UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

EFFECTS OF PARENTAL SEPARATION ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF CHILDREN OF MILITARY PERSONNEL

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

PEDRO RAMIREZ
Norman, Oklahoma
2008

EFFECTS OF PARENTAL SEPARATION ON THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF CHILDREN OF MILITARY PERSONNEL

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR A DEGREE IN THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

BY

_____
Dr. Catalina Herrerías, Chair

_____
Dr. Belinda Biscoe

_____
Dr. Amy Johnson

_____
Dr. Amy Johnson

_____
Dr. Jorge Mendoza

_____
Dr. Terry Pace

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There are a number of individuals who have been instrumental in my reaching this milestone. It is with sincere gratitude and appreciation that I acknowledge the professional guidance and friendship of Dr. Catalina Herrerías. Her unwavering support and encouragement throughout this research endeavor was invaluable in realizing my goal. There were many trials and special challenges involved, not to mention the broad distance that separates students living abroad with their peers and faculty located in Norman, Oklahoma. Dr. Herrerías made these unique challenges seamless and provided me more support and guidance than I could have wished for in a committee chair or friend. My gratitude is expressed to the members of my reading and examination committee, Dr. Belinda Biscoe, Dr. Amy Johnson, Dr. Jorge Mendoza, and Dr. Terry Pace. I could not have completed this without their support. Appreciation is also extended to Dr. Jennifer Han for her valuable assistance.

I am forever grateful to my family. My wife, Gabi, and two wonderful daughters, Samantha and Sophia, have been a constant source of strength and have provided me their unconditional love throughout my Ph.D. program. I am grateful to my mother, Teresa, who instilled the importance of education at a very young age, even though she herself was denied the educational opportunities I have enjoyed. Finally, I am most grateful to the children who I am honored to serve whose parents serve in the military. Their story is one of tremendous inspiration to me. I am in constant awe of the strength and courage they demonstrate on a daily basis, more

often than not, despite their separations from father or mother due to yet another deployment in the service of our country.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

ABSTRACT

Purpose: The purpose of this study was to gauge the effects of parental separation on the academic achievement and social/emotional behavior of children of military personnel. The research design was descriptive-exploratory in nature, utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. The Teacher's Perception of Social Attributes (TPSA) and Teacher's Perception of Child Emotional Behavior (TPCEB) checklists were qualitative measures administered to five elementary school teachers to compare differences in social and emotional functioning in nine children who experienced parental deployment and nineteen children whose parents were not deployed. Additionally, twenty-eight student school data records were collected to complete the quantitative aspect of the study. Using TerraNova math scaled scores, grade point averages, attendance and tardy records, and demographic variables; Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) analysis (Hotelling's T) were performed to compare differences in academic achievement between parental deployment (PD) and no parental deployment (NPD) groups. **Results**: Results from the study revealed no significant differences in academic achievement or social/emotional functioning between PD and NPD groups. Correlation analysis on demographic variables between the groups did not reveal TPSA negatively correlated with TPCEB. The knowledge gained from this study may shed light on understanding some of the dynamic processes that may be contributing to the overall academic and social adaptiveness of children of military personnel.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

Children of military personnel across American schools in Europe are experiencing a significant increase in the amount of parental separations as their parents are being called away to duty. These call-to-arms require soldiers, who are fathers and mothers, to separate from their loved ones for upwards of fifteen months, and in some cases longer. These military-induced separations can have devastating effects on children, especially military children whom currently appear to be in the midst of an intense recurring separation cycle. For many military children living in Europe, their loved ones return for about eight months after a one-year separation and then prepare for yet another year or longer separation. Now into the seventh year mark since the war on terror began, some military families are into their third or even fourth cycle of separation. Efforts to build upon the literature on the traumatic effects these separations can have are summarized by Blount, Curry, and Lubin (1992):

> The family's inability to cope successfully with the separation is recognized as a significant problem by both the families and the military organization...the care and support of those families is an important adjunct to the morale and fighting capability of deployed forces (p.76).

Soldiers who find themselves in combat situations/hazardous environments are going to be concerned about their family's well-being. It is reasonable to assume that when the fighting force feels their families are being cared

for back home, they are better able to focus on their mission and enhanced fighting capabilities are achieved. For example, numerous military parents have voiced concerns to school personnel at various times during the year regarding their children's well being. It is clear that their children's social emotional functioning weighs heavily on their minds during parental separation.

Since children spend a significant amount of their day in the classroom, school teachers and staff members are in a key position to observe some of the effects of parental separation on children. They can also be instrumental in helping to provide a stable environment, albeit a learning one, for children. Teachers provide a sense of connection, continuity, and security for students. They can be someone a student can talk to, particularly if trust and rapport has been established. Classrooms provide a home away from home—a safe haven for most students. Thus, when there are changes transpiring for students external to the school environment, frequently behaviors will manifest in the educational setting that may be evident to the teacher. These behaviors and their potential impact on learning have far reaching implications. Parental separation in most cases is a traumatic experience and may lead to social, emotional, and/or behavioral changes in children that effect different aspects of their lives.

Purpose of the Research

In my work as a school counselor, I have the unique opportunity to work with children whose parent(s) serve in the U.S. military or whose parents work in a supporting capacity for the military. Since the war on terrorism began (I suppose the official start date would be Sept.11th, a day in America which will live in *infamy* for us all), many soldiers have been deployed to the Middle East to serve in Iraq, Kuwait, or Afghanistan. These countries are where most of the soldiers and civilians from the community I work in, are being sent for upwards of a year at a time–sometimes longer. One need not be an astute scholar to figure out the educational implications for students being involuntarily separated from their parents. Saying goodbye to one's mother or father without knowing if they will ever see them again can be a very scary and real proposition. For the students I serve, it is a stark reality.

This study sought to identify children who experienced educational, emotional, and social difficulties as a result of their parent's military deployment to geographically distant locations. The avenue for determining the effects of parental deployment was via children's school records and teachers' perceptions of students' behavior. It was expected that the outcome of this research would facilitate the development of effective intervention so as to help avert, postpone, or delay more serious psychological and behavioral challenges over the long term.

Significance of the Research

Fighting capability is unquestionably critical to the success of any military operation, leaving the implications for appropriate psychosocial functioning in military families too important to ignore. There appears to be many factors that may

hinder or facilitate successful negotiation of a military-induced separation. For parents and teachers close to the military child, a drop in children's affective behaviors may indicate underlying symptoms in need of mediation. It is not uncommon for parents and teachers alike to see a decline in children's academic performance and sociability, while a noticeable increase in emotional outbursts may become more commonplace at home and school. In these cases, the future implications for the child's well-being could result in negative life outcomes if not properly addressed.

In one study, Lang and Zagorsky (2000) used data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) and found that children who grow up in a two-parent family were found to experience more favorable outcomes than children who grew up in other types of family configurations. They found children from two-parent families, on average, completed one more full year of education (13.6 versus 12.6), were over 10 percentage points more likely to graduate high school (91.9% versus 80.5%), scored more than 10 points higher on the Armed Forces Qualification Test (51.5 versus 40.8), were substantially more likely to be married (63.9% versus 54.5%), and had higher incomes ($45,265 versus $36,038) than children from other family configurations.

Adler, Huffman, Bliese, and Castro (2005) found that soldiers who entered the U.S. military at the time could expect to deploy up to 14 times in a 21-year career. Military spouses are being challenged by today's stringent demands placed on them by the military's recent efforts in combating terrorism around the globe. Not since the Vietnam War has there been such a major mobilization of soldiers, but with a critical difference regarding today's warrior–marriage. It is common knowledge that during

the Vietnam conflict, soldiers averaged a young age of around 19, were mostly drafted, with the majority of them being single.

Today's warrior is close to 30 years of age, joined voluntarily, and is more likely to be married with children. To add emphasis, take into consideration the following statistic: the number of military family members (MFM) to active duty members (ADM) (U.S. Department of Defense, 2004) points out there are 1,895,310 (57.3%) MFM to 1,412,133 (42.7%) ADM. Here, the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC) based in Arlington, Virginia defines ADM as both married and single soldiers and MFM as spouses, children, and adult dependents. The implications to the senior military leadership here are indeed significant.

Many of today's soldiers attempt to balance military and family life on a daily basis. Since the 9/11 attacks on America, a soldier's sense of what might be routine has become unpredictable and difficult to maintain. Whereas, in a pre-9/11 attack, soldiers could expect to have relatively short and infrequent deployments usually lasting between 30 to 60 days once or twice a year, post-9/11 efforts have many European-based soldiers away from their families for almost three out of five years.

The Center for Army Lessons Learned (Adler et al., 2005) defined deployment as, "The movement of forces within areas of operations, the positioning of forces into formation for battle, and/or the relocation of forces and material to desired areas of operations" (p.121). In their study on the impact of deployment length and experience on the well-being of male and female soldiers, Adler et al., (2005) findings were consistent with other military studies (da Silva, Paiva, Elsa, Rodigues, & Ricardo, 1998, as cited in Adler et al., 2005; Ritzer, Campbell, & Valentine, 1999, as cited in

Adler et al., 2005). Essentially, there was a correlation between the length of deployment and the amount of psychological distress and physical symptomatology.

The media has been a strong, influence in supporting troops overseas, especially in covering the daily struggles of soldiers serving in Iraq and Afghanistan. Adler (2003) of *Newsweek* reported:

> The Pentagon's public-relations efforts, which had been masterful during the actual fighting, was beset last week by a ragtag insurgency of frustrated wives, anxious parents—and hot, thirsty, bored and disgruntled troops. In and out of uniform, military family members are speaking up—about the mounting casualties, the hardships of the occupation and, above all, the ever-lengthening deployments (p. 30).

Many of the soldiers in U.S. Army units across Germany are preparing for a third or even fourth year-long deployment, this after just returning from a year's deployment with only an eight-month break in between deployments. In most cases, the military spouse (95% of spouses are women) is left alone again to hold down the household and manage the daily responsibilities, which go along with caring for their families. Whereas before the deployments, women had their husbands to lend a helping hand around the house, women are literally being left behind to enact the role of both parents.

Who are these women being left behind, and why is their well-being so significant? As mentioned above, today's military is a voluntary force, with just over half of its military personnel married. Family satisfaction issues must be addressed by

the senior leadership if they are to retain quality soldiers, and thereby maintain military fighting capability at an optimal level. Identifying these *recruited* female family leaders is an important step to understanding how to best facilitate successful negotiation of these lengthy separations.

According to the 2004 Demographic Report, of the 688,418 military spouses of ADM, just over half (50.2%) of the spouses are 30 years of age or younger. In the U.S. Army alone, there were 71,108 spouses in the 25 years and under category in the report. With this information, we are made aware of two important points. The first is a potentially at-risk population--young age mothers left without their spouses to raise their children alone. The second is that these young mothers are also in a position to empower themselves and their families to flourish in the face of adversity. While there may be a myriad of factors which contribute to the overall adaptability of young mothers, Drummet, Coleman, and Cable (2003) highlighted the impact of negative coping strategies in their saying:

> If the mother's reaction to her spouse's deployment is depression, then the children may mirror her depressive symptoms or behaviors, especially if they manifest as parental inattentiveness and unresponsiveness (p.281).

Pincus, House, Christenson, and Adler (2004) put it this way for these possible *at-risk* spouses, "...their husband's departure may leave a 'hole,' which can lead to feelings of numbness, sadness, being alone or abandonment" (p.3). Loss of sleep and anxiety are also characteristic in young mothers, especially if fears such as the potential for car or pay problems are a source of ongoing concern. Much of the

literature on military family separations points towards these same types of messages, essentially stating that children will react similar to how their mothers react.

Becoming a *single parent* (even if temporarily) may help young mothers become cognizant of the fact they find themselves in a situation of discovery about themselves, and may foster a new sense of freedom and increased competence that may not have been possible had the deployment not occurred. With these possibilities in mind, it is appropriate to make a developmental connection between a sustaining dyad in the military family: the mother-child relationship. Since most of the military spouses are female, many of the children of such families find themselves with an absent father during long periods of time.

These developmental *voids* in military childrens' lives can often lead to short-term and long-term emotional and behavioral difficulties. In her research examining the adjustment of military children, Kelley (1994) found fighting, defiance, anger, anxiety, sadness, and school difficulties were common among military children with absent fathers. Research by Jenson, Lewis and Xenakis, (1986) also suggested parent-child separations present a challenge to the healthy psychosocial development of military children. Blount, Curry, and Lubin (1992) spoke to the importance of children having stability in their lives:

> Children need love, stability, and consistency, but parental deployments is not conducive to these attitudes...young children frequently feel responsible for the deployed parent's absence and that it happened because of something the child did. Loss of one parent through deployment can lead to fears that the other

> parent will also be lost and no one will take care of the children (p.77).

The bond between a mother and child becomes more significant during these experiences as mothers are left in positions to significantly influence their children. Oftentimes too, especially for military families stationed overseas with little or no extended family support, a second central figure in the lives of military children emerges—classroom teachers. When retired Major Joyce Dolish went before a Congressional Subcommittee Hearing on Children and Families (United States Senate, 2003), she provided the following testimony before the senate:

> On-post schools are one of the positive aspects of deployment and military life. Children are surrounded by peers going through the same thing they are. Teachers and counselors are experienced with deployments and are trained to watch children for signs of excessive stress. Teachers have constant access to the families and support from military units and the Installation. Exceptional discipline is maintained, in part because the military parent can be held accountable for their children's actions (p.20).

Communication between teachers and parents can be the difference between a successful negotiation of a lengthy deployment or the development of short and long-term emotional and behavioral challenges, not to mention increased stress and anxiety for all involved.

Military children have been faced with past deployments to be sure. However, for the past few years, they have been experiencing extended separations not previously experienced. Additionally, while a year's absence alone is difficult enough to negotiate by its own merit, the current deployment effects on children are amplified

because they involve the threat of losing a family member to combat. This variable adds a traumatic stressor effect on children.

Research Questions

1. What is the overall academic achievement of fifth graders at the American school?
2. What is the academic achievement of fifth graders whose parents have been deployed for military duty?
3. What is the social behavior for fifth graders at the American school?
4. What is the social behavior for fifth graders whose parents have been deployed for military duty?
5. What are the differences in attendance between fifth grade students with deployed parents and fifth grade students without deployed parents?

Hypotheses

1. There will be significant differences in the academic achievement of fifth graders with deployed parents compared to those of nondeployed parents.
2. Fifth graders with nondeployed parents will earn significantly higher standardized test scores than fifth graders with deployed parents.

3. There will be a significant difference between the grade point average of fifth graders with deployed parents and fifth graders with nondeployed parents.

4. There will be a significant difference in students' behavioral adjustment between fifth graders of deployed parents and fifth graders of nondeployed parents.

5. There will be a significant difference in school attendance between fifth graders of deployed parents and fifth graders of nondeployed parents.

CHAPTER II

THEORTICAL FRAMEWORK:

ATTACHMENT, SEPARATION AND LOSS

This study focuses on the separation of children from one of their parents by reason of military deployment. Thus, this research is premised on the work of John Bowlby (1969) on attachment theory. Essentially, this section relies heavily on Bowlby's classic work and excludes any recent studies on the subject. Attachment theory primarily focuses on the relationship between the child and the primary caretaker, which is usually the mother. Nevertheless, this theory is relevant to the focus of the current research.

Bowlby used the term *attachment* to describe the affective bond that develops between an infant and his/her mother. Throughout his text, the term *mother* was used to refer to the child's primary caregiver—the individual with whom the child forms an attachment--which is most frequently their biological mother. Bowlby drew on two of the four principal theories from the psychoanalytical and psychological literature regarding the nature and origin of the child's tie to his/her mother, which are referred to as primary object sucking and primary object clinging described below as items 1 and 2, respectively:

1. There is in infants an in-built propensity to relate themselves to a human breast, to suck it and to possess it orally. In due course the infant learns that, attached to the breast, there is a mother and so relates to her also.

2. There is in infants an in-built propensity to be in touch with and to cling to a human being. In this sense there is a 'need' for an object independent of food which is as primary as the 'need' for food and warmth (Bowlby, 1969, p.178).

Bowlby believed that these two theories most closely matched his hypothesis, which postulated an autonomous propensity to behave in a certain kind of way towards objects with certain properties. Further, he postulated that at some stage in the development of the behavioral systems responsible for attachment, proximity to mother becomes a set-goal and that between the ages of nine and eighteen months, these behaviors become incorporated into far more sophisticated goal-corrected systems. By *goal-corrected systems*, Bowlby was referring to behavior that is corrected by whatever discrepancy exists between current performance and set goal. *Set-goal* denotes either a time-limited event or an ongoing condition either of which is brought about by the action of behavioral systems that are structured to take account of discrepancies between instruction and performance.

The development of a healthy versus unhealthy attachment in infant studies can be characterized by common observable behaviors. The quality of attachment evolves over time as the infant interacts with his/her mother. One of the earliest signs of attachment behavior, perceptual discrimination, can occur as early as four months and is discernible when infants show smiles, vocalize more readily, or visually follow their mothers longer than they do for anyone else. Ainsworth (1963, 1967; as cited in Bowby, 1969) demonstrated that healthy attachment occurred and was most evident when infants began to show proximity-maintaining behaviors, which were discerned

when the mother left a room and their baby began to cry out for her or when her baby smiled upon their mother's return.

Another key study was Schaffer and Emerson (1964a, as cited in Bowlby, 1962), who looked at 60 Scottish infants from birth to 12 months, and found similarities to Ainsworth's postulations on attachment behaviors and their onset. One notable difference found in this study and two others by Gesell (1940, as cited in Bowlby, 1962) and Geber (1956, as cited in Bowlby, 1962), helped to account for earlier attachment behaviors in infants. Earlier development of gross motor skills in infants from Ganda (Ainsworth, 1963, 1967; as cited in Bowlby, 1969) when compared to Scottish children and white American children were observed. The median crawling age for infants from Ganda was 25 weeks and seven and a half months for white American children, which highlights motor development in Ganda infants is advanced compared to that of Caucasian infants.

Organismic and environmental variables provided a closer view on attachment. Both Ainsworth (1963, 1967; as cited in Bowlby, 1969) and Schaffer and Emerson (1964a, as cited in Bowlby, 1969) list common indicators, which may help in explaining variance along a continuum between the two groups of infants. On orgasmic influences, both studies cite hunger, fatigue, illness, and unhappiness as factors lending themselves to infants demonstrating greater attachment behaviors like crying or following. Environmental indicators were identical for both studies--attachment behaviors were most intense when a child alarmed.

Bowlby (1969) cited a number of studies in his formulation of a detachment cycle that children may often progress through during separations from their primary

care figures (Burlington & Freud 1942, 1944; Spitz & Wolf, 1946; Robertson, 1962; Heinicke, 1956; Heinicke & Westhiemer, 1966, as cited in Bowlby, 1969). While there were differences on a number of variables from these studies, such as a child's age, type of home from which the child came from, the type of institution which they went to, and the care they received while there, and in the length they were away, Bowlby (1969) reported remarkable uniformity in the findings. Drawing heavily from Robertson, Bowlby postulated three phases of the detachment cycle: protest, despair, and detachment. In the initial phase of *protest*, whose onset may be immediate or delayed and according to Bowlby, can last anywhere from a few hours to a week or more, children were often observed demonstrating common behaviors. Some of these behaviors included crying loudly, shaking their cots, throwing themselves about, and looking eagerly towards any sight or sound, which might prove to be their missing mother (Bowlby, 1969).

During the second phase of Bowlby's detachment cycle, *despair* is characterized by increasing hopelessness, where crying may become monotonous or intermittent. Withdrawn behaviors are also common and children may appear in a state of deep mourning (Bowlby, 1969). Bowlby characterized *detachment* as a type of 'recovery' from the protest and despair phases and is the final phase in the cycle. In detachment, a child will no longer reject caregivers and will accept their care, food, or any toys they may provide. While the child may no longer reject his or her caregiver, he or she may frequently respond in an apathetic manner or be far from clingy,

uncharacteristic of previous attachment behaviors. They appear to remain remote and reluctant to readily reattach.

In later work, Bowlby (1980) remarked that for young children between six months and three years whom had spent a week or more out of their mother's care and had not been cared for by a designated substitute, the children demonstrated a complete absence of attachment behaviors upon reuniting with their mothers. It was noted that from Heinicke and Westheimer's work (1966, as cited in Bowlby, 1969) that only one of the children out of the ten showed any affection by the end of the first day of reunion with their mother. While detachment behaviors were seen in most children towards their mothers, these same behaviors towards their fathers were far less pronounced.

In Bowlby's (1976) work on separation, he pointed out two critical conditions in ameliorating the intensity in young children's responses to separation from their mothers: (1) a familiar companion and/or familiar possessions and (2) mothering care from a substitute mother. In one experimental study by Robertson and Robertson (1971), four children were taken in and observed during a brief separation from their mothers. Robertson and Robertson's dual roles as observers and foster parents provided them the opportunity to experience firsthand the challenges young children may face when separated from their mothers. Mrs. Robertson undertook to give each child full-time care and to mirror her mothering behaviors as close as possible to the biological mothers from whom the children were separated. The

separations lasted anywhere from 10 to 27 days and every effort was made to mitigate the possible negative effects of the children's separation. Fathers were encouraged to visit daily if possible and in every case, the separation was due to the birth of a new baby. At the conclusion of their study, the Robertsons' impressions were that the children's anxiety levels were held at a 'manageable' level and that positive development continued. Additionally, they believed that the sequence of protest, despair, and detachment could be prevented to a significant extent (Bowlby, 1976). Still, the Robertsons, like Bowlby, cautioned that separations are dangerous and whenever possible, were to be avoided. Bowlby (1976) drew two principal conclusions:

a. The sequence of intense protest, followed by despair and detachment, which first caught our attention, is due to a combination of factors, of which the kernel is the conjunction strange people, strange events, and an absence of mothering either from mother herself or from a capable substitute.

b. Because separation from mother figure even in the absence of these other factors still leads to sadness, anger, and subsequently anxiety in children aged two year and over, and to comparable though less differentiated stress responses in younger ones, separation from mother figure is in itself a key variable in determining a child's emotional state and behavior (p.22).

Next to a child's mother, perhaps no greater *capable substitute* exists than a child's father. Any condition that would separate the child from a capable substitute would be referred to as an environmental condition that creates an undesirable *stressor* in children (Bowlby, 1976). Moreover, Bowlby (1976) remarked that:

> Since the goal of attachment behavior is to maintain an affectional bond, any situation that seems to be endangering the bond elicits action designed to preserve it; and the greater the danger of loss appears to be the more intense and varied are the actions elicited to prevent it (p.42).

Children react differently to the loss of a parent. It is clear that the differences with which children react depend upon age, temperament, and preexisting environmental conditions. Bowlby (1980) found that the younger a child was, the more distant the child was upon being reunited with its mother. Yet the oldest child warmed up to the mother within the same day. Admittedly this was not a loss, it was a separation. Nevertheless, young children do not know with certainty that a separation is temporary. A military deployment can certainly be experienced as a loss by a child rather than a separation given the length of time that the parent is gone.

Attachment theory holds that there is a strong bond between the child and its primary caretaker. While roles have dramatically expanded, primary caretakers are usually still roles enacted primarily by females. The attachment between child and caretaker is significant to the child's security and to its general well-being. The theory implies that an initial separation between the child and its primary caretaker may elicit behaviors that include crying or

anger. Prolonged separation may result in inconsolable crying, listlessness, and indifference. The longer the parent-child separation, the longer it will take for the parent-child to rekindle the attachment bonds. The age, temperament, and cognitive development of the child will all be factors in the length of time it will take to re-establish the parent-child attachment.

In Childhood and Society (1963), Erikson illustrates his theory of psychosocial development, which consists of eight stages humans follow in their development throughout their lifetime. For the purposes of this study, our focus will be on the fourth stage of development: Industry versus Inferiority. In this stage, children are between the ages of six to eleven years, whose concepts of self expand from home to the school. Children in this stage begin to realize a need to perform and produce work in order to gain recognition not only from their parents, but also their teachers and peers alike.

The attitudes and opinions of others become important to their development of a positive self-concept. In order for a child to successfully resolve a possible developmental crisis in initiative versus inferiority, they must work hard in school to receive the praise and encouragement by their teachers in order to achieve Industry. Children whose efforts help them to master school work will likely form a positive self-concept, which is a sense of who they are. If a child cannot master their school work, they may consider themselves a failure and feelings of inferiority may arise.

Teachers are in a position to exert a significant impact on children. Children at this age tend to heed the words of their teachers more than their

parents. They begin to realize that, as Erikson (1963) puts it, "…there is workable future in within the womb of the family, and thus becomes ready to apply himself to given skills and tasks…" (p.259). Seeking the approval from teachers and peers during this stage becomes a priority as they seek to secure attachment bonds with outside their familial circle.

Maccoby's (1984) work in the developmental changes children go through in middle childhood, which range in age from six to twelve years, writes about the important changes that occur in the parent-child relationship and how attachment seeking behaviors in older children, which were previously exclusively tied to their biological parents in early childhood, begin to take a different form. Maccoby cites Hill and Stafford (1980) to bring to light the major decline in the amount of time parents spend with their middle aged children as compared to pre-school aged children. Hill and Stafford (as cited in Maccoby, 1984) found that between the ages of five and twelve, parents spend less than half of the time they used to spend caretaking, teaching, reading, talking, and playing with their children as compared to when they were very young.

Another important factor of middle childhood Maccoby focuses on is in schoolwork, where parents of children who may be facing problems with behavior or performance may face unique challenges not previously dealt with in early childhood. Parents may need to resort to taking privileges away or using punishment for the first time in order to enforce the concept that their children are responsible for their school work. We learned from Erikson's

theory on psychosocial development, at this stage in development, children who are not successful in performing up to the standards in school may develop a sense of inferiority as part of their self concept. For some children, this may lead to a less affectionate bond with their parents. Maccoby cites Newsome and Newsome (1967, as cited in Maccoby, 1984) to point out the overall possible decline in affectional bonding between parents and their middle aged child. In their study, they found by the age of seven, many children become circumspect, avoiding open displays of affection with their parents in front of their peers (Newsome & Newsome, 1967, as cited by Maccoby, 1984). Still, as Maccoby found in Schaefer's research, most parents maintain a warm, affectionate bond with their children and continue to enjoy they parent-child bond throughout middle childhood (Schaefer, 1959, as cited by Maccoby, 1984).

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section contains the review of extant literature on the subject selected for this research study. Few studies were found that directly related to military parental deployment. Hence, a broader scope of literature was included to inform the conduct of this research.

Emotional and Behavioral Effects of Separation

Knapp and Newman (1993) looked at five variables related to the psychological well-being of Army wives during the stress of an extended military deployment. Utilizing the 18-item General Well-Being Schedule, the 5-item Military Life Stress Scale, the 10-item Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory, the 9-item Personal Control scale, and the 71-item Family Inventory of Life Events and Changes, their study examined the relationship between self-esteem, locus of control, accumulated stressors, perceived military stress, and the psychological well-being of (N = 74) Army wives, whose husbands were stationed in the Persian Gulf. Using stepwise multiple regression, two of the variables, accumulated stress and perceived military stress, accounted for a significant portion of the variance in psychological well-being 24% and 7.9%, respectively. Their data suggested that wives with an accumulation of stressors would be more vulnerable to distress during an extended separation from their spouses and significantly impact how successfully they would manage a lengthy separation.

Rosen, Teitelbaum, and Westhuis (1993), assessed the psychological profiles of military children (N = 1,601), whose parents were deployed to Operation Desert Storm (ODS). Parents staying behind (N = 1,274) to care for their children completed a modified Child Health Inventory (CHI) and a checklist of symptoms experienced by children during ODS. Finally, a 25-item Hopkins Symptom Checklist (HSCL) measured the mothers' symptoms of sadness, eating problems, and sleeping problems. Mean age for spouses was 29.2, for the first child was 7.2, and 5.9 for the second. The strongest predictor for children needing counseling due to parental deployment was if the child had received counseling prior to deployment. Another factor impacting vulnerability was poor academic performance.

Kelley (1994) studied maternal adjustment and behavior of children in response to a military-induced separation. Participants (N = 61) completed the Beck Depression Inventory, Generalized Contentment Scale, Index of Self-Esteem, and the Child Behavior Checklist f on three different occasions: predeployment, middeployment, and postdeployment. These self-report measures were utilized to gauge the difficulties remaining spouses and their children experienced during two types of military-induced separations, routine and combat deployments. Families had between two and three children, with a mean age of the target child of 8.5 years. For the families whose soldier was on routine separation (peacetime deployment, n = 47), a main effect for phase of deployment was significant for maternal depression and children's behavior (internalizing behavior). In particular, predeployment and middeployment phases revealed greater maternal depression. For children, internalizing behavior was significantly higher during these same phases. Their

mothers reported greater externalizing behaviors for children before and during the deployment than after the deployment. Another finding was that mothers of older children reported significantly higher self-esteem than did mothers of younger children. During wartime deployment, women reported greater dysphoria than peacetime subjects. For children whose fathers were in a combat deployment, the main effect of phase of deployment was found for externalizing behavior. Higher rates of externalizing behavior were found at predeployment than at postdeployment. Additionally, in contrast to the peacetime children, whose internalizing and externalizing behavior diminished over time, children whose fathers were deployed during the Persian Gulf War showed no improvement in behavior over time.

Drawing from a theoretical framework on attachment by Bowlby, Applewhite and Mays (1996) compared the psychosocial functioning of children who experienced extended maternal separation with that exhibited by children who had separated from their fathers. They randomly selected 100 female service members and 100 male service members, matched them according to rank, and drew a total sample of 288 children ages 4 to 18 years. In addition to a four-part child questionnaire, Applewhite and Mays employed the use of the Psychosocial Functioning Inventory (PFI) (Timberlake, 1979) and the Family Stress Index (McCubbin, Patterson, &Wilson, 1982). Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed there was no statistical significance between the psychosocial functioning of children whose mothers deploy from children whose fathers deploy. When demographic variables were accounted for between the two groups (sex of child, age of child, birth order, parent living with, time at current residence, number of relocations, and number of

brief separations), t-tests revealed significant differences in mean age at first extended separation, number of moves, and birth order. For instance, for children whose father first deployed, their mean age at parent's first deployment was 2.0 years. For children with mothers deploying, their mean age at first deployment was 4.1 years old. In contrast to past held beliefs about the attachments between mother-child bonds, the findings from this study suggest children who are separated from their mothers are not more adversely affected than children who are separated from their fathers.

Kelley, Hock, Smith, Jarvis, Bonney and Gaffney (2001), utilizing the Child Behavior Check List (CBCL), examined whether very young children (1 to 5 years) of deploying Navy mothers demonstrated increased levels of internalizing and externalizing behaviors compared to children of nondeploying Navy mothers and civilian families and whether deployment affects children's internalizing and externalizing behavior before and after a deployment. Eighty-three percent of the deployed mothers were absent from their children for five to six months. Data were collected pre- and post-deployment for Navy mothers and one year apart for the civilian children. The CBCL, which ranges from 99 to 113 items (dependent on age of child), was used by mothers and child caregivers to measure internalizing (i.e., fearful, sad, overcontrolled) and externalizing (i.e., aggressive, noncompliant, undercontrolled) behavior. For deploying participants (n = 52) and nondeploying participants (n = 75), there were similar sample characteristics with regards to age, marital status, educational background, and gender of children. Children of deploying mothers had higher levels of internalizing behavior than children in the nondeploying Navy sample. Child care providers reported children whose mothers experienced

deployment had higher levels of internalizing and externalizing behavior than children whose mother did not experience deployment. Another finding was that the interaction and main effect of time were not significant. Overall, their findings concluded that for a small number of children, periodic extended separations from primary caregivers might result in more child behavior that is defined as clinically significant.

Pincus et al. (2004) paralleled the five emotional stages military families go through during the deployment process to Bowlby's stage of separation. In the first stage, *predeployment*, much like in Bowlby's protest phase, children and spouses' behaviors may mirror similar behaviors such as inconsolable crying, apathy, tantrums, depression, numbness, and marital conflict. The predeployment stage can vary from just a few weeks notice to over a year once a warning order to deploy is announced. This stage is also characterized by denial and anticipation of the loss. As Pincus et al. (2004) pointed out, a soldier during this stage may have already "psychologically deployed."

According to the authors, as the date to deploy draws near, soldiers engage in bonding behaviors with one another in an effort to improve unit cohesion—also to preserve their own chances for survival. They begin to discuss the deployment in an energetic manner and this may inadvertently cause them to become emotionally and physically distant to their spouses and children. Arguments may be common during this stage, as couples attempted to negotiate and discuss fears associated with their impending role changes. Working through the predeployment/protest phase is a significant challenge to many military families as they prepare for the inevitable separation/loss of their loved ones.

Effects of Deployment on Academic Achievement of Children

Bernstein (1976) examined the effects of father absence in her study of (N = 117) fifth-graders at an elementary school in a middle-class neighborhood in Maryland. Of the 117 participants, 14 lived without a father, while the other 103 lived with both parents. The Iowa Test of Basic Skills (fifth grade form) was administered to all students. Each participant received a percentile rank in reading comprehension, vocabulary, mathematical concepts, and mathematics problem solving. The two verbal test percentiles were averaged, as were the two math percentiles. Bernstein observed the low number of participants (n = 14) without fathers in her study and controlled for this difference by comparing the groups on the basis of how each participant's math score differed from his own verbal score. There were no significant differences between the group's mathematical and verbal scores. Among boys, math skills were insignificantly affected by father absence. But for girls, father absence significantly depressed math scores relative to verbal scores. Bernstein hypothesized the fathers in this study may have continued contact (hence, continued influence in their cognitive development) with their children, as may be common after a divorce.

Bain, Boersma, and Chapman (1983) studied the effects a father's absence had on the academic achievement and locus of control (internally versus externally controlled) in elementary school children. They looked at two groups of third graders (N=56) with similar IQ characteristics: 28 subjects with father-absent (FA) and 28 subjects with father-present (FP). Utilizing the Wide Range of Achievement Test (WRAT), Stanford Achievement Test (SAT), and the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (short-form) (IAR), two key findings emerged. First,

there was a significant difference between groups in academic achievement in terms of reading scores, not in spelling or arithmetic. Second, FA male subjects performed less well than FA females in all areas of academic achievement. When FA females were compared to FP group, they were only lower in reading. In terms of locus of control, FA subjects were less likely than FP subjects to ascribe responsibility for success outcomes to internal factors such as ability and effort--a significant difference between groups in terms of academic achievement--but only in reading scores, not in spelling or arithmetic. In terms of locus of control, FA subjects were less likely than FP subjects to ascribe responsibility for success outcomes to internal factors such as ability and effort.

Watts and Watts' (1991) study involved data from (N = 4,137) students who took part in a High School and beyond (HSB) longitudinal study from 1980 and 1982. The HSB study drew its data from a representative sample of high school students from across the United States who were sophomores in 1980 and were surveyed again as seniors in 1982. Their study examined the direct effects of parent configurations (e.g., intact and female-headed single-parent families), socioeconomic status, race and eight social/cognitive variables on adolescent academic achievement. Using path analysis and a series of least squares regression, the following independent variables were measured: (a) family configuration, (b) socioeconomic status, (c) race, (d) family size, (e) mother employment, (f) ability, (g) parental involvement, (h) significant others involvement, (i) self-concept, (j) academic orientation, and (k) educational aspirations. Watts and Watts were interested in the negligible effect of family configurations on achievement and found there was not a significant effect on the

dependent variable. The three strongest predictors on academic achievement were ability, followed by educational aspirations, and race. In contrast to past studies on the effects of family configurations (Brown, 1980; Boyd and Parish, 1985; Kaye 1989), father absence did not attenuate the academic progress of the students involved in this study.

Hillenbrand (2001) examined (N = 126) students in the sixth grade of a school for military dependents in Quantico, Virginia. She conducted assessments on students' intelligence, classroom behavior, parental dominance, and family constellation. Hillenbrand was interested in the effects father absence had on their children's academic development, whether spouses who were more dominant had a greater effect on their children, and if family make up played a role in adapting to father absence. Of the total subjects in the study, 77 were offspring of officers and 49 were children of enlisted men. Thus, the sample was biased toward males and children of higher socioeconomic status.

Hillenbrand (2001) utilized parent questionnaires to measure history of father absence, age, health, and emotional history of subjects, age and sex of siblings, and parent's observations of reactions to father absence. Cumulative history of paternal absence ranged from none (in one case) to 63 months, with a mean of 26.38 months. No significant difference was found in the amount of absence experienced by children of officers and those of enlisted men. As a group, boys experienced significantly longer father absence than girls, 28.21 to 23.87 months, $p < .05$, respectively. A rating scale for pupil adjustment, using a 5-point Likert scale was completed by teachers to assess overall emotional adjustment in the classroom. Also, teachers completed a 7-

point rating tool, Dependency Striving Scale, that looked at children's classroom behaviors. The Kuhlmann-Anderson Test yielded verbal, quantitative, and full IQ scores. Parental identification, which is a 58-item list of adjectives, were completed by children to determine which parent they perceived themselves more like. Finally, maternal dominance was assessed by children completing the Herbst (1952, as cited in Hillenbrand, 2001) Day at Home checklist. Students were asked to underline who in the family decided about each activity. Findings revealed absence beginning earlier in life for boys was associated with greater aggression, irritability, depression and impulsiveness. Total amount of father absence correlated significantly with only one variable, teachers' perception that boys with more father absence were seen as experiencing greater amounts of depression. Contrary to Hillenbrand's hypothesis, neither age at first deployment, nor amount of absence related significantly to perceived maternal dominance or dependency. Analysis of girl students revealed that early absence was related to lower quantitative ability. Another interesting finding, which was also in contrast to Hillenbrand's hypothesis, was the correlation for first-born boys between amount of father absence and increased quantitative ability. In boys with older siblings, it was found they manifested significantly more aggression and dependency when their fathers had been away early in their lives. In later born girls, paternal absence continued to be associated with lower quantitative ability.

Lyle (2006) looked at military-induced separations and relocation effects on the academic achievement of military children. Like a growing number of concerned scholars in the area of military research (Kelley, 1994; Applewhite & Mays, 1996; Jensen, Martin, & Watanabe, 1996; Walderon, Whittington, & Jenson, 1985), Lyle

examined the impact of parental absence and job reassignments on children in military families. Utilizing ordinary least squares (OLS) and two-stage least squares (2SLS) estimates, Lyle combined U.S. Army personnel data with children's standardized test scores from Texas to formulate and conduct his study (N > 13,000). Additionally, variables such as child's gender, child's race, military parent's gender, military parent's marital status, military parent's education level, and military parent's AFQT (Armed Forces Qualification Test) scores were analyzed. Lyle revealed from 2002 to 2004, more than 950,000 U.S. troops have been deployed to Afghanistan or Iraq, and that by the end of 2005, fully one-third of these soldiers had served two overseas tours within the span of three years. To ascertain parent absences, Lyle's military sample included soldiers stationed in Texas from 1997 and 1998. He looked at military pay supplements (i.e., hostile fire pay) to identify soldier absences, their duration of separation, and their frequency over a four-year period. To gauge academic achievement effects, Lyle utilized the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS), in particular, students' math scores from the TAAS, as a constant variable across all years and grade levels. Additionally, he measured relocation assignments within a dichotomous configuration: three or four moves or five or more moves. Overall, like in the parent absence results, findings of relocation effects revealed only modest effects on children's academic achievement. Though for children of enlisted soldiers who had experienced five or more moves, test scores on the TAAS were 1.5 points lower on average.

In contrast, Lyle (2006) found that parallel estimates for officer's children had no significant effect. He hypothesized some dimension of an officer's family, such as

greater parental education or higher income, may have mitigated the adverse effects of relocations. For both parent absence and relocation effects, findings revealed maternal separation and number of relocations, had higher effects on their children's academic achievement than for their male counterparts. Lyle did find a greater significant effect when the deployment effects were analyzed over a four-year period. Specifically, if children experienced over seven months of separation over a four-year period, there was a significant drop in academic achievement for both enlisted and officers' children. The most significant drop in academic functioning was found for children of military mothers who deployed for over seven months in a four-year period. A decline in test scores relative to children with no parental deployments over the past four years was found. Children with an absent single parent, scored lower than children with an absent married parent.

Teachers' Perceptions of Students' Social and Behavioral Functioning

Rong (1996) examined the effects of race and gender on teachers' perceptions of students' social behavior. Utilizing a national database, Behavior Assessment System for Children (BASC), the study sought to answer a central question: Do teachers hold differential perceptions for elementary students' social behaviors based on teacher and student race and gender? The BASC database consists of a sample of approximately 18,000 completed cases. These data were collected at 90 standardized sites in the United States and Canada during 1989. Teacher rating scales for ages 6 to 11 include 14 subscales (238 items) to assess student behaviors. Teachers and students were randomly selected. Criteria included: (1) Teachers were either Black or White and rated Black or White students, (2) Teachers rated students

who completed information about parental education, and (3) Teachers completed rating scores for each of the 48 items. Participants included 59 Black female teachers, 93 White female teachers, and 7 White male teachers. Black male teachers were excluded from the study because only 4 of the sample's 63 Black teachers were males. Students rated by White male teachers included 24 females and 39 males. Due to random selection from each teacher's class, it was reported that none of the White teachers rated Black students and as a result, the effects of student gender, but not race were gauged here. From the 862 who were rated by White female teachers, 62 were Black and 800 were White students (377 were female and 485 were males). From the 59 students rated by Black female teachers, 36 were White and 23 were Black (24 females and 35 males).

One major finding revealed students' race did not have the same effect on teachers' perception among White and Black teachers, as did students' gender (Rong, 1996). Female students were likelier to be rated higher than male students regardless race. For example, Black female teachers rated female students significantly higher than males on the total social behavior score and higher on three of the four subscale score: social desirability, social skills, and leadership. Similarly, White female teachers rated female students significantly higher than male students on the total behavior score and higher on all four of the subscale scores: adaptability, social desirability, social skills and leadership. Results for student race did reveal some significant differences by White female teachers. Black students were rated significantly lower than White students by White teachers on total social behavior scores and three of the four subscale scores: social desirability, social skills, and

leadership. While Black female teachers tended to rate Black students slightly higher than White male students on total social behavior scores, the overall ratings for Black and White male students were insignificant. White female teachers rated White male students significantly higher than Black male students on total social behavior. This finding was gender specific. White female teachers rated Black female students higher than White male students, although the difference here was also insignificant. Interestingly, teachers tended to rate students who shared their own race or gender identity more highly than students who did not. Overall, shared gender identity seemed to have a stronger effect than race.

Sternlof, Pace, and Beesley (2005) examined the relationship between educators' ratings (N = 182) of interpersonal attractiveness and rejection for children exhibiting internalizing and externalizing behaviors. In particular, their study aimed at increasing the understanding of how teacher-student relationships fostered positive adjustment or exacerbated preexisting distress in students, especially those with externalizing behaviors. Internalizing behaviors, which are often associated with depressive symptomatology (i.e., depression, anxiety, social withdraw) were hypothesized to be associated with lower levels of interpersonal attractiveness compared to normal behavior. Externalizing behaviors, which have to do with inattentive and hyperactive symptomatology (i.e., disorders of attention, defiance, aggression) were hypothesized to be associated with lower levels of interpersonal attractiveness and higher levels of personal rejection as compared to normal behavior. Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) was used as the representative

externalizing behavior and was hypothesized to be associated with higher levels of personal rejection compared to internalizing behavior.

Participants in the study consisted of high school counselors, teachers, and media specialists from various cities across a southwestern state. The sample consisted of 182 participants who were largely Caucasian (82%), female (95%), had a mean age of 44 years, possessed at least a masters' degree (74%), were mostly a school counselor or teacher, 51% and 35%, respectively, worked in a school setting, and had an average of 15 years' teaching experience. Participants were asked to complete the Teacher's Ratings of Student Interpersonal Attractiveness (TRIA) (Pace, et al., 1999). The 20-item TRIA was designed to assess an overall impression of interpersonal attractiveness that includes physical, intellectual, and behavioral dimensions. Scores may range from 20 to 140, with higher scores reflecting less interpersonal attractiveness.

The Teacher's Ratings of Personal Rejection toward Students (TRPR) (Pace et al., 1999) is a 10-item scale designed to measure teacher's attitudes toward students within the common types of interactions in school settings. Higher scores indicate greater personal rejection. Video Tape Vignettes were used to portray a male, Caucasian child actor, approximately 10 to 12 years old, demonstrating internalizing (video A), externalizing (video B), normal behaviors (video C). Experienced clinicians assisted in establishing inter-rater reliability of the vignettes.

Results revealed gender and years of teaching were significant with males being more rejecting of the child than females. Teachers with five or less years of teaching experience found the child to be more interpersonally attractive than those

with six to eleven years of teaching experience. It was also found that as teaching experience increased, so did teachers' levels of interpersonal rejection. Analysis of the data further revealed that a child with ADHD was more negatively viewed than one with depression.

Liljequist and Renk (2007) studied N=104 teachers' perceptions of students' behavioral problems, self-efficacy and psychological symptoms. Participants were teachers attending graduate school in the college of education at a large southeastern university. Their study hypothesized teachers' personal and general teaching efficacy would contribute to teacher perceptions about student behavior and how much control students had over their externalizing behavior. Additionally, they hypothesized that teachers from different types of classrooms (i.e., regular versus special education) would rate students' emotional and behavioral problems differently. They found that the less experience teachers had in the classroom, the lower self-efficacy they tended to have compared to teachers with more experience.

All participants were required to have taught or be actively teaching at the time of the study. Participants were mostly female (78%), Caucasian (96%), had a mean 17 years of education, and averaged 8 years of teaching experience with 65% being in special education. The 113-item Teacher Report Form (TRF) (Achenbach, 1991b) was utilized as a measure of students' emotional and behavioral functioning. Teachers' perceptions of how bothersome students' emotional and behavioral problems are and students' control over these problems was measured by the Personal Distress Questionnaire (PDQ). The 30-item Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) was utilized to measure teachers' sense of their own personal and general teaching

effectiveness. Lastly, teachers were administered the 53-item Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI) (Derogatis, 1993), which is an inventory consisting of 53 items that include various psychological scales. Only the Global Severity Index was used.

Results revealed there were no significant differences between general education and special education teachers in their ratings of students' internalizing or externalizing behavioral problems or their ratings of being bothered by students' internalizing or externalizing behavioral problems. Results from their study revealed externalizing behaviors were more bothersome than internalizing behavioral problems for both regular and special education teachers. Additionally, teachers perceived students exhibited more control over their externalizing behavioral problems than over internalizing behavioral problems. These findings were found to be relatively unrelated to teacher ratings of their own teaching efficacy and psychological symptoms. Regression analysis suggested only externalizing behavioral problem score provided by teachers was predictive of how bothersome externalizing behavioral problems were perceived to be.

Synthesis of the Literature

A review of the literature found military family members are all affected by military-induced separations (Knapp & Newman, 1993; Kelley, 1994; Kelley et al., 2001). Depending on the type of deployment, that is, if it is a routine or wartime deployment, stress levels for family members and soldiers fluctuated, according to the degree of danger involved (Kelley, 1994; Kelley et al., 2001; Hillenbrand, 2001). Overall, the literature revealed boys have a more difficult time adjusting to military

deployments and father absence due to divorce or other types of separations than girls (Bain et al., 1983; Rosen et al., 1993), especially younger boys (Lyle, 2006).

The literature was not in agreement concerning the reaction of children concerning their parent's deployment. One study by Applewhite and Mays (1996) found no significant difference whether a father or mother deployed, while Lyle (2006) revealed children whose mother deployed fared worse than when children's fathers deployed. Several studies indicated that whether the separation between mothers and/or fathers and their children were due to military deployment or father absence due to other reasons, children often reacted or adapted in relation to how their mother reacted or adapted to her given situation (Hillenbrand, 2001; Rosen et al., 1993; Knapp & Newman, 1993; Kelley, 1994; Applewhite & Mays, 1996).

Teachers' assessments of children were not very positive. Young female students were rated above male students in social behavior measures, regardless of race (Rong, 1996). Students' social and emotional behaviors were rated as more rejecting for students who demonstrated externalizing behaviors—which male students had at least twice the likelihood of developing (Sternlof et al., 2005; Liljequist & Renk, 2007). Teachers with five or less years of experience felt more positive toward children overall than did teachers with six to eleven years of teaching experience (Sternlof et al., 2005).

Most of the research literature presented has focused on either academic achievement variables or social- emotional behavior in children. The majority of these studies have used either parent or teacher rating scales to look for differences in children's social-emotional functioning during a parental separation. One of the

strengths of the current study lies in the dual approach to gauge academic achievement and social-emotional functioning. It is the hope of this study to make a contribution to the research literature by adding its findings in both academic achievement and social-emotional functioning to the area of military family research.

Questions Emerging from the Research

The review of the literature yielded a number of interesting questions not previously considered. First, is there evidence of greater adjustment difficulty among young boys whose parents are absent due to deployment when compared to young boys whose parents are not deployed? Second, girls with absent fathers have scored lower in quantitative ability in several studies from both military and nonmilitary family studies. Will math scores on the TerraNova standardized testing used by children of military personnel, reveal similar findings in girls who participate in this study? Third, in what ways might educators working with children of military personnel facilitate adaptive coping strategies for military families experiencing the absence of a parent? This proposal will seek answers to these questions as part of its data collection.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The research design is descriptive-exploratory. First, the study described the children in terms of age, race/ethnicity, grade point average, standardized test scores, school attendance, parent's marital status, and whether or not they experienced a parent's military deployment. Second, the study explored the relational effects of parental deployment to academic achievement of children whose military parents were deployed for at least six months. The study also explored children's social behavior vis-à-vis teacher's perceptions of students' interactions using a standardized instrument. The unit of analysis is twofold. While children were the focal point of this study, it was their school records that were examined and not the children directly. Therefore, the unit of analysis was social artifacts located at the school under this study. The second unit of analysis was fifth-grade teachers at the school, hence individuals. The data were cross-sectional in that it was collected at one point in time.

Specification of the Variables

This section identifies and explicates the dependent and independent variables that were used in this study. There were two dependent variables and 15 independent variables.

Dependent Variables

1. Academic Achievement - Academic achievement was defined as the knowledge a student demonstrated on standardized tests that resulted in concrete test scores and his or her academic performance in the classroom as

evaluated by his or her teachers through various writing assignments and measurable in-class tests. This study used two measures for academic achievement as follows:

a. TerraNova Math Scores - The TerraNova (2nd edition) Multiple Assessment Test is a standardized test used to measure student achievement in the basic skills taught in schools throughout the nation. The TerraNova is a norm-referenced, standardized achievement test (CTB McGraw-Hill, 2005). Norm-referenced means that each child's achievement in a broad area, such as language or mathematics, can be compared with other students' achievement in the same grades.

b. Grade Point Average (GPA) - A student's grade point average was comprised of the grades he or she earned during the course of the school year resulting from learning effort assessed by teachers through classroom participation, written and oral assignments, and measurable tests that result in letter grades in various subject areas of study. Students may receive a grade in subjects such as reading, social studies, math, and science, among other subjects. The combination of these grades made up a grade point average. Letter grades were assigned with the following point equivalents on a 4.0 scale: A was 4 points, B was 3 points, C was 2 points, D was 1 point, and an F was equal to 0.

2. Social Behavior - Social behavior was defined by the demonstration of appropriate actions students displayed in school as measured by their classroom teachers. Teachers used a questionnaire that included a modified form of the Social Attributes Checklist, which has high reliability and validity and has been titled Teacher's Perception of Social Attributes (TPSA). The TPSA gauged students' social behaviors and emotional behavior with a subset scale entitled, Teacher's Perception of Child Emotional Behavior (TPCEB).

Independent Variables

1. Parental Deployment - This had to do with a parent being in the military and having orders to leave their current home base to be stationed geographically distant from his or her family for a prescribed period of time generally lasting six or more months. This was measured as the child's parent being deployed or not being deployed during the school year.

2. Children's Sociodemographics – Age, gender, race/ethnicity, grade point average, number of days attended school, number of days tardy, parent's marital status (if available), and parental deployment.

3. Teachers' Sociodemographics – Age, gender, race/ethnicity, education, years teaching fifth-grade, and number of years of teaching experience.

Sample

The study included data from (N = 28) fifth graders' school records, which represents the number of individual students for whom permission slips were received

from parents allowing access to children's school information. This represented 16% of the total fifth grade population of 175 at an American elementary school in Germany serving children of military personnel. Children were not directly sampled. The school has approximately 900 students, ranging from kindergarten to fifth grade and is one of the largest elementary schools for children of military personnel in Europe. Fully 98% of students have parents who serve in the Armed Forces of the United States.

The second part of the sample included the five fifth grade teachers at the study school. These participants were asked to complete a questionnaire on the social behavior of each of their students. Teachers completed questionnaires following the end of the regular school year. They were assured that all data would be kept confidential, that no one would be singled out in any way, that participation was voluntary, and failure to participate would in no way jeopardize their job or any benefits to which they were entitled.

Data Collection

This section overviews the data collection process that was used in order to conduct the research study. Data collection took place at an American school serving children of military personnel stationed in Germany. Data were collected from the school records of fifth grade students during school year 2007/2008. Details of the data gathering procedure are provided in three sections: instrumentation, process, and timeframe.

Prior to collecting the data, a series of approvals were required. First the researcher spoke with his school principal who agreed to allow the study to be

conducted at his school. The formal request for permission to conduct the research was then sent to the superintendent's office of the district office located in Heidelberg, Germany, on April 4, 2007. Once that approval was received, the next approval needed to be obtained from the military. This approval was obtained on September 24, 2007. A condition of the final approval was that neither name of the government entity nor school name be used in this dissertation. Therefore, the research site is interchangeably referred to as the *American school* or *study school*.

Instrumentation

There were two data collection instruments used in the conduct of this study. The first form gathered information from school records. The second form was a questionnaire administered to fifth grade teachers explained below. Both instruments were specifically designed for this study. In advance of gathering the data, both parents and teachers received an "Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study" form that explained the purpose of the research, its procedures, benefits, confidentiality, and provided contact information for anyone that had questions. A copy of the informed consent forms provided to parents and teachers are included as Appendix A and B, respectively.

School Data Record – This form was designed for gathering general information from students' files includes questions, such as birth date, gender, grade point average, total days of school attendance, days of student tardiness, parent's marital status (if discernible), and TerraNova Math scores. A copy of this form is attached as Appendix C.

Teacher's Perception of Social Attributes (TPSA) – This is a 25-item, pencil-and-paper structured multidimensional instrument on which teachers rated students' social behaviors for the 2006-2007 school year. The TPSA was taken in part from the Social Attributes Checklist (SACL) cited by by McClellan and Katz (2001), and McClellan and Kinsey (1999). Questions were asked in three areas: individual attributes, social skills, and peer relationships that together assess a child's social-emotional development and competence according to McClellan & Katz (2001). Teachers indicated on each questionnaire whether a particular student's parent(s) was/were deployed for military purposes over the course of the school year. The response categories of the TPSA are ordinal and follow a Likert scale format. A copy of the TPSA is attached as Appendix D.

Teacher's Perception of Child's Emotional Behavior (TPCEB) - The TPCEB consists of a five-question index of items generally associated with nonpsychotic depression in youth modified from Herrerías (2005). Questions relate to the appearance of a child's sadness, his or her ability to make friends, an appearance of imposed isolation, a tendency to not engage in social activities, and a general assessment of depression. This brief index is a pencil-and-paper measure with Likert response categories. A copy of the TPCEB is attached as part of Appendix D as it is on the second page of the teachers' research questionnaire.

Teacher Sociodemographic Information – Although included as part of the teacher's questionnaire form, this comprised the third sheet and consisted of

questions pertaining to age, gender, education, and years of teaching experience. A copy is provided as Appendix E.

Process

Academic achievement information was collected from students' school records, which were accessed as signed parent permission forms arrived in the mail. Conducting the data collection in this manner helped minimize disruptions to the administrative staff who worked in the registrar's office. A standard green government record book containing a list of all fifth graders' first and last names, depicting which records had been temporarily removed was used to keep an active log for the school's administrative staff. Additionally, the researcher's name and telephone number was provided in case the need to contact him for a particular school record arose. Since the researcher was physically located in the same school building as the school records, the retrieval of the necessary files was convenient. Once the data from the students' files were recorded on the Student Data Record sheet, they were promptly returned to their rightful place. This process was repeated until all 28 fifth graders' school records had been reviewed and the data recorded.

Two of the study variables included attendance and tardiness. To obtain this information, the researcher accessed the school's Student Management Solutions™ (SMS) system, a computer software program developed by the Chancery Software Company that stores various student data. Since the researcher is a guidance counselor at the study school, full access to the necessary database was easily obtained.

Data distinguishing students with deployed parents from those whose parents had not been deployed during the school year were obtained from the TPSA. In three instances, teachers indicated a problem with recall. In those cases, a follow-up telephone call was placed to the spouse, unit commander or first sergeant, or in the event the child's parent was still deployed, the rear-detachment first sergeant, to ensure accuracy of the data. Since school personnel maintain strong working relationships with the unit commanders and military families alike, information as to a soldier's deployment status was easily obtainable.

During the data collection time frame, the researcher met with the fifth grade teachers individually to go over the TPSA and TPCEB and to discuss the purpose of the study, explain the voluntary nature of the teacher's participation, and obtain his/her signed consent. This gave each teacher an opportunity to ask any number of questions that he or she may have had. Teachers were asked to complete TPSA and TPCEB. It was explained that the information being sought was retrospective in nature in that they were asked to recall children's social interactions over the recently ended school year.

Teachers completed the TPSA and TPCEB on their own time and returned the completed surveys to the researcher within two weeks. Teachers also provided some demographic information along with the TPSA and TPCEB form. Teachers were assured their responses were strictly confidential and nothing would be used to single them out in any way. Further, teachers were assured that all data were to be reported in aggregate form.

Time Frame

The data for this cross-sectional study were gathered during October 15 – October 26, 2007. The week of October 22, 2007 was spent in identifying the sample population and generating our sample. The remainder of October was used to organize the study participants into their respective groups and creating special identification codes for students and teachers.

Data Analysis

Data Preparation Process

Once the data were gathered, the documents were assigned unique identification numbers for easy reference. A separate log was kept with students' names and contact information, as well as the identification numbers as a cross-reference. Documents such as the TPSA and TPCEB questionnaire, student math test scores, attendance profiles, or student GPAs, which contained student's name, address or telephone numbers, were kept in locked file cabinets at all times. This was to safeguard privacy and confidentiality of students and teachers. With only one researcher engaged in this study, the issue of data management was simplified and handled unilaterally. Each page of every questionnaire and data sheet was reviewed to determine the completeness of the data. Any questions left unanswered were recorded as missing data, which were accommodated in the data analysis. Duplicate, incorrect, or otherwise inappropriate or unreadable responses were resolved during this stage. Once all data issues were resolved, the quantitative data were ready for computer entry.

Data Entry

The researcher accomplished data entry in a straightforward manner. A unique three-digit identification number was given to each of the teacher questionnaires, which was cross-referenced to contact information in a separate log. The identification (ID) number was connected the various documents for individual respondents for purposes of statistical analysis. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for Windows, V.11.0, was used to conduct the various analyses.

Statistical Analysis

The purpose of the study was to examine differences in academic achievement and social emotional functioning between a group of children with deployed parents and a group of children with out deployed parents. There were some missing data. One participant was missing values for grade point average and his TerraNova scale score, while another participant was missing a value for grade point average; neither subject was included in the final analysis.

Once data screening was completed, the data were assessed to determine whether it met the assumptions for conducting a multivariate analysis. Results indicated that the data met the assumptions of multivariate normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence. As a result, TerraNova scaled scores, TPSA, and TPCEB scaled scores, cumulative attendance, cumulative tardiness, were used in the final data analysis.

A Hotelling's T was calculated instead of multiple t-tests because there was one independent variable with two groups and multiple dependent variables. When there are multiple dependent variables it is not appropriate to conduct separate t-tests,

because it results in an inflated alpha level. For example, with five dependent variables, the alpha level for five separate t-tests would be approximately .25. The Hotelling's T controls the overall alpha level at .05. Hotelling's T is appropriate to use when the independent variable is nominal level and the dependent variables are at least interval level. The independent variable was deployment status and the dependent variables were TerraNova scale scores, grade point averages, attendance/tardiness, Teacher's perception of Social Attributes, and Teacher's Perception of Child's Emotional Behavior.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

This study tested the central hypothesis that children who experienced an extended parental separation would demonstrate significant differences in their academic achievement and psychosocial functioning as compared to children who did not experience an extended parental separation. This study explored whether there were differences in academic functioning using the TerraNova math scaled scores and grade point averages of student's academic performance in the classroom. This study further explored whether there were differences in teacher's perceptions of children's social and emotional behavior as rated by the Teacher's Perception of Social Attributes between children who experienced parental separation as compared to children who did not experience parental separation.

This chapter presents inferential evidence related to the study's hypotheses. These data are preceded by descriptive statistics, which provide a portrait of the sample. In addition, the results of parametric and nonparametric tests assessing statistically significant differences between the children who experienced extended parental separation and children who did not are presented.

Sample Demographics

The Children

The school records of N = 28 fifth grade students were reviewed as part of this research. However, missing data from two children's school records resulted in only 26 cases being used for data analysis. Students' records fell into two groups. The first group (n = 17) consisted of students who did not experience an extended parental

separation during the academic year. The second group (n = 9) consisted of students who experienced a parental separation of at least six months during the 2006-2007 school year. The first and second groups are hereafter referred to as No Parental Deployment (NPD) and Parental Deployment (PD), respectively. Table 1 shows the students' age, gender, and ethnic backgrounds.

Table 1

Students' Age, Gender and Ethnicity

	NPD N(%)	PD N(%)
Age		
Mean	11.3	11.1
SD	3.9	4.4
Gender		
Male	10(52.6)	3(33.3)
Female	9(47.4)	6(66.7)
Ethnicity		
Caucasian	10(52.6)	4(44.4)
Bi-racial	4(21.1)	2(22.2)
African American	3(15.8)	1(11.1)
Hispanic	2(10.5)	2(22.2)

Genders of deployed parents for students from the PD group were almost all male except for one female. This variable was not applicable to participants from the ND group.

The Parents

The NPD group (n=19) had eighteen married parents (94.7%) and one single parent (5.3%). Table 2 shows the breakdown of parental rank for each group. As

noted, the largest group of parents consisted of junior enlisted noncommissioned officers (53%). There were also two civilian parents not represented on the table.

Table 2

Military Ranks of Parents by Group

	NPD		PD	
Junior NCO	n	%	n	%
E-4	2	10.53	1	11.1
E-5	2	10.53	2	22.22
E-6	6	31.58		
Senior NCO				
E-7	2	10.53	2	22.22
E-8	2	10.53		
Officers				
O-1				
O-2				
O-3			1	11.1
O-4			1	11.1
O-5	2	10.53		
Warrant Officers				
WO-1	1	5.26		
WO-2				
WO-3			1	11.1

aNPD Group: n = 19
bPD Group n = 9

The parents in the PD group were all married. While smaller in numbers, one third of their number held the rank of junior noncommissioned officers. There was one civilian (11.1%) in this group not reflected on the table. Most of the students' parents were in the U.S. Army and worked primarily in transportation, communications, or as military police officers.

The Teachers

Teachers participated in the study by completing the TPSA and TPCEB rating scales. Sixty percent of the teachers were female. Overall, 80% of the teachers had completed at least some graduate work and averaged more than 20 years' teaching experience. Combined teaching experience at the fifth-grade level ranged from 2 to 28 years with a mean of 11.2 years (SD 10.4). Combined teaching experience at the fifth-grade level ranged from 2 years to 28 years. Table 3 provides a breakdown of teachers' demographics.

Table 3

Teachers' Sociodemographic Data

	M	SD	Range
Teaching Experience	21.8333	10.3766	25
Teaching 5th Grade	11.1666	10.3838	26
Age	45.3833	10.9581	24.1667
Gender		n = %	
Male		40	
Female		60	
Ethnicity	Male n = %	Female n = %	
Caucasian	20	20	
African American	20	40	
Highest Level of Education		n = %	
Some post-grad Work		20	
Master's Degree		40	
Some Grad work		40	

aData Based on the five teachers who completed the participant ranking scales

Correlation tables were examined to assess for the presence of multicollinearity. As reflected in Table 4, fall grade point averages (GPA) and spring GPA were significantly correlated with each other and with cumulative GPA, respectively. TerraNova percentile ranks were also strongly correlated with TerraNova scaled scores. Because of the presence of multicollinearity, Fall GPA, Spring GPA, and TN percentile ranks were dropped from further analysis.

Table 4
Multicollinearity Significant Intercorrelations Between Grade Point Average (GPA) and TerraNova Scale Scores (TNSS)[a]

	Fall GPA	Spring GPA	Cummlative GPA	TNSS
Fall GPA	--	.908(**)	.979(**)	.453(*)
N	26	26	26	26
Spring GPA	.908(**)	--	975(**)	.399(*)
N	26	28	28	27
Cummlative GPA	.975(**)	.979(**)	--	.430(*)
N	26	28	28	27
TNSS	.399(*)	.453(*)	.430(*)	--
N	26	27	27	27

Note. Dashes denote same variable.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 5 provides information on the correlations among different measures of absences and tardies. Fall and spring absences were not significant correlated ($r(26) = .171$, $p < .05$)); however, both were significantly correlated with cumulative absences ($r(27) = .692$, $p < .01$), ($r(27) = .823$, $p < .01$)/, respectively). Fall and spring tardiness were significantly correlated ($r(27) = .405$, $p < .05$), and both were significantly correlated with cumulative tardiness ($r(27) = .868$, $p < .01$ and $r(27) = .806$, $p < .05$, respectively). Fall absences, Spring absences, Fall tardies, and Spring tardies were dropped from further analyses to avoid redundancy.

Table 5

Multicollinearity Significant Intercorrelations Between Absences and Tardies

	Fall Absences	Spring Absences	Cummlative Absences	Fall Tardies	Spring Tardies	Cummlative Tardies
Fall Absences	--	0.171	.692(**)	0.156	0.219	0.22
Spring Absences	0.171	--	.823(**)	0.27	0.315	0.346
Cummlative Absences	.692(**)	.823(**)	--	0.294	0.346	0.377
Fall Tardies	0.156	0.27	0.294	--	.405(*)	.868(**)
Spring Tardies	0.219	0.315	0.346	.405(*)	--	.806(**)
Cummlative Tardies	0.22	0.346	0.377	.868(**)	.806(**)	--

Note. Dashes denote same variable.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The TPSA significantly negatively correlated with TPCEB ($r(28) = -0.873$, $p < .01$)). This relationship makes logical sense, since higher scores on the TPSA is indicative of adaptive classroom behavior, while high scores on the TPCEB denote maladaptive classroom behavior One participant's scores on the TPSA and TPCEB were identified as multivariate outliers (TPSA score 20, TPCEB score 19) as mean scores on the TPSA and TPCEB were 83.68 and 8.05, respectively.

Table 6

Results of Overall MANOVA

Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.	
1	0.761	5.745	6	0.452	
	Wilks' Lambda	F	df1	df2	Sig.
TN SS	0.997	0.083	1	24	0.775
GPA Cumulative	0.965	0.867	1	24	0.361
Teacher Perception of Social Attributes	0.933	1.727	1	24	0.201
Absences Cumulative	0.942	1.487	1	24	0.235
Tardies Cumulative	0.95	1.266	1	24	0.272

As seen on Table 6, the results of the overall MANOVA were not significant (Overall Wilks' Lambda = .761, F(df6) = , p > .05). Because the overall MANOVA was not significant, no further follow up analyses were performed. Thus, there were no significant differences between the groups in terms of cumulative GPA, teacher ratings of psychosocial and emotional behavior, attendance, or tardiness. Therefore, none of the hypotheses were supported by the data.

Summary

This chapter presented the findings generated by the statistical analyses of the data collected to evaluate the central hypothesis of this research study. Descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized to describe the sample population and to assess the homogeneity of the groups, which partly due to recruitment procedure errors, were uneven in their sample size. Results revealed that the PD group had an unequal representation of enlisted NCOs compared to NPD group (52.63% to 33.3%, respectively). Multivariate analysis was used to assess whether there were significances between the two groups on five dependent variables. A MANOVA was used to control for family wise error, which can occur when multiple univariate analyses are conducted. The results of the MANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences between the PD and NPD groups in terms of absences, tardiness, cumulative GPA, and teacher ratings of emotional and psychosocial functioning.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to assess the academic achievement and behavioral and socioemotional functioning between children whose parents were deployed and children whose parents were not deployed. The results of this study were consistent with several of the studies in the research literature (Bain, Boersma, & Chapman, 1983; Lyle, 2006; Bernstein, 1976; Hillenbrand, 2001; Kelley et al., 2001; Rosen, Teitelbaum, & Westhuis, 1993; Sternlof, Pace, & Beesley, 2005; Liljequist & Renk, 2007). The major findings of the current study did not show any significant differences between students experiencing parental deployment and students in the nondeployed group in terms of academic achievement, behavioral or socioemotional functioning.

Student academic achievement did not decline among students experiencing a parental deployment compared to students who did not experience a parental deployment. This finding indicates that students whose parents are called away for duty, which can entail up to 15 months of separation, seem able to function as well as their peers whose parents are not deployed. Consistent findings were discovered in Bain, Boersma, and Chapman (1983) whose research supports the current study. Their findings on the effects of father absence on academic achievement found no significant differences in math test scores. The only significant difference between groups with a father absent or father present, were found in reading scores, but not in math or spelling. Even when a comparison of girls with absent fathers was looked at against boys with present fathers, the only difference remained in reading scores, not

math. In their study, gender differences were investigated to compare differences between boys and girls (Bain et al, 1983). Boys with absent fathers scored lower than girls with absent fathers in all academic areas, including math. In the current study, the opposite was found. In the PD group, girls (n = 6) had a slightly lower math scaled score (658.66) than boys (n = 3) did (659.33). In the NPD group, girls (n = 9) again, were found to have slightly lower math scaled scores than boys (n = 9) did (664.44). These findings were only marginal in scope.

Lyle (2006) used standardized math test scores to gauge academic achievement in children of military personnel experiencing a military-induced separation or numerous family relocations. For children who experienced a military-induced separation or numerous family relocations, Lyle found only slight effects (a tenth of a standard deviation) in children's academic achievement. Lyle's modest findings revealed the greatest detrimental effects on academic achievement were on children with single parents whose mothers were in the army, children with lower ability parents (i.e., less educational background, low military rank, etc.), and younger children. This finding based on demographic variables was not consistent with the current study where students of enlisted parents out scored students with officer parents, sometimes by large margins. Lyle's study also looked at parent's military rank as a demographic variable and found that children of military officers that experienced a military-induced separation of seven months or more in a four year period had a two-point decline in their math scores compared to a 1.5-point decline in children of enlisted soldiers the same type and duration of separation. In the current study, the top two student scores on TerraNova and highest grade point averages

belonged to students of enlisted parents. For example, their average scaled math score was 689 (86th national percentile rank), whereas for the top two students of officer parents had an average scaled math score was 637.1 (39th national percentile rank).

The large discrepancy in scores led to taking a closer look at GPA to see if there was a similar gap between the two groups. When their grade point averages were compared, students of officer parents had a marginally higher average (3.68 to 3.67) than students of enlisted parents. While the overall correlation between GPA and TerraNova scales scores was significant (r = .430) at the .05 alpha levels, in many cases, individual results were not. The within group differences for the NPD group were found to be even greater between students of enlisted and officer parents.

Another study that is consistent with the current one was Berstein (1976). Her study also looked at fifth-grade student test scores at an elementary school. Due to a low sample size of participants without fathers (n = 14), Berstein controlled for this difference by comparing the groups on the basis of how each participant's math score differed from their own verbal score. Her hypothesis was not supported as no significant differences were found between the two groups with absent or present fathers in the family. In her review of the literature, Berstein had found studies on absent fathers that were related to depressed math scores for boys. Contrary to this finding, girls' math scaled scores were marginally lower than boys' math scaled scores (658.66 versus 659.33, respectively).

Hillenbrand (2001) looked at (N = 126) students in sixth grade of a school for military dependents to assess effects of father absence on children's academic development, classroom behavior, parental dominance, and family constellation. Two

key findings that relate to the current study were depressed quantitative ability in girls with absent fathers. Though in the current study, girls had only marginally lower math scaled scores than boys (658.66 versus 659.33). The other significant finding was that as the amount of father absence increased, the more internalizing behavior in boys was witnessed by classroom teachers.

There was but one case of obvious depressive symptomatology from among the PD group. A classroom teacher witnessed what she described as extreme internalizing behavior and reported it on the TPSA and TPCEB. This is further discussed later in this chapter. Academic achievement was affected as well, which is in keeping with the Hillenbrand's (2001) findings although on a much smaller scale.

As one would expect, not all of the studies in one's research literature will be consistent with their current study and this one was no exception. For example, the current findings of no significance in social and emotional functioning between students in the PD and NPD groups were not consistent with the Kelley et al. study (2001). Kelley et al. findings of children with deploying parents were found to have significantly higher levels of internalizing and externalizing behaviors when compared to children with nondeploying parents. This finding is not consistent with the current study where no significant differences were found between the two groups under study. There are age differences between the two studies however. Kelley et al. looked at very young children (1 to 5 years old), whereas the current study consisted of fifth grade students, with an overall mean of 11.2 years of age. It may be that due to older children being more cognitively developed, higher order coping skills to respond to environmental stressors, such as a parental separation, enabled them to

adapt more effectively. There were significance differences in duration as well. In Kelley et al. (2001), separations endured for five to six months on average. Separations in the current study lasted about 15 months.

Rosen et al. (1993) looked at the psychological profiles of military children whose parents were deployed. Remaining parents at home filled out a modified Child Health Inventory to state their children's most prevalent symptoms during the parental deployment, as well as a Hopkins Symptom Checklist (HSCL) that measured mother's symptoms. Results of the problems children experienced most revealed the strongest predictor of a child needing counseling due to deployment, was if the child had a previous history of counseling for emotional problems. Another variable that increased a child's vulnerability was a history of poor academic performance. Lastly, if a mother scored high on the HSCL variable, then there was a significance related to symptoms of both the eldest and second child, including sadness, eating problems, nightmares, and a perceived need for counseling.

These children are the ones that the Sternlof et al. (2005) and Liljequist and Renk (2007) studies refer to as the type of students most at risk for being rejected by peers and teachers alike, or whose behaviors, whether they be internalizing (withdrawn, anxious) or externalizing (ADHD), often *turn off* their classmates and teachers. Though, as pointed out in both studies, teachers found students with externalizing more bothersome and were more rejecting of them when compared to students with internalizing behaviors. One reason this may be so is that studies have shown teachers believe internalizing behaviors to be biologically based, where the student inherited the behavior traits (anxiety, depression, etc.) and may therefore be

more empathic and understanding of them. In contrast, externalizing behaviors are seen as more environmental in nature, with teachers commonly expecting children to demonstrate greater personal control over their behavior.

Still not all of the students whose teachers rated behaviors of social and emotional scales appeared to fair equally through the deployment. In particular, one significant outlier was found in a female student in the PD group. This student received the lowest scores possible by her teacher on both social adaptive and emotional behavior scales, which indicated the student was experiencing significant behavioral and emotional problems (internalizing behavior) when her parent was deployed. The student in question also had mediocre academic performance and was perhaps a representation of significant change in behavior due to her father being deployed.

Two factors known to the study may hold plausible explanations--cultural differences or physical development. The student comes from a Hispanic background, where females commonly share very close bonds with their fathers. A second possible reason for her extreme scores may have been that because of her age. Her physical development may have been a factor in her adjustment difficulties. Girls in prepubescent stages of development may be especially vulnerable for negative life outcomes when exposed to an environmental stressor, such as having an absent father. Another possible reason may be that this girl was a psychologically more vulnerable child or that her mother experienced greater difficulty adjusting to the deployment. This finding may suggest that certain children are more vulnerable to the effects of having a deployed parent than others. It is not possible to discern if the challenges

faced by this particular student were pre-existing conditions to her father's deployment.

Limitations of the Study

Every study has its limitations, and this one is no exception. Moreover, it is likely that other limitations not readily apparent may exist yet not be evident until the research is carried out. Once conducted, the additional limitations will be included as part of a fuller list during the writing of the study's findings. The limitations of the proposed study include:

1. Population Sample employed. One limitation in our design is that it is limited to only children of military personnel and may not be generalizeable to other student populations.

2. Sample Size. Another limitation of the study is the relative small sample size. We are using a convenience sample. Any generalization to a larger population would be speculative at best.

3. Geographic Location. The American school in the current study has a disproportionate large population of enlisted soldiers compared to other military installations across the European Command. For example, the student population at a neighboring elementary school, has 21% of military officers as parents, whereas, students in the school under this study have only 10% of military officers as parents. Research findings suggest children with parents who have higher levels of education, more disposable income, tend to fare

better with regards to academic achievement than children from parents with less educational attainment and lower social economic status.

4. Retrospective data – Teachers' reliance on memory, which is frequently fleeting and has been filtered through subsequently experiences are sometimes distorted and not as reliable as real-time observations of students' social behavior.

5. Different raters of children's behaviors – The use of different teachers rating the TPSA and TPCEB will likely produce varying responses not only as a result of retrospective recall but given unique lens of viewing behavior and levels of tolerance from each teacher. What may appear disruptive and/or problematic for one may not be for another. Hence unless all teachers have identical understandings of behavior, the evaluations of students behavior will vary irrespective of social behavior.

6. Researcher bias – There is always the potential for researcher bias in the conducting of any investigation when an individual is close to the data, particularly when the person him or herself is recording data from existing records and interpreting survey material.

7. Student's achievement scores – Grade point averages reflect the extent of a student's current school performance but not a student's potential or true ability. Any number of issues can be affecting a child that have been undetected and that have nothing to do with a parent being deployed or not deployed. Students may be suffering from depression, attention

deficit/hyperactivity disorder, learning disabilities, and oppositional defiance disorder, among others that have been undiagnosed. Yet other students may be suffering from traumatic stress disorder brought about from physical or sexual abuse or neglect also undiscovered, which are shrouded under a veil of secrecy (Herrerías, 2003). There is no way to discern neither the existence of these issues nor the potential effects of them on a student's academic achievement.

8. Voluntary participation - It could be that the parental permission forms obtained to access student records were received from parents whose children were not manifesting any obvious social, emotional, or behavioral difficulties. Perhaps parents whose children were experiencing difficulties declined from participating in the research.

Implications for Future Research

The exploratory nature of the present study acts as an impetus for future empirical investigation. Longitudinal research would be useful in assessing the changes across military children's developmental stages. Perhaps two groups of military children could be followed during a longitudinal study in an effort to more closely measure the effects of extended deployments, not only on academic achievement, but also on their social and emotional development.

Further research might include a comparison of school records of children of both military and nonmilitary parents. Another interesting comparison might be the school records of children who have experienced multiple parent's deployments. For example, what are the differences between those who have experienced one, two, three

or more separations from their parent? What about those children who may have been separated from both of their parents at the same or different times?

Research might also be conducted into the types of support systems that are in place at civilian schools for children of military personnel. Most children of military parents live in civilian communities across the United States. What is the range of teachers' understanding in working with children of military personnel? Do teachers evaluate children of military personnel differently than children of nonmilitary personnel regarding academic achievement, social or behavioral functioning? It would be important to identify the characteristics or risk factors of these students. Possible factors may include: self-esteem, cultural factors, closeness to deployed parent, and family structure. These may lead to buffering factors, at the individual, family, and school level that could begin as early interventions, perhaps implemented prior to parental deployment.

Applied Practical Implications

While the hypotheses in the study did not reflect anticipated predictions in the analysis phase, the findings did provide support for future practice in counseling, developmental psychology and social work with military families. The research findings provided by the study lend support to Bowlby's (1969, 1976, 1980) central premise on attachment theory, which posits the importance of primary caretaker-child attachment. If, in fact, the mother continues in the primary caretaking role and remains in the home while fathers continue to be the ones being deployed, it makes sense that children are not manifesting greater social, emotional, or behavioral stressors. Nevertheless, there are any number of practical applications that can be employed in

assisting families that are left without parent who has left for military assignment elsewhere.

Numerous parents have confided in teachers and the school counselor about the challenges faced once their spouse has been deployed, sometimes for a second, third, or fourth rotation of duty. Mutual aid can be a great source of comfort and camaraderie so facilitating networking and establishing support groups that meet regularly among spouses with deployed loved ones would be helpful.

Another practical outcome for schools who serve children of military personnel is to implement deployment group counseling for children. For example, at the American school where the researcher is employed as a school counselor, he is responsible for facilitating many deployment groups for children whose are experiencing parental separation due to a military-induced separation. Students are grouped by grade level or by classroom as there can frequently be half of one classroom whose children have a parent that is deployed at one time. In the early stages, deployment groups are introduced to the region where their parents are deployed to, the people they are there to help, its culture, traditions and physical geography, among other topics. We talk about the important jobs American soldiers have there, such as helping rebuild schools, training local nationals to become self-sufficient, and forming positive relations with the local people. After the initial lessons about the deployment are finished, we focus on school related tasks, such as schoolwork or students will often times engage in educational games that foster friendship and positive social skills.

Yet another application of this study derives from the use of the deployment group counseling groups already in use at the American school where the researcher is a school counselor. Children that are experiencing particular challenges with their parent's deployment are identified by teachers and referred to the school counselor who counsels with these children in smaller groups at least twice weekly depending upon the need of the group or individual student. Essentially, during the time their parents are away, students are provided a space within the counselor's office to lean on each other for support and to help ensure the challenges of negotiating a lengthy separation go as smoothly as possible.

Conclusions

Overall, the results of this study suggested that students with a deployed parent seemed to be able to successfully adapt to lengthy separations. This was true even when those separations took their parent to hostile, combat environments like Iraq and Afghanistan. These findings are encouraging as they suggest a certain resiliency in children of military personnel.

Without definitive evidence, one can speculate that a lack in declining academic achievement scores was likely due to a number of factors. First, schools that are accustomed to serving children of military personnel have firsthand knowledge of the special challenges faced by youth with lengthy parental deployments. Thus, institutional support from these schools may have been a source of major support for children and their remaining family members. Official hearings before congressional committees on children and families provide personal testimony as to the effectiveness

of “On-post schools.” Teachers are more often than not spouses of military soldiers who are called to duty in geographically distant locations.

Personal experience and access to military resources on the installations helps teachers experiencing a deployment themselves to better negotiate a separation from their loved ones. For teachers who have the personal experience of going through a deployment, a deeper attachment to their students who are also experiencing a deployment is not uncommon. Teachers and students experiencing deployment separations year after year have come to accept deployments as a *norm* of military life. This frequently allows teachers and students to form special bonds.

Teachers’ experiences with children who have faced numerous parental separations do not always perceive these children’s behavior as extraordinary given their situations. As such, teachers may simply accommodate acting-out, withdrawn or other symptomatic behavior. Perhaps these veteran educators accept these children as acting normally, disregarding otherwise socially or behaviorally unacceptable comportment because of the extenuating circumstances. Finally, children show amazing resiliency in the face of enormous crisis, trauma, and change. They are able to adapt and grow in the process—most not all—rise to the challenge. We need to work toward ensuring the supports are there to facilitate that rise for all of them.

REFERENCES

Adler, A. B., Huffman, A. H., Bliese, P. D., & Castro, C. A. (2005). The impact of deployment length and experience on the well-being of male and female soldiers. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(2), 121-137.

Adler, J. (2003). Families ask why. *Newsweek*, pp. 18-19. Retrieved June 6, 2007, from http://www.mywire.com/pubs/Newsweek/2003/08/04/308853?extID=100

Applewhite L. W., & Mays, R. A. (1996). Parent-Child separation: A comparison of maternally and paternally separated children in military families. *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal, 13*(1), 23-39.

American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (4th ed.).* Washington, DC: Author.

Bain, H. C., Boersma, F. J., & Chapman, J. W. (1983). Academic achievement and locus of control in father-absent elementary school children. *School Psychology International, 4*(2), 69-78.

Bernstein, B. E. (1976). How father absence in the home affects the mathematics skills of fifth-graders. *Family Therapy, 3*(1), 47-59.

Blount, B. W., Curry, A., & Lubin, G. I. (1992). Family separations in the military. *MilitaryMedicine*, 157, 76-79.

Bowlby, J. (1969). *Attachment: Attachment and Loss*. New York: Basic Books.

Bowlby, J. (1976). *Separation: Anxiety and Anger*. New York: Basic Books.

Bowlby, J. (1980). *Loss: Sadness and Depression*. New York: Basic Books.

Boyd, D. A., & Parish, T. S. (1985). An examination of academic achievement in light of familial configuration. *Education, 106*(2), 228-230.

Brown, B. F. (1980). A study of the school needs of children from one-parent families. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 537-540.

CTB McGraw Hill (2005), TerraNova (2nd edition) Multiple Assessment Test. Author.

Drummet, A. R., Coleman, M., & Cable, S. (2003). Military families under stress: Implications for family life education. *Family Relations, 52*(3), 279-287.

Erikson, E. H. (1963). *Childhood and society* (2nd edition). New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc.

Herbst, P. G. (1952). The measurement of family relationships. *Human Relations, 5,* 3-30.

Herrerías, C. (2003). *Parent's guide to prevent sexual abuse.* Indianapolis, IN: JIST Publications.

Herrerías, C. (2005). *Teen's guide to personal safety & preventing sexual abuse*.(2nd Ed.). Indianapolis, IN: JIST Publications.

Hillenbrand, E. D. (2001). Father absence in military families. *Family Coordinator, 25*(4), 451-458.

Jensen, P. S., Martin, D. & Watanabe, H. (1996). Children's response to parental separation during operation desert storm. *American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 35*(4), 433-441.

Jenson, P. S., Lewis, R. L., & Xenakis, S. N. (1986). The military family in review: Context, risk, and prevention. *Journal of American Academy of Child Psychiatry, 25*(2), 225-234.

Kaye, S. K. (1989). The impact of divorce on children's academic performance. *Journal of Divorce & Remarriage, 12*(2-3), 283-298.

Kelley, M. L. (1994). Military-Induced separation in relation to maternal adjustment and children's behaviors. *Military Psychology, 6*(3) 163-176.

Kelley, M. L., Hock, E., Smith, K. M., Jarvis, M. S., Bonney, J. F., & Gaffney, M. A. (2001). Internalizing and externalizing behavior of children with enlisted Navy mothers experiencing military-induced separation. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 40*(4), 464-471.

Knapp, T. S., & Newman, S. J. (1993). Variables related to the psychological well being of Army wives during the stress of an extended military separation. *Military Medicine, 158*(2), 77-80.

Lang, K., & Zagorsky, J. L. (2000). Does growing up with a parent absent really matter? *Journal of Human Resources, 36*(2), 253-273.

Liljequist, L., & Renk, K. (2007). The relationships among teachers' perceptions of student behaviour, teachers' characteristics, and ratings of students' emotional and behavioral problems. *Educational Psychology, 27*(4), 557-571.

Lyle, D.S. (2006). Using military deployments and job assignments to estimate the effect of parental absences and household relocations on children's academic achievement. *Journal of Labor Economics, 24*(2), 319-350.

Maccoby, E. (1984). Middle childhood in the context of the family. In W. A. Collins (Ed.), *Development during middle childhood: The years from six to twelve* (pp. 184-239). Washington, DC: National Academies Press.

McClellan, D. E., & Katz, L. G. (2001). Assessing young children's social competence. ERIC Digest [online]. Retrieved May 27, 2007, from http://ericeece.org/pubs/digests/2001/mccle101.html

McClellan, D. E., & Kinsey, S. J. (1999, Spring). Children's social behavior in relation to participation in mixed-age or same-age classrooms. Early Childhood Research & Practice, 1. Retrieved May 27, 2007, from http://ecrp.uiuc.edu/v1n1/mcclellan.html

McCubbin, H., Patterson, J., & Wilson, L. (1982). Family assessment inventories for researching and practice. University of Wisconsin: Family Stress, Coping, and Health Project.

Pincus, S. H., House, R., Christenson, J., & Adler, L. E. (2004). The emotional cycle of deployment: A military family perspective. Retrieved June 2, 2007, from http://www.hooah4health.com/deployment/familymatters/emotionalcyle.htm

Rosen, L. N., Teitelbaum, J. M., & Westhuis, D. J. (1993). Children's reactions to the Desert Storm deployment: Initial findings from a survey of Army families. *Military Medicine, 158*(7), 465-469.

Robertson, J., & Robertson, J. (1971). *Young children in brief separation*. London: Tavistock Institute.

Rong, X. L. (1996). Effects of race and gender on teachers' perception of the social behavior of elementary students. *Urban Education, 31*(3), 261-290.

Sternlof, S., Pace, T. M., & Beesley, D. (2005, September 26). Educators' responses to internalizing and externalizing symptomatology in children: Implications for school professionals. *Journal of School Counseling, 3*(9). Retrieved October 09, 2007, from http://www.jsc.montana.edu/articles/v3n9.pdf

Timberlake, E. (1979). Child and social functioning: A data base for planning. *School of Social Work Quarterly, 13,* 229-241.

U.S. Department of Defense. (2004). Demographic report: Military community and family policy. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.

United States Senate. (2003). Understanding the needs of children and families especially during times of military deployment. 108th Congress. Committee on Health, Education, Labor, and Pensions, Subcommittee on Children and Families. Document # 88-152 PDF. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Waldron, J. A., Whittington, R. R., & Jenson, S. (1985). Children's single-session briefings: Group work with military families experiencing parent's deployment. *Social Work with Groups, 8*(2), 101-109.

Watts, D. S., & Watts, K. M. (1991). The impact of female-headed single parent families on academic achievement. *Journal of Divorce & Remarriage, 17,* 97-114.

APPENDIX A

PARENT'S INFORMED CONSENT FORM

University of Oklahoma
Institutional Review Board
Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Project Title:	Effects of Parental Separation on the Academic Achievement of Children of Military Personnel
Principal Investigator:	Pedro Ramirez
Department:	Advanced Programs

You are being asked to give your permission to access your child's grade point average, TerraNova standardized math score, number of days absent, number of days tardy, information from your child's school record for a research study on the effects of parental separation on the academic achievement of children of military personnel. The selection was made because your child was a fifth grader at XXXXX* Elementary School during the 2006-2007 school year.

Please read this form and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to take part in this study.

Purpose of the Research Study

The purposes of this study are: (1) Gauge the effects of parental separations on the academic achievement of children of military personnel; (2) Expand the professional knowledge base concerning the circumstances surrounding military families during lengthy separations; (3) Provide essential information that will help military leadership and mental health practitioners to be more sensitive when working with military families; (4) Provide essential information that will help school teachers and administrators to be more effective when working with students whose parents are called away on extended deployments; and (5) Provide critical information to schools, communities, and military personnel concerning the wide range of issues pertaining to children's unique challenges in adjusting to repeated separations from their parents. An important by-product of this research will be to provide vital information and support to children of military personnel who are currently living apart from one or more of those biological parents by sharing the research findings with their parents and teachers, as well as with XXXXX* officials. Finally, the research from this study may lead to grants from the XXXXX to conduct studies within the American schools across Europe.

*The name of the school and appropriate governmental entity appeared on the actual informed consent forms used.

Number of Participants

Information from about 325 children's school records will be reviewed for this study.

Procedures

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

Read this informed consent form, ask questions about the study if you have any, and sign this form so that the researcher may access the above noted information from your child's school record for this research study.

Length of Participation

The length of your participation will be whatever time it takes to read this informed consent, make a decision as to your child's participation, and sign the form.

This study has the following risks:

None

Benefits of being in the study are

Help provide access to data that will form the basis for research to shed light on more effectively working with children whose academic achievement and social behavioral may be affected by separation from their parents.

Confidentiality

In published reports, there will be no information included that will make it possible to identify your child as all data will be de-identified. Research records will be stored securely and only the researchers will have access to the records. Once the information is entered into the computer, any paper recorded from the school records will be shredded. All reporting will be in aggregate form only.

There are organizations that may inspect and/or copy research records for quality assurance and data analysis. These organizations include the OU Institutional Review Board.

Compensation

You will not be reimbursed for your agreement to participate in this study.

Voluntary Nature of the Study

Participation in this study is voluntary. If you withdraw or decline participation, you will not be penalized or lose benefits or services unrelated to the study. If you decide to participate, you may decline to answer any question and may choose to withdraw at any time.

Contacts and Questions

If you have concerns or complaints about the research, the researcher(s) conducting this study can be contacted at Pedro Ramirez, phone, email, or Dr. Catalina Herrerías, (405) 325-1756, cherrerias@ou.edu.
Contact the researcher(s) if you have questions or if you have experienced a research-related injury.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, concerns, or complaints about the research and wish to talk to someone other than individuals on the research team or if you cannot reach the research team, you may contact the University of Oklahoma – Norman Campus Institutional Review Board (OU-NC IRB) at 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records. If you are not given a copy of this consent form, please request one.

Statement of Consent

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received satisfactory answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature Date

APPENDIX B

TEACHERS' INFORMED CONSENT FORM

University of Oklahoma
Institutional Review Board
Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Project Title:	Effects of Parental Separation on the Academic Achievement of Children of Military Personnel
Principal Investigator:	Pedro Ramirez
Department:	Advanced Programs

You are being asked participate in a research study to be conducted at XXXXX* Elementary School. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a fifth grade teacher and are familiar with your students' school records, attendance, and social and emotional behaviors, which are the subject of this study. This study is entirely voluntary.

Please read this form and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to take part in this study.

Purpose of the Research Study

Many of the students at XXXXX* Elementary School have experienced separation from their parents due to military deployment. The focus of this study is to explore the effects of parental separation on children's academic achievement and their social/emotional functioning. Do these parental separations affect them in a way that significantly impacts their school performance and/or their functioning with their peers? Teachers who spend a significant amount of time with these children are in a key position to lend their perspective in helping to answer these important questions that will greatly assist how to best serve these children in an educational setting.

Number of Participants

Five fifth grade teachers. Additionally, data on fifth-graders from XXXXX Elementary School will be collected and analyzed.

Procedures

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

*The name of the school appeared on the actual informed consent forms used.Complete the Teacher's Perception of Social Attributes (TPSA) and Teacher's Perception of Child's Emotional Behavior (TPCEB) for students in your classroom. The TPSA questionnaire consists of 25-items and is a pencil-and-

paper structured multidimensional instrument on which you will rate students' social behaviors for this past school year. Questions are asked in three areas: individual attributes, social skills, and peer relationships that together assess a child's social-emotional development and competence (McClellan & Katz, 2001). The TPCEB is a five-item pencil-and paper measure of emotional behavior. Teachers will also indicate the length of time each student's parent was deployed for military purposes over the course of the school year.

Length of Participation

Length of participation will include time to discuss and answer any questions you may have with regards to the TPSA and TPCEB questionnaire. Also, the time it may take you to complete the questionnaire on your students, which will vary from classroom teacher, depending on classroom size, etc. Ideally, I would like to have the questionnaires back within three weeks of our initial meeting.

This study has the following risks:

This study does not involve any foreseeable risks.

Benefits of being in the study are:

Making a valuable contribution to the developing literature and research on the effects of parental separation on children via their social and emotional behavior and the consequences to their academic achievement. Moreover, the knowledge that such an investment of time and effort will be instrumental in more effectively working with children in the educational setting.

Injury

In case of injury or illness resulting from this study, emergency medical treatment is available. However, you or your insurance company may be expected to pay the usual charge from this treatment. The University of Oklahoma Norman Campus has set no funds to compensate you in the event of injury.

Confidentiality

All information will be reported in aggregate form making the identification of any individual infeasible. Research records will be stored securely and only approved researchers will have access to the records.

There are organizations that may inspect and/or copy your research records for quality assurance and data analysis. These organizations include Dr. Catalina Herrerias of OU and the OU Institutional Review Board.

Costs

There is no cost for participation.

Compensation

There is no compensation for participation in this study.

Rights

Refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You can discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Voluntary Nature of the Study

Participation in this study is voluntary. If you decline to participate, you will not be penalized or lose benefits or services unrelated to the study. If you decide to participate, you may decline to answer any question and may choose to withdraw at any time.

Waivers of Elements of Confidentiality

Your name will not be linked with your responses unless you specifically agree to be identified. Please select one of the following options

_____ I consent to being quoted directly.

_____ I do not consent to being quoted directly.

Contacts and Questions

If you have concerns or complaints about the research, the researcher(s) conducting this study can be contacted at
Pedro Ramirez, 0621-718-7500, pedro.ramirez@eu.dodea.edu.
Dr. Catalina Herrerias, 001(405)325-1852, cherrerias@OU.edu

Contact the researcher(s) if you have questions or if you have experienced a research-related injury.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, concerns, or complaints about the research and wish to talk to someone other than individuals on the research team or if you cannot reach the research team, you may contact the University of Oklahoma – Norman Campus Institutional Review Board (OU-NC IRB) at 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records. If you are not given a copy of this consent form, please request one from Pedro Ramirez at 0621-718-7500.

Statement of Consent

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received satisfactory answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature Date

APPENDIX C

School Data Record – 5TH Grade

School Data Record – 5TH Grade

Child's Name:			Child's Teacher:	
Child's Birthdate:			Current Age:	Years Months
Gender:	__(1) Male __(2) Female			
Days Absent:	FA 06 1/2 days Whole days		Days Absent:	SP 07 1/2 days Whole days
Days Tardy:	FA 06 SP 07			
GPA FA 06:			GPA SP 07:	
CUM GPA :			TERRANOVA:	
PARENT'S NAME:			PARENT'S MARITAL STATUS:	__ (1) Married __ (2) Divorced __ (3) Maritally separated __ (4) Never Married __ (5) Other
GENDER OF DEPLOYED PARENT:	__ (1) Male __ (2) Female __ (3) Not Applicable		RANK OF MILITARY MEMBER:	Father:_____ Mother:_____

COMMENTS:

APPENDIX D

TEACHER'S PERCEPTIONS OF SOCIAL ATTRIBUTES (TPSA)

TEACHER'S PERCEPTIONS OF SOCIAL ATTRIBUTES (TPSA)

This questionnaire is designed to obtain your perceptions of your students' behavior over this last school year. While it is acknowledged that students' behavior is changeable, you are asked to rate the individual's behavior as it was prevalent for most of the school year. Please answer each question carefully. Your responses are confidential and no student will be identified by name; this information is simply for research identification purposes only.

Student: _____ **ID#** _____

Please respond to each statement by checking or marking an "X" in the appropriate response category below.

Observational Statements	Strongly Disagree (1)	Somewhat Disagree (2)	Neither Agree Nor Disagree (3)	Somewhat Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1. The student is usually in a positive mood.					
2. The student is not excessively dependent on adults.					
3. The student usually comes to the classroom willingly.					
4. The student usually copes with rebuffs adequately.					
5. The student shows the capacity to empathize.					
6. The student has positive relationships with one or two peers; shows the capacity to really care about them and miss them if they are absent.					
7. The student displays the capacity for humor.					
8. The student does not seem to be acutely lonely.					
9. The student approaches others positively.					
10. The student expresses wishes and preferences clearly; gives reasons for actions and positions.					
11. The student asserts own rights and needs appropriately.					
12. The student is not easily intimidated by bullies.					
13. The student expresses frustrations and anger effectively and without escalating disagreements or harming others.					
14. The student gains access to ongoing groups at play and work.					
15. The student enters ongoing discussion on the subject; makes relevant contributions to ongoing activities.					
16. The student takes turns fairly easily.					
17. The student shows interest in others; exchanges information with and requests information from others appropriately.					
18. The student negotiates and compromises with others appropriately.					
19. The student does not draw inappropriate attention to self.					
20. The student accepts and enjoys peers and adults of ethnic groups other than his or her own.					
21. The student interacts nonverbally with other children with smiles, waves, nods, etc.					
22. The student is usually accepted versus neglected or rejected by other children.					
23. The student is sometimes invited by other children to join them in play, friendship, and work.					
24. The student is named by other children as someone they are friends with or like to play and work with.					
25. The student is generally a socially competent child.					

TEACHER'S PERCEPTION OF CHILD'S EMOTIONAL BEHAVIOR (TPCEB)

This questionnaire is designed to obtain your perceptions of your students' emotional behavior over this last school year. While it is Acknowledged that students' feelings are changeable, you are asked to rate how you observed each child's behavior as it was prevalent for most of the school year. Please answer each question carefully. Your responses are confidential and no student will be identified by name.

Please respond to each statement by checking or marking an "X" in the appropriate response category below.

Observational Statements	Strongly Disagree (1)	Somewhat Disagree (2)	Neither Agree Nor Disagree (3)	Somewhat Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1. The student appeared mostly sad or down.					
2. The student isolated him- or herself from others.					
3. The student did not make friends easily.					
4. The student did not participate in usual activities.					
5. The student seemed to be depressed.					

What was the length of this student's parent's military deployment over the last school year (August 06 – May 07)?

TOTAL NUMBER OF MONTHS DEPLOYED: _____

__ NO DEPLOYMENT DURING THE LAST SCHOOL YEAR

__ OTHER (specify) _____

APPENDIX E

TEACHERS' SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

TEACHER SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Complete One Per Teacher

These represent personal questions that will be used simply for research purposes and not to single out any educator. All data will be reported in aggregate form. Kindly respond to each question. Either fill in the response, check or mark an "X" for the appropriate answer.

1. What is your age? _____ Years ____ Months

2. What is your gender? _____ (1) Male ____ (2) Female

3. What is your ethnic/racial background?

___(1) African American/Black
___(2) Asian/Asian American
___(3) Caucasian/European
___(4) Hispanic American/Latino
___(5) Native American/American Indian
___(6) Other_____

4. What is your highest level of education?

___(1) Baccalaureate degree
___(2) Some graduate work
___(3) Masters degree
___(4) Some post graduate work
___(5) Doctoral degree (Ph.D., etc.)
___(6) Other _____

5. How many years of teaching experience do you have? ____ Years ____ Months

6. How many years have you taught fifth grade? ____ Years ____Months

Your assistance with this important research will be instrumental in helping to make an essential contribution to the knowledge base for educators on working with children and their families. This valuable contribution is not possible without your input. The investment of your time and effort cannot be thanked enough!