The Five Modes of Caring Student Index

by

Mary Rickles Patton

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Approved by

Ellen Reames, Chair, Associate Professor of Educational Found., Leadership, and Technology
Sean Forbes, Associate Professor of Educational Found., Leadership, and Technology
Lynne Patrick, Associate Clinical Professor of Educational Found., Leadership, and Technology
Frances Kochan, Wayne T. Smith Distinguished Professor Emeritus of Educational Found,
Leadership, and Technology

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to examine the five modes of caring for students. Using Gary Chapman's (1992) five love languages and additional work by Noddings (1984) and Gilligan (1982), the researcher designed a study to determine if there was dominant mode of caring for second grade students in order to explore how teachers might best demonstrate the ethic of care in their classrooms. With diversity increasing in the classrooms of U.S. public schools, teachers must be well versed in how to demonstrate the ethic of care. Studies suggest that the benefits of a teacher caring for his or her students include: positive effects on students' social and academic performance, engagement, motivation, self-esteem, and self-connectedness.

Using the convenience sample of 192 Southeastern second graders, six classroom scenarios were analyzed. The results indicated that students responded statistically significantly different than expected based on the expected frequency of 38.4 for each category. This suggests that one mode of caring was not displayed predominately per participant. In regards to gender, the results indicated that male and female students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns. Similarly, results indicated that Caucasian, African American, and Latino students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns. This indicates that all students, regardless of race or gender, respond to various modes of caring. The various modes of caring deemed context specific, indicating that participants felt the ethic of care based off various scenarios rather than having a primary mode caring, such as suggested by Gary Chapman (1992).

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter I: Introduction

"Education, by its very nature, should help people to develop their best selves – to become people with pleasing talents, useful and satisfying occupations, self-understanding, sound character, a host of appreciations, and a commitment to continuous learning. A large part of our obligation as educators is to help students understand the wonders and complexities of happiness, to raise questions about it, and to explore promising possibilities responsibly." (Noddings, 2003, p. 23)

Patting Joseph on the back as he quietly waits for his square shaped pizza in the lunch line, looping Sanai's earring through her newly pierced ears, listening to Taylor discuss countless plays from his brother's baseball game, buckling Tykell's belt that is two-sizes too big, tying Laura Tyson's hair bow, wiping mustard stains off Mackenzie's favorite shirt, complimenting Ray's new haircut, zipping up Chaney's jacket, hugging Zy's neck after he admits to being bullied at the bus stop are all behaviors that require less than one minute of a teacher's time; yet patting, looping, listening, buckling, tying, wiping, complimenting, zipping, and hugging are not verbs typically associated with teaching. These trivial acts may seem insignificant to some, but if implemented genuinely and consistently, these caring acts of kindness have the potential to substantially impact students.

Diversity in the Classroom

The relationships between teachers and students determine the overall classroom climate, a climate that is becoming increasingly complex. When considering the characteristics of a *typical* classroom, one might depict a row of desks aligned strategically in the room with a teacher standing in the front delivering instruction. In many cases, this could be a typical classroom, but what it does not encompass is the vast assortment of students sitting in those

1

perfectly aligned rows of desks. Classrooms now consist of a variety of students who differ in

gender, race, religion, language, socio-economic background, and academic ability. Thus, a

typical classroom could host students who are ESL, gifted, behaviorally challenged, mentally

disabled, physically disabled, or a myriad of other classifications. Among each of these

subgroups sits an array of personalities that could range from the class clowns to the bullies,

from the socialites to the introverts, from the arrogant to the humble, from the natural leaders to

the socially awkward, from the explosive students to the passive, from the hard working to the

lazy, from the respectful to the defiant, from the honest to the mischievous, from the artistic to

the athletic, or a combination of any of the above. The compositions of classrooms spanning the

country are evolving daily. According to Jerald (2009), minority students will constitute the

majority of schoolchildren by 2023. This is already the case for states in the Southern region of

the United States, which is where this study was conducted. Suitts (2015) published a research

report entitled *A New Diverse Majority*, noting that the number of students of color has grown

more rapidly in public schools in the South than in any other region. In 2000, African American,

Latino, and other non-White students made up 44 percent of the public school's body in the

South. In 2008, the number had grown to 50 percent. In 2009, students of color constituted 51

percent of the South's public school children.   In addition, an influx of low income students –

children eligible for free or reduced lunch - has become a majority in the South's public schools.

The South is the first and only region in the nation ever to have both a majority of low income

students and a majority of students of color enrolled in public schools. According to Suitts

(2015), the students who constitute the largest groups in the South's public schools are the

students who in the aggregate are scoring lowest on state-mandated tests and on the federal

National Assessment of Educational Progress, the only national performance examination for K-12 students.

Despite America's public school population diversifying, America's teacher force is not. During the 2011-2012 school year, the latest year for which the National Center for Education Statistics has data on the subject, over 80 percent of classroom teachers identified as white, and there are few indicators suggesting that this is likely to change significantly by 2025 despite the diversifying student population (Goldring, Gray & Bitterman, 2013). So the question remains, how do educators teach and reach, a more diverse group of students and prepare those students to collaborate in diverse job settings and function in a diverse society? According to Schargel, Thacker, and Bell (2007), successful schools link their success directly to its personnel. Faculties filled with leaders who see *all* students as *their* students and who seek to work with other teachers to benefit everyone. School improvement, and everything that surrounds and sometimes shrouds the subject, comes down to one simple process: improving the mindset and performance of the adults. Simply put, when a leader can improve the work of the adults in the school building, the children come along for the ride.

Teachers' Attitudes, Belief, and Practices

Middleton & Petit (2007) quote the great Maya Angelou who once said, "This is the value of the teacher, who looks at a face and says there's something behind that and I want to reach that person, I want to influence that person, I want to encourage that person, I want to enrich, I want to call out that person who is behind that color, behind that language, behind that tradition, behind that culture. I believe you can do it. I know what was done for me" (p.88). How powerful the educational arena would be if classrooms were filled with teachers of that mindset. Research continues to support that it is people, not programs, who determine the

3

quality of a school (Whitaker, 2012). Unfortunately, many educators respond to students who are different in predictable ways – they isolate them, ignore them, retain them, suspend them, expel them, and in far too many ways, fail to love them or teach them (Kuykendall, 2004). Kuykendall also states that one of the biggest challenges in the education of these youth is changing the behavior of teachers who were prone to erode student confidence and their fragile sense of acceptance of their peers. In contrast, teachers who support students in the learning environment can positively impact their social and academic outcomes while influencing the long-term trajectory of school and eventually employment (Baker, Grant, & Morlock, 2008; O'Connor, Dearing, & Collins, 2011; Silver, Measelle, Armstrong, & Essex, 2005). Students who have positive relationships with their teachers use them as a secure base from which they can explore the classroom and school setting both academically and socially, to take on academic challenges and work on social- emotional development (Hamre & Pianta, 2001).

In the 1996 report *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future*, Bullough, Burbank, Gess-Newsome, Kauchak, & Kennedy (1998) proposed an audacious goal… that by the year 2006, America will provide all students in the country with what should be their educational birthright: access to competent, caring, and qualified teachers. The Commission's proposal to achieve this is systematic and requires dramatic departure from the status quo. They suggest focusing on three simple premises: 1) What teachers know and can do is the most important influence on what students learn; 2) Recruiting, preparing, and retaining good teachers is the central strategy for improving our schools; 3) School reform cannot succeed unless it focuses on creating the conditions in which teachers can teach, and teach well. Notice the common denominator in each of those three - the teacher. Twenty years later, our goal remains the same: improving student achievement by improving not only our quality of teachers but the

effectiveness of teachers. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2004), *highly qualified* teachers are defined as those who hold at least a bachelor's degree, are fully licensed or certified by the state in the subjects they teach, and can demonstrate competence in the subjects they teach. Although hiring and retaining highly qualified teachers is important, hiring and retaining high quality teachers that are *effective* is the key. Tucker and Stronge (2005) notate numerous characteristics of effective teachers. Similar to characteristics of highly qualified teachers determined by the U.S. Department of Education (2004), Tucker and Stronge (2005) suggest that effective teachers have formal teacher preparation training, hold certification within their fields, and are able to present content to students in a meaningful way that fosters understanding. In addition, Tucker and Stronge (2005) suggest that the most effective teachers have taught for at least three years and hold high expectations for themselves and their students. Effective teachers dedicate extra time to instructional preparation and reflection. They maximize instructional time via effective classroom management and organization, and enhance instruction by varying instructional strategies, activities, and assignments. They monitor students' learning by utilizing pre-and post-assessments, and they provide timely and informative feedback, while re-teaching material to students who did not achieve mastery. Lastly, effective teachers demonstrate their ability to engage the full range of student abilities in their classrooms, regardless of the academic diversity of the students. They are able to encompass all of these attributes with an overarching environment that promotes fairness, respect, and care.

The Ethic of Care

Noddings (1984, 1986, 1995, 2002, 2006, 2012, 2013) and Lyons (1983) believe that teachers' classrooms must be grounded in what Gilligan (1982) referred to as an 'ethic of caring.' Unfortunately, this vital component of teaching remains relatively ill-defined and is not

well-articulated in teacher education programs (Rogers & Webb, 1991). Learning how to give, receive, model, dissect, and implement components of caring are imperative in teacher education so that the ethic of care can become the driving force behind teachers' professional decision making. Teaching should revolve around caring about the profession, the class as a whole, and the individual needs of each student. Due to teachers' concerns with falling short of No Child Left Behind and Every Student Succeeds Act, most teacher preparatory programs focus primarily on the logistics and mechanics of teaching. Effective lesson planning, mastering content knowledge, becoming experts of best practices, learning to formally and informally assess students on mastery of state standards, and developing successful behavior management plans are among the top priorities for both novice and veteran teachers. Unfortunately, honing the skills of ethical decision making and developing meaningful interpersonal relationships with students is often absent when effective teaching practices are examined. When analyzing the standards listed by the National Council on Teacher Quality (2016), qualities of character education or moral development are nowhere to be found, yet teachers are expected to embed the ethic of care into their classrooms. Currently only 18 states mandate character education, 18 states encourage character education, 7 states support it without legislation, and 8 states have no legislation specifically addressing character education (Character Education Partnership, 2016). Despite varying guidelines among states on allotting time for character education and minimal teacher preparation programs that provide the knowledge and experience needed to deliver character education, teachers are expected to care.

Teven and McCroskey (1997) found that students who believe their teacher is caring also believe they learn more. Further, positive relationships with teachers predict enhanced social, cognitive, and language development in younger children (Kontos & Wilcox-Herzog, 1997).

According to Flink, Boggiano, and Barrett (1990) those teachers who support a student's autonomy tend to facilitate greater motivation, curiosity, and desire to be challenged. Chapman and Freed (2015) argue that the distance between the teachers and the students is growing within the American school system due to teachers not having enough time to get to know the students and their personal needs. "Research suggests that students do not do well in classrooms, in hallways, or playgrounds if they don't' have strong connections with their teachers. Additionally, simple tasks like riding the bus, eating lunch, and making friends become more difficult. The connection between students and their teachers is important but the connections between students, their peers, and their parents are equally important" (Chapman & Freed, 2015). Osterman (2000), cites evidence from motivational researchers (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Ryan, Cornell, & Deci, 1985) who posit the need to feel a sense of connection and relatedness in the classroom represents one of the three fundamental human needs (along with competency and autonomy). They argue in order for students to feel motivated and self-determined in the classrooms, they need to feel connected to their teachers and their peers.

The 5 Love Languages

Rooted in this ethic of care are the findings of Gary Chapman. Chapman (1992) has coined the concept of the 5 Love Languages and has authored *The 5 Love Languages* concept books for married couples, singles, parents, teenagers, and children. He encourages people to speak and understand emotional love as it is expressed through one of five languages: physical touch, words of affirmation, receiving gifts, acts of service, and quality time. Chapman (1992) argues that while each of these languages is enjoyed to some degree by all people, a person will usually speak one or two primary languages, which can be identified by taking the Love Language Profile. The Love Language Profile is approximately 30 either/or questions and is

available online and located at the end of Chapman's books. Currently, it is the primary instrument available that measures the five love languages for children, so it was used to guide the development of the items for this study's index.

Though ample research has been conducted on the benefits of caring in the classroom, little has been studied regarding the use of Gary Chapman's (1992) 5 Love Languages in the classroom. In fact, little research has been conducted on the empirical significance of Chapman's (1992) theory in general. Although widely acclaimed and commonly used in Christian marriage and family counseling, the reliability and validity of Chapman's (1992) theory stands to be investigated. Chapman (1992) originally developed his five love languages through his work as a couple's counselor and the book gained notoriety in the popular press. *The 5 Love Languages* was released by Moody Publishers in 1992 and immediately exceeded the publisher's modest expectations. Remarkably, for 19 of its first 20 years it outsold its total from the previous year. In 1998, it surpassed 500,000 copies sold; just two years later it surpassed 1 million, and in 2015, after selling its 10 millionth copy, received the Diamond Award from the Evangelical Christian Booksellers Association. Twenty-four years after its publication date, the book has been translated into 50 languages and remains at the top of the *New York Times* Love and Relationships list of bestsellers and is fixed at number 2 overall on the ECPA list, bested only by *Jesus Calling* (Challies, 2016).

Despite the widespread acceptance of Chapman's work, is its lack of scientific credibility is often questioned. Personal experience and anecdotal evidence from his years as a therapist are the basis of his beliefs. Although he has both respect and credibility in his profession, Chapman has yet to provide conclusive proof from a mathematical standpoint. According to bloggers such as Graham Joncas (2011), unlike scholars in the academic and research fields, "Chapman does

not mention power, agonistics, or art. He asks for no revolutions in thought, overturns no fallacious beliefs, but simply asks us to extend his system into the realm of common sense. His motives are practical, and could feasibly be accepted into the doctrine of common sense at any time." According to Feiler (2011), Chapman is a throwback to a time when advice came from a wise auntie like Dear Abby or Ann Landers or a town elder such as Norman Vincent Peale or Dr. Benjamin Spock. What sets Chapman apart are his highly profiled and publicized 'popular press ideas,' which in turn, are his *Sunday Sermons* that are continuously referenced by scholars and authors, not only in the Christian arena but in the mainstream media as well. Chapman has appeared on The Oprah Winfrey Show and been referenced in the *New York Times, Huffington Post,* and other various publications. In similar fashion, the ideology included in Ruby Payne's (1996) *Framework for Understanding Poverty*, has been presented and accepted across numerous states despite its scholarship being roundly questioned by academics and critics. It is, as Chapman's work, a prime example of a popular press that has impacted teacher practice. So why devote time and resources to proving or refuting works like Payne's and Chapman's?   As Egbert and Polk (2006) note, "Incorporating and testing popular press ideas through research serves as several valuable functions: (a) providing an empirical check of intuitive ideas that have found favor with the public, (b) forcing researchers to keep current with mass-mediated messages that affect how people view relationships, and (c) enhancing the validity of relational measurement instruments. Simply put, researchers and educators are kindred spirits in their approach to knowledge, an important fact that can be used to forge a coalition to bring hard-won research knowledge to light in the classroom. (Stanovich & Stanovich, 2003).

What Teachers Read

        With teachers feeling overworked, underappreciated and underpaid, one might ask how often teachers read professionally. Do they read deeply and reflect upon what is truly happening in the educational arena? Do they question their beliefs regarding education on a regular basis? Do they mentally step outside of their teacher realms and compare their practices with new research? Do they understand the difference between an opinion piece blogged about on social media versus a peer reviewed article listed in an educational journal? Questions concerning the gap between educational research and practice have been raised for many years (Biesta, 2007).

        Broekkamp and van Hout-Wouters (2007) state that educational research is criticized for being difficult, partial, limited in use, fragmented, and unapproachable. Englert, Tarrant, and Rosendal (1993) conclude that innovations proposed by educational researchers remain in journals rather than in the hands of teachers and students in the classroom. Kaestle (1993) states that educational researchers lack the skills to disseminate their results to practitioners, while Vanderlinde and van Braak (2010) found that teachers felt skeptical about the value of educational research. They argued that educational researchers handle too few questions of practical relevance. This is in line with previous research which found that teachers ask for research that is relevant to the classroom (Gore & Gitlin, 2004), and valued research when it focused on classroom interaction, tackled specific aspects of teaching, or demonstrated effective learning (Everton, Galton, & Pell., 2000). For these reasons, popular press books, that are easy to access, easy to read, and easy to understand, become more widely read among teachers than educational journals. Vanderlinde and van Braak (2010) also noted that participants experiencing a gap when they encountered the use of complex and technical language in research

reports. They argue that many researchers speak and write in a language unintelligent to practitioners.

For some, the research-practice relationship continues to be seen as essentially direct and instrumental and serving a 'what works?' demand for evidence-based practice. For most, however, the priority is the promotion of greater understanding of practical matters through evidence-informed processes that engage teachers with research. Those teachers so engaged together with researchers and many policy-makers, seem to agree that a stronger relationship with research can make classroom practice more effective and satisfying, and probably increase teachers' willingness and capability to pay attention to the research of others. What the rest, indeed the majority, of the population of teachers this is however, a moot point (Brown, 2005).

One of the difficulties relates to the restrictive learning environments in which teachers frequently still find themselves. Many are deterred from engaging in continuing research activity because of the pressures they experience from government or school policies that focus on specific targets, measurable learning outcomes, narrow performance indicators, inflexible contractual arrangements, hierarchical accountability and the pervasiveness of the idea of some 'best practice' that should be identified and then adopted by everyone. These restrictions are further fueled by official frameworks where simplistic expectations see practice as a process of straightforwardly implementing evidence provided by research, teachers' learning as the acquisition of (and compliance with) knowledge delivered to them, and research findings as generalizable across contexts (Brown, 2005).

Teachers are drawn to learn from, or to generate evidence found in contexts with which they are familiar and concerned with innovations that relate to their classroom priorities. If teachers do not read widely, they may assume that a book or article they read is the latest and

11

best thinking. They may not understand that some of the *research* they are reading may not truly be research. Mass communication of the 21st century allows virtually anyone to offer advice while offering modest discrimination between good and bad information. This permits anyone to be an expert in promoting untested remedies that are not supported by an established research base, which in turn, discredits science, scientific evidence, and the notion of research-based best practices.

The 1933 national survey of teachers by Frazier et al. (1933) included a section on the reading interest of teachers. The survey's purpose was to determine teachers' interest in social change based on what they read. Frazier and his associates found that teachers' social concerns were 'not much more enlightened' than those of the population at large. Over 30 years later, a study of 270 teachers in the United Kingdom found that teachers could not be relied on 'to read just one serious book on Education or Psychology' each year (Johnson, 1966) and only a small proportion of them read educational journals (Johnson, 1963).

Scientific thinking may be underused in education for reasons described by Stanovich and Stanovich: "Educational practice has suffered greatly because its dominant model for resolving or adjudicating disputes has been more political (with its corresponding factions and interest groups) than scientific. The field's failure to ground practice in the attitudes and values of science has made educators susceptible to the 'authority syndrome' as well as fads and gimmicks that ignore evidence-based practice." (2003, p.9) According to Stanovich and Stanovich (2003), one factor impeding teachers from being active and effective consumers of educational science is a lack of orientation and training in how to understand the scientific process and how that process results in the cumulative growth of knowledge that leads to validated educational practice. They state that the front line of defense for teachers against

incorrect information in education is the existence of peer-reviewed journals in education, psychology, and other related social sciences. Information that has gone through scientific journal peer reviews is not necessarily correct, but it has at least undergone a cycle of peer criticism and scrutiny and meets the criterion of public verifiability. Even in the absence of direct empirical evidence on a particular method or technique, there could be a theoretical link to the consensus in the existing literature that would support the method (Stanovich & Stanovich, 2003).

As noted by Zeuli, (1992) common problems in reading articles and findings were most often associated with teachers who focused on research products. They had greater difficulty identifying authors' main ideas and evidence in support of these ideas. Consistent with this problem, these teachers relied more on personal interpretation of the articles as opposed to defensible interpretations based more firmly on the text. In addition, these teachers were less likely to draw on different conceptions of learning or educational aims when responding to research findings and when offering reasons for ignoring good research. When reading research, teachers were more interested in the products of the research than the process. These teachers, like consumers, were more interested in making decisions about what practices to procure without understanding why the decision is warranted. If teachers are unable to raise questions about research concepts, evidence, or assumptions, or do not pay any attention to them, research does not educate them (Cherryholmes, 1990). If research serves to educate teachers, teachers need to go beyond focusing only on research findings. They need to be able at least to render a defensible sense of authors' main ideas and how the authors supported those ideas. Teachers also may further analyze research in relevant ways that demonstrate greater ability to understand what they read.

Purpose of the Study

      The purpose of the study was to examine the five modes of caring for students. Using Gary Chapman's (1992) five love languages and additional work by Noddings (1984) and Gilligan (1982), the researcher designed a study to determine if there was dominant mode of caring for second grade students in order to explore how teachers might best demonstrate the ethic of care in their classrooms. With diversity increasing in the classrooms of U.S. public schools, teachers must be well versed in how to demonstrate the ethic of care. Studies suggest that the benefits of a teacher caring for his or her students include: positive effects on students' social and academic performance, engagement, motivation, self-esteem, and self-connectedness.

Research Objectives

The research objectives for this study included the following:

1.) To determine the relationships between six classroom scenarios and the Five Modes of Caring functions (i.e., Touch, Words, Gifts, Service, Quality Time).

2.) To determine if there is a difference between male and female second grade participants' perceptions of the Five Modes of Caring as represented by participants' reported index scores.

3.) To determine if there is a difference among ethnic groups of second grade participants' perceptions of the Five Modes of Caring as represented by participants' reported index scores.

Significance of the Study

      "Educational connectedness research shows that the relationship between the teacher and the student plays an important role in the student's academic development. Students who perceive teachers as creating a caring, well-structured learning environment in which

14

expectations are high, clear, and fair are more likely to report engagement in schools." Peer problems affect the child's self-concept, mental health, and, consequently, their academic performance. Findings from past research indicates that early experiences in positive teacher-student relationships help put children on a trajectory towards higher levels of school adjustment and competence and can serve as a buffer against risk (Lynch & Cicchetti, 1992). Murray and Greenberg (2000) in their examination of students' social experiences in school revealed that children who perceived teachers as supportive and responsive are better adjusted. It also helped to build warmth, trust and reduce the risk for deviant behaviors and academic failure (Murray, Murray & Waas, 2008). While roles of teacher and student may vary across cultural contexts, the fact that though interaction parties condition each other to respond and behave in certain ways as the interact is evident in classrooms (Babad 1990, 1992; Brophy, 1974; Newberry & Davis, 2008). Because teacher-child relationships are important for children's development, it is necessary to understand the mechanisms underlying their successful formation. Understanding the predictors of high quality teacher-child relationships can inform teacher preparation and professional development, improving teachers' awareness of characteristics that children bring to school that may impact their success. Equipped with a deeper understanding of the correlates of teacher-child relationship quality, teachers may be better able to promote and foster high-quality relationships with more children (Rudasill & Kaufman, 2009). Researchers have shown empirically the fundamental need for love and affection (Floyd, 2002; Rotter, Chance & Phares, 1972) and its positive affect on mental health (Downs & Javidi, 1990), physical well-being (Komisaruk & Wipple, 1998) and even academic performance (Steward & Luper, 1987). Floyd, Hess, Miczo, Harlone, Mikkelson, & Tusing (2005) found when affection was expressed to others happiness and self-esteem increased and were independent of the affection received in

15

return. In other words, even if students do not show care and affection *to* teachers, there are benefits to them receiving care and affection *from* teachers. Unfortunately, many teachers fail to see the correlation of their actions to student esteem and student behavior, which heightens the possibility of students becoming dropout statistics rather than productive graduates. Educating teachers on how to enhance their relationships with students should be just as important as teaching them how to deliver academic content.

An ethic of care emphasizes responsibilities and relationships, not rights and rules. It does not establish guiding principles to follow but instead encourages good work. Caring creates possibilities and opportunities for virtues to be exercised (Tronto, 1987). With caring at the heart of the work that teachers do, all their activities should be based on it; all of their actions should be considered in terms of their impact on the welfare of their children (Mayeroff, 1971). Since there are currently no investigative studies on Chapman's theory in the classroom, the researcher hopes to find the significance of Chapman's modes of caring/love in the classroom in order to provide insight on the importance of teachers demonstrating traditional and nontraditional ways to show affection to their students in order to build and maintain teacher-student connectedness.

Assumptions

1. The respondents answered all survey questions openly and honestly without any consideration of the researcher's expectations.

2. The index asked appropriately worded questions in an effort to solicit the respondents' opinions.

3. The facilitators followed the protocol in administering the index.

4. The parents consented for their children to participate without coercing them to answer in predetermined ways.

Delimitations

1. The study was conducted in the fall of 2013 in a southeastern state.

2. The sample purposefully consisted of second grade students from three schools within one school system.

3. The second grade students were comprised of males and females with varying academic, socio-economic and behavioral backgrounds.

4. A ranking scale was chosen as the instrumentation due to its appropriateness for elementary age students.

Definition of Terms

Acts of Service.   One of the five love languages that is given and/or received by completing tasks for others. This may be demonstrated by assisting someone with duties, assignments, chores, or jobs.

Emotional Love Tank. Located inside every child, waiting to be filled. When a child feels loved, he or she will develop normally. When the tank is empty, the child will misbehave. Much of the misbehavior in children is motivated by the cravings of an empty love tank.

Five Love Languages. The theory proposed by Gary Chapman which states that all humans express and receive love through five different modes: physical touch, words of affirmation, gifts, acts of service, and quality time.

Gifts. One of the five love languages that is given and/or received by giving tangible tokens of affection. This may be demonstrated through items that are purchased, created, found, or recycled.

Physical Touch. One of the five love languages that is given and/or received by physical interaction with others. This may be demonstrated through hugs, pats on the back, high fives, holding hands, or being within close proximity of others.

Quality Time. One of the five love languages that is given and/or received by time spent with others. This may be demonstrated by providing physical presence, attentive conversation, or undivided attention.

Relational Maintenance. A variety of behaviors used by partners in an effort to stay together in a relationship based on continuity, stability, and satisfaction.

Words of Affirmation. One of the five love languages that is given and/or received by spoken words. This may be demonstrated by providing uplifting, encouraging, and genuine words conveyed orally or written.

Organization of Remaining Chapters

This chapter includes the background of this study, research purposes, the significance of this study, the limitations of this study, and the definitions of terms. Further detailed information related to this study was organized into four chapters. Related literature is discussed in Chapter Two. A detailed research design of the index composed is outlined in Chapter Three. Results of the index are noted in Chapter Four. Discussions on findings, implication of the research results, and recommendations are presented in Chapter Five.

Chapter II: Review of the Literature

Theoretical Framework

The moral theory known as *the ethic of care* implies that there is moral significance in the fundamental elements of relationships and dependencies in human life. Normatively, care ethics seeks to maintain relationships by contextualizing and promoting the well-being of care-givers and care-receivers in a network of social relations (Sander-Staudt, 2006). Most often defined as a practice or virtue rather than a theory as such, "care" involves maintaining the world of, and meeting the needs of, ourselves and others. It builds on the motivation to care for those who are dependent and vulnerable, and it is inspired by both memories of being cared for and the idealizations of self. One of the original works of care ethics was Milton Mayeroff's (1971) short book, *On Caring*, but the emergence of care ethics as a distinct moral theory is most often attributed to the works of psychologist Carol Gilligan (1982) and philosopher Nel Noddings (1984).

While a graduate student at Harvard, Carol Gilligan wrote her dissertation outlining a different path of moral development than the one described by Lawrence Kohlberg, her mentor. Kohlberg's (1958) theory of stages of moral development had posited that moral development progressively moves toward more universalized and principled thinking and had also found that girls, when later included in his studies, scored significantly lower than boys. Gilligan faulted Kohlberg's (1958) model of moral development for being gender biased, and reported hearing a "different voice" than the voice of justice presumed in Kohlberg's (1958) model. Gilligan argued that Kohlberg's (1958) model was not an objective scale of moral development. It displayed a

particularly masculine perspective on morality, founded on justice and abstract duties or obligations. She found that both men and women articulated the voice of care at different times, but noted that the voice of care, without women, would nearly fall out of their studies. Refuting the charge that the moral reasoning of girls and women is immature because of its preoccupation with immediate relations, Gilligan asserted that the "care perspective" was an alternative, but equally legitimate form of moral reasoning obscured by masculine liberal justice traditions focused on autonomy and independence.

In 1982, Carol Gilligan published her now famous *In a Different Voice*, describing an alternative approach to moral problems. Gilligan critiqued Kohlberg (1958), pointing out that in the research from which Kohlberg derived his theory on the development of justice-based moral thought, females simply were excluded. Consequently, Gilligan (1982) claimed, Kohlberg's model and measurement are insensitive to women's voice or views on moral issues, with the result that men typically score higher in their moral reasoning levels on Kohlberg's (1958) justice measure. On the basis of her own work with women, Gilligan (1982) proposed an alternate theory of moral development to Kohlberg's. In her view, there are two sex-related (but not sex-specific) moral orientations – justice and individual rights, which are more representative of men's moral judgement, and interpersonal responsibility and care for self and others, which are more representative of women's judgement. The new approach, posited in Gilligan's (1982) book was identified in the voices of women, although Gilligan (1982) did not claim that the approach was exclusively female, nor did she claim that all women use it. Gilligan (1982) described a morality based on the recognition of needs, relation, and response. Women who speak in the different voice refuse to leave themselves, their loved ones, and connections out of their moral reasoning. They speak from and to a situation, and their reasoning is contextual. The

20

emphasis is on living together, on creating, maintaining, and enhancing positive relations not on decision making in moments of high moral conflict, nor on justification.

According to (Brown, Tappan, & Gilligan, 1995), the ethic of care develops from the person's early childhood experiences of attachment to others and reflects an ideal of love, connection and mutual responsiveness; the ethic of justice develops from the person's early experiences of inequality and reflects an ideal of fairness, equality, and reciprocity. Because children are born into a position of inequality and cannot survive without an attachment figure, all children are exposed to the conditions that form the basis of both moral orientation (Jaffee & Hyde, 2000). Traditionally, however, women are urged toward a morality of care and responsibility in relationships, whereas men are socialized toward a morality or fights, a concern for autonomy in judgment and action as well as for freedom and noninterference with the rights of individuals. Thus, moral conflicts typically are regarded as entailing issues of conflicting rights by men and conflicting responsibilities by women. These two patterns, of rights and justice versus responsibility and care as foci, are distinct approaches to moral reasoning, Gilligan (1982) argued, and maturity entails a greater understanding of both perspectives.

In conjunction with Gilligan's work, Nel Noddings (1984) published *Caring*, in which she developed the idea of care as a feminine ethic, and applied it to the practice of moral education. Starting from the presumption that women "enter the practical domain of moral action…through a different door", she ascribed to feminine ethics a preference for face-to face moral deliberation that occurs in real time, and appreciation of the uniqueness of each caring relationship. Drawing conceptually from a maternal perspective, Noddings(1984) understood caring relationships to be basic to human existence and consciousness. She identified two parties in a caring relationship— "one-caring" and the "cared-for"—and affirmed that both parties have

21

some form of obligation to care reciprocally and meet the other morally, although not in the same manner. She characterized caring as an act of "engrossment" whereby the one-caring receives the cared-for on their own terms, resisting projection of the self onto the cared-for, and displacing selfish motives in order to act on the behalf of the cared-for. Noddings located the origin of ethical action in two motives, the human affective response that is a natural caring sentiment, and the memory of being cared-for that gives rise to an ideal self. Noddings rejected universal principles for prescribed action and judgment, arguing that care must always be contextually applied. In addition to the findings of Gilligan and Noddings, theorists Sara Ruddick (1998), Virginia Held (1993), and Eva Feder Kittay (1999) suggest caring should be performed and care givers valued in both public and private spheres. Their theories recognize caring as an ethically relevant issue. This proposed paradigm shift in ethics encourages that an ethic of caring be the social responsibility of both men and women.

Defining Caring

Some policymakers and educators believe that caring is a pedagogical virtue demonstrated by forcing students to achieve the skills and acquire the knowledge that has been prescribed for them. Students should be encouraged, even forced, to learn a prescribed body of material, and that they and their teachers should be held strictly accountable – through standardized tests – for the acquisiton of the matieral. Schools, we are told, must be held accountbale for the results they produce. But for what should schools be held accountable? Surely they should be accountable for more than test scores in basic reading, mathematics, and science. From this view, a teacher exercises the virtue of caring by making students do what is thought to be good for them.

Noddings (2006) contextualizes the importance of caring in schools by stating, 'A caring relation is, in its most basic form, a connection or encounter between two human beings, a carer and a recipient of care, or the cared-for. In the relationship thus created, both the caring person and the recipient of care play important roles. While the provider of care offers nurture, the receiver of such care accepts the nurture and ultimately reciprocates it. An ethic of care embodies a relational view of caring; that is, the emphasis is on the relation containing carer and cared-for. Both carer and cared-for contribute to this relation. If, for whatever reason, the cared-for denies that she or he is cared for, there is no caring relation. When that happens, it is not necessarily the fault of the carer; it may be that the cared-for is stubborn, insensitve, or just plain difficult; or the situation in which the carer and cared-for meet may make it difficult to establish caring relations. To be credited properly with the virtue of caring, one must regularly succeed in establishing caring realtions.

The opposing view to this is the view that caring starts not with the relation but with caring as virture belonging to carers (Noddings, 2002). From this perspective, carers, in what they see as the best interests of those from whom they care, may decide what those best interests are without listening to the expressed needs of the cared-for. A parent or teacher who cared in this fashion would force the cared-for to do something 'because they said so or for their own good.' This stifles the caring relationship by forcing the carers agenda or beliefs upon the cared-for thus diminsihing trust between the two.

Teachers such as Kohn (1991), Kohl (1984), and Noddings (1984) have laid the foundation for the ideology of caring in the classroom. In a discussion of the need for "caring kids," Kohn wrote "The very profession of teaching calls on us to try to encourage the development of not merely good learners but good people" (1991, p. 497). Kohl asserts that "a

23

teacher has an obligation to care about every student" (1984, p. 66). The ethic of care

necessitates that actions be motivated by love, even when love is not felt (Goldstein, 2004).

Noddings (2013) recognize two kinds of caring, natural and ethical. Natural caring is present

without effort from the teacher; it stems from an innate natural affection for the other person.

Ethical caring does not come naturally, but it is performed out of duty. The teacher has a

responsibility to care for a student, even if it is not felt naturally. There is a sense of *want*

involved in natural caring; whereas ethical caring involves a sense of *obligation.* Whether it

stems from natural or ethical care, it is a teacher's duty to care for students. In the documentary

The War Room (1993), James Carville notes, "Outside of a person's love, the most sacred thing

they can give is their labor. And somehow or another along the way, we tend to forget that.

Labor is a very precious thing that you have. Anytime that you can combine labor with love,

you've made a good merger." Learning to merge, balance, and sustain labor and love (or care) in

the classroom is not always easy. Emotional labor of any kind is physically and psychologically

exhausting. Teaching is consistently ranked as one of the top jobs in terms of stress-related

health problems (Johnson et al., 2005). Reviews of research on the causes of stress for teachers

suggest that it stems from many sources, chief among them student disciplinary and motivational

problems; friction with administrators, colleagues, and parents; instructional and administrative

demands; time and evaluation pressures; and poor working conditions (Montgomery & Rupp,

2005). Moreover, teachers' occupational stress has likely been on the rise over the last decade:

Ongoing educational reform efforts that involve high stakes testing have resulted in increased

evaluation pressure, scrutiny, and criticism of teachers' job performance (Lambert & McCarthy,

2006; Nichols & Berliner, 2007). As explained by Klassen, Perry, and Frenzel, "Teaching is a

unique occupation in its emphasis on establishing long-term meaningful connections with the

"clients' of the work environment (i.e., students) at a depth that may not be found in other professions" (2012, p. 151). Working with students, as individuals or in groups, is likely to be emotionally taxing. Students' behavioral and motivational issues, coupled with their inherent immaturity, often make them challenging interaction partners. Moreover, teaching involves the potential burden of "emotional labor," in which teachers are required to display professionally appropriate emotions, even in the face of distressing interactions with students who may show disrespectful, disruptive, disinterested, or dismissive behavior in the classroom (Hargreaves, 2000; Zapf, 2002). This would parallel Todd Whitaker's belief that "you don't have to like the students; you just have to act as if you like them" (2012, p.50). The way in which teachers and students respond to one another defines whether the emotional work teaching is acceptable as part of the job or not and also sets a pattern for further interactions (Brophy, 1974; Newberry & Davis, 2008). As noted by Leavitt (1994), a true commitment to caring can evolve into labor due to the unequal nature of a caring teacher-student relationship. Children's limited ability to provide the level of care equal to that which they are receiving can lead to emotional strain, anger, and alienation for the teacher. Emotional labor can be a daunting endeavor, but it does not have to be a permanent endeavor. Understanding that building a relationship is a process, and becoming mindful of that process, increases the likelihood to direct the trajectory of that relationship towards a mutually enjoyable outcome (Newberry, 2010).

Noddings's (1984) idea that caring is a moral choice and an intellectual act rather than a personality trait reemphasizes the belief that regardless of how great teachers are, if they don't understand the theoretical and ethical issues involved with educating, they will be unable to reflect deeply on their *good* practices of teaching in order to enhance those practices into the *best* practices of teaching. Included in these best practices is the ability to not only care *about* others

in the educational community but to care *for* others in the educational community. Noddings

(2002) noted that caring *about* others is important to a moral society: It turns one's attention to

the lives of others and spurs one to seek justice for them, even for distant others one does not

know and shall never meet. Caring *about* anything is relatively detached whereas when one

cares *for* something, he or she has a vested interest in that thing or person. Although caring

about a cause, such as education, is a noble and worthwhile cause, it may produce zero to little

results in the grand scheme of things. On the other hand, when teachers care *for* their students

and education, true results can happen. Caring *for* springs from the capacity to care *about* but

takes it a step further, the potential to be a giant step further. For example, advocating for a child

or discussing specific needs of a child are acts of caring *about* children. Tying shoes or listening

to a child talk about his or her weekend are acts of caring *for* children. Caring *for* involves

teachers developing face-to-face relationships, where one focuses on a student purposefully,

learns about that child, shares experiences with that child, and understands how his or her

relationship can positively or negatively affect that child. Caring *for* students is putting their best

interest at heart, whether that comes through forgiveness, discipline, encouragement, or empathy.

It involves setting high expectations for students, communicating those expectations to the

students, and doing whatever it takes to help each child be successful – academically, socially,

physically, and emotionally. The following table demonstrates the differences between caring

'about' a child versus caring 'for' a child. This ethic of care is the backbone of true education,

not criterion-based standards, norm-referenced tests, or character education programs. It takes

schools and teachers caring *for* every child that steps foot in their building (Shevalier &

McKenzie, 2012).

Table 1

Caring 'About' vs. Caring 'For' a Student

Caring 'About'	Caring 'For'
- telling the principal that a child is falling behind in reading	- meeting with that child for extra reading practice before school
- telling the counselor that a child smells bad and is not being taken care of at home	- buying deodorant and a brush for the child to leave in his backpack
- telling a parent to come pick up his or her child because their child has soiled their pants	- sending the child to the office to borrow a pair of pants while washing the soiled ones
- telling a child that you are happy his baseball team is playing in the championship	- going to watch the championship game
- telling a social worker that a mother has requested financial assistance to buy Christmas gifts for her child	- setting up a time to meet the mother to drop off Christmas gifts you've purchased specifically for the child
- telling a child that you saw her artwork published in the local newspaper	- cutting out the newspaper article and posting it in the classroom
- watching a child struggle to leave his mother's side when being dropped off in the morning	- holding the child's hand and offering words of encouragement as you walk him or her to class

In Goldstein and Lake's (2000) study on pre-service teachers' understandings of caring, many held long-standing notions that teaching shares the same basic premise as mothering, which is rooted in the concept of maternal instinct and motherly love being second nature or a gift to someone. Burgess and Carter (1992) identified a widely shared set of understandings based on *the Mumsy discourse*. This concept links young children with images of middle class mothering with "socially approved feminine virtues such as 'caring' and nurturance" (Burgess and Carter, 1992, p. 353). In other words, teachers are nice, friendly, warm, kind, gentle, and so on (Nias, 1989). A student from Goldstein and Lake's (2000) study said, "Caring can be shown in the classroom in a variety of ways… getting a bag for a student that lost a tooth, delegating

roles for students to be for the day, allowing students to make choices for certain activities, calling on students who do not have their hands raised and helping them along with the problem… and not being upset that you cannot get any work done at your desk because students are continually coming up to you with tons of questions." This viewpoint is grounded in the sense that one of the major roles of teaching is in serving children.

In contrast to the mothering personality associated with the "Mumsy Discourse," Bondy and Ross (2008) reiterate the work of Kleinfeld (1975), in regards to teachers being *warm demanders*. Kleinfeld (1975) coined the phrase *warm demander* to describe the type of teacher who was effective in teaching Athabaskan Indian and Eskimo 9th graders in Alaskan schools. These teachers demonstrated the ethic of care through what Kleinfeld referred to as "active demandingness." This demandingness is grounded in a caring relationship that convinces students that you believe in them. It is fostered by teachers that deliberately build relationships and truly *know* their students. This includes knowing them on an academic and personal level. It is being cognizant of students' learning-style preferences, as well as the idiosyncrasies that set them apart from other students. It is learning what the students are interested in and learning about their culture. It is the desire to deepen one's knowledge of who students are as individuals, and the students feel that sense of interest and care. In addition to knowing one's students, communicating expectations of success, and insisting that those expectations be met are another trait of warm demanders. They provide learning supports through a variety of activities and explain the curriculum in multiple ways. They support positive behavior and search for solutions rather than blaming students or dismissing their concerns. Most importantly, warm demanders "provide a tough-minded, no-nonsense, structured and disciplined environment" (Irvine & Fraser, 1998, p. 56). Bondy, Ross, Gallingane, and Hambacher (2007) note that the teachers'

assertive communication style, combined with their strategies for insisting that students follow through, created a climate in which teachers were taken seriously. Charney (2002) discussed ways these teachers convey expectations to students: Keep demands simple and short; dignify your words with actions; remind students only twice (the third time, 'you're out'); tell students what the non-negotiables are; and use words that invite cooperation. Warm demanders are able to maintain control and build community within their classrooms by providing a matter-of-fact, no nonsense, caring but firm environment.

Noblit (1993) spent one day a week for an entire year observing Pam, a teacher he deemed a powerful African American woman that set the climate of the classroom through a mix of power and caring. According to Noblit (1993), events or behaviors never threatened Pam's authority, and the children always knew who was in charge. Not only was Pam's class about teaching the subject matter, it was also about a meticulous process of making sure everyone knew what and how to do whatever was being assigned. Pam's power made the collectivity of the classroom stronger and each child stronger as a byproduct. Pam's power wasn't only used to keep order, set up lessons, and to evaluate performance, but it was also used to keep the classroom secure. She used her power to promote learning and achievement rather than dictate and berate. Pam could use tough love in the classroom because the students knew that ultimately she had their best interest at heart.

John Maxwell (2013) quoted Charlie Brower who once said, "Few people are successful unless a lot of other people want them to be" (p. 174). This applies directly to every classroom across the country. Students will not succeed at the level they are capable without the help of others. No matter what their teaching style may be, educators should know that their role is vital and requires intentional action rooted in the ethic of care. Pianta (1997) indicated that teachers

as adults bring to their relationships with children, an "affordance value" where they provide resources to support a child's intellectual, emotional, and social development. Relationships that have little conflict, moderate dependency, and high closeness are viewed as supportive and secure (Hamre & Pianta, 2005). Ryan et al. (1985) argue that feeling a connection in the classroom is one of three human needs that students should feel in the classroom. In order for students to feel motivated, they need to feel connected to their teacher and to their peers. Students need to feel like they belong and that they are valued. Closeness is the "emotional bond the student and teacher share with each other: with the highest closeness sharing a strong bond between the two."

With little or no effort, teachers already have one element working in their favor to develop relationships; that is proximity, occupying the same space every day. Unfortunately, this is not enough to create relationships where students feel affinity from their teacher. Shared interests and common understandings must occur in order for a relationship to truly develop. Noddings (1995) argues that closeness is an ethic, or an expressed obligation in the classroom. Teachers that care do so because they care about the human beings. Similarly, Goldstein (1999) focuses on the importance of teachers selecting learning activities that engage students, so they know the teachers care about them. Students appreciate teachers spending the time, effort, and energy in creating a learning environment that is meaningful to them. These teachers provide these environments without expecting or requiring anything from their students in return. From this perspective, closeness is viewed more as an action tendency rather than a felt emotion.

Newberry and Davis (2008) stated that three factors play a part in teachers' perception of closeness. The first was based on negotiating personalities, which is the teachers' perceptions of how close he or she feels to the student and how matched or mismatched their personalities were

30

with their students' personalities. Findings indicated that the teachers found it easier to feel close to students that were friendly, polite, or bright. Students that demonstrated charisma heightened the teachers' affinity for them. In contrast, students with aggressive, competitive, manipulative, or odd personalities tend to evoke a professional relationship with the teacher which is based on teachers responding to students out of a sense of duty rather than a personal liking of students. When teachers attempt to act professional they are often looking for ways to avoid uncomfortable situations rather than changing the pattern of interaction with the students. This need to act professional may seem impersonal, but at least it is an equitable way for teachers to treat students, even the ones they do not have close relationships with. Doing so demonstrates the ethic of care from teachers and stems from an ethos of justice and fairness. Teachers that felt neither close nor distant from students were considered to treat students casually because he or she responded in a casual, polite, friendly manner. Teachers were also 'reflective' with some students. These teachers paid attention to the 'how' and 'why' of the students' behaviors. They reflected on what happened in order to make adjustments for the future.

Dealing with challenges was the second factor which affected teachers' closeness to the students. Parental involvement, inappropriate classroom behavior, language barriers, and disabilities were a few areas that posed problems for teachers. In dealing with challenges, teachers would reflect, act casually, or act professionally to handle the situations.

The last factor that contributed to closeness was a press for relationships. Press is the emotional demands placed on the teacher. Teachers used the child's 'press' to judge the amount of effort that would need to apply to manage the press. Emotional effort such as modifying activities, addressing conflict, and worrying as well as academic efforts such as classroom management, instructional goals, and teaching are all elements of press. Some students have a

31

comfortable and balanced press while others do not. Unfortunately, many students that are not troublemakers, low achieving, gifted, or emotionally needy often get overlooked because they do not press the teacher more for a relationship.

Findings from Rudasill and Rimm-Kaufman (2009) indicated that children's shyness, effortful control, and gender predicted teachers' perceptions of the quality of their relationships with children. Children who were less shy and more outgoing were more likely to have relationships with teachers that were higher in conflict and closeness. Teacher-child conflict was higher because less shy children often speak out more often and require more attention. Teacher-child closeness was higher due to the less shy children displaying higher levels of spontaneous speech and sociability, which increase the frequency of interactions between teachers and children. This type of behavior can interrupt classroom activity; therefore, less shy children can be negatively perceived by the teacher.

As stated by Stuhlman and Pianta (2002), associations between teachers' perceptions of children's behavior and their ratings for teacher-child relationship quality found that teachers are more likely to express negative feelings about relationships with children whom they are observed to display negative (angry, harsh, hostile) behavior. Shyer children are less likely to have close relationships with teachers because those children typically don't form positive relationships and they are hesitant to engage in social interactions which are fewer interactions with the teacher. These students make fewer bids for attention from teachers, so they receive less attention.

Findings from Rudasill and Rimm-Kaufman (2009) also indicate that students with higher levels of effortful control (being able to stand in line quietly, raise their hand before speaking) are more likely to meet classroom expectations and are more likely to be perceived

32

positively by teachers.   In addition, as supported by previous literature (Hamre & Pianta, 2001),

boys were more likely to have conflictual relationships with teachers because they are typically

more aggressive than girls and externalize their behavior. This type of behavior lends itself to

teachers perceiving boys negatively and provides further evidence that boys may be at-risk for

negative teacher-child relationships. Lastly, this study showed that a child who initiates positive

conversations and behaviors receives more teacher attention, which ultimately fosters a closer

relationship between the two.

Students want teachers who communicate that they are "important enough to be pushed,

disciplined, taught, and respected" (Wilson & Corbett, 2001, p. 88). Huan, Quek, Yeo, Ang, and

Chong's (2012) study indicated that both male and female students' perceptions of their

teachers' support, criticism, satisfaction, conflict and admiration were predictive of their attitude

towards their teacher and their school. In other words, the students who found their teachers to

be supportive were more likely to display better attitudes towards their teachers and were more

willing to expend effort in completing class tasks. Students were also more apt to confide in

their teachers and work harder for the teachers they liked. These same students who perceived

their teachers in this light also felt their school environments to be understanding and warm.

Conversely, criticism and conflict were also predictive of student attitude toward teachers.

Relationships characterized by these traits were linked to negative student behavior. Being

disrespectful to teachers and less compliant to complete tasks are a few behaviors linked with the

negative teacher-student relationships. As far as gender differences, the research shows that

boys tend to perceive their teachers as a source of instrumental aid in helping them organize their

learning environments. Teachers are viewed as learning facilitators and challengers rather than

sources of emotional support; whereas girls have a greater tendency to develop interpersonal

relationships with teachers. Results indicated that boys are typically viewed as less compliant and their misbehaviors tend to be viewed by teachers as more serious than girls'. These perceptions infer that relationships with boys are more conflictual, which translates to boys facing a higher possibility of being punished by teachers compared to girls. This also correlates with the amount of boys not promoted to the next grade. Girls were perceived as less confrontational in their interactions with teachers and displayed more pro-social behaviors than boys, which facilitated a closer interpersonal relationship between teachers and females students. Teachers' perceptions of their relationships with their students exerted significant influence on students' academic performance, engagement in school, task compliance, and respect for teachers; therefore school-based intervention programs and professional development aimed at supporting teacher-student relationships should be enhanced in our school systems.

Based on the studies mentioned, personalities, challenges, press, shyness, effortful control, and gender are only a few among the many factors that affect closeness and connectedness between teachers and students. Factors such as those are oftentimes out of teachers control; therefore, teachers must focus on the one thing they can control…their classroom.

Benefits of Caring

Todd Whitaker (2011) claims that the most valuable gift a principal can give teachers is confidence. Helping build their skills, and then encouraging and praising when appropriate, can go a long way toward cultivating self-worth. The same holds true in the classroom. The most valuable gift teachers can give students is the gift of confidence."

Evidence suggests that the teacher-student relationship has a tremendous effect on the achievement of the student, both academically and in other domains (Pianta, 1997; Pianta &

Stuhulman, 2004). Conversely, a child's adjustment to school and participation in class can be negatively affected when the relationship formed between child and teacher is distressed (Mantzicopoulos, 2005). Research has indicated a significant relationship between high dropout rates and exposure to unorganized academic programs and poor teaching. Teaching and academic shortcomings lead to faculty and student morale problems that can poison a school's climate and culture (Duttweiler, 1995). There is agreement among researchers that the quality of young children's relationships with teachers predicts social and academic performance in school (Hamre & Pianta, 2001). These relationships allow them to develop effective social skills and to navigate challenges. Such relationships also provide children with school support systems that act as safety nets in academic and social situations, and promote children's more positive perceptions of school in general (La Paro, Pianta, and Stuhlman, 2004). Research reinforces the premise that students who find relationships in a school, whether with peers or adults, feel more connected to that school and are more likely to overcome the reis factors with which they are saddled (Schargel et al., 2007). Empirical evidence suggests that schools can greatly influence a student's feelings of belonging at school and that teachers are vital to the development of a climate and culture that keeps students in school (Carter, 2000). A leading reason motivating at-risk students to stay in school is that they want to please those in authority (Kortering, Konold, & Glutting, 1998).

When adults are asked to describe the best teacher they had in school, most tell about someone who made them feel valued and special. Very rarely do they speak of a teacher's technical excellence. Yes, subject matter is extremely important, but the only way to build a school that meets the needs of all students is to staff it with people who actually care for children. "In interviews with dropouts, the best teachers were seen as caring individuals who

tried to give extra help when students struggled. In contrast, the poorest teachers were seen as being uncaring and the worst described as mean. This research clearly indicates that improving the school, from a student perspective, is as "easy" as developing a more caring faculty. (Morris, 1994). Positive relationships with teachers are associated with emotional, cognitive, and behavioral engagement in the class (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). The more supportive teachers are in their relationships with students, the more comfortable and engaged the students are in the classroom (Reeve, 2006). Murdock (1999) found that a teacher's support and expectation were the strongest and most consistent predictor of a student's engagement and compliance in school. Over the last 30 years, there has been a growing body of literature documenting how students' sense of belongingness and relationship with others in the classroom has an effect on the learning environment. Studies have found that supportive teacher student relationships are correlated with emotional competencies and the motivation to succeed. In contrast, negative student teacher-relationships can adversely affect the learning environment and be a factor in students' lack of participation in the classroom. Studies have also shown that the emotional attention teachers provide children may have a greater impact than the instructional methods they choose to use. Not just the emotional attention but the distribution of emotional attention can also play a factor in students' success in the classroom. According to Babad (1990), students who perceive their teachers to have "teacher's pets" feel less supported by those teachers and often engage in undesirable personality and academic behaviors as well as decreased academic motivation. These same students with lesser academic ability are typically the ones to receive the least amount of emotional support from teachers.

Schargel et al., (2007) state that disruptive behavior in young students interferes with their ability to interact successfully with teachers and peers and is predictive of several negative

outcomes later in their academic careers. Those outcomes include academic difficulties, violent

behavior, and dropping out of school (Laffey, Espinosa, Moore, & Lodree, 2003). Pianta,

Steinberg, and Rollins (1995) found teacher reports on conflict in relationships to correlate with

increases in student problem behaviors and decreases in competence behaviors over time. The

more behavior problems a student exhibits, the more likely the teacher is to control the student's

behavior, which can hinder a positive school environment and ultimately cause teachers to

exclude these children from the classroom.

Kauffman, (1999) refers to the problem of behaviors in school settings as the "rhetorical

darling" in both the educational and policy arenas. As most researchers would agree, prevention

of the "rhetorical darling" involves the establishment of positive school environments that

promote and maintain appropriate student behaviors while addressing the undesirable behaviors

through targeted intervention and procedures. This process does not evolve on its own; rather, it

requires effortful strategies put in place by the administrators and teachers in the school. Results

of former research shows that classrooms are not typically supportive of appropriate behaviors

for students who have been identified to exhibit problem behaviors. Typically, students with

behavior problems have more negative interactions with their teacher. High rates of negative

interaction with their teachers are linked to high rates of teacher commands. Because of this,

teachers tend to focus solely on the negative behaviors and interactions with these students

because they are accustomed to doing so; therefore, they and often neglect to recognize or praise

these same students when they do demonstrate appropriate behavior. Van Acker, Grant, and

Henry (1996) found that inappropriate behaviors of students were predictive of reprimands;

however, no student behaviors – including appropriately complying with teacher commands –

were predictive of teacher praise. Observational data also shows that students with poor

behavior, may not receive instructionally rich and academically supportive classroom environments due to the fact that teachers decrease their attempts to engage these students for fear that they will trigger or escalate disruptive behavior.

Instead of schools relying on interventions that are reactive, the author suggests taking a more proactive approach. Teachers should be active agents of prevention that regulate the classroom environment to promote appropriate student behaviors. The teacher should encourage appropriate academic and social behavior by recognizing and reinforcing positive interactions.

Development of Care

According to a number of recent studies, while the roles of teacher and student may vary across cultural contexts, the fact that the parties condition each other to respond and behave in certain ways is evident in classrooms (Babad, 1990; Newberry & Davis, 2008; Reeve, 2006). Research also states that students with the best relationships with their teachers are reported as getting the best quality of teaching time from the teacher (Brophy, 1974). Goldstein (1999) states that caring relationships play a central role in children's cognitive growth and should be thought of as more than just a vehicle for enhancing self-esteem and also enabling pleasant exchanges in the classroom. With caring at the heart of the work that teachers do, all their activities should be based on it; all of their actions should be considered in terms of their impact on the welfare of their students (Mayeroff, 1971).

Noddings (1984) identifies four components of care-based education, each representing how to care *'for'* students and encourage their goodness as people. First, modeling. Modeling is an important component to all aspects of teaching but in caring it is vital. Teachers must show *how* to care through their relationships with others. This includes how to appropriately handle the student who challenges authority, the colleague who interrupts class to complain about her

38

coworkers, or the parent that berates the teacher for mistakes of the child. Students are always watching. *Always.* Teachers should be conscientious of their actions and their words, not only *what* they say, but *how* they say it. Caring teachers ask themselves, "Could I have put what I said better? Did I help or hinder this student?" Teachers that model competency know their content and pedagogy, have well prepared lessons with smooth transitions, and display consistency with their words and actions. They are able to monitor student behavior without embarrassing the students, and when a student makes mistakes these teachers try to focus on what caused the mistake to prevent it from happening again, as opposed to merely blaming the student. When teachers respond this way to students, most often the students freely and eagerly respond the teacher, not because they had to but because they wanted to. Even if a child is too young to be model care, he or she can learn how to receive it, which is essential to fostering caring relations. Students want teachers that care. They want teachers that ask their opinions on subject matter, instructional materials, classroom management, and discipline procedures. Students are keenly aware when a teacher takes the time to go the extra mile.

The best way to facilitate modeling and caring is to use Noddings second component, dialogue. When teachers engage in *true* dialogue through informal conversations, they build relationships. True dialogue is open-ended. It is a common search for understanding, empathy, or appreciation. It can be playful or serious, logical or imaginative, goal or process oriented, but it is always a genuine quest for something undetermined at the beginning. Students learn to affirm their voices and know they are trusted when they can engage with adults in open dialogue. According to Noddings a perfect dialogue is cyclical and will build stronger and stronger relationships and will help students to arrive at better-formed decisions in the long run. The easiest way for teachers to have dialogue with students is through informal conversations; during

this time, both students and teachers can share personal anecdotes, interests, and events. Teachers can also provide weekly class meetings where students are encouraged to express their feelings and discuss problems, engage in conversation and receive attention, as well as practice listening, empathizing, and attending to one another. This can be done with lower grades in a share circle, or it can be done in higher grades through journaling, blogging, or class dialogues.

The third component is practice. In order to develop a capacity to care, students must practice the ability to care. Teachers can facilitate classroom activities or simulations where care is embedded within academic instruction, or they can acknowledge and encourage the ethic of care when it occurs naturally between students. The act of affirming and encouraging the best in others is what Noddings refers to as confirmation, the fourth component of care-based instruction. Noddings claims that confirmation only works when the carer and cared-for know each other and trust each other, so the affirmation is both taken and received genuinely. Confirmation is especially significant in nurturing relationships with children because when we acknowledge and value them for who they can become, we empower them to achieve their goals.

In Rogers and Webb (1991) study of the ethic of caring in teacher education, one recurring theme surfaced from all teachers' interviews: good teachers care, and good teaching is inextricably linked to specific acts of caring. Good teaching is not solely based on delivering content, rather it is based on how teachers interact and relate to the students. Teachers that incorporate care through interpersonal relationships and effectively embed care into the curriculum are capable of getting the best of both worlds: academic and behavioral success. This does not occur by coincidence; teachers must be trained. Rogers & Webb (1991) share a similar framework as Noddings (1984) regarding how to prepare novice teachers for successful classrooms. They include Noddings (1984) four components, while suggesting three more

40

components of a successful teacher education program designed to promote the ethic of care.

First, construction of curriculum. This includes involving students in the construction of the

curriculum and embedding personal and cognitive goals within each day. Second, model. To be

a caring teacher, one must watch a caring teacher. Observing educators who model caring and

encourage its development through acceptance, sensitivity, listening, and responding is essential.

Third, dialogue. Just as it is important for students to have dialogue in the classroom, it is

imperative that novice teachers have meaningful conversations with their students and their

colleagues in order to learn. Fourth, practice. Teachers need hands on experiences to put caring

into action. Fifth, continuity. Pre-service teachers need ample opportunities to practice

interpersonal relationships with a sustained group of students over an extended period of time.

Sixth, reflection. After pre-service teachers make decisions, they need to time to reflect on the

experiences. Lastly, confirmation. These teachers should be affirmed and congratulated when

they integrate caring into their classrooms.

Newberry (2010) outlines four teacher characteristics that aid in the effort to create

caring, healthy, and productive student-teacher relationships: Appraisal, Agreement, Testing,

and Planning. In the Appraisal phase, the parties get to know each other, reconcile any

preconceived notions about one another, and establish roles. In the Agreement phase, the teacher

reinforces rules, sets expectations, and establishes routines. The Testing phase consists of

exploring limits and boundaries including limits of personalities, authority, conduct, and

classroom norms. The Planning phase is dedicated to moving the relationship along and includes

reflection, preparation, communicating, and participation. These phases do not move in a linear

pattern, rather each phase may be revisited numerous times. Being sensitive to each student's

needs as he or she moves through these phases has a great impact on his or her classroom

performance. Teachers reflecting on what they know about a child (Appraisal), using what has been successful in the past (Agreement), anticipating a variety of responses (Testing), and determining how to handle various situations (Planning) are all elements of relationship building that are rooted in the ethic of care from teachers attempting to know and thus care *for* and *about* their students.

According to O'Donnoll, Reeve, and Smith (2011) attunement, relatedness, supportiveness, and gentle discipline are all components of a successful classroom. Attunement, occurs when teachers read and sense students' state of being and adjust their instruction accordingly (Kochanska, 2002). Relatedness is a sense of being close to another person; it entails feeling special and important to that person (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Establishing a sense of relatedness within the teacher-student relationship is important because it gives students a sense of security about themselves and about being with others (Reeve, 2006). Relatedness is an especially good predictor of students' high classroom engagement (Furrer & Skinner, 2003) and how classroom disruptions (Murdock, 1999). Supportiveness is affirmation of the other person's capacity for self-direction. When teacher support their students, they accept students for who they are, express their faith that students can self-regulate their behavior, and assist students as they try to realize the goals they have set for themselves (Reeve, 2006). Gentle discipline is a socializing strategy that involves explaining why a particular way of thinking or behaving is right or wrong. Gentle discipline is a verbal, relationship-based approach to discipline that begins with a conversation to draw attention to the hurtful effect that the student's misbehavior had on others (Grusec & Goodnow, 1994).

The 5 Love Languages

Similar to theorists specializing in the ethic of care, Gary Chapman (1992) presents the concept of the five love languages. Gary Chapman is a relationship counselor and author of *The 5 Love Languages* series. He is the director of Marriage and Family Life Consultants, Inc. He has a radio program on marriage and relationships that airs on over 400 stations and can be heard via the internet. He is a graduate of Moody Bible Institute and holds a Bachelor of Arts degree from Wheaton College, a Master of Arts degree in anthropology from Wake Forest University, a Master of Religious Education and Doctor of Philosophy degrees from Southwestern Baptist Theological Seminary. He is also the senior associate pastor of Calvary Baptist Church in Winston-Salem, North Carolina. He has authored over 30 books, including his best seller *The 5 Love Languages* which has been translated into over 40 languages (News Release Today, 2016).

According to Chapman (1992), people have *emotional love tanks* that need to be filled in order to feel loved and appreciated. In order to fill that tank, others must make conscious efforts to speak the languages that resonate with the person's tank that needs to be fueled. The amount of fullness in this tank is based on the amount of unconditional love a child feels. In this tank is a child's ability to pull emotional strength to fuel him or her through challenging circumstances. Unfortunately, the problem both parents and educators face is 1) ignorance in knowing that their children even have emotional tanks and 2) the knowledge base on how to fill those tanks up. Just like Howard Garner (1985) revealed seven key ways students learn through his cognitive research, Chapman shares five key ways students can receive love. As students tanks become filled, in turn, they will learn various ways to *show* love to others. The key to filling up a child's love tank is learning to speak his or her unique love language. Different children will speak different languages, just as children have different personalities. As they children grow, so do

their love tanks. Chapman believes that there are 5 primary love languages and individuals all have a primary (usually one, maybe two) love language which makes them feel loved. Those languages include: physical touch, words of affirmation, receiving gifts, acts of service, and quality time.

Physical touch could be considered as hugs, holding hands, high fives, pats on the back, a touch on the shoulder, a pat on the head, or any other form of gentle and appropriate human contact. *Words of affirmation* are written or verbal words that communicate love, praise, encouragement, and positive guidance. Praise and affection are similar, but there is a difference between the two. Affection is based on expressing appreciation for the very being of child. Praise is expressing affection for what the child does. People with this language need verbal compliments and words of appreciation. They need to be told that what they are doing is good and pleasing. *Gifts* are tangible objects given with the expression of love that should be purposefully chosen. They do not have to monetary tokens of affection, rather they could be hand written notes, flowers picked from the side of the road, memorabilia passed down, or any other object that shows the receiving person that they were thought of. They enjoy having those gifts to keep and view as symbols of love, something that they can see and touch that demonstrates that they are loved. *Acts of service* is providing assistance or effort to a child with compassion and genuine love. These acts of service include doing things such as cleaning ones room, washing clothes, making a favorite meal, braiding hair, sewing up torn jeans, or any other deed that is thought out and planned, and then done with a positive attitude and loving intent. *Quality time* is spending purposeful time with a child. It is characterized by togetherness with focused attention on one another. These people need to do things with others and have the capability to have quality conversations where they can express feelings and be listened to. This

can come through storytelling, conversations, going to events together, or even spending quiet time with a child.

According to Chapman (1992), people have one or two primary love languages, which is how they *receive* love. In turn, people tend to *give* love to others by speaking the language that they enjoy receiving. Unfortunately, the person on the receiving end may not feel loved if the love language being shown is not the receiving person's preference. Over time, a mismatch of the need for particular languages to be spoken can cause emotional tanks to become depleted or remain empty. For example, if a child's love language is physical touch, no amount of verbal praise will replace a child's need for hugs, physical play, and so forth. Or if a child's love language is acts of service, gifts will not replace the love communicated through packing that child their favorite lunch or sewing up a hole in their favorite pair of jeans.

Chapman's (1992) framework is based on the premise that people should be mindful of enacting certain behaviors related to the five languages in order to maintain one's own well-being, others' well-being, and relationships' well-being. Because children can be selfish, they are often unaware of how to communicate with others. Modeling all five love languages shows them various ways that they can express themselves. Many students have parents that work two jobs and are not home much to share quality time or acts of service. Others have parents that may not be able to afford gifts. Some may have parents who offer little to no affection or encouragement. School may be the only time or place where some students receive any fuel to fill their emotional tanks.

Teachers should be cognizant that when giving praise, children know when it is given for justified reasons and when it is given simply to make them feel good, in which they may interpret the affection as insincere. Although showing all five languages to children is important,

it can also benefit the child and the teacher for the teacher to find the child's "primary" love language and speak it more often than the other four languages. According to Chapman (1992), there are five ways to do this. First, observe how the student expresses love to you. Second, observe how the student expresses love to others. Third, listen to what the student requests most often. Fourth, notice what the student most frequently complains about. Last, give the student choices between the various language options.

The concept of filling a child's emotional tank coincides with Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. Having self-actualization, esteem, belonging, safety, and physiological needs met or not met, can affect a child for the rest of his or her life. Teachers that can incorporate the five love languages into the classroom on a regular basis can attribute to the development of the whole child.

Miller (2007) discusses the notion of a child being a "whole person" layered with an intellectual, creative, aesthetic, social, spiritual, emotional, and physical being. His point is based on the premise that when teachers lack the ability to acknowledge a child's body and the impact of their body in the classroom, they are not acknowledging the child as a whole person. In many cases, touching is an expression of affection that is deemed taboo or inappropriate and sexual in nature. Many school districts have discouraged or even prohibited its existence (Miller, 2007).

Andrzejewski & Davis (2008) sought to understand teachers' decisions about touch in the classroom based on the literature on teachers' instructional decision making. Their study focused on how teachers make decisions about how to connect physically and emotionally with their students. Deciding to touch a student involved some means of determining what their students' touch needs and preferences were. Teachers discussed three types of cues: feeling

cues, heard cues, and felt cues. Feeling cues represent tangible, tactile experiences such as students pulling back or shying away from touch or students calming down from touch. Heard cues represent what students say. Oftentimes students verbally communicate what they want or need. Felt cues are based on the teacher's ability to see or feel what the students are communicating nonverbally. This can be done through eye contact, gestures, or postures. Reading these cues allows teachers to know their students and be "with-it." A teacher with "withitness" is constantly aware of all that is occurring in the classroom. This teacher also communicates this awareness, through both words and actions to students. This trait is an essential component in making sound classroom management decisions and good decisions regarding teacher-student relationships and human contact in the classroom.

The purpose of Botkin & Twardosz' (1988) study was to determine if there was a difference in the amount of affection teachers expressed to individuals versus groups of children and to determine if there was a difference in the amount of affection teachers expressed to female and male children. Teachers' behaviors were measured by direct observation in the natural setting. The measurement system included facial, verbal, and physical forms of affection. The categories of affectionate behavior were smiling (smiling or laughing at or with others), affectionate words (statements of liking, enjoying, complimenting, or praising), active affectionate physical contact (hugging, tickling, wrestling, bouncing), and passive affectionate physical contact (holding hands or holding another in one's lap).

Results of this study yielded two conclusions. First, teachers expressed more affection to individual male and female children than to groups of children. This is consistent with Schutz's theory (1979) that "affection occurs primarily in dyadic interactions rather than in group interactions." Of the four categories of affectionate behavior, smiling was the only one that did

47

not make a difference in expressing affection. It could be concluded that maybe teachers do not

consider smiling as personally intimate as the other categories. Smiling may also be more easily

expressed to a group. The second conclusion was that teachers expressed more affection to

female children than to males. This was concluded from smiling, and active and passive

affectionate physical contact. This backs Perdue and Connor's (1978) findings that female

teachers touched girls at a higher rate per hour. But it is inconsistent with Serbin, O'Leary, Kent,

and Tonick's (1973) findings that teachers praised and hugged boys more than girls based on

their participation. Affectionate words did not support the findings; whereas, teachers may not

have distinguished between male and female children because as a teacher, it's their job to praise

appropriate behavior no matter what gender it comes from.

Based on the findings from this study, it is possible that because females receive more

affection from teachers, they may have more opportunities to learn about affection and

reciprocate the process. Females may also perceive their teachers as sources of support and

encouragement, whereas boys may not. Ultimately, in addition to group activities, teachers

should provide activities that foster one-to-one interactions, so that opportunities for affection

can occur.

Teacher praise can effectively reinforce students to follow directions, stay on task,

respond to questions, and complete work. The skilled use of contingent praise to increase

positive behavior has been shown to decrease disruptive behavior like inappropriate talk and

turning around in one's seat. Combining praise with decreased attention to "problem" behavior

can lead to decreases in talk outs and arguing with teacher requests.

Teachers must realize that some forms of teacher praise may work with one student but

not another. Older students may respond differently than younger ones, and students with a

history of negative attention may not know how to handle positive attention. Regardless, it is important to keep trying. Teachers should be mindful of the praise they give; it must be purposeful. First, it should be linked to specific behavior. Second, it should be informative. Third, it should be meaningful and ultimately help build the connection between the teacher and student. Fourth, it should be suited for the particular child. Just like instruction should be differentiated, teacher praise should be differentiated. If the praise becomes generic, it loses its effectiveness with the students. "Praise must be authentic. This doesn't mean that praise must be reserved for genuine world-record performances. It just has to be true, that's all" (Whitaker, 2012). Teachers must be keenly aware of the frequency, authenticity, and tone used behind their praise in order for it to truly make an impact on students.

What teachers say to students and how they say it is one of the most powerful teaching tools. Almost every aspect of teaching is associated with words. These words can be used to build students up or tear students down. They have the potential to shape students more than any textbook or assignment. Oral language shapes not only thoughts, but also feelings and experiences. It contributes to students' sense of identity; it helps students understand how to work and play appropriately; and it influencing students' relationships with others.

According to Denton (2008), there are five guiding principles to using positive language. First, teachers should be direct. When teachers say what they mean and mean what they say in a kind, straight forward tone, students learn that they can trust them. It helps them to feel respected and safe. It is important to be direct with students without being sarcastic. Many teachers find sarcasm as a means of humor in the classroom, but what they fail to realize is how it diminishes the relationship with the child and has the potential to weaken the relationship with other students if they associate the teacher with insult instead of emotional stability. Second, the

teacher should convey faith in the students' abilities and intentions. Everyone wants to feel believed in. When words convey faith in a student's ability to do well, the students oftentimes 'want' to do well for the teacher. In doing so, it is important for teachers to always use appropriate tone in any dialogue they have with students. Third, the teacher should focus on actions, not abstractions. Students don't always understand words if they aren't associated with concrete actions. Fourth, teachers should keep it brief. Children often lose focus when adults go off on wordy tangents. Instead of bombarding students with expectations, sometimes it is best to speak less and ask them to remind, explain, or share whatever point is trying to be made.

Chapman's Work and Relational Maintenance

Prior to Chapman's work, multiple theories on relational maintenance had been raised similar to the components within Chapman's findings. Relationship maintenance behaviors have been defined as actions that are "expended to maintain the nature of the relationships to the individual's satisfaction" (Stafford & Canary, 1991, p. 220). These behaviors can be performed strategically or routinely in the sense that performance of certain actions may serve maintenance functions even if they were not performed with the sole intention of maintaining a relationship (Dainton & Stafford, 1993). These behaviors are said to contribute to the stability and longevity of relationships and have been identified by numerous authors. Dindia & Canary (1993) describe relational maintenance as behaviors enacted to preserve desired relational features.

Relationship maintenance entails actions or behaviors that individuals engage in to sustain a specified relational state (Canary & Dainton, 2006). Canary and Stafford (1994) note that maintenance is an ongoing process; without it, relationships will naturally deteriorate. Maintenance behaviors vary by relationship type, the stage of the relationship, individual

differences, and relational idiosyncrasies. Several typologies have been developed to examine how maintenance behaviors differ between individuals and across relationship types. The majority of time that partners have in a relationship is spent maintaining it (Duck, 1988), or engaging in activities that keep it in existence, in a specified or satisfactory condition, or in repair (Dindia, 2003). Most important of these activities are strategic and routine communication behaviors such as openness, positivity, and assurances (Dainton & Stafford, 2000; Stafford & Canary, 1991). The perceived use of these communication strategies is associated with relational stability and escalation, and a lack of perceptions of them can signal a relationship headed toward de-escalation. Thus, relational maintenance is a process through which relationships unfold, stabilize, or change, and it is enacted through both mediated and unmediated communication (Ledbetter, 2010; Ramirez & Broneck, 2009).

Research by Canary, Stafford, and Semic (2002) has affirmed the importance of *ongoing* use of these maintenance strategies for relationship well-being. Based on Stafford and Canary's (1991) strategies, it would seem that more emotional strategies, such as having open communication and expressing love, would be the most powerful maintenance strategies. Dainton and Stafford (1993), however, found that sharing tasks (a very everyday sort of behavior) was the maintenance behavior most frequently mentioned by participants. As Duck (1994) commented, "Relational maintenance contains two elements, not one; the first is strategic planning for the continuance of the relationship; and the second is the breezy allowance of the relationship to continue by means of the everyday interactions and conversations that make the relationship what it is." In addition to the above, sex differences have been found to influence the use of relationship maintenance behaviors. Women were reported to be more likely than men to use prosocial behaviors, while men were more likely to use more avoidance behaviors perhaps

51

due to the desire to cope autonomously with relationship problems (Simon & Baxter, 1993).

Their conclusion that women undertook more efforts to maintain relationships were similar to

that of previous studies (Canary & Stafford, 1992).

Canary and Stafford (1992) created a five-category typology for relational maintenance.

The categories are assurances, openness, positivity, sharing tasks, and social networks.

Assurances, favoring Chapman's words of affirmation, provides partners with information about

the importance of the relational commitment, with a focus on expressed commitment,

faithfulness, and love. *Openness* favors Chapman's belief of couples making requests of one

another instead of demands. It encourages disclosure and open communication. *Positivity,*

which encourages enjoyable interactions and optimistic feelings between partners mirrors

Chapman's idea of offering positive comments. It is grounded in the ability to be upbeat,

cheerful, or optimistic towards others. *Sharing tasks*, favoring Chapman's acts of service,

involves performing duties or completing responsibilities of the relationship. *Social networks,*

refers to engaging with family members or mutual friends to maintain the relationship, similar to

Chapman's language of quality time. The ongoing use of these five behaviors substantially

predicted relational characteristics that constituted relational quality, such as liking the partner,

commitment to the relationship, and satisfaction (Canary & Stafford, 1992).

In 2010, Stafford comprised an expansion of Canary and Stafford's (1992) original

conceptualization, expanding the five factors to seven factors. The two new factors added to the

existing (assurances, openness, positivity, sharing tasks, and social networks) were

understanding, described as instances of apologizing, forgiving, and nonjudgmental and

relationship talks, which entailed dialogue about the quality of the relationship and individual

feelings towards the relationship.

There is evidence to support the notion that love styles comprised of emotional, cognitive, and behavioral patterns likely exist, and that these love styles or languages may offer insight into the needs and meaningfulness of particular actions for others Cook et al. (2013). In 2003, Cook et al. conducted a study to explore whether the proposed love languages described by Chapman could be reliably demonstrated and measured through a novel instrument, and to what extend those languages are orthogonal as Chapman (1992) suggests. Participants completed a 5-point Likert scale with 40-items assessing preferences of the five love languages. After conducting a factor analysis, it was determined that the factors produced did not strictly correspond to the five languages defined by Chapman's theory (1992), but five discernible patterns of affectionate factors did emerge (Cook et al., 2013). The strongest factor included items that represented a *sacrificial* love language, which displayed a pattern of sacrifice of time, energy, and affection. The second strongest factor was comprised of items reflecting *intimate* love, including both physical/affectionate and verbal intimacy. The third factor represented *quality time* with items reflecting time spent together. The fourth factor was comprised of *supportive* love with acts of service and words of affirmation standing as the overarching theme, with items specifically related to providing loving words under distressing circumstances, helping, and encouraging as the underlying themes. The fifth and weakest factor suggested a *comforting* love, with items demonstrating comforting/protecting factors. In summary, Cook and colleagues (2013) suggest the love languages proposed by Chapman (1992) take the form of the five domains identified in their findings: sacrificial, intimate, quality time, supportive, and comforting love. Also evidenced in the findings were that some items loaded strongly on multiple factors. This could be contributed to items construed as one love language, such as acts of service, which may have also loaded as quality time, indicating that the action is meaningful

53

and appreciated for a variety of reasons and can affect individuals' experience of feeling loved on different levels. Although new data was obtained from this study, Cook et al (2013) concluded that their effort to strengthen the empirical support or refutation of Chapman's asserted number and independence of languages was equivocal at best. However, results did suggest that expression and experience of love may be a difficult phenomenon to operationalize in that connecting an expression of love to a single language, and even then, creating universalized behavioral examples or scenarios exemplifying that single language. With the wide array of ways to express affection, it is quite probably that generating a reliable, empirically robust categorical organization of love languages would be unachievable. Cook et al (2013), findings did suggest that the styles demonstrated in the study may reflect the agapic (sacrificial), erotic (intimate), and filial (supportive) forms of love previously advocated by Lee (1973).

The color wheel theory of love, created by Canadian psychologist John Alan Lee (1973) describes six styles of love. First introduced in his book *Colours of Love: An Exploration of the Ways of Loving* (1973), Lee defines three primary, three secondary, and nine tertiary love styles, describing them in terms of the traditional color wheel. Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) expanded on Lee's (1973) work and developed a self-report questionnaire, known as the Love Attitudes Scale (LAS) operationalizing the six love styles: eros (passionate love), ludus (game playing love), storge (friendship love), mania (possessive love), pragma (logical love), and agape (selfless love). Eros and agape love styles typically foster relationship satisfaction (Fricker & Moore, 2002) while pragma and store love styles use both comforting and regulative communication skills in the relationship (Kunkel & Burleson, 2003). However, the ludus love style typically produces relationships characterized by dissatisfaction, cheating, and defeatist attitudes towards romance (Fricker and Moore, 2002; Hahn & Blass, 1997) while the mania love

54

style produces relationships involving depression and self-esteem problems (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986). Goodboy, et. al (2010) conducted a study examining to what extent Hendrick and Hendrick's (1986) love styles (i.e., eros, ludus, storge, pragma, mania, agape) predict romantic partners' perceptions of their own use of negative maintenance behaviors (i.e., jealousy, avoidance, spying, infidelity, destructive conflict). Results indicated that relational quality indicators were significant predictors of reported negative maintenance use. Collectively, these results, suggest that quality romantic relationships are not maintained by negative maintenance behaviors (Goodboy, et. al, 2010). Based on Goodboy et al., (2010), the type of love displayed to others is a direct correlation of the quality of the relationship.

Egbert and Polk (2006) sought to validate the existence of Chapman's five love languages by creating an instrument developed from concepts found in Chapman's work and analyzed its construct validity by comparing the love language subscales to Stafford, Dainton and Haas' (2000) established measure of relational maintenance behaviors. Stafford et al.'s (2000) measure was selected because it confirmed the validity of Canary and Stafford's (1992) widely used five-category relational maintenance typology (*assurances, openness, positivity, social networks, and shared tasks*) along with two other behaviors that Stafford et al. (2000) added that reflect maintenance behaviors, *advice* and *conflict management*. Participants completed a 5-point Likert scale with 20 items assessing how frequently they displayed behaviors associated with each of the love languages. (After conducting a factor analysis, they concluded that the five factor model only marginally fit the data, but was a superior fit to the one, three, and four factor models evaluated. They also found a degree of inter-correlation among the love languages, particularly words of affirmation and quality time, which suggests that they languages may not be as orthogonal as Chapman suggested. The subscale relationships also

suggest that perhaps the Stafford et al. scale reflects the intentions of the communicator, whereas, the love languages are the behaviors people enact to carry those intentions to the recipient (Egbert and Polk, 2006). Although Egbert and Polk added insight to Chapman's work through their 2006 study, their assessment focused on the frequency of love languages used; whereas assessing preferences of love languages would demonstrate more fidelity to Chapman's findings.

In 2013, Egbert and Polk resumed their research by testing the construct validity of their 2006 study by examining the feelings of both partners versus one partner. Conclusions from that study indicated no significant differences in the results and that further testing should be conducted before making any generalizations about the love languages (Polk & Egbert, 2013).

Floyd (2006) found a link between verbal, non-verbal, and supportive acts of affection and physiological state, including mental health. Floyd (2006) claimed that humans need to be shown they are loved, and other researchers have documented ways people accomplish this expression (Villard & Whipple, 1976). Although Chapman uses the term "speak," four of the love languages largely are nonverbal; however, despite the word choice, the five love languages include behaviors that fall under the scope of what Floyd and Morman (1998) named a tripartite model of affectionate behavior (verbal, nonverbal, and supportive behaviors).

Robert Lemiux (1996) conducted a study exploring the notion that certain behaviors are perceived as indicative of expressing love. To signal one's love for another requires recognition of one's act as being love-related. In other words, both parties must mutually recognize certain behaviors as indicative of expressing love. Martson, Hecht, and Robers, (1987) and Hecht, Marston, and Larkey (1994) attempted to explicate love behaviors by focusing on the way love is communicated, which was measured by the use of categories of sending and receiving love.

Although behaviors are mentioned in each of their derived categories, the emphasis is on the over-all ways in which love is communicated, e.g., cognitively, physiologically, nonverbally. The main factors included in this study were Mutual Activity, Special Occasion, Offerings, Sacrifices, and Selfless. The present study extended and supported previous research on love behaviors by explicating routine behaviors indicative of expressing love. Although no behaviors were observed directly, the results indicated that individuals are able to point to specific behaviors as being love-related. This is best reflected by the fact that individuals who reported never having been in love were just as likely to perceive the behaviors as indicative of the role of culture in Beall and Sternberg's (1995) discussion of the constructionist approach to love. The results also indicated that, with the exception of the Special Occasion behaviors, women placed a greater emphasis on the behaviors than men. This would seem to imply two things. First, both genders agree as to the relative importance of marking special occasions. Second, women perceive the other factors to be more indicative of love than men. This raises questions concerning the effects these differing perceptions may have upon a relationship. The role of love behaviors can also be linked to other love research. Dainton, Stafford, and McNielis (1992) discussed the strategic nature of certain routine behaviors used in the maintenance of relationships. Perhaps the same questions could be applied to routine love behaviors. Namely, are there specific behaviors that a relational partner will abide by to gain compliance with desired behavior?

There are two types of connections a teacher can make with the students in the classroom: human connection and academic connection. The human connection is a connection between two people in a classroom setting. The teacher is glad they have those students in the class and genuinely cares for them. The academic connection is between someone who wants to

learn and someone who wants to teach. Freed forcefully argues that it is the combination of human and academic connections that bring the greatest academic achievements for the students. Freed writes, "Teaching the five love languages creates understanding for students, educators, and families about what motivates them intrinsically. At the heart of what motivates us is what makes us feel loved. And understanding what makes ourselves and others feel loved meets the deepest of human needs for connection." Freed argues that the learning environment transcends gender, race, religion, culture, behavior, economics, traumatic experiences, and ideological differences. The academic connection in the classroom comes through strong academic teaching and lessons that draw focus to what is most important.

A productive discussion of education's aims must acknowledge that schools are established to serve both individuals and the larger society. Unfortunately, the viewpoint of many in this day and time is that the U.S. simply needs competent workers who will keep the nation competitive in the world market. But both history and common sense tell us that a democratic society expects much more. It wants graduates who exhibit sound character, have a social conscience, think critically, are willing to make commitments, and are aware of global problems (Soder, Goodlad, & McMannon, 2001). In addition, a democratic society needs an education system that helps to sustain its democracy for developing thoughtful citizens who can make wise choices. John Dewey (1916) pointed out, a democratic society is continually changing - sometimes for the better, sometimes for the worse - and it requires citizens who are willing to participate and competent enough to distinguish between the better and the worse. A climate in which caring relations can flourish should be the goal for all teachers and educational policymakers. In such a climate, educators can best meet individual needs, impart knowledge, and encourage the development of moral people. Every teacher is a moral educator, and

social/moral issues should be discussed in every class as they arise. A climate of care and trust is

one in which most people will want to do the right thing (Noddings, 2012).

Chapter III: Methods

This chapter describes the methodology that was used to develop the index and conduct the research study. There were three stages involved in conducting this study. Stage One (March-April, 2013) included concept clarification, completion of initial item generation and revisions based on the expert panel's recommendations. Stage Two (May-June, 2013) included IRB approval, pilot testing and index revisions based on the focus group's recommendations. Stage Three (August-September, 2013) included final administration of the index, data collection and analysis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the five modes of caring for students. Using Gary Chapman's (1992) five love languages and additional work by Noddings (1984) and Gilligan (1982), the researcher designed a study to determine if there was dominant mode of caring for second grade students in order to explore how teachers might best demonstrate the ethic of care in their classrooms. With diversity increasing in the classrooms of U.S. public schools, teachers must be well versed in how to demonstrate the ethic of care. Studies suggest that the benefits of a teacher caring for his or her students include: positive effects on students' social and academic performance, engagement, motivation, self-esteem, and self-connectedness.

Research Objectives

The research objectives for this study included the following:

1.) To determine the relationships between six classroom scenarios and the Five Modes of Caring functions (i.e., Touch, Words, Gifts, Service, Quality Time).

2.) To determine if there is a difference between male and female second grade participants' perceptions of the Five Modes of Caring as represented by participants' reported index scores.

3.) To determine if there is a difference among ethnic groups of second grade participants' perceptions of the Five Modes of Caring as represented by participants' reported index scores.

Research Design

      Instrument development and validation. In Stage One, the researcher administered Gary Chapman's *Love Language Profile for Children* to a classroom of second grade students. The profile was comprised of 20 *either/or* item numbers, in which students were encouraged to 'pick the one they preferred.' The researcher found that the survey was both timely and lengthy for students to complete; therefore the researcher constructed a condensed version of the instrument, with the intent to 1) gather information in a more time effective manner and 2) determine if one love language stood out over the others, especially regarding race and gender.

      Five educators were enlisted to serve as the expert panel and assist in validating the instrument. Three of the panel members were selected based on their knowledge of the five languages and their experience in the educational field, in particular with primary aged students. Two of the panel members were selected based on their experience in developing research instruments and analyzing statistics.

      According to Babbie (2001), there are four main steps involved in creating an index: selecting possible items, examining their empirical relationships, scoring the index, and validating it. The panel was asked to review item content and clarity focusing on appropriateness to the love language being assessed, and any other related issue that might result

in improving each item or the index as a whole. The panel agreed that assembling an instrument where students would rank items would be more appropriate than the students completing a Likert-type scale due to the age of the sample population. Comprising ranking type questions would also allow more information to be embedded within each item number since it forces respondents to first consider all of the options and hence increase the likelihood that they rate them in a comparative manner (Harzing et al., 2009).   Ranking generally requires a higher level of attention than rating, as all answer alternatives have to be considered before making a choice. As a result, ranking might lead to higher data quality (Alwin & Krosnick, 1985). The panel also formulated explicit directions for the teachers administering the index in order to alleviate discrepancies upon delivering the instrument to students.

In the construction phase, an initial list of items was generated for the index based on themes that ran throughout the related literature and the existing survey created by Gary Chapman. The objectives of the instrument were identified, and the format was determined by the specific data that needed to be collected. The index was constructed so that students were given six different classroom scenarios and asked to rank order the reward functions from 1 to 5 with 1 as the most appropriate reward he or she would like to receive and 5 as the least appropriate reward he or she would like to receive. Ranking was chosen versus rating for several reasons. First, the composition of each item number is based on ranking numbers, which is a state standard that second grade students should be proficient in; therefore, it lends itself to be "kid friendly." Second, although the index is only six items, the nature of the index allows multiple pieces of data to be gathered within each item number. Instead of receiving one response per item, five responses are embedded within each item. Researchers (Bandalos & Enders, 1996; Weng, 2004) generally agree that when determining the number of response

categories for a specific study it is important that "the number of response options be such that it does not exceed the discriminative capacity of the subjects" (Lozano, Garcia-Cueto, & Muniz, 2008); therefore, six items were chosen for this instrument based on the age of the participants. Ranking questions were used instead of Likert Scale to help eliminate the tendency for students to straight-line, or assign the same rating to a number of variables in a survey, simply because the respondent can't be bothered reading each variable.

Once the item numbers were written, the expert panel reviewed each one for clarity, formatting, acceptable responses, and wording. Upon collection of the pilot indices, feedback was provided on the appropriateness of each item with respect to clarity, formatting, wording, and overall instrumentation protocol. The focus group's comments and suggestions were collected, analyzed and considered by the expert panel. Revisions were made by the expert panel based off the focus group's suggestions, and the revised index was submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval.

In Stage Two, a focus group of 21 classroom teachers was assembled to administer a pilot trial of the instruments in order to provide feedback on the delivery of the Five Modes of Caring Index. The procedures of administering the index would be examined, as well as the semantic and syntactic structure of the index with hopes to determine any unforeseen errors associated with design or delivery of the index to second grade students. Upon collection of the indices, feedback was provided on the appropriateness of each item with respect to wording, the response format, time taken for students to complete the instrument, and overall instrumentation protocol. The focus group's comments and suggestions were collected, analyzed and considered by the expert panel. Revisions were made by the expert panel based off the focus group's suggestions, and the revised index was submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval.

Procedures. In Stage Three, the researcher met with the superintendent of the school system, the principals and instructional coaches of the three primary schools that would be participating, and the 21 second grade teachers who would administer the instrument to the students. The meetings were designed to disclose the purpose of the study as well as receive permission from all parties involved to proceed. Upon agreement of participation, the 21 second grade teachers provided consent forms to all parents on *Meet Your Teacher Day* in August of 2013. Each parent was voluntarily solicited to read a brief description of the objectives of the study and given the option to provide written consent for their child to participate. Once the Consent Forms were signed, the researcher collected them from the 21 teachers. Of 350 parents asked, 202 agreed to allow their child to participate in the study, and 202 were invited to participate in the final index administration.

In September of 2013, hard copies of the Five Modes of Caring Index as well as directions on how to administer the index were hand delivered to the Instructional Coaches at each of the three primary schools. The Instructional Coaches distributed the index to the 21 teachers administering the instrument, and the teachers were given one week to administer the index. Each of the three schools' instructional coaches collected the indices, which were then given to the researcher. The researcher manually tabulated the data in order to input the results into SPSS. Results from SPSS would be used to evaluate the validity of the instrument.

Setting. According to the 2013 Census Estimate, there were 26,477 people residing in the southeastern city where the study was conducted. The city is comprised of a community that takes pride in preserving its rich heritage, while embracing new opportunities for both residents and businesses. The city has abundant cultural, recreational, and educational opportunities balanced against a thriving business environment. Approximately 4,000 students attend the two-

year community and technical college located in the city. It is the only two-year college in the county and the largest two-year campus in the region. The city is also located next door to one of the largest university in the South, with an enrollment of approximately 25,000 students.

The school system in which the study was conducted is a public school system comprised of eight schools. There are three primary schools serving grades K-2, three intermediate schools serving grades 3-5, one middle school (grades 6-8) and one high school (grades 9-12). The district contains approximately 4,000 students with approximately 67% of the students receiving free/reduced lunch. Due to the number of students receiving free/reduced lunch, all primary and intermediate schools in the district receive Title I funding. Classrooms have fully integrated technology systems that include laptops, tablets, mounted projectors, Promethean™ boards, ActivSlates and Elmo™ document cameras. Individual student needs are met through grade level curriculum, intervention and remediation classes, as well as enrichment and accelerated courses. All schools in the district participate in a five-year accreditation cycle and incorporate Continuous Improvement Plans. Each school uses student data and stakeholder feedback to determine strengths and areas in need of improvement each year.

Sample/Participants. The sample of participants was comprised of second grade students in a Southeastern school system located in the United States. Convenience sampling was used to enlist 202 total participants for the study. The rationale behind sampling second grade students was that students were capable of understanding the nature of the index's items based on their cognitive levels as well as having two years of experience in a school setting. Gary Chapman's online version of the Love Language Profile for Children invites children to select their age, with the options ranging from 9-12 years old. Therefore, administering the

index to 7 and 8 year olds, with answer choices provided verbally by the administrators, deemed appropriate.

The participants were housed within classrooms whose class size ranged from 15 to 20 students, and the teachers' years of teaching experience spanned from 1 year to 36 years, which provided a divergent environment for collecting student data. Tables 1 and 2 identify the participants in the study. Table 3 identifies the administrators of the instrument.

Table 2

Participants that completed The Modes of Caring Student Index by Gender

Gender	Number of Students	Percentage of Students
Males	101	53%
Females	91	47%

Table 3

Participants that completed The Modes of Caring Student Index by Race

Race	Number of Students	Percentage of Students
African American	100	52%
Caucasian	64	33%
Latino	28	13%

Table 4

Participants that completed The Modes of Caring Student Index by Years of Experience

Years of Experience	Number of Teachers	Percentage of Teachers
1-5 Years	4	21%
6-10 Years	6	32%
11-15 Years	4	21%
16-20 Years	1	5%
Over 20 Years	3	16%
Data Not Recorded	1	5%

Limitations

- Collecting data from one geographical location places a limitation on the study that may affect the generalizability of the research results.

- The study asked for self-reported information where a limitation of social desirability could occur.

- Although the index was read orally to participants, if the participants did not understand the terminology of the questions or the mathematical concept of greatest to least, their scores could be skewed.

- If the participants lacked listening skills or the ability to pay attention to the index while applying their listening skills, then the instrument may not reflect the same data as that of students reading the index independently or silently.

- There was not a predetermined time during the day to administer the index. Participants may be more apt to pay closer attention and take more time to thoughtfully answer the questions based on what time of the day it is given.

- The statistical tests that can be concluded with ranked data are limited. Data analysis techniques such as factor analysis and regression analysis can only be conducted with interval data.

- As participants hold the thought of variables (item choices) in their head, make a comparison, and record it, the rest of the ranking questions may become disproportionately complex as more choices are added, or students may rank options listed first more highly than to hold all options in their mind at once. Requiring a higher demand on the students' cognitive developmental levels may influence the students to discard the index altogether if they deem it too difficult to comprehend.

Significance of the Study

The field of education forces researchers to deal with particular issues, where local knowledge is needed. Therefore, ethnographic research is crucial, as are case studies, survey research, time series, design experiments, action research, and other means to collect reliable evidence for engaging in unfettered argument about education issues (Berliner, 2002). Since physical and emotional connection to students has been documented as one of the primary avenues to support student growth (Gordon, 1999), and there are currently no investigative studies on Gary Chapman's theory in the classroom, this study may add insight into the importance of teachers demonstrating traditional and nontraditional ways to build and maintain teacher-student connectedness. Chapman notes on his website that the five love languages are "distributed pretty equally among people; not exactly 20% in each one, but pretty close," when

asked if there was a most common love language and if they were distributed equally. This study hopes to provide further information on if there is a correlation between the five love languages as they relate to gender and race.

Data Collection Procedures

The local university's Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects granted permission to collect data (see Appendix A) from the school system's 2013 second graders. Paper/pencil copies of the index as well as directions on how to administer the index were hand delivered by the researcher to the Instructional Coaches at each of the three participating primary schools. The Instructional Coaches distributed the Five Modes of Caring Index to the 19 teachers administering the index, and the teachers were given one week to administer the index within their classrooms in a whole group setting.

To begin completing the index, students were asked to fill out the demographic portion on the top of their page, which included their race and gender. Teachers were asked to informally monitor the students as they completed the demographic portion of the index in order to provide as much statistical accuracy as possible regarding the demographic data. Next, the teachers read the directions aloud to the students and began the index by reading the first item aloud to the class. Both the directions and item numbers were read aloud to the participants throughout the index to ensure that all students would hear the same information since reading abilities widely vary among second graders. Students were instructed to rank each item number from 1-5 based on their opinion, with 1 as the most appropriate reward he or she would like to receive and 5 as the least appropriate reward he or she would like to receive. Once students completed the first item, teachers were instructed to continue the same procedure for Items 2-6. Once all students completed the indices, the teacher collected the indices and returned them to

their school's Instructional Coach. The researcher then collected the indices from the three

Instructional Coaches and manually tabulated the data in order to input the results into SPSS.

From the 202 indices collected, 10 were eliminated from the study due to participants completing

the index incorrectly. Results from SPSS would be used to evaluate the validity of the

instrument.

Data Analysis

  Quantitative research. Researchers who use logical positivism or quantitative research

employ experimental methods and quantitative measures to test hypothetical generalizations

(Hoepfl, 1997), and they emphasize the measurement and analysis of causal relationships

between variables (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). To illustrate the meaning of quantitative research

for its use of explaining social problems, Bogdan and Biklen (1998) note: Charts and graphs

illustrate the results of the research, and commentators employ words such as 'variables',

'populations' and 'result' as part of their daily vocabulary…even if we do not always know just

what all of the terms mean…[but] we know that this is part of the process of doing research.

  According to (Golafshani, 2003), quantitative research allows the researcher to

familiarize him/herself with the problem or concept to be studied, and perhaps generate

hypotheses to be tested. In this paradigm: (1) the emphasis is on facts and causes of behavior

(Bogdan & Biklen, 1998), (2) the information is in the form of numbers that can be quantified

and summarized, (3) the mathematical process is the norm for analyzing the numeric data and (4)

the final result is expressed in statistical terminologies (Charles, 1995). Generally, quantitative

research "…supported by the positivist or scientific paradigm, leads us to regard the world as

made up of observable, measurable facts" (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p. 6) though their

assumption that "social facts have an objective reality" and "variables can…be identified and

relationships measured" is problematic. The notion of 'measuring' means to understand, say, educational issues by performing an operation called 'measurement' on the physical world by the observer (Crocker & Algina, 1986). Stevens (1946) defines measurement as the assignment of numerals to objects or events according to rules. From these definitions, one may perceive measurement as necessarily objective, quantitative and statistically relevant. A quantitative researcher attempts to fragment and delimit phenomena into measurable or common categories that can be applied to all of the subjects or wider and similar situations (Winter, 2000). In his/her attempts, the researcher's methods involve the "use of standardized measures so that the varying perspectives and experiences of people can be fit into a limited number of predetermined response categories to which number are assigned" (Patton, 2001, p.14). A quantitative researcher needs to construct an instrument to be administered in standardized manner according to predetermined procedures, but the question is if the measuring instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. In the broadest sense, devising a test (Crocker & Algina, 1986) is intended to ensure replicability or repeatability of the result.

Validity

Validity refers to whether a scale is measuring what it intends to measure (Nunnaly, 1978). It helps to ensure that there are no logical errors in drawing conclusions from the data (Garson, 1998). To validate an instrument, multiple pieces of evidence of validity are frequently assessed. The traditional criteria for validity find their roots in a positivist tradition, and to an extent, positivism has been defined by a systematic theory of validity (Golafshani, 2003). Within the positivist terminology, validity resided amongst, and was the result and culmination of other empirical conceptions: universal laws, evidence, objectivity, truth, actuality, deduction, reason, fact and mathematical data to name just a few (Winter, 2000). Joppe (2000) provides the

71

following explanation of what validity is in quantitative research: Validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit "the bull's eye" of your research object?   The definitions of reliability and validity in quantitative research reveal two strands: Firstly, with regards to reliability, whether the result is replicable. Secondly, with regards to validity, whether the means of measurement are accurate and whether they are actually measuring what they are intended to measure (Golafshani, 2003).

Content validity. Content validity is the extent to which a set of items reflects a content domain (DeVellis, 2003). According to Polit & Beck (2006), content validity has been defined as follows: (1) ''...the degree to which an instrument has an appropriate sample of items for the construct being measured'' (Polit & Beck, 2004); (2) ''...whether or not the items sampled for inclusion on the tool adequately represent the domain of content addressed by the instrument'' (Waltz, Strickland, & Lenz, 2005); and (3) ''...the extent to which an instrument adequately samples the research domain of interest when attempting to measure phenomena'' (Wynd, Schmidt, & Schaefer, 2003). There is general agreement in these definitions that content validity concerns the degree to which a sample of items taken together constitute an adequate operational definition of a construct. There is also agreement in the methodologic literature that content validity is largely a matter of judgment, involving two distinct phases: a priori efforts by the scale developer to enhance content validity through careful conceptualization and domain analysis prior to item generation, and a posteriori efforts to evaluate the relevance of the scale's content through expert assessment (Beck & Gable, 2001; Lynn, 1986; Mastaglia, Toye, & Kristjanson, 2003).

72

For the purpose of this study, index construction based on a well-defined theoretical foundation, an initial table of specification, and review of items by experts for relevance to the construct of interest, and focus group feedback were used to maximize content validity (DeVellis, 2003; Torabi & Jeng, 2001). Since expert judgment and feedback related to the design of the instrument is an essential part of establishing content validity (Messick, 1994), the expert panel provided feedback on the quality of the index items. The expert panel should agree that items are relevant to a construct (objectives and learning outcomes) being examined. Information gleaned from content validity assists educators and researchers to revise, delete, or substitute items embedded in the instrument (Rutherford-Hemming, 2015). Lynn (1986) recommends that at least six experts review the content in an instrument or simulation scenario. When six or more experts provide feedback, one expert can disagree on the item content and the item will still meet the minimum validity requirement. When fewer than six experts are used, all must agree that the item content is relevant in order for it to be deemed valid. Revisions were made that addressed rewording, appropriateness, clarity and technical issues.

In order to further establish content validity, a pilot study was conducted based on the expert panel's initial index. Pilot testing is an effective way of detecting errors of content, form, and clarity by giving the survey to respondents similar to ones who will be included in the actual study (Sireci, 2007). The pilot test served as a method to detect errors in the index and identify any students' misconceptions or confusion on the wording or directions of the index. The focus group that administered the index also provided written and verbal feedback on the pilot study, and further revisions were made by the expert panel based on their recommendations.

Data Analysis Methods

All data analyses were conducted on IBM SPSS version 23 (Chicago, IL) with alpha set

at p < .05. Earlier analysis conducted during the pilot administration confirmed that the six

scenarios should be examined using an analysis that would allow them to be reported as separate

conditions. Because of this, a Pearson Chi Square was chosen as the most appropriate procedure.

The study included these three fixed-factor conditional models: (a) School, (b) Race, and (c) Sex.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the Five Modes of Caring as a

possible reward system for children. The Five Modes of Caring were, in part, based on Gary

Chapman's Love Languages. The study was intended to examine the languages as a means for

teachers to exhibit differentiated caring to students. It is also intended to determine which, if

any, language should be incorporated more frequently in the classroom to promote the ethic of

care among varying races and gender. This quantitative study determined the relationship

between six classroom scenarios and five reward functions (i.e., Touch, Words, Gift, Time, or

Service) of second grade students in the Southeast. The secondary aims included determining if

there were differences in students' perceptions of the Five Modes of Caring within gender and

race as represented by participants' index scores. Chapter Four presents the findings from the

study.

Chapter IV: Results

Public school classrooms in the United States are becoming more ethnically diverse. According to Jerald (2009), minority students will constitute the majority of schoolchildren by 2023. This is already the case for states in the southern region of the United States, which was the location of the present investigation. More than half of the K-12 school age children in the South are members of minority races and are poor and they also makeup the majority of the public school students (Suitts, 2015). At the same time, the public school workforce across the United States and in the South continues to trend towards white middle class teachers and administrators. Over eighty percent of personnel in schools across the nation identify as white and there is little data to suggest that this tendency is changing (Goldring, Gray & Bitterman, 2013). While the gap between race and socioeconomic status for public school children and those that instruct them every day appears to be extensive there are school factors that can mitigate this difference. First, research has repeatedly shown that having a great teacher in every classroom is paramount to student success. In fact, when children are placed with excellent teachers for three successive years they score as much as 50 percentile points higher on state assessments than when the child is placed with a low performing teacher (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2007; Sanders, 1996). Equipping teachers with strong instructional practices is by far one of the most critical items of business for today's schools. A teacher who knows how to instruct using best practices is an important part of providing a quality education for all our children. Second to teachers, is providing each school with a great school leader who knows how to provide personnel with the vision and resources they need to perform in the classroom.

Past research suggests that there are significant indirect effects of leadership and student achievement. More recent research suggests there is a direct relationship and principals do have an effect on student learning outcomes (Branch, Hanushek & Rivkin, 2013; Louis et al., 2010). Talented principals who have the savvy to combine school variables important to learning increase the capacity to teach and learn.

Learning involves more than solid instructional strategies. Important in every classroom and in the school is an environment where children feel safe and cared for. Noddings (1984, 1986, 2013) and Lyons (1983) believe that teachers' classrooms must be grounded in what Gilligan (1982) referred to as an 'ethic of caring.' Unfortunately, this vital component of teaching remains relatively ill-defined and is not well-articulated in teacher education programs (Rogers & Webb, 1991). Learning how to give, receive, model, dissect, and implement components of caring are imperative in teacher education so that the ethic of care can become the driving force behind teachers' professional decision making. Teaching should revolve around caring about the profession, the class as a whole, and the individual needs of each student.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the five modes of caring for students. Using Gary Chapman's (1992) five love languages and additional work by Noddings (1984) and Gilligan (1982), the researcher designed a study to determine if there was dominant mode of caring for second grade students in order to explore how teachers might best demonstrate the ethic of care in their classrooms. With diversity increasing in the classrooms of U.S. public schools, teachers must be well versed in how to demonstrate the ethic of care. Studies suggest that the benefits of a teacher caring for his or her students include: positive effects on students' social and academic performance, engagement, motivation, self-esteem, and self-connectedness.

76

Data Analysis

All data analyses were conducted on IBM SPSS version 23 (Chicago, IL) with alpha set at p < .05. Earlier analysis conducted during the pilot administration confirmed that the six scenarios should be examined using an analysis that would allow them to be reported as separate conditions. Because of this, a Pearson Chi Square was chosen procedure was chosen. The study included these three fixed-factor conditional models: (a) School, (b) Race, and (c) Sex.

Results

Pearson Chi-Square Test. The chi-square test assesses observed frequencies or proportions versus expected frequencies or proportions. The chi-square result (χ^2) is based on a one-sided distribution due to the squared values in the calculations. Chi-square values in the tail are less probable that those near the peak. As with other inferential statistics, the chi square value needs to reach a point in the tail at the selected alpha (e.g. .05) or smaller to be statistically significant. The chi-square test can be completed as a one-sample test or as a two-sample test. The chi-square test is designed to analyze categorical data and intended to test how likely it is that an observed distribution is due to chance. It is also called a "goodness of fit" statistic, because it measures how well the observed distribution of data fits with the distribution that is expected. The degrees of freedom (df) reported in the output is calculated by subtracting 1 from the number of categories (5 Modes of Caring – 1 = 4df). The degrees of freedom can be used to find the critical value for chi-square.

For this study, a chi-square test of independence provided *expected* frequencies of how often participants in the overall sample and different ethnicities or gender (variable "A") would choose one of the Five Modes of Caring (variable "B"). The numbers based off student data are the *observed* frequencies. A chi-square analysis determined whether the "observed" frequencies

were sufficiently different from the "expected" frequencies to say that these two variables were related. If the resulting chi-square is small, the observed data is not significantly different from what one would expect the sample data to be. If the chi-square analysis is large, there is a relationship between the two variables.

Results of Research Objectives

Research Objective 1. To what extent is there a relationship between each classroom scenario and the Five Modes of Caring (i.e., Touch, Words, Gifts, Service or Quality Time)?
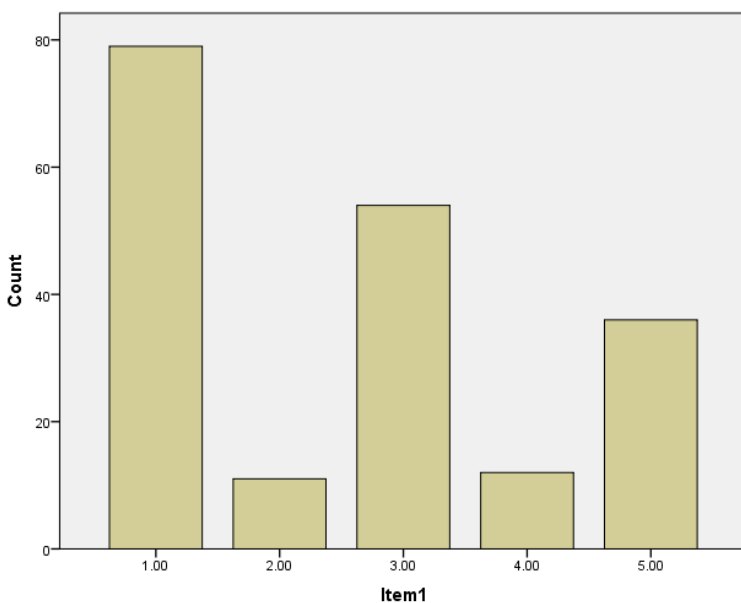
Scenario 1: Making an A on a Test. To answer the first research objective, the researcher performed a chi-square with all 2nd grade students on each of the six scenarios. For Scenario 1, Table 5 depicts the One-Sample Chi-Square Test. Based off the Total *N* of 192, the *expected* frequencies were hypothesized to be 38.4 for the Five Modes of Caring Student Index. The results indicated that students responded statistically significantly different than expected based on the expected frequency of 38.4 for each category, χ^2 (4, *N*=192) = 87.12, p < .001. The frequency with which Touch received the rank of 1 was 79. The observed frequency for Words was 11, Gifts was 54, Service was 12 and Quality Time was 36. As noted in Figure 1, the 2nd grade participants involved in the study endorsed Touch as their first choice, Gifts as their second choice, Quality Time as their third choice, Service as their fourth choice, and Words as their fifth choice.

Table 5

Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 1: Making an A on a Test

	Frequency	Percent
Valid 1.00	79	41.1
2.00	11	5.7
3.00	54	28.1
4.00	12	6.3
5.00	36	18.8
Total	192	100.00

* Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time

Figure 1. Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 1: Making an A on a Test. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time

Scenario 2: Losing a Tooth. For Scenario 2, Table 6 depicts the One-Sample Chi-Square Test. Based off the Total *N* of 192, the *expected* frequencies were hypothesized to be 38.4 for the Five Modes of Caring Student Index. The results indicate that students responded statistically significantly different than expected based on the expected frequency of 38.4 for each category, χ^2 (4, *N*=192) = 77.90, p < .001. The frequency with which Touch received the

79

rank of 1 was 15. The observed frequency for Words was 33, Gifts was 85, Service was 23, and

Quality Time was 36. For Scenario 2, as noted in Figure 2, the 2nd grade participants involved in

the study endorsed Gifts as their first choice, Quality Time as their second choice, Words as their

third choice, Service as the fourth choice, and Touch as their fifth choice.

Table 6

Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 2: Loosing a Tooth

	Frequency	Percent
Valid 1.00	15	7.8
2.00	33	17.2
3.00	85	44.3
4.00	23	12.0
5.00	36	18.8
Total	192	100.0

* Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time
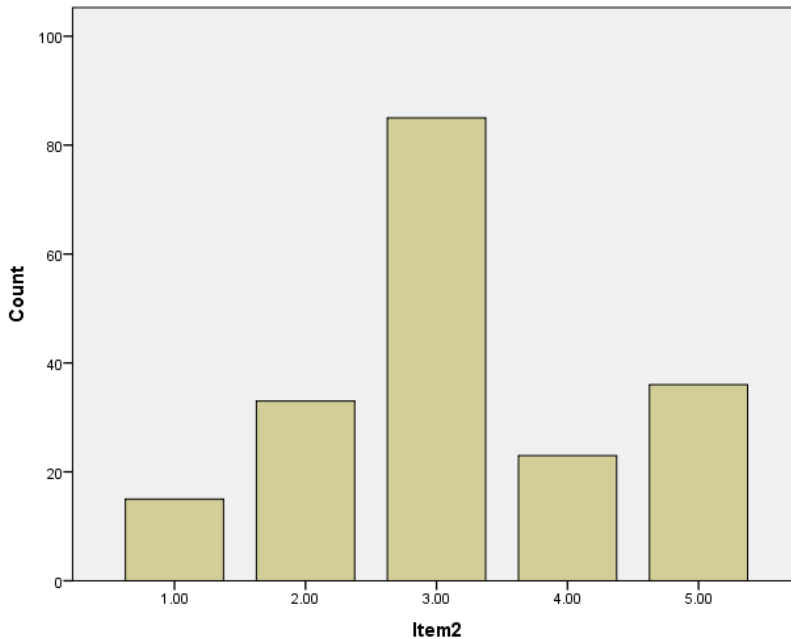
Figure 2. Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 2: Losing a Tooth.
Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time

Scenario 3: Entering the Classroom. For Scenario 3, Table 7 depicts the One-Sample

Chi-Square Test. Based off the Total *N* of 192, the *expected* frequencies were hypothesized to be

38.4 for the Five Modes of Caring Student Index. The results indicated that students responded

statistically significantly different than expected based on the expected frequency of 38.4 for

each category, χ^2 (4, N=192) = 55.45, p < .001. The frequency with which Touch was received

the rank of 1 was 77. The observed frequency for Words was 18, Gifts was 32, Service was 40,

and Quality Time was 25. For Scenario 3, as noted in Figure 3, the 2nd grade participants

involved in the study endorsed Touch as their first choice, Service as their second choice, Gifts

as their third choice, Quality Time as the fourth choice, and Words as their fifth choice.

Table 7

Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 3: Entering the Classroom

	Frequency	Percent
Valid 1.00	77	40.1
2.00	18	9.4
3.00	32	16.7
4.00	40	20.8
5.00	25	13.0
Total	192	100.0

* Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time
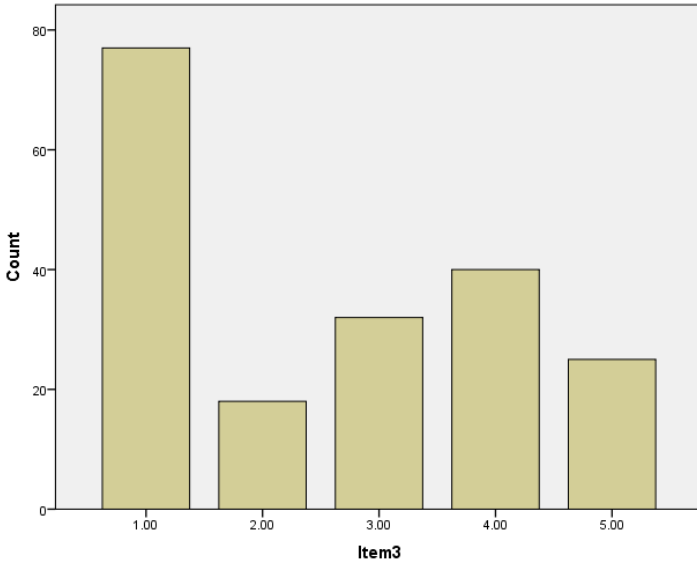
Figure 3. Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 3: Entering the Classroom. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time
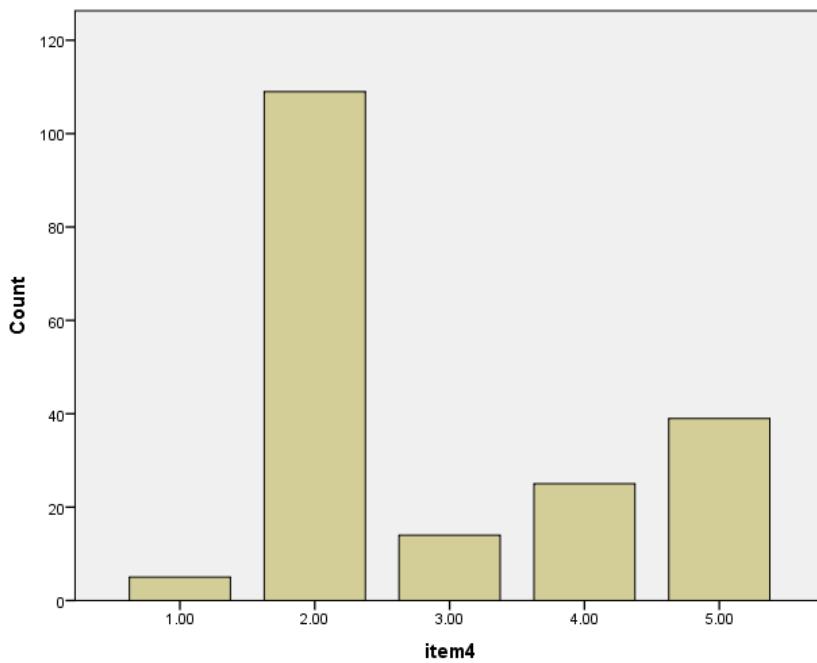

    Scenario 4: Making a Poor Grade on a Test. For Scenario 4, Table 8 depicts the One-Sample Chi-Square Test. Based off the Total *N* of 192, the *expected* frequencies were hypothesized to be 38.4 for the Five Modes of Caring Student Index. The results indicated that students responded statistically significantly different than expected based on the expected frequency of 38.4 for each category, χ^2 (4, *N*=192) = 179.04, p < .001. The frequency with which Touch received the rank of 1 was 5. The observed frequency for Words was 109, Gifts was 14, Service was 25 and Quality Time was 39. For Scenario 4, as noted in Figure 4, the 2nd grade participants involved in the study endorsed Words as their first choice, Quality Time as their second choice, Service as their third choice, Gifts as the fourth choice, and Touch as their fifth choice.

Table 8

Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 4: Making a Poor Grade on a Test

	Frequency	Percent
Valid 1.00	5	2.6
2.00	109	56.8
3.00	14	7.3
4.00	25	13.0
5.00	39	20.3
Total	192	100.0

* Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time

Figure 4. Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 4: Making a Poor Grade on a Test. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time

Scenario 5: Celebrating a Birthday. For Scenario 5, Table 9 depicts the One-Sample Chi-Square Test. Based off the Total *N* of 192, the *expected* frequencies were hypothesized to be 38.4 for the Five Modes of Caring Student Index. The results indicated that students responded statistically significantly different than expected based on the expected frequency of 38.4 for each category, χ^2 (4, *N*=192) = 31.39, p < .001. The frequency with which Touch received the

83

rank of 1 was 22. The observed frequency for Words was 52, Gifts was 50, Service was 51, and

Quality Time was 17. For Scenario 5, as noted in Figure 5, the 2nd grade participants involved in

the study endorsed Words as their first choice, Service as their second choice, Gifts as their third

choice, Touch as the fourth choice, and Quality Time as their fifth choice.

Table 9

Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 5: Celebrating a Birthday

	Frequency	Percent
Valid 1.00	22	11.5
2.00	52	27.1
3.00	50	26.0
4.00	51	26.6
5.00	17	8.9
Total	192	100.0

* Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time
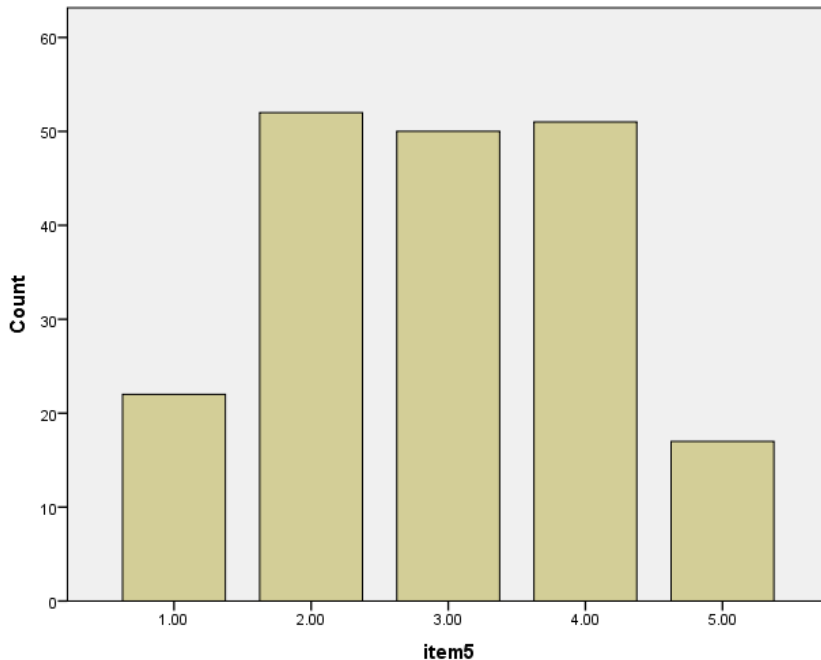
Figure 5. Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 5: Celebrating a Birthday. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time

Scenario 6: *Being Teased by a Classmate.* For Scenario 6, Table 10 depicts the One-

Sample Chi-Square Test. Based off the Total *N* of 192, the *expected* frequencies were

hypothesized to be 38.4 for the Five Modes of Caring Student Index. The results indicated that

students responded statistically significantly different than expected based on the expected

frequency of 38.4 for each category, χ^2 (4, N=192) = 58.57, p < .001. The frequency with which

Touch received the rank of 1 was 34. The observed frequency for Words was 23, Gifts was 36,

Service was 79, and Quality Time was 20. For Scenario 6, as noted in Figure 6, the 2nd grade

participants involved in the study endorsed Service as their first choice, Gifts as their second

choice, Touch as their third choice, Words as the fourth choice, and Quality Time as their fifth

choice.

Table 10

Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 6: Being Teased by a Classmate

	Frequency	Percent
Valid 1.00	34	17.7
2.00	23	12.0
3.00	36	18.8
4.00	79	41.1
5.00	20	10.4
Total	192	100.0

* Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time
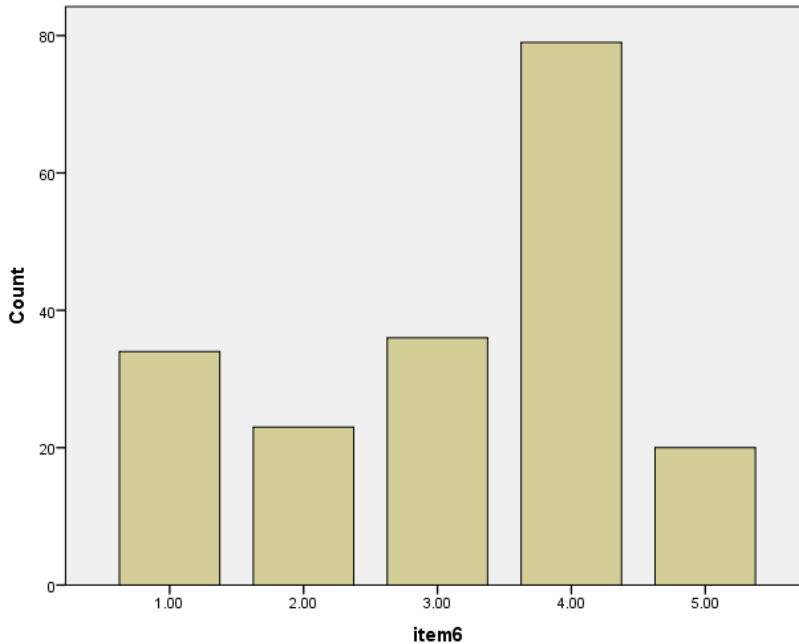
Figure 6. Overall Frequencies for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 6: Being Teased by a Classmate. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time

Research Objective 2. Is there a statistically significant difference between male and female groups' index scores of the Five Modes of Caring? To answer the second research objective, a Two Sample Pearson Chi-Square was performed for each of the six scenarios by gender. Results are organized below by reviewing each of the six scenarios of the study.

Scenario 1: Making an A on a Test. For Scenario 1, to assess the hypothesis that males and females differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring a Two Sample Chi Square statistic was completed. The results indicated that male and female students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (4) = 2.512, p = .642. The frequencies observed for males revealed Touch was 39, and for females it was 40. The frequencies observed for males and Words was 3, and for females it was 8. The frequencies observed for males and Gifts was 25, and for females it was 29. The frequencies observed for

males and Service was 5, and for females it was 7. The frequencies observed for males and

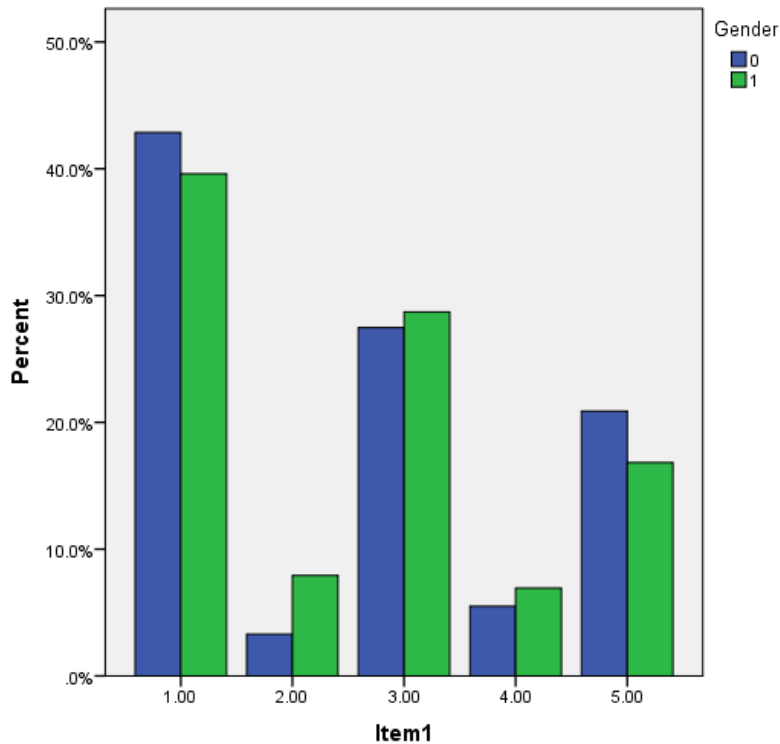Quality Time was 19, and for females it was 17.

Figure 7. Frequencies by Gender for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 1: Making an A on a Test. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Gender: 0 Male; 1 Female.

     Scenario 2: Losing a Tooth. For Scenario 2, to assess the hypothesis that males and

females differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring a Two Sample Chi Square statistic

was completed. The results indicated that male and female students did not respond statistically

significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (4) = 2.246, p = .691. The

frequencies observed for males revealed Touch was 7, and for females it was 8. The frequencies

observed for males and Words was 16, and for females it was 17. The frequencies observed for

males and Gifts was 39, and for females it was 46. The frequencies observed for males and

Service was 14, and for females it was 9. The frequencies observed for males and Quality Time
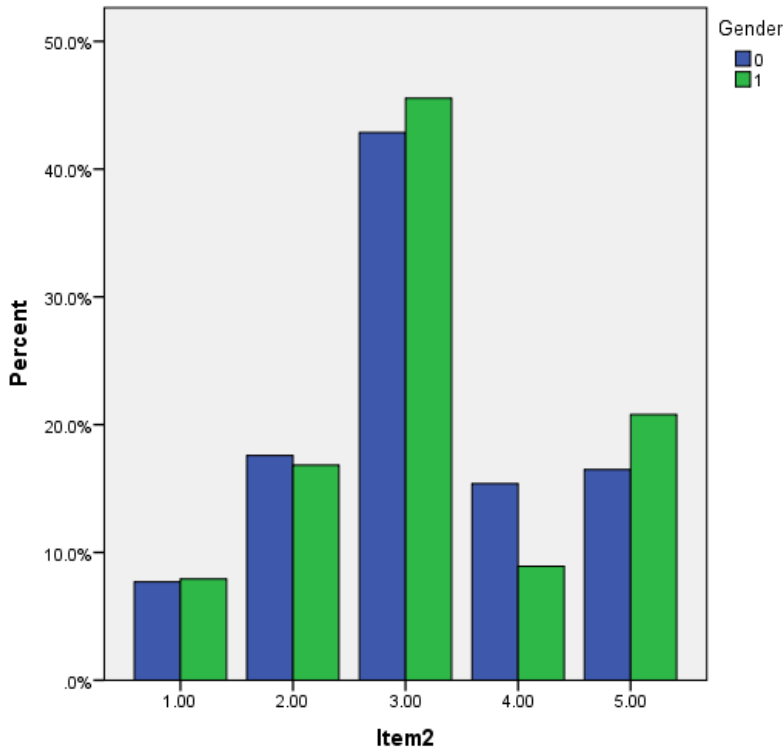
was 15, and for females it was 21.

Figure 8. Frequencies by Gender for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 2: Losing a Tooth. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Gender: 0 Male; 1 Female.

Scenario 3: Entering the Classroom. For Scenario 3, to assess the hypothesis that males

and females differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring a Two Sample Chi Square

statistic was completed. The results indicated that male and female students did not respond

statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (4) = 19.342, p =

.001. The frequencies observed for males revealed Touch was 45 and for females it was 32. The

frequencies observed for males and Words was 14, and for females it was 4. The frequencies

observed for males and Gifts was 12, and for females it was 20. The frequencies observed for

males and Service was 11, and for females it was 29. The frequencies observed for males and

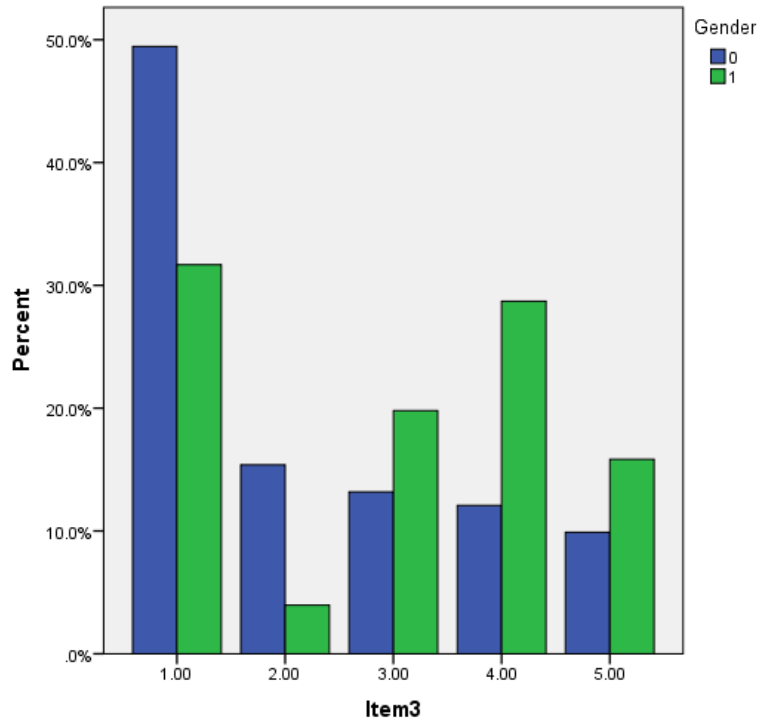Quality Time was 9, and for females it was 16.

Figure 9. Frequencies by Gender for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 3: Entering the Classroom. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Gender: 0 Male; 1 Female.

Scenario 4: Making a Poor Grade on a Test. For Scenario 4, to assess the hypothesis

that males and females differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring a Two Sample Chi

Square statistic was completed. The results indicated that male and female students did not

respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (4) = 2.858,

p = .582. The frequencies observed for males and Touch was 3, and for females it was 2. The

frequencies observed for males and Words was 55, and for females it was 54. The frequencies

observed for males and Gifts was 4, and for females it was 10. The frequencies observed for

males and Service was 11, and for females it was 14. The frequencies observed for males and
Quality Time was 18, and for females it was 21.

*Figure 10 Frequencies by Gender for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 4: Making a Poor
Grade on a Test. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time.
Gender: 0 Male; 1 Female.*

Scenario 5: Celebrating a Birthday. For Scenario 5, to assess the hypothesis that males

and females differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring a Two Sample Chi Square

statistic was completed. The results indicated that male and female students did not respond

statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (4) = 7.429, p =

.115. The frequencies observed for males revealed Touch was 11, and for females it was 11.

The frequencies observed for males and Words was 23, and for females it was 29. The

frequencies observed for males and Gifts was 17, and for females it was 33. The frequencies

observed for males and Service was 30, and for females it was 21. The frequencies observed for males and Quality Time was 10, and for females it was 7.
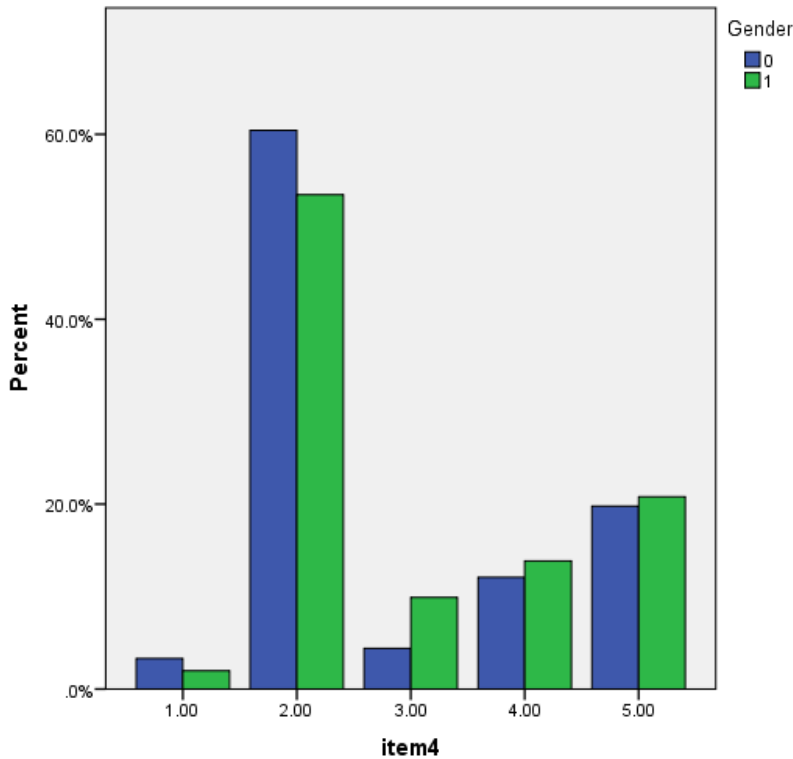

Figure 11. Frequencies by Gender for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 5: Celebrating a Birthday. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Gender: 0 Male; 1 Female.

Scenario 6: Being Teased by a Classmate. For Scenario 6, to assess the hypothesis that males and females differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring a Two Sample Chi Square statistic was completed. The results indicated that male and female students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (4) = 5.199, p = .268. The frequencies observed for males revealed Touch was 14, and for females it was 20. The frequencies observed for males and Words was 12, and for females it was 11. The frequencies observed for males and Gifts was 13, and for females it was 23. The frequencies

observed for males and Service was 44, and for females it was 35. The frequencies observed for

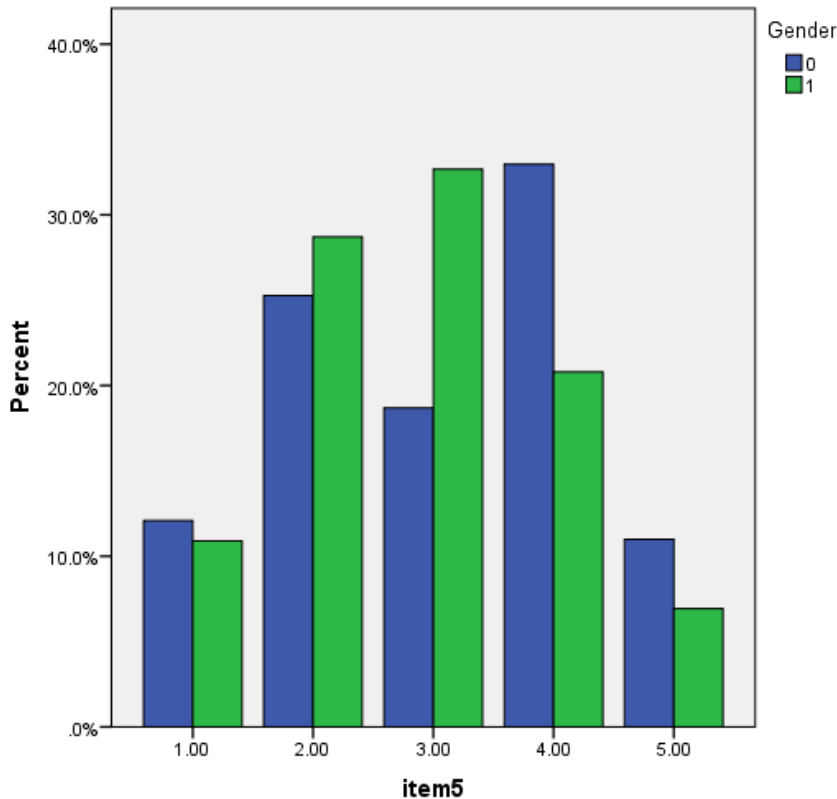males and Quality Time was 8, and for females it was 12.
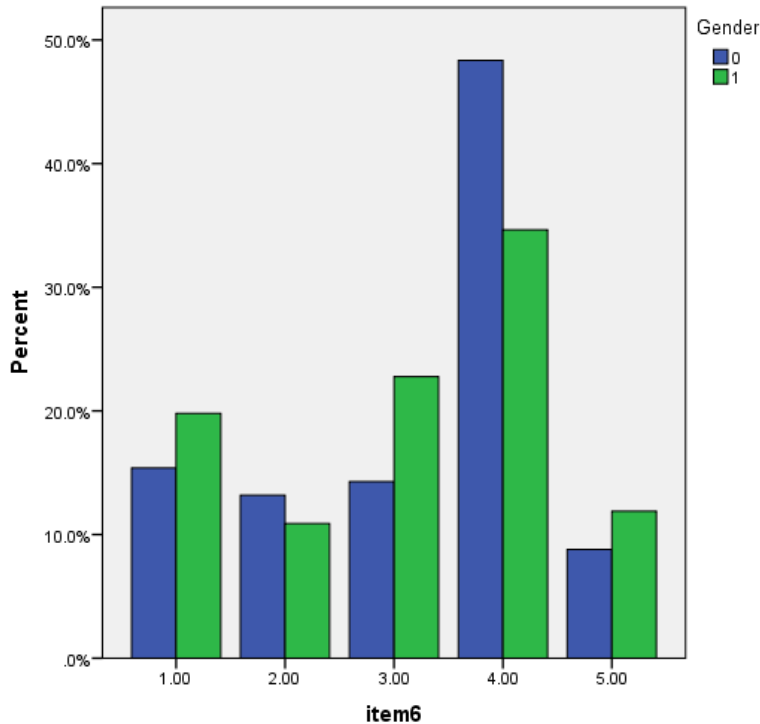
Figure 12. Frequencies by Gender for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 6: Being Teased by a Classmate. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Gender: 0 Male; 1 Female.

Research Objective 3. Is there a statistically significant difference among ethnic groups'

index scores of the Five Modes of Caring? To answer the second research objective, a Two

Sample Pearson Chi-Square was performed for each of the six scenarios by race. Results are

organized below by reviewing each of the six scenarios of the study.

Scenario 1: Making an A on a Test. For Scenario 1, to assess the hypothesis that 2nd

grade students differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring by race, a Two Sample Chi

Square statistic was completed. The results indicated that Caucasian, African American, and

Latino students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns,

92

Chi-Square (8) = 9.022, p = .340. Caucasian, African American and Latino students answered

Scenario 1 with similar response frequency and thus there is no difference in the way races used

the Five Modes of Caring in response to Scenario 1. The frequencies observed for Caucasian

participants revealed Touch was 37, for African American participants it was 29 and for Latino

participants it was 13. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Words was

6, for African American participants it was 3 and for Latino participants it was 2. The

frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Gifts was 36, for African American

participants it was 14 and for Latino participants it was 4. The frequencies observed for White

participants revealed Service was 7, for African American participants it was 3 and for Latino

participants it was 2. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Quality Time

was 14, for African American participants it was 15 and for Latino participants it was 7.

For Scenario 1 Touch was endorsed most across race with Gifts as 2nd rank, Quality Time

as 3rd rank Service as 4th rank and Words was ranked 5th.

Figure 13. Frequencies by Race for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 1: Making an A on a Test. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Race: 1 African American; 2 Caucasian; 3 Other.

Scenario 2: Losing a Tooth. For Scenario 2, to assess the hypothesis that 2nd grade

students differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring by race, a Two Sample Chi Square

statistic was completed. The results indicated that Caucasian, African American, and Latino

students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-

Square (8) = 11.669, p = .167. Caucasian, African American and Latino part pants answered

Scenario 2 with similar response frequency and thus there is no difference in the way races used

the Five Modes of Caring in response to Scenario 2. The frequencies observed for Caucasian

participants revealed Touch was 4, for African American participants it was 7 and for Latino

participants it was 4. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Words was

94

23, for African American participants it was 8 and for Latino participants it was 2. The

frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Gifts was 44, for African American

participants it was 26 and for Latino participants it was 15. The frequencies observed for White

participants revealed Service was 10, for African American participants it was 11 and for Latino

participants it was 2. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Quality Time

was 19, for African American participants it was 12 and for Latino participants it was 5. For

Scenario 2 Gifts was endorsed most across race with Quality Time as 2nd rank, Words as 3rd rank

Service as 4th rank and Touch was ranked 5th.

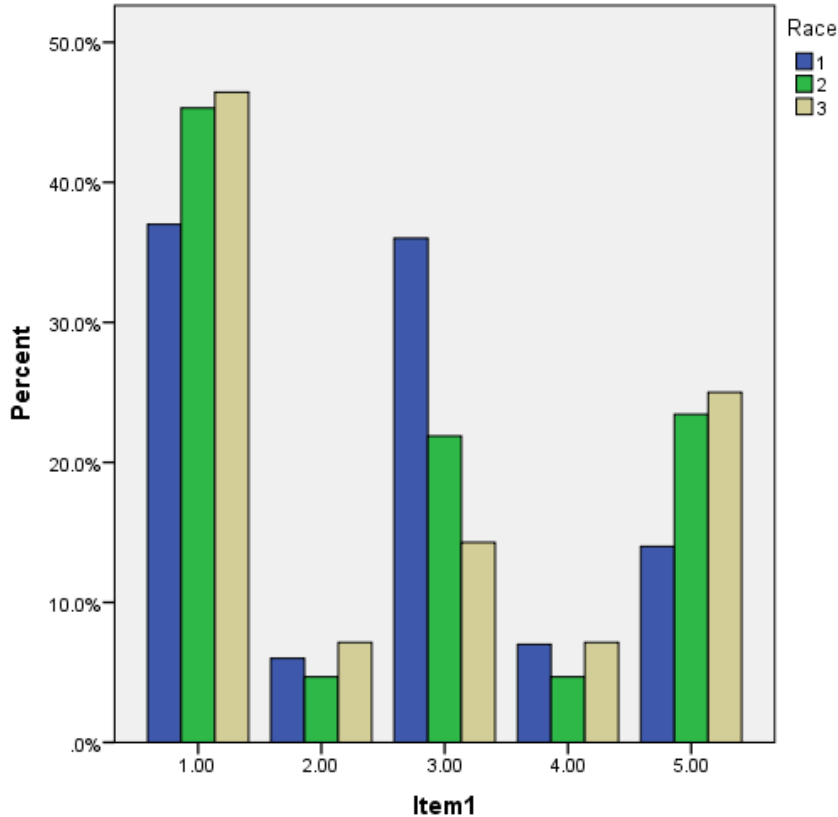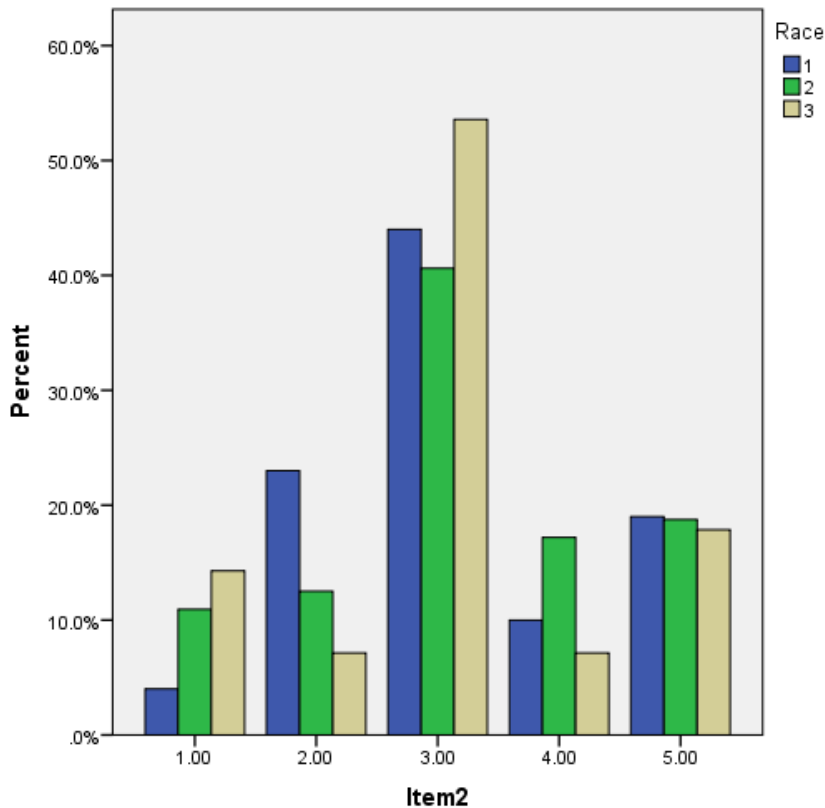*Figure 14. Frequencies by Race for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 2: Losing a Tooth.*
Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Race: 1 African
American; 2 Caucasian; 3 Other.

Scenario 3: Entering the Classroom. For Scenario 3, to assess the hypothesis that 2nd grade students differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring by race, a Two Sample Chi Square statistic was completed. The results indicated that Caucasian, African American, and Latino students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (8) = 9.065, p = .337. Caucasian, African American and Latino part pants answered Scenario 3 with similar response frequency and thus there is no difference in the way races used the Five Modes of Caring in response to Scenario 3. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Touch was 38, for African American participants it was 31 and for Latino participants it was 8. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Words was 12, for African American participants it was 5 and for Latino participants it was 1. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Gifts was 18, for African American participants it was 8 and for Latino participants it was 6. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Service was 17, for African American participants it was 15 and for Latino participants it was 8. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Quality Time was 15, for African American participants it was 5 and for Latino participants it was 5.
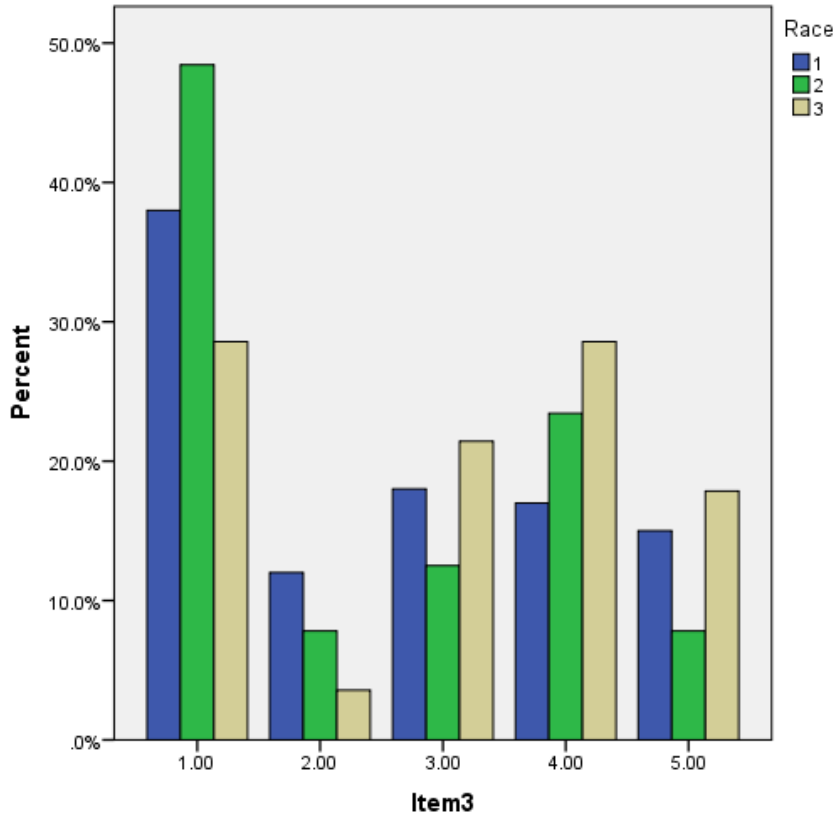
Figure 15. Frequencies by Race for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 3: Entering the Classroom. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Race: 1 African American; 2 Caucasian; 3 Other.

Scenario 4: Making a Poor Grade on a Test. For Scenario 4, to assess the hypothesis that 2nd grade students differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring by race, a Two Sample Chi Square statistic was completed. The results indicated that Caucasian, African American, and Latino students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (8) = 4.291, p = .830. Caucasian, African American and Latino participants answered Scenario 4 with similar response frequency and thus there is no difference in the way races used the Five Modes of Caring in response to Scenario 4. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Touch was 3, for African American participants it was 1 and for Latino participants it was 1. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants

97

revealed Words was 56, for African American participants it was 40 and for Latino participants it was 13. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Gifts was 8, for African American participants it was 5 and for Latino participants it was 1. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Service was 14, for African American participants it was 6 and for Latino participants it was 5. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Quality Time was 19, for African American participants it 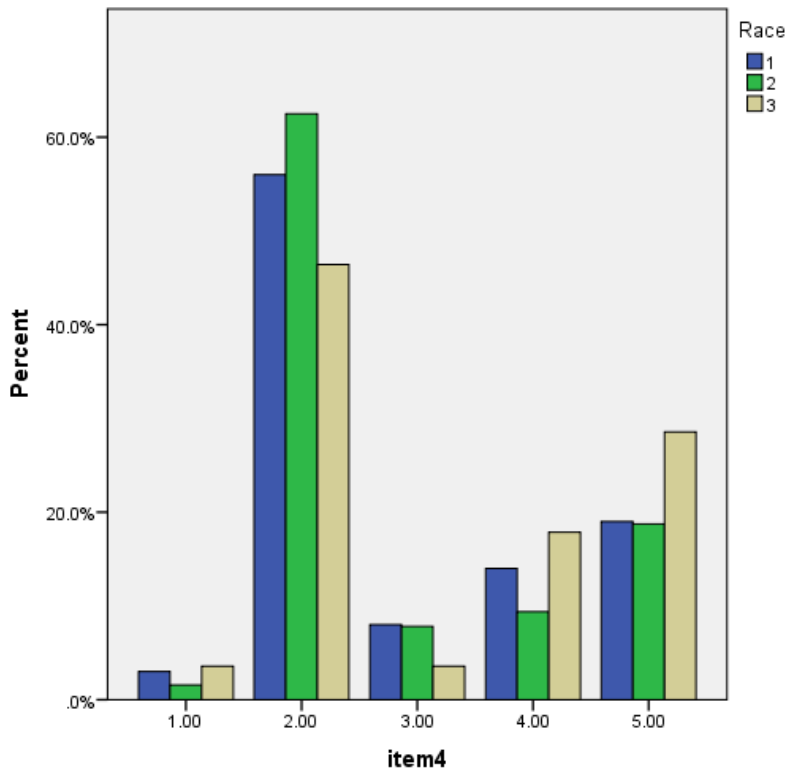was 12 and for Latino participants it was 8. For Scenario 4 Words was endorsed most across race with Quality Time as 2nd rank, Service as 3rd rank Gifts as 4th rank and Touch was ranked 5th.

Figure 16. Frequencies by Race for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 4: Making a Poor Grade on a Test. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Race: 1 African American; 2 Caucasian; 3 Other.

Scenario 5: Celebrating a Birthday. For Scenario 5, to assess the hypothesis that 2nd grade students differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring by race, a Two Sample Chi Square statistic was completed. The results indicated that Caucasian, African American, and Latino students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (8) = 8.796, p = .360. Caucasian, African American and Latino participants answered Scenario 5 with similar response frequency and thus there is no difference in the way races used the Five Modes of Caring in response to Scenario 5. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Touch was 11, for African American participants it was 6 and for Latino participants it was 5. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Words was 24, for African American participants it was 22 and for Latino participants it was 6. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Gifts was 30, for African American participants it was 13 and for Latino participants it was 7. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Service was 27, for African American participants it was 19 and for Latino participants it was 5. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Quality Time was 8, for African American participants it was 4 and for Latino participants it was 5. For Scenario 5 Words was endorsed most across race with Service as 2nd rank, Gifts as 3rd rank, Touch as 4th rank and Quality Time was ranked 5th.

Figure 17. Frequencies by Race for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 5: Celebrating a Birthday. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Race: 1 African American; 2 Caucasian; 3 Other.

Scenario 6: Being Teased by a Classmate. For Scenario 6, to assess the hypothesis that 2nd grade students differ in their responses to the Five Modes of Caring by race, a Two Sample Chi Square statistic was completed. The results indicated that Caucasian, African American, and Latino students did not respond statistically significantly different in terms of response patterns, Chi-Square (8) = 11.648, p = .168. Caucasian, African American and Latino participants answered Scenario 6 with similar response frequency and thus there is no difference in the way races used the Five Modes of Caring in response to Scenario 6. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Touch was 17, for African American participants it was 12 and for Latino participants it was 5. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed

100

Words was 14, for African American participants it was 2 and for Latino participants it was 7. The frequencies observed for Caucasian participants revealed Gifts was 17, for African American participants it was 15 and for Latino participants it was 4. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Service was 43, for African American participants it was 28 and for Latino participants it was 8. The frequencies observed for White participants revealed Quality Time was 9, for African American participants it was 7 and for Latino participants it was 4. For Scenario 6 Service was endorsed most across race with Gifts as 2nd rank, Touch as 3rd rank, Touch as 4th rank and Quality Time was ranked 5th.
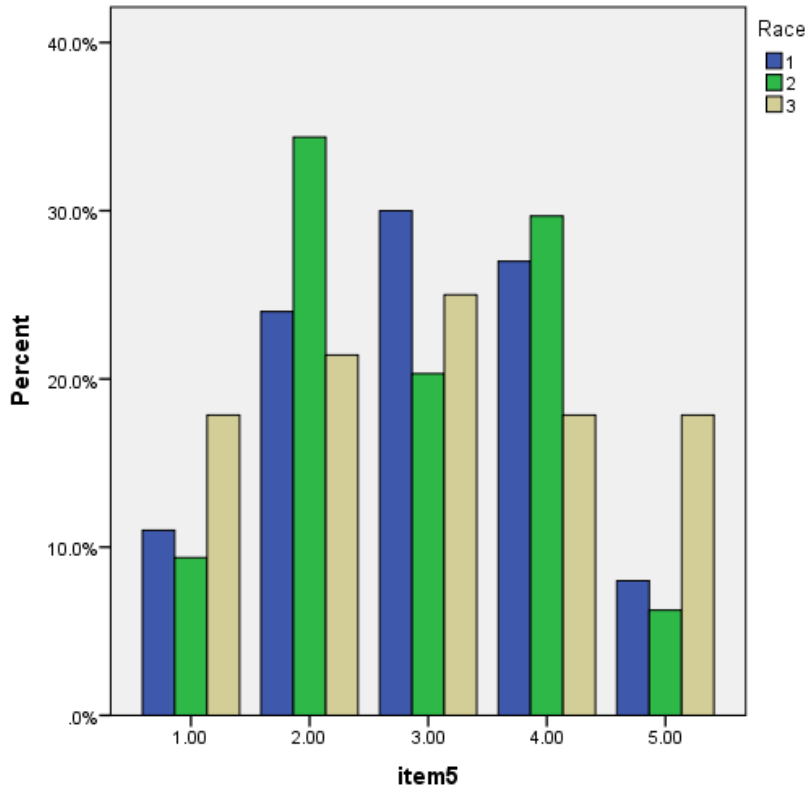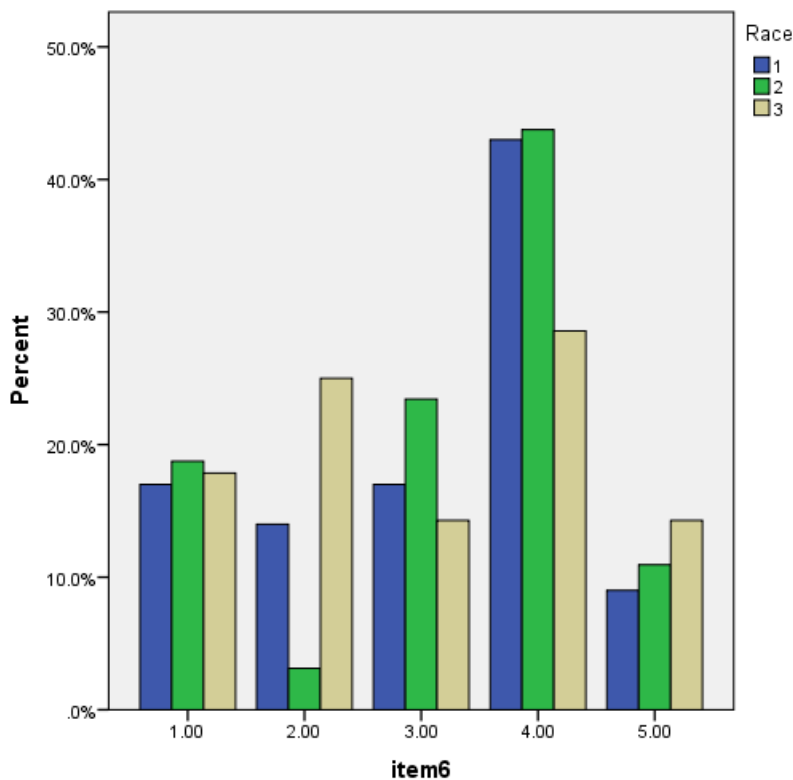

Figure 18. Frequencies by Race for the Five Modes of Caring for Scenario 6: Being Teased by a Classmate. Modes of Caring: 1 Touch; 2 Words; 3 Gifts; 4 Acts of Service; 5 Quality Time. Race: 1 African American; 2 Caucasian; 3 Other.

Summary of Results

Within each scenario, frequencies across the five modes of caring were statistically significantly different. However, there was no pattern across scenarios. Thus, it appears that the

way students respond is scenario specific. There was not a statistically significant relationship between the gender of the 2nd grade children and their selection of the Five Modes of Caring. Gender was not a factor in regards to the Mode of Caring selected by the 2nd graders. This was true for all six scenarios presented. There was not a statistically significant relationship between the race of the 2nd grade children and their selection of the Five Modes of Caring. Race was not a factor in regards to the Mode of Caring selected by the 2nd graders.

Chapter V: Summary, Interpretations, and Recommendations

Summary

Chapter Five of this quantitative case study provides the analysis of data collected to examine Gary Chapman's 5 Love Languages as a possible reward system for children. The researcher created The Five Modes of Caring Index based off Chapman's five love languages (i.e., Touch, Words, Gift, Time, or Service) and their correlation to classroom scenarios with a treatment group of second grade students. The secondary aims included determining if there were differences in students' perceptions of the Five Modes of Caring within gender and race. Determination of the possible use of the Modes of Caring was deemed important in order to give teachers and administrators a tool for increasing the ethic of caring among various races and genders of primary school age children.

There were three stages involved in conducting this study. Stage One (March-April, 2013) included concept clarification, completion of initial item generation and revisions based on the expert panel's recommendations. Stage Two (May-June, 2013) included IRB approval, pilot testing and index revisions based on the focus group's recommendations. Stage Three (August-September, 2013) included final administration of the index, data collection and analysis.

The school system in which the study was conducted was a public school system located in the Southeastern region of the United States. Within the school system, there were three primary schools serving grades K-2, three intermediate schools serving grades 3-5, one middle school (grades 6-8) and one high school (grades 9-12). The district contains approximately 4,000 students with approximately 67% of the students receiving free/reduced lunch. Due to the

number of students receiving free/reduced lunch, all primary and intermediate schools in the district receive Title I funding. For this study, convenience sampling was used to select 202 participants from 19 second grade classrooms in the three primary schools. Of the 202 participants selected, 192 were used for the study. The participants were housed within classrooms whose class size ranged from 15 to 20 students, and the teachers' years of teaching experience spanned from 1 year to 36 years.

All data analyses were conducted on IBM SPSS version 23 (Chicago, IL) with alpha set at $p < .05$. Earlier analysis conducted during the pilot administration confirmed that the six scenarios should be examined using an analysis that would allow them to be reported as separate conditions. Because of this, a Pearson Chi Square was chosen as the most appropriate procedure. The study included these three fixed-factor conditional models: (a) School, (b) Race, and (c) Sex.

Research Objectives

The research objectives for this study included the following:

1.) To determine the relationships between six classroom scenarios and the Five Modes of Caring functions (i.e., Gift, Time, Service, Touch, or Words).

2.) To determine if there is a difference between male and female second grade participants' perceptions of the Five Modes of Caring as represented by participants' reported index scores.

3.) To determine if there is a difference among ethnic groups of second grade participants' perceptions of the Five Modes of Caring as represented by participants' reported index scores.

Implications of Key Findings

Students' responses were context specific. Child development has been a primary focus of educational researchers for decades. The findings of educational pioneers such as Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky, Howard Gardener, and Robert Gee each contribute to increasing the understanding of how children think and function intellectually and socially. Dating back to the 1930s, Piaget utilized structuralism and related it to cognitive growth. Piaget believed that individuals construct their own meaning (constructivism) through the interacting processes of assimilation, adaptation, accommodation and equilibrium, and the extension of schema, or ways of thinking. In this process, Piaget identified four stages of development as a child grows, namely, the sensorimotor stage; the preoperational stage; the concrete operational stage; and the formal operational stage. His theory focuses on not only understanding how children acquire knowledge but also understanding the nature of intelligence. According to his view an individual is continually constructing hypotheses and thereby attempting to generate knowledge. He or she is trying to determine the nature of the material objects in the world, how they interact with one another, as well as the nature of persons in the world, their motivations and behavior. Ultimately one must piece them all together into a sensible story, a coherent account of the nature of the physical and the social worlds (Gardner,1985). Piaget's theory is based upon biological maturation and stages; therefore, learners must be active, not passive. The idea that children learn best through doing and actively exploring is central to the learning environment.

In addition to Piaget's work, Lev Vygotsky examined how social environments influence the learning process. For Vygotsky, the learning process was not a solitary exploration by a child of the environment, as suggested by Piaget's personal constructivist theory, but rather a process of appropriation by the child of culturally relevant behavior (McInerney and McInerney,

105

1998). According to Vygotsky (1962), children are born with a diverse range of perceptual, attentional and memory capacities which are substantially transformed in the context of socialization and education. In other words, children are only as cognitively developed as the culture in which they live, allows. For Vygotsky, the culture and environment in which a child grows over-rides the mental and cognitive schema processes outlined by Piaget. As a result of this thinking, Vygotsky put forward the notion that a child's learning is shaped by their social influence. Known as Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, he defined it like this "… as the distance between the actual development of a child as determined by the independent problem solving, and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more peers (Vygotsky, 1978). For children that have limited experiences and dialogue at home, the classroom can be a vital environment for students to grow through their interactions with peers and teachers. Teachers can create learning environments that maximize the learner's ability to interact with each other through discussion, collaboration, and feedback. Vygotsky (1962) argues that culture is the primary determining factor for knowledge construction. We learn through this cultural lens by interacting with others and following the rules, skills, and abilities shaped by our culture. Vygotsky (1978) also argues "that language is the main tool that promotes thinking, develops reasoning, and supports cultural activities like reading and writing."

In conjunction with Vygotsky's framework of social learning theories, Robert Gee (2009) expands these ideas with his research on social language, which he refers to as "discourse." The concept of discourse (written with a lower case "d") refers to the actual language or vernacular being used. When discussing the combination of the language with social practices (behavior, values, customs, and perspectives) within specific groups, this is referred to as Discourse (written

106

with an upper case "D"). Individuals can be part of many different Discourse communities, for example a student might behave and speak one way at school, another way at home, and another way with his or her friends. According to Gee (2009), language is always used from a perspective and always occurs within a context. There is no 'neutral' use of language. Meaning is socially-constructed within Discourse communities, and individuals reveal and disclose different identities, what Gee called "socially-situated identities" (2009, p.3). The assumption is that a person has numerous and ever-changing identities. Gee's theory of discourse links thought and identity, which are connected to language.

In 1985, Howard Gardner published *Frames of Mind*, in which he expanded upon cultural definitions of intelligence, neurophysiology, anthropological studies and his own experimentation. Gardner devised seven categories of intelligences: verbal/linguistic, logical/mathematical, spatial, kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. Almost a decade later, Gardner (1995) added an eighth intelligence, naturalistic/environmental. Gardner contends that all humans have some degree of all eight intelligences; whereas, there are those who are more gifted in some areas, or in combinations of areas, than others. Just as students identify with specific intelligences, they also relate to particular ways of feeling cared for. Although the results of this study indicated modes of caring were context specific, it is possible that as students mature, one language becomes predominant over the others; therefore, learning to embed multiple modes of caring into the classroom is imperative to effective classroom cultures.

Based on the theories of Piaget and Gardner, students use multiple intelligences to move through stages of cognitive development. Vygotsky's theory adds the relevance of using social interaction to enhance the learning process, and Gee's theory highlights the importance of the

107

use of language/discourse within social interactions. These theories set the foundation for understanding the development of a child cognitively, the development of a child's particular intelligences, and the importance of providing social interaction with varied discourses. The research lacking from this compilation of frameworks is the role that caring and teacher-student relationship play in conjunction with these theories. A student could move through Piaget's four stages, but how much faster might he move through them if paired with a teacher who provided genuine words of encouragement along the way? A student could develop one of Gardner's multiple intelligences, but how much greater could that intelligence be if a teacher invested time assisting that child with completing tasks associated with the intelligence. A student could interact with others appropriately in one of Vygotsky's social settings, but how much keener could his ability be to display empathy and compassion if he watched his teacher model empathy and compassion by hugging and comforting a discouraged classmate. A student could naturally adjust to one of Gee's social settings and still communicate appropriately and gain meaning from discourse, but what an impact it would make for a teacher to spend one-on-one quality time with that child teaching him the balance of being himself, varying his dialect to match the social setting he is in, and using context clues to gain meaning from unfamiliar vernacular. The component that could and should be embedded within these theories is the ethic of care.

Ryan & Deci (2000) reviewed studies that specified the social contextual conditions that support intrinsic motivation and facilitate internalization and integration of extrinsically motivated tasks. The studies were interpreted in terms of the basic psychological needs. That is, they found that social contextual conditions that support one's feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness are the basis for one maintaining intrinsic motivation and becoming more self-determined with respect to extrinsic motivation. In schools, the facilitation of more

108

self-determined learning requires classroom conditions that allow satisfaction of these three basic human needs—that is that support the innate needs to feel connected, effective, and agentic as one is exposed to new ideas and exercises new skills (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Results from this study found that one mode of caring did not significantly prevail more frequently than the others; therefore, teachers should embed all modes of caring in their classrooms. Just as academic instruction is differentiated for individual student needs, expressions of care should be differentiated as well. Students respond to different scenarios in different ways, which indicates that there is not a 'one size fits all' formula for teachers to use to show the ethic of care. Any and all modes of caring are important since students respond to situations differently. Reflecting on Aristotle's observation that "educating the mind without educating the heart is no education at all," self-regulatory and social-emotional competencies must be brought to the table so as to nurture children to become educated and personally responsible citizens. According to Chapman & Freed (2015), teaching the 5 Love Languages creates understanding for students, educators, and families about what motivates them intrinsically. At the heart of what motivates us makes one feel loved, and understanding what makes other feel loved meets the deepest of human needs for connection. When people feel connected at these levels, the learning environment transcends gender, race, religion, culture, behavior, economics, traumatic experiences, and ideological differences (Chapman & Freed, 2015).

Similar to Gary Chapman's (1992) notion of teachers filling students' emotional tanks, Hamre & Pianta (2001) developed the Students, Teachers, and Relationship Support (STARS) system to help teachers enhance relationships with specific students with whom teachers report a problem. The STARS technique is directed at *banking* time. In banking time, the teacher implements a regular regimen of between five and fifteen minutes of individual time with a

target student. Banking time is a metaphor for saving up positive experiences so that the relationship between teacher and student can withstand conflict, tension, and disagreement without deteriorating and returning to a negative state. Thus the student can draw upon the accrued relationship capital and withdraw from the relationship resources that enable them to interact effectively in times of stress (Pianta, Stuhlman, & Hamre, 2002). This concept, albeit primarily focuses on quality time, coincides with the notion that frequent acts of caring in the classroom foster positive interactions with students, which in turn produce varied positive outcomes in the classroom.

Students' responses were not significantly different regarding race or gender. As noted throughout this study, student-teacher relationships are vital to empowering students to succeed. This requires teachers to grasp the importance of bringing out the best in all students, not just academically but emotionally, socially, and behaviorally. This tasks become increasingly difficult when there is a blatant disconnect between the majorities of white, female teachers in the workforce versus the majority of students of color. According to a study by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), during the 2009-2010 school year, more than 80 percent of the bachelor's degrees in education were awarded to white students, with three-quarters being women. Nearly half of all children under five are minorities, and no racial or ethnic group will constitute a true majority in the United States by 2050, according to the Census data. The racial and ethnic makeup of the teaching profession doesn't reflect that shift. DeRuy (2013) states "While more diverse teachers have entered the profession in recent years, their numbers have not kept pace with the PK–12 population shift," the AACTE study said. "An analysis of the National Center for Education Statistics (2012) data showed that students of color made up more than 45% of the PK–12 population, whereas teachers of color

made up only 17.5% of the educator workforce" (DeRuy, 2013). This disproportionate balance of teacher to student ratio may attribute to students disengagement in school; therefore, it is imperative that all teachers explore necessary avenues to help bridge that gap. Demonstrating various modes of caring into the classroom can be incorporated by any teacher and received by any student, regardless of race or gender. Cultivating relationships that enhance the happiness and well-being of productive, kind, and moral human beings should be at the center of every teacher's classroom. In teaching, as in other clinical practice professions, a strong body of general and specialized knowledge is necessary but not sufficient because of the inherent uncertainties in clinical practice (Alter & Coggshal, 2009). A teacher also must know his or her students well (Paley, 1986). This requires that teachers gather information on their students' backgrounds, interest, and learning styles and diagnose student strengths and difficulties. According to the National Center for Mental Health in schools, teachers should work towards improving awareness of personal motives and true capabilities, learning to set valued and appropriate goals, learning to make appropriate and satisfying choices, and learning to value and accept responsibility for choices. It is recommended that an emphasis be placed upon engaging and re-engaging students in learning by matching motivation. Matching motivation requires an appreciation of the importance of a student's perceptions in determining the right mix of intrinsic and extrinsic reasons. Armed with this evidence, teachers can begin to use their judgement to effectively engage and motivate learners and strategically build on students' prior experiences and knowledge. Most importantly, teachers must analyze the impact of their own practice on student learning outcomes (Alter & Coggshal, 2009). It is essential, according to Dewey, that the classroom teacher has the mental propensity to overcome the demands and stressors placed on her because the students can sense when their teacher is not genuinely invested in promoting

111

their learning (Dewey, 2010). Such negative demeanors, according to Dewey, prevent children from pursuing their own propensities for learning and intellectual growth. It can therefore be assumed that if teachers want their students to engage with the educational process and employ their natural curiosities for knowledge, teachers must be aware of how their reactions to young children and the stresses of teaching influence this process.

Teachers emotional support directly provides students with experiences that foster motivational and learning-related processes important to academic functioning (Crosnoe, Johnson, & Elder, 2004; Pianta et al., 2002). According to Klem & Connell (2004), "Teacher support is important to student engagement in school as reported by students and teachers. Students who perceive teachers as creating a caring, well-structured learning environment in which expectations are high, clear and fair are more likely to report engagement in school. In turn, high levels of engagement are associated with higher attendance and test scores." Pianta et al. (2002) noted that kindergarten teachers who offered more child-centered climates, found that students were observed to be more often on-task and engaged in learning. With older students, perceptions of positive relatedness to teachers predict gains in student engagement over the course of the school year (Furrer & Skinner, 2003). Hamre & Pianta (2001) note that among children who have displayed difficulties adjusting to the classroom environment, having teachers who attend to their social and emotional needs may be as or more important to academic development as specific instructional practices. As Garza, Alejandro, Blythe, & Fite (2014) note "Educators can ill afford to underestimate the powerful presence of a caring and nurturing teacher in today's classrooms. If there is truly a 'no child left behind' mandate, then the poster child for this slogan is a caring teacher.

Instructional leaders are important. Todd Whitaker (2011) states that there are two ways to improve schools significantly: Get better teachers or improve the existing teachers. In order to foster the ethic of care, administrators must acknowledge the need for intentional care, and model the Five Modes of Caring in their interactions with teachers, students, and parents. This could be displayed through complimenting a teacher's hard work at a faculty meeting, hugging her neck after receiving disappointing news, covering her morning duty if she is running late, buying her favorite candy bar to brighten her day, or spending time talking one on one about her students. Administrators are unique in the sense that they are most likely in contact with more adults than any other person in the building; therefore, have the greatest ability to impact the masses. According to research, leadership has a significant effect on student learning, second only to the effects of the quality of curriculum and teachers' instruction (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Effective administrators set the tone for the school. They understand that behaviors and beliefs are tied to emotion, and they understand the power of emotion to jumpstart change. George (2000) indicated that emotional intelligence is more important to the process of leading and should be considered an essential component of effective leadership. Educating instructional leaders on the value of the *5 Love Languages* could have a strong influence on teachers incorporating those strategies and behaviors in the classroom. Marques (2013) found that "soft leadership skills, such as self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills, are steadily on the rise, and that greater attention should be apportioned to strengthen these skills in future leaders." Leaders that are aware of and utilize care within their framework of leadership can greatly enhance the cultures of their schools. Many practitioners in the teaching profession are trying to alter the idea that good teaching is simply a matter of personal style and individual commitment, which has been widely suggested by a number of professional

associations (Gladwell, 2008). Associations such as the National Academy of Education Committee on Teacher Education, the National Council for Teachers of Mathematics, the NBPTS, and the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education are articulating a knowledge base of best instructional practices based on rigorous research and expert judgment. To ensure that all teachers acquire and demonstrate a facility with the knowledge base, specific and well-articulated standards for professional practice, with rubrics that clearly discriminate between acceptable and unacceptable practice, must be widely and consistently implemented. In order to create and maintain these types of professional communities, administrators must cultivate climates that promote this mindset. Whitaker, Whitaker, & Lumpa note "leaders must have their own well-grounded beliefs about how learning is best facilitated. This does not imply that the leader must inflict that vision on the school, but that the leaders' belief system must be in place so that the school and its leader can find mutual ground on which to build" (2009, p. 56). Instructional leaders must model the vision visibly in words and actions, consistently. The best schools are not places where students learn, but places where everyone learns. A culture where the adults are actively and enthusiastically learning is a culture where the students are learning as well. Therefore, school improvement rests squarely on the shoulders of the school leaders (Whitaker, Whitaker, & Lumpa, 2009).

Recommendations for Future Research

This study provided the researcher with an opportunity to explore Gary Chapman's theory of the *5 Love Languages* in the classroom. While all data provided insight related to the *5 Love Languages*, further research is recommended. The researcher provides the following recommendations for future research.

1) Replicate this study with older participants. The concept of choosing favored responses could have been an abstract concept to students in the second grade. Students that young may not have understood the difference between choosing what they would hypothetically prefer versus choosing what they had experienced previously in real life.

2) Replicate the study with a larger sample from participants from other regions. This replication would allow for comparison of outcomes across different geographic locations in order to determine possible similarities or difference between participants. This could include analyzing high, middle, and low socio-economic classes within the different regions to determine if participants' existing lifestyles played a part in their preference of how to receive care.

3) Replicate the study using an alternate form of data collection and analysis. Composing a Likert-scale or either/or questionnaire may be more suitable for elementary students and would allow for a wider variety of analysis methods to be used. Incorporating a qualitative approach for a mixed methods study may also lend itself to further validity and reliability regarding Chapman's findings.

4) Compose an instrument with items containing similar constructs. The Five Modes of Caring Index contained items focused on the participant's academic, social, and personal domain. It also included scenarios that were positive such as: making an A on a test or celebrating a birthday and scenarios that were negative such as: making a poor grade on a test or being teased by a classmate. Constructing an instrument that measures similar constructs, may demonstrate patterns related to students responding to positive and negative experiences, which could provide further validity or nullification of Chapman's 5 Love Languages.

5) Conduct a study of practitioners that actively promote the 5 Love Languages in their classrooms. An analysis could be conducted on teacher satisfaction as related to facilitating an intentional classroom of care, in addition to the perceptions of students participating in those types of caring classrooms.

6) Conduct a longitudinal study of students to determine if their preferred love language remained scenario specific or if primary/secondary languages surfaced when measured over an extended period of time.

Concluding Remarks

This study examined The Five Modes of Caring as a possible reward system for primary school age children. The researcher used six classroom scenarios created by an expert panel and Gary Chapman's five reward functions of (i.e., Touch, Words, Gift, Time, or Service) with a treatment group of second grade students. The researcher's secondary aims included determining if there were differences in students' perceptions of the Five Modes of Caring within gender and race. Determination of the possible use of the Modes of Caring was deemed important in order to give teachers and administrators a tool for increasing the ethic of caring among various races and genders of primary school age children.

Schools continue to suffer from high dropout rates of students and staff, a gap that resists closure. Unfortunately, student engagement and disengagement are poorly addressed in most efforts to improve schools and schooling. Excellent teaching is harder than it looks and demands more than just tricks of the trade. It requires both specialized and general knowledge, not ordinarily found among lay individuals (Cohen, 1988). The researcher believes that bringing out the best in students should be the highest priority of teachers and administrators. The researcher also believes that when teachers look critically at what they are doing to improve student

116

learning outcomes, they are able to make changes to their own teaching in order to increase the positive effects they have on their students. Because "teaching occurs in particulars-particular students interacting with particular teachers over particular ideas in particular circumstances (Ball & Cohen, 1999), teachers must be able to gauge a situation from moment to moment and make expert judgements over careful consideration at times and in a matter of split seconds at other times. In using this judgement, they must "create bridges between the universal terms of theory and the gritty particulars of situated practice" (Shulman, 1998). Student-teacher conflict is a stronger predictor of later problems for children who display significant acting out behaviors than for their peers who do not display these behavior problems (Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Ladd & Burgess, 2001); therefore, positive social and instructional experiences within the school setting may help reduce children's risk, while negative interactions between teachers and children may be particularly problematic for those children displaying the highest risk of school failure (Hamre & Pianta, 2005).

John Dewey makes a strong case for the importance of education not only as a place to gain content knowledge, but also as a place to learn how to live. In his eyes, the purpose of education should not revolve around the acquisition of a pre-determined set of skills, but rather the realization of one's full potential and the ability to use those skills for the greater good. He notes that "to prepare him for the future life means to give him command of himself; it means so to train him that he will have the full and ready use of all his capacities" (Dewey & Small, 1897). Across our nation, students enter classrooms with limited English proficiency, limited background knowledge, limited physical and emotional resources, and limited support at home. Schools across the country are responding to diversity in cultural backgrounds, waves of immigration, income disparities, physical and mental disabilities, and variation in students'

learning capacities. As noted from this study, students respond to different situations in different ways; therefore, incorporating various modes of caring in the classroom is imperative to fostering student-teacher relationships. John Dewey states the profession of the classroom teacher is to produce the intelligence, skill and character within each student so that the democratic community is composed of citizens who can think, do and act intelligently and morally. By finding specific avenues to show students that they are cared *for* and cared *about*, teachers have the potential to make a powerful difference in the lives of their students. As Noddings (2012) notes, a climate in which caring relations can flourish should be a goal for all teachers and educational policymakers. In such a climate, we can best meet individual needs, impart knowledge, and encourage the development of moral people. Establishing such a climate is not *on top* of all the other things taught, rather, it is *underneath* all we do as teachers.

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Appendix A

Check one: Boy_____ Girl ___   Check one: Black ___White ___ Other ___

Put these sentences in order from the one that describes you the most (1) to the one that describes you the least (5).

1.   **If you made an "A" on your math test, which would you prefer your teacher do?**

___   Smile and give you a high five or hug

___   Brag about you in front of the class

___   Give you a prize from the prize box

___   Post your test on the wall for everyone to see

___   Take your test to your first grade teacher so you can show her your grade

2. **If you lost your first tooth in the classroom, what would you want your teacher to do?**

___   Walk with you to the office to get an ice pack

___   Sit next to you until you feel better

___   Tell you how cute you look without your two front teeth

___   Give you a fancy bag to put your tooth in to take home

___   Get you a mirror so you can see what you look like

3. **When you walk into your classroom in the morning, what would you want your teacher to do?**

___   Help finish the homework you forgot to do the night before

___   Listen to you talk about what you did over the weekend

___   Give you a big hug

___   Compliment what you are wearing

___   Give you the extra biscuit she didn't eat for breakfast

4. If you made a bad grade on a spelling test, what would you want your teacher to do?

___ Give you a pencil so you'll do better on the next test

___ Write a note to your parents letting them know the test was harder this week

___ Help you study during the school day for the next test

___ Give you a pat on the back for neat handwriting

___ Tell you that you're smart and she knows you'll do better on the next test

5. It's your birthday! What would you want your teacher to do?

___ Give you a birthday card where she listed all of her favorite things about you

___ Buy you your favorite toy or game

___ Come to your birthday party for the weekend

___ Throw a party for you in the classroom

___ Give you lots of hugs and high fives during the day

6. **If a classmate made fun of you in front of your friends, what would you want your teacher to do?**

___ Pat you on the back or give you a hug

___ Tell you all the things she loves about you

___ Let you visit the treasure chest to find something you like

___ Let you a pick a special activity to do at recess with your friends

___ Talk to the other person that hurt your feelings