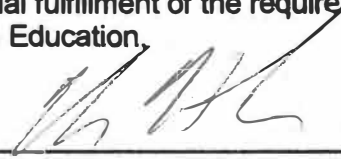


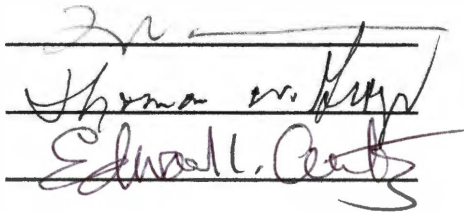
To the Gradual Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation by Olena Anatoliivna Kyselova, entitled "Pre-Service Teachers' Awareness of Prosocial and Antisocial Behavior in Students with Disabilities." I have examined the final paper copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.



Christopher H. Skinner, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:



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Vice Chancellor and Dean of
Graduate Studies

**PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' AWARENESS OF PROSOCIAL AND
ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOR IN STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES**

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Olena Anatoliivna Kyselova

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family, my son Andrey, my husband Stanislav, and my parents, Larissa and Anatoliy, whose love, understanding, and encouragement have always been my support to achieve dreams.

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This dissertation is the final step in my doctoral career at The University of Tennessee and I would like to extend my sincere appreciation to the people who supported me in this process.

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I would like to thank my dear friends and family, whose care and support made a great difference during these years of study and research.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate if specific psychoeducational diagnosis influences pre-service teachers' awareness of students' prosocial and antisocial behaviors. The student diagnostic categories included (a) general education students, (b) students with behavior disorders, (c) students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, and (d) students with learning disabilities or mild mental retardation.

Two experiments made up the current study. In both experiments, pre-service teachers were shown a video tape of middle school students in a classroom during a transition period engaged in different prosocial and antisocial behaviors. After viewing the tape, students were asked to write narrative descriptions of what occurred on the tape. These narratives were used to collect data on (a) specific instance of antisocial and prosocial behaviors (these were the six instances that were intentionally included on the tape), (b) general reports of positive and negative behaviors, and (c) positive and negative student characteristics.

In Experiment I, three groups of pre-service teachers were shown the tape with students identified as (a) general education students (GE), (b) students with behavior disorders (BD), and (c) with learning disabilities or mild mental retardation (LD/MMR). The results revealed that across all three groups, pre-service teachers reported more negative than positive student behaviors and characteristics. The current data failed to support the hypothesis that student classification categories would affect participants' reporting rates of inappropriate and prosocial behaviors and student characteristics.

In Experiment II, three groups of pre-service teachers were shown the tape with students identified as (a) general education students (GE), (b) students with behavior disorders (BD), and (c) students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). The findings from Experiment II showed that pre-service teachers reported

more general antisocial behaviors and student characteristics than general prosocial behaviors and student characteristics. The significant main effect for group was found for general behaviors as well as for student behaviors and characteristics combined. The participants reported significantly more general antisocial behaviors and characteristics for the GE and ADHD groups than for the BD students. There was no significant group interaction for the groups (GE, BD, and ADHD).

Overall, the findings of both experiments revealed that pre-service teachers hold similar expectations about general and special education students' behaviors. Across all groups (GE, LD/MMR, BD, and ADHD), the pre-services teachers tended to focus on inappropriate student characteristics and behavior as opposed to prosocial behaviors and characteristics. Student diagnostic categories may not impact pre-service teachers' awareness of students' behavior.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters, followed by a list of references, and appendixes. Chapter One, the introduction, includes the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, and the significance of the study. Chapter Two is a review of the relevant literature related to teachers' perceptions of students' prosocial and antisocial behavior, teachers' perceptions of students with disabilities, and effects of these perceptions on students. Chapter Three includes the methods, results, and discussion from Experiment I where I examined perceptions of students' incidental prosocial and antisocial behavior across three categories of students (i.e., general education students (GE), students with behavior disorders (BD), and students with learning disabilities or mild mental retardation (LD/MMR)). Chapter Four includes the methods, results, and discussion from Experiment II where I examined perceptions of students' incidental prosocial and antisocial behavior across three categories of students (i.e., general education students (GE), students with behavior disorders (BD), and students with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder). Chapter Five includes a discussion across experiments, limitations, conclusions, and directions for further research.

Introduction

In educational settings, students engage in many unplanned or incidental inappropriate/antisocial and appropriate/prosocial behaviors. These behaviors provide opportunities for incidental learning. For example, when students engage in appropriate prosocial behaviors, educators can reinforce those behaviors (e.g., publicly praise those behaviors), thereby increasing the probability of students engaging in similar desirable behaviors. Additionally, educators can ignore or punish incidental inappropriate behaviors, thereby decreasing the probability of students

engaging in these behaviors. However, incidental learning opportunities are likely to be lost when educators are not aware of these incidental behaviors (Kelshaw-Levering, Sterling-Turner, Henry, & Skinner, 2000; Skinner, Skinner, Skinner, & Cashwell, 1999).

Researchers have found that educators may be more aware of incidental inappropriate as opposed to desired behaviors (Algozzine, 1980; White, 1975). White (1975) found that teachers' focus on students' inappropriate behaviors. Additionally, researchers suggested that punishing these behaviors is negatively reinforced because the inappropriate behavior ceased immediately. This immediate reinforcement may cause teachers to focus their attention on student inappropriate behaviors, as opposed to appropriate behaviors.

As a result of their focusing on students' antisocial behaviors, teachers may be biased against students who exhibit high rates of antisocial behaviors (Algozzine, 1980). These teachers may carefully monitor these students in order to observe and punish undesirable behaviors. These students may avoid punishment by behaving appropriately or by exhibiting behaviors (e.g., sitting quietly and pretending to read their assignment) to escape and avoid aversive consequences that results from teachers focusing on their incidental inappropriate behaviors. While these conditions may reduce undesirable behaviors, they may not always increase desirable behaviors.

In addition, researchers found that student classification may affect teachers' awareness or reactions to students' incidental behaviors and their perceptions of students (e.g., Block & Rizzo, 1993; Butler, 1999; Folsom-Meek, 1991; Folsom-Meek, Nearing, & Krampf, 1995; Mioduser, Margalit, & Efrati, 1998; Tobias, Cole, Zibrin, & Boldakova, 1982). Thus, psychoeducational diagnoses may cause teachers to create certain behavioral expectations. These expectations may be communicated

to children causing the children to behave as expected by teachers (e.g., Rosenthal effect or a self-fulfilling prophecy).

Statement of the Problem

Though researchers found that teachers demonstrate biases and prejudices when observing and evaluating behaviors of students with disabilities, few studies were done investigating teachers' awareness of student incidental behaviors. Additionally, most researchers focused on teacher perception of students' inappropriate behaviors, but few investigated teacher awareness of desirable behaviors. Thus, research is needed that investigates teachers' awareness of students' incidental prosocial behaviors in comparison to students' inappropriate behaviors and their relations to students' psychoeducational diagnosis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate if specific psychoeducational diagnosis influences pre-service teachers' awareness of students' prosocial and antisocial behaviors. The student diagnostic categories included (a) general education students, (b) students with behavior disorders, (c) students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, and (d) students with learning disabilities or mild mental retardation.

Significance of the Study

The current research will contribute to the knowledge and practice of teachers' interactions with students. In particular, this study endeavors to evaluate teachers' perception of prosocial and antisocial behaviors with students with disabilities. These results may help teachers and teacher trainers overcome stereotypic judgments and prejudices regarding students with disabilities. Additionally, these results may lead to procedures that reduce learning and behavior problems caused by self-fulfilling prophecies.

Research Questions

This study will examine the following research questions:

- Are pre-service teachers more likely to focus on prosocial or antisocial behaviors?
- Do student classifications influence pre-service teachers' perceptions of student incidental antisocial and prosocial behaviors?
- Do specific categories (i.e., GE, LD/MMR, BD, or ADHD) affect pre-service teachers' awareness of student antisocial and prosocial behaviors?

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Researchers have conducted many studies designed to identify variables that may influence teachers' expectations and perceptions and their effects on student academic, social, and emotional behaviors. These variables include (a) prejudices (Bamburg, 1994; Cotton, 1989; Edelbrock, 1983; Gonder, 1991; Raffini, 1993; Rosenthal, 1976; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968), (b) teacher and student ethnicity (Dominguez De Ramirez, 2001; Tobias, Cole, Zibrin, & Boldakova, 1982; Tobias, Zibrin, & Menell, 1983), (c) gender (Kelly, Bullock, & Dukes, 1977; McGee, 1985; Rong, 1996; Tailor, Gunter, & Slate, 2001), (d) academic achievements (Campbell & Simpson, 1992; Rosenthal, 1976; Schmuck & Schmuck, 1979), (e) cultural differences (Wilkinson, Trovato, & Harris, 1995), (f) students' problem behavior (Borg, 1998; Coleman & Gilliam, 1983; Das Grasas & Feldens, 1986; Edelbrock, 1983; Kelly, Bullock, & Dukes, 1977; Prieto & Zucker, 1981; Rhodes, 1967), and (g) students' disabilities (Block & Rizzo, 1993; Butler, 1999; Folsom-Meek, 1991; Folsom-Meek et al, 1995; Mioduser, Margalit, & Efrati, 1998; Tobias, Cole, Zibrin, & Boldakova, 1982; Vance & Wallbrown, 1979).

Teachers' Perception of Students Prosocial and Antisocial Behaviors

Researchers have found that teachers in the U.S. (Pugach & Wesson, 1995), Israel (Brook, Watemberg, & Geva, 2002), and England (Borg, 1998) are not adequately prepared and lack skills for educating children with behavioral problems. Poor training in dealing with behavior problems may worsen inaccurate expectations of teachers regarding student behaviors and the impact that these expectations have with respect to their interactions with students. Teachers seldom concentrate on students' prosocial behaviors. Instead, their primary focus is students' problem behavior in the classroom (White, 1975).

There is no standard definition for inappropriate or antisocial behaviors. Some researchers examined different general forms of this behaviors such as antisocial behaviors, inappropriate behaviors, or misbehaviors (e.g., Das Grasas & Feldens, 1986) behavior deviance (e.g., Rhodes, 1967), and undesirable behaviors (e.g., Borg, 1998, Borg and Falzon, 1989). Other researchers examined specific behaviors, such as shyness, disobedience, destroying school materials, stealing, and drug abuse (Borg, 1998, Borg & Falzon, 1989, Brophy, 1996).

Similarly, no standard definition exists for classifying students with behavior disorders. Historically, students with behavior disorders included those “who exhibited socially defiant and aggressive behavior” (Muscott, 1996, p.301). School aged children with behavior problems have been the focus of studies indicating that this term, students with behavior problems, is applicable to a range of behaviors including aggressive, withdrawn, antisocial, disruptive, and deviant. The classification of behavior problems includes aggressive/ acting out behavior and withdrawn/solitary behavior (Fiel, 1999). Fiel (1999) indicated:

Children with aggressive/acting-out characteristics exhibit such behaviors as aggression, antisocial acts, social-skill deficits, hyperactivity, and/ or lack of attention. These children can be easily angered and will move from activity to activity, being less focused than other children. Children with withdrawn/solitary behaviors are characterized as being socially withdrawn, anxious, inhibited, depressed and having social-skill deficits. These children will frequently position themselves on the outskirts of an activity and will not engage in play without encouragement. Frequently, the children with the most severe behavior problems exhibit both behavior patterns; that is, periods of social isolation with explosive episodes. (p.50)

Despite the lack of agreement of specific definitions or diagnostic labels and criteria, most educators agree that disturbance or disrupting the classroom

environment is a critical concern (Coleman & Gilliam, 1983; Kelly et al., 1977; Prieto & Zucker, 1981; Rhodes, 1967; Tobias et al., 1982). According to Niemann, Ball, and Caldwell (1989), student behavior is defined as disruptive when the student is not engaged in a task structured for him/her by the teacher. This behavior is noticed by the teacher and other students, and it interferes with the efforts of other learners.

Researchers have examined teachers' perceptions of specific behaviors, such as shyness, disobedience, destroying school materials, stealing, and drug abuse (Borg, 1998, Borg and Falzon, 1989, Brophy, 1996). Also, researchers have investigated teacher perceptions of students' behavior based on teacher gender or ethnic background and students gender and ethnicity. Kelly et al. (1977) found that the teachers' gender influenced teachers' perception of the behavior of students with emotional and behavioral disorders. Results showed female teachers perceived a higher percentage of students as exhibiting behavioral difficulties than did male teachers. Similarly, Rong (1996) found that Caucasian male teachers rated white male and female students more equally than did their female teachers who rated female students as better behaved, regardless of student or teacher ethnicity. However, McGee (1985) found no significant differences in teachers rating of the severity of behavior on the basis of teacher gender.

Researchers investigating teachers' ethnicity also found contradictory results. Dominguez De Ramirez (2001) had Hispanic and Caucasian teachers observe standardized videotapes of a Hispanic and a Caucasian child and then complete a ADHD rating scale. Results showed no significant differences when they were rating Caucasian children. However, Hispanic teachers were more likely to report scores above the clinical cutoffs than Caucasian teachers when rating the Hispanic student.

Tobias et al. (1982) also investigated teacher preference for mainstreaming students with disabilities based on teachers' ethnic background (Caucasian, Hispanic, and African-American). The researchers showed that teachers tended to

refer students for special education placements more often when the students were from differing ethnic background. Other researchers found that teachers' ethnic background did not influence perceptions. Tobias et al.(1983) found no relationship between special education referrals and ethnicity of teachers and students. Rong (1996) found that students ethnicity did not influence perceptions of students in black female teachers but did influence perceptions in Caucasian female teachers.

Wilkinson et al. (1995) examined behavior problems in Canadian and Welsh schools. Results revealed that there were similarities in teachers' perception of the severity and frequency of acting-out or 'undercontrolled' behaviors. However, there were significant differences in inhibited or 'overcontrolled' behaviors. Canadian teachers observed more 'overcontrolled' behaviors among their students who had been referred for assistance than Welsh teachers. The researchers concluded that the difference in the type and severity of behavior problems could be seen as reflective of either the nature of students' problems, or teachers' perception and expectations, or both.

Kauffman, Wong, Lloyd, Hung, and Pullen (1991) investigated the impact of students' behavior on teachers' referral decisions for special education. The researchers examined teacher beliefs about the types of classroom behaviors that placed children at risk for school failure. They found that teachers respected behaviors related to good academic performance, good work habits, school compliance, and motivation. The teachers were not tolerant of highly aggressive and noncompliant behaviors, as well as behaviors that disturbed classroom routines. When comparing both classes of behaviors, the researchers found that teachers were more concerned about negative, nonacademic behaviors than by academic behaviors when making a referral for an evaluation for special education eligibility.

Similar findings were indicated in Drame's study (2002):

Teachers' perception of a learning disability as being an academic disability characterized by reading or writing difficulties, for example, was related to their tendency to view aggressive behavior and temperament-related behavior, such as distractibility or impulsivity, as disruptive to classroom management. This perception also led teachers to refer more often when confronted with negative temperament-related behaviors. (p.51)

Drame found that the presence of students with disruptive behaviors in the classroom would result in more teacher referral decisions for special education. These findings are supported by Safran and Safran's (1989) conclusion that teachers rated a students' behavior as less acceptable and more severe in a disruptive classroom setting than in a nondisruptive setting.

Drame's (2002) study also demonstrated that educational level and age of teachers influenced their decisions to refer students for special education based on temperament-related difficulties. Drame showed that experienced teachers with higher educational levels (master or doctorate degrees) usually teach in third through fifth grades. When dealing with students negative temperament behaviors, these teachers revealed less tolerance for students' off-task and at-risk behaviors and referred them for special education more frequently. Drame suggested that older teachers might tend to focus on traditional and less innovative teaching practices. In contrast to these findings, Mantizicopoulous and Neuberth-Pritchett (1998) found that more educated teachers would be more accepting and more skilled in dealing with deviant behaviors than less educated teachers

Researchers have also investigated the influence of teachers' ethnicity on referral decisions for special education (Tobias et al., 1982; Tobias et al., 1983). Tobias et al., (1982) found that teachers were less likely to refer students with the same cultural background and that Caucasian teachers referred students for special

education services more often than African American or Hispanic teachers. However, Tobias et al. (1983) found that there was no interaction between teacher and student ethnicity. Drame (2002) also found no significant effects of teachers' ethnicity on referral decisions.

Researching gender and ethnicity roles in identification of students with undesired behaviors, Tailor, Gunter, and Slate (2001) used four videotapes presenting a Caucasian male student, a Caucasian female student, an African-American male student, and an African-American female student. The students were the same age and possessed similar physical characteristics. They displayed the same types of problem behaviors (pencil tapping, disturbing others, mild rebuke to the teacher) in the same classroom. The participants, pre-service and in-service teachers, were asked to complete a behavior rating scale evaluation of student behaviors. Results suggested that the gender of the teachers, but not their ethnic background, significantly affected teachers' perception of student inappropriate behaviors. Male teachers rated the students' behaviors better than their female colleagues. In addition, male teachers evaluated the African-American female student as displaying more inappropriate behaviors than the Caucasian student. These findings were supported by the study of Shinn, Tindal, and Spira (1987), which showed bias in behavior assessment based on teacher racial prejudice.

A number of studies compared general education and special education teachers' perceptions of student antisocial behaviors (Safran & Safran, 1987, Mullen & Wood, 1986). Safran and Safran (1987) instructed general and special education teachers to view a video tape and describe student behaviors. Results showed that general education teachers described student behaviors as more disturbing than did the special education teachers. Additionally, both groups of teachers demonstrated similar levels of concerns about contagion effects on misbehaving students. Mullen and Wood (1986) compared teachers' and students' ratings of antisocial behaviors.

The researchers found that general education teachers viewed common problem behaviors of students as more disturbing as compared to the perceptions of these behaviors by junior high students.

Teachers' Perception of Students with Disabilities

As mandated by the rules and regulations of Public Law (PL) 94-142 (U.S. Office of Education, 1975) and its recent reauthorization, PL 101-476 (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 1990), students with a disability should be educated in the least restricted environment. Because there is an increasing number of special education students merging into the general education mainstream, teachers are required to have special skills for making their teaching beneficial to these children, their performance, and social adjustment. Thus, the topic of social behavior of students with disabilities became an important issue for educators and parents.

Flanagan et al (1996) noted the importance of appropriate social behavior in classrooms. The researchers suggested the expansion of the learning disability definition by including social skills deficits. They also recommended inclusion of a social competence component in the definition of mental retardation. The researchers investigated teachers' perceptions and interactions with students with disabilities. They concluded that general education teachers have not been adequately prepared and trained to teach this population (Craft et al, 1985, Folsom-Meek, 1991; Folsom-Meek et al, 1995).

Although 50% of students in U.S. special programs have been labeled as learning disabled, and their education is typically provided by general education teachers, little research has been conducted on teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards this group of students (Sawyer, McLaughlin, & Winglee, 1994; Clark & Artiles, 2000). Additionally, researchers' findings are inconsistent across studies that examined teachers' perceptions of general education students and students with learning disabilities.

Butler (1999) examined general education teachers' perceptions of social skills of African American males, third, fourth, and fifth graders who were classified as learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, and general education non-disabled. Butler found no significant differences in teachers' ratings of behavior problems across general education students, students with emotional disturbances, and students with learning disabilities.

Similar findings were reported by Brook et al. (2002) who measured Israel's teachers' attitudes towards students with learning disabilities (LD) and Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Teachers from a typical school and a special education institution participated in the study. The researchers indicated that educators from both schools had insufficient knowledge regarding LD and ADHD. General education teachers indicated that excessive "parental spoiling" and nutritional habits were the etiology of LD. In contrast, special education teachers' attitudes towards LD students were more tolerant. Additionally, the authors found that teachers' years of experience did not influence the level of knowledge of ADHD and LD.

Aglozzine (1980) compared general and special education teachers' perception of students with behaviors disorders. Results showed that special education teachers perceived these students' behaviors as less disturbing than did general education teachers.

Some researchers compared teachers' attitude to students with different disorders. Mioduser, Margalit, and Efrati (1998) studied differences in teachers' perceptions of student behavior disorders among three groups of educators: novice special educators, experienced special educators, and head teachers of special schools. Behavior disorders included Attention Deficit Disorders with Hyperactivity (ADHD), Conduct Disorders (CD), Oppositional Disorders (OD), and Learning Disorders (LD). The researchers found significant differences in attitudes between

teachers' perceptions of students with ADHD, CD, and OD disorders, but not those with LD. Teachers viewed the different disorders as partially interrelated. In contrast to the experienced teachers, the novice teachers used a more generalized approach, ignoring distinctive aspects of the behavior difficulties.

Researchers found a hierarchy of teacher's attitudes toward specific disabilities (Block & Rizzo, 1993; Folsom-Meek, 1991; Folsom-Meek et al., 1995). Folsom-Meek et al. (1995) compared attitudes of undergraduate students majoring in physical education teaching towards students classified as behavioral disordered (BD), mildly mentally retarded (MMR), and learning disabled (LD). The researchers found that the highest favorable attitude was toward students with the LD label, the middle favorable attitude was toward students with MMR label, and the least favorable attitude was toward students with a BD label.

Researchers also investigated the influence of the variables of culture and student disability classification on teachers' perceptions and expectations as they are related to inappropriate behaviors. Rodriguez and Tollefson (1987) studied expectations of Costa Rican elementary school teachers. Results showed that Costa Rican teachers had greater expectations of future failure for their low-ability students.

Clark and Artiles (2000) examined patterns in teachers' attribution responses to outcomes of students with and without learning disabilities. They suggested that teachers in the United States and Guatemala had different expectations for student future failure. American teachers were more likely to reward the students with LD as compared with non-LD students. Guatemalan teachers consistently assigned rewards according to the student's ability and performance. High-ability boys with LD received greater rewards as compared to low-ability students with LD.

Additionally, it was observed that Guatemalan teachers were more likely to reward the non-LD students of low ability, who were viewed as having a better chance to succeed in the future. These results were consistent with findings obtained

in the Rodriguez and Tollefson study (1987). Clark and Artiles (2002) found the following:

For U.S. teachers, high effort, particularly in the face of low ability, is rewarded and elicits pity responses following failure. This suggests that overcoming such adversity as a disability by hard work is particularly valued in a society in which success is often attributed to individual effort. In contrast, Guatemalan teachers were more likely to feel greater anger at the failing students of higher ability and pity for the failing student of low ability. (p.87)

However, the researchers indicated that the relative newness of the LD designation in the Guatemalan school system may have influenced how Guatemalan teachers perceive children with LD.

Handwerk and Marshall (1998) compared parents' and teachers' ratings of academic and social/emotional problems exhibited by students with Learning Disabilities, Serious Emotional Disturbance, or with both conditions. They found that parents judged their own children less severely than teachers did. It was concluded that teachers utilized stricter standards to ensure that students who needed special services met eligibility criteria. Teachers typically were more restrictive and less flexible in their expectations, and placed more and different demands on children than parents. In contrast, parents underestimated their children's deficits and difficulties because they had fears related to the consequences of labeling. Additionally, teachers rated the students with comorbid LD and SED as having more severe problems than those with LD or SED alone.

The Robbins and Morrel study (1998) considered appropriate or positive behavior. Robbins and Morrel examined general education teachers, at-risk program teachers, and parents' perceptions of at-risk students' behaviors who participated in a prevention program. Results showed at-risk program teachers were more likely to focus on student positive behaviors than were general education teachers. The

researchers indicated that the working environment might account for these findings. Specifically, they suggested that at-risk program teachers worked with small groups and had more opportunity to control the antecedents and consequences of students' positive and negative behaviors. The same tendency was found with parents. Parents of at-risk students were more likely to report positive behaviors for students than did general education teachers.

Effects of Teachers' Perception of Students' Learning

Researchers have found that teacher expectations about student potential have significantly influenced how students behave. The theory that one's expectations about a person can cause that person to behave in a manner that meets those expectations is known as the Pygmalion effect (Brehm & Kassin, 1996) and originates from George Bernard Shaw's (1951) play *Pygmalion: A romance in five acts*.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) introduced this term into the psychoeducational literature. In their study, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) found that the teachers expected students who were labeled as *potential bloomers* to score higher on intelligence tests than students who were not labeled. Rosenthal (1976) used meta-analysis to integrate more than 300 studies examining the impact of teachers' expectations of their students. The researcher found that teachers' perceptions, expectations, and beliefs about students could predict changes in student academic performance. As expectations for student success increased, student academic achievement also improved.

Furthermore, when replicating his original experiment related to how teachers graded students, Rosenthal (1987) found that when examiners who were not aware of experimental conditions reassessed children, teachers' expectations of students increased. The researcher suggested that when teachers do not have enough accurate or first-hand information about student ability to learn, they base their

judgments on a variety of stereotypes such as the students' SES and ethnicities. Additionally, these judgments or perceptions may be stable. For example, in their study of teachers' attitude and power to change students, Schmuck and Schmuck (1979) found that even after discovering that students were misclassified, some teachers still perceived the students being low achievers.

Another term related to teachers' expectations of students' ability is self-fulfilling prophecy. This term was first introduced by Merton (1948) and was based on the theorem: "If men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences" (Thomas, 1928, p.257). An example of the self-fulfilling prophecy would be when a teacher believed that a student was not intelligent enough to do well on a task, and gave this student less difficult work than other students who were considered capable. These lower expectations about the child's potential can retard student achievement. The self-fulfilling prophecy is a cyclical effect caused by Pygmalion effect (Rosenthal, 1987). Thus, both terms, the Pygmalion effect and self-fulfilling prophecy, are a meaningful pedagogical tool to assist teachers in developing positive beliefs and avoiding negative expectations about students (Campbell & Simpson, 1992; Tauber, 1998).

Teacher expectations of students may be communicated to students in a variety of ways. Researchers found that teachers display more instances of positive nonverbal behaviors (smiling, leaning towards, eye contact) towards students who are high achievers as compared to low achievers (Bamburg, 1994). Students who are viewed as low achievers are given fewer opportunities to participate in the classroom activities related to new material, asked less challenging questions, given less feedback, encouraged and praised less consistently and less frequently for success, and given less time to respond to teacher questions than students perceived as bright and more capable by teachers (Bamburg, 1994). Additionally, teachers gave low achieving students less stimulating instructional materials and

more tedious drills and practice activities (Cotton, 1989). These students may accept teachers' beliefs and expectations about their abilities (Raffini, 1993). They may view themselves as incapable of making progress, and therefore lack motivating.

According to Gonder (1991), from an early age low achieving students can monitor teacher feedback given to their classmates and themselves. The internalization of teacher expectations may cause low achieving students to see themselves as failures. Brophy (1998) used a term a "failure syndrome" to describe students with lack of confidence and poor expectations about their ability to learn and be successful. Brophy believed that most failure syndromes are related to low expectations of students, especially students with learning problems. Consequently, students' beliefs about their lack of abilities hinder their performance at school. Additionally, Brophy found that perceptions of students' ability to succeed depended upon teachers' skills. Higher rated and more effective teachers used more reinforcement and shaping techniques to alter student behaviors related to low self-efficacy. Lower rated and less effective teachers had lower demands for low achieving students.

Researchers have identified many variables that may influence teachers' perceptions regarding students' ability to learn and developed various models to describe how these perceptions may influence students' self-perceptions and learning. These studies are important because one of the primary goals of education is to enhance students' academic achievement. Another important goal of education is to teach students social behaviors. Thus, some researchers have investigated the influence of teacher expectations on student prosocial and antisocial behaviors.

Summary and Purpose

Previous research has suggested that educators may be more aware of students' incidental inappropriate behaviors, especially when students are classified as having a disability. The current study consisted of two experiments (Experiment I

and Experiment II). The first experiment (Experiment I) investigated the differences in pre-service teachers' awareness of students' antisocial and prosocial behavior and the effect of student identifiers (i.e., general education students, student with behavior-emotional disorders, or students with mild mental retardation-learning disabilities) on awareness. The second study (Experiment II) was similar except the goal was to determine if specifying the type of behavior disorder (i.e., ADHD) impacted awareness.

CHAPTER 3

EXPERIMENT I

Methods and Procedures

Purpose

The current study was conducted to determine if pre-service teachers are more likely to report inappropriate, as opposed to appropriate behaviors, and to determine if student classification (i.e., learning disabled or mildly mentally retarded, behavior disordered, or general education students) would impact these reports.

Participants

Participants were pre-service teachers who had not been full time teachers. They were enrolled in three sections of an undergraduate educational psychology class EP&C 210: Psycho-Educational Issues in Human Development at the University of Tennessee. The majority of the students were accepted in a teacher education program. The three sections met 3 days a week, section one from 8:00 to 8:50 am, section two from 10:00 to 10:50 am, and section three from 12:00 to 12:50 pm. Between 44-55 students were enrolled in each section. Sessions were run on the same school day during the first 25 minutes of class. All students who attended class that day chose to participate in the study.

The final pool of participant consisted of 150 students, 51 in section one, 44 in section two, and 55 in section three. Participants included 100 females and 50 males: 34 females and 17 males in the first one, 32 females and 12 males in the second one, and 34 females and 21 males in the third one. The average age was 21.00 years old; 21.24 in section one, 21.93 in section two, and 20.00 in section three.

Setting

The room used to run procedures was large, well lit, and designed for video presentations. The room contained four semi-circular rows on descending levels from back to front. In the front of the room there was an 8'x8' video screen and a podium

that contained associated video equipment (e.g., VCR). The room had seating for over 70 students and each student's seat was placed under a semi-circular table. Thus, all students had an unobstructed view of the screen and space to write. Speakers were placed around the room to allow all students to hear the audio portion of the tape clearly.

Materials

Materials used in this study included, three copies of the video tape with different instructions, a video-cassette player, a large projection screen for watching videos, and a volume controller for adjusting the quality of the sound. A stopwatch was used to hold intervals constant. Each student was given a packet containing a cover sheet with an informed consent statement, followed by three 8.5 x 11 inch sheets of lined paper for students to write down what they saw on the video, and a final page for student to report their demographic information. The observers used assessment sheets to score the participants' written narratives and to calculate interscorer agreement.

Three videotapes were developed and used in this study. Each videotape was constructed by first copying a videotape that was constructed for a previous study (Shelton, 2002). This videotape was developed by experimenters with children volunteers serving as actors. The videotape presented a middle-school class in transition from other activities back to their classroom. The tape featured five Caucasian students (one boy and four girls) and their teacher. The students on the videotape were approximately the same age and dressed in typical school attire. None of the children-actors had ever been classified with any disorders.

In order to construct the tape, these students served as actors and they practiced their scripts before filming. Specifically, students were trained to engage in different behaviors during this analogue transition time. These planned incidental behaviors included appropriate prosocial behaviors and inappropriate antisocial

behaviors. The six variants of prosocial behavior were: (a) loaning a peer lunch money, (b) giving another student a sheet of paper, (c) helping another student tape her homework assignment sheet after it was accidentally torn, (d) helping a peer sharpen a pencil, (e) asking another student to join a social discussion group after given permission to talk quietly, and (f) assisting a peer in finding a correct page. The six variants of antisocial behavior included: (a) kicking a peer's book, (b) refusing to share a math book, (c) stealing a personal item (an eraser) from a peer's desk, (d) stealing a pencil after a peer dropped it on the floor, (e) copying an assignment (cheating) when the teacher left the room, and (f) calling a peer a name (a "dumb klutz") after the peer accidentally ran into a desk.

For this experiment, three copies of this tape were made with different instructions added to the beginning of each copy of the tape. These instructions were read aloud along with written copies of the instructions that were displayed via the videotape. Thus, all participants saw the same tape, with the only difference being the instructions provided at the beginning and end of the tape.

Procedures

Prior to the first section of students arriving to the classroom, experimenters entered the room, tested the equipment, and prepared other materials for this study. Approximately 5 minutes after the class was scheduled to begin, the course instructor introduced experimenters who gave a brief explanation of the study and its procedures and then solicited informed consent from all students (see Appendix A). For each class, all who attended class that day consented to participate. Then the experimenters activated the video recorder, and the participants listened to instructions, read them on the screen, and watched the videotape.

One of the three videotapes was randomly assigned to each class. The first class received the general education (GE) instructions, which were as follows:

*You are going to see a video that lasts approximately 5 minutes. The video will show a **general education** middle school classroom from a rural school district. The video was recorded during a time when students were transitioning from other activities back to their classroom. After the video is finished, I will ask you to respond to what you saw on the tape.*

The second class received the instructions for special education classroom for students with Learning Disabilities or Mild Mental Retardation (LD/MMR):

You are going to see a video that lasts approximately 5 minutes. The video will show a **special education classroom for students with Learning Disabilities or Mild Mental Retardation** from a rural school district. The video was recorded during a time when students were transitioning from other activities back to their classroom. After the video is finished, I will ask you to respond to what you saw on the tape.

The third class received the instructions for special education classroom for students with behavior disorders (BD):

You are going to see a video that lasts approximately 5 minutes. The video will show a **special education classroom from a rural school district. The class consists of students with behavior disorders including students with emotional disturbances and conduct disorders.** The video was recorded during a time when students were transitioning from other activities back to their classroom. After the video is finished, I will ask you to respond to what you saw in the video.

For all three classes, as soon as the video was finished, the experimenter stopped the video player and read the following instructions to each class:

When I say 'begin' you will have 5 minutes to write a narrative descriptions of the events that occurred on the tape. We want you to record as many events

as possible. We are not interested in the teachers' management style or a physical environment of the classroom. We are most interested in the students. Are there any questions? When I say 'start', begin your descriptions. Be quiet, do your own work. There are no right or wrong answers. Start.

After the one experimenter finished reading the instruction, another experimenter started a stopwatch as the students turned to the first lined pages of their packet and began writing descriptions of what they observed. After exactly 5 minutes the students were told to stop and hold their pencils or pens up. The students then filled out the final page of the packet by providing demographic information including their age and gender.

Independent and Dependent Variables and Experimental Design

The independent variable in the current study was the instructions provided prior to the tape that identified the students as general education students, students with learning disabilities or mild mental retardation, or students with behaviors disorders. The dependent variables were calculated by scoring the participants' writing descriptions. There were six dependent variables assessed: specific prosocial behaviors, specific antisocial behaviors, general prosocial behaviors, general antisocial behaviors, positive student characteristics, and negative student characteristics.

Specific Behaviors. Written reports of the six specific prosocial and six specific antisocial behaviors on the tape served as dependent variables. To score these, experimenters merely counted each of the six behaviors that was recorded. The six variants of specific prosocial behaviors were (a) giving a peer lunch money, (b) giving a peer a piece of paper, (c) helping a peer tape a torn assignment sheet, (d) helping a peer sharpen a pencil, (e) asking a peer to join in a social discussion group, and (f) helping a peer find a correct page. The six variants of specific

antisocial behavior were (a) kicking a peer's book, (b) refusing to share a book, (c) stealing a personal item from a peer's desk, (d) stealing a pencil, (e) copying an assignment (cheating), and (f) calling a peer a name. When experimenters read reports of any of these specific scripted behaviors they scored them as present on a data collection sheet.

General Behaviors. Experimenters scored and obtained a frequency count of general prosocial and general anti-social behaviors for each participant. In their narratives, participants also recorded general classes of positive and negative behavior. These were not specific behaviors, but may have been an indication that they did in fact focus on some of the behaviors. For example, a report that the students helped each other would suggest that participants may have been aware of the students' prosocial behaviors, but was too general to be scored as a specific prosocial behavior. General prosocial behaviors included: (a) physical acts that benefit other students in the classroom, (e.g. helping everyone, rescuing other students, etc.); (b) description of appropriate verbal responses (e.g., saying 'thank you', showing good manners, asking permission to sharpen a pencil); (c) following classroom rules and maintaining a positive environment that benefits academic achievement (e.g., the students worked quietly, began working on math, finished first, were willing to help each other, took care of students, etc.); and (d) descriptions of appropriate classroom behaviors (e.g., students were attentive, turned in work in a fairly manner, were not easily distracted).

General antisocial behaviors included: (a) physical actions that disturb other students in the classroom and disrupted classroom environment, (e.g., shouting, talking loudly, disturbing others, dropping books, running into a desk; trying to entertain oneself, leaving seats, walking around during the class; unable to sit still, a lot of movement on seats, unfocused on tasks); (b) verbal responses that harm others (e.g., talking hatefully, cut a boy down, insulting a boy); (c) violating academic

rules (e.g., forgetting important materials for class; coming unprepared; ignoring assignment); and (d) descriptions of an act in verb form (e.g., tears paper, had the wrong book, easily distracted, fidgeting).

Student Characteristics. Participants also reported student characteristics that may have reflected their focus on actual prosocial and anti-social behaviors that occurred. Student characteristics differed from general behaviors in that the students themselves were characterized or labeled, as opposed to their behaviors. Characteristics were descriptions of the students themselves as opposed to their behaviors. The experimenters scored and obtained a frequency count for each participant of positive and negative characteristics.

Positive student characteristics were defined as: (a) qualities describing students' strengths (e.g., a leader, the best student in math, etc.); (b) constructive features of students on tape that benefit, encourage, and help them to meet educational goals and develop responsibility (e.g., a good student; bright, not stupid, helper, etc.); (c) friendly and caring relationships with peers (e.g., good friend, motherly attitude, helpful, very friendly); (d) students descriptions in adjective or noun forms (e.g., normal children, like mother, innocent). Negative student characteristics included reports of (a) student weaknesses (e.g., slower kids, less confident, a student with low self-esteem, lack of self-sufficiency); (b) features that disrupt oneself or others (e.g., wild, hyperactive, rude, mean, problem kids); and (c) description in adjective or noun forms (e.g. sort of oddball, looser, selfish, bossy, bad girls).

Data Analysis Procedures

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to test for differences in participants' reports. Within subject analysis included comparisons of negative behaviors or characteristics with positive behaviors or characteristics across each of the dependent variables. Between subject analysis consisted of comparisons of inappropriate or negative characteristics (i.e., the six dependent variables) across

the three different descriptions of the children. All differences were considered significant (see Tables 4-7).

Interscorer Agreement

In order to develop a scoring system for general behaviors and general student characteristics, pilot data were collected from a small class by showing them the videotape and asking them to report what they observed. With this small class the tape identified students as having ADHD. Experimenters used these responses to develop the operational definitions of dependent variables and the scoring system.

A second experimenter, another Ph.D. student in School Psychology, independently scored 20% of the participant responses. These responses were randomly selected. Interscorer agreement was calculated by dividing the number of agreements by the number of agreement plus disagreement for each dependent variable. Mean interscorer data range is presented in Table1 and ranged from 91%-100%.

Results

Main Effect for Behaviors

Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations for each dependent variable across groups (all tables are located in the Appendix). The videotapes were designed with six specific instances of inappropriate anti-social behavior and six specific instances of appropriate or prosocial behavior. Thus, scores on these two dependent variables could range from 0-6. Table 2 shows the tendency of each group of participants to report more instances of negative student behaviors and characteristics than positive ones.

Figures 1-4 show that across groups and dependent variables, participants reported more inappropriate behaviors or negative characteristics than positive (all figures are located in the Appendix). There was a significant main effect for behaviors/characteristics reported on the specific behaviors variable ($F_{2, 147} = 7.6$,

$p < 0.006$), the general behaviors variable ($F_{2, 147} = 99.1, p < 0.001$), and the student characteristics variable ($F_{2, 147} = 86.568, p < 0.001$). When these data were combined across dependent variables, the main effect was significant ($F_{2, 147} = 82.321, p < 0.001$). Thus, regardless of dependent variables or groups (student categories), participants reported more negative student behaviors or negative characteristics than prosocial behaviors or positive characteristics.

Additionally, Table 2 shows that across all groups, respondents reported more general behaviors and student characteristics than specific instances. This finding suggests that the participants were more likely to interpret specific events and describe them in terms of general behavior patterns or attribute them to student characteristics.

Mean data displayed in Table 3 shows an average of 1.37 specific prosocial behaviors and 1.72 specific inappropriate behaviors, 2.14 general prosocial behaviors and 4.69 general inappropriate behaviors, and 3.12 student positive characteristics and 5.97 student negative characteristics reported by pre-service teachers. These data suggest that the assessment procedure was effective in occasioning responses to specific overt appropriate and inappropriate behaviors.

Main Effect for Group

Statistical analysis did not reveal significant main effect for group with respect to the specific behaviors variable ($F_{2, 147} = 2.447, p = 0.090$), the general behaviors variable ($F_{2, 147} = 2.365, p = 0.097$), or the general characteristics variable ($F_{2, 147} = 2.896, p = 0.058$). Additionally, when negative and positive reports across dependent variables were combined, no significant main effect was found ($F_{2, 147} = 2.778, p = 0.065$).

Group Interaction

Interaction data for each of the dependent variables is presented in Figures 1-4. When specific behaviors variables were analyzed MANOVA did not

reveal a significant group (GE, BD, and LD/MMR) interaction across the three groups ($F_{2, 147} = 0.279$, $p = 0.757$). Furthermore, no group interaction was found for general behaviors ($F_{2, 147} = 2.505$, $p = 0.085$) and student characteristics ($F_{2, 147} = 2.896$, $p = 0.058$). Additionally, when the negative and positive reports across each dependent variable were combined, there was no significant interaction ($F_{2, 147} = 0.636$, $p = 0.531$). Thus, the current data failed to support the hypothesis that student classification categories would affect participants' reporting rates of inappropriate and prosocial behaviors and student characteristics.

Discussion

The findings from the present study show that responses across the six dependent variables were similar, regardless of how the students were identified in the video. The absence of statistically significant interaction effects between pre-service teachers' responses and student labels suggested that future teachers' awareness of positive and negative behaviors as well as student characteristics was not affected by student classifications (general education students, students with learning disabilities or mild mental retardation, or students with behavior disorders). These findings do not support results of numerous studies of the Pygmalion effect or the self-fulfilling prophecy which suggested that teachers' expectations and beliefs about students influence their perception or awareness of student behavior and cause them to treat these students differently and in a manner that has an adverse affect on academic achievement and social behavior (Campbell & Simpson, 1992; Rosenthal, 1968, 1976; Schmuck & Schmuck, 1979).

In general, regardless of the groups' label the participants recognized more negative than positive student behaviors and characteristics. The findings show that teacher education students reported more negative than positive student behaviors. This is consistent with results obtained by other researchers which showed general education teachers are less likely to provide positive ratings of students with behavior

problems and concentrated less on their positive behaviors (Flagan et al., 1996; Robbins & Merrell, 1998).

The findings also showed much lower levels of specific behavior reporting relative to reports of general responses patterns or student characteristics. Instead of defining a certain observed behavior (e.g., helping a peer sharpen a pencil) participants often report such general statement as “was very helpful” or “a helper”). This may reflect an information synthesis pattern that is often used to simplify information. However, these patterns may also reflect specific patterns of responding to student behavior.

In the current study, pre-service teachers reported more antisocial behaviors and negative student characteristics than prosocial behaviors and characteristics. These findings have important implications for general and special education teacher training which will be discussed following the presentation of the second experiment.

CHAPTER 4

EXPERIMENT II

Methods and Procedures

Purpose

The purpose of Experiment II was to determine if using a more specific classification label (i.e., ADHD) would impact the pre-service teachers' awareness of anti-social and prosocial behaviors. Thus, in the second experiment, the students were identified as (a) general education students (GE), (b) student with behavior disorders (BD), and (c) students with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder (ADHD).

Participants and Setting

Participants were undergraduate teacher education students enrolled in three sections of an educational psychology class EP&C 210: Psycho-Educational Issues in Human Development at the University of Tennessee. The three sections of the class met 3 days a week: section one from 8:10 to 9:00 am on Monday, section two from 12:40 to 1:30 pm on Monday, and section three from 8:10 to 9:00 am on Tuesday. The study was conducted in the room used during Experiment I. It was large, well lit, with a large video screen and necessary video equipment (e.g., VCR, screen, speakers).

The pool of participants in Experiment II included 166 students, 57 in section one, 54 in section two, and 55 in section three. Participants consisted of 122 females and 44 males: 43 females and 14 males in the first one, 39 females and 15 males in the second one, and 40 females and 15 males in the third one. The average age was 21.3 years: 20.8 years in section one, 22.8 years in section two, and 20.3 years in section three.

Materials

Materials included three copies of the videotape with different instructions, a videocassette player, a large projector screen for watching videos, a volume controller for adjusting the quality of the sound, and a stopwatch to hold intervals constant. Participants received (a) a packet used in Experiment I, including an informed consent statement, three 8.5 x 11 inch sheets of lined paper for students to write down what they saw on the video, and (b) a one-page sheet to report the demographic information. Materials also included the assessment sheets developed for Experiment I to score participant's written scripts and calculate interscorer agreement.

Three videotapes used in a previous study were shown to participants. Three copies of the tape were made with different instructions and showed middle-school students who engaged in different behaviors including six specific appropriate prosocial behaviors, such as: (a) giving a peer lunch money, (b) giving a peer a piece of paper, (c) helping a peer tape a torn assignment sheet, (d) helping a peer sharpen a pencil, (e) asking a peer to join in a social discussion group, and (f) helping a peer find a correct page. Six specific antisocial behaviors, such as (a) kicking a peer's book, (b) refusing to share a book, (c) stealing a personal item from a peer's desk, (d) stealing a pencil, (e) copying an assignment (cheating), and (f) calling a peer a name, were also shown.

Procedures

Before each session of Experiment II, the researchers arrived in the classroom to test the equipment, set up all materials for this study, explain the study and its procedures, and ask for students' informed consent to participate in the study. The researcher read instructions and presented them on the video screen. Then, the participants watched the videotape.

One of the three videotapes was randomly assigned to each class. The first class received the general education (GE) instructions, which were as follows:

You are going to see a video that lasts approximately 5 minutes. The video will show a **general education middle school classroom** from a rural school district. The video was recorded during a time when students were transitioning from other activities back to their classroom. After the video is finished, I will ask you to respond to what you saw on the tape.

The second class received the instructions for special education classroom for students with Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD):

You are going to see a video that lasts approximately 5 minutes. The video will show a special education classroom for students with **Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder** from a rural school district. The video was recorded during a time when students were transitioning from other activities back to their classroom. After the video is finished, I will ask you to respond to what you saw on the tape.

The third class was instructed that it was a classroom for special education students with behavioral disorders (BD):

You are going to see a video that lasts approximately 5 minutes. The video will show a special education classroom from a rural school district. The class consists of students with **behavior disorders including students with emotional disturbances and conduct disorders**. The video was recorded during a time when students were transitioning from other activities back to their classroom. After the video is finished, I will ask you to respond to what you saw in the video.

As soon as the video was finished, the experimenter stopped the video player and read the following instructions to each class:

When I say 'begin' you will have 5 minutes to write a narrative description of

the events that occurred on the tape. We want you to record as many events as possible. We are not interested in the teachers' management style or the physical environment of the classroom. We are most interested in the students. Are there any questions? When I say 'start', begin your descriptions. Be quiet, do your own work. There are no right or wrong answers. Start.

After reading the instructions, the experimenter started a stopwatch as the students turned to the first lined pages of their packet and will begin writing descriptions of what they watched. After exactly 5 minutes, the students were instructed to stop writing, and hold their pencils or pens up. Additionally, students were asked to fill out the final page of the packet and provide demographic information including their age and gender.

Independent and Dependent Variables and Experimental Design

The independent variables in the study were students' classifications, such as general education students, students with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder, or students with behavior disorders.

The dependent variables included behaviors and characteristics defined by scoring the participant's writing scripts. The six specific prosocial and six specific antisocial behaviors on the tape, the general negative and positive student behaviors, and the general negative and positive student characteristics were dependent variables for the study. Experimenters calculated the estimate by counting each instance of behavior that was recorded by participants. Terms and definitions used in this study were similar to Experiment I.

Data Analysis Procedures

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to investigate differences in participants' reports. Within subject analysis included comparisons of specific/general negative behaviors or characteristics with specific/general positive

behaviors or characteristics across each of the dependent variables (see Tables 11-14). Between subject analysis consisted of comparisons of inappropriate or negative behaviors and characteristics (i.e., the six dependent variables) across the three different categories of the students on the videotape.

Interscorer agreement

A second experimenter, another doctoral student in School Psychology, independently scored 20% of the participant responses. These responses were randomly selected. Interscorer agreement was calculated by dividing the number of agreements by the number of agreement plus disagreement for each dependent variable. Mean interscorer data range is presented in Table 8 and ranged from 83%-100%.

Results

Main Effects for Behaviors/Characteristics

Table 9 presents the means of positive and negative behaviors and standard deviations for each dependent variable across groups. Figures 5-8 provide a graphic display of these data. Statistical analyses did not reveal a significant main effect by behavior (positive and negative) across three groups on the specific student behaviors variable ($F_{2, 163} = 0.760, p = .385$). There was a significant main effect of behaviors reported on the general behaviors variable ($F_{2, 163} = 27.508, p < 0.001$) and on the student characteristics variable ($F_{2, 163} = 49.405, p < 0.001$). When these dependent variable data were summed (see Table 14), the main effect for behavior was significant ($F_{2, 163} = 41.751, p < 0.001$). Thus, with the exception of the specific behaviors dependent variable, participant reported significantly more negative than positive behaviors/characteristics. Furthermore, when these data were collapsed (see Table 10 for means), teacher education students provided significantly more negative than positive reports. These results are similar to those found in Experiment I and suggest that teachers tended to focus on undesirable or negative behaviors

and characteristics. The one difference was on specific student behaviors where no main effect was found.

In Experiment I, respondents reported more general behaviors and student characteristics than specific behaviors. Table 10 shows that in Experiment II student continued to report more general student behaviors as opposed to specific student behaviors. Mean data displayed in Table 10 shows an average of 1.42 specific prosocial behaviors and 1.55 specific inappropriate behaviors, 1.84 general prosocial behaviors and 2.96 general inappropriate behaviors, and .51 student positive characteristics and 1.37 student negative characteristics were reported.

Main Effects for Group

MANOVA did not reveal significant main effect for group (GE, BD, and ADHD) with respect to the specific behaviors variable ($F_{2, 163} = 1.114$, $p = 0.331$) (see Table 11). A significant main effect for group was found for the general behaviors variable ($F_{2, 163} = 9.728$, $p < 0.001$) (see Table 12). When three paired t-tests were used to determine which group showed differences, the results indicated that the students who viewed the ADHD and GE tapes reported significantly more general negative behaviors than general positive behaviors [ADHD ($t_{53} = 5.65$, $p < 0.001$); and GE ($t_{54} = 3.95$, $p < 0.001$)]. Statistical analysis did not reveal a significant main effect on the general positive and general negative student behaviors for the BD group ($t_{56} = -.54$, $p < 0.594$).

There was no significant group main effect on the student characteristics variable ($F_{2, 163} = 0.110$, $p = 0.896$) (see Table 13). When negative and positive reports across all dependent variables were combined, a significant main effect for group was found ($F_{2, 163} = 3.895$, $p = 0.022$) (see Table 14). Figure 15 shows that the teacher-education students who viewed the ADHD and GE tapes reported significantly more negative behaviors and characteristics than positive behaviors and characteristics [ADHD ($t_{53} = 5.75$, $p < 0.001$); GE ($t_{54} = 4.09$, $p < 0.001$). No

significant group main effect was noted on the positive and negative student behaviors and characteristics for the BD group ($t_{56} = 1.636$, $p < 0.107$).

Group Interaction

Interaction data for each dependent variable are presented in Figures 5-8. MANOVA did not reveal a significant interaction on the specific behaviors variable ($F_{2, 163} = .433$, $p = 0.514$), the general behaviors variable ($F_{2, 163} = 0.208$, $p = .812$) and the student characteristics variable ($F_{2, 163} = .709$, $p=0.494$). When all dependent variables were combined, there was no significant group interaction found ($F_{2, 163} = .656$, $p = .520$). Thus, these results are similar to those found in Experiment I. The current data failed to support the hypothesis that student disability categories influence pre-service teachers' reports of negative and positive student behaviors and characteristics.

Discussion

The current study investigated the effects of different student disability classifications on pre-service teachers' perceptions of student behaviors. The findings from the current study showed that regardless of the groups (two exceptions were the specific behaviors for the ADHD group and the general behaviors for the BD group), pre-service teachers in their descriptions of the middle school students on the video emphasized general negative and antisocial behaviors and characteristics. These results confirm the outcomes of Experiment I and findings of earlier studies. Previous studies found that general education teachers are more focused on student negative student behaviors (Flanagan et al., 1996; Gresham, 1981; Robbins & Merrell, 1998) and less focused on student prosocial behaviors (Thomas, Presland, Grant, & Glynn, 1978; White, 1975). Good and Brophy (1984) reported that teachers who work with students with emotional and behavioral disabilities can become so used to their problem behaviors and weaknesses, they neglect to recognize students' positive behaviors and strengths.

Regardless of the groups' label the participants were more likely to focus on general behaviors and characteristics when describing middle school students. They reported fewer specific behaviors as compared to the number of general behaviors. Pre-service teachers used general behavior statements such as always helped other students, or violated school rules to describe specific behaviors (i.e., helped a peer to sharpen a pencil, or stole things from the desk). These findings confirm the results of Experiment I and earlier investigations regarding the demand for pre-service teachers' training to acquire knowledge about students with behavioral problems and develop skills to challenge their rigid views (Murphy, Delli, & Edwards, 2004).

Results reveal that participants who were informed that the class was comprised of general education students reported the most general student behaviors, followed by participants reporting behaviors of the BD group of students. Pre-service teachers who were informed that the students were diagnosed with ADHD provided the fewest reports. These findings support earlier investigations that generally teachers have limited knowledge about students' disabilities and rely on general behavioral descriptors (Wassef, Ingham, Collins, & Mason, (1995).

The study reveals a significant difference regarding the total number of specific behaviors reported by pre-service teachers for the GE students as compared to the ADHD students. The participants reported more specific behaviors for the GE group while they predominantly focused on general descriptions of the ADHD behavior characteristics (i.e., too much talking, fidgeting, inability to focus on tasks and sit still, impulsiveness, lack of attention, hyperactivity), rather than specific behaviors the students displayed on the tape (i.e., giving a peer lunch money, giving a peer a piece of paper). This is consistent with studies that showed that many teachers of the smallest classroom size (five to fifteen students) identified larger proportion of their students as demonstrating tendencies of ADHD. Glass and Wegar (2000) found that teachers' perceptions of incidences of ADHD behaviors in the

public classrooms was approximately 8 % while in the private school classrooms, the average incidence was approximately 12 %.

Results reveal that teacher education students who viewed the GE and ADHD tapes reported significantly more negative general behaviors than positive ones as compared to the BD group. These findings do not support results of the Folsom-Meek study (1995) that found that the least favorable attitude by future teachers was towards students classified as the BD group.

Furthermore, when these results were compared to findings obtained by Stinnett, Bull, Koonce, & Aldridge (1999), some similar outcomes were noted. Stinnett et al. (1999) investigated effects of different labels (Behavior Disorder, Emotional-Behavioral Disorder, or Severe Emotionally Disturbed), race (African American or Caucasian), gender (boy or girl), and educational placement (self-contained or inclusion) on teacher education students' judgments for children with behavior problems. The study found that the undergraduate students enrolled in teacher education classes judged children who were labeled with behavior problems and served through inclusion as worse than children in self-contained settings. The researchers concluded that teacher education students have a lack of experience dealing with children with disruptive behaviors in general education classes. In addition, Caucasian students with the SED and EBD labels in the general education classroom were found to be significantly more disruptive than African-American students. Stinnett et al. (1999) also revealed that students with the SED label were judged more negatively than those diagnosed with the BD and EBD labels. The researchers concluded that stereotypes associated with the words "serious" and "disturbance" might have impacted the participants' judgments. The research findings related to gender differences revealed that the girls were perceived more positively than were boys.

The current study reveals no significant group interaction for rates of students' positive and negative behaviors and student characteristics reported. It was found that pre-service teachers' reports of positive and negative behaviors (specific and general) and student characteristics were not affected by students' classifications (general education students, students with ADHD or students with behavior disorders). These results supported Butler's (1999) study that investigated general education teachers' perceptions of classroom behaviors of students classified as learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, and general education non-disabled. The researcher found no difference in teachers' perceptions of these students.

Overall, results do not provide enough evidence to support findings of numerous studies of the Pygmalion effect or the self-fulfilling prophecy (Campbell & Simpson, 1992; Rosenthal, 1976, 1987; Schmuck & Schmuck, 1979). Results suggest that teacher education students' awareness of student disabilities did not influence their perception of students' behavior and cause them to treat these students differently.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter summarizes the findings of the current study. The conclusions and implications of the study are discussed in terms of dependent variables. General limitations and future research are discussed.

The purpose of the study was to investigate pre-service teachers' awareness of student prosocial/appropriate and antisocial/inappropriate behaviors. The study investigated the effects of different student categories [general education students (GE), students with learning disabilities or mild mental retardation (LD/MMR), students with behavioral disorders (BD), and students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)] on pre-service teachers' perception of student behaviors.

The results of the current study support previous research showing that teachers are more likely to focus on students' negative/inappropriate behaviors rather than positive/prosocial behaviors. These findings have important practical implications. While specific curricula have been developed that are designed to teach social skills, educators often help shape and teach social skills through incidental learning. Throughout the school day students engage in numerous incidental prosocial and anti-social behaviors (Skinner et al., 1999). Researchers have argued that educators spend so much time monitoring and reacting to anti-social behaviors that they are not even aware of incidental prosocial behaviors (Skinner et al., 1999; Skinner et al., 2002).

Johns and Carr (1995) indicate that most teachers understand the necessity of using positive reinforcement. They recommended that at least 70% of teachers' feedback to students should be positive. Although researchers have found that teacher praise is related to behavioral and academic improvement of students with problem behaviors, the use of praise in these classrooms is often insufficient

(Sutherland & Wehby, 2001). The current study supports these arguments and suggests that pre-service teachers may need specific training that increases their awareness of incidental prosocial behaviors. In addition to increasing their awareness, educators may also need to learn how to arrange conditions that encourage and reinforce incidental prosocial behaviors.

The current study did not reveal any significant effects of students' classification on pre-service teachers' perception of student incidental antisocial and prosocial behaviors. Thus, the current study does not support the Pygmalion effect or the self-fulfilling prophecy regarding teachers' expectations and their influence on students' social behavior (Campbell & Simpson, 1992; Rosenthal, 1968, 1976; Schmuck & Schmuck, 1979).

The findings of Experiment I showed that the pre-service teachers' responses were similar across three groups of students (general education students (GE), students with learning disabilities (LD) or mild mental retardation (MMR), and students with behavioral disorders/emotional disturbances (BD). However, these disability descriptions were very broad and may have little meaning to undergraduate students. In Experiment II, when the ADHD group was introduced to the study and the participants were told that the students were ADHD, there was a significant difference found regarding total number of specific behaviors reported by pre-service teachers for the GE students as compared to the ADHD students. The participants reported more specific behaviors for the GE students, while they reported significantly more general behaviors for the ADHD students. These general behaviors for the ADHD group mostly included typical characteristics of this disability.

In Experiment II inconsistent changes were found for the student characteristics variable. The participants reported fewer student characteristics in Experiment II as compared to Experiment I. The lower numbers of reports might have

resulted from the experimenters' drift in scoring system. Future research is needed for the development of more accurate definition of student characteristics.

Furthermore, Experiment II showed that the BD group of students had a flatter profile when compared to the GE and ADHD groups. This fact may be explained by lack of pre-service teachers' awareness of the characteristics of the behavioral disorders/emotional disturbance category. This suggests that teacher education students need more knowledge about the disabilities used in special education to determine student's needs.

In the current study, participants were pre-service teachers who had not been full time teachers. Thus, the current findings are best compared with research on other pre-service teachers or novice teachers. The current findings are consistent with the Mioduser, Margalit, and Efrati (1998) study which showed that novice teachers used more general statements in students' descriptions and ignored distinctive aspects of the behavior difficulties such as Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Conduct Disorders (CD), Oppositional Disorders (OD), and Learning Disabilities (LD). Thus, future researchers conducting similar studies should consider comparing differences in responses to such videotapes across different groups of educators, including (a) experienced teachers versus those with little or no experience and (b) special education teachers versus general education teachers.

Limitations of the Study

The current study has applied and theoretical implications. However, there are several limitations associated with the current study. The study has a number of limitations regarding experimental procedures, instrumentation used to measure the pre-service teachers' awareness of student prosocial and antisocial behaviors, and internal and external validity.

First, the population for the current study was limited to pre-service teachers in the Teacher Education Program at the University of Tennessee who registered and attended Educational Psychology class EP&C 210. The sample of participants was selected non-randomly. For example, the class at 8:00 am watched the video with the LD/MMR students, the class at 10:00 am watched the videotape with the BD students, etc.

A related problem was how the pre-service teachers' awareness was measured. Participants were merely instructed to record what they saw. This is an indirect measure of awareness that may have been influenced by other variables. For instance, students may have thought that the researchers (graduate students) were extremely interested in antisocial behaviors and therefore recorded more of them.

A different participant reporting system may have yielded different results. While some responses were very brief, concise, and structured, others were long and very detailed. Perhaps, different results could have been obtained if the participants were given a list of behaviors and asked to indicate which behaviors occurred on the tape and which did not.

There were external validity limitations associated with the current study. The population for the study was limited to pre-service teachers in the Teacher Education Program at the University of Tennessee whose average age was 21 years. Thus, the current results cannot be generalized to other pre-service teachers or teachers in the field.

Finally, the data were based on pre-service teachers' reports on the video. The tape was brief and used a one-shot video of a small group of middle school students engaging in different behaviors. However, there is no data supporting that students on the tape and their behaviors are typical for this group. More valid results might be obtained by using tapes of actual classrooms that contain more students and actual student behaviors occurring at more natural rates.

Future researchers should aim to replicate and expand the current study. Researchers should collect data from randomly selected teachers and investigate effects of teachers specialization (general education versus special education teachers) and teaching experience on their awareness of students behaviors.

Conclusions

At school, students display a wide range of behaviors. When student behaviors are consistent with teacher expectations, they are more likely to have successful experience with both peers and adults (Walker, Colvin, & Ramsey, 1995). Knowledge of teacher expectations and beliefs has the potential to impact general and special education students' academic achievement and transitioning into different school settings (Lane, Pierson, & Givner, 2003). Studies have provided important outcomes regarding positive teacher expectations and effectiveness of classroom interventions for special education students (Lane, Pierson, & Givner, 2003; Skinner et al., 2002). Awareness of teacher expectations and beliefs provides insights regarding the efficiency of the teacher education programs in training pre-service teachers for good teaching (Murphy, Delli, & Edwards, 2004).

The results of the current study have implications for research and practice. The findings of the study show that pre-service teachers hold similar expectations about general and special education students' behaviors. This suggests that student diagnostic categories may not impact pre-service teachers' awareness of or perceptions of students' behavior. This finding appears to be promising because it failed to support previous research on Pygmalion effects which suggested that pre-service teacher would be more focused on inappropriate behaviors in students with special education classifications. Thus, the current study suggests that pre-service teachers did not focus on behaviors differently, dependent upon the student diagnostic category.

Although the pre-service teacher's responses do not support previous research on the Pygmalion effect, there are some limitations with the sample that prevent drawing strong conclusions based on these results. First, the participants in this study had just entered the teacher education program. Hence, they may have had little formal exposure to various disability categories and their symptoms. Therefore, they may not have had the knowledge (e.g., coursework) or experience (e.g., student teaching) that is necessary to form differential expectations for students' behavior based on these categories. Therefore, more research is needed on student diagnostic categories, teacher expectations, teacher training, teacher experience, and their awareness of incidental prosocial and antisocial behaviors.

The similar reports across diagnostic categories suggest that pre-service teachers did not react to diagnostic labels. However, the most important findings of the current study was that across all groups (e.g., general education students, students with learning disabilities or mild mental retardation, students with behavior disorders, and students with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder) the pre-services teachers tended to focus on inappropriate or negative behaviors and student characteristics as opposed to prosocial and desired behaviors and characteristics.

While researchers and educators have repeatedly stressed the need for teachers to reinforce prosocial behaviors, the current study suggests that pre-service teachers may not be aware of incidental prosocial behaviors. Thus, teacher-training programs may need to be altered to increase future teachers' awareness of student prosocial behaviors, so that when they are teaching they can reinforce these behaviors in their classrooms.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Informed Consent – Experiment I

DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH AND INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

We are conducting a study of educators. Although serving as a subject in this investigation will not benefit you, we hope the results of this study can be used to enhance teacher training and development. We are asking if you would be willing to volunteer to serve as a subject for this investigation.

As a subject in this study you will first be asked to a) respond to a brief questionnaire about your general disposition and b) to watch a videotape and react to the tape. If you have any questions about this research, please feel free to ask. Initially, we cannot answer all your questions. However, after the study is complete we will provide you with all information related to the study (e.g., purpose of the study) and answer any specific questions. If at this time, you wish to withdraw your participation, your responses will be destroyed and excluded from the study.

The study will require about 20 minutes (5 minutes to complete the questionnaire and 15 minutes to watch and react to the videotape). Your individual responses in the study will be kept confidential.

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

1. I have been informed of the general procedures to be used in this study.
2. I understand that I will be asked to read and respond to a questionnaire, and watch videotape and provide my reactions to this tape.
3. I understand that there are no known discomfort or risks expected with participation in this study.
4. I understand that there are no direct benefits to be gained from participation in this study.
5. If I have questions regarding this study, I can contact Dr. Skinner (518 Claxtion Addition: 974-8403).

I, _____ give my consent to participate in this study and I understand that I am completely free to withdraw my consent and discontinue participation at any reason.

Date: _____

APPENDIX B

Informed Consent – Experiment II

DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH AND INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

We are conducting a study of educators. Although serving as a subject in this investigation will not benefit you, we hope the results of this study can be used to enhance teacher training and development. We are asking if you would be willing to volunteer to serve as a subject of this investigation.

As a subject in this study you will first be asked to a) watch a videotape and react to the tape and b) respond to the brief measure of students behaviors. If you have any questions about this research, please feel free to ask. Initially, we cannot answer all your questions. However, after the study is complete we will provide you with all information related to the study (e.g., purpose of the study) and answer all specific questions. If at this time, you will to withdraw your participation, your responses will be destroyed and excluded from the study.

The study will require 20 minutes (15 minutes to watch and react to the videotape and 5 minutes to complete the brief measure of students behaviors). Your individual responses will be kept confidential.

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

1. I have been informed of all general procedures to be used in this study.
2. I understand that I will be asked to watch videotaped and respond to a brief measure of students behaviors.
3. I understand that there are no known discomfort or risks expected with the participation in this study.
4. I understand that there are no direct benefits to be gained from participation in this study.
5. If I have questions regarding this study, I can contact Olena Kyselova (946-6862) or Dr. Skinner (518 Claxton Addition: 974-8403).

I, _____ give my consent to participate in this study and I understand that I am completely free to withdrawal my consent and discontinue participation at any reason.

Date: _____

APPENDIX C

FORM R: Research Modifications

FORM R (Attachment)

Research Modifications

Principal Investigator:

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Title of the Project: Pre-service Teachers Awareness of Prosocial and Antisocial Behavior in Students with Disabilities.

Project Objectives:

The research is being conducted to determine if specific psychoeducational diagnosis influences pre-service teachers' awareness of students' prosocial and antisocial behaviors. The research will investigate if (a) pre-service teacher are more likely to focus on prosocial or antisocial behaviors, (b) students' classifications influence pre-service teachers' perception of students' incidental antisocial and prosocial behavior, and (c) what type of diagnostic categories are more likely to affect their awareness of antisocial and prosocial behavior.

Descriptions and Source of Research Participants:

Research participants will be students in Teacher Education Program of the University of Tennessee.

Methods and Procedures:

With cooperation from the professors, who are training student teachers, Olena Kyselova, a doctoral Student in School Psychology Program, will solicit informed consent from students in Teacher Education Program (see attached informed consent form).

The study will consist of two experiments. In both experiments, pre-service teachers will be shown a videotape of middle school students in a classroom during a transition period. The students on the tape engaged in six different prosocial and antisocial behaviors.

Experiment I

Experiment 1 investigates the differences in pre-service teachers' awareness of students' antisocial and prosocial behavior and the effect of student identifiers (i.e., general education students, student with behavior disorders, or students with mild mental retardation-learning disabilities) on teacher's awareness. Participants listen to instructions, read them on the screen, and watch the videotape. Then, they write a narrative description of the events that occurred on the tape for 5 min, and provide demographic information including their age and gender.

Experiment II

Experiment 2 is designed to replicate and extend Experiment 1 to proof the methods used there and compare the results. The purpose of Experiment 2 is to determine if using a more specific classification label that undergraduate students are more likely to be familiar with would impact their awareness of anti-social and prosocial behaviors. In the second experiment, the students will be identified as (a) general education students, (b) student with behavior disorders, and (c) students with ADHD.

Specific Risks and Protective Measure

Confidentiality will be maintained. There are no other foreseen risks.

Progress Report

The results of the study of awareness of prosocial and antisocial behaviors in Teacher Education students showed the following:

- Across all groups, respondents reported more general behaviors and student characteristics than specific instance. This finding suggests that the participants were more likely to interpret specific events and describe them in terms of *general* behavior patterns or attribute them to student characteristics. The current finding is consistent with Mioduser, Margalit, and Efrati study (1998) that showed that novice teachers use a more generalized approach in student's perception, ignoring distinctive aspects of the behavior difficulties.
- MANOVA did not reveal significant group by behavior (prosocial and inappropriate) interactions across the three groups ($F_{2, 147} = 0.636$, $p =$

0.531). This finding does not support results of numerous studies of the Pygmalion effect or the self-fulfilling prophecy which suggested that teachers' expectations and beliefs about students influence their perception or awareness of student behavior and cause them to treat these students differently.

- Across groups and dependent variables, participants reported more inappropriate behaviors or negative characteristics than positive. Significant main effects for behaviors/characteristics reported were found for specific behavior ($F_{2, 147} = 7.6, p < 0.006$), general behaviors ($F_{2, 147} = 99.1, p < 0.001$) and student characteristics ($F_{2, 147} = 86.568, p < 0.000$). These findings are consistent with results obtained by other researchers which showed general education teachers are less likely to provide positive ratings of their students behavior problems and less concentrated on their positive behavior (Flagan et al., 1996; Gresham, 1981; Robbins & Merrell, 1998).

APPENDIX D

PAARM Assessment Sheet - Experiment I

Category: GE, LD/MMR, BD

Name: _____ Code # _____

Sex: _____

Age: _____

T.E. _____

Negative student behaviors

- _____ Kicks a book
- _____ Refuses to share a book
- _____ Steals a thing from a desk
- _____ Steals a pencil (pen)
- _____ Copies an assignment (cheats)
- _____ Calls a kid a name

Positive student behaviors

- _____ Gives lunch money
- _____ Gives paper
- _____ Helps to tape an assignment
- _____ Helps sharpen a pencil
- _____ Asks a peer to join in a social discussion group
- _____ Helps a peer to find a correct page

Other general negative student behaviors

Other general positive student behaviors

Negative student characteristics

Positive student characteristics

SSN # _____

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue or grey ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There is no handwriting or other markings on the paper.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There is no text or other markings on the paper.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

APPENDIX E

PAARM Assessment Sheet - Experiment II

Category: GE, BD, ADHD

SSN # _____

Name _____

Negative student behaviors

- _____ Kicks a book
- _____ Refuses to share a book
- _____ Steals thing from a desk
- _____ Steals a pencil (pen)
- _____ Copies an assignment (cheats)
- _____ Calls a kid a name

Positive student behaviors

- _____ Gives lunch money
- _____ Gives paper
- _____ Helps to tape an assignment
- _____ Helps sharpen a pencil
- _____ Follows directions
- _____ Helps a peer to find a correct page

Other general negative students behaviors

Other general positive students behaviors

Negative student characteristics

Positive student characteristics

SSN # _____

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There is no text or other markings on the paper.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There is no text or other markings on the paper.

Blank lined paper for writing.

APPENDIX F

Demographic Information Sheet

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Name _____

Age (number of years) _____

Sex: Male Female

Which is the best describes your current situation:

- a. student teacher
- b. current teacher
- c. teacher education student who has started teaching

APPENDIX G

Tables

Table 1: Interscorer Agreement (Experiment I)

	Average
Specific Prosocial Behavior	98%
Specific Antisocial Behavior	100%
General Prosocial Behavior	90%
General Antisocial Behavior	94%
Positive Students Characteristics	96%
Negative Students Characteristics	91%

Table 2: Dependent Variables Means Across Groups (Experiment I)

	Group	Negative		Positive	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Specific Behaviors	LD/MMR	1.96	.96	1.27	1.34
	GE	1.55	.85	1.50	1.23
	BD	1.67	1.22	1.31	1.46
Student Characteristics	LD/MMR	7.00	.78	3.60	.73
	GE	5.85	.96	3.24	.81
	BD	5.07	.80	2.53	.77
General Behaviors	LD/MMR	5.04	2.70	2.33	1.82
	GE	4.34	1.95	1.84	1.63
	BD	4.69	2.32	2.20	1.51
All Behaviors	LD/MMR	7.00	2.73	3.61	2.57
	GE	5.89	2.03	3.34	2.16
	BD	6.36	2.48	3.51	2.28

Table 3: Means for Dependent Variables (Experiment I)

	Negative		Positive	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Specific	1.72	2.41	1.37	2.13
General	4.69	2.32	2.14	1.65
Characteristics	5.97	1.14	3.12	1.21

Table 4: Multivariate Tests for Specific Positive and Negative Behaviors
(Experiment I)

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Behavior	Pillai's Trace	.050	7.6(a)	1.000	147.000	.006
	Wilks' Lambda	.950	7.6(a)	1.000	147.000	.006
	Hotelling's Trace	.052	7.6(a)	1.000	147.000	.006
	Roy's Largest Root	.052	7.6(a)	1.000	147.000	.006
Behavior Group	Pillai's Trace	.025	1.8(a)	2.000	147.000	.156
	Wilks' Lambda	.975	1.8(a)	2.000	147.000	.156
	Hotelling's Trace	.026	1.8(a)	2.000	147.000	.156
	Roy's Largest Root	.026	1.8(a)	2.000	147.000	.156

Table 5: Multivariate Tests for General Positive and Negative Behaviors (Experiment I)

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Behavior	Pillai's Trace	.403	99.1(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.597	99.1(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.674	99.1(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.674	99.1(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
Behavior Group	Pillai's Trace	.001	.076(a)	2.000	147.000	.927
	Wilks' Lambda	.999	.076(a)	2.000	147.000	.927
	Hotelling's Trace	.001	.076(a)	2.000	147.000	.927
	Roy's Largest Root	.001	.076(a)	2.000	147.000	.927

Table 6: Multivariate Tests for General Positive and Negative Characteristics
(Experiment I)

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Behavior	Pillai's Trace	.371	86.568(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.629	86.568(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.589	86.568(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.589	86.568(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
Behavior Group	Pillai's Trace	.001	.081(a)	2.000	147.000	.923
	Wilks' Lambda	.999	.081(a)	2.000	147.000	.923
	Hotelling's Trace	.001	.081(a)	2.000	147.000	.923
	Roy's Largest Root	.001	.081(a)	2.000	147.000	.923

Table 7: Multivariate Tests for All Positive and Negative Behaviors and Characteristics (Experiment I)

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Behavior	Pillai's Trace	.359	82.321(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.641	82.321(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.560	82.321(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.560	82.321(a)	1.000	147.000	.000
Behavior Group	Pillai's Trace	.009	.636(a)	2.000	147.000	.531
	Wilks' Lambda	.991	.636(a)	2.000	147.000	.531
	Hotelling's Trace	.009	.636(a)	2.000	147.000	.531
	Roy's Largest Root	.009	.636(a)	2.000	147.000	.531

Table 8: Interscorer Agreement (Experiment II)

	Average
Specific Prosocial Behavior	100%
Specific Antisocial Behavior	100%
General Prosocial Behavior	83%
General Antisocial Behavior	92%
Positive Students Characteristics	90%
Negative Students Characteristics	91%

Table 9: Dependent Variables Means Across Groups (Experiment II)

	Group	Negative		Positive	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Specific Behaviors	BD	1.60	.14	1.37	.18
	ADHD	1.17	.15	1.33	.19
	GE	1.88	.15	1.58	.18
Characteristics	BD	1.47	.21	.67	1.25
	ADHD	1.31	.22	.47	.13
	GE	1.33	.21	.38	.13
General Behaviors	BD	2.23	.30	2.42	.20
	ADHD	3.46	.20	1.50	.20
	GE	3.21	.30	1.58	.20
All Behaviors	BD	5.30	.41	4.46	.30
	ADHD	5.95	.42	3.30	.30
	GE	6.42	.42	3.55	.30

Table 10: Means for Dependent Variables (Experiment II)

	Negative		Positive	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Specific Behaviors	1.55	1.12	1.42	1.35
General Behaviors	2.96	2.28	1.84	1.53
Characteristics	1.37	1.57	.51	.95

Table 11: Multivariate Tests for Specific Positive and Negative Behaviors
(Experiment II)

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Behavior	Pillai's Trace	.005	.760(a)	1.000	163.000	.385
	Wilks' Lambda	.995	.760(a)	1.000	163.000	.385
	Hotelling's Trace	.005	.760(a)	1.000	163.000	.385
	Roy's Largest Root	.005	.760(a)	1.000	163.000	.385
Behavior Group	Pillai's Trace	.013	1.114(a)	2.000	163.000	.331
	Wilks' Lambda	.987	1.114(a)	2.000	163.000	.331
	Hotelling's Trace	.014	1.114(a)	2.000	163.000	.331
	Roy's Largest Root	.014	1.114(a)	2.000	163.000	.331

Table 12: Multivariate Tests for General Positive and Negative Behaviors
(Experiment II)

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Behavior	Pillai's Trace	.144	27.508(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.856	27.508(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.169	27.508(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.169	27.508(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
Behavior Group	Pillai's Trace	.107	9.728(a)	2.000	163.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.893	9.728(a)	2.000	163.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.119	9.728(a)	2.000	163.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.119	9.728(a)	2.000	163.000	.000

Table 13: Multivariate Tests for General Positive and Negative Characteristics
(Experiment II)

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Behavior	Pillai's Trace	.233	49.405(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.767	49.405(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.303	49.405(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.303	49.405(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
Behavior Group	Pillai's Trace	.001	.110(a)	2.000	163.000	.896
	Wilks' Lambda	.999	.110(a)	2.000	163.000	.896
	Hotelling's Trace	.001	.110(a)	2.000	163.000	.896
	Roy's Largest Root	.001	.110(a)	2.000	163.000	.896

Table 14: Multivariate Tests for All Positive and Negative Behaviors and Characteristics (Experiment II)

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.
Behavior	Pillai's Trace	.204	41.751(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.796	41.751(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.256	41.751(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.256	41.751(a)	1.000	163.000	.000
Behavior Group	Pillai's Trace	.046	3.895(a)	2.000	163.000	.022
	Wilks' Lambda	.954	3.895(a)	2.000	163.000	.022
	Hotelling's Trace	.048	3.895(a)	2.000	163.000	.022
	Roy's Largest Root	.048	3.895(a)	2.000	163.000	.022

Table 15: Paired Samples Test for Positive and Negative Reports Across Groups
(Experiment II)

Group			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
BD	Pair 1	All Neg – All Pos	1.636	56	.107
ADHD	Pair 1	All Neg – All Pos	5.753	53	.000
GE	Pair 1	All Neg – All Pos	4.094	54	.000

APPENDIX H

Figures

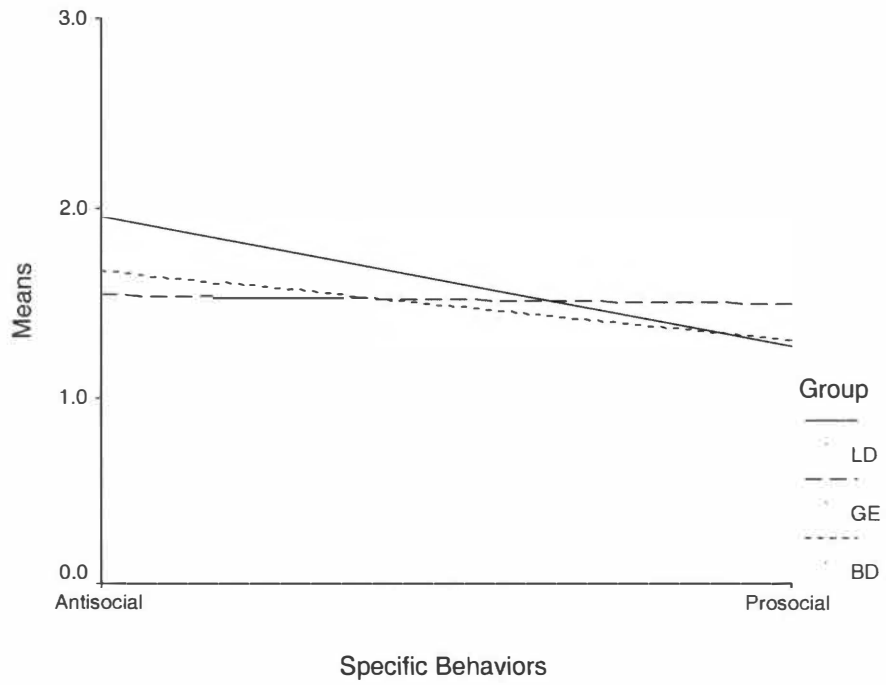


Figure 1: Group Interactions for Prosocial and Antisocial Specific Behaviors (Experiment I)

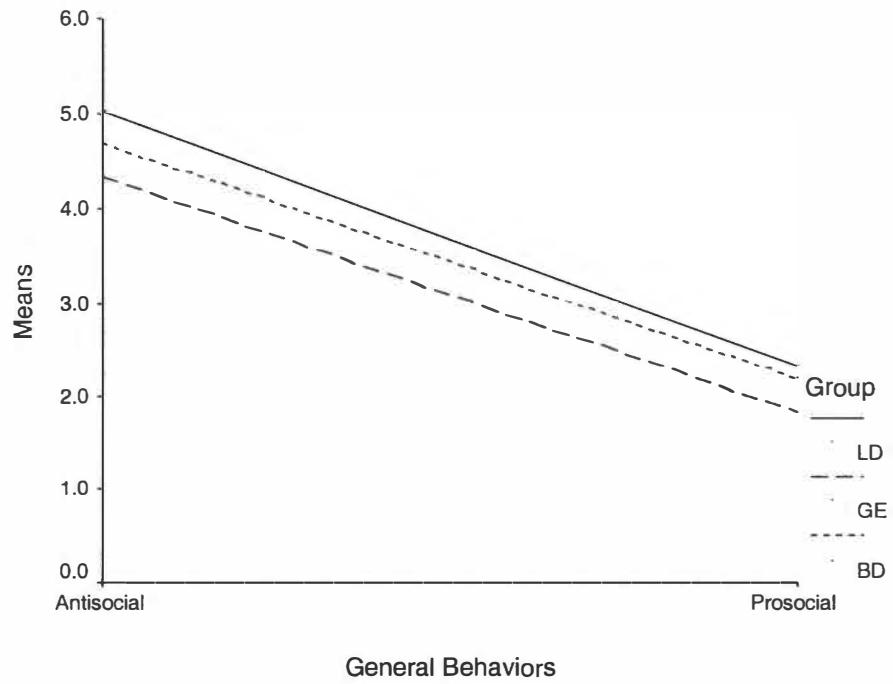


Figure 2: Group Interactions for Prosocial and Antisocial General Behaviors (Experiment I)

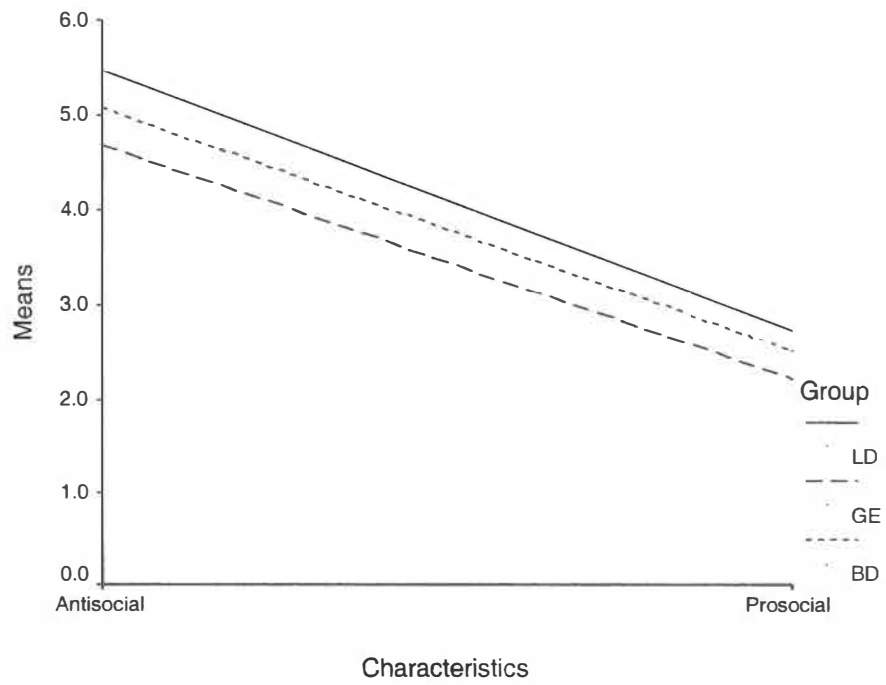


Figure 3: Group Interactions for Prosocial and Antisocial General Student Characteristics (Experiment I)

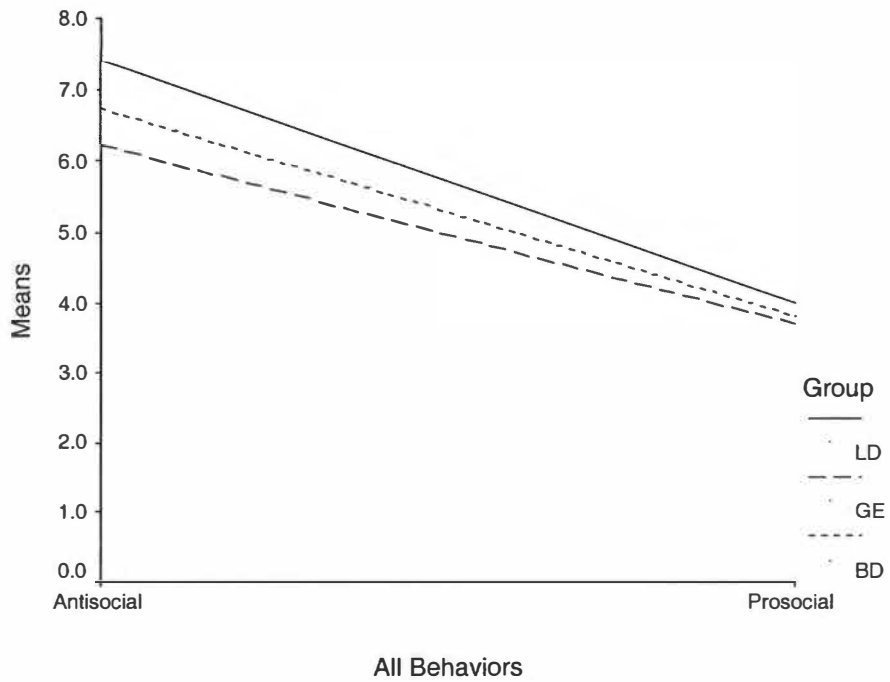


Figure 4: Group Interactions for Prosocial and Antisocial Student Behaviors and Characteristics (Experiment I)

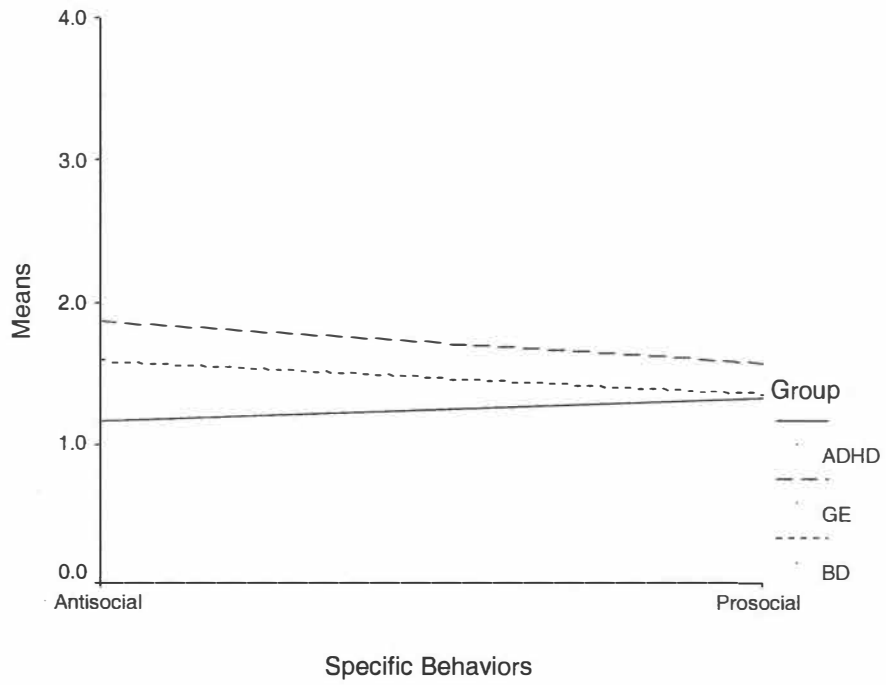


Figure 5: Group Interactions for Prosocial and Antisocial Specific Behaviors (Experiment II)

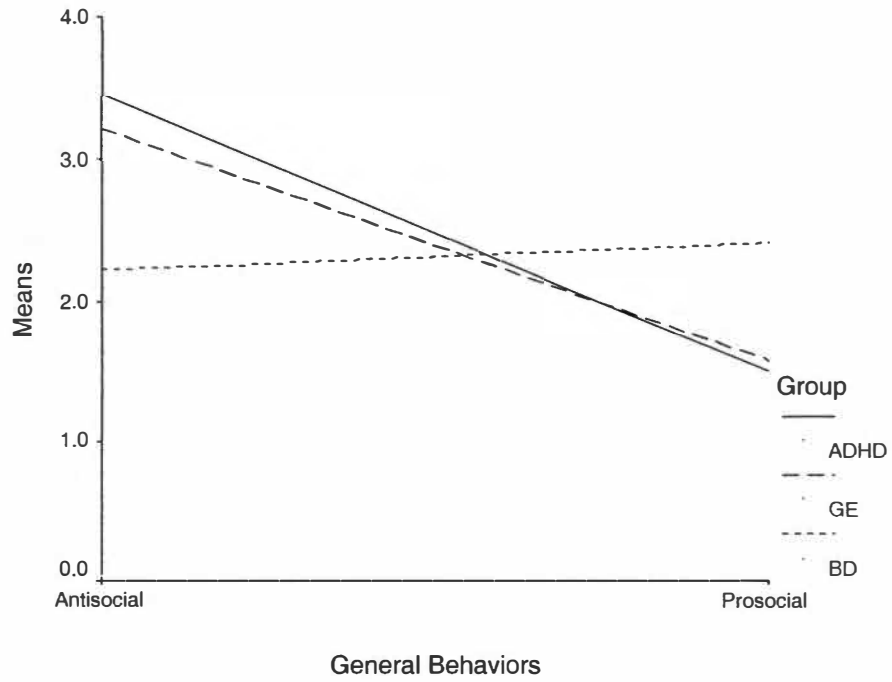


Figure 6: Group Interactions for Prosocial and Antisocial General Behaviors (Experiment II)

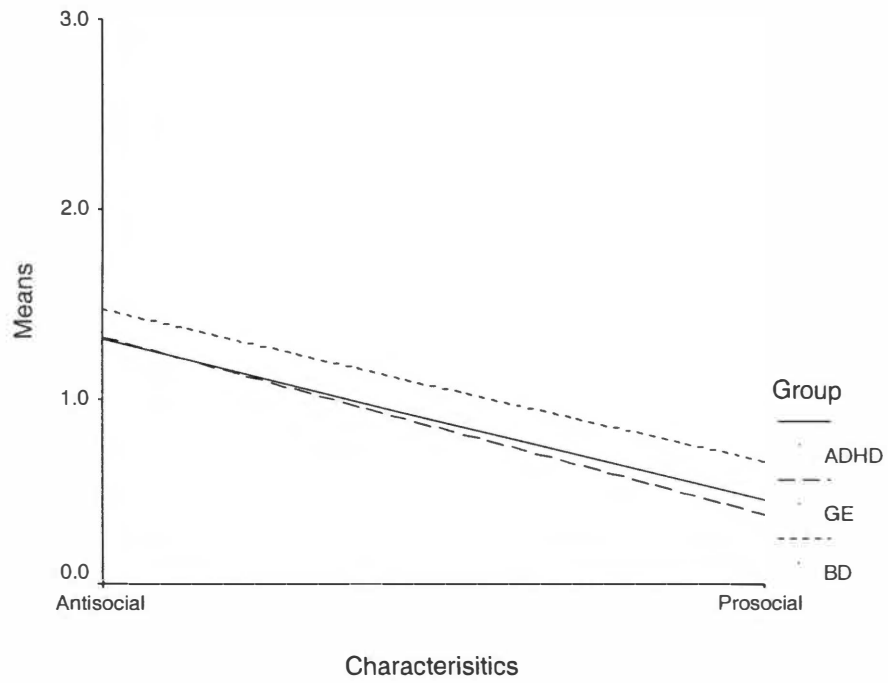


Figure 7: Group Interactions for Prosocial and Antisocial Student Characteristics (Experiment II)

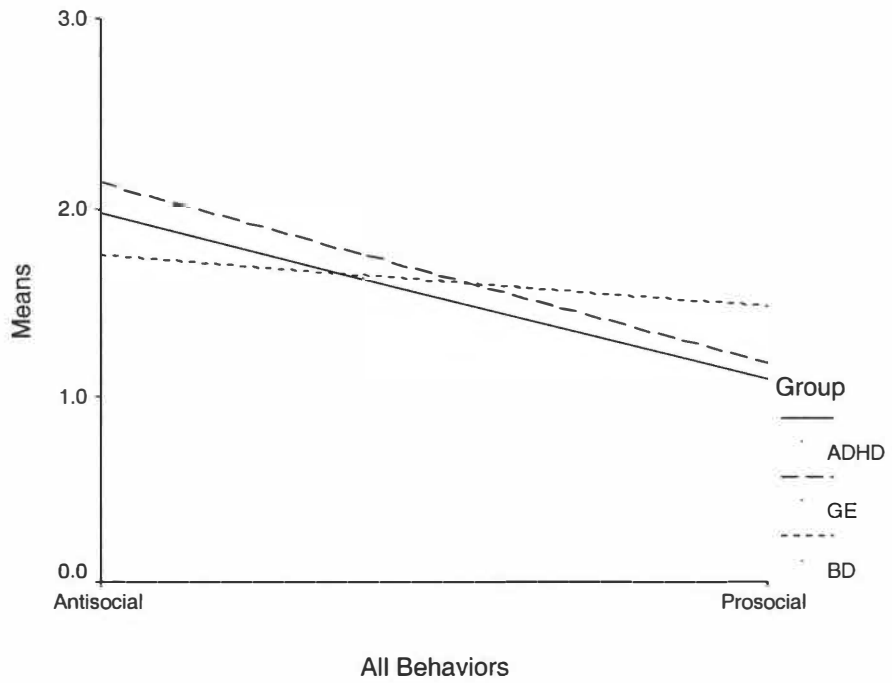


Figure 8: Group Interactions for Prosocial and Antisocial Student Behaviors and Characteristics (Experiment II)

VITA

Olena Anatoliivna Kyselova was born in Kirovograd, Ukraine, on May 6, 1966. She earned her elementary, high school, and initial higher education in Odessa, Ukraine. In 1988 she received a Master of Arts degree from Odessa State University, Ukraine in Linguistics and Foreign Language Education, with a concentration in Teaching English. In 1991 she received a Master of Science degree with Major in Educational Psychology. In 1999, she won a professional development grant and came to the University of Tennessee as a visiting scholar. In 2000, she enrolled in the doctoral program in School Psychology, The University of Tennessee. Previous teaching experiences include K-12 instruction within the regular education settings and instruction within the college environment. During her career at The University of Tennessee, she served as a graduate assistant in the Department of Educational Psychology and Graduate Student Services. She also provided translation and outreach services at the Community Action Committee, Knoxville, TN.