

LIBERTY UNIVERSITY

A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE VIEWS AND PERCEPTIONS OF BUILDING
LEADERS ON DISCIPLINE AND SPECIAL EDUCATION FOR URBAN STUDENTS

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

by

Dementred T. Young

School of Behavioral Sciences

Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA

2022

A QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL BUILDING
LEADERS ON DISCIPLINE AND SPECIAL EDUCATION FOR URBAN STUDENTS

by Dementred T. Young

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

School of Behavioral Sciences
Liberty University, Lynchburg, VA

2022

APPROVED BY:

Mario Garcia, PhD, Dissertation Supervisor

Todd Schultz, PhD, Second Reader

Abstract

This dissertation involved summarizing and critically evaluating principals' views on students who have been traumatized and the treatment these students receive as a result of these perceptions. The main focus was to ascertain whether administrators' upbringing has a mediating effect on the treatment of students being educated in an urban community. The central question focused on the views and perceptions of building leaders raised in urban, suburban, or rural areas and the impact of their perception of urban students who have experienced trauma. Sub-questions were designed to uncover the relationship between the building administrator's life experiences and perceptions of disciplinary practices, the labeling of students needing special behavioral education, and the leader's satisfaction while working with these students. The study was designed to determine whether implicit bias or negative perceptions affect administrators' thoughts on suspensions, expulsions, arrests, and educational success. thoughts on suspensions, expulsions, arrests, and educational success. A quantitative research study using a survey was conducted to gather information from the administrators on their perceptions concerning discipline, special education, and career satisfaction. The results showed there were significant discrepancies between urban raised administrators and their suburban counterparts.

Keywords: posttraumatic stress, childhood trauma, community violence, perceptions, building leaders

Table of Contents

Abstract..... 3

List of Tables..... 7

List of Figures..... 8

List of Abbreviations..... 9

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION..... 10

 Background..... 10

 Nature of the Research Topic..... 12

 Relevant Literature..... 14

 Problem Statement..... 15

 Purpose Statement..... 16

 Significance of the Study..... 17

 Research Design..... 17

 Research Questions..... 18

 Definitions..... 18

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE..... 20

 Overview..... 20

 Theoretical Framework..... 22

 Social Identity Theory..... 23

 Implicit Bias and School Leadership..... 27

 Implicit Bias and Special Education..... 28

 Implicit Bias and School Arrests..... 28

 Related Literature..... 30

Trauma	30
Types of Trauma	31
Causes of Trauma.....	38
Risk Factors for the Development of Trauma Reaction.....	40
Possible Negative Outcomes of Trauma	40
Specific Trauma That Occurs in Urban Areas	41
Risk Factors for the Development of Trauma Reaction.....	42
Specific Possible Negative Outcomes of Trauma	43
Cultural Competency	46
Summary	49
Future Areas of Research	50
CHAPTER THREE: METHOD	52
Research Design: Quantitative Study	52
Cross-Sectional Survey Approach	52
Research Questions	53
Participants/Setting	54
Procedure	55
Data Collection/Methodology.....	55
Data Analysis	56
Validity	57
Conclusion	58
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS	59
Descriptive Statistics.....	59

Results..... 70

Summary..... 70

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION..... 72

Overview..... 72

Discussion..... 72

 Central Question 72

 Sub-Question 1..... 73

 Sub-Question 2..... 74

 Sub-Question 3..... 75

Implications..... 76

Limitations of the Study..... 78

Recommendations for Future Research 78

Conclusion 79

References..... 81

Appendix A: Consent Form 99

Appendix B: Survey..... 101

Appendix C: Permission 103

Appendix D: Participation Letter..... 105

Appendix E: Conceptual Model: Simple Mediation Model 106

Appendix F: IRB Approval Letter 107

List of Tables

Table 1 Demographic Characteristics (N = 63)	60
Table 2 Perception Subscales	61
Table 3 Comparisons by Gender (Mean \pm SD).....	62
Table 4 Comparisons by Race (Mean \pm SD)	63
Table 5 Comparisons by Age Range (Mean \pm SD).....	64
Table 6 Comparisons by Type of Administrator (Mean \pm SD).....	66
Table 7 Comparisons by Type of Upbringing (Mean \pm SD).....	67
Table 8 Comparisons by Economic Upbringing (Mean \pm SD).....	69
Table 9 Comparisons by Type of Upbringing (Mean \pm SD).....	70

List of Figures

Figure 1 Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Gender	62
Figure 2 Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Race	64
Figure 3 Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Age Range	65
Figure 4 Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Type of Administrator.....	66
Figure 5 Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Type of Upbringing	68
Figure 6 Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Economic Upbringing	69

List of Abbreviations

Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Wright (2017) noted generational poverty is a cycle of families having experienced poverty for at least two generations or more. Children who are born into the cycle of generational poverty and reside in inner cities experience a range of traumatic experiences that can disrupt their trajectory to becoming well-adjusted adults. A child's learning potential, socialization, and sense of self are all affected by traumatic events (Wright, 2017). There is an abundance of evidence to illuminate that childhood trauma can result from living in poverty, confined housing, increased childhood abuse, and environmental violence (Frissen et al., 2015).

According to Amaya-Jackson (2017), trauma during childhood is common, creates adversity, and affects typical mental, behavioral, and educational development. Traumatized children can develop the inability to interpret and respond to situations with emotional intelligence (Espinosa & Rudenstine, 2018). Children responding to the world with dysregulation resulting from having experienced trauma may present with behavioral and emotional difficulties. Educators may perceive these behaviors as a problem rather than a symptom or byproduct of urban trauma. These perceived negative behaviors may cause administrators to respond negatively to students with trauma exposure (Amaya-Jackson, 2017).

Background

According to Nijenhuis and Van der Hart (2011), the traditional definition of trauma describes obtaining a wound or some type of injury. The emotional, social, biological, or environmental damage caused by a traumatic event can be classified as a psychological wound. Any preexisting conditions, such as adversity, prior traumas, or past dysregulation, can be compounded by new trauma (Nijenhuis & van der Hart, 2011). Trauma happens when a significant event occurs that affects the amygdala in the brain. Once this part of the brain is

affected, an alarm system is triggered, resulting in an immediate decision to fight, freeze, or flight. This process is characterized by increased cortisol and arousal (Power & Mullan, 2017). Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) can be diagnosed when an acute event is severe or there is chronic trauma coupled with meeting the criteria outlined by the cluster of symptoms in the diagnostic manual (C. L. Franklin et al., 2018).

Pain (2018) stated child abuse and intimate partner or domestic violence can develop into chronic trauma. The intensity or frequency of such an event determines the severity of the posttraumatic stress symptoms that develop after chronic trauma. Chronic trauma can be influenced by repeated exposure to violence, the role of the abuser in the survivor's life, and the person's perceived or actual ability to escape the trauma. Psychological violence can take the form of verbal or physical abuse or witnessing abuse. All forms of psychological violence can result in internalizing or externalizing behaviors.

Mokruue et al. (2011) reported citizens of the United States are no strangers to trauma. More than 61% of males and 51% of females have been exposed to at least one traumatic experience, with approximately 9% developing PTSD. Black and Latino populations have higher PTSD rates than their White counterparts who reside in higher socioeconomic communities. The U.S. minority population is more likely to concentrate in urban areas, increasing the probability of developing PTSD as a result of witnessing environmental trauma.

The urban city of Bridgeport is located in the affluent state of Connecticut. Bridgeport's population is approximately 143,010, with an average household income of \$62,879. Bridgeport is 40.28% White, 35.26% Black or African American, 15.76% Hispanic, 4.72% two or more races, and 3.47% Asian (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020). The school system has approximately 21,000 students. Although Hispanics make up 15% of the population, they make up 51.89% of

the students in the school district, followed by 32.07% Black and 11.69% White (Bridgeport Public Schools, 2020).

Bridgeport Public Schools (2020) reported Bridgeport has had a history of crime for years. Although there has been a year-to-year decline in crime rates, Bridgeport City remains one of the highest reporters of criminal infractions in the United States. In 2020, the crime offenses count was 2,670 in 2020, which placed the city 83.2% above the average of all cities in the United States (City-data.com, 2021). Bridgeport has several issues, such as generational poverty, underperforming schools, and high crime, that make its citizens more vulnerable to trauma exposure, which leads to a greater need for school professionals to be more aware of these issues to guide disciplinary practices.

Nature of the Research Topic

Pervasive childhood trauma disrupts an entire community's way of life, and the community's culture and climate can contribute to the continuation of community trauma (Ungar, 2013). Short-term effects of trauma, such as fear and anxiety, occur after an acutely stressful event. Fear and anxiety can dissipate if a sense of safety has been reestablished, leaving a sense of a returned homeostasis. When the perceived danger is not extinguished or continues to occur with no signs of a potential return to an emotional balance, the trauma can turn into a phobia and extreme anxiety (Singewald et al., 2015).

There are also significant long-term effects of childhood trauma. Witnessing violent or aggressive behavior from the adults in a child's environment disturbs a child's cognitive processes and interferes with or interrupts a child's critical developmental process. Emotional regulation, attachment, and stress responses can all be affected by witnessing or being the subject

of violence or aggression (Voith et al., 2020). According to Arseneault et al. (2011), childhood trauma can cause the long-term effect of psychotic disorders and psychotic illnesses.

Chronic exposure to urban violence has been shown to be a significant risk factor for a child's emotional development. Chronic exposure can directly or indirectly affect a child and alter their social and emotional outcomes later in life. Exposure to chronic violence affects social and academic outcomes and can also affect psychological and cognitive functioning (Molano et al., 2018).

Minorities residing in urban areas are exposed to high levels of trauma from several different fronts. Although the adults in these areas are also exposed to violence, the impact is more significant for children who are chronically exposed to the daily barrage of traumatic experiences while attempting to make sense of the world around them. According to Hunt et al. (2011), there are higher rates of anxiety and mood disorders, substance abuse, and PTSD resulting from living in a distressed and volatile environment. Obesity, cardiovascular disease, and increased cases of mental illness are associated with chronic trauma from urban communities due to the pervasive trauma in an urban setting. Pain (2018) used the term "chronic urban trauma" to describe this phenomenon.

According to Geronimus et al. (2015), those who reside in inner cities or urban communities have higher rates of age-related disease and early mortality. This population lacks access to affordable, healthier food options, contributing to higher rates of diabetes and other health-related ailments. Food insecurity, or the uncertainty of receiving food, becomes an issue in urban areas due to the lack of financial resources and economic deprivation. These economic issues can result in toxic stress due to their pervasive nature (Hecht et al., 2018). With lower

socioeconomics, a lack of access to quality education, and decreased quality of health, urban residents experience more poverty than their suburban counterparts (Geronimus et al., 2015).

Relevant Literature

There are many perspectives on the reason for the increased trauma exposure in urban areas. Chronic urban trauma can be explained as a historical or generational cycle of poverty (Pain, 2018). There are many theories related to trauma in adults, but these theories cannot be applied to childhood trauma. Children respond to trauma differently than adults, as they may not understand or interpret the gravity of an event and its overall significance. Characteristics such as gender, sex, ethnicity, age, severity, and proximity to the traumatic event all influence children's level of trauma response (Alisic et al., 2011).

Zaleski et al. (2016) described trauma as a direct result of exposure to a impactful and unusually stressful experience that overwhelms an individual's adaptive response. This trauma experience can result in a life with pervasive feelings of helplessness and fear. Each person has a unique way of processing danger or fear. Traumatic reactions such as strained relationships, negative memories, and other physical and somatic symptoms can occur when an individual is presented with a unique catastrophic event. Following a traumatic event, a person can enter a state of self-preservation that places the person in a hyperarousal state. The alarm is triggered, and balance or homeostasis is altered. According to Sletvold (2016), Breuer and Freud, early theorists on the concept of trauma, suggested trauma is an extreme reaction to an event that causes short-term effects like exhaustion, physical arousal, and numbness and potential long-term effects like severe disassociation and extended periods of distress without calmness.

Problem Statement

Public schools in the United States rank ninth among all industrial countries and public schools in urban communities have consistently underperformed their suburban counterparts as evidenced by standardized tests and other summative measures (Teasley et al., 2016). Statistics for public schools in the United States show a performance gap between urban and suburban communities. The socioeconomic disadvantage in urban schools causes minority students to achieve less educationally than their advantaged counterparts in the core subjects (Lago et al., 2017). Anyon et al. (2016) showed no correlation between out-of-school suspensions, expulsions, school arrests, improved student behavior, or increased school safety overall. A disproportionate number of minority students are given consequences compared to their majority counterparts, causing education deficits, increased incarceration odds, and chronic urban trauma.

According to S. Wang (2019), studies show culturally informed and emotionally intelligent school staff, particularly building principals and quality teachers, are essential to the success of a school and its students (Kumar, 2020). The formative years in a student's educational process represent a critical period that shapes essential thinking skills, attitudes about education, and behavior. In school, students learn the concept of self-discipline, which requires the ability to control impulses when there are no consequences present (Golann et al., 2019). Most of a child's time spent awake is at an educational institution and students are influenced by the people they encounter in their school. School staff influences the social and psychological formation of the students they serve, making it vitally important for them to have quality interactions based on cultural competence rooted in evidence-based teaching (S. Wang, 2019).

Building leaders and other school staff who harbor negative perceptions of urban students who have experienced trauma have a narrow locus of control or understanding of the impact of

trauma on individuals. They cannot understand and identify strategies to increase students' educational levels while decreasing behavioral infractions (Kumar, 2020). The negative perception of urban traumatized students and the consequences of the lack of understanding of trauma reactions are significant issues, as evidenced by several recent studies that pointed to cultural competence as critical to the achievement of minority students (Wolf et al., 2017).

The problem addressed in this research is that students who have suffered trauma are given a higher frequency and degree of negative consequences by building leaders due to the leaders' own personal life experiences and backgrounds. Data indicate students of color experience multiple traumas throughout their childhood and receive increased negative consequences due to what is viewed or perceived as maladaptive behavior (Lago et al., 2017).

Purpose Statement

In schools, building leaders should have empathy and cultural competence surrounding the populations they serve. This study was designed to advance the body of research surrounding the problem of increased negative consequences being given to urban traumatized minority students due to building leaders' perceptions of these students in the school district of Bridgeport, Connecticut. The purpose of the study was to determine whether the upbringings of the building administrators had an effect on their views and perceptions of the students who attend Bridgeport Public Schools. A quantitative cross-sectional survey research design was used to investigate this issue. This design enabled the researcher to collect data by surveying a sample population of building leaders with varied life histories about their views and perceptions of urban students to uncover whether there was a relationship between the administrators' upbringing and their opinions and perceptions regarding suspensions, referrals to special education in an urban community, and overall satisfaction with working with these students.

Significance of the Study

This study involved using data to ascertain whether there was a correlation between the perception of building leaders and the disproportionate increase in harmful and punitive consequences for minority students in an urban school district. The data were intended to uncover whether implicit bias was present in the chosen school system and the community it serves. Results shed light on the issues affecting traumatized students and can be used to provide context to key stakeholders such as police, juvenile probation, and mental health providers (Marchbanks et al., 2016). When minority students are disciplined more than other groups, the stakeholders mentioned above are inundated with referrals, contributing to the school-to-prison pipeline (Owens, 2016). According to Fitzgerald et al. (2018), the school-to-prison pipeline is characterized by socioeconomically disadvantaged students, students of color, and students with special needs being given harsher punishment than their majority counterparts, leading to increased interactions with the juvenile justice system. The police are called upon to interact with students more frequently for what building leaders deem problematic behaviors. More often than not, the trajectory of these students moves from perceived inappropriate behaviors to school-related discipline, culminating with interactions with the judicial system and a referral to special education or a mental health agency. Referrals to these services can be significantly reduced if building leaders' negative perceptions of these traumatized students can be unmasked and addressed.

Research Design

The researcher used a quantitative cross-sectional survey design to study the extent to which building leaders' perceptions and their upbringings affected their treatment of traumatized students raised in an urban neighborhood. Data were collected via a survey method. Questions

were created to ascertain possible implicit biases mediated by the administrators' upbringing to discover their views and perceptions of the students they served. The findings were intended to determine whether there was a relationship between an administrator's upbringing and their views and perceptions on the use of harsher consequences, the need for special education, or the need for police intervention to educate urban students.

Research Questions

The research was designed to uncover the relationship between building leaders' upbringing and their views and perceptions of urban students who have been traumatized. The following research questions were developed to guide the study:

Central Question: Is there an association between building leaders' upbringing and their views and perception of urban students?

Are building administrators' life experiences associated with how they view appropriate penalties for students with trauma?

As a result of their views and perceptions, is there a correlation between building leaders' perception as a result of their upbringings and their thoughts on the need for special education classifications?

To what degree are building leaders' views and perceptions related to their overall satisfaction with Bridgeport Public Schools?

Definitions

Childhood trauma – results from living in poverty, confined housing, increased childhood abuse, and environmental violence (Frissen et al., 2015).

Chronic exposure – continually experiencing chronic violence that affects social and academic outcomes as well as psychological and cognitive functioning (Molano et al., 2018).

Chronic urban trauma – multiple pervasive adverse events in an urban community (Pain, 2018).

Perception – the interaction with the environment that creates a sensory signal developed by experiences over time and the knowledge of the regularity in the combined space of sensory data (Bohg et al., 2017).

Posttraumatic stress – occurs after a traumatic event and meets the criteria outlined by the cluster of symptoms in the diagnostic manual (C. L. Franklin et al., 2018).

Psychological violence – occurs with chronic verbal or physical abuse or witnessing abuse, resulting in internalizing or externalizing behaviors (Pain, 2018).

School-to-prison pipeline – an overrepresentation of minority students educated in urban areas that are socioeconomically disadvantaged, resulting in interactions with juvenile justice systems (Fitzgerald et al., 2018).

Trauma – to obtain a wound or some type of injury (Nijenhuis & van der Hart, 2011).

Traumatic reactions – following a traumatic event, a person enters into a state of self-preservation and hyperarousal (Zaleski et al., 2016).

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview

This literature review presents a summary and critical evaluation of principals' views on students who have been traumatized due to living situations that are riddled with crime and violence. Two themes are covered: trauma and cultural competence as they relate to implications for urban students and building leaders' perceptions mediated by their upbringings. These two themes are discussed and integrated, and synthesized. The review was designed to determine whether the research supports or does not support the assertion that students who are traumatized by their environment receive different treatment from their school administrators and whether the adverse treatment these students face is the result of the leader's views of these students formed by their formative experiences. This study was designed to investigate building leaders' perceptions of traumatized students from inner cities. The researcher developed this literature review by creating and defining the research questions and analyzing databases and peer-reviewed articles to gain a scholarly understanding of the problem. Relevant keywords were employed to gather articles relevant to traumatized urban students and building leaders' perceptions.

This study was designed to classify principals' views and perceptions of students who have been traumatized due to their poor living situations, which are often accompanied by violence and tumultuous upbringing. The study was conducted to determine whether the mediating effect of how an administrator was raised affects their treatment of students in urban communities. This topic should be of interest to those employed in urban school districts, inner-city stakeholders, and those who work with the products of an inner city where trauma is chronic. In the Bridgeport Public School district, many suspensions, expulsions, and arrests are

disproportionately levied against students of color, particularly Black males. Black male students are more likely to be identified with an emotional disturbance as an educational classification, decreasing their ability to obtain academic success (Young, 2011).

The researcher wanted to understand whether building leaders' perceptions affect student discipline and overall social and educational outcomes. The literature review covers the causes of childhood trauma, specific trauma in urban settings, cultural competence in the school's climate and culture, and the perceptions of building leaders. Previous work supports that building leaders set the tone in school buildings. This tone enables the school administration to inspire and motivate staff and students to buy into the shared vision to achieve the purpose of educating students (Gülsen & Gülenay, 2014). If the environment is not culturally competent, students will be disciplined more negatively by the adults due to a lack of understanding of minority students.

A cross-sectional survey was administered to 63 building leaders born in urban, rural, and suburban areas to gather their perceptions of inner-city students. The survey was stratified using a Likert scale anchor (Creswell, 2018). The implication was that building administrators with urban upbringings would have more negative perceptions of students from urban areas who exhibit problematic behavior than would those raised in suburban and rural areas. The negative perceptions held by the urban-raised administrators would ultimately result in more negative consequences for these students. The cross-sectional survey was designed to ascertain whether the early life experiences of the administrators mediated any differences in the treatment of these traumatized students.

Daly et al. (2015) found that the causes of trauma in children include community and domestic violence, physical abuse, sexual assault or molestation, neglect, and childhood maltreatment. These traumas can result in negative behaviors that can influence adults' views

and perceptions of these students. Acute, chronic, and complex trauma affect the severity of symptoms and may appear problematic or appear as negative behaviors in schools displayed by these students. These behaviors can be viewed as problematic, resulting in negative thoughts, views, and perceptions by school staff. These behaviors can lead professionals to levy harsher penalties and increase the likelihood of special education classification for minority students.

The specific trauma that occurs due to living in an urban area and the causes and risk factors for the traumatic reaction are understudied. Trauma experienced while living in poor conditions can cause adverse academic and social outcomes (Pain, 2018). The reason for studying these negative outcomes is that there can be proper professional development centered around trauma-informed schools and interventions for those students suffering from urban trauma. Building leaders' perceptions of students can affect student outcomes and life trajectories. The phenomenon of cultural competence can inform individuals' educational, mental health, emotional well-being, and economic health from childhood to adulthood (Larson et al., 2017).

Theoretical Framework

The researcher used a descriptive study design to investigate principals' perceptions and views of students who have been traumatized due to their environment. The research was designed to uncover the relationship between building administrators' urban and suburban upbringings and their effect on their treatment of students who have been exposed to trauma. The study involved examining whether their perceptions caused these students to receive harsher discipline and a need for special education classifications to be successful.

All humans have views and perceptions that are shaped by their personal experiences navigating life. Sell (2018) described the work of Stanley Schachter and based his study on Kurt

Lewin's and Leon Festinger's original works on social psychology, in which he discussed the fundamental notions of group affiliation as essential to understanding humans. Kruglanski et al. (2018) pointed out that social psychology spawned several terms that are more closely related to perception and how lifelong experiences shape opinions, actions, and motivations. The concept of the cognitive consistency paradigm explains the rationale behind relying on past experiences, from childhood to adulthood, to guide current actions. If that paradigm is altered, cognitive dissonance can occur.

Harrison-Bernard et al. (2020) expanded beyond the work of Mahzarin Banaji and Anthony Greenwald, who were the pioneers of what is now known as social identity theory (SIT) or implicit bias. Implicit bias is a term used in social psychology and is defined as an unconscious prejudice formed at an early age that can create obstacles for marginalized groups (FitzGerald & Hurst, 2017). These unconscious prejudices are formed by deliberate and unintentional signals and information from caretakers during childhood. Harrison-Bernard et al. viewed implicit bias slightly differently as an unobservable system in the brains of individuals that drives their decision making. Johnson and Bornstein (2021) described implicit bias more narrowly, relating it to the school system and how the system marginalizes minority groups as a result of prejudgment. Gullo and Beachum (2020) stated building leaders make decisions that affect students daily. Implicit bias can affect these leaders' ability to consider all factors when addressing problematic behavior. Attitudes, preconceived notions, and stereotypes can affect decisions concerning the treatment of students.

Social Identity Theory

A person's identity is shaped by their experiences and is crucial in making decisions. Davis et al. (2019) conducted a study to compare sociology's definition of identity theory with

psychology's definition. Identity was defined as a multipronged construct of different social experiences that form a response to the environment. The researchers defined SIT as a collective identity focusing on the identity associated with a social movement. Identity theory focuses on the "I" and SIT focuses on the "we." According to G. M. Crow and Moller (2017), individual identities form, revise, repair, maintain, and are strengthened throughout one's childhood and guide decisions in adulthood. They form as children navigate and begin to find their place in this world, revise opinions and thoughts as dictated by their surroundings, repair ideas as they learn more, maintain entrenched beliefs as they are reinforced, and are strengthened through reinforcement.

Student identity constantly forms throughout the school years. According to Carlone et al. (2014), developmental and physiological changes occur during adolescence. This period is a critical phase that can alter a student's educational and behavioral trajectory. This longitudinal study followed students from middle to high school, studying how the students' social identities were developed and how race, gender, and class influenced student success. Carlone et al. examined the role of maturation and puberty in forming social identity and the relationship between motivation and choice. Findings showed a shift in student perception when there is extrinsic motivation. According to how they are treated, this motivation is cultivated or stunted by school staff. Maxwell et al. (2017) found effective education or teaching and learning results from a complex psychological process that can encourage or discourage students when their social identity is developing.

Group connections are what humans strive for to feel validated and welcomed. Nicholls and Rice (2017) defined SIT as an individual's identification with a group based on specific characteristics and values held by both the individual and group in a study that explored the dual-

identity model of responses to deviance in online groups. The definition was expanded by asserting that SIT allows individuals to create and maintain a sense of community and promotes social norms. Norms and expectations, learned formally and informally, influence how individuals respond to their environment and react to others. Walker and Caprar (2020) reported that self-knowledge is developed by membership in a particular group in which an individual internalizes a specific social role. Social identity theory and its impact on decision making were relevant to the current study because administrators' social identity and collective experiences could influence their treatment of urban students.

Kafa and Pashiardis (2019) indicated schools are becoming more complex and diverse. Building administrators have a significant impact on ensuring students' behavioral, social, and academic performance levels. They can alter a student's potential later in life, and their role and perception of students are essential. Personal perspective influences leadership practice and individual identities, resulting from a strengthened values system perspective formed by the administrator's life-critical incidents and the effect on their leadership practice through various leadership styles. Kafa and Pashiardis used the principals' upbringing and environment to ascertain whether that perspective influenced their leadership style. Findings showed school administrators' identities, including values, assisted with their understanding of the people with whom they were in more personal contact. These values influenced their leadership practice, including behavioral and academic considerations.

Edge et al. (2017) defined the role of building leaders as governors, caretakers, planners, and teachers. Administrators have a professional identity and a social identity both with norms and expectations. Professional identity involves depersonalization, in which the administrator holds common perceptions, views, attitudes, and behaviors. According to Nordholm et al.

(2020), professional identity is mediated by gender, age, and administrator type. G. M. Crow and Moller (2017) described professional identity as an influence behind the drive of a leader to focus on work and clearly defined roles. An administrator has both personal and social views and perceptions. Three levels of self-construct were determined to illustrate what constitutes professional identity. These elements included individual internalization or lived experience, relational recognition, and collective endorsement. Walker and Caprar (2020) asserted performance is the motivator for the administrator's perceptions. Performance and achievement provide a sense of self and relation to a group and promote positive mental health and well-being.

Welsh and Little (2018) argued that administrators' policies, practices, and perspectives play an essential role in the disparities among minority students. They reviewed peer-reviewed literature to conclude whether the classroom, school, or neighborhood contributed to the disproportionalities in adverse discipline outcomes. The alternatives to exclusionary discipline policies, like suspension and expulsion, did not show a reduction in negative disciplinary rates. The results showed the rates of harmful disciplinary practices could not be attributed to one single factor like policy, procedures, or perception. The study did show minority students were disciplined at higher rates than were White students. The results also showed the administrator's views and perceptions shaped the rates of harmful disciplinary practices and that administrators have a clear philosophy, formed by their perception, that shapes their approach to discipline.

According to Wiggan and Watson-Vandiver (2019), most of the research on urban students centers around the reason for failure and increased rates of behavioral discipline. Wiggan and Watson-Vandiver used a quantitative method to ascertain what made a school in Ferguson, Missouri, high-performing and reported low behavior disciplinary infractions.

According to Teherani et al. (2015), researchers work under the assumption that a similar reality can be uncovered with a specific approach. Shernoff et al. (2011) suggested this approach focuses on a phenomenon and outcomes from events from the perceptions and views. Shernoff et al. described self-awareness as a significant factor in why these students were successful. They did not attribute other social factors that could have contributed to student success in the area of behavior and academic progress, nor did they factor in the makeup of teachers and the background of the building administrators. The study pointed to a positive environment and self-knowledge as contributing factors.

Implicit Bias and School Leadership

There has been a lot said about implicit bias in education. Gullo and Beachum (2020) conducted a study in which they explored administrators' disciplinary decisions related to social justice for minority students. The researchers used interviews and analyzed documents of six mid-Atlantic administrators to examine their decision-making process. Results showed the administrators' views and perceptions unconsciously contributed to increased discipline for marginalized students. The findings indicated administrators use relationships as step one to guide their decisions, followed by flexibility and morality. When making decisions about student discipline, the administrator starts with a premise that the students can either be innocent or guilty, offenders or victims. Prejudgment should not factor into the decision. Administrators should view students as individuals and not groups and develop meaningful relationships. Gullo and Beachum concluded that administrators have a bias due to their self-defined goal for the discipline but should consider flexibility and consideration while enacting disciplinary policy. Furthermore, they should consider an alternative when appropriate and individualize discipline.

Implicit Bias and Special Education

According to Strassfeld (2017), implicit bias can play a role in minority students disproportionately being labeled with special education classifications. Strassfeld described the disproportionate overrepresentation of students of color in special education compared to their majority counterparts. The factors outlined in the study included the parent's education, the minority group's population size, ethnic bias, and the teacher's race. Herzik (2015) focused on African Americans as a disproportionately labeled group with a particular education classification. They pointed to the labeling of special education as a significant issue due to the system neglecting to analyze whether there are underlying issues to the academic difficulty or behavioral problems (Strassfeld, 2017). Overrepresentation is such a problem in the United States that the federal government instituted a monitoring system to ensure equality.

Connor et al. (2019) also discussed the overrepresentation of minority students in special education and characterized the issue as perpetually "haunting" the field of special education. The researchers examined two phenomena related to the overrepresentation of marginalized groups in special education. Significant attention was given to a few scholars who claimed overrepresentation does not exist. Conversely, there was a lack of considerable attention given to many scholars who focused on the origins, manifestation, and suggested resolutions of overrepresentation. Legislation and policies to reduce marginalized groups' overrepresentation in special education may be misdirected. Morgan et al.'s (2015) argument that minority students are not overrepresented in special education was refuted due to data inaccuracies.

Implicit Bias and School Arrests

Riddle and Sinclair (2019) reported minority students are subject to disciplinary consequences at much higher rates than their majority counterparts. These corrective actions set

students on a negative life trajectory. School disciplinary consequences include suspensions, expulsions, and, ultimately, school arrests. Early harsh penalties for children can have negative life consequences, including poor interpersonal relationships and substance and mental health issues. The disciplinary gap between majority and minority students is associated with high rates of implicit bias.

Hughes et al. (2020) discussed implicit bias and its association with the higher rates of school discipline given to minority students but focused more on the school-to-prison pipeline. Inappropriate behavior in school has become criminalized. Building administrators call the police for behavior exhibited by minority students at higher rates than for the same behavior exhibited their White counterparts, causing high arrest rates—the primary source of referrals to juvenile court in schools. According to the article, higher rates of school arrests are associated with the implicit or racial bias held by the person who delivers the consequence. There is often inconsistent enforcement of the disciplinary policy depending on the student's racial identity.

The main focus of the current study was to ascertain whether the views and perceptions of administrators affect the discipline and programmatic outcomes of students in urban settings. Social identity theory reveals that an individual's identity is shaped by their experiences throughout life and plays a crucial role in decision-making processes. Implicit bias molded by social identity can guide an administrator's decision making for the students they serve. Administrators' formative views on how they perceive the world growing up can influence the disciplinary practices they use with urban students and their perception that these students can only learn and behave with external and punitive interventions and the use of special education. This study was designed to shed light on how upbringing affects administrators' perceptions of discipline and special education for students living in urban areas.

Related Literature

Trauma

According to Sanderson (2014), most studies describe trauma as exposure to or witnessing actual threat or a threat to life, sexual violation, or severe injury accompanied by fear and horror or helplessness. Friedman (2015) changed the definition slightly by suggesting trauma is a catastrophic event or stressor that can create significant symptoms of distress in an individual or psychological wounding resulting from an unusual, extraordinary event outside of an individual's life. Jonker et al. (2020) added that trauma is experienced, including unexpected, perceived life-threatening occurrences, that prevent a person from responding in typical ways. There appear to be conflicting opinions on whether witnessing a life-threatening event can cause PTSD, but the literature points more toward the affirmative. The trauma experienced by students of color can result in PTSD. According to Armour et al. (2016), PTSD can present with symptoms such as emotional numbing, being misinterpreted as being aloof or distant, or behaviors like negative alterations in cognition and mood. These symptoms can be unfavorable and can negatively affect a building leader's perception if they are not trauma-informed or culturally competent.

Rajaram (2021) asserted behaviors that can be viewed as problematic include interrupting the educational flow, attention-seeking behaviors such as telling jokes, horse playing, and creating situations that could distract the teacher and other students. These behaviors are often met with verbal discipline or removal from class. The general response is that the student is the problem, not the student's behavior. These behaviors can be an attempt to deflect from the signs of trauma. These situations often end with an intervention by the building administrator.

Gilmoor et al. (2019) reported that PTSD is a condition that persists after experiencing a traumatic, life-threatening event. It includes intrusive or reexperiencing the traumatic event, avoiding symptoms, negative alterations in cognition and mood, and increased arousal. Repeated childhood abuse increases the potential for PTSD. Helplessness, fear, and stress are other symptoms associated with PTSD.

Types of Trauma

Acute Trauma. According to Daly et al. (2015), urban communities have issues with violence and poverty, and children in these communities can experience long-term effects as a result. Three types of traumas can occur after experiencing an extraordinarily stressful event or set of circumstances. These types of traumas include acute, chronic, and complex. Acute trauma results from a single stressful or dangerous event. Chronic trauma results from repeated and prolonged exposure to highly stressful events.

Barbieri et al. (2019) described trauma, including child abuse, bullying, or domestic violence as complex trauma that results from multiple traumatic events. According to the literature, psychological trauma can be classified using types 1 and 2. Like acute trauma, type 1 refers to an unexpected event causing significant stress. Complex trauma or Type 2 describes trauma experienced throughout an individual's childhood or the early stages of development. It is defined as exposure to repeated, prolonged, traumatic stress such as violence, sexual abuse, and rape.

Reininghaus et al. (2016) referred to childhood trauma as a negative event or a series of adverse events that affect an individual. Blitz et al. (2016) noted emotional dysregulation and irritability to be acute trauma symptoms. At the same time, Maguire et al. (2015) reported

increased depression, suicidality, and decreased productivity to be acute symptoms of emotional abuse.

Lewis et al. (2016) defined child sex abuse as a significant phenomenon globally and in the United States, where a child is touched inappropriately, exposed to sexualized content, or raped. Acute trauma reactions are characterized by symptoms like shame or helplessness and internalization, which happen soon after the abuse. Sexualized behavior, isolation, and suicidality have been associated with sexual victimization. Brown et al. (2022) noted disbelief, somatic difficulties, and self-blame as acute effects of child sexual abuse.

According to Cui et al. (2018), physical abuse is another form of trauma that can affect students. Trauma resulting from physical abuse has been well documented. Childhood physical abuse causes behavioral issues, especially when committed by a trusted adult (Cui et al., 2018). The number of cases is underestimated as many go unreported—those who have experienced abuse exhibit perceived behavioral issues, mental health problems, and physical health complications. Mental health issues can include anxiety and depression, some cardiovascular issues, and suicidal ideation. Physical abuse is not relegated to just one setting.

Fakunmoju and Bammeke (2015) described children interacting with various people and being part of several physical abuse systems. Schools, daycare settings, and other relatives' homes are examples of the different systems children navigate. Each of these settings can create instances of physical abuse and lead to a traumatic response of depression and anxiety. Physical abuse can create a negative physiological, emotional, and cognitive response. Abuse occurring in multiple settings can increase the probability of negative emotional and mental responses and the development of PTSD symptoms. Price-Wolf (2015) stated future studies should examine the implications of abuse conducted by a mother versus a father. Social and relational issues are

comorbid with physical abuse, so it is essential to investigate the root of the abuse to determine whether there is variation depending on which parent conducted the infraction. Hoehn et al. (2018) described physical abuse as maltreatment by another individual ranging from minor injuries to more significant physical trauma. Stoltenborgh et al. (2013) narrowed the definition of early physical abuse in childhood to harmful interactions with a child's caregiver, including harsh and abusive physical discipline, hitting, punching, choking, or other forms of dangerous physical contact. Both gave examples of acute trauma reactions such as cognitive, mental, and psychological problems affecting daily functioning.

Chronic Complex Trauma. Wamser-Nanney et al. (2021) summarized complex trauma as multiple and frequent exposures to traumas over time. These traumas can include physical and sexual abuse and domestic or community violence with regularity. Hoehn et al. (2018) reported on the adverse long-term physical and mental health effects in adulthood for physical and sexual abuse survivors. Two other long-term effects of early trauma are substance abuse and interpersonal relationship problems. According to Wamser-Nanney et al. (2019), chronic or complex trauma exposure happens when multiple traumas begin in early life that cause far-reaching self-regulation difficulties across domains of functioning in adulthood.

Covey et al. (2017) stated childhood exposure to violence plays a considerable role in developing adverse childhood outcomes. This exposure plays a role in the child's overall functioning and can affect their behavior and emotional well-being. Exposure to violence can be evident in school and affect how these students are treated by the adults who observe these behaviors. There are gaps in the literature on the relationship between exposure to early violence, such as witnessing violence among parents or in the neighborhood, and the development of PTSD in adulthood or whether witnessing domestic violence can lead to PTSD in adulthood.

Conversely, Dargis and Koenigs (2017) suggested enduring abuse as a child can affect mental health and is associated with psychopathic traits. Witnessing abuse can lead to psychopathy, but further research must correlate witnessing abuse to PTSD. More research should center around how witnessing events affects the student's ability to access the curriculum to produce more favorable academic outcomes.

Maneta et al. (2015) described emotional abuse as psychological maltreatment. Childhood emotional abuse is strongly associated with emotional dysregulation in adulthood. The literature shows it is also a strong indicator of poor relationship satisfaction and poor intimate relationship functioning. T. Crow et al. (2014) found abuse directly affects low-income families, particularly children of color. Childhood emotional trauma is a strong indicator of depressive symptoms in adulthood and a more aggressive disposition. Emotional dysregulation is the most prominent symptom in adulthood for emotionally abused children.

Maguire et al. (2015) reported that the severity of the symptoms of emotional abuse depends on the severity and frequency of the treatment and the lack of social support. Emotional abuse or neglect affects daily life and the developmental milestones by which children learn specific developmental tasks. These tasks are incrementally integrated into the child's abilities as they become increasingly complex. This process is either helped or hindered by risk or protective factors such as the environment, interactions between individuals, and biosocial and psychological influences. Difficulty reaching pivotal milestones can affect a child's social, emotional, and psychological progression. Hoeboer et al. (2021) found that emotional abuse symptoms can be mediated by learning effective emotional regulation, proper trauma-focused therapy, and the dissipation of the act over time.

According to Mathews and Collin-Vézina (2019), sexual abuse is unwanted sexual contact, though other researchers considered issues of consent, including the victim's age. Granot et al. (2018) reported sexual abuse accounts for most traumatic events inflicted on women. Although studies have shown women account for most sexual abuse cases, men are also sexually assaulted. Emetu et al. (2020) found the number of assaults on men has been underreported due to the stigma and masculinity.

Lopez-Patton et al. (2017) described childhood sexual abuse as mistreating a person under 18 years of age and involving physical and mental injury by a person charged to care for the individual. It can include physical and sexual acts or exploitation (Lopez-Patton et al., 2017). According to Broadley (2018). Child sexual abuse is a major social and criminal problem and a significant public health issue. This issue remains an important and ongoing issue in the United States as well as worldwide. This abuse can result in short-term and long-term internalizing and externalizing symptoms. Cole et al. (2014) reported on how commercial sexual exploitation of children is the cause of child sexual abuse, and Meyer et al. (2017) suggested these adults have hypersexual behaviors resulting in a preoccupation with sex and poor impulse control. This problematic behavior has instant gratification but often results in fear and guilt. Poor self-image and self-esteem are two characteristics of perpetrators of sexual abuse.

Granot et al. (2018) found sexual abuse has many negative consequences, including physical and mental health problems. Broadley (2018) found the short-term effects on children who were sexually abused included pain, confusion, anxiety, and fear. Long-term effects can include physical injury, depression, and ongoing psychological and mental health issues, including disassociation in extreme cases. O'Cleirigh et al. (2019) reported child sexual abuse in

boys can lead to PTSD and higher rates of HIV infection due to promiscuity and risk-taking sexual behavior.

According to Mathews and Collin-Vézina (2019), early sexual abuse trauma is associated with an increased risk of chronic pain later in life. Ghosh et al. (2018) found that sexual violence increases the risk of sexually transmitted infections, including HIV. At the same time, Bae et al. (2018) found that somatizations or illnesses with no real medical cause constitute significant symptoms of PTSD in children.

Vicarious Trauma. Koenig et al. (2017) stated students living in urban communities who frequently witness trauma can experience vicarious trauma. Teachers and principals working with these students can also experience vicarious trauma or compassion fatigue. According to Uziel et al. (2019), numerous studies have been conducted on vicarious or compassion fatigue. Working in a stressful field can expose a person to trauma. There are gaps in the literature about teachers working in urban areas and witnessing traumatized students daily. Frequently hearing traumatic stories and having empathy for students who are affected by trauma can result in the potential for secondary traumatic stress or vicarious trauma in adults. According to Ravi et al. (2021), vicarious trauma or a secondary trauma exposure can result in compassion fatigue and burnout by caregivers. This type of trauma is characterized by irritability, excessive worry, and somatic symptoms similar to PTSD. Hallinan et al. (2019) also described vicarious trauma as a secondary exposure response to the traumatic experiences of others but narrowed the definition to include only those individuals with whom the person interacted.

According to Bell et al. (2019), gaps in the literature relate to the upbringing of staff and whether that experience affects educational decisions and its effect on the adults developing vicarious or compassionate fatigue. If the building leaders have similar backgrounds, will they be

more resistant to the development of compassion fatigue? Staff with high levels of exposure to trauma are at a higher risk of burnout and compassion fatigue. Bell et al. found a weakness in the literature because few studies examined this topic. Most studies described vicarious trauma but did not delve into the causes and treatment for this issue. Working with traumatized students or being exposed to traumatic events can create a trauma reaction (Grant et al., 2019); compassion fatigue or vicarious trauma can be physically and emotionally taxing on an individual. Social supports help decrease the degree of symptomatology of this type of trauma.

According to Burton et al. (2013), bullying is a growing problem in the United States. Traditional bullying is the act of aggression against one person or a marginalized group of people. This term has evolved into technology, resulting in cyberbullying becoming a significant cause of school bullying. According to Sterzing et al. (2017), the issues of substance misuse and the development of PTSD lead to an increased risk of being a perpetrator of bullying and depression. Psychological problems resulting from trauma lead to a higher probability of being the victim of bullying. The trauma symptoms of outward aggression, low self-esteem, and poor self-management increase one's risk of bullying.

Horrevorts et al. (2014) suggested there is a relationship between bullying and the school and classroom climate. Significant bullying occurs when the environment is primed for it. Exposure to a traumatic experience is associated with a higher risk for psychotic, aggressive, and maladaptive symptoms resulting in bullying behavior. Berlowitz et al. (2017) suggested many schools often discipline behaviors harshly due to zero-tolerance policies. These types of policies have garnered immediate results, such as suspensions for the victim in these cases; however, a problem can occur as these policies disproportionately affect students with unresolved trauma.

The lack of acknowledgment and treatment of the underlying trauma and the discipline levied in response to bullying contribute to the school-to-prison pipeline.

Causes of Trauma

The literature indicates child maltreatment can affect the development of a positive view of oneself, the formation of positive relationships, and positive romantic attachment (Cederbaum et al., 2020). The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2022) reported that childhood maltreatment can take the form of physical, sexual, or emotional abuse or neglect. Physical abuse can include physical force used intentionally on an individual resulting in bodily injury, including shaking, hitting, and kicking. Goessmann et al. (2020) stated sexual abuse against children worldwide affects their well-being. Sexual abuse occurs under the condition of pressuring a child to engage in inappropriate sexual acts such as rubbing and exposing a child to pornographic material and intercourse. Emotional abuse is problematic behavior that harms a child's emotional well-being through threatening, shaming, name-calling, and rejection. Neglect refers to failing to provide a child with basic needs like shelter, food, clothing, and emotional support. According to Sell (2018), people who develop severe mental illness are at a greater risk of developing PTSD due to the increased risk of exposure to traumatic events and social adversity.

Minahan (2019) suggested trauma can affect a child's functioning in school. Traumatized students are more likely to have poor self-regulation, negative thinking processes, hypervigilance, difficulty trusting adults, and inappropriate social interactions. According to Dye (2018), these behaviors can appear challenging to those who are not trauma-informed and may lead to inaccurate perceptions and views of students. The literature describes the inability of students to learn to express emotions appropriately instead of using maladaptive ways like

aggression, shutting down, and avoidance as a cause of low performance and increased penalties due to the students' perceived negative behaviors.

Solomon and Heide (1999) conducted a study about the causes of trauma and noted trauma is a situation or an event that creates extreme stress that the individual is unable to manage. It is constant and creates physical and mental vulnerability in individuals, as evidenced by tension, discomfort, and emotional strain. Primary sources or causes of trauma include a vast range of life events, such as a violation of the person's intimate self and inherent beliefs about their person. A breach of fundamental rights and violation of the perceptions of those interpersonal relationships creates a sense of uncertainty, a breach of security, confusion, safety, and trust. Solomon and Heide described parents' mental health issues, aggression, and domestic threats as trauma causes. Combat operations, weather-related events, and mass violence are some external causes of trauma. Although Solomon and Heide focused primarily on professional stress, G. M. Crow and Moller (2017) concluded that the sustained mixture of tension, discomfort, and stress affects mental health and creates psychological vulnerability. Feelings of helplessness and repeated domestic anxiety cause a traumatic reaction. This is a relevant topic as it points directly to the ongoing and repeated stressful events children living in urban areas experience and, in turn, develop a trauma reaction.

In a study of Europe, Auxéméry (2017) defined trauma as a way to discuss psychological distress due to its neurological and biological impact. Auxéméry described a traumatic event as an acute confrontation with death, causing a sense of helplessness and horror. Although most individuals do not experience an extreme trauma response, the article referenced the cause of a trauma reaction as an intense traumatic exposure that causes a vulnerability to long-term psychological trauma.

Risk Factors for the Development of Trauma Reaction

Physical abuse is the most frequently reported type of abuse involving a child. Females are affected by sexual abuse more than their male counterparts. Most abuse occurs from a child's parent. Children ages 10 years and older are more susceptible to physical abuse (Ben-Natan et al., 2014). The education of caregivers, the structure of the family unit, and the environment can cause a child to be more vulnerable to abuse.

Grote et al. (2012) stated children with disabilities and infants are at an increased risk for child abuse because they require more care. With more care comes more stress (Biehal, 2013). Childhood maltreatment disproportionately affects socioeconomically disadvantaged children. Biehal (2013) stated a parent's education, familial background, and environmental situation contribute to an increased risk of child abuse. Those with less education or a lower socioeconomic status are more likely to abuse a child. Culture and the level of social, emotional, and community support may also be risk factors for a child to be abused or neglected.

Barbieri et al. (2019) found that refugees are more likely to be exposed to torture, rape, and other human rights violations. Franco (2018) suggested child refugees experience trauma before arriving in the United States, and many experience traumas when they arrive. This early trauma makes these children more vulnerable and susceptible to future abuse and neglect.

Possible Negative Outcomes of Trauma

Results from a study by Crusto et al. (2010) showed negative outcomes for children who have experienced trauma. Children and adolescents who are exposed to trauma experience adverse effects in terms of their psychological and social well-being, and trauma harms a child's physical and mental health outcomes. Larson et al. (2017) noted exposure to traumatic events can lead to PTSD later in life. Children and adolescents who are exposed to complex or chronic

trauma have an increased risk of mental health disorders and adverse educational outcomes compared to those with a single occurrence of a traumatic event.

Specific Trauma That Occurs in Urban Areas

Cerdá et al. (2018) pointed to violence in inner cities as the primary cause of trauma among Black males. Violence has become a significant health issue facing those in the inner city and has long-lasting effects on the children who witness such acts. Cerdá et al. also noted homicide is twice as high in urban areas than in rural areas and has become a health crisis. Gun violence, in particular, is a severe problem in these areas. Wamser-Nanney et al. (2019) stated children who are exposed to trauma through witnessing domestic and community violence have an increased potential for aggression. Community violence, specifically gun violence, is prevalent in inner cities, and consistent exposure leaves children vulnerable to gangs (Macfarlane, 2018). PTSD resulting from witnessing violence remains a significant mental health issue in urban areas (Cerdá et al., 2015).

New information is being gleaned from studies concerning urban warzones. Urban areas have specific issues such as violence, economics, employment, social difficulties, and increased crime. Urban neighborhoods directly affect the mental health of their residents. Hines et al. (2014) reported the rate of PTSD is approximately 31% higher for soldiers returning from the Iraq war. Traumatic events in urban neighborhoods indicate later criminal activity and an increased risk of substance use disorder. Gun violence affects the people who live in urban areas and contributes to PTSD, especially among men of color. Adults suffering from mental health issues and those with trauma histories are more often diagnosed with PTSD (Reichert et al., 2015). Residing in an urban area can expose children to social and environmental factors that may be stressful and contribute to poor health, leading to PTSD. Crime and violence can shape

an individual's mental health. Chronic environmental stress can affect a child or adolescent's emotional well-being. Minority status and the environment are indicators of poor social and developmental outcomes (Willie et al., 2016).

Risk Factors for the Development of Trauma Reaction

De Jesus and Hernandez (2019) pointed out similarities between the symptoms and stressors of war veterans and children living in violent, impoverished communities. Loberg et al. (2018) noted people living in low-income or economically disadvantaged neighborhoods have a higher mortality risk after experiencing trauma. Minorities make up most individuals living in urban communities, and there is an increase in mortality outcomes among people of color and lower socioeconomic status. The poor and people of color are more likely to lack insurance coverage for treatment to recover a state of homeostasis.

In comparison, Dorrington et al. (2019) suggested violence is a severe public health problem facing children in inner cities or urban communities. More instances of violence occur in urban versus suburban areas. Maladaptive family functioning and economic adversity in childhood are predictors of an individual's vulnerability to PTSD following trauma, and lower to middle-income environments are associated with greater trauma exposure.

According to Lloyd (2018), most schools have students who have been affected by domestic violence. School staff are being tasked more and more to address many mental health needs of students. Emotional well-being, safety, and healthy relational attachments play an essential role in educating children. Children spend most of the day in school, so the potential for feelings of emotional well-being can be affected either negatively or positively by the school staff.

Specific Possible Negative Outcomes of Trauma

Devries et al. (2017) found emotional, sexual abuse, and physical violence to have a range of adverse short- and long-term health outcomes; to increase the risk of mental disorders, suicide, and contracting a sexually transmitted disease infection; and to lead to poor health educational outcomes. Male and female children have different risk factors and experiences resulting from violence in urban areas. Males are more likely to experience physical violence, whereas females are more likely to experience sexual violence. Goldstick et al. (2018) noted chronic urban trauma increases the likelihood of developing mental health and substance use issues, poor relationship attainment, and poor social adaptation.

Studies on childhood trauma have revealed a possible progression toward the development and severity of psychiatric disorders and deficits in cognitive functioning, according to Marshall et al. (2016). Early trauma might adversely affect cognitive attainment and stunt the development of executive functioning skills. Jiang et al. (2018) discussed childhood trauma as a leading cause of some health issues due to the impact on the functioning of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis. This axis is vital in managing the immune, cognitive, and behavioral responses, causing sensitivity to future stressful situations. Kuhlman et al. (2015) suggested childhood trauma makes an individual more prone to severe mental illness. There is a gap in the research concerning the impact of the age at which a child experiences trauma and whether it causes a difference in trauma symptomatology.

According to Gillikin et al. (2016), traumatic experiences are frequent in inner cities or urban neighborhoods due to witnessing death, assaults, and violent acts by others. Witnessing violence negatively affects children's physical and psychological well-being, whether it is a single major event or constant exposure. This exposure results in PTSD (Mokrue et al., 2011)

with intrusive and avoidant symptoms. The symptoms of urban PTSD are akin to those of veterans who have engaged in combat. Inner-city students who experience violence are more likely to be depressed, contemplate suicide, and abuse substances. Vujanovic et al. (2018) noted substance use produces a significant potential for developing PTSD.

Zona and Milan (2011) discussed gender differences in a longitudinal study focusing on the impact on the mental health of urban youth exposed to violence. Like Gillikin et al. (2016), they concluded there are gender differences in the psychological effects of trauma during adolescence and noted repeated violent exposure is common in urban neighborhoods. In this study, males reported witnessing more violence and females reported more symptoms of disassociation. This supports that female adolescents are more vulnerable to experiencing trauma symptoms.

Post et al. (2014) examined the dimensions of trauma and complex PTSD symptoms with a sample of 65 urban community youth in Houston, Texas. The participants who lived in the environment and specific types of traumas were studied to determine whether those variables affected each other. Females in the study reported higher elevated PTSD response symptoms for domestic trauma compared to males. Domestic trauma responses included numbing, hyperarousal, and intrusive issues, and community trauma produced intrusive symptoms and hyperarousal but not emotional numbing like domestic trauma.

Perceptions and Worldview. C. A. Franklin et al. (2020) noted individual perception can influence a person's worldview and alter their reactions and decisions. Several researchers have discussed how individuals' perceptions in different fields can cause unintended consequences for those who experienced trauma. Sleath and Bull (2017) examined how police officers' perceptions of victims of rape can cause secondary victimization due to the interactions

and treatment delivered by the officers. The perception of whether the victim deserved it or could have avoided it causes the individual to react in less than an empathic way toward the victim.

Kimmerle et al. (2020) explored an individual's subjective perceptions of disease influence how they perceive the causes of particular health problems. Treatment is more amenable to the individual if the therapy is directly related to what they consider to be the cause of the disease.

Penner et al. (2017) reported that doctors' and patients' race-based perceptions and attitudes contribute to racial healthcare disparities. In their study, Black cancer patients' race-based beliefs and attitudes were found to predict how they would respond in subsequent clinical interactions.

Negowetti (2012) studied the role of perception in the judicial system and found empathy was given to those perceived as likable, relatable, or agreeable. These studies illustrate that perception plays a significant role in outcomes in multiple situations.

Paul's (2019) study amplified the importance of perception formed by exposure to domestic violence as a child. This perception shapes how an individual views father–mother and father–child relationships. In domestic violence, the child's perception of man and woman can be negatively altered, create anxiety, and cause posttraumatic stress reactions. Future research can examine whether there is a correlation between a husband's perception of his role being influenced by witnessing domestic violence as a child and his ability to manage conflict without aggression.

Raisa and Alieva (2018) discussed the mediating factor of background related to student outcomes and found students' ethnicity was an influential factor in teacher expectations. Bloom and Owens (2013) pointed out that perception in an urban school district affects student achievement. Freeman and Fields (2020) focused on an urban school district and explored the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their building administrators mediating the

treatment of students. The findings showed that if the administrator is perceived as a transformational leader, there would be more buy-in from staff to be committed to student success. All three articles point to perception as an integral factor in student outcomes. The articles by Owens (2013) and Freeman and Fields (2020) illustrate how perception is formed by how one was raised and can influence decision making in adulthood.

Cultural Competency

Cultural competence has become a central focus to combat the adverse treatment of minority students. School and business leader have instituted policies and training to address multicultural issues, reduce disparities, and improve productivity (Echeverri et al., 2013). Cultural competency is used in various segments of society to teach individuals about implicit bias and improve relations among people of different racial backgrounds. These initiatives are designed to teach culturally specific knowledge explicitly, engage individuals in reflection on implicit bias, and help individuals become more self-aware (Jowsey, 2019). Most cultural competence training uses psychoeducational groups (Aggarwal et al., 2016).

Weinberg et al. (2019) indicated a school environment in which students learn and feel safe can have a positive impact on student achievement. Negative perceptions of students' academic ability due to traumatic experiences can influence their eagerness to excel academically. Obtaining an appropriate education leads to positive outcomes in adulthood. Adverse effects associated with low economic attainment include decreased financial status and poorer health outcomes. High educational attainment is a crucial indicator to end the cycle of poverty.

Day and Dotterer (2018) noted parental engagement and participation in a child's education also substantially affect student outcomes. Parents also witness violence in urban areas

and are affected by the trauma. These parents are less likely to take a more prominent role in their child's education than are their suburban counterparts. The lack of engagement by many parents of urban students gives them a disadvantage when it comes to academic attainment.

Teachers' perceptions of students' capabilities are fundamental to determining students' academic trajectory. School staff should be culturally competent to mitigate the urban environmental trauma experienced by students (Anthony et al., 2017). Cultural competence is a combination of behaviors and attitudes that enable systems, agencies, and professionals to work effectively in diverse cultural situations by amplifying different levels of care. Being culturally aware occurs through identifying barrier-differentiating interventions (Arnwine, 2019).

The negative impact of trauma on students of color has created a need for initiatives like culturally responsive positive behavior intervention systems (PBIS), trauma-informed school models (Biliias-Lolis et al., 2017), and school-wide trauma-informed curricula (Avery et al., 2020). Teachers' views of their students' behaviors significantly affect student learning, self-esteem, and concept (Huber & Seidel, 2018). Individuals exposed to chronic trauma have an increased risk of mental health disorders and adverse educational outcomes. Larson et al. (2017) suggested students of color living in poverty have an increased risk of exposure to trauma and are less likely to access mental health services.

Policies like zero tolerance have increased the suspension rate among urban students. Teachers who are not culturally competent often lack interpersonal skills and view students as lacking self-control or positive social and emotional skills (Okonofua et al., 2016). The suspension of students worsens rather than improves student behavior. Suspensions predict adverse student outcomes like reduced academic performance, poor social and emotional coping strategies, crime, delinquency, and potential drug use (Sheryl et al., 2014).

Socioeconomic status plays a role in a student's cognitive ability over time and is significantly related to cognitive and academic achievement. School staff become role models and spend more time with students than parents during the school year—adult relationships affect students' social and emotional behavior. Students who have negative encounters with school staff are less likely to have positive expectations and values for academic success, promoting negative student engagement and achievement (Xuan et al., 2019).

Bloom and Owens (2013) suggested molding culture is essential to student achievement and comportment among urban communities. The perception is that an orderly environment, an emphasis on basic skills, and strong leadership lead to a thriving school environment. In contrast, Kamil and Türkan (2021) suggested there are significant issues in urban schools and achievement is chronically low. Kamil and Türkan focused on the relationship between the teachers and the building leader to improve student behavior and achievement. Alford and Sampson (2016) stated the role of an effective building leader in an urban setting is to be caring and support rather than be a staunch disciplinarian.

In the Khalifa (2014) study, the building leader's background and its effect on student treatment were reviewed. The parents' perception of the building administrators in the study was that their Black children were treated more harshly than their counterparts by Black administrators. This study examined how Black principals navigate their roles as chief academic officers and disciplinarians and analyzed their perceptions of the lack of progress and the harsher punishments for minority students. Lustick (2021) provided evidence that discipline decision making is informed by the expectations of the administrator's colleagues, parents, and stakeholders. Lustick went a step further to discuss the perception that the focus should be on high-stakes accountability and control and that students lack personal responsibility.

Camacho and Krezmien (2018) determined there is an increased rate of suspensions and special education classification of minority students. Black students are disproportionately suspended and classified with behavioral special education categories at higher rates. According to Crosby et al. (2018), trauma negatively affects students' overall academic success, and Black females are suspended six times more than their White counterparts. Although Crosby et al. focused on Black female students, they also indicated Black male students are suspended at even high rates. Trauma-informed educators assign fewer suspensions to minority students. Coles and Powell (2019) concluded that although Black youth account for 15.5% of all public-school students, 30% are suspended from school. Suspensions and zero tolerance policies tend to be structured so minority students are affected. Sullivan et al. (2014) suggested minority students with disabilities are suspended at high rates due to their perceived negative maladaptive behavior. These studies illustrate the need for further research on building leaders' perceptions and their impact on minority students.

According to Ito et al. (2015), implicit bias often is interpreted strictly in terms of the strength of automatic associations. Ito et al. described implicit bias as an automatic stereotype associated with activating prejudice response tendencies. This phenomenon is modified by higher-order thinking skills or cognitive processes and executive functions; however, when higher-order thinking skills are not present, decisions become race-based and rely on the working memories and experiences of the past. The study showed there was an association between executive functioning and racial bias.

Summary

Urban trauma is an issue affecting children across the nation and abroad. Children can suffer from physical, mental, and emotional abuse caused by several factors. Risk factors such as

socioeconomics and educational levels make children more vulnerable to mistreatment. SIT and building leaders' perceptions as a result of their upbringings have an association with student outcomes. The literature shows urban students attend schools with urban trauma and navigate trauma and education. School staff play a significant part in students' overall positive or negative trajectory. Implicit bias, formed by administrators' upbringing, should be addressed and mediated to work with urban-raised students effectively. Building leaders set the cultural tone in their school buildings. Perceptions can be integral in responding to situations and guiding decisions. Building leaders' perceptions of traumatized students can be influenced by that tone, thus imposing adverse treatment on those students. Innovations in cultural competency training and social-emotional learning have been created to combat urban trauma and improve the likelihood of students' economic, educational, and psychological success.

Future Areas of Research

More research is needed in the area of the impact of urban trauma overall. The views and perceptions held by building administrators about minority students should be studied to determine cause and effect. Academic outcomes are directly influenced by factors associated with trauma, and studies should be conducted to create proper interventions to address the underlying trauma appropriately. The literature lacks longitudinal studies investigating the specific impacts of urban trauma, such as gun violence, domestic violence, and crime, on the educational, economic, mental health, and social trajectory of children born in urban communities. The current study was designed to answer the following question: Is there an association between building leaders' upbringing and their views and perception of urban students? The sub-questions addressed in this study were: Are building administrators' life experiences associated with how they view appropriate penalties for students with trauma? As a

result of their views and perceptions, is there a correlation between building leaders' perception as a result of their upbringings and their thoughts on the need for special education classifications? To what degree are building leaders' views and perceptions related to their overall satisfaction with Bridgeport Public Schools?

CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

This quantitative research study was designed to examine building leaders' views, shaped by their upbringings, toward students who have been traumatized as a result of living in poor conditions in an inner city. A cross-sectional survey approach was used to obtain data from building leaders who serve in Bridgeport, an urban city in Connecticut. A cross-tabulation approach was used for data analysis and data collection was conducted using the survey method. The public-school system in Bridgeport consists of a majority-minority student and a majority-nonminority administrative staff. This research involved examining building leaders' perceptions to determine whether those perceptions influenced their behaviors toward students.

Research Design: Quantitative Study

The researcher used a quantitative research design to uncover the underpinnings of the perception of building leader's with urban, suburban and rural upbringings and the views of urban students. Heale and Twycross (2015) stated quantitative studies are an evidence-based practice and a more robust way to implement findings. Venkatesh et al. (2013) suggested the quantitative method assists in obtaining sound results and promotes rigor in the research. Quantitative is a positivist approach to scientific research as results can be measured through logic and math.

Cross-Sectional Survey Approach

The researcher chose to use a cross-sectional survey approach to uncover how principals' views and perceptions mediated by their upbringing affected their treatment of students who have been traumatized due to being raised in an urban area. The approach was quantitative and the researcher used a standardized method to obtain information. A cross-sectional survey was used to clarify whether participants' views and perceptions shaped their behaviors and actions

toward these students due to their urban or suburban upbringing. Setia (2016) defined a cross-sectional study design as an observational study design in which the investigator measures the outcome by inclusion or exclusion criteria. This design provides information about the prevalence of results or exposure. According to X. Wang and Cheng (2020), a cross-sectional study measures the outcome and participants' exposures simultaneously. Participants are selected based on the outcome status association between variables.

According to Goodman and Liao (2016), Paul Felix Lazarsfeld was one of the founders of modern empirical methods in social sciences. He was the pioneer of social survey techniques and other empirical methods. Lazarsfeld first introduced research through surveys in the 1930s by studying Marienthal, a small-town suffering from a high unemployment rate. His early work, "Marienthal: The Sociography of an Unemployed Community," showed his ability to use the survey as a valuable quantitative methodology. Staudte (2020) discussed the role of Karl Pearson in the field of statistics. Karl Pearson's first use of the contingency table was in 1904 for his work, "On Contingency and its Relation to Normal Correlation." The paper discussed the correlation between the presence or absence of a smallpox vaccination mark and disease outcomes in the smallpox epidemic. Out of his work came the advent of cross-tabulation.

Research Questions

A research question's purpose is to examine a particular event or phenomenon through structured and guided tactics to uncover perceptions and views from individuals on a specific topic (Martínez-Mesa et al., 2014). The main research question in this study was developed to examine principals' perceptions and opinions on students who have been traumatized: Is there an association between building leaders' upbringing and their views and perception of urban students? Sub-questions included: Are building administrators' life

experiences associated with how they view appropriate penalties for students with trauma? As a result of their views and perceptions, is there a correlation between building leaders' perception as a result of their upbringings and their thoughts on the need for special education classifications? To what degree are building leaders' views and perceptions related to their overall satisfaction with Bridgeport Public Schools? The researcher hypothesized that building leaders with upbringings similar to the students they served and who were tasked with providing discipline, consequences, or participating in making educational decisions for particular education classification would err on the side of more harmful and stricter views, and actions for students with similar upbringings. The building administrators with different upbringings will be softer and more accepting of opinions, views, and perceptions for these students.

Participants/Setting

A total of 63 principals participated in the study. The pool of building leaders represented a cross-section of the educational landscape, including elementary and secondary administrators, during the 2021–2022 school year. The school district is the largest in Connecticut and has schools in low-income neighborhoods to more affluent parts. The building leaders vary in terms of racial and ethnic backgrounds and economics. There was no compensation for the survey, recruitment was voluntary, and building leaders were all sent an electronic invitation to participate. The district has brought in several initiatives to inform cultural competency and implicit bias issues at the request of building leaders. This research enabled them to be a part of the process that will inform possible solutions they have been trying to find for years.

The participants were building-based principals from schools across the district of 21,000 students. All building leaders were included in the survey; other district administrators not directly working with students were included, but the data were disaggregated. Those building

leaders who were not directly involved with students were excluded from the survey, including district administrators.

Procedure

The researcher is an employee of the district and works with all of the participants in the study; therefore, the survey was anonymous to guard against altering responses based on personality or the researcher's role as the director of social work services. After reviewing the literature, the researcher assembled a focus group of administrators to develop the questions for the survey instrument. The issues uncovered through the literature and from statistical data of the district guided the formation of each question in the survey instrument. An online platform provided anonymity to gather background information on the survey participants, such as race, gender, and type of upbringing (i.e., urban, suburban, rural). The researcher included questions to ascertain the leaders' perceptions of discipline, special education, and police intervention. Once the survey instrument questions were complete, the researcher asked volunteers from the administrative body to participate by providing them with a link to access the survey instrument online. All building leaders who had access to discipline or made decisions regarding students' academic plans could participate in the study. This instrument was created due to the lack of tools focused on administrators' perceptions and upbringing or backgrounds.

Data Collection/Methodology

Data were collected through a quantitative single-stage survey approach. The quantitative survey approach is a systematic method of soliciting opinions and perceptions from a sample of group members to find quantitative descriptors attributed to a larger population. Sample groups can come from cities, towns, organizations, schools, and other institutions. The survey was designed to characterize the members' perceptions and views and not observe social interactions.

A quantitative survey can be used to examine the diversity of a topic within a population to gain meaningful variation within the group (Jansen, 2010). Affirmative responses to the questions would reflect the respondent's perception that there is a need for outside influences to educate urban students. Suspensions, special education, and police interventions are necessary to produce positive student outcomes.

The researcher used a quantitative survey approach to poll 63 building administrators from urban and suburban areas. Questions centered around their views on suspension, expulsion, and special education. Race, ethnicity, and the overall perceptions of the student population were used to determine the impact of the administrators' perceptions. A confidential survey was conducted using an online platform, and all identifiable descriptors were eliminated to ensure anonymity. This anonymity allowed for more candid responses.

Data Analysis

A stratified nonprobability sampling method survey approach was used for data analysis. A Likert scale response anchor ensured the response options were balanced and there were an equal number of positive and negative possibilities. The difference between values was the same, so the results were not skewed. As a result of using the survey approach to this study, the data analysis helped gain further insight into principals' views and how these views shaped their actions and reactions to traumatized students mediated by the administrators' upbringing. The researcher used the SPSS statistical system to run multiple regression analyses using different variables to determine whether there was a relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables. This statistical technique involved several explanatory variables, such as perceptions of the need for suspensions, special education, and police intervention, to

predict whether participants' upbringing affected those thoughts. This regression model was used to model the linear relationship between independent and dependent variables.

Each question from the survey instrument was weighted using the Likert scale and run through the regression model to determine whether there was a correlation between participants' perception of the interventions and their upbringing. The second approach involved using a simple mediation model to test the hypothesis and determine the effect of the variable transmitted through a mediator. SPSS was used to determine the direct effect by using the bootstrap process. Each variable was analyzed, including perceptions of students, special education, and career satisfaction. The degree of the direct effect was determined by using the administrator's upbringing as the mediator.

Validity

Validity of research is defined as assessing whether a research design is sound, the appropriateness of the method used, and whether there will be integrity in the study's outcomes (Royal, 2016). Quantitative studies have inherent validity as they are numerical and rigorous due to quantifiable math. Diligent record-keeping of the findings can show a clear decision trail to interpret consistent and transparent data (Heale & Twycross, 2015). The researcher in this study used all the criteria mentioned earlier to ensure the research was valid and the outcomes had integrity.

According to Noble and Smith (2015), investigator bias is the tendency for the researcher to prejudge the participants, resulting in a systematic error that enables one outcome over another. The researcher is a product of Bridgeport Public Schools, which made it essential to guard against bias when reviewing and reporting on the research findings. The researcher properly studied the design and its implementation to prevent bias. Before the survey was

disseminated, the researcher defined the risks and outcomes and standardized a blind data collection method (Pannucci & Wilkins, 2010).

Conclusion

Trauma among children who live in impoverished areas has been increasingly represented within the literature. Studies on the impact of this urban trauma on students are few, and is even more scarce in terms of the effect of school leaders' perceptions and views of urban students and how these perceptions influence academic success. School plays a vital role in developing productive and mentally healthy adults. Rates of suspension, expulsion, and classifications for special education have been high for minority students, specifically male students of color. The source of these high rates of treatment is an ongoing debate. Building leaders can influence school climate and culture, and their perceptions and views mediated by their upbringing can be pivotal in their treatment of these students.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

This study was designed to examine the upbringing of building leaders raised in urban, suburban, or rural areas to determine whether there was an association with their views and perceptions of urban students who have experienced trauma. A total of 63 Bridgeport Public Schools administrators were surveyed about their views on special education and discipline for these students. The research questions and hypothesis were as follows:

Central Question: Is there an association between building leaders' upbringing and their views and perception of urban students?

Are building administrators' life experiences associated with how they view appropriate penalties for students with trauma?

As a result of their views and perceptions, is there a correlation between building leaders' perception as a result of their upbringings and their thoughts on the need for special education classifications?

To what degree are building leaders' views and perceptions related to their overall satisfaction with Bridgeport Public Schools?

H1: Building leaders with upbringings from urban areas will have harsher and stricter views and perceptions toward students in this urban community. Building leaders with upbringings from suburban and rural areas will have softer and more accepting opinions, perceptions, and views toward these students.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the 63 school building leaders. The respondents were primarily female ($n = 43$). One Asian, 20 African Americans, three Hispanics/Latinos, one multi-race, and 38 White administrators responded to the survey. The

majority ($n = 41$) of the respondents fell within the age range of 39 to 54 years, two respondents fell within the range of 19 to 38 years, and 20 fell within the range of 55 to 73 years. There were 49 elementary school administrators and 14 high school administrators. Most respondents reported being raised in urban areas ($n = 34$), followed by suburban ($n = 27$) and rural ($n = 2$) areas. Forty-one respondents reported growing up in working-class families, followed by 17 reporting white collar and five reporting they grew up in a poor household.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics (N = 63)

Demographic	<i>N</i>	%
Gender		
Female	43	68.3%
Male	20	31.7%
Race		
Asian	1	1.6%
Black/African American	20	31.7%
Hispanic/Latino	3	4.8%
Multiracial	1	1.6%
White	38	60.3%
Age range		
19–38	2	3.2%
39–54	41	65.1%
55–73	20	31.7%
Type of administrator		
Elementary	49	77.8%
High school	14	22.2%
Type of upbringing		
Rural	2	3.2%
Suburban	27	42.9%
Urban	34	54.0%

Demographic	<i>N</i>	%
Economic upbringing		
Poor	5	7.9%
Working class	41	65.1%
White collar	17	27.0%

The survey used a 7-point Likert scale to measure the respondents' likelihood of disagreeing to agreeing with each statement. Life experience, discipline, special education, and career satisfaction were the four themes surveyed, with four questions contained in each theme. Table 2 provides the minimum and maximum scores reported in the study. The minimum possible score given by any participant was a 4 and the maximum was a 28. The table displays the respondents' mean or average score and the standard deviation on the measure or the spread between scores. The highest mean was for life experience (21.4) and the lowest was for special education (14.2). Variability in responses was the greatest for discipline, where the minimum and maximum scores were obtained, and it had the largest standard deviation (6.4).

Table 2

Perception Subscales

	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Life experience	10	28	21.4	4.3
Discipline	4	28	16.1	6.4
Special education	4	24	14.2	4.9
Career satisfaction	6	25	14.5	4.5

Table 3 shows the results by gender. There were no significant differences between genders regarding their views on life experience, discipline, special education, or career satisfaction, as all fell above the 0.05 *p*-value threshold. The Cohen's *d* effect sizes indicate the differences between the genders ranged from none (career satisfaction) to medium size (special

education). Special education was close to statistical significance ($p = .053$), and males had a higher score than females.

Table 3

Comparisons by Gender (Mean \pm SD)

	Female	Male	p	Cohen's d
Life experience	21.6 \pm 4.4	21.0 \pm 4.0	.589	.147
Discipline	15.3 \pm 6.7	17.6 \pm 5.5	.189	-.360
Special education	13.4 \pm 4.8	16.0 \pm 4.7	.053	-.534
Career satisfaction	14.4 \pm 5.0	14.6 \pm 3.4	.884	-.040

Figure 1 displays the means and standard errors of each subscale for each gender.

Overall, the mean scores were similar and the error bars mostly overlapped.

Figure 1

Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Gender

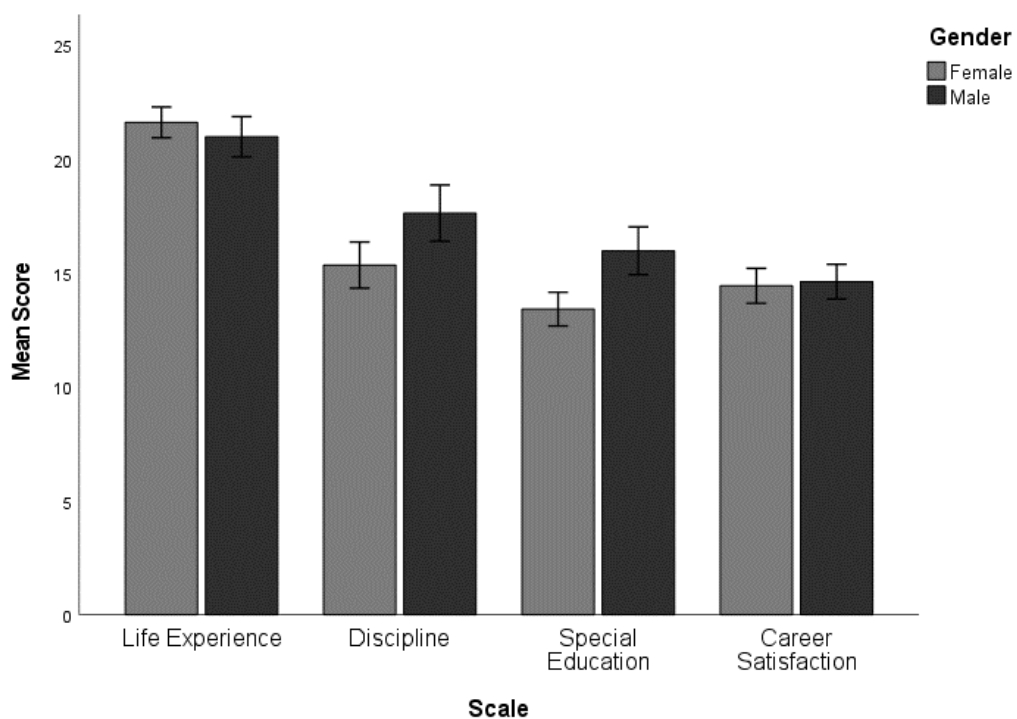


Table 4 was generated by using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) as there were more than two groups being compared. There were more categories for race in the survey, but the sample sizes in the other categories were too small. As a result, Asian, Hispanic, and multiracial were combined. There was a significant difference in life experience and post-hoc tests revealed Blacks responded significantly higher than Whites ($p = .001$). The significant difference in terms of discipline was due to Whites scoring significantly higher than Blacks ($p = .020$) and Other ($p = .016$). Blacks' scores did not differ from Other ($p = .305$). Similarly, Whites had higher scores on special education compared to Blacks ($p = .002$) and Other ($p = .034$), with no difference between the latter two groups ($p = .791$). Last, for career satisfaction, Other had a significantly higher score compared to Blacks ($p = .009$) and Whites ($p = .037$), with no difference between the latter two groups ($p = .240$). The effect size eta-squared values were all above 0.10, suggestive of a large effect.

Table 4

Comparisons by Race (Mean \pm SD)

	Black	White	Other	p	Eta ²
Life experience	23.7 \pm 3.2	20.0 \pm 4.3	23.0 \pm 3.3	.004	.169
Discipline	13.9 \pm 5.1	17.9 \pm 6.6	10.8 \pm 4.2	.010	.142
Special education	11.8 \pm 4.0	15.9 \pm 4.9	11.2 \pm 1.6	.003	.179
Career satisfaction	13.2 \pm 4.1	14.6 \pm 4.5	19.0 \pm 4.5	.032	.108

Figure 2 shows the means for each race on each subscale. There was a noticeable difference between groups, with the error bars generally not overlapping.

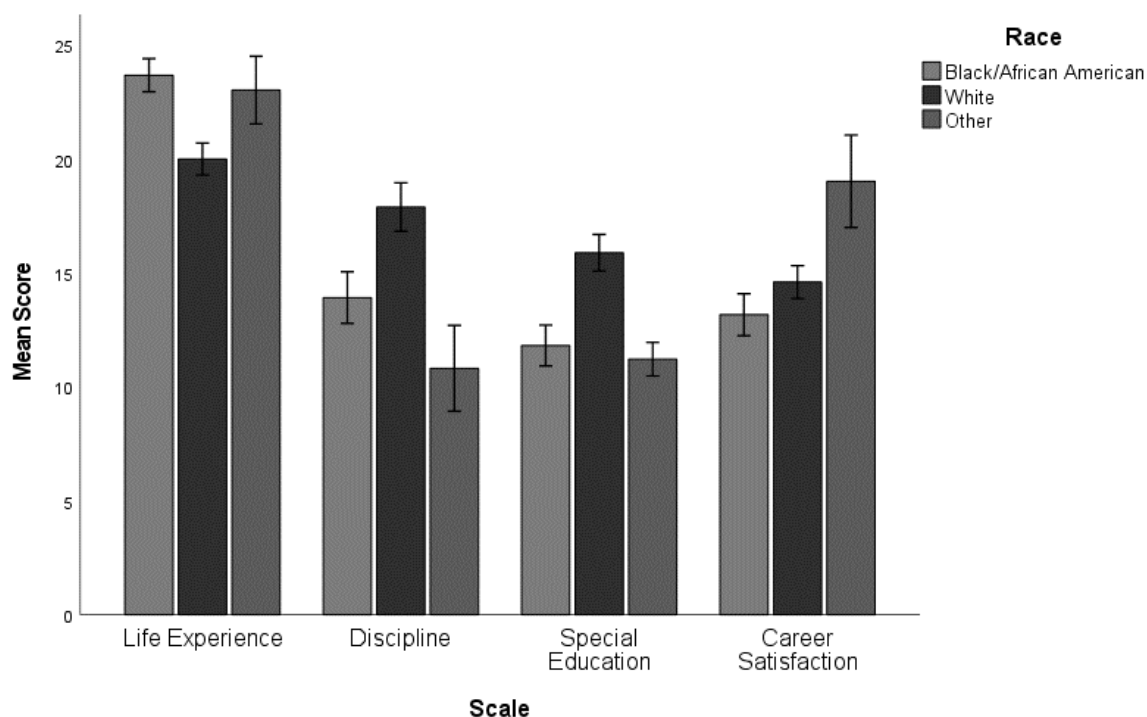
Figure 2*Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Race*

Table 5 shows the mean subscale scores by age group. There were no statistically significant differences between age groups for any of the four subscales (all p -values > 0.05). The effect sizes were generally small.

Table 5*Comparisons by Age Range (Mean \pm SD)*

	19–38	39–54	55–73	p	Eta ²
Life experience	24.0 \pm 1.4	22.1 \pm 3.8	19.7 \pm 4.8	.072	.084
Discipline	15.5 \pm 3.5	15.7 \pm 5.9	16.9 \pm 7.5	.774	.009
Special education	16.0 \pm 2.8	14.1 \pm 5.0	14.4 \pm 5.0	.853	.005
Career satisfaction	19.5 \pm 0.7	14.6 \pm 4.6	13.8 \pm 4.4	.227	.048

Figure 3 shows the mean scores for each age group on each subscale. There was overlap, and the one apparent difference in career satisfaction was due to there only being two administrators under 38 years old, so the estimate was not precise.

Figure 3

Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Age Range

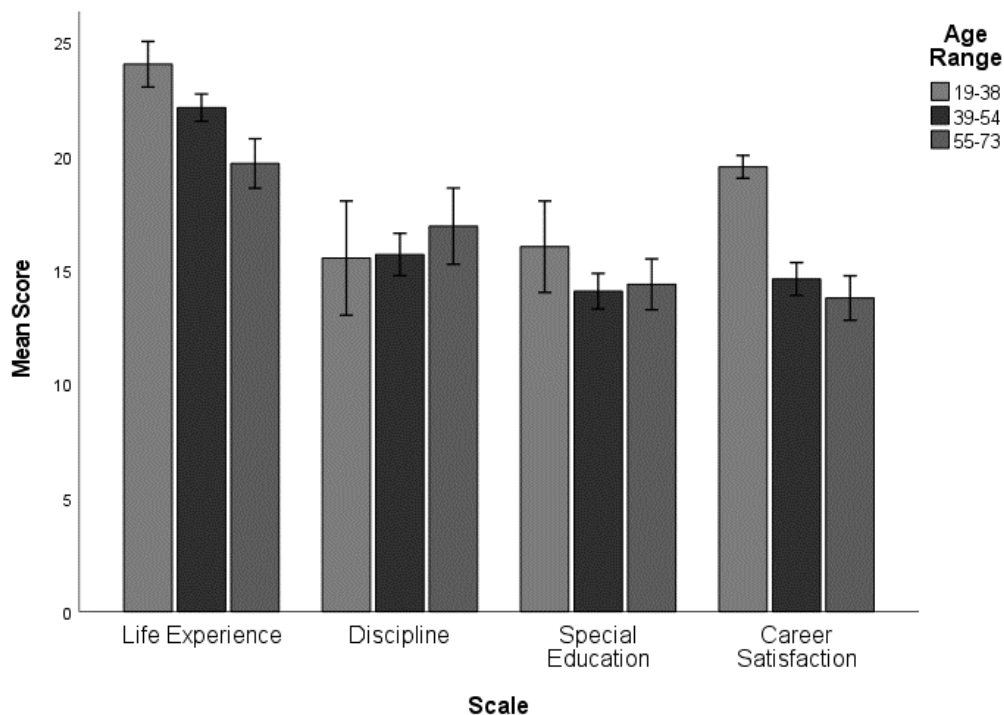


Table 6 compares the administrator type between elementary and high school. There were no differences in the views and perceptions of the groups concerning life experience, discipline, or career satisfaction. However, there was a difference between the two groups in special education, as high school administrators perceived that there needed to be more special education classification compared to elementary administrators. The difference was large, as indicated by the size of the Cohen's *d*.

Table 6*Comparisons by Type of Administrator (Mean \pm SD)*

	Elementary	High school	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
Life experience	21.8 \pm 4.4	20.0 \pm 3.8	.172	.419
Discipline	15.5 \pm 6.2	18.1 \pm 6.6	.179	-.412
Special education	13.2 \pm 4.6	17.6 \pm 4.6	.003	-.944
Career satisfaction	14.1 \pm 4.7	15.7 \pm 4.0	.250	-.352

Figure 4 shows that the mean scores were far apart and much higher for the high school administrators.

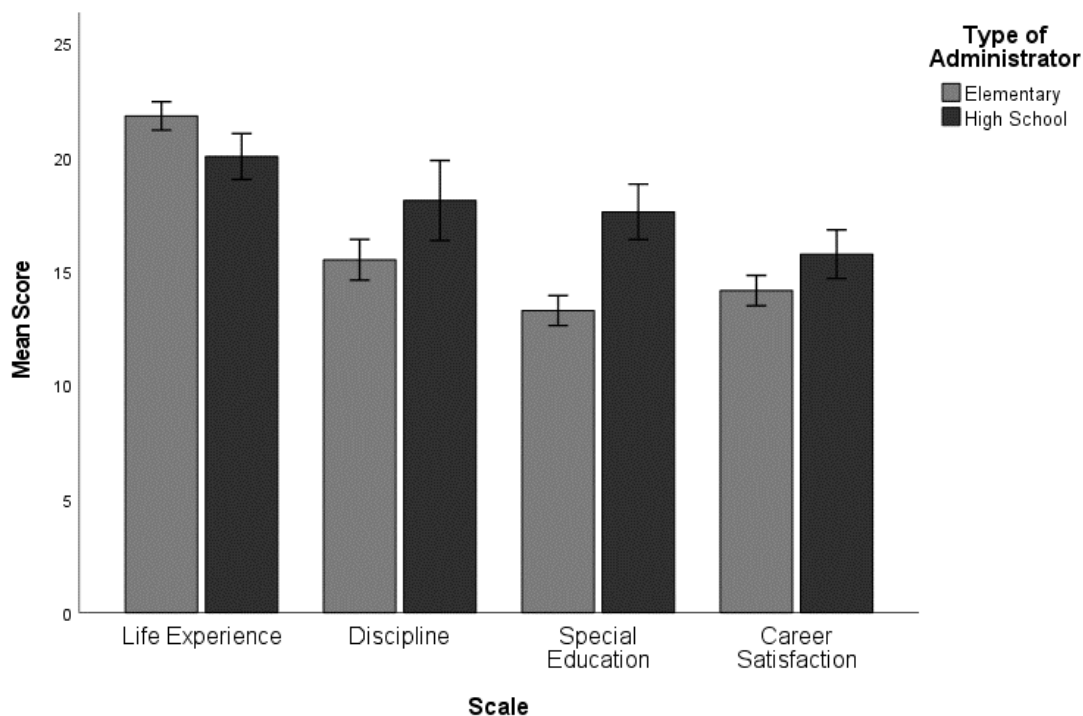
Figure 4*Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Type of Administrator*

Table 7 compares the administrators' upbringing. Respondents were asked whether they were raised in rural, urban, or suburban settings. There were no differences in views and

perceptions among the groups concerning life experience, special education, or career satisfaction. There was a statistical difference in their views on discipline ($p = .038$), and the effect was large, as indicated by eta-squared. Those with a suburban upbringing had a significantly higher mean score than those with an urban upbringing ($p = .011$). There were no significant pairwise differences.

Table 7

Comparisons by Type of Upbringing (Mean \pm SD)

	Rural	Suburban	Urban	p	Eta ²
Life experience	28.5 \pm 7.8	20.5 \pm 4.7	22.3 \pm 3.6	.169	.058
Discipline	17.5 \pm 12.0	18.3 \pm 7.1	14.2 \pm 4.9	.038	.104
Special education	13.0 \pm 1.4	15.5 \pm 5.8	13.2 \pm 4.0	.184	.055
Career satisfaction	14.5 \pm 10.6	14.6 \pm 4.2	14.4 \pm 4.6	.984	.001

Figure 5 shows the mean scores for upbringing for each subscale. The suburban mean was higher than the urban and rural means for discipline. Only two administrators had a rural upbringing, so the estimate was not precise.

Figure 5

Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Type of Upbringing

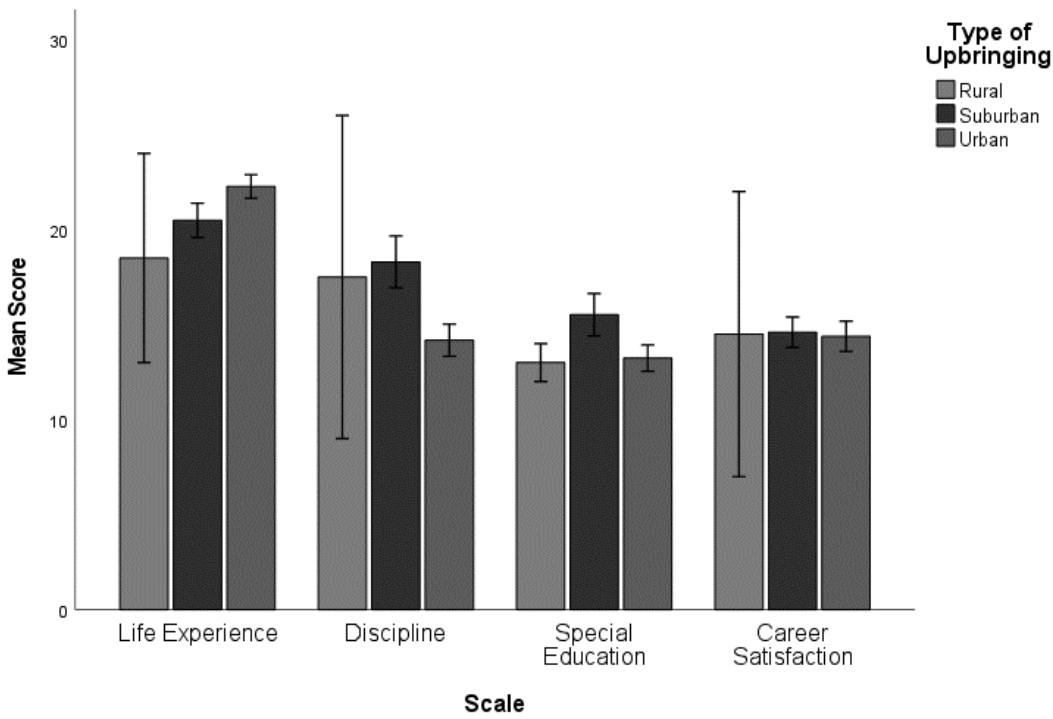
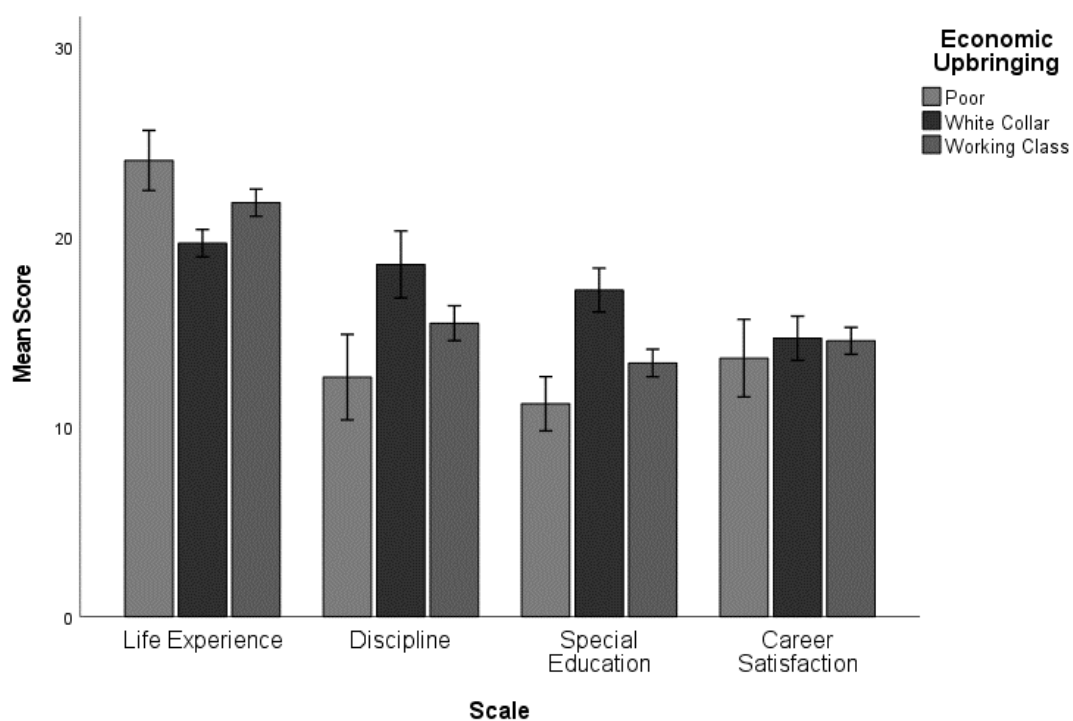


Table 8 compares the type of economic upbringing of the administrators. There were no significant differences for life experience, discipline, or career satisfaction. The results showed those who reported growing up in white-collar families viewed the special education system more favorably, with a large eta-squared effect. They had higher scores compared to both poor ($p = .013$) and working class ($p = .005$), whereas the latter two did not differ.

Table 8*Comparisons by Economic Upbringing (Mean \pm SD)*

	Poor	White collar	Working class	<i>p</i>	Eta ²
Life experience	24.0 \pm 3.5	19.7 \pm 3.0	21.8 \pm 4.6	.078	.081
Discipline	12.6 \pm 5.0	18.5 \pm 7.3	15.4 \pm 5.9	.108	.072
Special education	11.2 \pm 3.2	17.2 \pm 4.8	13.3 \pm 4.6	.007	.152
Career satisfaction	13.6 \pm 4.6	14.7 \pm 4.8	14.5 \pm 4.5	.902	.003

Figure 6 illustrates the higher mean scores for white collar raised administrators compared to the poor and the working-class educators on special education.

Figure 6*Mean (\pm SEM) Subscale Scores by Economic Upbringing*

Results

Table 9 compares the administrators' upbringing. Respondents were asked whether they were raised in rural, urban, or suburban settings. There were no significant differences in views and perceptions among the groups concerning life experience, special education, or career satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected, as there was a statistical difference in their views on discipline ($p = .038$) and the effect was large, as indicated by the eta-squared ($\eta^2 = .104$). Pairwise comparisons revealed those with a suburban upbringing had a significantly higher mean score than those with an urban upbringing ($p = .011$). There were no other significant pairwise differences. Figure 6 showed the mean scores for each subscale, and the suburban mean was higher than the urban and rural means for discipline. Only two administrators had a rural upbringing, so the estimate was not precise.

Table 9

Comparisons by Type of Upbringing (Mean \pm SD)

	Rural	Suburban	Urban	<i>p</i>	Eta ²
Life experience	28.5 \pm 7.8	20.5 \pm 4.7	22.3 \pm 3.6	.169	.058
Discipline	17.5 \pm 12.0	18.3 \pm 7.1	14.2 \pm 4.9	.038	.104
Special education	13.0 \pm 1.4	15.5 \pm 5.8	13.2 \pm 4.0	.184	.055
Career satisfaction	14.5 \pm 10.6	14.6 \pm 4.2	14.4 \pm 4.6	.984	.001

Summary

This quantitative study involved examining the views and perceptions of building leaders raised in urban, suburban, and rural areas to determine whether their upbringing affected their treatment of urban Bridgeport Public Schools students who had experienced trauma. The quantitative single-stage survey results were significant in suburban upbringing, with a mean score significantly higher than urban and rural ($p = .011$). This falls in line with a study that

showed individuals who are not culturally competent can lack interpersonal skills and view students as lacking self-control or positive social and emotional skills (Okonofua et al., 2016). There were no significant differences in race or gender concerning respondents' views and perceptions of the students they served.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION

Overview

This chapter presents a discussion of the results of the study. Implications of how this study adds to the body of work in the area are outlined. This chapter presents the study's limitations and recommendations for future research in the areas of perception and trauma. A conclusion closes out the chapter.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the upbringings of building administrators had an effect on their views and perceptions of the students who attend Bridgeport Public Schools.

Central Question

Is there an association between building leaders' upbringing and their views and perception of urban students?

According to Tosh and Doss (2020), influential leaders display practices that improve their school organizations and student achievement. They frame the mission and goals to promote high expectations and advocate continued professional development. Self-awareness and self-perception are related to effective leadership. Leaders' views and perceptions, shaped by their early interactions with the world, influence how they approach students. Martin and Bowers (2019) discussed how upbringing affects leadership. The authors described childhood experiences as psychological residue in adulthood and indicated this residue shapes how adults respond to circumstances. Leaders respond to students based on their experiences if they are not self-aware and cannot separate their personal views from their professional duties. The results of the current study confirm the association between building leaders' upbringing and their

perception of urban students. The findings from the current study support the idea that early perception correlates to how special education and discipline are viewed.

Sub-Question 1

Are building administrators' life experiences associated with how they view appropriate penalties for students with trauma?

Public schools in urban communities have consistently underperformed their suburban counterparts as evidenced by standardized tests and other summative measures (Teasley et al., 2016). The findings from the Teasley et al. (2016) study showed administrators raised in suburban areas came with the views and perceptions of the area in which they were raised. Teasley et al. did not point to this statistic as the reason for the achievement gap in urban public schools, but it does shed some light on a problem that needs to be addressed. Culturally informed and emotionally intelligent building principals are essential to the success of a school and the students they serve (Reyes et al., 2013). This study adds to the literature surrounding the views and perceptions of building leaders as the results showed suburban raised building leaders believed strict discipline and special education are necessary to educate urban students.

According to the findings of the current study, 72.6% of the respondents felt in and out-of-school suspensions were a viable way to deter problematic student behavior. Forty-two percent believed Bridgeport Public Schools students learned better with strict rules and procedures. These thoughts correlate with the zero tolerance policies that aided in increasing the suspension rates among urban students (Okonofua et al., 2016). Bottiani et al. (2017) reported that African American students have experienced harsher punishments than their suburban counterparts for decades. These disciplinary actions include high rates of suspensions leading to increased minority student delinquency and dropout. The potential risk of out-of-school

suspensions had a negative association with the student's perception of their sense of belonging to the overall school community. Shirley and Cornell (2011) studied the perception of school climate from the student's perspective. In their study, Black students were referred to the office for discipline three times as frequently as their White counterparts and were suspended five times more often. Shirley and Cornell also found Black students were less likely to report a positive school climate due to earlier statistics. These findings highlight that differences in perception can cause individuals to view penalties for students through the lens that was formulated as a result of their upbringings. The current study revealed an association between building leaders' upbringing and their views and perceptions of urban students. Most respondents used their life experiences to guide their decision making.

Sub-Question 2

As a result of their views and perceptions, is there a correlation between building leaders' perception as a result of their upbringings and their thoughts on the need for special education classifications?

Special education has been an issue as it relates to classification. Pregot (2020) suggested most of the principals in their study believed higher rates of special education classification could be attributed to a lack of understanding of special education. This suggestion aligns with the results of the current study, as 66.1% of all respondents felt students were labeled correctly. There are approximately 4,000 students in Bridgeport Public Schools with a special education classification out of roughly 20,000 students. Seventy-one percent of those surveyed believed Bridgeport Public Schools students learned differently than their suburban counterparts, contrary to the 74.2% who reported they were satisfied with the educational environment provided for

special education students. In comparison, 45.2% believed students with extreme behaviors needed a more restrictive environment outside their school.

Implicit biases occur when outside conscious awareness leads to a negative perception of individuals based on characteristics such as race or gender (FitzGerald & Hurst, 2017). Implicit bias can cause minority students to be disproportionately labeled with special education classifications. As a result of this disproportionality, students of color are overrepresented in special education compared to their majority counterparts (Strassfeld, 2017).

Suburban raised building leaders perceive that students with special education classifications will require this level of intervention until they finish schooling, and urban students with extreme behavior need a more restrictive environment. The study revealed no significant differences between the age of respondents with regard to their perception of career satisfaction or special education; however, there was a considerable difference between elementary and high school principals. High school principals viewed special education the same as White respondents in the study.

Sub-Question 3

To what degree are building leaders' views and perceptions related to their overall satisfaction with Bridgeport Public Schools?

In the current study, 56.7% of respondents report being satisfied working with the students and parents of Bridgeport. According to a study by Woodcock (2021), satisfaction occurs when administrators feel supported and well-trained. This supports that Bridgeport Public Schools administrators are overall satisfied with their career choice. According to S. Wang (2019), culturally informed and emotionally intelligent building principals and quality teachers are essential to the success of a school and the students they serve (Reyes et al., 2013). Career

satisfaction is necessary for principals to be dedicated to students and they must be culturally competent to help students achieve social and academic success. The results of the current study revealed no association between building leaders' upbringing and their views and perceptions of career satisfaction.

Implications

An examination of the survey data did not support the hypothesis that building leaders with similar upbringings to the students they serve would perceive that harsher consequences increased positive outcomes. Although the hypothesis was not supported, the data uncovered a statically significant difference between suburban-born administrators and their urban and rural counterparts. The findings of this study have answered the research question concerning the possible association between building leaders' upbringing and their views and perceptions of urban students. This question was answered by establishing a relationship between a suburban upbringing and building leaders' views and perception of how urban students should be educated.

The research question concerning discipline can have far-reaching consequences. Administrators' disciplinary decisions surrounding social justice for minority students are affected by their thoughts about the students they serve. The administrator's views and perceptions unconsciously contribute to increased discipline for marginalized students. Administrators use relationships as step one to guide their decisions, followed by flexibility and morality, but should view students as individuals and not groups and develop meaningful relationships (Gullo & Beachum, 2020). Results of the current study showed 93% of all respondents used their past experiences to understand students, and 91.9% used their past experiences to guide how they educated these students.

According to the survey results, the views and perceptions formed due to a person's upbringing affect student outcomes. This study adds to the existing body of work as a result of uncovering a significant difference in the views of suburban-raised administrators and the problem of harsher penalties levied on students of color, which contributes to the school-to-prison pipeline.

There are more significant implications regarding special education and the school-to-prison pipeline. According to Aronowitz (2021), students in urban school systems are subject to disciplinary practices that are disproportionately harsher than their suburban counterparts. As a result, there are increased suspensions and expulsions as well as lower academic achievement among students of color. These issues increase the likelihood of a student's dropout and interactions with the criminal justice system. Aronowitz reported that 85% of students who interact with juvenile justice centers have a special education label, with 40% receiving behavioral support.

Building leaders influence the school's climate as they set the tone for the educational environment. School climate can affect teacher productivity, morale, and job longevity (Tajasom & Ariffin Ahmad, 2011). According to Woodcock (2021), building leaders are more satisfied with their careers if they feel supported and valued. This support comes in the form of transparency from the district, professional development, and fellowship among colleagues. Although this study revealed building administrators were satisfied with their jobs in Bridgeport Public Schools, there should be a focus on more professional development and mentorship to continue this trajectory.

Limitations of the Study

This study had some limitations. The first limitation was that the survey was conducted in one local urban school district. The internal validity was sound as the researcher conducted careful data collection by using a confidential survey design and used statistical analysis at the core of this study. The results can be generalized to other situations and deemed trustworthy if relevant factors are analyzed without judgment and there is internal validity. This study had internal validity, but exclusionary criteria could make it difficult to generalize the findings to the general public (Kukull & Ganguli, 2012).

Another limitation is that this study used a nonprobability sampling method technique. The nonprobability sampling technique uses a larger sample to conduct studies rather than a single-subject design. Although a nonprobability sampling method improves the ability to generalize the results, a single-subject approach allows for a more random selection of respondents, which removes bias (Emerson, 2021).

This study has an impact on the field of traumatology as it revealed the implication of an individual's perception of students who display trauma symptoms and the possible adverse effects. School district officials can use the survey to get a pulse of the district's climate and use the data to inform professional development. District leaders can also use the data to disclose how they use their resources, such as school resource officers, suspension monitors, and special education.

Recommendations for Future Research

From the data, the researcher developed multiple recommendations for future research. As a result of the first limitation in that the study occurred in one local urban district, a broader study can be conducted in other urban communities to compare results. Using the survey from

this study in other urban school districts will increase the strength of external reliability and eliminate any bias in using a nonprobability sampling method.

More research is needed on the impact of urban trauma on students overall. The views and perceptions of school staff in urban communities should be studied to determine root causes and effects. Academic outcomes are influenced by factors associated with trauma, and studies should be conducted to create proper interventions to address the underlying trauma appropriately. There is a lack of longitudinal studies investigating specific aspects of urban trauma, such as gun violence, domestic violence, and crime, on the educational, economic, mental health, and social trajectory of children born in urban communities.

Conclusion

Building leaders use their views and perceptions of urban students to formulate consequences and to help guide their decision-making processes. If they are not conscious of their perceptions from their upbringings, they may harbor negative perceptions and have a narrow locus of control or understanding of the impact of trauma on individuals. Their inability to understand their bias as a result of their upbringing can hamper their ability to identify interventions to address students' academic and social needs to increase academic achievement while decreasing problematic behaviors (Kumar, 2020).

The views and perceptions of urban traumatized students and the consequences of the lack of understanding of trauma reactions are significant issues that can be addressed through cultural competence training. The problem examined in this study was how upbringing affects how administrators view the role of discipline, special education, and overall career satisfaction. The purpose of this quantitative study was to add to the literature that focuses on perception and student outcomes. Results showed there was a significant difference in the views and perceptions

of discipline and special education as it related to suburban-raised administrators compared to their urban-raised and rural counterparts.

References

- Aggarwal, N. K., Cedeño, K., Guarnaccia, P., Kleinman, A., & Lewis-Fernández, R. (2016). The meanings of cultural competence in mental health: An exploratory focus group study with patients, clinicians, and administrators. *SpringerPlus*, *5*, 384. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40064-016-2037-4>
- Alford, B. J., & Sampson, P. M. (2016). Transcending the contexts of a rural school in Texas and an urban school in California: A cross-case comparison of principal leadership for student success. *Journal of Educational Leadership, Policy, and Practice*, *31*(1/2), 192–205.
- Alisic, E., Jongmans, M. J., Van Wesel, F., & Kleber, R. J. (2011). Building child trauma theory from longitudinal studies: A meta-analysis. *Clinical Psychology Review*, *31*(5), 736–747. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2011.03.001>
- Amaya-Jackson, L. (2017). Consequences of childhood trauma and adversity: Awareness and intervention points. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, *56*(10).
- Anthony, G., Hunter, R., & Hunter, J. (2017). Challenging teachers' perceptions of student capability through professional development: A telling case. *Professional Development in Education*, *44*(5), 650–662. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2017.1387868>
- Anyon, Y., Gregory, A., Stone, S., Farrar, J., Jenson, J. M., McQueen, J., Downing, B., Greer, E., & Simmons, J. (2016). Restorative interventions and school discipline sanctions in a large urban school district. *American Educational Research Journal*, *53*(6), 1663–1697. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/44245967>
- Armour, C., Contractor, A., Shea, T., Elhai, J., & Pietrzak, R. (2016). Factor structure of the PTSD checklist for DSM-5: Relationships among symptom clusters, anger, and impulsivity. *Journal of Nervous & Mental Disease*, *204*(2), 108–115. <https://doi.org/10.1097/nmd.0000000000000430>
- Arnwine, M. (2019). Comments: Trauma and learning: Creating a culture of educational access for inner-city communities. *University of San Francisco Law Review*, *53*, 77.
- Aronowitz, S. V. (2021). Turning off the 'school-to-prison pipeline.' *The American Journal of Nursing*, *121*(5), 16. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.naj.0000751048.18807.73>
- Arseneault, L., Cannon, M., Fisher, H. L., Polanczyk, G., Moffitt, T. E., & Caspi, A. (2011). Childhood trauma and children's emerging psychotic symptoms: A genetically sensitive longitudinal cohort study. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, *168*(1), 65–72. <https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.ajp.2010.10040567>
- Auxéméry, Y. (2017). When bullets cause psychological injuries... An essential continuity of care from debriefing to follow-up. *European Journal of Trauma & Dissociation*, *1*(3), 177–182. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejtd.2017.03.001>

- Avery, J. C., Morris, H., Galvin, E., Misso, M., Savaglio, M., & Skouteris, H. (2020). Correction to: Systematic review of school-wide trauma-informed approaches. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Trauma, 14*(3), 399–399. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40653-020-00321-1>
- Bae, S. M., Kang, J. M., Chang, H. Y., Han, W., & Lee, S. H. (2018). PTSD correlates with somatization in sexually abused children: Type of abuse moderates the effect of PTSD on somatization. *PloS One, 13*(6), e0199138. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0199138>
- Barbieri, A., Visco-Comandini, F., Alunni-Fegatelli, D., Schepisi, C., Russo, V., Calò, F., Dessì, A., Cannella, G., & Stellacci, A. (2019). Complex trauma, PTSD, and complex PTSD in African refugees. *European Journal of Psychotraumatology, 10*(1), 1700621. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20008198.2019.1700621>
- Bell, S., Hopkin, G., & Forrester, A. (2019). Exposure to traumatic events and the experience of burnout, compassion fatigue, and compassion satisfaction among prison mental health staff: An exploratory survey. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing, 40*(4), 304–309. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01612840.2018.1534911>
- Ben-Natan, M., Sharon, I., Barbashov, P., Minasyan, Y., Hanukayev, I., Kajdan, D., & Klein-Kremer, A. (2014). Risk factors for child abuse: Quantitative correlational design. *Journal of Pediatric Nursing, 29*(3), 220–227. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pedn.2013.10.009>
- Biehal, N. (2013). Maltreatment in foster care: A review of the evidence. *Child Abuse Review, 23*(1), 48–60. <https://doi.org/10.1002/car.2249>
- Berlowitz, M. J., Frye, R., & Jette, K. M. (2017). Bullying and zero-tolerance policies: The school to prison pipeline. *Multicultural Learning and Teaching, 12*(1), 7–25. <https://doi.org/10.1515/mlt-2014-0004>
- Bilias-Lolis, E., Gelber, N. W., Rispoli, K. M., Bray, M. A., & Maykel, C. (2017). On promoting understanding and equity through compassionate educational practice: Toward a new inclusion. *Psychology in the Schools, 54*(10), 1229–1237. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.22077>
- Blitz, L. V., Anderson, E. M., & Saastamoinen, M. (2016). Assessing perceptions of culture and trauma in an elementary school: Informing a model for culturally responsive trauma-informed schools. *The Urban Review, 48*(4), 520–542. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11256-016-0366-9>
- Bloom, C. M., & Owens, E. W. (2013). Principals' perception of influence on factors affecting student achievement in low- and high-achieving urban high schools. *Education and Urban Society, 45*(2), 208–233. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124511406916>
- Bohg, J., Hausman, K., Sankaran, B., Brock, O., Kragic, D., Schaal, S., & Sukhatme, G. S. (2017). Interactive perception: Leveraging action in perception and perception in action. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics, 33*(6), 1273–1291. <https://doi.org/10.1109/tro.2017.2721939>

- Bottiani, J. H., Bradshaw, C. P., & Mendelson, T. (2017). A multilevel examination of racial disparities in high school discipline: Black and White adolescents' perceived equity, school belonging, and adjustment problems. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 109*(4), 532–545. <https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000155>
- Bridgeport Public Schools. (2020). *District racial survey by school*. <https://www.bridgeportedu.net/Page/14962>
- Broadley, K. (2018). What can surveillance data and risk factor research contribute to a public health approach to preventing child sexual abuse? *Australian Journal of Social Issues, 53*(4), 372–385. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ajs4.46>
- Brown, C. L., Yilanli, M., & Rabbitt, A. L. (2022). *Child physical abuse and neglect*. StatPearls. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK470337/>
- Burton, A., Florell, D., & Gore, J. S. (2013). Differences in proactive and reactive aggression in traditional bullies and cyberbullies. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma, 22*(3), 316–328. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10926771.2013.743938>
- Carlone, H. B., Scott, C. M., & Lowder, C. (2014). Becoming (less) scientific: A longitudinal study of students' identity work from elementary to middle school science. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 51*(7), 836–869. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tea.21150>
- Camacho, K. A., & Krezmien, M. P. (2018). Individual- and school-level factors contributing to disproportionate suspension rates: A multilevel analysis of one state. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders, 27*(4), 209–220. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1063426618769065>
- Cederbaum, J. A., Negriff, S., & Molina, A. P. (2020). Child maltreatment and romantic relationships in adolescence and young adulthood: The mediating role of self-perception. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 109*, 104718. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2020.104718>
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2022, April 6). *Fast facts: Preventing child abuse & neglect*. <https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/childabuseandneglect/fastfact.html>
- Cerdá, M., Tracy, M., & Keyes, K. M. (2018). Reducing urban violence: A contrast of public health and criminal justice approaches. *Epidemiology, 29*(1), 142–150. <https://doi.org/10.1097/EDE.0000000000000756>
- Cerdá, M., Tracy, M., Keyes, K. M., & Galea, S. (2015). To treat or to prevent? *Epidemiology, 26*(5), 681–689. <https://doi.org/10.1097/EDE.0000000000000350>
- City-data.com. (2021). *Crime rate in Bridgeport, Connecticut (CT): Murders, rapes, robberies, assaults, burglaries, thefts, auto thefts, arson, law enforcement employees, police officers, crime map*. Retrieved February 15, 2021, from <https://www.city-data.com/crime/crime-Bridgeport-Connecticut.html>

- Cole, J., Sprang, G., Lee, R., & Cohen, J. (2014). The trauma of commercial sexual exploitation of youth. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 31*(1), 122–146. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260514555133>
- Coles, J. A., & Powell, T. (2019). A BlackCrit analysis on Black urban youth and suspension disproportionality as anti-Black symbolic violence. *Race Ethnicity and Education, 23*(1), 113–133. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13613324.2019.1631778>
- Connor, D., Cavendish, W., Gonzalez, T., & Jean-Pierre, P. (2019). Is a bridge even possible over troubled waters? The field of special education negates the overrepresentation of minority students: A district analysis. *Race Ethnicity and Education, 22*(6), 723–745. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13613324.2019.1599343>
- Covey, H. C., Grubb, L. M. C., Franzese, R. J., & Menard, S. (2017). Adolescent exposure to violence and adult anxiety, depression, and PTSD. *Criminal Justice Review, 45*(2), 185–201.
- Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. SAGE Publications.
- Crosby, S. D., Day, A. G., Somers, C. L., & Baroni, B. A. (2018). Avoiding school suspension: Assessment of a trauma-informed intervention with court-involved female students. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth, 62*(3), 229–237. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1045988X.2018.1431873>
- Crow, G. M., & Moller, J. (2017). Professional identities of school leaders across international contexts: An introduction and rationale. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 45*(5), 749–758. <https://doi.org/10.1177/174114321771144>
- Crow, T., Cross, D., Powers, A., & Bradley, B. (2014). Emotion dysregulation as a mediator between childhood emotional abuse and current depression in a low-income African-American sample. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 38*(10), 1587–1598. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2014.05.015>
- Crusto, C. A., Whitson, M. L., Walling, S. M., Feinn, R., Friedman, S. R., Reynolds, J., Amer, M., & Kaufman, J. S. (2010). Post-traumatic stress among young urban children exposed to family violence and other potentially traumatic events. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 23*(6), 716–724. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jts.20590>
- Cui, N., Deatrck, J. A., & Liu, J. (2018). Maternal and paternal physical abuse: Unique and joint associations with child behavioral problems. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 76*, 524–532. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2017.05.003>
- Daly, A. J., Moolenaar, N. M., Liou, Y., Tuytens, M., & Del Fresno, M. (2015). Why so difficult? Exploring negative relationships between educational leaders: The role of trust, climate, and efficacy. *American Journal of Education, 122*(1), 1–38. <https://doi.org/10.1086/683288>

- Dargis, M., & Koenigs, M. (2017). Witnessing domestic violence during childhood is associated with psychopathic traits in adult male criminal offenders. *Law and Human Behavior, 41*(2), 173–179. <https://doi.org/10.1037/lhb0000226>
- Davis, J. L., Love, T. P., & Fares, P. (2019). Collective social identity: Synthesizing identity theory and social identity theory using digital data. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 82*(3), 254–273. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0190272519851025>
- Day, E., & Dotterer, A. M. (2018). Parental involvement and adolescent academic outcomes: Exploring differences in beneficial strategies across racial/ethnic groups. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 47*(6), 1332–1349. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-018-0853-2>
- De Jesus, M., & Hernandez, C. (2019). Generalized violence as a threat to health and well being: A quantitative study of youth living in urban settings in Central America’s “Northern Triangle.” *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 16*(18), 3465. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16183465>
- Devries, K. M., Knight, L., Allen, E., Parkes, J., Kyegombe, N., & Naker, D. (2017). Does the Good Schools Toolkit reduce physical, sexual and emotional violence and injuries in girls and boys equally? A cluster-randomized controlled trial. *Prevention Science, 18*(7), 839–853. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11121-017-0775-3>
- Dorrington, S., Zavos, H., Ball, H., McGuffin, P., Sumathipala, A., Siribaddana, S., Rijdsdijk, F., Hatch, S. L., & Hotopf, M. (2019). Family functioning, trauma exposure, and PTSD: A cross-sectional study. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 245*, 645–652. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2018.11.056>
- Dye, H. (2018). The impact and long-term effects of childhood trauma. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 28*(3), 381–392. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10911359.2018.1435328>
- Echeverri, M., Brookover, C., & Kennedy, K. (2013). Assessing pharmacy students’ self-perception of cultural competence. *Journal of Healthcare for the Poor and Underserved, 24*(1 Suppl), 64–92. <https://doi.org/10.1353/hpu.2013.0041>
- Edge, K., Descours, K., & Oxley, L. (2017). Generation X leaders from London, New York, and Toronto: Conceptions of social identity and the influence of city-based context. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 45*(5), 863–883. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143217717278>
- Emerson, R. W. (2021). Convenience sampling revisited: Embracing its limitations through thoughtful study design. *Journal of Visual Impairment & Blindness, 115*(1), 76–77. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0145482X20987707>
- Emetu, R. E., Yarber, W. L., Sherwood-Laughlin, C. M., & Brandt, A. S. (2020). Self-reported sexual behavioral similarities and differences among young men who have sex with men with childhood sexual abuse histories: A quantitative exploratory study. *American*

- Journal of Men's Health*, 14(4), 155798832094935.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1557988320949355>
- Espinosa, A., & Rudenstine, S. (2018). Trait emotional intelligence, trauma, and personality organization: Analysis of urban clinical patients. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 123, 176–181. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.11.026>
- Fakunmoju, S. B., & Bammeke, F. O. (2015). Anxiety disorders and depression among high school adolescents and youths in Nigeria: Understanding differential effects of physical abuse at home and school. *Journal of Adolescence*, 42, 1–10.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2015.03.012>
- Fitzgerald, B. A., Hunt, V. H., & Kerr, B. (2018). Incarcerating exceptional pupils: Is there a school-to-prison pipeline in eastern Oklahoma? *Social Science Quarterly*, 100(1), 233–244. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ssqu.12545>
- FitzGerald, C., & Hurst, S. (2017). Implicit bias in healthcare professionals: A systematic review. *BMC Medical Ethics*, 18(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12910-017-0179-8>
- Franco, D. (2018). Trauma without borders: The necessity for school-based interventions in treating unaccompanied refugee minors. *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal*, 35(6), 551–565. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10560-018-0552-6>
- Franklin, C. A., Garza, A. D., Goodson, A., & Bouffard, L. A. (2020). Police perceptions of crime victim behaviors: A trend analysis exploring mandatory training and knowledge of sexual and domestic violence survivors' trauma responses. *Crime & Delinquency*, 66(8), 1055–1086. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128719845148>
- Franklin, C. L., Raines, A. M., Chambliss, J. L., Walton, J. L., & Maieritsch, K. P. (2018). Examining various subthreshold definitions of PTSD using the Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale for DSM-5. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 234, 256–260.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2018.03.001>
- Freeman, G. T., & Fields, D. (2020). School leadership in an urban context: Complicating notions of effective principal leadership, organizational setting, and teacher commitment to students. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13603124.2020.1818133>
- Friedman, M. J. (2015). *Post-traumatic and acute stress disorders* (6th ed.). Springer.
- Frissen, A., Lieveise, R., Drukker, M., van Winkel, R., & Delespaul, P. (2015). Childhood trauma and childhood urbanicity in relation to psychotic disorder. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 50(10), 1481–1488. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00127-015-1049-7>
- Geronimus, A. T., Pearson, J. A., Linnenbringer, E., Schulz, A. J., Reyes, A. G., Epel, E. S., Lin, J., & Blackburn, E. H. (2015). Race-ethnicity, poverty, urban stressors, and telomere

- length in a Detroit community-based sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 56(2), 199–224. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022146515582100>
- Ghosh, M., Daniels, J., Pyra, M., Juzumaite, M., Jais, M., Murphy, K., Taylor, T. N., Kassaye, S., Benning, L., Cohen, M., & Weber, K. (2018). Impact of chronic sexual abuse and depression on inflammation and wound healing in the female reproductive tract of HIV-uninfected and HIV-infected women. *PloS One*, 13(6), e0198412. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0198412>
- Gillikin, C., Habib, L., Evces, M., Bradley, B., Ressler, K. J., & Sanders, J. (2016). Trauma exposure and PTSD symptoms associated with violence in inner-city civilians. *Journal of Psychiatric Research*, 83, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychires.2016.07.027>
- Gilmoor, A. R., Adithy, A., & Regeer, B. (2019). The cross-cultural validity of post-traumatic stress disorder and post-traumatic stress symptoms in the Indian context: A systematic search and review. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 10, 439. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2019.00439>
- Goessmann, K., Ibrahim, H., Saupe, L. B., & Neuner, F. (2021). Toward a contextually valid assessment of partner violence: Development and psycho-sociometric evaluation of the Gendered Violence in Partnerships Scale (GVPS). *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.607671>
- Golann, J. W., Debs, M., & Weiss, A. L. (2019). “To be strict on your own”: Black and Latinx parents evaluate discipline in urban choice schools. *American Educational Research Journal*, 56(5), 1896–1929. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831219831972>
- Goldstick, J. E., Bohnert, K. M., Davis, A. K., Bonar, E. E., Carter, P. M., Walton, M. A., & Cunningham, R. M. (2018). Dual trajectories of depression/anxiety symptoms and alcohol use, and their implications for violence outcomes among drug-using urban youth. *Alcohol and Alcoholism*, 53(6), 659–666. <https://doi.org/10.1093/alcalc/agy036>
- Goodman, L. A., & Liao, T. F. (2016). Paul Felix Lazarsfeld’s impact on sociological methodology. *Bulletin of Sociological Methodology/Bulletin de Méthodologie Sociologique*, 129(1), 94–102. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/26381980>.
- Granot, M., Yovell, Y., Somer, E., Beny, A., Sadger, R., Uliel-Mirkin, R., & Zisman-Ilani, Y. (2018). Trauma, attachment style, and somatization: A study of women with dyspareunia and women survivors of sexual abuse. *BMC Women’s Health*, 18(1), 29. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12905-018-0523-2>
- Grant, H. B., Lavery, C. F., & Decarlo, J. (2019). An exploratory study of police officers: Low compassion satisfaction and compassion fatigue. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 9, 2793. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02793>
- Grote, N. K., Spieker, S. J., Lohr, M. J., Geibel, S. L., Swartz, H. A., Frank, E., Houck, P. R., & Katon, W. (2012). Impact of childhood trauma on the outcomes of a perinatal depression trial. *Depression and Anxiety*, 29(7), 563–573. <https://doi.org/10.1002/da.21929>

- Gullo, G. L., & Beachum, F. D. (2020). Principals navigating discipline decisions for social justice: An informed grounded theory study. *Heliyon*, *6*(12). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2020.e05736>
- Gülšen, C., & Gülenay, G. B. (2014). The principal and healthy school climate. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, *42*(1), 93–100. <https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2014.42.0.S93>
- Hallinan, S., Shiyko, M. P., Volpe, R., & Molnar, B. E. (2019). Reliability and validity of the Vicarious Trauma Organizational Readiness Guide (VT-org). *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *64*(3-4), 481–493. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ajcp.12395>
- Harrison-Bernard, L. M., Augustus-Wallace, A. C., Souza-Smith, F. M., Tsien, F., Casey, G. P., & Gunaldo, T. P. (2020). Knowledge gains in a professional development workshop on diversity, equity, inclusion, and implicit bias in academia. *Advances in Physiology Education*, *44*(3), 286–294. <https://doi.org/10.1152/advan.00164.2019>
- Heale, R., & Twycross, A. (2015). Validity and reliability in quantitative studies. *Evidence-Based Nursing*, *18*(3), 66–67. <http://doi.org/10.1136/eb-2015-102129>
- Hecht, A. A., Biehl, E., Buzogany, S., & Neff, R. A. (2018). Using a trauma-informed policy approach to create a resilient urban food system. *Public Health Nutrition*, *21*(10), 1961–1970. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980018000198>
- Herzik, L. (2015). A better IDEA: Implementing a nationwide definition for significant disproportionality to combat the overrepresentation of minority students in special education. *The San Diego Law Review*, *52*(4), 951. <http://id.loc.gov/authorities/names/n79122466>
- Hines, L. A., Sundin, J., Rona, R. J., Wessely, S., & Fear, N. T. (2014). Posttraumatic stress disorder post Iraq and Afghanistan: Prevalence among military subgroups. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, *59*(9), 468–479. <https://doi.org/10.1177/070674371405900903>
- Hoeboer, C., de Roos, C., Van Son, G. E., Spinhoven, P., & Elzinga, B. (2021). The effect of parental emotional abuse on the severity and treatment of PTSD symptoms in children and adolescents. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *111*, 104775. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2020.104775>
- Hoehn, E. F., Wilson, P. M., Riney, L. C., Ngo, V., Bennett, B., & Duma, E. (2018). Identification and evaluation of physical abuse in children. *Pediatric Annals*, *47*(3), 97–101. <https://doi.org/10.3928/19382359-20180227-01>
- Horrevorts, E. M. B., Monshouwer, K., Wigman, J. T. W., & Vollebergh, W. A. M. (2014). The relation between bullying and subclinical psychotic experiences and the influence of the bully climate of school classes. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, *23*(9), 765–772. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-014-0524-0>

- Huber, S. A., & Seidel, T. (2018). Comparing teacher and student perspectives on the interplay of cognitive and motivational-affective student characteristics. *PloS One*, *13*(8), 600–609. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0200609>
- Hughes, T., Raines, T., & Malone, C. (2020). School pathways to the juvenile justice system. *Policy Insights From the Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *7*(1), 72–79. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2372732219897093>
- Hunt, K. L., Martens, P. M., & Belcher, H. M. E. (2011). Risky business: Trauma exposure and rate of post-traumatic stress disorder in African American children and adolescents. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, *24*(3), 365–369. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jts.20648>
- Ito, T. A., Friedman, N. P., Bartholow, B. D., Correll, J., Loersch, C., Altamirano, L. J., & Miyake, A. (2015). Toward a comprehensive understanding of executive cognitive function in implicit racial bias. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *108*(2), 187–218. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038557>
- Jansen, H. (2010). The logic of quantitative survey research and its position in the field of social research methods. *Forum Quantitative/Forum: Quantitative Social Research*, *11*(2), Article 11. <https://doi.org/10.17169/fqs-11.2.1450>
- Jiang, T., Webster, J. L., Robinson, A., Kassam-Adams, N., & Richmond, T. S. (2018). Emotional responses to unintentional and intentional traumatic injuries among urban Black men: A quantitative study. *Injury*, *49*(5), 983–989. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.injury.2017.12.002>
- Johnson, D. D., & Bornstein, J. (2021). Racial equity policy that moves implicit bias beyond a metaphor for individual prejudice to a means of exposing structural oppression. *Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership*, *24*(2), 81–95. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1555458920976721>
- Jonker, B. E., Graupner, L. I., & Rossouw, L. (2020). An intervention framework to facilitate psychological trauma management in high-risk occupations. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*, 530. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.00530>
- Jowsey, T. (2019). Three zones of cultural competency: Surface competency, bias twilight, and the confronting midnight zone. *BMC Medical Education*, *19*(1), 306. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12909-019-1746-0>
- Kafa, A., & Pashiardis, P. (2019). Exploring school principals' personal identities in Cyprus from a values perspective. *The International Journal of Educational Management*, *33*(5), 886–902. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijem-03-2018-0102>
- Kamil, A. K., & Türkan, D. B. (2021). Organizational commitment levels of preschool teachers and administrators' leadership styles. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, *79*(2), 207–219. <https://doi.org/10.33225/pec/21.79.207>

- Khalifa, M. (2014). Can Blacks be racists? Black-on-Black principal abuse in an urban school setting. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 28(2), 259–282. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2014.916002>
- Kimmerle, J., Anikin, A., & Bientzle, M. (2020). The impact of perceived etiology, treatment type and wording of treatment information on the assessment of gastritis treatments. *Frontiers in Public Health*, 8. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2020.00035>
- Koenig, A., Rodger, S., & Specht, J. (2017). Educator burnout and compassion fatigue: A pilot study. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, 33(4), 259–278.
- Kruglanski, A. W., Jasko, K., Milyavsky, M., Chernikova, M., Webber, D., Pierro, A., & di Santo, D. (2018). Cognitive consistency theory in social psychology: A paradigm reconsidered. *Psychological Inquiry*, 29(2), 45–59. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1047840X.2018.1480619>
- Kuhlman, K. R., Vargas, I., Geiss, E. G., & Lopez-Duran, N. L. (2015). Age of trauma onset and HPA axis dysregulation among trauma-exposed youth. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 28(6), 572–579. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jts.22054>
- Kukull, W. A., & Ganguli, M. (2012). Generalizability: The trees, the forest, and the low-hanging fruit. *Neurology*, 78(23), 1886–1891. <https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.0b013e318258f812>
- Kumar, S. (2020). Current knowledge, perceptions, and implementations of trauma-informed teaching practices in two Connecticut public schools. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 66(2). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2019.11.145>
- Lago, S., Cantarero, D., Rivera, B., Pascual, M., Blázquez-Fernández, C., Casal, B., & Reyes, F. (2017). Socioeconomic status, health inequalities and non-communicable diseases: A systematic review. *Journal of Public Health*, 26(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10389-017-0850-z>
- Larson, S., Chapman, S., Spetz, J., & Brindis, C. D. (2017). Chronic childhood trauma, mental health, academic achievement, and school-based health center mental health services. *Journal of School Health*, 87(9), 675–686. <https://doi.org/10.1111/josh.12541>
- Lewis, T., McElroy, E., Harlaar, N., & Runyan, D. (2016). Does the impact of child sexual abuse differ from maltreated but non-sexually abused children? A prospective examination of the impact of child sexual abuse on internalizing and externalizing behavior problems. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 51, 31–40. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2015.11.016>
- Lloyd, M. (2018). Domestic violence and education: Examining the impact of domestic violence on young children, children, and young people and the potential role of schools. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 9, 2094. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02094>

- Loberg, J. A., Hayward, R. D., Fessler, M., & Edhayan, E. (2018). Associations of race, mechanism of injury, and neighborhood poverty with in-hospital mortality from trauma. *Medicine*, *97*(39). <https://doi.org/10.1097/MD.00000000000012606>
- Lopez-Patton, M., Kumar, M., Jones, D., Fonseca, M., Kumar, A. M., & Nemeroff, C. B. (2016). Childhood trauma and meth abuse among men who have sex with men: Implications for intervention. *Journal of Psychiatric Research*, *72*, 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychires.2015.09.009>
- Lustick, H. (2021). Going restorative, staying tough: Urban principals' perceptions of restorative practices in collocated small schools. *Education and Urban Society*, *53*(7), 739–760. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124520974335>
- Macfarlane, A. (2018). Gangs and adolescent mental health: A narrative review. *Journal of Child & Adolescent Trauma*, *12*(3), 411–420. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40653-018-0231-y>
- Maguire, S. A., Williams, B., Naughton, A. M., Cowley, L. E., Tempest, V., Mann, M. K., Teague, M., & Kemp, A. M. (2015). A systematic review of the emotional, behavioral, and cognitive features exhibited by school-aged children experiencing neglect or emotional abuse. *Child: Care, Health and Development*, *41*(5), 641–653. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cch.12227>
- Maneta, E. K., Cohen, S., Schulz, M. S., & Waldinger, R. J. (2015). Linkages between childhood emotional abuse and marital satisfaction: The mediating role of empathic accuracy for hostile emotions. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *44*, 8–17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2014.07.017>
- Marchbanks, M. P., Peguero, A. A., Varela, K. S., Blake, J. J., & Eason, J. M. (2016). School strictness and disproportionate minority contact. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice*, *16*(2), 241–259. <https://doi.org/10.1177/15412040166804>
- Marshall, D. F., Passarotti, A. M., Ryan, K. A., Kamali, M., Saunders, E. F., Pester, B., McInnis, M. G., & Langenecker, S. A. (2016). Deficient inhibitory control as an outcome of childhood trauma. *Psychiatry Research*, *235*, 7–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2015.12.013>
- Martin, S., & Bowers, K. (2019, March 28). *Entitlement and effectiveness: How upbringing affects leaders*. Darden Ideas to Action. <https://ideas.darden.virginia.edu/entitlement-and-effectiveness-how-upbringing-affects-leaders>
- Martínez-Mesa, J., González-Chica, D. A., Bastos, J. L., Bonamigo, R. R., & Duquia, R. P. (2014). Sample size: How many participants do I need in my research? *Anais Brasileiros De Dermatologia*, *89*(4), 609–615. <https://doi.org/10.1590/abd1806-4841.20143705>
- Mathews, B., & Collin-Vézina, D. (2019). Child sexual abuse: Toward a conceptual model and definition. *Trauma, Violence & Abuse*, *20*(2), 131–148. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838017738726>

- Maxwell, S., Reynolds, K. J., Lee, E., Subasic, E., & Bromhead, D. (2017). The impact of school climate and school identification on academic achievement: Multilevel modeling with student and teacher data. *Frontiers in Psychology, 5*(8), 20–43. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.02069>
- Meyer, D., Cohn, A., Robinson, B., Muse, F., & Hughes, R. (2017). Persistent complications of child sexual abuse: Sexually compulsive behaviors, attachment, and emotions. *Journal of Child Sexual Abuse, 26*(2), 140–157. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10538712.2016.1269144>
- Minahan, J. (2019). Trauma-informed teaching strategies. *Educational Leadership, 77*(2), 30–35. <https://www.ascd.org/el/articles/trauma-informed-teaching-strategies>
- Mokruue, K., O’Neill, P., Weiden, P., Friedman, S., & Cavaleri, M. (2011). Trauma survivors’ emotional distress and barriers to early psychological intervention in an inner-city acute surgical trauma service. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma, 20*(1), 58–69. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10926771.2011.537600>
- Molano, A., Harker, A., & Cristancho, J. (2018). Effects of indirect exposure to homicide events on children’s mental health: Evidence from urban settings in Colombia. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 47*(10), 2060–2072. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-018-0876-8>
- Morgan, P. L., Farkas, G., Hillemeier, M. M., Mattison, R., Maczuga, S., Li, H., & Cook, M. (2015). Minorities are disproportionately underrepresented in special education: Longitudinal evidence across five disability conditions. *Educational Researcher, 44*(5), 278–292. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X15591157>
- Negowetti, N. (2012). Judicial decision-making, empathy, and the limits of perception. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2164325>
- Nicholls, S. B., & Rice, R. E. (2017). A dual-identity model of responses to deviance in online groups: Integrating social identity theory and expectancy violations theory. *Communication Theory, 27*(3), 243–268. <https://doi.org/10.1111/comt.12113>
- Nijenhuis, E. R. S., & van der Hart, O. (2011). Dissociation in trauma: A new definition and comparison with previous formulations. *Journal of Trauma & Dissociation: The Official Journal of the International Society for the Study of Dissociation, 12*(4), 416–445. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15299732.2011.570592>
- Noble, H., & Smith, J. (2015). Issues of validity and reliability in quantitative research. *Evidence Based Nursing, 18*(2), 34–35. <https://doi.org/10.1136/eb-2015-102054>
- Nordholm, D., Arnqvist, A., & Nihlfors, E. (2020). Principals’ emotional identity – The Swedish case. *School Leadership & Management, 40*(4), 335–351.
- O’Cleirigh, C., Safren, S. A., Taylor, S. W., Goshe, B. M., Bedoya, C. A., Marquez, S. M., Boroughs, M. S., & Shipherd, J. C. (2019). Cognitive behavioral therapy for trauma and self-care (CBT-TSC) in men who have sex with men with a history of childhood sexual

- abuse: A randomized controlled trial. *AIDS and Behavior*, 23(9), 2421–2431.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10461-019-02482-z>
- Okonofua, J. A., Paunesku, D., & Walton, G. M. (2016). Brief intervention to encourage empathic discipline cuts suspension rates in half among adolescents. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 113(19), 5221–5226.
<https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1523698113>
- Owens, E. G. (2016). Testing the school-to-prison pipeline. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 36(1), 11–37. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pam.21954>
- Pain, R. (2018). Chronic urban trauma: The slow violence of housing dispossession. *Urban Studies*, 56(2), 385–400. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042098018795796>
- Pannucci, C. J., & Wilkins, E. G. (2010). Identifying and avoiding bias in research. *Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery*, 126(2), 619–625.
<https://doi.org/10.1097/PRS.0b013e3181de24bc>
- Paul, O. (2019). Perceptions of family relationships and post-traumatic stress symptoms of children exposed to domestic violence. *Journal of Family Violence*, 34, 331–343.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-018-00033-z>
- Penner, L. A., Harper, F. W. K., Dovidio, J. F., Albrecht, T. L., Hamel, L. M., Senft, N., & Eggly, S. (2017). The impact of Black cancer patients' race-related beliefs and attitudes on racially discordant oncology interactions: A field study. *Social Science & Medicine*, 191, 99–108. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2017.08.034>
- Post, M., Hanten, G., Li, X., Schmidt, A. T., Avci, G., Wilde, E. A., & McCauley, S. R. (2014). Dimensions of trauma and specific symptoms of complex posttraumatic stress disorder in inner-city youth: A preliminary study. *Violence and Victims*, 29(2), 262–279.
- Power, A., & Mullan, J. (2017). Vicarious birth trauma and post-traumatic stress disorder: Preparing and protecting student midwives. *British Journal of Midwifery*, 25(12), 799–802. <https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.VV-D-12-00097R1>
- Pregot, M. V. (2020). Principals' depth of perception of knowledge on special education programs: How much do they really know? *International Journal of Educational Reform*, 30(1), 3–20. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10567879209671>
- Price-Wolf, J. (2015). Social support, collective efficacy, and child physical abuse: Does parent gender matter? *Child Maltreatment*, 20(2), 125–135.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559514562606>
- Raisa, A., & Alieva, A. (2018). The influence of student ethnicity on teacher expectations and teacher perceptions of warmth and competence. *Psychology in Russia*, 11(1), 106–124.
<https://doi.org/10.11621/pir.2018.0109>

- Rajaram, K. (2021). *Evidence-based teaching for the 21st century classroom and beyond*. Springer.
- Ravi, A., Gorelick, J., & Pal, H. (2021). Identifying and addressing vicarious trauma. *American Family Physician*, 103(9), 570–572. <https://doi.org/10.1027/0227-5910/a000595>
- Reichert, J., Ruzich, D., & Osher, M. (2015). *Male survivors of urban violence and trauma: A quantitative analysis of jail detainees*. Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority. <https://icjia.illinois.gov/researchhub/articles/male-survivors-of-urban-violence-and-trauma>
- Reininghaus, U., Gayer-Anderson, C., Valmaggia, L., Kempton, M. J., Calem, M., Onyejiaka, A., Hubbard, K., Dazzan, P., Beards, S., Fisher, H. L., Mills, J. G., McGuire, P., Craig, T. K. J., Garety, P., van Os, J., Murray, R. M., Wykes, T., Myin-Germeys, I., & Morgan, C. (2016). Psychological processes underlying the association between childhood trauma and psychosis in daily life: An experience sampling study. *Psychological Medicine*, 46(13), 2799–2813. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S003329171600146X>
- Reyes, J. A., Elias, M. J., Parker, S. J., & Rosenblatt, J. L. (2013). Promoting educational equity in disadvantaged youth: The role of resilience and social-emotional learning. In S. Goldstein & R. Brooks (Eds.), *Handbook of resilience in children* (pp. 349–370). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-3661-4_20
- Riddle, T., & Sinclair, S. (2019). Racial disparities in school-based disciplinary actions are associated with county-level rates of racial bias. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 116(17), 8255–8260. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1808307116>
- Royal, K. (2016). “Face validity” is not a legitimate type of validity evidence! *The American Journal of Surgery*, 212(5), 1026–1027. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjsurg.2016.02.018>
- Sanderson, C. (2014). *Counseling skills for working with trauma: Healing from child sexual abuse, sexual violence, and domestic abuse*. Jessica Kingsley.
- Sell, J. (2018). Definitions and the development of theory in social psychology. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 81(1), 8–22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0190272518755335>
- Setia, M. S. (2016). Methodology series module 3: Cross-sectional studies. *Indian Journal of Dermatology*, 61(3), 261–264. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0019-5154.182410>
- Shernoff, E. S., Mariñez-Lora, A. M., Frazier, S. L., Jakobsons, L. J., Atkins, M. S., & Bonner, D. (2011). Teachers supporting teachers in urban schools: What iterative research designs can teach us. *School Psychology Review*, 40(4), 465–485. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02796015.2011.12087525>
- Sheryl, A. H., Stephanie, M. P., Herrenkohl, T. I., Toumbourou, J. W., & Catalano, R. F. (2014). Student and school factors associated with school suspension: A multilevel analysis of students in Victoria, Australia and Washington State, United States. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 36(1), 187–194. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2013.11.022>

- Shirley, E. L., & Cornell, D. G. (2011). The contribution of student perceptions of school climate to understanding the disproportionate punishment of African American students in a middle school. *School Psychology International*, *33*(2), 115–134.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0143034311406815>
- Singewald, N., Schmuckermair, C., Whittle, N., Holmes, A., & Ressler, K. J. (2015). Pharmacology of cognitive enhancers for exposure-based therapy of fear, anxiety and trauma-related disorders. *Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, *149*, 150–190.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pharmthera.2014.12.004>
- Sleath, E., & Bull, R. (2017). Police perceptions of rape victims and the impact on case decision making: A systematic review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, *34*, 102–112.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2017.02.003>
- Sletvold, J. (2016). Freud's three theories of neurosis: Towards a contemporary theory of trauma and defense. *Psychoanalytic Dialogues*, *26*(4), 460–475.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10481885.2016.1190611>
- Solomon, E. P., & Heide, K. M. (1999). Type III trauma: Toward a more effective conceptualization of psychological trauma. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, *43*(2), 202–210.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0306624X99432007>
- Staudte, R. G. (2020). Evidence for the goodness of fit in Karl Pearson chi-squared statistics. *Statistics*, *54*(6), 1287–1310. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02331888.2020.1862115>
- Sterzing, P. R., Auslander, W. F., Ratliff, G. A., Gerke, D. R., Edmond, T., & Jonson-Reid, M. (2017). Exploring bullying perpetration and victimization among adolescent girls in the child welfare system: Bully-only, victim-only, bully-victim, and noninvolved roles. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *35*(5-6), 1311–1333.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517696864>
- Stoltenborgh, M., Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J., van Ijzendoorn, M. H., & Alink, L. R. (2013). Cultural–geographical differences in the occurrence of child physical abuse? A meta-analysis of global prevalence. *International Journal of Psychology*, *48*(2), 81–94.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00207594.2012.697165>
- Strassfeld, N. M. (2017). The future of IDEA: Monitoring disproportionate representation of minority students in special education and intentional discrimination claims. *Case Western Reserve Law Review*, *67*(4), 1121.
- Sullivan, A. L., Van Norman, E. R., & Klingbeil, D. A. (2014). Exclusionary discipline of students with disabilities: Student and school characteristics predicting suspension. *Remedial and Special Education*, *35*(4), 199–210.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0741932513519825>

- Tajasom, A., & Ariffin Ahmad, Z. (2011). Principals' leadership style and school climate: Teachers' perspectives from Malaysia. *International Journal of Leadership in Public Services*, 7(4), 314–333. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17479881111194198>
- Teasley, M., Crutchfield, J., Williams Jennings, S. A., Clayton, M. A., & Okilwa, N. S. (2016). School choice and Afrocentric charter schools: A review and critique of evaluation outcomes. *Journal of African American Studies*, 20(1), 99–119. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12111-015-9322-0>
- Teherani, A., Martimianakis, T., Stenfors-Hayes, T., Wadhwa, A., & Varpio, L. (2015). Choosing a qualitative research approach. *Journal of Graduate Medical Education*, 7(4), 669–670. <https://doi.org/10.4300/JGME-D-15-00414.1>
- Tosh, K., & Doss, C. J. (2020, April 9). *School leadership: Teachers and principals may have different views*. RAND Corporation. <https://doi.org/10.7249/RR2575.5-1>
- Ungar, M. (2013). Resilience, trauma, context, and culture. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 14(3), 255–266. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838013487805>
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2020). *Bridgeport, Connecticut population 2020*. Retrieved October 12, 2020, from <https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/bridgeportcityconnecticut>
- Uziel, N., Meyerson, J., Giryes, R., & Eli, I. (2019). Empathy in dental care – The role of vicarious trauma. *International Dental Journal*, 69(5), 348–353. <https://doi.org/10.1111/idj.12487>
- Venkatesh, V., Brown, S. A., & Bala, H. (2013). Bridging the qualitative-quantitative divide: Guidelines for conducting mixed methods research in information systems. *MIS Quarterly*, 37(1), 21–54. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/43825936>
- Voith, L. A., Russell, K., Lee, H., & Anderson, R. E. (2020). Adverse childhood experiences, trauma symptoms, mindfulness, and intimate partner violence: Therapeutic implications for marginalized men. *Family Process*, 59(4), 1588–1607. <https://doi.org/10.1111/famp.12533>
- Vujanovic, A. A., Wardle, M. C., Bakhshaie, J., Smith, L. J., Green, C. E., Lane, S. D., & Schmitz, J. M. (2018). Distress tolerance: Associations with trauma and substance cue reactivity in low-income, inner-city adults with substance use disorders and posttraumatic stress. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 32(3), 264–276. <https://doi.org/10.1037/adb0000362>
- Walker, B. W., & Caprar, D. V. (2020). When performance gets personal: Towards a theory of performance-based identity. *Human Relations*, 73(8), 1077–1105. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00187267198518>
- Wamser-Nanney, R., Cherry, K. E., Campbell, C., & Trombetta, E. (2021). Racial differences in children's trauma symptoms following complex trauma exposure. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 36(5–6), 2498–2520. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260518760019>

- Wamser-Nanney, R., Nanney, J. T., Conrad, E., & Constans, J. I. (2019). Childhood trauma exposure and gun violence risk factors among victims of gun violence. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy*, *11*(1), 99–106. <https://doi.org/10.1037/tra0000410>
- Wang, S. (2019). School heads' transformational leadership and students' modernity: The multiple mediating effects of school climates. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *20*(3), 329–341. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-019-09575-3>
- Wang, X., & Cheng, Z. (2020). Cross-sectional studies. *Chest*, *158*(1). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chest.2020.03.012>
- Weinberg, D., Stevens, G., Finkenauer, C., Brunekreef, B., Smit, H. A., & Wijga, A. H. (2019). The pathways from parental and neighborhood socioeconomic status to adolescent educational attainment: An examination of the role of cognitive ability, teacher assessment, and educational expectations. *PloS One*, *14*(5), e0216803. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0216803>
- Welsh, R. O., & Little, S. (2018). The school discipline dilemma: A comprehensive review of disparities and alternative approaches. *Review of Educational Research*, *88*(5), 752–794. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654318791582>
- Wiggan, G., & Watson-Vandiver, M. J. (2019). Urban school success: Lessons from a high-achieving urban school and students' reactions to Ferguson, Missouri. *Education and Urban Society*, *51*(8), 1074–1105. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124517751721>
- Willie, T. C., Powell, A., & Kershaw, T. (2016). Stress in the city: Influence of urban social stress and violence on pregnancy and postpartum quality of life among adolescent and young mothers. *Journal of Urban Health: Bulletin of the New York Academy of Medicine*, *93*(1), 19–35. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11524-015-0021-x>
- Wolf, S., Magnuson, K. A., & Kimbro, R. T. (2017). Family poverty and neighborhood poverty: Links with children's school readiness before and after the Great Recession. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *79*, 368–384. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2017.06.040>
- Woodcock, D. L. (2021). *Urban school district principals' perceptions of job satisfaction* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Walden University. <https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/10286>
- Wright, T. (2017). Supporting students who have experienced trauma. *The NAMTA Journal*, *42*(2), 141–152. <https://doi.org/10.1037/e500252020-001>
- Xuan, X., Xue, Y., Zhang, C., Luo, Y., Jiang, W., Qi, M., & Wang, Y. (2019). Relationship among school socioeconomic status, teacher-student relationship, and middle school students' academic achievement in China: Using the multilevel mediation model. *PloS One*, *14*(3), e0213783. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0213783>

Young, M. M. (2011). *Disproportionality of African American students in special education* [Unpublished master's thesis]. St. John Fisher University.
https://fisherpub.sjf.edu/education_ETD_masters/75

Zaleski, K. L., Johnson, D. K., & Klein, J. T. (2016). Grounding Judith Herman's trauma theory within interpersonal neuroscience and evidence-based practice modalities for trauma treatment. *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, *86*(4), 377–393.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00377317.2016.1222110>

Zona, K., & Milan, S. (2011). Gender differences in the longitudinal impact of exposure to violence on mental health in urban youth. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *40*(12), 1674–1690. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-011-9649-3>

Appendix A

Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

Administrator's Perceptions of Urban Raised Students
Liberty University
School of Behavioral Sciences -Community Care and Counseling

You are invited to be in a quantitative investigative research study to summarize and critically evaluate the topic concerning administrators' views on students who have been traumatized and the treatment the students receive due to their perceptions. You were selected as a possible participant because you hold an administrator's certification and hold a position that impacts the social-emotional and education of Bridgeport Public school Students.

Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Dementred Young, a doctoral candidate in the Department of Community Care and Counseling at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to ascertain whether implicit bias or negative perceptions will affect students' outcomes in the area of suspensions, expulsions, arrests, and educational success. Eighty-seven urban building leaders will be surveyed using questions to gauge perceptions and background information. An investigation with the use of a survey will be used for this study.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I will ask you to do the following things:

1. Complete an online survey on the platform SurveyMonkey.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study. Benefits to society include uncovering potential implicit bias in Bridgeport Public Schools and providing effective interventions to combat bias if applicable.

Compensation: Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records. I may share the data I collect from you for use in future research studies or with other researchers; if I share the data I collect

about you, I will remove any information that could identify you, if applicable, before I share the data.

- The procedure will be taken to safeguard confidentiality by using an anonymous survey.
- Data will be stored on a password-locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

Conflicts of Interest Disclosure:

I am a district administrator and an executive board union member. To limit potential conflicts, the study will be anonymous, so the researcher will not know who participated. This disclosure is made so that you can decide if this relationship will affect your willingness to participate in this study. No action will be taken against an individual based on his or her decision to participate in this study.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any questions or withdraw at any time.

How to Withdraw from the study:

If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Dementred Young. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact him at [REDACTED] and/or [REDACTED]. You may also contact the researcher's faculty chair, Dr. Mario Garcia, D. Min, J.D., M.Div., MCC, at [REDACTED].

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature of Participant

Date

Signature of Investigator

Date

Appendix B

Survey

Building Leaders Perception Survey

- Gender Male Female Nonbinary
- Race Hispanic or Latino American Indian or Alaska Native
 Asian Black or African American
 Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
 Multiracial White
- Age range 19-38 Age 39-54 Age 55-73 Age 74-92
- Type of administrator Elementary High School
- Type of upbringing Suburban Urban Rural
- Economic upbringing Poor Working Class White Collar Upper class

	Strongly Disagree			Neither		Strongly agree	
Questions: Life Experience	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. My past experiences have helped me understand how to educate the students of Bridgeport Public Schools.							
2. I use my life experience as a means of understanding my students.							
3. Lacking success in school is a result of the student’s motivation.							
4. All Bridgeport students can learn at the same rate as their suburban counterparts.							
	Strongly Disagree			Neither		Strongly agree	
Questions: Discipline	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. In-school and out-of-school suspension is a viable way of deterring problematic behavior.							
2. Bridgeport Public School students learn better with strict rules and procedures.							
3. Bridgeport students display more problematic behavior than their suburban or rural counterparts.							
4. SRO (School Resource Officers) play a role in controlling problematic behaviors in students.							

	Strongly Disagree			Neither		Strongly agree	
Questions: Special Education	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Bridgeport students that hold a special education classification are labeled correctly.							
2. Students in Bridgeport learn differently than their urban or rural counterparts.							
3. Students that receive special education will require special education or behavior services until they complete schooling.							
4. Students with extreme behaviors need a more restrictive environment outside of school.							
	Strongly Disagree			Neither		Strongly agree	
Questions: Career Satisfaction	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. I am satisfied with the educational environment provided for students who receive special education.							
2. I am satisfied with the support I receive while working with students that display problematic behavior.							
3. I am satisfied with the programs in my school that deal with students that exhibit problematic behavior.							
4. I receive support from parents while working with students of Bridgeport Public Schools							

Appendix C

Permission

Good afternoon,

My name is Dementred Young, and I am in the dissertation phase of my doctoral program at Liberty University. I am writing to seek approval to survey building leaders in Bridgeport Public School. The survey is the instrument to research building leaders' perceptions of urban students. The study will ascertain whether the background of the building administrator affects a student's educational progress and social-emotional well-being. As a prerequisite to obtaining IRB approval, I will need your approval to conduct this survey.

If you have any questions, feel free to contact me. Thank you

Dementred Young LCSW
Director of Social Work Services
Bridgeport Public Schools
45 Lyon Terrace, Room 330
Bridgeport, CT 06604

[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]
Testani, Michael [REDACTED]
Mon 5/24/2021 9:54 AM
To: Young, Dementred [REDACTED]

OK. No issues with the survey being done.

Michael J. Testani
Superintendent of Schools
Bridgeport Public Schools [REDACTED]



CONFIDENTIALITY NOTICE: This email transmission (and/or the attachments accompanying it) may contain legally privileged and confidential information, and is intended only for the use of the individual or entity named above. If you are not the intended recipient, you are hereby notified that any dissemination, disclosure, distribution or copying of this communication is strictly prohibited. If you have received this communication in error, please promptly notify the sender by reply email and destroy the original message.

Appendix D
Participation Letter

Administrator Perceptions of Urban Raised Students

April 20, 2022

To Whom It May Concern

Dear Sir or Madam,

My name is Dementred Young, and I am a Doctoral student in Liberty University's School of Behavioral Sciences, Community Care and Counseling program. As part of my dissertation, I am conducting an investigation to assess the district leader's perception of urban students.

Your response will aid in the understanding of variables that may contribute to the discipline and special education rates of inner-city students. I would greatly appreciate your participation in this study.

This survey is voluntary and confidential and should not take any longer than 10 minutes. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved the research conducted in this survey at Liberty University. There are no expected risks associated with your participation in this study. If you have any questions, please reach out to me at [REDACTED]. You may also contact my dissertation chair, Dr. Mario Garcia, D. Min, J.D., M.Div., MCC, at [REDACTED]. Any questions related to the Liberty University IRB process can be directed at (434) 592-5530 or irb@liberty.edu.

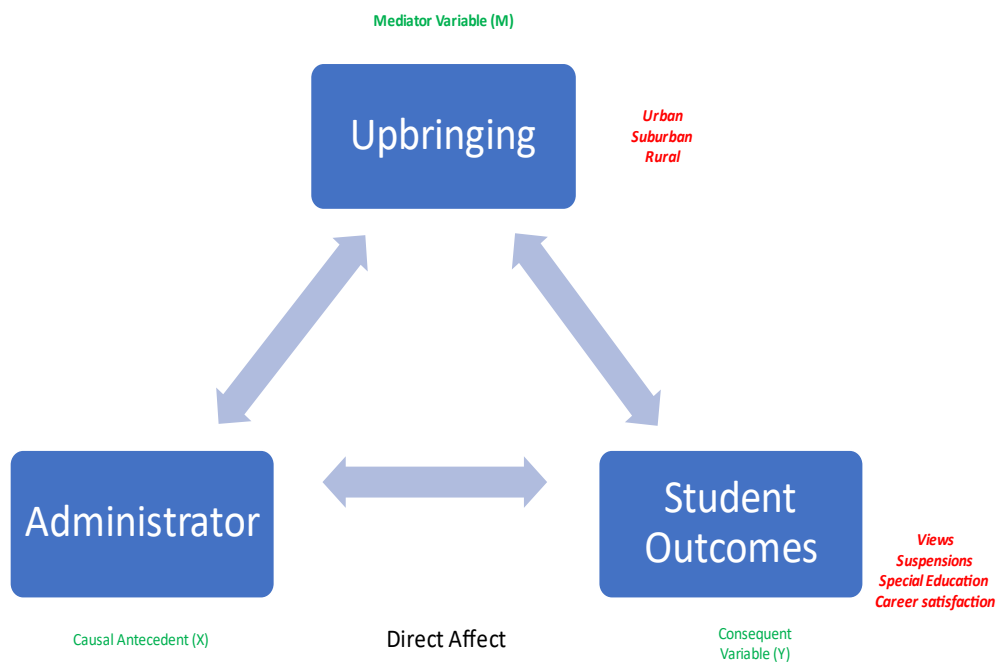
Thank you in advance for your time.

Sincerely,

Dementred Young LCSW

Appendix E

Conceptual Model: Simple Mediation Model



Appendix F

IRB Approval Letter

LIBERTY UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

September 1, 2022

Dementred Young
Mario Garcia

Re: IRB Exemption - IRB-FY21-22-1189 Administrators' Perceptions of Urban-Raised Students

Dear Dementred Young, Mario Garcia,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under the following exemption category, which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:104(d):

Category 2.(i). Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording).

The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Your stamped consent form(s) and final versions of your study documents can be found under the Attachments tab within the Submission Details section of your study on Cayuse IRB. Your stamped consent form(s) should be copied and used to gain the consent of your research participants. If you plan to provide your consent information electronically, the contents of the attached consent document(s) should be made available without alteration.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any modifications to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty University IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by completing a modification submission through your Cayuse IRB account.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible modifications to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,
G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
Research Ethics Office