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The Effect of Teachers' Expectations and Perceptions on Student Achievement in Reading for Third and Fifth Grade Students

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ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT IN READING FOR

THIRD AND FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS

by

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF TEACHERS' EXPECTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS

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All too often, a student's lack of success is blamed on his or her background, and/or the parent or the parent's educational level. Many factors such as socioeconomic conditions, student behaviors, attendance, and teacher demographics can directly or indirectly affect class environment, classroom management, interaction with students, and equal treatment of students. In addition, a teacher's perception of students plays a vital role in the teacher's expectations, interactions, and relationships with his or her students. The purpose of the study was twofold. First, this study investigated the relationship between teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction with students, and classroom management as related to teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level). The second purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management related to teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level). The independent variables are teachers' expectations, perceptions, and teacher demographics of age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level. The dependent variables were equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction

with students, and classroom management. Descriptive statistics, multiple regression analyses, and nine qualitative questions at the end of the survey were used to answer the five research questions in this study. Results revealed no unique relationship existed between teachers' expectations and perceptions of equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction with students, and classroom management and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level).

The University of Southern Mississippi

THE EFFECT OF TEACHERS' EXPECTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS

ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT IN READING FOR

THIRD AND FIFTH GRADE STUDENTS

by

Alfreda Ragland Williams

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School
of The University of Southern Mississippi
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for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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May 2012

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late mother, Mrs. Pauline Montague Ragland; my husband, Kenneth Williams; my best friends, Mary Thompson and Beverly Parks; members of my study group; and my guardian angel. As of result of their support and prayers, I was able to complete this process successfully. Each of you has been and continues to be a blessing to me. Thank you for being a part of my life–personally and professionally.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the purpose of the study and statement of problem were described, as well as the background of the study to support this research. This chapter contains research questions, which evolved from situations revealed through the background study, pertinent theory, and review of literature in other chapters. Special terms, assumptions, and delimitations are identified and defined in chapter one. The chapter concludes with a summary provided to the reader.

All too often, a student's lack of success is blamed on his or her background, and/or the parent or the parent's educational level. Low parent involvement is also used as an excuse for student failure. Many factors can directly or indirectly affect the teaching process with regard to student achievement. Socioeconomic conditions, student behaviors, attendance, and demographics are just a few of those factors related to student achievement. In addition, a teacher's perception of students plays a vital role in a teacher's expectations, interactions, and relationships with his or her students. According to Rosenthal (1966), more often than not, people do what is expected of them. Rosenthal was making an observation about people living their lives. Saracho (1991) defined expectancy as "the person's estimate of the probability that he [she] will accomplish his intended performance, given the situation in which he[she] finds himself[herself]" (p. 27). This idea was developed further by Kolb and Jussim (1994) when they suggested that self-fulfilling prophecies occur when teachers create a learning environment in which students perform at levels that support the initial expectations of those teachers.

Historically, Merton (1948) first introduced the term *self-fulfilling prophecy* to describe how mistaken beliefs about people and situations sometimes create their own

fulfillment. According to Merton, a self-fulfilling prophecy is the way one person's

expectations of another lead the second person to behave in ways that fit the first person's

predictions. Since Merton first introduced the notion, much work regarding how the

perceptions of expectations affect student outcomes. However, few studies have been

completed on how students' perceptions of teacher expectations influence student

achievement. Merton proposed that people have a tendency to do what they are asked to

do or what is expected of them. The purpose of this study was to determine the

relationship between teacher perceptions of students, their expectations of students, and

student achievement (Merton, 1948).

Jussim and Harber's (2005) study showed that over three decades of empirical

research on teacher expectations justifies the following conclusions: (a) self-fulfilling

prophecies in the classroom do occur, but these effects are typically small, they do not

accumulate greatly across perceivers or over time, and they may be more likely to

dissipate than accumulate; (b) powerful self-fulfilling prophecies may selectively occur

among students from stigmatized social groups; (c) whether self-fulfilling prophecies

affect intelligence, and whether they in general do more harm than good, remains unclear,

and (d) teacher expectations may predict student outcomes more so because these

expectations are accurate rather than because they are self-fulfilling.

<p style="text-align:center">Background of the Problem</p>

Since the passage of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2002) legislation in 2001,

attention has increasingly focused on school accountability. Since students were not

making the necessary academic gains based on test data and graduation rates, the federal

government deemed it necessary to authorize the accountability mandates of NCLB

(2002). This act requires that schools make yearly adequate gains in reading, language

arts, math, and science via their students' achievement. NCLB dictates that testing in reading, mathematics, and science occur in grades three through eight. The act also requires assessments for students in grades nine through twelve that are specific to these contents, but not necessarily grade-level specific. Provisions for disaggregating achievement data for students in order to evaluate performance by (a) subject matter, (b) socioeconomic status, (c) student disability, (d) gender, and (e) ethnicity are also outlined in this act (NCLB, 2002).

Student achievement has become an understood indicator of success of a school and its effectiveness. States use adequate yearly progress (AYP) to find out the sufficiency of progress in student achievement for all students, and for certain subgroups. The subgroups include English Language Learners, American Indians/Alaskan Native, Special Education, African Americans, Hispanics, Caucasians, Multi-racial students, Asian/Pacific Islanders, and Economically Disadvantaged students (NCLB, 2002).

Teachers' expectations are inferences made about the future behavior or achievement of a student based on what the teacher knows about the student at the given moment (Good & Brophy, 1997). These inferences can eventually cause a student to behave or achieve in ways that confirm the teacher's expectations (Brehm & Kassin, 1996). In this complex world of education, teachers' perceptions and expectations of students may have a significant impact on the quality of teaching that each student receives. Therefore, such an impact can have a profound influence on the success or failure each student will experience in any given content area.

According to Cotton (1989) and Good (1981), students identified as low achievers typically receive differential treatment in the classroom. Both researchers concluded that teachers usually call on these students less often and wait a shorter period for them to

respond than those students identified as high achievers. In addition, teachers have a tendency to convey the answers to low achievers rather than attempt to improve their incorrect responses. These teachers are less apt to praise the successes and more apt to criticize the failures of underachieving students. Given that low achievers are less likely to be able to respond correctly on the first attempt, these students often become passive and inattentive to achieving academic success. Others may act out and create classroom disruptions to mask their lack of knowledge and inability to complete the class work (Cotton, 1989; Good, 1981).

Cotton (1989) found that teachers' perceptions and expectations affect not only their interactions with students, but their teaching strategies as well. Low achieving students are frequently given less exciting instruction, fewer opportunities to learn new material, less emphasis on meaning and conceptualization, and more rote drill and practice activities. Those students become disengaged when similar activities are provided; thus, they invest less effort, which in turn causes the teacher to perceive the need for even more structure and even smaller steps. According to Good and Brophy (1997), "The fact that a student could not do something yesterday does not mean that he or she cannot do it today, but the teacher will not find out unless the student is given a chance" (p. 111).

<center>Problem Statement</center>

Since the initial stages of the No Child Left Behind Act (2002), administrators and educators have been searching for strategies that will enhance the learning process that occurs within classrooms; while closing the achievement gap that exists between various subgroups of learners. The significant role that student achievement played in the accountability status of schools, teachers, administrators, and school systems made it a

topic of discussion. It was feasible for teachers to influence student learning by communicating positive expectations. It was expected that the findings of this study increased teacher and administrator awareness regarding how teacher expectations and student perceptions influenced academic achievement. Research had shown that low expectations do not help children to learn. Low expectations were discernible by gender, race or ethnicity, and poverty (Dorsey, 2002; Gorski, 2008; Kahlenberg, 2000; Klingele & Warrick, 1990; Payne, 2009).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was twofold. First, this study investigated the relationship between teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction with students, and classroom management as related to teacher demographics. The second purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management related to teacher demographics. The independent variables were teacher demographics of age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level. The dependent variables were equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction with students, and classroom management.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

Quantitative Research Questions

1. Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of equal treatment of students and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

2. Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of the class environment and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

3. Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of interaction with students and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

4. Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of classroom management and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

Qualitative Research Question

5. Is the effect teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management related to teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

Quantitative Null Hypotheses

$H1_0$: There is no unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of equal treatment of students and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level).

$H2_0$: There is no unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of the class environment and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level).

H3$_0$:   There is no unique relationship between teachers' expectations and

perceptions of interaction with students and teacher demographics (i.e.,

age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and

educational level).

H4$_0$:   There is no unique relationship between teachers' expectations and

perceptions of classroom management and teacher demographics (i.e., age,

race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and

educational level).

Qualitative Null Hypothesis

Because Research Question 5 was qualitative, no hypothesis was stated.

Significance of the Study

There is relatively little research on the role of teacher expectations in the early

school years or on the importance of teacher expectations as a predictor of future

academic achievement (Hinnant, O'Brien, & Ghazarian, 2009). These researchers

investigated these issues in the reading and mathematic domains for young children.

Data from nearly 1,000 children and families at first, third, and fifth grades were

included. Gender and social skills emerged as consistent predictors of teacher

expectations of reading and, to a lesser extent, math ability. In predicting actual future

academic achievement, results showed that teacher expectations were differentially

related to achievement in reading and math. There was no evidence that teacher

expectations accumulate but some evidence that they remain durable over time for math

achievement. Additionally, teacher expectations were more strongly related to later

achievement for groups of children who may be considered to be at risk (Hinnant et al.,

2009).

Hinnant et al. (2009) found, however, that teachers' expectations (i.e., inaccuracy) can be predicted. Several child characteristics were consistently significant in predicting teachers' expectations of children's academic abilities. The gender of the child emerged as a consistent predictor of teacher expectations for reading at all time points, and girls were always more likely to be overestimated. It may be that teachers tended to overestimate the academic competence of children they liked and found easy to manage in the classroom (Hinnant et al., 2009).

Assumptions

This researcher assumed that all participants candidly conveyed personal thoughts and beliefs during the completion of surveys. The researcher also assumed that each participant clearly understood all instructions for completing the survey instrument. Due to the sensitive nature of the information being gathered, it was assumed that participants felt sufficiently secure regarding the assurances of confidentiality. Finally, the researcher assumed that the participants answered the survey independently without conferring with others and candidly responded to the questions at the end of the survey.

Delimitations

The data gathered for this study were collected using a web-based survey for K-5 elementary teachers in the target school district. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to other schools in Georgia or the nation. This study was delimited by using only teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level) to determine the impact of the factors of equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction with students, and classroom management. An important parameter for this research study was to establish the boundaries, exceptions, reservations, and qualifications inherent in every study. The

main delimitation of this research was that the study was restricted to elementary school teachers in a suburban school district in Georgia.

An online survey was conducted by sending the survey link by email to each potential participant. An Internet-based survey created using Survey Monkey was used for data collection in this study. Because Internet facilities may not be freely available in every teacher's personal residence, each teacher may not receive it. The emailed survey link thus may not have been accessible for its completion. In addition, participants could save their survey and return to complete it later. Consequently, the quantity of time spent completing the survey varied. As a result, some survey questions did not yield completed surveys. It was likely that not all the participants were equally responsive, so the conditions in which the responses were given were beyond the researcher's control. Because the participants were volunteering for the survey, it was not obligatory for them to complete the survey fully. This could have had a negative impact on the survey output. To mitigate this impact, incomplete surveys were excluded from the analysis. Not all potential participants to the online survey may have been able to submit their surveys because computers running Norton Internet Security and other similar software programs may have blocked participants' attempts to submit data. The sample size from the group of elementary school district was limited to teachers who used email, had access to the Internet, and provided accurate personal email addresses to the researcher.

Definitions of Key Terms

The following definitions were provided to refine specific terms within this study:

Class environment. The class environment is the type of environment, situation, and setting that is created for students by the school, teachers, and peers (Dennis, 2006).

Classroom management. Classroom management means the teacher is in control of creating and maintaining learning environment conducive to successful instruction by arranging the physical environment of the classroom, establishing rules and procedures, and maintaining attention to lessons and engagement in academic activities (Brophy, 1996).

Demographics. The physical characteristics of teacher participants in this study will be age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010).

Equal treatment of students. Equal treatment of students means to treat all students equally with high expectations for all students, which were not based on race or ethnicity, gender, or socioeconomic status (Cotton, 1989).

Expectancy. Expectancy is a person's estimate of the probability that he or she will achieve his or her intended performance (Saracho, 1991).

Expectations. Expectations are teacher anticipations of student behavior or achievement based on preconceptions and such intervening cues as students' test scores, physical appearance, speech patterns, gender, and socioeconomic status also, the effects of that anticipation (Glossary of Education, 2009).

Grade equivalent score. A grade equivalent score represents the typical performance of students tested in a given month of the school year at a particular grade. For example, a grade equivalent of 5.3 represents the score achieved by the median student in fifth grade after 3 months of instruction (Riverside Publishing Company, 2011).

Interactions with students. Interactions with students are teachers making connections with students which are more relevant than classroom size, rituals and other structural considerations (McNeely, Nonnemaker, & Blum, 2002).

National percentile rank. The national percentile rank refers to the percentage of students in a norm group whose scores fell below a given student's scaled score. For example, if a student score converted to a national percentage rank (NPR) of 75, the student scored higher than approximately 75% of the students in the national norm group. Simultaneously, the average range of NPR is between 25th and 75th percentile rank, and a score of 50 suggests half of the students making up the norm group would score above and below a student with this score (Riverside Publishing Company, 2011).

Norm. Norm is a measure provided a norm-referenced test that relates the test performance of an individual or group to the performance of the norm group (Riverside Publishing Company, 2011).

Perception. Perception is the process by which organisms interpret and organize sensation to produce a meaningful experience of the world (Lindsay & Norman, 1977).

Self-fulfilling prophecy. A self-fulfilling prophecy is the manner in which a person's expectations of another individual lead the second person to behave in a manner that supports the first person's predictions (Good & Brophy, 2003).

Socioeconomic status (SES). Socioeconomic status is an economic and sociological combined total measure of a person's work experience and of an individual's or a family's economic and social position relative to others (Gorski, 2008).

Standard scores. Standard scores are continuous across all levels and forms of a specific test. Because they are built on equal-interval scales, the magnitude of a given difference between two scores represents the same amount of difference in performance

wherever it occurs on the scale. For example, the difference between standard scores of fifteen and twenty is the same as the difference between standard scores of forty-five and fifty (Riverside Publishing Company, 2011).

Student behavior. Student behavior includes acceptable or unacceptable actions displayed by students (Marzano & Marzano, 2003).

Teacher expectations. Teacher expectations are inferences and assumptions that teachers make about the academic achievement of students (Cooper & Good, 1983).

Summary and Organization of the Study

This study is presented in five chapters. Chapter I contains the background of the problem, theoretical foundation, and problem statement. In addition, a statement of the purpose, research questions, and rationale/significance of the study, assumptions, delimitations, and definitions are introduced and discussed. Chapter II consists of a review of the related literature. The procedures of the study are described in Chapter III. A description of the subjects, instruments, and methodology used to address the research questions are also contained in Chapter III. A description of the data collected, an explanation of how the hypotheses were tested, and the findings of the analyses are presented in Chapter IV. Chapter V contains the conclusion, implications and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to inform the reader of how teacher perceptions and expectations affect student achievement. In an extensive review of the literature, a considerable amount of the research examines for the literature review dates 10 years ago or older. Because of very little attention given to this topic in recent literature, the outcome from the research and data of this study provides a renewed aspect on teacher expectations. The review of literature is organized into three sections. The first section examines the relationship between teacher expectations and teacher demographics. The second section identifies and discusses the factors that contribute to low teacher expectations for students that exist both within the classroom and beyond the classroom. The final section describes the changes that must occur to resolve the problem of low teacher expectations for students.

Introduction

The results of this study may be useful to educators and school administrators due to the challenging academic standards set forth in the No Child Left Behind Act (2002). This study is important as educators and school administrators establish strategies that enhance and promote high levels of student achievement as a means to meet the academic gains imposed from the No Child Left Behind Act. The literature revealed that teachers' expectations about students can influence the teachers' behaviors and how they interact with students. For students to be academically successful, they must feel that they can be successful (Babad, Inbar, & Rosenthal, 1982; Caruthers, 2007; Good & Brophy, 1990; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968).

The expectations and perceptions teachers have about students may affect the treatment of diverse students, sometimes leading to astonishing results. Teacher expectation effects may be categorized as sustaining expectation effects or self-fulfilling prophecy effects (Cooper, 1985; Cooper & Good, 1983; Good & Brophy, 2003). 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 (Cooper & Good, 1983; Good & Brophy, 2003).

Researchers (Babad et al., 1982; Caruthers, 2007; Good & Brophy, 1990; Rosenthal, 1966; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968) argued that particular aspects of teacher behaviors act to sustain student performance levels by interfering with the teachers' ability to perceive changed student behavior. Self-fulfilling prophecy effects occur when an initially erroneous belief leads to its fulfillment (Weinstein, 2002). Willis (1991) reported that, "Most teachers recognize that holding high or low expectations, and then acting on those expectations, can create a self-fulfilling prophecy" (p. 4). Teachers' low expectations, paired with an attitude of ineffectiveness conveyed to certain sub-groups, may lead to the lack of motivation that is necessary for academic achievement (Cooper & Good, 1983; Good & Brophy, 2003).

Such expectations may alter student performance in some way (Jussim, 1991). Hence, self-fulfilling prophecies create change in student performance, whereas sustaining expectations hinder the potential for any change (Good, 1987). The major self-fulfilling prophecy effects are known as *Golem effects* and *Galatea effects*. Golem effects are undesirable and negative effects, which are the result of low teacher expectations that impede student academic achievement. In contrast, Galatea effects are

desirable and positive effects that are the result of high teacher expectations that augment student academic achievement (Babad et al., 1982).

Babad et al. (1982) examined the power of negative and positive self-fulfilling prophecies among 26 teachers and 202 students in gym classes that had either low-bias or high-bias teachers. Bias referred to the degree of cognitive rigidity among teachers. Babad et al. reached the conclusion that negative self-fulfilling prophecies were more powerful than positive ones, at least among high-bias teachers. Whether the study actually provided the evidence necessary to justify this claim, however, is subject to some doubt.

Babad et al. (1982) found no differences in athletic accomplishments between high- and low-expectancy students' performance among low-bias teachers–that is, no self-fulfilling prophecy. In contrast, the study revealed that the high-expectancy students performed better than did the low-expectancy students among high-bias teachers, demonstrating the occurrence of a self-fulfilling prophecy. However, a difference between high- and low-expectancy students is insufficient to determine if self-fulfilling prophecies primarily helped or harmed students. This study determined that this difference could occur if (a) high expectations helped students and low expectations had no effect, (b) low expectations harmed students and high expectations had no effect, or (c) high expectations helped students and low expectations harmed students (Babad et al., 1982).

Because there was no evidence that low-bias teachers induced self-fulfilling prophecies, Babad et al. (1982) suggested that students' performance among low-bias teachers could be used as a sort of control group for determining whether self-fulfilling prophecies primarily helped or hurt students with high-bias teachers. Among students

with high-bias teachers, if negative self-fulfilling prophecies were more powerful than positive self-fulfilling prophecies, then (a) low expectancy students with high-bias teachers should have consistently performed worse than low expectancy students with no bias teachers and (b) there should be little difference between the performance of high expectancy students with high or no bias teachers (Babad et al., 1982). Overall, Babad et al.'s study provided inconclusive results. They found evidence of both negative and positive self-fulfilling prophecies. Their research did not provide evidence that negative self-fulfilling prophecies were consistently stronger than positive self-fulfilling prophecies (Babad et al., 1982).

Teacher expectations have an inclination to be self-sustaining, with interpretations and perceptions being affected by teacher expectations. As Good and Brophy (1990) observed:

The affect perception, by causing teachers to be aware of what they expect and less likely to observe what they do not expect, and interpretation, by causing teachers to interpret what they see so that it is consistent with their expectations. Some expectations endure even though they do not coincide with the facts. In this way, some expectations can persist even though they are not justified. (p. 443)

Bamburg (1994) found that, at times, some teachers' expectations and perceptions of student achievement for students within some sub-groups as such that failure is accepted. This research revealed that exerting effort and time to encourage a student who is perceived by a teacher to be low achieving to increase his or her academic achievement is no longer an afforded option for that teacher. Therefore, failure has become accepted, and any effort to alter this teacher's perception is purposefully ignored (Baird, Pavelsky,

Savage, & Valburg, 2007; Cotton, 1989; Davis, 2005; Good, 1987; Good & Brophy, 1991; Harter, 1999; Tutwiler, 2007; Yatvin, 2009).

Baloglu (2009) found good behavior is a necessary condition for effective teaching. Few children come to school without problems. Children's behavior at school appears to be strongly affected by within-school factors. In this qualitative case study, the teachers' negative behavior with regard to the students in the classroom setting was defined. The population for this study consisted of 1,100 eleventh-grade students from three different high schools. These schools were selected at random at the beginning of 2007 academic year in Karsehir, Turkey. The sample consisted of 275 students. The data were collected by means of unstructured interview method. Qualitative content analysis approach was used to analyze data. Findings revealed that *behaving toward the students aggressively* was the most pointed out negative teacher behavior. *Speaking fast in teaching*, *threatening the students with low grades*, and *making discrimination among the students* were the most often teacher behaviors negatively expressed by the students.

A change in opinion held by the teacher can be acquired by adopting suitable expectations concerning various teaching strategies as confirmed by this research. Researchers have confirmed that teachers should attempt to acknowledge their expectations and distinct attitudes regarding individual students. Good and Brophy (1991) noted:

> Once recognition of attitudes and expectations is apparent, then teachers will be able to monitor their response to the individual student. It is natural that teachers form different attitudes and expectations about students because each student is individual and has individual strengths and weaknesses. To the extent that these are accurate and precise, they can be helpful in planning ways to meet each

student's need. However, they must constantly be monitored and evaluated to ensure that they change appropriately in response to changes in the student. (p. 141)

According to an earlier study conducted by Bush (1954), the personal liking of students for their teachers was one of the most powerful factors in bringing about an effective teaching relationship. Those students who had a positive relationship with teachers had a tendency to acquire higher achievement scores and grades. However, Bush (1954) noted that inconsistency and unfairness in treatment of students by teachers produce poor academic results.

Furthermore, when students perceive approval from teachers and high expectations were communicated, there was a tendency for students to meet or exceed the expectations conveyed by the teacher (Baird et al., 2007; Yatvin, 2009). Researchers Wong and Wong (2004) reported that students who are expected by their teachers to grow intellectually in fact do show greater intellectual gains after 1 year than do children for whom such gains are not expected.

The research of Baird et al. (2007) acknowledged that teachers who have high expectations for student performance and communicate those expectations generate students who are more successful and perform better academically than teachers who do not communicate and hold high expectations. Teachers who communicate high expectations to their students not only encourage students to achieve and be successful but, in some instances, initiate the expectancy effect in which students' expectations of themselves are influenced (Baird et al., 2007).

Theoretical Framework

This study examined the pathways by which teacher expectations are associated with students' self-expectations and student performance. Specifically, the researcher sought to determine if students are aware of expectations that teachers hold of them, if there are relationships between teachers' expectations of the students, students' understanding of their teachers' expectations, and if these variables are related to students' academic performance. The study established that educators create different expectations for their students. Research should "clearly establish that teacher expectations do play a significant role in determining how well and how much students learn" (Bamburg, 1994, p. 6).

Caruthers (2007) suggested that expectations of students are formed based on a number of factors. Such factors include the students' intelligence, past achievement, and comments by previous teachers or the students' parents, Good and Brophy (1986) documented that a teacher's knowledge about the student's family, interaction with the student, perceived motivation (or lack of), and the student's general work habits also produce teacher expectations.

One of the disadvantages in forming expectations is that they may be self-sustaining. Expectations affect both perceptions, causing teachers to *see* what they expect to see. As a result, teachers may not notice what they do not expect. Teachers may have a different interpretation causing them to interpret and sometimes distort what they do observe. Thus, their level of interpretation remains consistent with their expectations (Brophy & Good, 1974). While Cooper and Good (1983) found that, in some instances, classroom teachers' perceptions differed from those of observers and

students, Babad (1993) revealed that teachers are often unaware of their differential behavior toward students.

It has been deemed essential that educators familiarize themselves with the background of various students and how their expectations affect academic achievement. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) contended that teacher expectations have a major impact on the academic success of students. The *self-fulfilling prophecy*, known as the *Pygmalion Effect*, is viewed as the processes by which an educator develops preconceived ideas about a group of students, responds, and then delivers instruction in a way that supports his or her expectations for that particular student or group of students (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). Rosenthal and Jacobson declared that in the event that the teacher has a set of preconceived ideas regarding a student or groups of students, there is likelihood that the students meet those expectations.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) suggested that a teacher's expectations can be thought of as his or her estimate of a child's probable academic performance within the classroom. When individuals know what other people expect from them, their behavior conforms to this pattern. Thus, what a teacher expects in the classroom can influence pupil perceptions and behaviors. Later, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1973) proposed that if teachers expect certain children to have high academic performance, those children will perform well, and if teachers expect certain children to perform poorly, those children will perform poorly.

Beginning with *Pygmalion in the Classroom* (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968), an extensive body of research was developed that describes how teachers' expectations can influence student performance. While it would be misleading and inaccurate to state that teacher expectations determine a student's success, the research clearly established that

teacher expectations play a significant role in determining how well and how much students learn. Teacher expectations also play a significant role in how the student is motivated to learn (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968).

Classic evidence for such self-fulfilling prophecy effects was provided by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) during the 1960s. The emergent concern of this era was over the possibility that teachers' beliefs about minority students–their schemas for youngsters–were causing them to treat such children differently (less favorably) than majority-group students. As a result, the minority-group students were falling further and further behind.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) performed a simple and elegant study that was a major stimulus to further study the effect of teacher expectations. Within this study, the Tests of General Ability, a nonverbal intelligence test, was administered to all of the children in Jacobson's kindergarten through fifth grade elementary school. Teachers who participated in this study were purposely misinformed that the test, labeled *A Test of Inflected Acquisition*, assessed the potential for a sudden and dramatic intellectual spurt over the upcoming year. Researchers then randomly chose a group of students to be identified as *intellectual bloomers* as indicated by the test. Then, teachers were led to believe that those randomly selected students were likely to show sudden and dramatic intellectual gains over the upcoming school year. This study revealed that expectations conveyed to students by instructors were done by altering the wording of questions, the academic assignments for students to complete, and the expression of praise. The self-concept perspective is the desire for the student to be academically successful which may decline until the student's ability to excel increases (Bamburg, 1994; Marsh & Hau, 2004; Marsh, Trautwein, Ludtke, Koller, & Baumert, 2005; Marsh & Yeung, 1997).

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) then informed each teacher which of their students had been identified as potential *late bloomers*. These late bloomers, about 20% of the total enrollment, were actually selected at random. As Rosenthal and Jacobson stated, "The difference between the children earmarked for intellectual growth and the undesignated control children was in the mind of the teacher" (p. 70). They administered the Tests of General Ability intelligence test again 1 year later and then again 2 years later.

Findings from Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) study indicated that indeed, teacher expectations created a *self-fulfilling prophecy*. One year later, the late bloomers gained more IQ points than did the control students. Even 2 years later, the bloomers' gains still exceeded those of the control students. Although the only initial systematic difference between bloomers and controls was in the teachers' minds, the late bloomers actually showed IQ gains relative to controls. The teachers' false expectations had become true. Rosenthal and Jacobson's results also revealed that the more the control children gained in IQ, the less well adjusted, interesting, and affectionate were they perceived by their teachers. Teachers seemed actively antagonistic toward the students demonstrating unexpected intellectual growth (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968).

The appearance of the effects of teachers' expectations was revealed in the study as students who were identified as *late bloomers* actually progressed or bloomed, intellectually toward the end of the school year (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). The effect of teachers' expectations appeared to persist over time. Rosenthal and Jacobson continued to conduct the nonverbal intelligence test for the next 2 years. At both years' follow-up assessments, students identified as intellectual bloomers showed higher IQ scores than the control group (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968).

A major component of the expectations of successful teachers may be the belief that all children can succeed. Bamburg (1994) suggested that while the effects of low teacher expectations are observable in the classroom, factors that contribute to these expectations are less obvious. In essence, expectations can result from the actions and beliefs of teachers based on factors that occur in and outside of the classroom. Bamburg believed that when educators are able to address the issue of low teacher expectations for students, they can begin to change present ways of thinking about school structure and implement strategies to determine why not all students are learning. Teachers play a vital role in forming students' experiences in school given that a large portion of a student's school day exhibits much verbal and nonverbal interaction with teachers.

According to Noddings (1992, 2003), two components of these interactions are expected to affect students' feelings about school: (a) the extent to which teachers provide social and emotional support for students and (b) the nature of teachers' expectations for students' academic performance. Noddings (2003) also assigned the responsibility of engaging in positive interactions with students primarily to the teacher. Noddings (2003) declared that a teacher should first be one who cares about students and second, be one who instructs them.

Expectancy theory is integrally related to the previous theoretical elements. Lawler (1973) defined expectancy as the person's estimate of the probability that he will accomplish his intended performance, given the situation in which he finds himself. Lawler contended that people have a tendency to react to one another contingent upon their expectations. Therefore, those reactions become norms that reflect achievement standards for most people, and result in expectations for a person's behavior in certain situations (Lawler, 1973).

The expectancy construct, which is at the core of the research on teacher expectations, was studied in the field of psychology, starting with Tolman's (1938) work in the 1930s on expectancy theories of learning as they applied to animal behavior. Tolman took for granted without proof that animals and humans develop expectancy (often anticipation of rewards) for completing behaviors they have learned, and this expectancy functions as an internal incentive or motivation to continue the behavior (Zuroff & Rotter, 1985). Among the most influential work connecting the general study of expectancy effects to research on teacher expectations specifically is that of Merton (1948) who developed the concept of self-fulfilling prophecy.

The concept of self-fulfilling prophecy created research on the expectancy construct in a wide array of areas, ranging from the doctor-patient relationship to the judicial arena (Rubie-Davies, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2006). Based on the studies conducted by Babad (1993) and Kolb and Jussim (1994), the expectations of one person can in fact influence the achievement of another person. These results parallel those that would be expected by the social psychology concept of self-fulfilling prophecy. In other words, individuals' actions will mirror what is expected of them, both good and bad. As Jussim and Eccles (1992) stated,

> The self-fulfilling prophecy hypothesis suggests that teachers' expectations predict students' future achievement, even after controlling for students' prior achievement. The perceptual bias hypothesis suggests that teacher expectations predict their own judgments of students' achievement (i.e., grades) more than they predict independent assessment of students' achievement (i.e., standardized test scores). (p. 949)

Although the term, *teacher expectations* has many definitions, Cooper's (1984) study focused on three general types of teacher expectations. The three types are: (a) where the student is at the present time, (b) the teacher's prediction about how much academic progress a student will make over a specified period of time, and (c) the degree to which a teacher over- or underestimates a student's present level of performance.

Cooper (1984) clarified the first type of teacher expectations as the teacher's perceptions of the status of a student now. While not really a statement about expectations of future performance, it does help identify expectation effects. For example, it was noted that teachers who believed that they were interacting with bright students smile and nodded their heads more often than teachers who believed that they are interacting with slow students. Teachers also leaned toward and looked into the eyes of smarter students more frequently (Chaikin, Sigler, & Derlega, 1974). Behaviors such as these are predicated upon how the teacher perceived the student initially.

In contrast, Brophy (1983) found that teachers wait less time for low-expectancy students to answer questions, are more likely to give low-expectancy students an answer than probe for an inaccurate response, tend to reward inappropriate or incorrect responses from low-expectancy students, and generally pay less attention to low-expectancy students. When they do pay attention to low-expectancy students, teachers do so privately more often than publicly. In heterogeneous classrooms, teachers call on low-expectancy students less frequently, seat low-expectancy students farther away from teachers in classrooms, smile less and offer less eye contact to low-expectancy students, and offer less instructional material to low-expectancy students.

Cooper (1984) explained the second type of teacher expectations as involving a teacher's prediction about how much academic progress a student will make over a

specified period. It appeared that expected improvement has a weak correlation with a teacher's present assessment of the student. However, Beez (1968) found that students labeled *slow* may receive fewer opportunities to learn new material than students labeled *bright* and that slow students typically are taught less difficult material. The impact of such behavior is cumulative, and, over time, teachers' predictions of student achievement may in fact become true (Beez, 1968).

Cooper (1984) deemed the third type of expectation is the degree to which a teacher over- or underestimates a student's present level of performance. This type of expectation results from a teacher's estimate of student ability based upon some formal assessment of that student's performance. It is most often driven by the use of a test that is perceived to provide an accurate measure of student ability (Bamburg, 1994).

The types of expectations described previously result in two effects upon student performance–the *self-fulfilling prophecy* or the *Pygmalion Effect* and the *sustaining expectation effect* (Bamburg, 1994). Research into the ways in which teachers interact with students and the relationship between those interactions and students' academic performance (Brophy & Good, 1974; Douglas, 1964; Mackler, 1969; Rowe, 1969) sheds considerable light on how teachers form expectations about their students and, more important, how teachers' expectations influence their behavior toward their students.

Particularly noteworthy are the findings of Douglas (1964) and Mackler (1969) that indicate that teachers' expectations about students' achievement can be affected by factors having little or nothing to do with their ability. Yet teacher expectations can determine the level of achievement by limiting learning opportunities to those available for students. The importance of these findings should not be taken lightly, particularly because evidence showed that students often internalize teachers' expectations over time.

When this internalization occurs, students' self-concept and motivation to achieve may decline over time until students' ability to achieve to their potential is damaged (Bamburg, 1994).

The second type of expectation observed in classrooms is the sustaining expectations effect. The sustaining expectations effect occurs when a teacher responds based on what she currently thinks about the students and the changes in how students performed which were caused by sources other than the teacher (Cooper & Good, 1983). When a teacher misses an opportunity to improve student performance based on how the teacher expects the student to perform rather than on other indices showing improved student potential, a sustaining expectations effect has occurred.

The evidence has undoubtedly revealed that low teacher expectations for students can negatively affect student performance. Meanwhile, the evidence that high expectations for students can also have an impact has been clearly documented. A study by Edmonds and Frederiksen (1979) found that teachers in instructionally effective inner-city schools had high expectations for all of their students. Other studies have yielded comparable results (Andrews, Soder, & Jacoby, 1986; Bamburg & Andrews, 1989; Brophy & Evertson, 1976; McDonald & Elias, 1976; Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston, & Smith, 1979).

Rosenthal (1966) suggested that a teacher's expectations can be viewed as an estimate of a child's probable academic performance within the classroom. When children know what other people expect from them, their behavior conforms to this pattern. Thus, what a teacher expects in the classroom can influence student perceptions and behaviors (Rosenthal, 1966).

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1973) concluded that if teachers expect certain children to have high academic performance, those children will perform well. Nevertheless, if teachers expect certain children to perform poorly, those children will perform poorly. Teachers who foster positive relationships with their students create classroom environments more conducive to learning and meet students' developmental, emotional, and academic needs (Rimm-Kaufman, 2011).

While teachers' support is expected to have a straightforward relationship with students' attachment to school, the association between teachers' expectations and if students like school is much more complex. Several decades ago, Goffman (1959) suggested that during childhood and adolescence, children are particularly sensitive to the evaluation of adults. Goffman also proposed that students' reactions to meeting or failing to meet teachers' expectations are likely to have a significant effect on their attitudes toward learning and their feelings about school.

Kloosterman and Cougan (1994) reported that a teacher can have high or low expectations for a student, and a student may or may not be able to meet these expectations. The researchers also concluded that when students live up to teachers' standards, they earn the teachers' approval (Kloosterman & Cougan, 1994). Therefore, teachers' approval builds students' self-confidence and motivates them to persist in their efforts to achieve.

In contrast, when students fail to meet teachers' expectations, teachers usually convey disapproval, students lose self-confidence, their motivation declines, and the quality of their academic work suffers (Mulford & Silins, 2003; Pugh, 1976). The implication is that students will like school less when they are aware that their teachers are dissatisfied with their academic performances. The researchers' argument suggested

that students' attachment to school is positively associated with teachers' expectations (Mulford & Silins, 2003; Pugh, 1976).

If teachers set low expectations for students' academic performance, some students will believe that their teachers are underestimating their abilities (Cooper, 1984). These students may diligently attempt to show that they can achieve more when given challenging assignments with the hopes of winning greater esteem from the teachers. However, the students may react by placing less effort into their assignments because they believe even a minimal effort will reflect teachers' approval. Regardless of the case, students' reactions to teachers' expectations will affect their effort and achievement and, in turn, their feelings about their teacher and school (Mulford & Silins, 2003; Pugh, 1976).

It is imperative that teachers express high expectations for all students, both in academic and in personal responsibility (Baird et al., 2007; Yatvin, 2009). In relation to teacher expectations and student learning, Callahan, Clark, and Kellough (2002) stated, "Unless you believe that your students can learn, they will not; unless you believe that you can teach them, you will not and unless your students believe that they can learn and they want to learn, they will not" (p. 15).

Research suggested that understanding achievement begins with motivation. Attribution theory (Weiner, 1980) is probably the most influential contemporary theory with implications for academic motivation. It incorporates behavior modification in the sense that it emphasizes the idea that learners are strongly motivated by the pleasant outcome of being able to feel good about themselves. It incorporates the cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory in the sense that it emphasizes that learners' current self-perceptions will strongly influence the ways in which they will interpret the success or

failure of their current efforts and hence their future tendency to perform these same behaviors (Bandura, 1997).

Heider (1958) was among psychologists to recommend a theory of attribution. The purpose of the attribution theory was to assist with understanding the causes of human behavior. Heider's theory suggested that what people perceive and believe about their surroundings will dictate their actions, even if what they perceive and believe is contradictory to their beliefs and values. Contrary to Heider's theory, Weiner's (1986) theory focused on attribution but altered the focal point from causes of human behavior toward outcomes of student learning. According to Weiner (2000), the attribution theory is appropriate for examining student motivation in school settings because it addresses personal and social motivation.

Proponents of the attribution theory advocated that the explanations people tend to make to explain success or failure can be analyzed in terms of three sets of characteristics (Weiner, 2000). First, the cause of the success or failure may be internal or external. That is, people may succeed or fail because of factors that they believe have their origin within them or because of factors that originate in their environment. Next, the cause of success or failure may be either stable or unstable. If people believe cause is stable, then the outcome is likely to be the same if they perform the same behavior on another occasion. If it is unstable, the outcome is likely to be different on another occasion. Finally, the cause of the success or failure may be either controllable or uncontrollable. A controllable factor is one that people believe they themselves can alter if they wish to do so. An uncontrollable factor is one that people do not believe they can easily alter (Weiner, 2000).

Teacher Expectations Research

Good and Brophy (1997) defined teachers' expectations as inferences made about the future behavior or achievement of a student based on what the teacher knows about the student at the given moment. These inferences can eventually cause a student to behave or achieve in ways that confirm the teacher's expectations (Brehm & Kassin, 1996).

In studies on *teacher expectations* (Caruthers, 2007; Cooper, 1985; Cooper & Good, 1983; Good & Brophy, 2003; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Saracho, 1991), the term has several definitions ranging from predictions to beliefs about current levels of ability and performance, to beliefs about students' normal behavior (i.e., cooperativeness, following rules, obeying teacher, etc.). This application of the term has been justified because such perceptions and beliefs are often the foundations for predictions, and, to the extent that they are inaccurate, may produce *expectancy effects,* a term that refers to either of two related yet very different phenomena (Jussim, 2006).

The term *teacher expectations* has also been known to inspire righteous indignation for teachers' purported role in creating inequalities. The primary reason is the self-fulfilling prophecy—erroneous teacher expectations may lead students to perform at levels consistent with those expectations (Brophy & Good, 1974; Merton, 1948; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). It is not clear, however, that the evidence justifies condemnations of teachers for their supposed role in creating injustices. Other researchers condemned some teacher expectation research as astoundingly flawed.

Fines (2003) based behaviors on expectations that individuals have made about other people or events. When teachers expect more from students, they tend to invest more in their teaching, which, in turn, results in increased student learning and

achievement. If student achievement is attributed to student ability, it then reinforces the teacher's initial expectations. According to Fines, this cycle is repeated when teachers exhibit negative expectations toward students.

While teachers' support is expected to have a straightforward relationship with students' attachment to school, the association between teachers' expectations and if students like school is much more complex. Several decades ago, Goffman (1959) suggested that during childhood and adolescence, children are particularly sensitive to the evaluation of adults. Goffman suggested that students' reactions to meeting or failing to meet teachers' expectations are likely to have a significant effect on their attitudes toward learning and their feelings about school.

As Kloosterman and Cougan (1994) found, a teacher can have high or low expectations for a student, and a student may or may not be able to meet these expectations. The researchers also concluded that when students live up to teachers' standards, they earn the teachers' approval (Kloosterman & Cougan, 1994). Therefore, teachers' approval builds students' self-confidence and motivates them to persist in their efforts to achieve.

In contrast, when students fail to meet teachers' expectations, teachers usually convey disapproval, students lose self-confidence, motivation declines, and the quality of academic work suffers (Mulford & Silins, 2003; Pugh, 1976). The implication is that students will like school less when they are aware that their teachers are dissatisfied with their academic performances. Mulford and Silins' argument suggested that students' attachment to school is positively associated with teachers' expectations.

Mulford and Silins (2003) and Pugh (1976) implied that if teachers set low expectations for students' academic performance, some students will believe that their

teachers are underestimating their abilities. These students may diligently attempt to show that they can achieve more when given challenging assignments with the hopes of winning greater esteem from the teachers. However, the students may react by putting less effort into their assignments because they believe that even a minimal effort will reflect teachers' approval. Regardless of the case, students' reactions to teachers' expectations will affect their effort and achievement and, in turn, their feelings about their teacher and school (Mulford & Silins, 2003; Pugh, 1976).

According to studies conducted by Cooper and Moore (1995) and Good (1987) teachers can formulate expectations of students based on the following: (a) special education referral, (b) physical characteristics, (c) race or ethnicity, (d) socioeconomic status, (e) ethnicity, and (f) classroom behavior. Additionally, Cooper and Moore conducted studies on how gender, racial group, parental structure, and teenage motherhood affect teacher expectations. From this study, it was found that teenage motherhood negatively affected teacher expectations and higher expectations were conveyed to students from middle-class families in contrast to those students from low socioeconomic families (Cooper & Moore, 1995).

According to Kahlenberg (2000), low expectations of low-income students can be seen in grading standards. Kahlenberg discussed one study where the same test given to low-income students resulted in a C and an A in high-poverty schools. Even with the difference in grades, teachers in high-poverty schools expected the students to receive a low grade. Kahlenberg conducted another study that focused on students in which the higher the number of low-income students in a school, the lower the teachers' expectations was for student achievement. Additionally, this study revealed when first-grade teachers were asked to predict students' marks in second grade, those schools with

less than half of the student population receiving free or reduced price lunch, the teachers predicted that the students would receive more As and Bs than Cs. Whereas, teachers within schools that reflected a higher proportion of students in poverty predicted that students' academic achievement would be mostly Cs.

It is imperative that teachers express high expectations for all students, both in academic and in personal responsibility (Baird et al., 2007). In relation to teacher expectations and student achievement, Callahan et al. (2002) stated, "Unless you believe that your students can learn, they will not; unless you believe that you can teach them, you will not and unless your students believe that they can learn and they want to learn, they will not" (p. 15).

Dweck (2010) proposed that beliefs about intelligence have a major impact on student achievement. Dweck suggested that teachers, administrators, students, and parents have a tendency to view intelligence in one of two ways. First, the *fixed mindset* is determined by how bright or intelligent a child is at birth. It is based on the fixed method that says, "Some students are smart and some are not, and that's that" (Dweck, 2010, 27).

Second, the growth mindset was described by Dweck (2010) as malleable intelligence that develops as a result of effort and instruction known. A growth mindset does not imply that everyone is the same or that anyone could be a genius. However, Dweck did suggest that everyone's intellectual ability can grow. Growth mindset proposes that geniuses were not geniuses prior to putting in years of passionate and relentless effort (Dweck, 2010).

Dweck (2010) further suggested that having a growth mindset is especially important for students who believe the negative stereotypes about their abilities. For

example, many African Americans, Hispanics, and girls believe that they will perform poorly in science and math because this is a stereotype for them. To test the validity of this theory, Dweck monitored hundreds of New York City seventh graders with similar math achievement. Within a 2-year period of this study, students who believed that intelligence could be developed surpassed students with the fixed mindset, and the lack of achievement between the two groups became more comprehensive with each semester (Dweck, 2010).

Furthermore, Dweck (2010) stated that those students with the growth mindset focused on learning, believed in effort, and were resilient in the fact of setbacks. Whereas, students with the fixed mindset worried more about looking smart and not making mistakes, believed that needing to make an effort to learn meant that their intelligence was deficient, and became discouraged or defensive in the face of setbacks because they believed that setbacks reflected limitations in their intelligence (Dweck, 2010).

Teachers' mindsets can also be fixed-mindset or growth-mindset. Based on a study conducted by Dweck (2010), students who had teachers with the fixed-mindset made no progress, whereas, students with teachers with the growth-mindset improved to become moderate or high achievers. Furthermore, this study revealed that adults with the fixed-mindset had a tendency to make ill-tempered judgments, immediately placing individuals into categories. This meant that once they have decided that someone is or is not capable; they are not very open to new information to the contrary. Dweck revealed that when teachers decide certain students are not capable, or when principals decide certain teachers are not capable, steps may not be taken to help them develop their fullest potential.

The manner in which students are treated by different teachers is revealing. Dweck (2010) explained that for a student who fails the first math test of the year, a fixed-mindset teacher typically comforts the student and says that not everyone can be good at math. Whereas, growth-mindset teachers convey to students that they can improve the score, give encouragement, and share specific study skills and strategies through individualized instruction (Dweck, 2010).

Studies conducted by Jussim and Eccles (1992) and Jussim, Smith, Madon and Palumbo (1998) examined the manner in which expectations are conveyed to students in classroom setting and how these message affect student achievement. The results of these studies clearly indicated that the expectations of teachers affect student achievement and student learning. If a teacher has high expectations for students and the students perceive this, the students will then work hard to meet those expectations that the teacher has set forth for them (Baird et al., 2007; Yatvin, 2009). However, if a student perceives that a teacher does not believe the students will be academically successful and do well, the students will most likely not rise to those expectations set forth by the teacher (Baird et al., 2007; Yatvin, 2009).

Young (1997) declared the link between students' belief that they can succeed and the achievement as straightforward. Harter (1999) concurred that if students do not believe they can learn, the achievement will likely be limited, and if they believe they can learn, their achievement will most likely be fine. Additionally, if students perceive that the teacher's perceptions support student failure, the self-fulfilling prophecy interferes with the students' level of academic achievement. The manner in which a teacher behaves toward students can lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy where students will academically perform as expected (Baird et al., 2007; Yatvin, 2009).

Other studies that involve effective schools revealed expectations related to student learning are one of the powerful predictors of student achievement (Baird et al., 2007; Yatvin, 2009). According to Stipek (1998), teachers get incredible outcomes from students, even from those students who are viewed as academically and behaviorally difficult to instruct from other teachers, because they display high expectations to the students at the onset of the school year. Callahan et al. (2002) suggested that teachers who obtain remarkable results from students are those teachers who acknowledge that all students can achieve when given adequate support. Teachers not only convey these expectations to their students, a class environment is created that promotes student learning, motivates students to do their personal best, and class time is managed where very few distractions interfere with the learning process.

Yatvin (2009) reported that many educators have a misguided view of what high expectations means. According to Yatvin, "Teachers' expectations of student success, and their unconscious communication of those expectations, make all the difference" (p. 24). Yatvin acknowledged that belief is not enough and suggested that schools need a rigorous curriculum, resources that allows for differentiation, well-planned instruction, options for struggling learners, and effective use of data. Yatvin further stated,

> Researchers focus on the power of belief to influence the behavior of others. Advocates of increased rigor in schools focus on the power of authority to exact compliance from underlings. Rigor, the word so often used by reformers to describe what schools should emphasize, is more properly the companion of harshness, inflexibility, and oppression. It is time to change the current conception of high expectations back to its original meaning. (pp. 24–25)

Gewertz (2005) reported on the continuing popularity of the Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement (TESA) program and formed an interesting discussion among those who perceive teachers' expectations as the most meaningful predictors related to high student achievement. In Los Angeles during the early 1970s, TESA was piloted. Two research findings indicated that students had a tendency to fulfill the expectations of their teachers and teachers responded more positively to students perceived to be higher-achiever (Gewertz, 2005). In addition, Gewertz's findings demonstrated that lower-achieving students whose teachers were trained in TESA performed significantly higher on standardized tests than students whose teachers had not been trained (Gewertz, 2005).

Teachers' Expectations and Ethnicity

Most of the research around teachers' expectations and ethnicity has taken place in the United States where teachers' expectations for White students and Black students have been explored. However, since a large proportion of the Black students attend school in the poorest areas, teachers' expectations for those students may inevitably be connected to their social class. So whether or not it is ethnicity or social class (or both) that influences teachers is difficult to unravel (Ennis, 1998).

Researchers have suggested that minority group students are more susceptible to teachers' low expectations than are White students and that this may serve to further widen the achievement gap when such students accept and confirm teachers' negative expectations (McKown & Weinstein, 2002a; Nichols & Good, 2004). McKown and Weinstein's study has shown that students are well aware of their teacher's expectations for their performance, particularly in classrooms where teachers make more rather than less differentiation in the interactional and communication context for students.

One of the primary ways in which teachers' expectations mediate student achievement is through opportunity to learn. As researchers have shown, minority students are simply not given the opportunities to enhance their learning which could decrease the achievement gap (Nichols & Good, 2004; Weinstein, 2002). Furthermore, by being frequently placed in low academic groupings in which they are publicly labeled and categorized, minority students have few opportunities to redress their racial, social, and economic disadvantage (Weinstein, Gregory, & Strambler, 2004).

Cooper and Moore (1995) found that race or ethnicity had no significant affect on teacher expectations. Whereas, Ferguson (1998) and McKown and Weinstein (2002b) found that teachers' expectations of student achievement most likely uphold and increase the gap between Black and White students' test scores. Landsman (2004) indicated that teacher expectations are influenced by ethnicity and race or ethnicity of students. Landsman stated:

> Students in one St. Paul Minnesota high school talked about a teacher who asked the White students in an advanced placement class the tough questions, but turned to the few Black or Latino students when she had an easy question. (p. 28)

Rubie-Davies, Hattie, and Hamilton (2006) aimed to explore differences in teachers' expectations and judgments of student reading performance for Maori, Pacific Island, Asian, and New Zealand European students. A further objective was to compare teacher expectations and judgments with actual student achievement. Findings indicated that teachers' expectations for students in reading were significantly higher than actual achievement for all ethnic groups other than Maori (Rubie-Davies et al., 2006). Maori students' achievement was similar to that of the other groups at the beginning of the year but, by the end of the year, they had made the least gains of all groups. Such

expectations may be exemplified in the learning opportunities provided, in the affective climate created and in the interactional content and context of the classroom (Rubie-Davies et al., 2006).

Research into the effects of lowered expectations for ethnic minority groups has also been carried out in the United Kingdom. The Swann Report (Swann, 1985) examined the effectiveness of education for ethnic minority groups in the United Kingdom. Pellegrini and Blatchford (2000) reported that one of its main findings was that low expectations for these students were a major factor in their poor academic achievement. The evidence as to whether student ethnicity is a factor in the formation of teachers' expectations is, however, inconclusive. Many researchers claim that it is less ethnicity and higher social class that influence teachers' expectations (Jussim et al., 1998).

Baron, Tom, and Cooper (1985) reviewed 16 studies on race or ethnicity in an effort to establish a correlation between teacher expectations and race or ethnicity. Based on the results from those 16 studies, nine studies revealed that teachers favored White students. One study showed teachers favoring Black students, and six studies showed no evidence at all that support a correlation between teachers' expectation and race.

Kahlenberg (2000) discussed how race or ethnicity as a factor can affect teacher expectations. The results from her study were derived from seven elementary schools in the Chicago area. Kahlenberg found extended differences in the challenges that students were engaged with while receiving reading instruction. In schools attended by predominantly Black students and low-income families, the teachers tended to expose the students to fewer skills in comparison to schools attended by predominantly White

students. Kahlenberg's study revealed that teachers tend to formulate their expectations on the group performance of students instead of the performance of individual students.

A common characteristic of highly effective teachers is their refusal to change their attitudes or expectations for students, regardless of the students' race or ethnicity, life experience and interests, family wealth, or stability (Hattie, 2003; Muller, Katz, & Dance, 1999; Omotani & Omotani, 1996; Pellegrini & Blatchford, 2000; Weinstein et al., 2004). Whether teachers form expectations based on student ethnicity is of interest to researchers particularly given the poor relative academic achievement of ethnic minority groups in many countries and the consequent detrimental effect that lowered teacher expectations may have on the academic achievement of these groups (Hattie, 2003; Muller et al., 1999; Pellegrini & Blatchford, 2000; Weinstein et al., 2004).

Some of the research pointed to ethnicity as a factor in teachers' expectations. Meta-analyses carried out by Dusek (1985) and Baron et al. (1985) suggested that teacher expectations were influenced by ethnicity, although the effect size across both experimental and naturalistic studies was small. A further analysis by the latter researchers of only naturalistic studies provided an effect size of 22 and further reinforced the original finding. Research that is more recent has continued to find ethnic variations in teachers' expectations (Baron et al., 1985).

In a study of teacher expectations for 156 former Head Start and 114 non-Head Start children when they entered first grade, Wigfield, Galper, Denton, and Seefeldt (1999) expected to find differences in teacher perceptions by social class. Instead, they found differences related to ethnicity. That is, teachers' expectations for White students were considerably more positive than for Black students. Additionally, teachers rated Black children lower on the academic scales. They also rated the ability of these students

to make friends and their own enjoyment in working with them lower than their ratings for White students (Wigfield et al., 1999).

Entwisle and Alexander (1988) found in their study of 825 first-year students that the Black students started school with slightly higher standardized test results in reading than the White students. This indicator and other background variables of the students triggered the prediction that the Black students would gain better grades on their first reports than the White students would. In fact, the reverse was the case with a small positive difference in reading grades favoring White students (Entwisle & Alexander, 1988). By the end of the year, this had translated into a significant difference, which was also reflected in standardized reading test results at that time. This led the researchers to conclude that the teachers' expectations, which were reflected in their grades, had had a significant impact on the educational achievement of the students (Entwisle & Alexander, 1988).

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> Most of the research around teachers' expectations and ethnicity has taken place
>
> in the United States where teachers' expectations for Caucasian students and

African-American students have been explored, but since a large proportion 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 or social class (or both) that influences

teachers is difficult to unravel. (p. 10)

Research suggests that minority group students are more susceptible to teachers'

low expectations than are White students and that this may serve to further widen the

achievement gap when such students accept and confirm teachers' negative expectations

(McKown & Weinstein, 2002a; Nichols & Good, 2004). Weinstein has shown that

students are well aware of their teacher's expectations for their performance, particularly

in classrooms where teachers make more rather than less differentiation in the

interactional and communication context for students.

Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement

Educators created different expectations for their students. According to

Bamburg (1994), teacher expectations play a significant role in determining how well and

how much students learned. The expectations that teachers formulate about students are

often based on the preliminary accomplishments of students or the teachers' knowledge

of their past performance (Caruthers, 2007). If an underachieving student performs

unusually high, the teacher may conclude that the student was lucky. In spite of the

student's accomplishment, the teacher will continue to manage the student based on his

or her prior performance. The student is also likely to be criticized; therefore, nurturing a

belief that he or she cannot do the work, and resulting in his or her continued poor

performance (Caruthers, 2007).

Teacher Expectations and Gender

Gender is a factor that affects teacher expectancy of students more noticeably, on many levels, than other factors. Stipek (1998) argued that gender biases are based on cultural stereotypes and that boys tend to perform better in math and science based on their upbringing. Bruns, McFall, McFall, Persinger, and Vostal (2000) found parents consider boys to be better in math and science than girls and encourage their sons to participate in activities that use math and science skills to foster and advance these skills.

In a study by Leinhardt, Seewald, and Engel (1979), the teacher-student interactions in second-grade classrooms revealed that in reading, girls had more academic contacts with teachers and received more instructional time than did boys. In the case of math, however, boys received more academic contact and more instructional time than girls did. Recent studies revealed that boys from minority ethnic backgrounds are at particular risk for school failure (Davis, 2005; Tutwiler, 2007). The potential relationship between teacher expectations for boys, boys' beliefs about themselves, and how well they perform in school are especially important topics for further study (Davis, 2005; Tutwiler, 2007).

According to Payne's (2005) best-selling book, *A Framework for Understanding Poverty*, educators addressed the challenges of educating all children. Payne's ultimate goal was to offer more support to effectively teaching students from low socioeconomic families. Jussim (1991) revealed that grading is based less on objective characteristics of the assignment than on expectancies of the teacher. Research indicated that teachers typically infer high efforts based on the students' previous performance. Teachers' perceptions of students' behaviors in the learning environment influenced their grading of student work. Similar to Jussim, Brophy (1983) reported that high-expectancy students

were more likely to be given the benefit of the doubt in grading practices when compared to low-expectancy students. Good and Brophy (1991) suggested that low expectations combined with an attitude of futility communicated to various groups of students that they are doomed to academic failure.

Teacher Expectations and Socioeconomic Status

Educators have long been interested in identifying variables that serve as accurate predictors of student academic success. The literature indicated that socioeconomic level may influence student achievement (Dorsey, 2002; Gorski, 2008; Klingele & Warrick, 1990). Dorsey studied relationships among school related variables and student academic achievement. Student ethnicity and socioeconomic status were the variables that appeared to be the strongest predictors of student academic achievement in math and reading. This correlational study used scores from the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills in reading and math in the state of Louisiana (Klingele & Warrick, 1990).

Klingele and Warrick (1990) conducted a study of fourth-grade students in an Arkansas School District to determine if selected non-instructional variables affected the reading achievement of the students. Student socioeconomic status was one of the four variables selected for this study. The results revealed that the percentage of minority students per district and the percentage of students eligible for free and reduced lunches had a significantly negative relationship with student achievement. Findings indicated that the socioeconomic status of students appeared to be the common denominator in the results. School districts with a higher percentage of minority and low-income students were less successful in the teaching of reading. They concluded that socioeconomic status and minority status are the primary variables affecting reading achievement. Middle-class parents have the financial means to send their children to tutoring so they do

not fall behind in their studies, while parents who have limited financial means are not afforded such an option.

Gorski (2008) purported that the most destructive tool of the culture of public education is the deficit theory. Gorski stated, "In education, we often talk about the deficit perspective–defining students by their weaknesses rather than their strengths" (p. 33). The deficit theory justifies a system that privileges economically advantaged students at the expense of working-class and poor students. Gorski held the notion that "poor people suffer disproportionately the effects of nearly every major social ill and the implications of the deficit theory reach far beyond an individual bias" (p. 34).

<center>Characteristics That Influence Teacher Expectations</center>

Specific characteristics influence teacher expectations. Poverty is one of the characteristics that typically teachers determine the level of achievement for such children. Much of the literature confirmed that when children in poverty are poorly dressed, underfed, and undernourished, teachers generally assume that they are underachievers (Dorsey, 2002; Gorski, 2008; Klingele & Warrick, 1990).

Researchers revealed another characteristic as the lack of parental support and low expectations of parents (Bowen-Lipscomb, 2004; Maton & Hrabowski, 2004; Sanders, 2001). Some teachers have higher expectations for girls in reading than boys and higher expectations for boys in math and science than girls; yet they call on boys more as a means to control their aggressive behaviors (Bruns, McFall, McFall, Persinger, & Vostal, 2000; Stipek, 1998). Consequently, such children have low self-esteems and low self-concepts, with little confidence in their abilities.

Student Perceptions of Positive Teacher-Student Relationships

Positive teacher-student relationships were evidenced by teachers' reports of low conflict, a high degree of closeness and support, and little dependency. These constructive relationships have been shown to support students' adjustment to school, and contribute to their social skills. Research has found that assenting teacher-student relationships promote academic accomplishment, and foster students' resiliency in academic performance (Battistich, Schaps, & Wilson, 2004; Birch & Ladd, 1997; Hamre & Pianta, 2001).

The quality of early teacher-student relationships has a long-lasting impact (Rimm-Kaufman, 2011). Specifically, students who had more conflict with their teachers or showed more dependency toward their teachers in kindergarten also had lower academic achievement, as reflected in mathematics and language arts grades, and more behavioral problems (e.g., poorer work habits, more discipline problems) through the eighth grade. These findings were evident even after taking into consideration the extent to which students' behavior problems related to problematic teacher-child relationships. These results were greater for boys than for girls (Hamre & Pianta, 2001). Further work provided proof that children with more closeness and less conflict with teachers developed better social skills as they approached the middle school years than those with more relationships of conflict in kindergarten (Berry & O'Connor, 2009).

Brophy (1983) and McEvoy and Welker (2000) conducted studies related to student perceptions of academic success and teacher expectations. The findings from those studies showed that student achievement levels were influenced directly by students' perceptions of teacher expectations about their performance and capabilities. Those researchers also found that the primary expectation for promoting student

academic and social success was through the creation of environments in which students feel safe and valued (Brophy, 1983; McEvoy & Welker, 2000).

According to the survey referred to as the *Being Known Survey* (Lenz & Adams, 2000), teacher expectations and students' feelings of safety and being valued are aspects of students' perceptions of being known by their teachers. Additionally, the amount of time spent engaged in various academic tasks and accommodations formed for students' academic achievement may lead to academic and social success as much as effective instruction (Wang, Haertel, & Walberg, 1990). Researchers Gay (2000) and Nieto (1999) concurred that the ability of teachers to communicate high expectations and to hold a positive attitude of all students is one of the foundations for student success, especially when working with diverse students. According to Persell (2000), the United States has an historical legacy of legally enforced segregation and an ideology of intellectual inferiority. If these beliefs have implications for educational expectations of educators, such beliefs could lead to lower performance by students in certain sub-groups, considering the fact that public opinion polls suggested that stereotypes are perceived to be true.

Whether the outcome is negative or positive, when students meet the expectations, the teacher's preconceived ideas are validated. Whether the studies are experimental, based on correlation, or experiments in nature, findings generally supported the view that students' academic achievements are influenced significantly by what teachers expect and how these expectations are communicated even when the expectations do not accurately reflect the students' skills (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Such findings remain consistent with the concept of self-fulfilling prophecy.

Research has also shown that student behaviors are different based on the expectations of the teacher (Brophy, 1983; Lenz & Adams, 2000; McEvoy & Welker, 2000). Jussim (1991) found that grading is based less on objective characteristics of the assignment than on expectancies of the grader. Typically, teachers infer high effort based on previous high performance. In addition, Jussim determined that teacher perceptions of students' behaviors in the classroom influence their grading of student work. Brophy (1983) made a similar point, suggesting more high-expectancy students were more likely to be given the benefit of the doubt in grading practices when compared to low-expectancy students.

Although Brophy (1983) indicated that teachers criticized high-expectancy students less than they criticized low-expectancy students, Mitman (1985) reported that when teachers criticize high-expectancy students, they do so for very different reasons. Teachers tend to use criticism as a means of communicating challenging and high standards to students for whom they hold high expectancies (Baird et al., 2007). The study confirmed a relationship between teacher expectations and student achievement. Research on the topic established a strong basis for showing that teacher expectations do play an important role in determining the overall academic achievement of students and the amount of knowledge a student retains (Baird et al., 2007).

Teachers must consistently convey to students high expectations for the purpose of student achievement (Baird et al., 2007; Yatvin, 2009). Scarborough and Parker (2003) established that low expectations yield low achievement. While low expectations conveyed by teachers are displayed for various reasons, the vision of student achievement has an affect on student performance. Callahan et al. (2002) stated, "Unless you believe that all students can learn, they will not; unless you believe that you can teach them, you

will not and unless your students believe that they can learn and they want to learn, they

will not" (p. 15).

Similar to teachers' expectations of students, studies indicated that students also

have expectations of academic success for themselves that is typically based on other's

opinions of their success (Brophy, 1983; Callahan et al., 2002; Lenz & Adams, 2000;

McEvoy & Welker, 2000). For students to be academically successful, they must believe

that they can succeed. Such beliefs come about because of the perceptions and

observations students derive from their teachers in the learning environment.

Regardless of how well planned a teacher is for instruction; certain perceptions by

students must be in tact to support the successful implementation of those plans (Callahan

et al., 2002). Callahan et al. concluded that students must perceive that the learning

environment is supportive of their efforts, that the teacher cares about their learning, and

that they are welcome in the learning environment. Students also reported that the

expected learning is challenging; not impossible, and that the learning outcomes are

deserving of the time and effort spent toward student achievement.

Brophy (1983) and McEvoy and Welker (2000) conducted studies related to

student perceptions of academic success and teacher expectations. The findings from

those studies revealed that student achievement levels were influenced directly by

students' perceptions of teacher expectations about their performance and capabilities.

Those researchers also found that the primary expectation for promoting student

academic and social success was through the creation of environments in which students

feel safe and valued.

Students perceived teachers' behaviors in a similar manner in which teachers

perceive students' behaviors (Brophy, 1983; Callahan et al., 2002; Lenz & Adams, 2000;

McEvoy & Welker, 2000). There are factors that influence the way in which students perceive the behaviors of teachers. Such student perceptions can be viewed as problematic because the behaviors of the same teachers are perceived differently by the students. According to Dusek (1985), students may perceive certain behaviors as more different than those intended by the teacher, based on personal expectations. However, Muller et al. (1999) suggested that students perceive teacher behaviors based on their own view of the existing student-teacher relationship.

As determined by Stipek (1998), attitudes are the combination of a perception that can be a judgment that often results in an emotion that influences behavior. Attitudes, Stipek found, are generally contingent on beliefs that are learned and result from experience. Although attitudes are sometimes self-destructive, they have a tendency to give us a sense of being in control of our surroundings (Stipek, 1998).

Students' Attitudes Toward Achievement

Wlodkowski (1984) discussed that the attitudes of students toward achievement can be either harmful or helpful. Those attitudes that are helpful from a teacher's perspective may facilitate a student's ability to learn, acquire a sense of happiness and fulfillment, and flourish toward academic achievement. In contrast, harmful attitudes can cause a sense of failure to overcome the student's ability to achieve academic success, lead to pessimism and self-destructing behaviors. Wlodkowski reported that a negative attitude toward oneself, a poor attitude toward a teacher without sufficient reason, and low expectancy for success are often inappropriate attitudes that continue cycles of cynicism and self-defeat.

Explicit and implicit motivations were shown to have a compelling impact on behavior (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). Task behaviors are accelerated in the face of a

challenge through implicit motivation, making performing a task in the most effective manner the primary goal. A person with a strong implicit drive will feel pleasure from achieving a goal in the most efficient way. The increase in effort and overcoming the challenge by mastering the task satisfies the individual.

However, the explicit motives are built around a person's self-image (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). This type of motivation shapes a person's behavior based on their own self-view and can influence their choices and responses from outside cues. The primary agent for this type of motivation is perception or perceived ability. Many theorists still cannot agree whether achievement is based on mastering one's skills or striving to promote a better self-image (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). Most research is still unable to determine whether these different types of motivation would result in different behaviors in the same environment (Brunstein & Maier, 2005).

Achievement motivation has been conceptualized in many different ways (Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997). Achievement motives include the need for achievement and the fear of failure. These are the more predominant motives that direct our behavior toward positive and negative outcomes (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). Achievement goals are viewed as more solid cognitive representations pointing individuals toward a specific end. There are three types of these achievement goals: a performance-approach goal, a performance-avoidance goal, and a mastery goal (Brunstein & Maier, 2005).

A performance-approach goal is focused on attaining competence relative to others. A performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence relative to others, and a mastery goal is focused on the development of competence itself and of task mastery (Elliot & McGregor, 1999). A mastery goal is focused on the development of

competence itself and of task mastery (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). Achievement motives can be seen as direct predictors of achievement-relevant circumstances. Thus, achievement motives have an indirect or distal influence, and achievement goals are said to have a direct or proximal influence on achievement-relevant outcomes (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).

Meece, Blumenfield and Hoyle (1988) explored how motivation affects students' perceptions of what teachers expect of them is motivation. From the time students begin school, teacher motivation plays a pivotal role in student achievement. Motivation addresses the reasons why things are done. According to Meece et al., motivation to do well in school is an important element and essential for successful learning and achievement.

When a student likes his or her teacher and perceives that the teacher is nurturing and fair, the student's attitude and motivation toward academic achievement is intensified. As a result, the student may model the behaviors and styles of the teacher. However, Stipek (1998) suggested that when a student does not like a teacher or feels aggressive, fearful, or dehumanized by a teacher, the student's motivation to learn may be seriously impaired.

According to Wlodkowski (1984), several strategies could be used for changing students' attitudes and motivating them to change their perceptions of what they think teachers expect. One suggested strategy was for teachers to deal with students in a manner that reflected warmth and acceptance. The research revealed the difficulty a student has in attempting to dislike a teacher who consistently shows acts of kindness. Another factor suggested by Wlodkowski that will change student behaviors and attitudes was encouragement. Wlodkowski defined encouragement as any behavior on the part of

the teacher through which the teacher shows the student that he or she respects the student as a person, that the teacher believes and trusts in the student's effort to learn, and that the student can learn.

<p style="text-align:center">Parental Support and Student Achievement</p>

Much of the literature clearly indicated that most schools could make more effort to work with their communities to enhance student achievement and to find out how parents might best be supported. Maton and Hrabowski (2004) described a successful program in the United States aimed at increasing the numbers of graduating African-American science, mathematics and engineering students. One of their findings revealed the important role that parents had played earlier in facilitating the success of their children in primary and high school through emphasizing the role of education in society. Parents did so through focusing on high levels of achievement for their children, through becoming involved in school activities and engaging with teachers and through advocating for their children. However, researchers determined that not all parents from minority ethnic groups have the strength or the knowledge to become so intimately involved in their children's school life. Schools have an important role in supporting all parents in their hopes for their children's futures (Maton & Hrabowski, 2004).

Bowen-Lipscomb (2004) used the 1998 Quality Counts Survey examine student achievement. A disparity was found in achievement test scores in reading and mathematics between students who live in poverty and middle class counterparts. Likewise, Sanders (2001) found a strong negative correlation between students living at a low socioeconomic status and student achievement. The percentage of students at a school who were in the federal free-and reduced lunch program predicted that school's mean on the test regardless of test type, multiple choice or open-ended. Sanders

compared Chicago schools with those in the rest of Illinois. Findings revealed that the low-income students had lower achievement; but Chicago grade schools were just as efficient as the others were in teaching reading and mathematics after factoring out family background. This study showed the results of reading scores to be significantly lower for those students who had been identified as impoverished at the high school level.

In addition to research on student achievement relative to ethnicity and socioeconomic status of students, a significant body of research addressing student achievement relative to teachers' expectations of students has been established (Sanders, 2001). The term *teacher expectation*s relates to teachers' predictions about how a student will achieve academically over time (Sanders, 2001). Students are often treated in accordance with teachers' expectations of them. Educators cannot control the SES or ethnicity of students, or the environment in which they live; however, the expectations of educators can play a vital role in student achievement (Sanders, 2001).

Gay (2000) took for granted that a student's cultural background could negatively affect the expectations of the teacher. For example, Gay reported that some classroom rituals and social etiquette are possibly dismal for students whose cultures are passive; which can lead teachers to lower their expectations of those students. According to Good and Brophy (1991), it is not just the presence of an expectation that causes self-fulfillment, it is the behaviors that the expectations produce. Research has shown that when teachers expect more from students, they have a tendency to invest more in their teaching, which can result in increased student achievement and learning. Fines (2003) added that the same cycle is repeated when teachers display negative expectations toward students.

Responsibility for Student Learning

Corbett, Wilson, and Williams (2005) conducted a 3-year study of two urban school districts where teachers do not take responsibility for student learning. Instead, those teachers felt that they were working against insurmountable obstacles and blamed students for not being motivated. Other teachers blamed neglectful parents for students' lack of motivation to learn. Those teachers expected reciprocity from students and parents and were not surprised when they did not get it. Such teachers were regarded as *unrealistic teachers*.

In Corbett et al.'s (2005) study, some of the unrealistic teachers were interviewed. They concluded that their teaching methods did not make them more effective. Instead, the use of cooperative groups, hands-on activities, activation of prior knowledge, and checking for understanding made a difference in student achievement. The researchers concluded that good teaching was necessary but not sufficient. The most significant difference was the unrealistic teachers' belief that student achievement was their personal responsibility. They refused to let any student fail and the only way to ensure that all students achieved was to remove failure as an option.

Equal Treatment of Students

At any time of the school year, teachers may form expectations about students Cotton (1989). If a teacher treats a student in a manner that conforms to his or her expectations, the student may alter his or her behavior to match those expectations. Cotton provided evidence that some teachers treat students differently based on inexcusably low expectations they have for student achievement based on race or ethnicity, gender, or socioeconomic status, which have no correlation to the learning process. Cotton suggested that teachers who hold low expectations for students are rarely

responding out of malice; rather, they are not aware that such low expectations have developed based on false reasoning. Cotton added that merely holding certain expectations for students has no magical power to affect student performance or attitudes. Instead, Cotton regarded the translation of these expectations into behaviors as the influences on the outcomes that are related to student achievement.

Researchers have found that most teachers attempt to assist students succeed and seek out ways to foster success for their students (Cotton, 1989). According to Brophy (1983), 5% to 10% of differences in student achievement were related to differential treatment of students based on their teachers' expectations of them. Student achievement has certainly been influenced by students' perceptions and observations in the learning environment of teachers treating students differently. Cotton listed several types of differential treatments that teachers consciously or unconsciously use with students:

1. Giving low-expectation students fewer chances than high-expectation students to learn new material;

2. Less wait time afforded to low-expectation students when responding to recitations than is afforded to high-expectation students;

3. Giving low-expectation students answers or calling on another student rather than attempting to improve their incorrect answer by giving clues or paraphrasing the questions, as they do for high-expectation students;

4. Failing to give feedback to the public responses of low-expectation students;

5. Seating low-expectation students at a distance from the teacher than high-expectation students;

6. Conducting less nurturing and responsive interactions with low-expectation students than high-expectation students; which include less smiling, lack of eye contact and lack of positive confirmation by the nodding of the head;

7. Giving less informative feedback to the questions posed by low-expectation students than those of high-expectation students; and

8. Eliciting more challenging and stimulating questions from high-expectations students than low-expectation students. (p. 175)

Class Environment

Most studies done in this area have determined class environment to be a vital aspect of a successful classroom and reflects more than discipline, rituals, and routines (Crotty, 2002; Dennis, 2006; Dusek, 1985; Sprick, 2006). Dennis defined the class environment as the type of environment, situation, and setting that is created for students by the school, teachers, and peers. Dennis reported that the classroom is a place where students know high expectations are held. Dennis suggested that such an atmosphere should be established where student achievement is maximized.

Callahan et al. (2002) determined that for students to be successful in the classroom, students must feel a sense of enjoyment and pleasure. In their study, they found that classrooms that were pleasant, positive, challenging, and supportive were places where students learn and behave better than did the students of teachers whose classroom atmospheres were harsh, negative, repressive, and unchallenging (Callahan et al.). According to Callahan et al., regardless of how well planned a teacher is for instruction, certain perceptions by students have to be in place to support the successful implementation of those plans. Callahan et al. suggested that students must perceive that the class environment is supportive of their efforts, that the teacher cares about their

learning, that they are welcome in the classroom, that the expected learning is challenging but not impossible, and that the anticipated learning outcomes are worthy of their time and effort to try to achieve. Students' ability to interpret teacher expectations was supported by Dusek (1985), who found that students perceive that teachers treat high- and low-expectancy students differently in both traditional and nontraditional classrooms.

Dennis (2006) established that a teacher must recognize every student as an individual with different academic needs when creating a positive learning environment. He elaborated that such an environment must foster understanding and acceptance for these different needs. This can be established when the teacher makes sure that all students feel welcome, accepted and needed. Dennis found that teachers should also be aware that students have individual personalities and characteristics that may influence their behaviors. Teachers should alter teaching methods to promote student learning and engagement in instruction (Dennis, 2006).

Based Callahan et al.'s (2002) research, teachers should create learning that is meaningful and long lasting. They should create the curriculum that reflects the students' abilities, interests, and perspectives. They should offer learning opportunities that are of interest, valuable, motivating, and challenging to the students. Callahan et al. reported that positive learning environments can be created by (a) keeping negative behaviors from the learning process, (b) making sure prejudice behaviors are not displayed toward any student, (c) addressing the physical appearance of the classroom on a consistent basis, (d) being a teacher who shows optimism for all students achieving success, (e) encouraging students to set attainable goals for themselves and demonstrating to the

students how those goals can be met, and (f) acknowledging and rewarding positive behaviors and individual successes regardless of how small they may appear to be.

Interaction With Students

Something that happens between a teacher and a student or between a student and his or her peers has been determined to affect the student's perceptions of the classroom and his or her desire to be academically successful. Scott-Jones and Clark (1986) declared, "Academic achievement is dependent on more than individual abilities and aspirations. The social environment in which learning takes place can enhance or diminish the behaviors that leads to achievement" (p. 523). Hamre and Pianta (2001) suggested that teachers can dramatically increase the probability of having cooperative and motivated students if they perceive that the teacher both likes and respects them. While it was proven unnecessary for every teacher to be a student's favorite teacher, putting forth an effort to establish positive relationships between the teacher and students demonstrates the teacher's desire to have a positive influence on the lives of his or her students.

Researchers McNeely et al. (2002) concluded that making connections with students is more relevant than variables such as classroom size, rituals, and other structural considerations. McNeeley et al. suggested that students who were personally and emotionally connected with their school were less likely to indulge in illegal substances. Additionally, students were less likely to engage in violent behaviors, or bring into practices sexual activities at an early age in comparison to students without an emotional or personal connection to their school.

While a positive attitude toward students play a key role in student achievement, so is maintaining a personal acquaintance with them as was determined by Patrick,

Turner, Meyer, and Midgley (2003). Their research recognized that a positive attitude and personal acquaintance to others work as two basic principles of classroom management. Additionally, Patrick et al. acknowledged that teachers need to offer students with specific information related to attitudes, actions, and behaviors that will assist them with being successful in school and throughout their lives. However, they found that expectations that affect the lives of children start prior to their attending school. Such expectations are learned through socialization in the home and community (Patrick et al., 2003).

According to Sprick (2006), the responsibility of teachers is to allow students to know that everyone can be successful in school when given the necessary guidelines and directions that will foster success. Marzano (2003) reported that good teachers are not uncertain, undecided, or confusing in the way they communicate with students. They should be able to establish standards and maintain control while affording students the opportunity to be responsible for their learning and the freedom to learn.

The importance of effective student and teacher relationships was deemed a wholesome balance between domination and cooperation (Marzano, 2003). Such a balance was determined to be difficult if the students rely solely on the behaviors of the teachers to determine whether the teacher is offering guidance or is helpful. Seligman (1996) researched students with low self-concepts to find that they acquire a sense of helplessness in school and believe that nothing they do will reflect success. Seligman stated, "Intelligence, no matter how high, cannot manifest itself if the child believes that his own actions will have no affect" (p. 78).

Classroom Management

The term *classroom management* is used by teachers to depict the process by which classroom lessons run smoothly regardless of disruptive behaviors displayed by students (Sprick, 2006). According to Sprick, teachers think that by developing classroom rules and classroom procedures, they have prepared everything they need to help students adjust to the classroom. However, if teachers do not convey expectations to the students, then the students must assume what is perceived as acceptable or responsible behaviors. Once again, rituals and routines that are clearly and consistently communicated to students will assist with establishing a learning environment that is positive, nurturing, and promotes student achievement (Sprick, 2006).

While discipline plays a vital role in classroom management, it also reflects the atmosphere that exists within the classroom. The classrooms should be a safe place where students feel comfortable to explore the academic world, and feel welcome and supported by the teacher (Dennis, 2006). Crotty (2002) suggested having an environment where students feel safe, intellectually challenged, and nurtured is needed in order for students to learn and achieve academic success. Effective classroom management reflects more than rituals, routines, and discipline (Crotty, 2002).

Dennis (2006) further suggested effective teachers establish responses to common classroom issues of order that allow them to focus maximum energy and time on the instructional process. However, in order for a productive class environment to support student achievement, there must be clear standards of conduct that are understood by the students. Those expectations must be consistently conveyed to the students and must be attainable by the students (Callahan et al., 2002).

Kraft's (2010) work indicated that no amount of dedication, lesson planning, or content knowledge is sufficient to compensate for ineffective classroom and behavior management strategies that result in disruptive learning environments. Kraft avowed that, "Effective teaching and learning can only take place in a harmonious learning environment" (p. 44). Kraft reported that teachers can transcend from disciplinarians to facilitators of learning by implementing the following five classroom management techniques:

1. Good curriculum: "There is no substitute for teaching a rigorous curriculum that is relevant to students' lives and actively engages students in their own learning" (Kraft, 2010, p. 44).

2. Nonnegotiable rules: According to Kraft, a short list of classroom rules should be created by the teacher.

3. Clear expectations: Kraft suggested informing students at the beginning of each lesson segment the exact learning mode they are in; direct instruction, working time or individual silent time.

4. Smooth transitions: By attending to the "Do Now" assignments at the beginning of each class, have clear rituals and routines, and assigning students jobs will assist with transitions and lead to fewer problems (Kraft, 2010).

5. Getting attention: "One of the simplest but most commonly cited frustrations among teachers is that they cannot get their classes to quiet down" (Kraft, 2010, p. 46).

Kraft (2010) suggested that the following three techniques be used: (a) ask for students' attention and wait; (b) use a zero-noise device such a chime or rain stick; and (c) if things get out of control, use your voice with a firm tone. According to Marzano

and Marzano (2003), the quality of teacher-student relationships is the keystone for all

other aspects of classroom management. They believed that such a relationship is not

contingent on the teacher's personality or if the students envision their teacher as a friend.

Instead, Marzano and Marzano reported that the relationship is related to how well

teachers are able to balance the three agendas within the classroom: (a) appropriate

dominance, (b) appropriate cooperation, and (c) awareness of high-need students.

Marzano and Marzano (2003) identified appropriate dominance is providing clear

purpose and strong guidance for both academic and student behavior by communicating

clear expectations and consequences. They considered having clear learning goals at the

beginning of each teaching unit, and being assertive as necessary in having appropriate

dominance. Marzano and Marzano wrote regarding appropriate cooperation, "Whereas

dominance focuses on the teacher at the driving force in the classroom, cooperation

focuses on the students and teacher functioning as a team" (p. 10). They regarded the

third area of awareness of high-need students as a setting in which nearly one fourth of

the students suffer from mental, emotional, or behavioral disorders. Marzano and

Marzano provided a chart of strategies for supporting five types of students: (a) passive

students whose issues are related to fear of failure and relationships; (b) aggressive

students who are either hostile, oppositional, or covert; (c) hyperactive or inattentive; (d)

perfectionists; and (e) socially unskillful students.

Classroom management has been defined as all those things teachers do to create

a positive learning environment where students behave appropriately. Discipline on the

other hand, may refer to student behaviors, such as staying focused and not disrupting

others (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Therefore, as Marzano and Marzano determined,

the ultimate goal of effective classroom management is good discipline and control on the part of the students.

Summary

Research determined that behaviors are based on expectations that individuals have made about other people or events (Gorski, 2008). Researchers attribute increased student learning and achievement to when teachers who expect more from students, and, consequently tend to invest more in their teaching (Bamburg, 1994; Dorsey, 2002; Good & Brophy, 1990; Gorski, 2008; Hinnant, O'Brien, & Ghazarian, 2009; Kahlenberg, 2000; Klingele & Warrick, 1990; Payne, 2009; Weiner, 2000). If student achievement is attributed to student ability, it then reinforces the teacher's initial expectations (Weiner, 2000). According to Fines (2003), the same cycle is repeated when teachers exhibited negative expectations toward students.

Research suggests that teachers' expectations affect students' learning. Skinner and Belmont (1993) reported that teachers' behaviors influence students' perceptions of their interactions with teachers, and that teachers' behaviors influence student engagement. Good and Brophy (1991) asserted that expectations tend to be self-sustaining. They disclosed that expectations affect perceptions, by causing teachers to be attentive to what they expect and less likely to notice what they do not expect, and interpretation, by causing teachers to interpret and perhaps distort what they see that is consistent with their expectations.

In this way, some expectations seemed to persist even though they were not justified. Skinner and Belmont (1993) found that teachers' attitudes and expectations about some students can lead them to treat students differently, sometimes to the extent of producing a self-fulfilling prophecy. Although Brophy (1983) indicated that teachers

criticized high-expectancy students less than they criticized low-expectancy students, Mitman (1985) reported that when teachers criticize high-expectancy students, they do so for very different purposes. Teachers tend to use criticism as a means of communicating challenge and high standards to students for whom they hold high expectancies.

Brophy (1983) found that teachers (a) wait less time for low-expectancy students to answer questions, (b) are more likely to give low-expectancy students an answer than probe for an inaccurate response, (c) tend to reward inappropriate or incorrect responses from low-expectancy students, and (d) generally pay less attention to low-expectancy students. When teachers pay attention to low-expectancy students, teachers do so privately more often than publicly (Brophy, 1983). In heterogeneous classrooms, they (a) call on low-expectancy students less frequently, (b) seat low-expectancy students further away from teachers in classrooms, (c) smile less and offer less eye contact to low-expectancy students, and (d) offer less learning material to low-expectancy students (Brophy, 1983). Research literature identified a particular danger of low expectations combined with an attitude of futility communicated to certain students, leading to erosion of their confidence and motivation for school learning. This attitude confirms or deepens their sense of hopelessness and causes them to fail when they may have succeeded under different circumstances (Good & Brophy, 1991).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study was twofold. First, this study examined the relationship between teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management and teacher demographics. Second, this study examined teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management as related to teacher demographics.

Research Design

In this quasi-experimental mixed methods study, quantitative variables including student achievement (gathered using archival means) and teacher perceptions and expectations (gathered through a survey) were complemented with qualitative information about perceptions and expectations collected through an online open-ended survey.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

Quantitative Research Questions

1. Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of equal treatment of students and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

2. Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of the class environment and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

3. Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of interaction with students and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

4. Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of classroom management and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

Qualitative Research Question

5. Is the effect teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management related to teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

Participants

Teachers were sampled from 1,150 elementary school (K-5) teachers from 69 elementary schools in a large metropolitan Georgia school district. Single stage or cluster sampling was used because the researcher had access to names in the population and was able to sample the participants directly (Creswell, 2009). The researcher first identified clusters (K-5 teachers), obtained names within the clusters, de-identified their names since no names were used in the online survey, and then invited all individuals to participate voluntarily in the study via a web-based survey. The researcher determined that a specific number of elementary school teachers were sufficient to represent the K-5 teacher population. The researcher used an online calculator by Raosoft (2004) to calculate the percentage of teachers in each school and grade span to determine how many elementary school teachers were needed in this study with a 95% confidence level and total population size of approximately 1,150. Based on Raosoft calculations the

sample size would need to be 294 teachers rounded to 300 to obtain a sufficient sample size. This was the minimum recommended size of the survey. If the researcher created a sample of this many people and obtained responses from everyone, the researcher would more likely to get a correct answer than from a large sample where only a small percentage of the sample responds to the survey.

<div align="center">Instrumentation</div>

Teacher Expectations Survey

The instrument that was used in this study was the Teacher Expectations Survey by Gallahar (2009; see Appendix A). The quantitative component of this study consisted of approximately 1,150 elementary teachers who were recruited to participate voluntarily in this survey. Teachers were asked to provide personal email addresses. The teachers were provided 30 days to complete and submit the survey. The approximate time for survey completion was 30 minutes. However, because teachers could stop at any time, save their responses, and then return to complete the survey, more time may have been taken by individual teachers. Total time taken to complete the survey was unknown. As a result, the time for completion of the survey may have varied per participant. The participants' responses from the Teacher Expectations Survey (Gallahar, 2009) were analyzed. Participants' responses were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 17.0). Gallagher provided written permission to use Teacher Expectations Survey via email (see Appendix B).

The theoretical framework of this study was based on the concept of a self-fulfilling prophecy (Merton, 1948) that is currently referred to as the Pygmalion Effect (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968, 1973). This theory focused on teacher expectations that have had a major impact on the academic success of students. The *Pygmalion Effect* and

self-fulfilling prophecy were viewed as the processes by which an educator develops preconceived ideas about a group of students, and then responds and delivers instruction in a way that supports his or her expectations for that particular group of students or student. The development of this instrument was developed and validated by Gallahar (2009). The contents of the survey were based on the review of literature related to characteristics of teachers that could possibly affect student performance. Gallahar reported that after the list of questions was formulated, teachers reviewed them as indicators of the instrument's validity.

Reliability and Validity of the Teacher Expectations Survey Instrument

After item development, Gallahar (2009) conducted a pilot study to reduce the number of items and to explore the instrument's construct validity and reliability. Participants in Gallahar's study were seventh-grade mathematics students at Summit Middle School in Peak County in Northeast Alabama. Ninety-eight students participated in the pilot study. Exploration of the psychometric properties of the instrument began with a review of item-to-total correlations. Items that did not correlate significantly with the instrument's total score were eliminated from the instrument. This initial exploration resulted in the elimination of 18 items. Following this elimination, the instrument was explored using principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation. During initial analyses, items with factor loadings less than .40 were eliminated from the instrument, as well as items loading on more than one factor. After validation of the survey, 22 items measured the four dimensions of teachers' expectations and perceptions related to student achievement in reading: equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction with students, and classroom management. The Teacher Expectations Survey incorporates a

5-point Likert scale which ranges from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), with higher scores supporting the positive perceptions of teachers.

Slight modifications to the survey were necessary. As a result, the researcher requested and received permission to modify the survey for teachers. For example, the statement, "My teacher expects the same from boys and girls" was altered for teachers to read, "I expect the same from boys and girls." Some statements did not have to be changed. For example, "Boys and girls are given equal amounts of work" was not altered. There were still 22 statements for teachers. Reliability and validity had already been conducted. Table 1 contains the final factor solution for the structure of the survey (see Appendix C for Gallahar's four factors with statements).

Table 1

Final Factor Solution for Structure of Teachers Expectations Survey

Factor	Questions
Equal treatment of students	1, 4, 10, 11, 15, 20
Class environment	3, 6, 9, 13, 18, 22
Interaction with students	2, 5, 8, 16, 17, 21
Classroom management	7, 12, 14, 19

The qualitative component of this study consisted of a group of nine questions posed at the end of the survey. This portion of the survey was optional. Teachers' responses to these questions helped to answer Research Question 6. Table 2 contains the qualitative questions related to each factor. A general comments section was made available in the event participants want to make additional remarks or have something else they would like to say.

Table 2

Qualitative Questions and Four Factors

Factor	Item	Qualitative question
Equal treatment of students	1	What do you do to ensure that boys and girls are given equal amounts of work?
	2	How do you expect boys and girls to do the same work?
	3	When students turn in "messy work", what strategies do you use to help boys and girls to be "neater?"
Class environment	7	Which parents are more active and why? Parents with a higher level of education (high school, college, and graduate school) or parents who did not finish high school or who dropped out of school?
	9	What rules do you have for students who do not bring materials (i.e., books, paper, pencil) to class?
Interaction with students	4	What type of expectations have you set for boys and girls?
	8	Describe your grouping strategies in your classroom?
Classroom management	5	What do you do when students "act out" in class and interrupt the class?
	6	What strategies do you use with students who misbehave and disrupt class more than students who follow the rules?

Procedures

The researcher adhered to the following procedures to collect data in this study. The researcher submitted and received approval for an application entitled, Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, to The University of Southern Mississippi. The researcher requested permission from the superintendent of the target school district to survey approximately 1,150 elementary school teachers online. Permission was granted by The University of Southern Mississippi and the school district (see Appendix D). The principals of these schools were contacted by telephone. A date was scheduled for the researcher to discuss the distribution of the online survey to all

participating teachers and to ask the principals permission to conduct the study in their schools. Principals were asked to sign an informed consent letter granting permission to survey participating teachers at their schools.

Next, the researcher sent emails to participating teachers whose principals approved of the study at their schools. Participating teachers accessed the online survey via their emails. A letter explaining the purpose of the survey was placed on a page preceding the survey on Survey Monkey. Emails were linked confidentially to the surveys and the results were filtered. The host sent email notifications to the researcher upon survey completion of each teacher. A hyperlink was attached to the email that allowed participants to access the online survey from their personal emails. Participants clicked "Yes, I consent" or "No, I do not consent" prior to taking the survey (see Appendix E).

Approximate time for survey completion was 30 minutes. Teachers' responses were entered in a database and securely stored on Survey Monkey's database. No markers identified participants' responses, either individually or collectively. Only the researcher had access to participants' responses, thus maintaining confidentiality and privacy. A disclaimer statement was provided under Human Subjects Considerations (Web-Online-Surveys, 2008). No students participated in this study. Therefore, parental consent was not required for use of de-identified student data.

Data Collection

Data collection was both quantitative and qualitative. In addition to teacher survey responses, Grades 3 and 5 ITBS reading scores from the target school district were collected for 2009–2010 school year. Each student's gender, race or ethnicity, and SES were obtained from the Office of Accountability. Qualitative data were collected

from teachers' responses to nine questions at the end of the survey to discover central themes regarding the four factors.

Quantitative

Teacher perceptions survey. Quantitative data were collected from the Teacher Perceptions Survey (Appendix A) from K-5 elementary school teachers in the target school district. Approximately 1,150 teachers were invited to participate voluntarily in this study. Teachers' survey responses were gleaned from the host, Survey Monkey. Demographic data for teacher participants were collected (i.e., gender, age, ethnicity/race, grade level taught, years of teaching experience, and level of education).

Online responses were received from 170 teachers. To maintain confidentiality after Survey Monkey emailed the final results of completed surveys, copies of participants' responses were secured in a locked file cabinet at the researcher's residence until and after data entry had been completed. Only the researcher had access to information with the exception of the dissertation chair who may request to review the raw data. Computer files will be deleted at the conclusion of this study.

Student data. ITBS reading scores of students in Grades 3 and 5 ITBS from the target school district from 50 elementary schools were collected for 2009–2010 school years. Each student's gender, race or ethnicity, and socioeconomic status (SES) were obtained from the Department of Research and Accountability. SES was determined by the percentage of students who were eligible for free and reduced meals for the school district.

Qualitative

The qualitative portion of this study included open-ended survey questions at the end of the survey (see Appendix A). Responding to these questions was optional.

However, typed responses were used in the qualitative portion of this study. No identifying markers identified which comments belonged to any specific teacher. No names were required on the survey. The purpose of the qualitative questions was to explore the effect teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management related to teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level).

Data Analysis

In order to determine if there was a relationship between teacher expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level), multiple regression analyses were conducted on the data from the Teacher Expectations Survey. Research Question 1 asked, Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of equal treatment of students and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)? This question was analyzed using multiple regression analysis to compare the differences among teacher expectations of equal treatment of students and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level).

Research Question 2 asked, Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of class environment and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

Research Question 3 asked, Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of interaction with students and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)?

Research Question 4 asked, Is there a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of classroom management and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)? Research Questions 1 through 4 were analyzed using multiple regression analysis to determine whether significant differences existed among the dependent variables in this study.

Research Question 5 asked, Is the effect teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management related to teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level)? This qualitative question was analyzed using content analysis to respond to each of the four dependent variables (i.e., equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management) to discover central themes from the four variables.

<div align="center">Ethical Standards</div>

Participants had the right to refuse participation or to withdraw at any time with no penalty. Additionally, participants also had the right to inspect, upon request, any instrument or materials related to the research study within a reasonable period after the request was received. Only the researcher had access to the information collected in this study, which will be kept in locked storage at the residence of the researcher for a period of 3 years following the completion of the research.

Participants' names did not appear in any reports or in the final report of this research. No personally identifiable information was reported about the participant nor will it be released to anyone for any reason without written permission is obtained in advance. All information obtained in this study was strictly confidential unless disclosure is required by law. There were no direct benefits to participants. There were no costs to participants or payments made for participating in this study.

Participation in this project was voluntary and involved no risks to participants who could rescind their permission at any time without negative consequences. Participants using shared home or office computers were at minimal risk of exposing survey contents and their responses to other users unless the browsers were completely closed before exiting the survey. The out box of participants' e-mail software may have kept a copy of the questionnaire containing their confidential responses. Traces of the questionnaire may be uncovered by other users on household or office shared computers. Online participants were advised and instructed to remove such traces and to close completely the web browser upon completion of the survey. Participants unwilling to take such steps were cautioned not to participate in this online survey. All student data were de-identified and only aggregate or summary reading scores were used for data analysis and reporting purposes. Nine qualitative questions at the end of the survey were answered online. Participants recorded their typewritten responses and submitted them with the completed survey responses.

This research was reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi's Human Subject Institutional Review Board before the study began. This research study easily met all ethical guidelines because all participation was voluntary. All participants were adults. Participants could stop participating in the survey at any time by closing down

their web browser completely. The possibility of harm to subjects was minimal, and no personal data from any subject was shared. All online communication with participants was honest and non-deceptive and there were no hidden procedures employed in the study. None of the online participants knew any of the other online participants who participated in the study. The researcher was not related to any participants in this study.

<center>Summary</center>

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a description of the research methodology, which included the research design, research questions, instrumentation, data collection methods, and data analysis methods. Within this research study, a Web-based survey was used to obtain the perceptions of elementary school teachers in a suburban school district regarding teacher expectations and perceptions of student achievement in reading.

Nine open-ended questions were included at the end of the survey. Multiple regression analyses were used to determine whether a relationship existed between the means of teachers' perceptions relationship between teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level) in the target school district. The qualitative phase of this study posed nine open-ended questions at the end of the survey to discover central themes and patterns among the four factors of equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction with students, and classroom management and teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level).

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

This study examined the relationship between teacher demographics (i.e., age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level) and expectations concerning the equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management. Chapter IV contains the results for quantitative analysis, evaluation of findings, and a summary.

Description of Sample

A total of 147 teachers participated in this study. The sample was predominately female (94%), White (76%) women, and most had Master's degrees (51%). Participants ranged from 23 to 54 years of age. Sixty percent of the participants had between 6 and 17 years of teaching experience.

Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent Variables

Table 3 contains descriptive information about scores on the Teacher Expectations Survey.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables

	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
Teacher expectations survey	3.47	4.67	4.18	.28
Equal treatment	3.20	5.00	4.53	.38
Class environment	3.00	5.00	4.26	.40
Interaction with students	2.33	4.50	3.71	.44
Classroom management	2.75	5.00	4.31	.46

Research Question 1: Equal Treatment of Students

In order to determine whether there was a relationship between teacher demographics (i.e., age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level) and expectations and perceptions of equal treatment of students, a multiple regression analysis was conducted with scores on the equal treatment of students domain as the outcome variable. The results indicated no significant overall relationship $R^2 = .03$, $F(4, 142) = 1.05$, $p = .38$. Demographic variables as a group, including age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level, accounted for less than 1% of the variance in equal treatment of students. Regression coefficients are reported in Table 4.

Table 4

Regression Coefficients From the Regression of Equal Treatment of Students Onto Teacher Demographics

Variable	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	*p*
Constant	4.21	.25		16.78	.00
Gender	.15	.14	.09	1.08	.28
Ethnicity	.09	.07	.11	1.36	.18
Age	.02	.02	.08	.95	.34
Grade level	-.02	.03	-.06	-.66	.51

Research Question 2: Class Environment

In order to determine a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of the class environment and teacher demographics (i.e., age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level), a multiple regression analysis

was conducted with demographic predictor variables and classroom environment as the criterion. Results from the analysis revealed no significant relationship ($R^2 = .02$, $F(4, 142) = .66$, $p = .62$). Table 5 contains the regression coefficients from this analysis.

Table 5

Regression Coefficients From the Regression of Class Environment Onto Teacher Demographics

Variable	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	4.17	.26		15.94	.00
Gender	.12	.15	.07	.81	.42
Ethnicity	-.08	.07	-.10	-1.18	.24
Age	.01	.03	.02	.21	.84
Grade level	.03	.03	.07	.88	.38

Research Question 3: Interaction With Students

In order to determine a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of interaction with students and teacher demographics (i.e., age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level), a multiple regression analysis was conducted with the interaction with students regressed onto demographic variables. The model produced an $R^2 = .05$, $F(4, 142) = 1.97$, $p = .10$ with age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level accounting for approximately 5% of the variance in interaction with students. See Table 6 for regression coefficients from this analysis.

Table 6

Regression Coefficients From the Regression of Interaction With Students Onto Teacher

Demographics

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	*p*
Constant	3.98	.29		13.88	.00
Gender	.09	.16	.05	.59	.56
Ethnicity	-.12	.08	-.13	-1.61	.11
Age	.04	.03	.10	1.27	.21
Grade level	-.06	.04	-.13	-1.52	.13

Research Question 4: Classroom Management

In order to determine a unique relationship between teachers' expectations and perceptions of classroom management and teacher demographics, a multiple regression analysis was conducted with the following predictors: age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level. Classroom management was the criterion. The model produced an $R^2 = .03$, $F(4, 142) = 1.07$, $p = .37$. Age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level accounted for approximately 3% of the variance in classroom management. Table 7 contains the regression coefficients from this analysis.

Table 7

Regression Coefficient From the Regression of Classroom Management Onto Teacher

Demographics

	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	p
Constant	4.31	.30		14.35	.00
Gender	.08	.17	.04	.50	.62
Ethnicity	.02	.08	.02	.22	.83
Age	.04	.03	.10	1.25	.22
Grade level	-.06	.04	-.13	-1.51	.13

Research Question 5: Qualitative

Nine questions were posed to participants at the end of the survey. This activity was optional. Content analysis was used to compile central themes to answer Research Question 6. Each text response was examined to determine what themes emerged and what the participants talked about the most. Then the researcher examined the central themes to see how they related to each other. Some of the central themes overlapped each other and were related. For each question, central themes were discussed.

Factor 1: Equal Treatment of Students

Question 1. Question 1 asked "What do you do to ensure that boys and girls are given equal amounts of work?" Central themes required coding of similar responses into a matrix for this question. Several themes emerged as a result. The six common themes for Question 1 were (a) equal amounts of work, (b) differentiation of instruction, (c) special education and IEPs, (d) grouping by ability levels, (e) working in a variety of

groups, (f) and curriculum standards. Each of these areas is presented below in narrative

format, as shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Equal Amounts of Work

Question	Themes
Question 1: What do you do to ensure that boys and girls are given equal amounts of work?	Equal amounts of work
	Differentiation of instruction
	Special education and IEPs
	Grouping by ability levels
	Working in variety of groups
	Curriculum standards

Question 2. Question 2 asked "How do you expect boys and girls to do the same

work?" Central themes required coding of similar responses into a matrix for this

question. Several themes emerged as a result. The four common themes for Question 2

were (a) learning styles, (b) expectations and monitoring, (c) reaching full potential, and

(d) making adjustments in assignments, as depicted in Table 9.

Table 9

Same Expectations

Question	Themes
Question 2: How do you expect boys and girls to do the same work?	Learning styles
	Expectations and monitoring
	Reaching full potential
	Making adjustments in assignments

Question 3. Question 3 asked "When students turn in 'messy work', what strategies do you use to help boys and girls to be 'neater'?" Central themes required coding of similar responses into a matrix for this question. Several themes emerged as a result. Nine common themes were found for Question 3 (see Table 10): (a) re-write or re-do assignment, (b) use models and examples for neat work, (c) neatness does not matter, (d) re-organize work, (e) individual conferences, (f) use rewards and praise, (g) use rubrics to grade work during self-assessment, (h) use computers for final copy, and (i) lack fine motor skills.

Table 10

Strategies for Messy Work

Question	Themes
Question 3: When students turn in "messy work", what strategies do you use to help boys and girls to be "neater"?	Re-write or re-do assignment
	Use models and examples for neat work
	Neatness does not matter
	Re-organize work
	Individual conferences
	Use rewards and praise
	Use rubrics to grade work during self-assessment
	Use computers for final copy
	Lack fine motor skills

Factor 2: Class Environment

Question 4. Question 4 asked "What type of expectations have you set for boys and girls?" Central themes required coding of similar responses into a matrix for this question. Several themes emerged as a result. Six common themes were found for Question 4 (see Table 11): (a) develop work ethics, (b) self-esteem and self-confidence,

(c) more movement in class for some students, (d) do their personal best, (e) accountable

for work and behavior, and (f) master the standards.

Table 11

Expectations for Boys and Girls

Question	Themes
Question 4: What do you do to ensure that boys and girls are given equal amounts of work?	Develop work ethics
	Self-esteem and self-confidence
	More movement in class for some students
	Do their personal best
	Accountable for work and behavior
	Master the standards

Question 5. Question 5 asked "What do you do when students 'act out' in class

and interrupt the class?" Central themes required coding of similar responses into a

matrix for this question. Several themes emerged as a result. Seven common themes

were found for Question 5: (a) implement schoolwide discipline plan, (b) non-verbal

communication, (c) verbal redirection and discussion individually or large group

discussion, (d) removal from setting, (e) praise and compliment good behavior, (f)

alternative strategies, and (g) call parents or schedule parent conference, as depicted in

Table 12.

Table 12

Strategies When Students Disrupt Class

Question	Themes
Question 5: What do you do when students "act out" in class and interrupt the class?	Implement schoolwide discipline plan
	Non-verbal communication
	Verbal redirection and discussion individually or large group discussion
	Removal from setting
	Praise and compliment good behavior
	Alternative strategies
	Call parents or schedule parent conference

Factor 3: Interaction With Students

  Question 6. Question 6 asked "What strategies do you use with students who misbehave and disrupt class more than students who follow the rules?" Central themes required coding of similar responses into a matrix for this question. Several themes emerged as a result. Seven common themes were found for Question 6 in Table 13: (a) spend individual time with student, (b) assign behavior contracts, (c) treat students fairly, (d) ask for administrative assistance, (e) counselor referral, (f) use preferential seating, and (g) assign peer partners.

Table 13

Strategies With Students Who Misbehave

Question	Themes
Question 6: What strategies do you use with students who misbehave and disrupt class more than students who follow the rules?	Spend individual time with student
	Assign behavior contracts
	Treat students fairly
	Ask for administrative assistance
	Counselor referral
	Use preferential seating
	Assign peer partners

Question 7. Question 7 asked "Which parents are more active and why? Parents with a higher level of education (high school, college, and graduate school) or parents who did not finish high school or who dropped out of school?" Central themes required coding of similar responses into a matrix for this question. Several themes emerged as a result. Four common themes were found for Question 7: (a) higher level of education, (b) parents who did not finish high school or dropped out, (c) parents' education level does not matter, all parents are active, and (d) stay at home parent/guardian, as displayed in Table 14.

Table 14

Type of Active Parents

Question	Themes
Question 7: Which parents are more active and why? Parents with a higher level of education (high school, college, and graduate school) or parents who did not finish high school or who dropped out of school?"	Higher level of education
	Parents who did not finish high school or dropped out
	Parents' education level does not matter; all parents are active
	Stay at home parent/guardian

Factor 4: Classroom Management

Question 8. Question 8 asked "Describe your grouping strategies in your classroom." Central themes required coding of similar responses into a matrix for this question. Several themes emerged as a result. Three common themes were found for Question 8: (a) ability levels, (b) heterogeneous or homogeneous, and (c) reading or math, as shown in Table 15.

Table 15

Grouping Strategies in Classroom

Question	Themes
Question 8: Describe your grouping strategies in your classroom.	Ability levels
	Heterogeneous or homogeneous
	Reading or math

Question 9. Question 9 asked "What rules do you have for students who do not bring materials (i.e., books, paper, pencil) to class?" Central themes required coding of similar responses into a matrix for this question. Several themes emerged as a result.

Three common themes were found for Question 9: (a) consequences or rewards, (b)

teacher provides or student borrows, and (c) rules or no rules, as depicted in Table 16.

Table 16

Rules for Not Bringing Materials to Class

Question	Themes
Question 9: What rules do you have for students who do not bring materials (i.e., books, paper, and pencil) to class?	Consequences or rewards
	Teacher provides or student borrows
	Rules or no rules

General Comments

Participants were given the opportunity to provide additional comments at the end

of the survey, if they wished. This portion of the survey was optional. Many participants

made general comments, and stated that the survey was "interesting," and wished the

researcher "good luck with the survey. What an undertaking!" Another teacher stated,

By answering these questions, I am more aware that I may have some work to do

on my expectations. I think my bias is more about a student's background. I did

not realize it before, but now that I am thinking about it, I believe I really need to

work on this.

While Cooper and Good (1983) found that, in some instances, classroom

teachers' perceptions differed from those of observers and students, Babad (1993)

revealed that teachers are often unaware of their differential behavior toward students.

Seven central themes appeared in the general comments section: (a) equal treatment of

students, (b) differences in boys and girls, (c) providing supplies and materials, (d) high

expectations and motivation, (e) class environment, (f) classroom management and

discipline, and (g) completion of schoolwork. These themes were similar to the four

factors in this study, as shown in Table 17.

Table 17

General Comments

Question	Themes
General Comments	Equal treatment of students
	Differences in boys and girls
	Providing supplies and materials
	High expectations and motivation
	Class environment
	Classroom management and discipline
	Completion of schoolwork

Summary

Chapter IV presented the findings and chapter summary. Chapter V contains the

conclusion, implications, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the relationship between teacher demographics (i.e., age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level) and expectations concerning the equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management, as measured by a teacher survey. The independent variables were teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level). The dependent variables were equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction with students, and classroom management.

Chapter I contains the background of the problem, theoretical foundation, and problem statement. In addition, a statement of the purpose, research questions, and rationale/significance of the study, assumptions, limitations/delimitations, and definitions are introduced and discussed. Chapter II consists of a review of the related literature. Chapter III contains a description of the procedures of the study, the subjects, material, and methodology used to address the five research questions. Chapter IV contains the findings of the study, a description of the data collected and how the hypotheses were tested. Chapter V contains the conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further research.

Conclusions

Equal Treatment of Students

The findings support research indicating that teachers attempt to treat all students fairly. Participants in this study did not agree and did not prefer students whose personality and temperance were like theirs, did not expect less of students who were

messy, constantly watched students who often get into trouble, did not act favorably toward students who always did their work, and did not expect less of students who were class clowns. Other disagreements were teachers did not expect students to excel because of their family's education. Those students who have a positive relationship with teachers have a tendency to acquire higher achievement scores and grades (Baird et al., 2007; Bush, 1954; Yatvin, 2009). Inconsistency and unfairness in treatment of students by teachers produce poor academic results. When students perceive approval from teachers and high expectations are communicated, there is a tendency for students to meet or exceed the expectations conveyed by the teacher (Baird et al., 2007; Yatvin, 2009).

Classroom Environment

The findings of this study support the research that stated that teachers who obtain results from students are those teachers who acknowledge that all students can achieve when given adequate support (Brophy, 1983; Callahan et al., 2002; Kraft, 2010; McEvoy & Welker, 2000). Teachers not only convey these expectations to their students, a class environment is created that promotes student learning, motivates students to do their personal best, and class time is managed where very few distractions interfere with the learning process (Callahan et al., 2002).

Student perceptions of academic success and teacher expectations showed that student achievement levels are influenced directly by students' perceptions of teacher expectations about their performance and capabilities. Research demonstrated that the primary expectation for promoting student academic and social success was through the creation of a classroom environment in which students feel safe and valued (Brophy, 1983; McEvoy & Welker, 2000).

Interaction with Students

Participants in this study did not agree and did not prefer students whose personality and temperance was like theirs, did not expect less of students who were messy, constantly watched students who often get into trouble, did not act favorably toward students who always did their work, and did not expect less of students who are class clowns. Other disagreements were teachers did not expect students to excel because their family had an education.

Those students who have a positive relationship with teachers have a tendency to acquire higher achievement scores and grades (Baird et al., 2007; Bush, 1954; Yatvin, 2009). Inconsistency and unfairness in treatment of students by teachers produce poor academic results. When students perceive approval from teachers and high expectations are communicated, there is a tendency for students to meet or exceed the expectations conveyed by the teacher (Baird et al., 2007; Yatvin, 2009).

Classroom Management

The quality of early teacher-student relationships has a long-lasting impact (Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Rimm-Kaufman, 2011). Specifically, students who had more conflict with their teachers or showed more dependency toward their teachers in kindergarten also had lower academic achievement as reflected in mathematics and language arts grades and more behavioral problems (e.g., poorer work habits, more discipline problems) through the eighth grade. These findings were evident even after taking into consideration the extent to which students' behavior problems related to problematic teacher-child relationships. These findings were greater for boys than for girls (Hamre & Pianta, 2001). Further work describes that children with more closeness and less conflict with teachers developed better social skills as they approached the

middle school years than those with more conflicting relationships in kindergarten (Berry & O'Connor, 2009).

According to Sprick (2006), teachers believe that by simply developing classroom rules and classroom procedures, they have prepared everything they need to help students adjust to the classroom. However, if teachers do not convey expectations to the students, then students must assume what is perceived as acceptable or responsible behaviors. Rituals and routines clearly and consistently communicated to students will assist with establishing a learning environment that is positive, nurturing, and promotes student achievement. Teachers must allow students many opportunities to *practice* classroom procedures and rules must be reinforced consistently and fairly with all students (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). Students know when they are being treated unfairly and observe when teachers give another student an exception to the rule treatment (Cotton, 1989; Crotty, 2002; Dennis, 2006).

Teacher Expectations and Class Environment

As stated by Callahan et al. (2002), "Unless you believe that all students can learn, they will not; unless you believe that you can teach them, you will not and unless your students believe that they can learn and they want to learn, they will not" (p. 15). Babad et al. reached the conclusion that negative self-fulfilling prophecies were more powerful than positive ones, at least among high-bias teachers. Whether the study actually provided the evidence necessary to justify this claim, however, is subject to some doubt. No differences in athletic accomplishments between high- and low-expectancy students' performance among low-bias teachers–that is, no self-fulfilling prophecy. In contrast, they did find that the high-expectancy students performed more highly than did

the low-expectancy students among high-bias teachers demonstrating occurrence of a self-fulfilling prophecy.

A more recent study by researchers Wong and Wong (2004) showed that students who are expected by their teachers to grow intellectually, in fact, do show greater intellectual gains after one year than do children for whom such gains are not expected. Teachers who have high expectations for student performance and communicate those expectations generate students who are more successful and perform better academically than teachers who do not communicate and hold high expectations (Baird et al., 2007). Teachers who communicate high expectations to students not only encourage students to achieve and be successful but may initiate the expectancy effect or self-fulfilling prophecy in which students' expectations of themselves are impacted (Baird et al., 2007).

Minority group students are more susceptible to teachers' low expectations than are White students and that this may serve to further widen the achievement gap when such students accept and confirm teachers' negative expectations (McKown & Weinstein, 2002a; Nichols & Good, 2004). McKown and Weinstein's study has shown that students are well aware of their teacher's expectations for their performance, particularly in classrooms where teachers make more rather than less differentiation in the interactional and communication context for students.

Implications for Policy and Practice

The current study provided a means of quantitatively assessing teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management as related to teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level). Few studies in the literature provided such explicit details of how teacher expectations are

determined. This study had several implications for practicing teachers and teacher education departments. Although teacher expectation research has been conducted for nearly five decades, the ways in which teacher expectations can significantly influence teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management related to teacher demographics. When students are well aware of teachers' expectations, they may respond accordingly which may be a critical factor (McNaughton, Phillips, & MacDonald, 2000; Warren, 2002; Zohar, Degani, & Vaaknin, 2001).

Because of very little attention given to how teacher perceptions and expectations affect student achievement in recent literature, the outcome from the research and data of this study provided a renewed aspect on teacher expectations. The results of this study are useful to educators and school administrators due to the challenging academic standards set forth in the No Child Left Behind Act (2002). This study was important as educators and school administrators contend to establish strategies that enhance and promote high levels of student achievement as a means to meet the academic gains imposed from the No Child Left Behind Act. The literature revealed that teachers' expectations about students can overwhelmingly influence teacher behaviors and how teachers interact with students.

While the results of this study showed there was a statistically significant relationship between reading achievement as measured by the ITBS, the small proportion of variability explained by the ITBS suggested that the instrument should not be the sole source used to identify students in need of intervention services. The implication is that students generally like school less when they are aware their teachers are dissatisfied with their academic performances. Researchers suggested that students' attachment to school

is positively associated with teachers' expectations (Mulford & Silins, 2003; Pugh, 1976).

Results of this study include the following policy and practice implications:

1. While school districts are under federal and state mandates to select a standardized test in reading to determine student success, no single instrument should be used as the sole basis for making educational decisions concerning students' success or failure in a grade (i.e., retention or no retention).

2. Given the limited research base currently available that examines the relationship between teachers' perceptions and future academic achievement, the ITBS reading portion should be considered by school districts as a viable option when selecting an additional instrument for diagnostic purposes only.

3. School districts should survey teachers to determine their expectations of students and how those expectations affect student achievement.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research could more closely consider variables alongside teacher expectations (e.g., student and/or home factors) that may account for the differential achievement found in the current study. Future research into the ways in which teachers interact with students and the relationship between those interactions and students' academic performance could yield considerable information on how teachers form expectations about students and how teachers' expectations influence their behavior toward their students (Brophy & Good, 1974; Douglas, 1964; Mackler, 1969; Rowe, 1969). The potential relationship between teacher expectations for boys, boys' beliefs about themselves, and how well boys perform in school are especially important topics for further study (Davis, 2005; Tutwiler, 2007). This study contributed to the limited

research base currently available that examined the relationship between teacher expectations and future academic achievement.

Future research could investigate the learning opportunities provided to ethnic groups and the relationship to teachers' expectations. Research into teacher expectation effects has provided clear evidence that expectations do exist in regular classroom situations and that they can positively and/or negatively influence student performance and achievement among minority students (Babad, 1993; Brophy, 1982; Cooper & Good, 1983; Good, 1987; Jussim et al., 1998; Weinstein, 2002).

Concluding Remarks

Teacher expectations are real. Teachers who hold expectations for students based on their family's educational background, race or ethnicity, socioeconomic status, or special needs students should look beyond their personal beliefs and teach all children. Teachers in this study reported that they treated all students fairly, developed a comfortable and fun-filled classroom environment, had good interactions with students, and used their classroom management system to maintain order and discipline.

 Several teachers commented that they were re-examining their rules and procedures for students who do not bring materials and supplies to school. Other teachers stated that they had no rules and simply provided materials to students who did not have them rather than have them suffer during the day without them. One teacher expressed anger and frustration at children and parents who do not bring supplies because these children appear, based on how they dress each day, to have funds to purchase supplies.

Teachers should hold expectations flexibly. They might be wrong. The student's label might be wrong. Students change. Teachers change. Teachers should remember

that holding high standards without providing a warm environment is harsh. A warm classroom environment without high standards is simply giving students a false sense of accomplishment. However, if teachers can create a combination of high standards with a warm and supportive environment, doing so may benefit all students, not just the high achievers.

High expectations may mean different things for different students. Attaining average performance might be high for one student and low for another. If teachers want to harness self-fulfilling prophecy processes purposely to maximize student achievement, they need to integrate expectations with a clear sense of each student's current level of skill and learning abilities and styles, coupled with warmth and high standards for future performance in order to develop a clear plan for how those students can succeed.

APPENDIX A

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS SURVEY

By completing and submitting this web-based survey, you are giving your voluntary consent for the researcher to include your responses in the data analyses. Your participation in this research is strictly voluntary, and you may choose not to participate without fear of penalty or any negative consequences. Individual responses will be treated confidentially. No individually identifiable information will be disclosed or published, and all results will be presented as aggregate, summary data. If you wish, you may request a copy of the results of this research by writing to the researcher at

Freda R. Williams
4422 Oakleaf Cove, Decatur, GA 30034
(404) 218-5643, fredarwilliams@comcast.net

Thank you for your voluntary participation in this research study.

Gender
      a. Male
      b. Female

Age
      a. 23-30
      b. 31-38
      c. 39-46
      d. 47-54
      e. Over 55

Ethnicity/Race or ethnicity
      a. Black
      b. White
      c. Hispanic
      d. Other

Grade Level Taught
      a. Kindergarten
      b. First Grade
      c. Second Grade
      d. Third Grade
      e. Fourth Grade
      f. Fifth Grade

Years of Teaching
      a. 0-5 years
      b. 6-11 years
      c. 12-17 years
      d. 18-23 years
      e. Over 24 years

Level of Education
      a. Bachelor's Degree
      b. Master's Degree
      c. Educational Specialist
      d. Doctoral Degree

Directions: This questionnaire deals with teacher expectations of K-5 students. Please answer each question as honestly as possible. Please respond by considering how well each statement applies to your classroom and your students. Use the following scale for your responses:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Don't know	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. Boys and girls are given equal amounts of work.   1 2 3 4 5
2. I prefer students whose personality and temperament is more like mine.   1 2 3 4 5
3. My students do well because I make class fun.   1 2 3 4 5
4. I expect the same of students regardless of whether or not someone from their family comes to school often.   1 2 3 4 5
5. I expect less of students who are messy.   1 2 3 4 5
6. My students do well in class because I do not embarrass them.   1 2 3 4 5
7. When students do not bring their materials to class, I do not let them participate.   1 2 3 4 5
8. I am constantly watching the students who often get into trouble.   1 2 3 4 5
9. I encourage students to do their best.   1 2 3 4 5
10. I expect the same of all students in spite of how neat/messy they are.   1 2 3 4 5
11. I expect the same of all students regardless of their race or ethnicity or ethnicity.   1 2 3 4 5
12. I do not help students when they do not have their materials for class.   1 2 3 4 5
13. Students do well because I expect them to do well.   1 2 3 4 5
14. Boys and girls are not allowed to work together in groups on projects.   1 2 3 4 5
15. I expect the same from boys and girls.   1 2 3 4 5
16. I act more favorably toward students who always do their work.   1 2 3 4 5
17. I expect less of students who are class clowns.   1 2 3 4 5
18. I think that learning should be fun.   1 2 3 4 5
19. My students do well in class because I allow them to help make classroom decisions.   1 2 3 4 5
20. Boys and girls are called on equally to answer questions.   1 2 3 4 5
21. I expect my students to excel because of their family's education.   1 2 3 4 5
22. My students do well because I am organized.   1 2 3 4 5

Please take a few minutes and answer the following questions:

1. What do you do to ensure that boys and girls are given equal amounts of work?

_____

_____

2. How do you expect boys and girls to do the same work?

_____

_____

3. When students turn in "messy work," what strategies do you use to help boys and girls to be "neater?"

_____

_____

4. What type of expectations have you set for boys and girls?

_____

_____

5. What do you do when students "act out" in class and interrupt the class?

_____

_____

6. What strategies do you use with students who misbehave and disrupt class more than students who follow the rules?

_____

_____

7. Which parents are more active and why? Parents with a higher level of education (high school, college, and graduate school) or parents who did not finish high school or who dropped out of school?

_____

_____

8. Describe your grouping strategies in your classroom?

_____

_____

9. What rules do you have for students who do not bring materials (i.e., books, paper, or pencil) to class?

_____

_____

GENERAL COMMENTS:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX B

PERMISSION TO USE

TEACHER EXPECTATIONS SURVEY

Freda Williams - RE: Teacher survey

From:	"Dr. Tim Gallahar" <tgallahar@tcboe.org>
To:	Freda.Williams@cobbk12.org
Date:	4/1/2011 10:13 AM
Subject:	RE: Teacher survey

Ms. Williams,

I did not do a teacher survey in my study. I only did a student survey. I give you permission to use the student survey in any way that would help you in your study.

Timothy Gallahar

From: Freda Williams [mailto:Freda.Williams@cobbk12.org]
Sent: Wednesday, March 30, 2011 1:00 PM
To: Dr. Tim Gallahar
Subject: Teacher survey

Hello Timothy,
I trust that all is well with you. While reviewing your dissertation, I see the contents of the tables reflecting only student data; not teacher data. With that in mind, did you use a teacher survey in your study? If not, will you allow me to alter your 23 questions to reflect a teacher survey versus a student survey?

Timothy, please know that I am not trying to be a pain. However, I am feverishly attempting to complete my chapter 3 for review. Thanks again for support and willingness to assist me in this process.

Freda

Freda Williams
Principal
Bryant Intermediate School
alfredapwilliams@cobbk12.org
"Our ability to **respond** rather than **react** will be a key factor in moving forward."

APPENDIX C

GALLAHAR'S FOUR FACTORS

Factor 1 (Equal Treatment of Students)
1. Boys and girls are given equal amounts of work.
4. My teacher expects the same of students regardless of whether or not someone from their family comes to school often.
10. My teacher expects the same of all students in spite of how neat/messy they are.
11. My teacher expects the same of all students regardless of their race or ethnicity or ethnicity.
15. My teacher expects the same from boys and girls.
20. Boys and girls are called on equally to answer questions.

Factor 2 (Class Environment)
3. I do well because my teacher makes class fun.
6. I do well in class because my teacher does not embarrass me.
9. My teacher encourages students to do their best.
13. I do well because my teacher expects me to do well.
18. My teacher thinks that learning should be fun.
22. I do well because my teacher is organized.

Factor 3 (Interaction with Students)
2. My teacher prefers students whose personality/temperament is more like his/hers.
5. My teacher expects less of students who are messy.
8. My teacher is constantly watching the students who often get into trouble.
16. My teacher acts more favorably toward students who always do their work.
17. My teacher expects less of students who are class clowns.
21. My teacher expects me to excel because of my family's education.

Factor 4 (Classroom Management)
7. When I do not bring my materials to class, my teacher does not let me participate. (R)
12. My teacher does not help me when I do not have my materials for class. (R)
14. Boys and girls are not allowed to work together in groups on projects. (R)
19. I do well in class because my teacher allows me to help make classroom decisions.

Questions 7, 12, and 14 are written in the reverse order. Hence, the symbol (R) means *Reversed*.

APPENDIX D

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

Institutional Review Board

118 College Drive #5147
Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001
Tel: 601.266.6820
Fax: 601.266.5509
www.usm.edu/irb

HUMAN SUBJECTS PROTECTION REVIEW COMMITTEE
NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Human Subjects Protection Review Committee in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months.
  Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: **11062203**
PROJECT TITLE: **The Effect of Teachers' Expectations and Perceptions on Student Achievement in Reading for Third and Fifth Grade Students**
PROPOSED PROJECT DATES: **01/26/2011 to 12/31/2011**
PROJECT TYPE: **Dissertation**
PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATORS: **Alfreda R. Williams**
COLLEGE/DIVISION: **College of Education & Psychology**
DEPARTMENT: **Educational Leadership & School Counseling**
FUNDING AGENCY: **N/A**
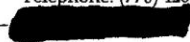HSPRC COMMITTEE ACTION: **Exempt Approval**
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: **07/21/2011 to 07/20/2012**

Lawrence A. Hosman

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
HSPRC Chair

7-21-2011
Date

P.O. Box 1088
Marietta, GA 30061
Telephone: (770) 426-3300

June 23, 2011

Ms. Freda R. Williams
4422 Oakleaf Cove
Decatur, GA 30034

Dear Ms. Williams:

Your research project has been approved. Listed below are the schools where approval to conduct the research is complete. Please work with the school administrator to schedule administration of instruments or conduct interviews.

BOARD OF EDUCATION

SUPERINTENDENT

Should modifications or changes in research procedures become necessary during the research project, changes must be submitted in writing to the Office of Accountability and Research prior to implementation. At the conclusion of your research project, you are expected to submit a copy of your results to this office. Results cannot reference the ███████████ or any District schools or departments.

Research files are not considered complete until results are received. If you have any questions regarding the process, contact our office at 770-426-3407.

Sincerely,

Judith A. Jones

Dr. Judith A. Jones
Chief Accountability and Research Officer

APPENDIX E

ONLINE INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

The main purpose of this form is to provide information that may affect your decision about whether or not you want to participate in this research project. If you choose to participate, please click, "Yes, I consent." If you choose not to participate please click, "No, I do not consent" and exit the survey.

WHO IS DOING THE RESEARCH AND WHAT IS IT ABOUT?
Freda R. Williams, a doctoral student at the University of Southern Mississippi, under the direction of Dr. Rose McNeese, in the School of Educational Leadership, is conducting a research study and is inviting you to participate in this study. My dissertation topic is *The Effect of Teachers' Expectations and Perceptions On Student Achievement in Reading For Third- And Fifth-Grade Students*. The purpose of the study was twofold. First, this study investigated the relationship between teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, class environment, interaction with students, and classroom management as related to teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level). The second purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of teachers' expectations of equal treatment of students, classroom environment, interaction with students, and classroom management related to teacher demographics (i.e., age, race or ethnicity, years of teaching experience, grade level, and educational level).

WHAT DOES PARTICIPATION IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY INVOLVE?
You are being asked to complete an online survey that should take approximately 30 minutes of your time.

WHY ARE YOU BEING ASKED TO PARTICIPATE?
You have been invited to participate because you are an elementary school teacher in the target school district.

ARE THERE ANY RISKS INVOLVED IN THIS STUDY?
We do not anticipate any risks to you if you decide to participate in this study.

WHAT HAPPENS IF THE RESEARCHER GETS NEW INFORMATION DURING THE STUDY?
The researcher will contact you if new information is found that could possibly change your decision about participating in this study.

HOW WILL THE RESEARCHER PROTECT PARTICIPANTS' CONFIDENTIALITY?
The results of the research study will be published; however, your name or identify will not be revealed. The researcher will be the only person who will have access to the data. The data will be destroyed after the selected period.

WHAT HAPPENS IF A PARTICIPANT DOES NOT WANT TO CONTINUE IN THE STUDY?
Participation in this study is strictly voluntary. Participating teachers may choose not to participate and can choose to withdraw from the study at any time.

WILL IT COST ANYTHING TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY? WILL I BE PAID TO PARTICIPATE?
There are no direct benefits, cost, or payments to participants for participating in this study.

WILL PARTICIPANTS BE COMPENSATED FOR ILLNESS OR INJURY?
No funds have been set aside to compensate you in the event of injury. If you suffer harm due to participation in this study, you should contact the researcher, Freda R. Williams at (404) 218-5643 or via email at fredarwilliams@comcast.net

VOLUNTARY CONSENT
By indicating, "Yes, I consent" to this online survey, you, as a participant, are stating that you have read this form and that you understand this form and the research study. Participation in this study is voluntary and will not affect your employment status or annual evaluations. If you decide to withdraw from the study and participation in the survey, you should simply stop taking the online survey.

By completing this survey, you are giving consent as a participant for this information to be used in this study. The information will only be used for the purpose outlined above. Should you have any questions regarding this study, please feel free to contact me at fredarwilliams@comcast.net. I appreciate your voluntarily participation in this study.

If you choose to participate, you will be asked to login to an online survey through Survey Monkey. Sources of information will be protected and only aggregate and summary data will be reported in the results in this study. Thank you for your participation in this research study. This survey will close on September 3, 2011. Please click on the link below to begin the survey.

http://www.surveymonkey.com

Sincerely,

Freda R. Williams

INVESTIGATOR'S STATEMENT

I certify that this form includes all information concerning the study relevant to the protection of the rights of the participants. I have described the rights and protection afforded to human research participants and I have done nothing to pressure, coerce, or falsely entice this person to participate.

Freda R. Williams   _____
Name of Researcher   Signature   Date
(404) 218-5643
fredarwilliams@comcast.net

If further questions or comments occur, please contact Freda R. Williams, the researcher at (404) 218-5643 or via email fredarwilliams@comcast.net. Your identity, questions, and concerns will be kept confidential.

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