Interestingly, “many teachers operate on assumptions about students of color that place students at a very real disadvantage” (Larson & Ovando, 2001). “Students of color often sense these biases, and the stereotype threat can hinder student performance and achievement” (Castro Atwater, n.d., p. 248).

One researcher found that the dropout rate was twice as high for African American students and four times as high for Hispanic students as white students (Castro Atwater, n.d.). Research supports that black students, in particular, had better achievement in middle class schools rather than in lower-class schools (Viadero, 2006). Rumberger and Palardy (2005) found that “the average SES of a school may have an effect on student achievement above and beyond the individual SES levels of students in that school” (p. 2003). In 1998, Hyland presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association discussing achievement in mathematics in relation to race. One important aspect that she observed was:

The differential achievement between white students and students of color is most evident in the areas of mathematics and science (Oakes, Ormseth, Bell, & Camp, 1990). Reyes and Stanic (in Burton, 1994) propose five factors to explain the achievement differential in mathematics: (a) societal influences, (b) school mathematics curriculum, (c) teacher attitudes, (d) student attitudes and achievement behavior, and (e) classroom practices. (p. 3)

Ingels, et al. coined the term urbanicity which refers to the “location of an individual’s school; it reflects the school’s metropolitan status” (Strayhorn, 2008, ¶ 3). The following paragraph connects the location of the school with the effects on student achievement that often are congruent with this situation.

Urbanicity has been used in prior achievement studies and the weight of evidence suggests that urban settings tend to be highly populated by minorities, less well funded, and characterized by high unemployment rates, gangs, and crime (Aaronson, 1997, 1993; Gold, 2007) which research has shown to be associated with lower achievement. (Strayhorn, 2008, ¶ 3)

There has also been research to support the correlation between SES and low expectations. Ferguson (2003) cited Leacock as saying:

In the middle class white school, student inattention was taken as an indication of teacher need to arouse student interest, but the same behavior in a lower class black school was rationalized as boredom due to limited student attention span. In general, the teachers in the lower class black school were characterized by low expectations for the children and low respect for their ability to learn. (2003, p. 468)

Although this and many other relevant sources mentioned race when discussing SES, this directly shows that teachers sometimes hold low expectations for students that suffered from poverty. “Regrettably, some students, particularly those from certain social, economic, or ethnic groups, discover that their teachers consider them ‘incapable of handling demanding work’” (Lumsden, 1997, ¶ 5). Ferguson continued by providing support for why teachers tend to have this low expectation. “A more likely explanation is that teachers are less flexible in their expectations for Blacks, females, and students from low-income households” (Ferguson, 2003, p. 472). This section focused on literature pertaining to ethnicity and information related to the fourth research question. The next section addresses discipline, the focus of Research Question 5.

Discipline: Relationship to Student Achievement and pupil control ideology

“There is evidence of the association between teachers’ orientation toward classroom control – democratic versus authoritarian – and their methods of rewarding and punishing students (Cicmanec, Johnson, & Howley, 2001, p. 3). Ferguson & Miskel (1973) explained that “one function of ideology is that of structuring behavior; that is, providing an internal guide to action” (p. 2). “Discipline is necessary to achieve an equilibrium between teachers and students” (Denig, 1996, p. 1).

“The pupil control framework is more narrowly concerned with maintaining order in the classroom” (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990, p. 84). In 1977, Willower and Heckert explained that, “the control of students is a central element in the work of teachers, and often is the basis upon which teaching is assessed” (p. 4). While teacher assessment has evolved to include student achievement today, classroom management is still a large portion of the evaluation.

The burden of discipline and control . . . rests largely upon the classroom teacher for it is in the relative isolation of the classroom that school behavior is first condoned or criticized . . . the hierarchically-bestowed position of the teacher places him in a position of a leader and a controller, particularly in the confines of his classroom. (Ferguson & Miskel, 1973, p. 2)

It has been shown that “custodial PCI of faculty has been connected with student alienation, and high student absenteeism and suspension rates” (Willower, 1974, p. 5). Denig (1996) quoted Foley & Brooks as finding that “custodial teachers have been found to have more discipline referrals than humanistic teachers” (p. 3). It was also found that teachers, who scored more toward the middle, or mean of the range on the PCI, rather than either extreme of custodial or humanistic, tended to have fewer discipline referrals (Ferguson & Miskel, 1973). This would suggest that moderation is the key to success with student discipline.

Although “teachers in schools characterized by punishment centered bureaucratic styles (tend to be) more custodial” (Willower, 1974, p. 4), the classroom is still one area where a teacher is granted the most autonomy in the job. This autonomy is the reason for discrepancies in how discipline is handled. Investigators revealed a “small number of

teachers . . . responsible for larger numbers of referrals” (Algozzine, Christian, Marr, McClanahan, & White, 2008, p.93).

Additionally, it has been shown that there is a difference in how discipline is handled based on the students’ gender, race and socioeconomic status (Algozzine et al., 2008; Fossey, 1996; Skiba, Michael, Nardo, & Peterson, 2000). “Extensive investigations of school punishments over the past 25 years have been consistent in raising questions concerning socioeconomic and racial disproportionality in the administration of school discipline . . . there has been little systemic exploration of possible explanations for the disproportionality” (Skiba et al., 2000, p. 3). Skiba and his group of researchers provided a possible explanation for the racial and socioeconomic disparities in discipline.

One possible explanation of racial overrepresentation in school suspension for black students is not racial bias per se, but is rather a corollary of the overuse of exclusionary school discipline for students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. As noted, low SES has been consistently found to be a risk factor for school suspension. Yet race also appears to make a contribution to disciplinary outcome independent of socioeconomic status. Using a regression model controlling for socioeconomic status at the school level (percent of parents unemployed and percentage of students enrolled in free lunch program), Wu et al. (1982) reported that nonwhite students still reported significantly higher rates of suspension than white students in all locales except rural senior high schools. (2000, p. 9)

Skiba et al. (2000) later added:

racial or gender differences in office referrals, suspensions, or expulsions may be due primarily to the influence of SES. Race and socioeconomic status are unfortunately highly connected in American society (Duncan, Brooks-Gunn, & Klebanov, 1994), increasing the possibility that any finding of disproportionality due to race is in fact a product of disproportionality associated with SES” (2000, p. 11).

Eckenrode, Laird, & Doris have likened the negative effects of low SES to that of child abuse (1993). Furthermore, Skiba et al. (2000) quoted the National Association of Secondary School Principals from its statement made to the United States Commission on Civil Rights:

As we have seen in the area of standards and assessments, the greatest predictor of a student's score is not race or ethnicity but the student's socioeconomic status. Therefore a higher incidence of ethnic and racial minority students being affected by zero tolerance policies should not be seen as disparate treatment or discrimination but in terms of an issue of socioeconomic status. (p. 24)

Al-Fadhi & Singh (2006) found that "it is perceived that students living in poverty may have less ability and more behavior related problems as a result of social class and deficient family backgrounds inhibiting their learning process" (p. 63).

Gregory and Mosely (2004) investigated what they have termed the "discipline gap". In their study, they examined this perceived discipline gap in addition to the well publicized achievement gap (Benson & Borman, 2007; Davis, 2004), and looked for the possible causes. Gregory and Mosely (2004) pointed to a very interesting connection between discipline and achievement.

Students who are low achieving are more likely to be given discipline sanctions (Leone et al., 2002), yet the precise manner in which achievement and discipline are interrelated has yet to be clarified (Hinshaw, 1992). Thus, many questions remain about whether discipline problems contribute to low achievement or low achievement contributes to discipline problems. (p. 19)

An explanation that Gregory and Mosely offered was parental involvement or lack thereof. They identified low achievement, in combination with behavioral issues, as the exact patterns that lead to students' dropping out of school. "Problem behavior presents another distinct barrier to high school graduation because of school disruption

and increased use of exclusionary discipline, such as suspensions and expulsions” (McIntosh et al., 2008, p. 244). A positive correlation exists between student discipline, subsequent absences, and student achievement.

Another avenue that Gregory and Mosely (2004) explored involved teacher perceptions. As the authors explained, “The racial beliefs related to discipline are important to explicate since teachers’ attributions about why problem behavior occurs may shape teachers’ interventions strategies (p. 20).

An additional effect of teachers’ perceptions on the outcome of a situation includes the students’ perceptions of the situation. This can include, or become, a self-fulfilling prophecy. “. . . (B)lack students may undertake a collective self-fulfilling prophecy when they receive the message that their group is the ‘bad’ one” (Gregory & Mosely, 2004, p. 20). Interestingly, students take note of how teachers respond differently to different students. In 1991, Brantlinger conducted a study that included student interview responses regarding school climate and school discipline (Skiba et al., 2000). The following explains some of the discrepancies that the students noticed specifically regarding SES.

Both low- and high- income adolescents agreed that low-income students were more likely to be unfairly targeted by school disciplinary sanctions. There also appeared to be differences in the nature of punishment meted out to students of different social classes. While high-income students more often reported receiving mild and moderate consequences (e.g., teacher reprimand, seat reassignment), low-income students reported receiving more severe consequences, sometimes delivered in a less-than-professional manner (e.g., yelled at in front of class, made to stand in hall all day, search of personal belongings). (Skiba, et al., 2000, p. 4)

Researchers have shown that Positive Behavior Support (PBS) can be an effective strategy to unifying discipline school-wide. PBS has been described by Sugai and Homer (2006) as “the integration of valued outcomes, behavioral and biomedical science, empirically validated procedures, and systems change to enhance quality of life and minimize or prevent problem behaviors” (p. 246). PBS attempts to strengthen the interventions used to counter problem behaviors so that positive outcomes can occur.

PBS has been structured as a three tiered system. The first tier uses campus-wide strategies that will effectively target 80% to 90% of the school population. The second tier adds a focus for those not being reached by this first method. The third tier includes “differentiated, targeted approaches that focus on the . . . students with chronic, established behavior problems” (Dunn Sherrod et al., 2009, p. 422). Along with these three tiers, there are three additional tiers addressing behavior from a school wide perspective. First, this school wide view considers “defining, teaching and acknowledging expected behaviors while applying clear consequences to inappropriate behaviors” (Dunn Sherrod et al., 2009, p. 422). The school wide approach also focuses on specific problem locations on campus and ways to correct these problems by implementing policies and procedures. Finally, the school wide emphasis allows for creation of individual student plans for improving chronic misbehavior (Dunn Sherrod et al., 2009).

Research on Positive Behavior Support has shown that it has been effective in “urban, inner-city areas . . . because of increased rates of poverty, crime, violence, substance use, poor nutrition, and unemployment” (Lassen, Steele, & Sailor, 2006, p.

702). Results from several studies showed that “school wide PBS . . . is an effective approach to reducing student problem behavior and improving the overall climate of the school” (Lassen et al., 2006, p. 702). In addition to improving the overall climate of the school, PBS has shown links to improving student achievement as well. “Because disruptive behavior typically results in lost instructional time and, thus, compromised learning, interventions that recover and maximize instructional time by keeping students in class should produce improvements in academic areas” (Lassen et al., 2006, p. 703).

Summary

This review of literature summarized foundational and background information in regard to the significant areas of this study. It was organized around the five research questions which guided the study. Literature and related research were reviewed concerning (a) the connection between Piaget’s works on perception linked it to intelligence, (b) teacher pupil control ideology and the subsequent relationships formed with students as well as student achievement, (c) student achievement relevant to teacher pupil control ideology, (d) socioeconomic status and the subsequent relationship to student achievement and teacher pupil control ideology, and (e) ethnicity and the relationship to student achievement and teacher pupil control ideology, and (f) discipline and classroom management and the subsequent relationship to student achievement and teacher pupil control ideology.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The methods and procedures used to conduct the study are contained in this chapter. The research questions, hypotheses, and variables are presented. Also included is a description of the research design including population, data collection, description of the survey instrument, and general procedures for the collection and analysis of the data.

Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Variables

The study was guided by the following research questions which led to the following hypotheses:

1. Which is the most prominent teacher-learner ideology, custodial or humanistic, represented among teachers at the high school level?

H₀: There will be more teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic.

2. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and student performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic. The dependent variables are FCAT reading and mathematics scores.

3. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of economically disadvantaged students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and economically disadvantaged students performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic. The dependent variables are economically disadvantaged students FCAT reading and mathematics scores.

4. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of non-white students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and non-white students' performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic. The dependent variable is non-white student performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

5. What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology in managing student behavior, as determined by the number of discipline referrals?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the number of discipline referrals written.

The independent variable is either custodial or humanistic. The dependent variable is number of discipline referrals written.

Instrument

The pupil control ideology (PCI) was created in 1967 by Willower, Eidell and Hoy. The PCI provides a continuous variable for each individual on a scale ranging from custodial or more traditional in nature to humanistic or more flexible in nature (Hoy, 2005-2009).

The authors described the custodial approach as “a highly controlled setting concerned primarily with the maintenance of order. Students are stereotyped in terms of their appearance, behavior, and parents’ social status” (Hoy, 2005, 2009). In this model, teachers do not investigate student misbehavior; rather they view it as wrong and punishable. The custodial view also demonstrates “watchful mistrust and autocratic control” (Hoy, 2005, 2009).

The humanistic approach, on the other hand, “leads teachers to desire a democratic classroom climate with its attendant flexibility in status and rules, open channels of two-way communication, and increased self-determination. Teachers and

students are willing to act on their own volition and accept responsibility for their actions” (Hoy, 2005, 2009). This type of teacher incorporates a differentiated approach to behavior modification rather than the usual referral method.

The PCI form is a 20-item Likert-type scale that measures the degree to which an individual’s pupil control ideology is custodial; the higher the score, the more custodial the ideology and conversely, the lower the score, the more humanistic the attitude. The reliability of the scale is consistently high-- usually .80-.91 (Packard, 1988; Willower, Eidell, & Hoy, 1967). The construct validity of the scale has been supported in a number of studies (for example, see Packard, 1988; Willower, Eidell, & Hoy, 1967). Items are scored 5, 4, 3, 2, or 1 corresponding to the extent of agreement, with strongly agree=5, agree=4, undecided=3, disagree=2, or strongly disagree=1 with each statement. Items 5 and 13 are reversed scored, that is, strongly agree=1, agree=2, undecided=3, disagree=4, or strongly disagree=5. The higher the cumulative score on the scale, the more custodial the perspective is judged to be. (Hoy, 2005, 2009)

Procedure

To conduct the study, a Florida public high school was selected for participation. The high school used for this study was located in Seminole County and had obtained a “B” grade according to the Florida Department of Education school grading criteria. A total of 2,395 students were enrolled at the time of the study, with 37% of those students receiving Free/Reduced Lunch. Faculty at this high school consisted of 135 teachers ranging in age and experience.

The Pupil Control Ideology instrument (PCI) created by Willower, Eidell and Hoy in 1967 was a 20-question survey which was administered to the 135 teachers at the targeted high school. Permission was received from one of the survey's authors to use the survey (Appendix A). The survey provided a single variable on a continuous scale. Approval was then obtained from the governing county of the high school, as well as the Principal of the high school (Appendix B) and from the Institutional Review Board of the University of Central Florida (Appendix C). Once approval was granted, the teachers were notified via email of the survey. This email described the intent of the research, the purpose of the survey, the value of teachers' participation, and the details of survey data collection. A cover letter (Appendix D) containing the identical information conveyed in the email was placed in every teacher's mailbox with the actual PCI survey (Appendix E). Finally, a follow up email was sent to the teachers to remind them to submit their completed surveys.

Data from this Florida public high were obtained, reviewed for demographics, percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch and number of student referrals written by teachers for the 2008-09 school year. Student FCAT scores for the 2009 administration of the test were also obtained.

The present study was designed to compare teachers' scores from the PCI with the following factors: Research Question 1 examined the various teachers' ideology scores. The scores were analyzed through the use of descriptive statistics to determine the percentages of teachers that were custodial and humanistic in nature. Research Question 2 examined the teachers' ideology scores as they related to student achievement

on the FCAT reading and mathematics tests. Research Question 3 focused on teachers' ideology scores by comparing them to economically disadvantaged students' performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics tests. Research Question 4 examined teachers' ideology scores by comparing them to non-white student performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics tests. Research Question 5 examined the teachers' ideology scores in comparison to the number of discipline referrals that teachers wrote. Research Questions 2-5 were analyzed using the independent t-test.

Statistical Method

All research questions addressed the concept of teacher pupil control ideology. This variable was created by adding the responses for each respondent on the 20-question Likert-scaled PCI survey that addressed teacher attitudes. For student performance, anonymous student record data were obtained from the school's student information system. For teacher referral information, data were obtained from the school's record keeping system. All data were analyzed using SPSS for Windows version 16.0.

Research Question 1 was used to determine the most prevalent teacher pupil control ideology. This question was addressed using descriptive statistics for the number and percentage of teachers in the custodial and humanistic categories. "Descriptive statistics are defined as techniques which allow us to tabulate, summarize and depict a collection of data in an abbreviated fashion" (Lomax, 2007, p. 6). Descriptive statistics allow one to be able to describe a data set without viewing the entire collection of data (Lomax, 2007).

Research Question 2 looked at the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology and a humanistic ideology and the achievement of students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics. To accomplish this task, ideology was represented by a dichotomous (binary) variable--either custodial or humanistic. In creating a dependent variable to measure FCAT performance, the goal was to have each teacher paired with a single value for reading and a single value for mathematics. It was beneficial to focus on learning gains instead of proficiency, so that teachers with more remedial course loads had a fair chance in being compared to teachers with course loads of more accelerated students. Each teacher was matched with his or her students and a percentage of students making learning gains was calculated.

An independent t-test was then used, with ideology (custodial or humanistic) serving as the independent (grouping) variable and percentage of students making learning gains, a continuous variable, serving as the dependent variable. Separate tests were run for reading and mathematics.

Research Question 3 looked at the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of economically disadvantaged students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics. This question was addressed similarly to Research Question 2; however, only teachers' students who were identified as economically disadvantaged were considered.

Research Question 4 looked at the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of non-white

students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

This question was addressed similarly to Research Questions 2 and 3. The original intent was to run separate tests for black, Hispanic, and white student subgroups. However, when separated, the number of students in each data set was too small; thus, all non-white students were grouped together.

Research Question 5 looked at the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology in managing student behavior, as determined by the number of discipline referrals written. The total number of discipline referrals written by each teacher in a year served as the dependent variable, and ideology once again served as the grouping variable. This relationship was measured via an independent t-test.

Summary

This study was an investigation into teachers' pupil control ideologies and their effect on academic achievement and discipline of all students as well as students from poverty and students from different races. Data gathered from a survey administered to teachers was used in comparing the number of referrals each teacher wrote as well as student FCAT scores.

CHAPTER 4 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether teacher pupil control ideology affected student performance in terms of achievement and behavior. Specifically, it was conducted to determine whether a custodial or humanistic teacher ideology made any difference in student achievement on the FCAT among students from poverty and between black, white and Hispanic students. In addition, this custodial or humanistic teacher ideology was correlated with the number of referrals written, to determine if there was a relationship between ideology and student discipline.

The data sources for this study came from the same location. One high school's teacher and student information, were used for the purposes of this study. The student data were obtained from the 2008 and 2009 administrations of the FCAT to determine if there were any fluctuations in student achievement. Teacher data were derived from two separate sources. The number of referrals that teachers wrote was obtained from within the high school's data base system. Data as to teachers' custodial or humanistic ideology were obtained using the PCI survey.

The survey used to gather data for each research question (Appendix E) was a revised version of the pupil control ideology (PCI), created in 1967 by Willower, Eidell and Hoy. The PCI provides a continuous variable for each individual on a scale ranging from custodial, or more traditional in nature, to humanistic, or more flexible in nature (Hoy, 2005-2009). This chapter contains a summary of the analysis of the data. The

demographic characteristics of respondents are presented followed by the reports of the analyses for the five research questions and hypotheses.

Characteristics of Respondents

Respondents were teachers at the chosen high school who opted to participate in the survey. A total of 68 teachers consented to participate and submitted a completed questionnaire. Identification of teachers was necessary for matching with student characteristics. Two teachers did not include any identifying information and were subsequently removed from the sample, leaving a total of 66 participants. This total sample was utilized for Research Questions 1 and 5, which addressed the teacher population as a whole as well as the general student population. For Research Question 5, PCI survey data for these teachers were linked to record-type data from the student information system regarding the number of referrals written by each teacher during the 2008-09 academic year.

Research Questions 2 through 4 addressed teacher characteristics as associated with FCAT performance. As a result, only the teachers directly associated with ninth and 10th grade students were a part of the samples for those research questions. For Research Question 2, the sample size for reading was 52, and for mathematics was 48. For Research Question 3, the sample size for reading was 49, and for mathematics was 48. For Research Question 4, the sample size for reading was 48, and for mathematics was 39. This information was linked to record-type data from the student information system regarding FCAT performance for their respective students in the subjects of interest.

Data Analysis

Research Question and Hypothesis 1

Which is the most prominent teacher-learner ideology, custodial or humanistic, represented among teachers at the high school level?

H₀: There are more teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology.

This question examined the prevalence of pupil control ideology among the sampled teachers. The PCI scores ranged from 20 (completely humanistic) to 100 (completely custodial). Scores below 60 represented humanistic, while scores of 60 or above represented custodial. Results yielded 17 of 66 teachers (25.8%) who were categorized as custodial, and 49 of 66 teachers (74.2%) who were categorized as humanistic. Among all respondents, the mean score was 53.6 with a standard deviation of 6.9. Within the group of custodial respondents, the mean score was 62.7 with a standard deviation of 2.8. Within the group of humanistic respondents, the mean score was 50.4 with a standard deviation of 4.6. These results suggest that teachers, as a whole in the selected school, were not particularly extreme in their pupil control ideology. Both groups of teachers, within their respective groups, maintained averages close to the midpoint (score of 60). However, custodial teachers were much closer to the midpoint than were their humanistic peer teachers. The descriptive statistics for Research Question 1 are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 1

Ideologies	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Custodial ideology	17	62.7	2.8
Humanistic ideology	49	50.4	4.6

Research Question and Hypothesis 2

What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and student performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

This question examined differences in FCAT reading and mathematics performance between teachers exercising a custodial ideology and those exercising a humanistic ideology. An independent t-test was utilized to examine those differences, using the percentage of students making learning gains as the dependent variable and the teacher's ideological category as the independent variable. The independent t-test is an "inferential test of the difference between two independent means" (Lomax, 2007, p. 122). For the Reading FCAT, a total of 52 teachers met the qualification of (a) having a PCI score to determine ideology, (b) having ninth or 10th grade students in 2008-09, which was necessary for contributing the FCAT performance data, and (c) having at least five students in their classes to contribute scores. A total of 48 teachers met this same qualification for the Mathematics FCAT.

The dependent variable for comparison for each teacher, student FCAT performance, consisted of the percentage of each teacher's students who made a learning gain (as defined by the Florida Department of Education) on the FCAT between 2008 and 2009. The learning gain is a measure that negates the effects of grade differences (e.g., ninth or 10th) and designates whether a student demonstrated at least one year's growth in knowledge in a particular subject, as measured by the FCAT (Florida Department of Education, n.d.). Since no control can be exercised for class makeup, this variable is the fairest representation of FCAT achievement when comparing teachers.

The advantage of using the learning gain is that the performance of the teachers responsible for higher-level students can be compared more fairly to those teachers responsible for struggling students, as even the lowest-performing students have an opportunity to show that they are making gains (Florida Department of Education, n.d.). On the other hand, utilizing a measure such as proficiency places a bias toward teachers of traditionally higher-performing students and requires separate treatment for students by grade level. Finally, the concept of computing a single percentage proficiency rate for each teacher rather than replicating a teacher's PCI score for every student FCAT score ensures that all observations remain independent. In other words, each single teacher has a single score that represents student achievement even if many students contribute to that single achievement score.

Outliers are detected through determination of the Inter-quartile range. Inter-quartile range (IQR) represents the difference between the 25th and 75th percentiles. When this value is multiplied by 1.5 and subtracted from the 25th percentile, it represents a

“lower bound” below which any value is considered excessively small to be considered cohesive with the rest of the distribution. Likewise, multiplying the IQR by 1.5 and adding it to the 75th percentile represents the “upper bound,” above which any value is considered excessively large. A reasonable rule of thumb is to have these values fall within the range of -2 and 2 (Lomax, 2007).

Outliers were checked; in reading, one value, 80%, exceeded the upper bounds of 1.5 x IQR limits and was removed. Normality was tested as well via skewness and kurtosis statistics. Normality has been defined as “relating to, involving, or being a normal curve or normal distribution” (Merriam-Webster, n.d.) Skewness is a “lack of symmetry in a frequency distribution” (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). Statistically speaking, skewness is “the extent to which a distribution of scores deviates from perfect symmetry” (Lomax, 2007, p. 68).

Negatively skewed distributions, which are skewed to the left, occur when most of the scores are toward the high end of the distribution and only a few scores are toward the low end . . . Positively skewed distributions, which are skewed to the right, occur when most of the scores are toward the low end of the distribution and only a few scores are toward the high end. (Lomax, 2007, p. 69)

“Kurtosis is conceptually defined as the ‘peakedness’ of distribution” (Lomax, 2007, p. 71). Skewness and kurtosis values after the removal were -.22 and -.44, respectively. For mathematics, two values, 30.8% and 43.3%, exceeded the lower bounds of 1.5 x IQR limits and were removed. Skewness and kurtosis values for mathematics after the removal were -.65 and .30, respectively. All of these values fell within the -2 to 2 threshold and were deemed acceptably normal, especially considering the small sample sizes. Sample sizes became 51 for reading and 46 for mathematics.

An independent-samples *t*-test was run on reading gains to test for differences in percentages of students making learning gains by teacher ideology group. Tests for equality of variances are used when “the researcher would like to know whether the population variance for one group is different from the population variance for one or more other independent groups” (Lomax, 2007, p. 168). One example of a test for equality of variances is Levene’s test. In this case, Levene’s test for equality of variances was not significant and, therefore, did not indicate any need to utilize an adjustment for unequal variances. For the Reading FCAT, the test, $t(49) = -0.30, p = .76$, indicated that those exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 41.0\%$, $SD = 14.4\%$, $n = 13$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than those exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 39.5\%$, $SD = 16.0\%$, $n = 38$). This means that there was almost no difference in learning gains based on teacher pupil control ideology.

An independent-samples *t*-test was also run on mathematics gains to test for differences in percentage of students making learning gains by teacher ideology group. Levene’s test for equality of variances was not significant and, therefore, did not indicate any need to utilize an adjustment for unequal variances. The test, $t(44) = -1.52, p = .14$, indicated that those teachers exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 78.3\%$, $SD = 6.7\%$, $n = 12$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains from those teachers exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 73.4\%$, $SD = 10.4\%$, $n = 38$). This shows that teacher pupil control ideology did not have a statistically significant effect on student learning gains. The descriptive statistics for Research Question 2 are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 2

Ideologies	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Reading FCAT, test $t(49) = -0.30, p = .76$			
Custodial ideology	13	41.0	14.4
Humanistic ideology	38	39.5	16.0
Mathematics FCAT, test $t(44) = -1.52, p = .14$			
Custodial ideology	12	78.3	6.7
Humanistic ideology	38	73.4	10.4

Research Question and Hypothesis 3

What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of economically disadvantaged students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and economically disadvantaged students performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

The same analysis was performed for Research Question 3 as had been used in Research Question 2. Unlike Research Question 2, however, this portion of the analysis focused on the possibility that, the performance of students from disadvantaged backgrounds may have been affected by the ideological perspectives of their teachers. Since the goal of this research question was to examine the relationship between teachers' pupil control ideology and FCAT performance among economically disadvantaged students (those on free or reduced lunch), the variable of interest was the percentage of students on free or reduced lunch who made learning gains which was a subset of each teacher's total group of students. Thus, only the subset of students who

were on free or reduced lunch were considered for each teacher; the percentage of those students who made learning gains between 2008 and 2009 in the subject of interest served as the performance variable compared to each teacher's PCI score.

Normality, as previously described, refers to "being a normal curve or normal distribution" (Merriam-Webster, n.d.) Outliers are determined to be "scores that fall beyond the end of the whiskers (in a box-and-whisker plot) . . . due to their extremeness relative to the bulk of the distribution" (Lomax, 2007, p. 32). Checks for outliers and for normality were run on the FCAT gain percentages in reading and mathematics for this subgroup of students. No outliers were discovered within these variables. Additionally, the values for skewness and kurtosis were within the ranges of acceptable normality. As previously stated, skewness refers to the symmetry of the distribution and kurtosis refers to the peakedness of the distribution (Lomax, 2007). The variables were acceptable for running the analysis. Skewness and kurtosis values for reading were -.25 and -.58, respectively. Skewness and kurtosis values for mathematics were -.79 and .26, respectively. The sample sizes for the gains among economically disadvantaged students, or the freed/reduced lunch (FRL) variable were 49 for reading and 45 for mathematics.

An independent-samples *t*-test was once again run on reading gains to test for differences in percentage of students making learning gains by teacher ideology group. Levene's test for equality of variances was not significant and therefore did not indicate any need to utilize an adjustment for unequal variances. The test, $t(47) = 0.83, p = .41$, indicated that those teachers exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 31.2\%$, $SD = 16.9\%$,

$n = 12$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than did teachers exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 36.0\%$, $SD = 18.0\%$, $n = 37$). This means that teachers' pupil control ideology did not affect the reading achievement of economically disadvantaged students on the FCAT.

An independent-samples t -test was also run on mathematics gains to test for differences in percentage of students making learning gains by teacher ideology group. Once again, Levene's test for equality of variances was not significant and therefore did not indicate any need to utilize an adjustment for unequal variances. The test, $t(43) = -0.95$, $p = .14$, indicated that teachers exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 76.5\%$, $SD = 17.2\%$, $n = 12$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than did teachers exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 71.5\%$, $SD = 10.4\%$, $n = 33$). Thus, teachers' pupil control ideology did not have affect the mathematics achievement of economically disadvantaged students on the FCAT. Descriptive statistics for Research Question 3 are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 3

Ideologies	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Reading FCAT, test $t(47) = 0.83$, $p = .41$			
Custodial ideology	12	31.2	16.9
Humanistic ideology	37	36.0	18.0
Mathematics FCAT, test $t(43) = -0.95$, $p = .14$			
Custodial ideology	12	76.5	17.2
Humanistic ideology	33	71.5	10.4

Research Question and Hypothesis 4

What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of non-white students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of non-white students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

The same type of analysis that had been performed in Research Questions 2 and 3 was used for Research Question 4. However, since the goal of this research question was to examine the relationship between teacher's pupil control ideology and FCAT performance among students of different ethnicities, the original intent had been to determine the respective percentages of students from three different ethnic groups (white, black, and Hispanic) who made learning gains. This approach was originally selected due to the way in which the State of Florida defines learning gains in congruence with making AYP to satisfy No Child Left Behind (Florida Department of Education). However, when categorized using the three groups, there were often very few students from one particular ethnicity to contribute to a subgroup for a given teacher (three to four students, in many cases). Therefore, in order to avoid making inferences on an extremely small number of students, the determination was made to focus on minorities as one group (all ethnicities other than white). The "minority percentage making learning gains" variable was then created as one of the variables of interest for this analysis, and a subset consisting of all students who were not white were considered for each teacher; the percentage of those students who made learning gains between 2008 and 2009 in the

subject of interest served as the performance variable to compare to each teacher's PCI score.

Normality is known to be "a normal curve or normal distribution" (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). Checks for outliers, or those data that fell beyond the normal distribution (Lomax, 2007), and for normality were run on the FCAT gain percentages in reading and mathematics for this subgroup of students. Additionally, the values for skewness, and kurtosis, or the symmetry and peakedness of the distribution (Lomax, 2007), were within the ranges of acceptable normality.

Outliers were checked; in reading, none were detected. Skewness and kurtosis values for reading for non-White students were .38 and .08, respectively. For mathematics, two values, 0% and 20%, exceeded the lower bounds of 1.5 x IQR limits and were removed. Skewness and kurtosis values for mathematics for non-white students after the removal of outliers were -.38 and -.22, respectively. Sample sizes were 48 for reading and 39 for mathematics.

Once again, the independent-samples *t*-test was run on reading gains to test for differences in percentage of students making learning gains by teacher ideology group. Levene's test for equality of variances was not significant and therefore did not indicate any need to utilize an adjustment for unequal variances. The test, $t(46) = 1.13, p = .27$, indicated that teachers exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 33.1\%$, $SD = 10.2\%$, $n = 11$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than did teachers exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 39.5\%$, $SD = 17.7\%$, $n = 37$). This means that

teachers' pupil control ideology did not have an effect on the reading achievement on the FCAT for non-white students.

An independent-samples *t*-test was also run on mathematics gains to test for differences in percentages of students making learning gains by teacher ideology group. Levene's test for equality of variances was not significant and, therefore, did not indicate any need to utilize an adjustment for unequal variances. The test, $t(37) = -0.72, p = .48$, indicated that those exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 74.4\%, SD = 16.9\%, n = 9$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than those exercising the Control Ideology did not have an effect on the mathematics achievement on the FCAT for non-humanistic ideology ($M = 70.5\%, SD = 13.5\%, n = 30$). This is to say that teacher pupil control ideology did not have an effect on the mathematics achievement on the FCAT for non-White students. The descriptive statistics for Research Question 4 are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 4

Ideologies	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Reading FCAT, test $t(46) = -1.13, p = .27$			
Custodial ideology	11	33.1	10.2
Humanistic ideology	37	39.5	17.7
Mathematics FCAT, test $t(43) = -1.52, p = .14$			
Custodial ideology	9	74.4	16.9
Humanistic ideology	30	70.5	13.5

Research Question and Hypothesis #5

What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology in managing student behavior, as determined by the number of discipline referrals?

H₀: There is a relationship between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the number of discipline referrals written.

This question examined whether the presence of a humanistic or custodial ideology would yield significant differences in the occurrence of disciplinary incidents. For this research question, the data from the PCI survey used to define teacher pupil control ideology, as determined by the PCI survey, were merged with a list of all disciplinary incidents in the 2008-09 school year, as provided by the school's student record system. Any teacher who did not have disciplinary incidents was coded as having zero incidents to keep the dataset accurate.

Since the goal was to compare the difference in means, or averages, of total disciplinary incidents between the separate teacher pupil control ideology groups, an independent t-test was selected to test this inference. The independent t-test is an "inferential test of the difference between two independent means" (Lomax, 2007, 122). As an additional safeguard, particularly because this was a relatively small dataset ($N = 66$) with small groups ($n = 17$ for custodial, $n = 49$ for humanistic), each group was checked for the presence of extreme outliers using the $1.5 \times \text{IQR}$ formula.

Inter-quartile range (IQR) represents the difference between the 25th and 75th percentiles. When this value is multiplied by 1.5 and then subtracted from the 25th percentile, it represents a "lower bound" below which any value is considered excessively small to be considered cohesive with the rest of the distribution. Likewise,

multiplying the IQR by 1.5 and adding it to the 75th percentile represents the “upper bound,” above which any value is considered excessively large (Lomax, 2007). Through the outlier detection, two values of number of disciplinary incidents associated with teachers in the humanistic category (66 and 77 incidents, respectively) were removed, as they exceeded the upper bound of 57.5. Normality of each sample was also checked via skewness and kurtosis statistics. A reasonable rule of thumb is to have these values fall within the range of -2 and 2. For the custodial group, skewness was .73 and kurtosis was -.42. For the humanistic group, skewness was 1.0 and kurtosis was -.42.

Because the normality assumption was met, the t-test proceeded as planned. The test, $t(62)$, $p = .94$, indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the mean number of yearly disciplinary incidents registered by teachers identifying with the custodial ideology versus those identifying with the humanistic ideology. The means were almost identical; teachers in the custodial ideology ($M = 16.18$, $SD = 17.65$, $n = 17$) did not write referrals for a significantly greater number of incidents than did teachers in the humanistic ideology ($M = 16.51$, $SD = 14.2$, $n = 47$). The large standard deviations relative to the mean and minimum values of zero do indicate that there was a high degree of variability in each of these samples, however, and that there are other factors to be considered in regard to disciplinary incident occurrence. The descriptive statistics for Research Question 5 are presented in Table 6.

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 5

Ideologies	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Custodial ideology	17	16	17.7
Humanistic ideology	47	17	14.2

Summary

The main goal of this study was to determine if teacher pupil control ideology had any effect on student performance in terms of achievement and behavior. The analyses of the data suggests that where a teacher falls on the pupil control ideology scale did not have a statistically significant effect on student achievement in general, for economically disadvantaged students and for non-white students. Finally, the analyses of the data indicated that teachers' pupil control ideology did not affect the number of discipline referrals that teachers wrote.

CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of teacher pupil control ideology on student performance. Specifically, it studied whether teacher pupil control ideology had any impact on student achievement and behavior. The results of this study provided useful information to the educational community regarding the effects of teacher ideology on student performance. This study was based on the pupil control ideology by Donald Willower, T.L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy (1967). The reliability of the scale is consistently high – usually .80-.91 (Packard, 1988). The construct validity of the scale has been supported in a number of studies (Packard, 1988; Hoy, 2005-2009). While the instrument had validity and reliability, there were incidents where participants surveyed voiced anecdotally, that the survey lacked clarity for them. This lack of clarity, in addition to a small sample size, may have contributed to the lack of significant findings in this research.

Summary and Discussion of Research Questions

Research Question 1

Which is the most prominent teacher-learner ideology, custodial or humanistic, represented among teachers at the high school level?

H_0 was rejected. There were not more teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology.

In responding to Research Question 1, the researcher examined the prevalence of ideology among the sampled teachers. More of the respondents were humanistic in ideology than custodial. A total of 17 of the 66 teachers (25.8%) surveyed were categorized as custodial, and 49 of 66 teachers (74.2%) were categorized as humanistic. The teachers who completed the survey, as a whole, were not particularly extreme in their ideologies. Both groups of teachers, within their respective groups, maintained averages close to the midpoint, although custodial teachers were much closer to the midpoint. Although 135 surveys were distributed, only 66 were able to be utilized, and the researcher recognized that this was a small sample size. The researcher had expected, based on prior research, that high school teachers would be more custodial than humanistic in nature, especially those with longevity in the field.

In the researcher's opinion, several factors could have affected the way the teachers replied to the PCI survey. In looking at the distribution of teachers that completed the survey, there was no correlation of teachers with longevity in the field tending to be custodial in nature. Thus, age of respondents could not be cited as a reason for the majority of the responses being humanistic. Another possible explanation as why the majority of the responses were humanistic could be that those teachers who chose to respond were interested in answering in a positive manner rather than allowing themselves to be true reflective practitioners. Due to the aforementioned situation, those who responded may not have answered accurately as to their classroom demeanor, but rather in terms of what would have them appear in the best light. Finally, those teachers

who did not return a survey at all could have been extreme in their opinions and been hesitant to share extreme views.

Research Question 2

What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

Null Hypothesis 2 was rejected. No relationship exists between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and student performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

In answering Research Question 2, the researcher examined differences in FCAT reading and mathematics performance between teachers exercising a humanistic ideology and those exercising a custodial ideology. An independent t-test was utilized to examine those differences using the percentage of students making learning gains as the dependent variable and the teacher's ideological category as the independent variable. The dependent variable in this case consisted of the percentage of each teacher's students who made a learning gain (as defined by the FLDOE) on the FCAT between 2008 and 2009.

For the Reading FCAT, a total of 52 teachers were included in the sample. For the Mathematics FCAT, a total of 48 teachers were included in the sample. For the Reading FCAT, the test, $t(49) = -0.30, p = .76$, indicated that teachers exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 41.0\%, SD = 14.4\%, n = 13$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than did teachers exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 39.5\%, SD = 16.0\%, n = 38$). For the Mathematics FCAT, the test, $t(44) = -1.52, p = .14$, indicated that those exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 78.3\%, SD = 6.7\%, n =$

12) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than those exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 73.4\%$, $SD = 10.4\%$, $n = 38$).

The above mentioned results state that there was no effect on student achievement based on teacher pupil control ideology. These findings may have been more statistically significant if the sample size was increased. A larger sample size would have allowed for a greater range in teacher pupil control ideology to determine if there was a connection to student achievement. In the present study, however, it was suggested that student achievement was not based upon teachers' pupil control ideology. The researcher believes there are several possible causes for the aforementioned data being insignificant. As previously stated, the sample size was very small. Perhaps with a larger sample, there would be a better chance of a statistical relationship between teacher pupil control ideology and student achievement. Another possibility for the lack of relationship between teacher pupil control ideology and student achievement could be the measure of student achievement that was utilized, the FCAT. Perhaps the FCAT was not the correct measure of student achievement. Researchers have shown that there is more to measuring student achievement than simply testing reading and mathematics. Lawrence (2008) stated that "learning is a holistic process that involves cognitive, affective, somatic, and spiritual dimensions" (p.75). A more holistic method for measuring student achievement may be more appropriate.

Research Question 3

What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of economically disadvantaged students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

Null Hypothesis 3 was rejected. No relationship exists between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and economically disadvantaged students performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

In Research Question 3, the researcher examined differences in FCAT reading and mathematics performance of economically disadvantaged students between teachers exercising a humanistic ideology and those exercising a custodial ideology. The same data preparatory steps were followed as had been applied for the analysis of Research Question 2. Since the goal of this research question was to examine the relationship between teachers' pupil control ideology and FCAT performance among economically disadvantaged students (those on free or reduced lunch), the variable of interest was the percentage of students on free or reduced lunch, a subset of each teacher's total group of students, that made learning gains. Thus, a subset of all students who were on free or reduced lunch were considered for each teacher; the percentage of those students who made learning gains between 2008 and 2009 in the subject of interest served as the performance variable used in the comparison with each teacher's PCI score.

For the Reading FCAT, a total of 49 teachers were included in the sample. For the Mathematics FCAT, a total of 45 teachers were included in the sample. For the Reading FCAT, the test, $t(47) = 0.83, p = .41$, indicated that those exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 31.2\%$, $SD = 16.9\%$, $n = 12$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than those exercising the humanistic ideology ($M =$

36.0%, $SD = 18.0%$, $n = 37$). For the Mathematics FCAT, the test, $t(43) = -1.52$, $p = .14$, indicated that teachers exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 76.5%$, $SD = 17.2%$, $n = 12$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than did teachers exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 71.5%$, $SD = 10.4%$, $n = 33$).

The results indicated that there was no effect on economically disadvantaged student achievement based on teacher pupil control ideology. Again, if the survey response had been higher, the results may have demonstrated more significance in student achievement of low socioeconomic status students. This could allow for a greater range in teacher pupil control ideologies to determine if there was a connection to achievement for economically disadvantaged students. The results of the data analysis suggest that student achievement, for economically disadvantaged students was not based upon teachers pupil control ideology. The researcher believes there are several possible causes for the aforementioned data being insignificant. As previously stated, the sample size was very small. Perhaps with a larger sample to draw from, there would be a better chance of a statistical relationship between teacher pupil control ideology and student achievement for economically disadvantaged students. Another possible explanation for the lack of relationship between teacher pupil control ideology and economically disadvantaged student achievement could be the measure of student achievement that was utilized, the FCAT. The FCAT may not be the correct measure of economically disadvantaged student achievement. In prior research, evidence has been produced that supports additional measures of student achievement beyond simply testing reading and mathematics. As Lawrence (2008) found, learning incorporates more than just cognition.

A more inclusive measure may include domains better suited to highlight achievement in economically disadvantaged students. A more holistic method for measuring the achievement of economically disadvantaged students may be more appropriate. The findings in the present study suggested that the achievement of economically disadvantaged students was dependent upon more than teachers' pupil control ideology.

Research Question 4

What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the achievement of non-white students as determined by their performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics?

Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected. No relationship exists between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and non-white student performance on the FCAT reading and mathematics.

To answer Research Question 4, the researcher examined differences in FCAT reading and mathematics performance of non-white students between teachers exercising a humanistic ideology and those exercising a custodial ideology. The same data preparatory steps used for Research Questions 2 and 3 were employed for this research question whose goal was to examine the relationship between teacher ideology and FCAT performance among students of different ethnicities. The original intent of the analysis was to determine the respective percentages of students from three different ethnic groups (white, black, and Hispanic) who made learning gains. However, when categorized by these minority groups, there were sometimes very few students from one particular ethnicity to contribute to a subgroup for a particular teacher. Therefore, the determination was made to focus on minorities as one group (all ethnicities other than

white). The “Minority percentage making learning gains” variable was then created as one of the variables of interest for the analysis.

For the Reading FCAT, a total of 48 teachers were included in the sample. For the Mathematics FCAT, a total of 39 teachers were included in the sample. For the Reading FCAT, the test, $t(46) = 1.13, p = .27$, indicated that teachers exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 33.1\%, SD = 10.2\%, n = 11$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than did teachers exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 39.5\%, SD = 17.7\%, n = 37$). For the Mathematics FCAT, the test, $t(37) = -0.72, p = .48$, indicated that teachers exercising the custodial ideology ($M = 74.4\%, SD = 16.9\%, n = 9$) did not have students making significantly different learning gains than teachers exercising the humanistic ideology ($M = 70.5\%, SD = 13.5\%, n = 30$).

Thus, the data analysis revealed no effect on non-white student achievement based on teacher pupil control ideology. A larger survey return would have permitted a greater range in teacher pupil control ideologies which could have led to a connection to student achievement and significance in the results. The analysis of the data available, however, suggested that non-white student achievement was not based on teachers’ pupil control ideology. Possible explanations for the aforementioned results being insignificant are the small sample size. With a larger sample, there may have been a better chance for a statistical relationship between teacher pupil control ideology and non-white student achievement to have emerged. The FCAT, itself, could have contributed to the lack of relationship. Perhaps the FCAT is not the correct measure of non-white student achievement. It is important to be cognizant of the fact that there is more to measuring

student achievement than simply testing reading and mathematics. A more inclusive measure may include domains better suited to highlight achievement in students from varying ethnicities. A more holistic approach for measuring the achievement of non-white students may be more appropriate. These results suggested that the achievement of non-white students was dependent upon more than teachers' pupil control ideology.

Research Question 5

What is the relationship, if any, between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology in managing student behavior, as determined by the number of discipline referrals?

Null Hypothesis 5 was rejected: No relationship exists between teachers with a custodial ideology versus a humanistic ideology and the number of discipline referrals written.

In answering Research Question 5, the researcher investigated a possible relationship between teacher ideology and number of teacher referrals written. For this research question, an independent t-test was used. The data from the PCI survey used to define ideology category were merged with a list of all disciplinary incidents in the 2008-09 school year, as provided by the school's student record system. The test, $t(62)$, $p = .94$, indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the mean number of yearly disciplinary incidents registered by teachers identifying with the custodial ideology versus those identifying with the humanistic ideology. There was, however, a great degree of variability in each of these samples. This could be due to the fact that there are many factors to consider in disciplinary incident occurrence including classroom management techniques and styles. Small sample size may also have

impacted the results. It is the researcher's strong belief that with a larger sample size, statistical significance would have resulted in the analysis of the number of referrals and teachers' ideologies.

Conclusions

As the review of literature revealed, the pupil control ideology continuum ranged from custodial on the high end, to humanistic on the low end (Hoy, 2005, 2009). The pupil control ideology continuum parallels several leadership and management theories. Malow-Iroff et al. (2004) alluded to these theories in the following statement: "The custodial teacher is authoritarian, directs student's behaviors and expects orders to be obeyed without question. The humanitarian teacher is authoritative, seeks positive relations, and exhibits trust and mutual respect for their students" (p. 3).

The criteria that describe custodial and humanistic are close to several leadership theories. For example, organizational sciences including history, psychology, geography, and other human sciences have long used the terms nomothetic and idiographic (Owens, 2004). The nomothetic approach "seeks to discover scientific principles or laws that are generally true, applicable in all situations, and are endlessly repeatable" (Owens, 2004, p. 133). The other end of that spectrum is referred to as idiographic. The idiographic approach "focuses on the human beings who populate the organization and their uniqueness from one organization to another . . ." (Owens, 2004, p. 133). There are evident similarities between nomothetic and idiographic styles of management and the

two ends of the pupil control ideology. Custodial aligns with nomothetic, while humanistic seems to mirror idiographic.

There is a historical, two-factor approach to leadership that was the origination for several leadership theorists. This original two-factor approach included initiating structure on one end, and consideration on the other (Owens, 2004). The initiating structure, according to Owens (2004)

involves structuring the work: delineating the relationship between the leader and the members of the work group, specifying the tasks to be performed, and endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure, scheduling, and designating responsibilities. (pp. 263-264)

The consideration end of this spectrum emphasized the “developing friendship(s), mutual trust, respect, and warmth in relationships between the leader and followers” (Owens, 2004, p. 264). These opposing views lend themselves to the custodial and humanistic ideologies respectively.

Another classic example comes from 1939, when Lewin, Lippitt, and White branded several leadership styles, including: autocratic and democratic (Kosmoski, 2006). And in 1958, Tannenbaum and Schmidt, followed up with the same school of thought on autocratic and democratic leadership styles (Kosmoski, 2006). The autocratic school leader was described as someone who “closely monitors the teacher and the teacher’s performance, fosters competition between staff, rewards success, and punishes poor performance” (Kosmoski, 2006, p. 20). The democratic school leader was described as giving “teachers more responsibility for their own actions and involve teachers in the decision-making process. The collegial and collaborative nature of the relationship

between the teacher and the supervisor is emphasized” (Kosmoski, 2006, p. 20). “A number of subsequent researchers have examined leadership in the work setting (much of that work is reviewed in Stogdill, 1974; and Bass, 1981, 1990)” (Bolman & Deal, 2003, p. 170). It is evident that the custodial teacher would hold the same values as the autocratic leader, just as the humanistic teacher would mirror that of the democratic leader.

A final parallel from the leadership/management realm to the pupil control ideology is the work of Hersey and Blanchard (1977). The terms that Hersey and Blanchard used to describe a similar continuum are task behavior and relationship behavior (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Task behavior is “the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group” (Hersey, 1984, p. 31). Relationship behavior, on the other hand, is “the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communication; including listening, encouraging, facilitating, providing clarification, and giving socioemotional support” (Hersey, 1984, p. 32).

It is clear to see that the basis from which Willower, Eidell, and Hoy created the pupil control ideology (Hoy, 2005, 2009) stems from historical leadership and management theories. Just as leaders and managers from business and industry have looked to these theories for understanding and growth, educational leaders need to have an understanding of this foundation to be able to correctly apply the use of the pupil control ideology in addressing individual student needs. According to situational leadership by Hersey and Blanchard (Bolman & Deal, 2003), an effective leader or

manager will have the ability to adjust to the needs of the situation. The effective educational leader should be able to apply this same theory and understand when a situation calls for a custodial versus a humanistic approach.

A major limitation of this study was the sample size. The researcher recognized this limitation, and understands that these findings cannot be generalized to other populations. That being said, the purpose of this study was to determine if a teachers' pupil control ideology score had any impact on student achievement and behavior. In Research Question 1, the pupil control ideology provided limited information on what type of pupil control ideology each teacher followed. With a larger sample size, this distribution could have been more normal and aligned with what previous researchers have found.

This research did not provide statistically significant information to support that teacher ideology effects student performance in general, student performance for economically disadvantaged students or student performance for non-white students. In terms of performance, Research Questions 2, 3 and 4 specifically addressed achievement. In Research Question 2, the research findings did not support the hypothesis that teacher pupil control ideology would correlate with student achievement. In Research Question 3, the findings did not support the hypothesis that teacher pupil control ideology would correlate with economically disadvantaged student achievement. In Research Question 4, the findings did not support the hypothesis that teacher pupil control ideology would correlate with non-white student achievement.

In Research Question 5, the findings did not support the hypothesis that teacher ideology would correlate with number of discipline referrals written. In terms of discipline, the researcher understands that there are many elements involved when a student receives a discipline referral. Though statistical significance may never be found between teacher pupil control ideology with the number of discipline referral written, the researcher believes that with a larger sample size there could possibly be a correlation.

The survey provided limited information on teacher pupil control ideology. This information serves everyone involved in the educational system, from the student to the teacher, to the guidance counselor and administration. In this study, the researcher was investigating teacher pupil control ideology and its effect on student performance. Though significance was not found, a determination of how teacher ideology affects the people involved may still provide benefit to the environment shared within the classroom.

The results from this study showed that more research is needed to determine the value gained from how understanding teacher pupil control ideology can improve the learning environment. In addition, continued research on how teacher pupil control ideology affects student performance could further explain the educational significance witnessed within this research.

Recommendations for Future Research

Findings from this study led to the following recommendations for educational practice and further research:

1. Further research should be conducted encompassing several large school districts to increase the sample size. In recognizing that obtaining student records is difficult because of FERPA, the researcher firmly believes that a larger sample size would illustrate the importance that teacher pupil control ideology has toward student performance.
2. In conjunction with expanding the sample size to include multiple schools, further research could explore the added independent variable of “school culture,” adding to the scope of the research.
3. Further research should be initiated on the value of providing professional development for educators on teacher pupil control ideology so that they become more aware of those events driving their ideology. This could be insightful information for any teacher to use by looking inward and examining their classroom management strategies. This can also be useful for an administrator in providing possible suggestions for growth and improvement when conducting teacher observations. Additionally, information should be provided on students’ perceptions of each type of ideology and the ramifications of each.
4. Further research could be conducted to explore the relationship, if any, between various subject areas of instruction and teacher pupil control ideology.
5. Further research could also investigate the relationship, if any, between personality types, subject area taught and pupil control ideology. While this

topic was beyond the scope of this research, it could provide an interesting foundation of further understanding in this area in education which is deserving of further research.

6. Further research could also investigate the relationship, if any, between years of experience and longevity at a school and teacher pupil control ideology.
7. Economically disadvantaged student achievement could be investigated as it relates to pupil control ideology. With the increasing emphasis on student achievement among student sub-groups, having an understanding of how to improve the achievement of students from poverty could add great educational value.
8. Further research could focus specifically on non-white student achievement as it relates to pupil control ideology. Given, the attention on student achievement among student sub-groups in schools, having an understanding of how to improve the achievement of students from varying ethnic backgrounds could prove beneficial.
9. Qualitative research could be used to further explore classroom management techniques and determine if there is any relationship with teacher pupil control ideology. This could be achieved through interviews with teachers in addition to quantitative survey data. Interviews could focus on questions regarding classroom management techniques and styles to see if there is a pattern/connection with pupil control ideology and management.

10. Further research could be undertaken to improve the understanding of the ramifications of teacher pupil control ideology. From a psychological perspective, this could be useful information to improve the overall work environment for all those involved.

Summary

Although the findings were not statistically significant, this research could support that student performance can be affected by teacher pupil control ideology, had the sample size been larger. Possibly teacher pupil control ideology has not been emphasized enough in teacher education programs. Perhaps, educators have lost focus on the effects that their demeanor can have on student performance. If an awareness of this idea of teacher pupil control ideology were re-emphasized, perhaps this rejuvenation could create teachers with the pupil control ideology that is best suited for improving student learning and behavior as well as increasing meaningful relationships between teacher and student. This could ultimately lead to improved student performance in the areas of achievement and behavior.

APPENDIX A
PERMISSION FOR USE OF PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY (PCI) SURVEY

HI Jessica--

You have my permission to use the PCI in your research. You can find the scale and relevant information on my web page.

Best wishes.

Wayne

Wayne K. Hoy
Fawcett Professor
The Ohio State University

On [May 27, 2009](#), at 4:30 AM, Jessica Webb wrote:

> Dr. Hoy,

> My name is Jessica Webb. I am a Doctoral Student at the University
> of Central Florida. I am starting my dissertation, with the topic
> of Improving Achievement in Students from Poverty. I am interested
> in involving a componenet that has to do with teacher perception
> toward achievement.

> My advisor is familiar with your pupil control ideology, and
> suggested that I implement this survey into my research.
> So, I am writing to ask for your permission to use your survey in my
> dissertation research. If you allow me to use your survey, where
> would I be able to obtain a copy of it in its entirety?

> Thank you very much for your consideration on this matter.
> I look forward to hearing back from you.

> Sincerely,
> Jessica Webb
> Dean of Students
> Lyman High School
> 865 Ronald Reagan Blvd.
> Longwood, FL 32750
> 407-746-2105

>

>

> [Florida has a very broad Public Records Law. Virtually all written
> communications to or from School District Personnel are public records
> available to the public and media upon request. E-mail sent or
> received
> on the School District system will be considered public and will
> only be
> withheld from disclosure if deemed confidential pursuant to State
> Law.]

>

APPENDIX B
SEMINOLE COUNTY RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER



SEMINOLE COUNTY
PUBLIC SCHOOLS

BILL VOGEL, Ed.D.
Superintendent

Educational Support Center
400 E. Lake Mary Boulevard
Sanford, Florida 32775-7127

RONALD L. PINNELL, Ed.D.
*Executive Director of
Secondary Education*

WALT GRIFFIN
*Executive Director of
Secondary Education*

Telephone: (407) 320-0039
Facsimile: (407) 320-0293
Suncom: 351-0038

Visit Our Web Site
www.scps.k12.fl.us

October 20, 2009

Ms. Jessica Webb
1275 Bridlebrook Dr.
Casselberry, FL 32707

Dear Ms. Webb:

I am in receipt of the proposal and supplemental information that you submitted for permission to conduct research in the Seminole County Public Schools. After review of these documents, it has been determined that you are granted permission to conduct the study described in these documents under the conditions described herein.

Mr. Casillo, principal, has the authority to decide if he wishes to participate in your study or if it is appropriate to release any requested information. Therefore, your first order of business is to contact him and explain your project and seek permission to conduct the research at Lyman. If necessary you are expected to make appointments in advance to accommodate the administration and/or staff for research time.

Please do not use the SCPS email or courier mail to disseminate this information.

Please forward a summary of your project to my office upon completion.
Good Luck!

Sincerely,

Ronald L. Pinnell, Ed.D.
Executive Director
Secondary Education

RP/jr
cc: Frank Casillo

APPENDIX C
UCF INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1
FWA00000351, IRB00001138**
To: **Jessica Webb**
Date: **November 12, 2009**

Dear Researcher:

On 11/12/2009, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review:	Exempt Determination
Project Title:	THE EFFECTS OF POVERTY AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT
Investigator:	Jessica Webb
IRB Number:	SBE-09-06470
Funding Agency:	
Grant Title:	
Research ID:	n/a

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the [Investigator Manual](#).

On behalf of Joseph Bielitzki, DVM, UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 11/12/2009 10:53:34 AM EST

IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX D
LETTER TO FACULTY

Dear Teachers at Lyman High School,

I have been working on my Doctorate in Educational Leadership at the University of Central Florida. I have completed my course work, and have started the process of working on my dissertation.

The title for my dissertations is *The Effects of Poverty and Teacher Perceptions on Student Achievement*. I intend to look at our student data in terms of demographic break down as well as discipline records, and compare that to a teacher attitude score obtained through a 20 question survey. A multiple linear regression model will be used to control for race, gender, ESE status, and free/reduced lunch status. This will be used to determine if it is really the effect of the teacher attitude score toward school grade, FCAT score, final grade, and discipline, or if that teacher attitude score is meaningless.

Mr. Casillo, with prior approval from Seminole County Public Schools, has graciously allowed me to collect and use data from Lyman High School. For student data, I will use information that can be obtained through SASI. For teacher data, I am asking that you please complete this 20-question survey.

This survey should not take more than 20 minutes of your time, but will be very helpful for my research. It is very important that you provide your name at the top of your survey. Your score will remain confidential; however, it will be correlated to student information. Therefore, I must know who filled out each survey. I feel I must stress that your name and your score will not be used in published material, but strictly for data manipulation purposes only.

By completing this survey, you are consenting to my use of your score. If you would prefer not to participate in this research, then simply do not fill out the survey.

I truly appreciate your help through this process, and I thank you in advance for your time in filling out this survey. Please return the survey to my office.

Sincerely,

Jessica Webb
Dean of Students
Lyman High School
865 Ronald Reagan Blvd.
Longwood, FL 32750
407-746-2105

APPENDIX E
UPDATED PCI

FORM PCI

Name: _____

This is a voluntary survey that will be included in the research portion of Jessica Webb's dissertation. The score obtained from this survey will be used to see if there is a correlation between the academic achievement and discipline records of students from poverty. You may stop taking this survey at anytime.

DIRECTIONS: FOLLOWING ARE TWENTY STATEMENTS ABOUT SCHOOLS, TEACHERS, AND PUPILS. PLEASE INDICATE YOUR PERSONAL OPINION ABOUT EACH STATEMENT BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE AT THE RIGHT OF THE STATEMENT.

SA=Strongly Agree A=Agree U=Undecided D=Disagree SD=Strongly Disagree

START HERE!

1. It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during assembly SA A U D SD
2. Pupils are usually not capable of solving their problems through logical reasoning SA A U D SD
3. Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique SA A U D SD
4. Beginning teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils SA A U D SD
5. Teachers should consider revision of their teaching methods if these are criticized by their pupils SA A U D SD
6. The best principals give unquestioning support to teachers in disciplining pupils SA A U D SD
7. Pupils should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in class SA A U D SD
8. It is justifiable to have pupils learn many facts about a subject even if they have no immediate application SA A U D SD
9. Too much pupil time is spent on guidance and activities and too little on academic preparation SA A U D SD
10. Being friendly with pupils often leads them to become too familiar SA A U D SD
11. It is more important for pupils to learn to obey rules than that they make their own decisions SA A U D SD
12. Student governments are a good "safety valve" but should not have much influence on school policy SA A U D SD
13. Pupils can be trusted to work together without supervision SA A U D SD
14. If a pupil uses obscene or profane language in school, it must be considered a moral offense SA A U D SD
15. If pupils are allowed to use the lavatory without getting permission, this privilege will be abused SA A U D SD
16. A few pupils are just young hoodlums and should be treated accordingly SA A U D SD

17. It is often necessary to remind pupils that their status in school differs from that of teachers
SA A U D SD
18. A pupil who destroys school material or property should be severely punished
SA A U D SD
19. Pupils cannot perceive the difference between democracy and anarchy in the classroom.
SA A U D SD
20. Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad
SA A U D SD

This concludes this survey. Thank you very much!

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