SELECTED PERSONAL ATTITUDES OF INNER-CITY TEACHERS TOWARD LOW-INCOME COMMUNITIES IN RELATION TO DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

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This is to certify that the

thesis entitled

SELECTED PERSONAL ATTITUDES OF INNER-CITY TEACHERS TOWARD LOW-INCOME COMMUNITIES IN RELATION TO DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

presented by

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ABSTRACT

SELECTED PERSONAL ATTITUDES OF INNER-CITY TEACHERS TOWARD LOW-INCOME COMMUNITIES IN RELATION TO DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

By

Willard E. Roberson

Purpose of the Study

The basic purpose of this study was to determine whether there is a significant relationship between demographic variables of inner-city elementary school teachers and their attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in relation to attitudes toward children they teach from disadvantaged communities as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Methodology

The design of this study, which was comparative and descriptive in nature, sought to analyze the attitudes of urban elementary school teachers toward low-income communities in relation to their attitudes toward the children they teach from low-income communities.

Three instruments, the Personal Data Sheet, the Community Attitude Scale, and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory were used to gather the data for this study. The Personal Data Sheet was utilized to gather appropriate demographic data which served to establish the independent variables tested. The Community Attitude Scale was designed to measure the participants' degree of progressive attitudes on community life in such areas as community improvement, living conditions, and business. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was the instrument used to determine the teachers' attitude toward children they teach in the classroom.

In an effort to validate the results on the MTAI, personal interviews were scheduled with teachers, but due to the lack of any adequate teacher complicity, it was impossible to carry out the interviews.

The collected data on the sixty-three teachers teaching in an urban-industrial educational park, within a Michigan school system were coded by each independent variable and punched on data-processing cards. These cards were subsequently used in a one-way analysis of variance program (UNEQ1), through the IBM 3600 computer at Michigan State University.

Major Findings

Hypothesis 1.--Age was a key variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes

toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live. However, the second portion of Hypothesis 1 shows that age was not a key variable in determining whether or not teachers have harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 2.--Total years of teaching experience was not a significant variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live, or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 3.--Marital status was not a significant variable in determining whether or not teachers have progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 4.--Academic degree held, when used as a variable was not essential in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 5.--Teaching level when used as a variable was not influential in determining whether or

not teachers have progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 6.--Undergraduate school attended, when used as a variable was not significant in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live. However, the undergraduate school attended variable was significant in determining whether or not teachers hold harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 7.--Fathers' occupational status was not an influential variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 8.--Fathers' educational status was not an essential variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live, or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 9.--Residential background was not a significant variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live, or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 10.--Race was not an essential variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live, or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 11.--Northern or southern geographical location of rearing was not a key variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live. However, the northern or southern geographical location of rearing variable was significant in determining whether or not teachers hold harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

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By

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Statement of the Problem	5
	Rationale for the Study	6
	Hypotheses of the Study	12
	Design of the Study	14
	Definition of Terms	16
	Delimitations of the Study	18
	Organization of the Thesis	18
II.	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	20
	Introduction	20
	The Nature of Urban Poverty	22
	Urban Poverty and Its Effect on Children.	30
	Teacher Attitudes Toward Urban Disadvantaged Children	39
III.	DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	58
	Introduction	58
	Selection of the Urban School	58
	Population and Sample	61
	Statement of Testable Hypotheses	61
	Instrumentation	64
	Personal Data Form	64
	Community Attitude Scale	64
	Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory	65
	Procedures Used in the Collection of Data	67
	Statistical Analysis	73
IV.	PRESENTATION AND ANALYSES OF DATA	75
	Introduction	75
	Testing of Hypotheses	75
	Summary.	94

Chapter Page

V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS 95

Summary 95

Purpose of the Study 95
Limitations of the Study. 95
Review of the Literature. 96
Design of the Study 97

Findings of the Study 98

Further Results. 104

Conclusions 104
Implications. 107
Recommendations. 111
Recommendations for Further Study. . . 113

BIBLIOGRAPHY 116

APPENDICES

Appendix

A. Demographic Data Form. 123

B. Community Attitude Scale. 125

C. Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. . . 130

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
3-1.	Distribution of Subjects by Demographic Variables	69
4-1.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Three Age Groups	77
4-2.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Age	77
4-3.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Three Groups Regarding Total Years of Teaching Experience	78
4-4.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Total Years of Teaching Experience.	78
4-5.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Four Groups Regarding Marital Status	80
4-6.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Marital Status	80
4-7.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Three Academic Groups	81
4-8.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Academic Degree Held	81
4-9.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Two Teaching Level Groups	83

Table		Page
4-10.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Teaching Level	83
4-11.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Three Undergraduate Schools Attended Groups	84
4-12.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Undergraduate School Attended	84
4-13.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Four Fathers' Occupational Status Groups	86
4-14.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Fathers' Occupational Status	86
4-15.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Four Fathers' Educational Status Groups	87
4-16.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Fathers' Educational Status	87
4-17.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Three Residential Background Groups	89
4-18.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Residential Background.	89
4-19.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Two Race Groups.	90
4-20.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Race	90
4-21.	Mean Scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the Two Geographical Location of Rearing Groups	93
4-22.	Univariate Analysis of Variance--Geographical Location of Rearing	93

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure — Page

1. Scatter Diagram of Scores on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the Community Attitude Scale 92

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In many communities throughout the nation, public schools have been torn apart by racial strife, decentralization, community control, taxpayer revolts, student protests, and teacher strikes. The issues mentioned are just a few of the many arthritic conditions hindering the idealistic goal of education--educating every child from age 6 to 16. Therefore, most educators recognize and are continually conscious of the fact that our success in educating all children from age 6 to 16 will be somewhat limited by the sheer magnitude of the task. As a consequence, education suffers from an enormity of criticism, even from the ranks of its teachers.

Moreover, critics of education regard no facet of the system to be immune from their charges; and, their criticisms touch all educators, from the Commissioner of the United States Office of Education, to the classroom teacher. However, when criticism descends on the classroom teacher, it frequently rests most heavily on certain fixed attitudes the teacher has about disadvantaged

or low-income communities, and the children he or she teaches from those communities.

Packard elaborates on this issue to an extent by defining the type of people that comprise a disadvantaged or low-income community when he says that

> . . . the real lower class are the people everyone else looks down upon. They live in the decrepit slum areas that just about every American town has. They usually leave school as soon as legally allowed, if not before. They work erratically at unskilled or semi-skilled tasks, and try to find their pleasure where they can.[1]

Packard's findings are corroborated by Hollingshead's description of the lower class in Elmtown as seen through the eyes of their superiors:

> They have no respect for the law, or themselves. They enjoy their shacks and huts along the river and across the tracks and love their dirty, smoky, low-class dives and taverns.
>
> Whole families--children, in-laws, mistresses, and all--live in one shack.
>
> This is the crime class that produces the delinquency and sexual promiscuity that fills the paper.
>
> Their interests lie in sex and its perversion. The girls are always pregnant; the families are huge, incestual relations occur frequently.
>
> They are not inspired by education, and only a few are able to make any attainments along this line. . . .
>
> If they work, they work at very menial jobs. . . .[2]

Thus, not only is the disadvantaged or lower class faced with the most dire living conditions but they are

---

[1]Vance Packard, The Status Seekers (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1959), p. 36.

[2]August B. Hollingshead, Elmtown's Youth (New York: Wiley, 1949), pp. 110-11.

also plagued by stereotypes and fixed attitudes that other groups or classes develop and display toward them and the community they live in.

Attitudes have been defined in various ways. According to Stern there seems to be agreement on at least four points concerning attitudes.

1. Attitudes are socially formed. They are based on cultural experience and training and are revealed in cultural products. The study of life history data reveals the state of mind of the individual and of the social group from which he derives, concerning the values of the society in which he lives.
2. Attitudes are orientations toward others and toward objects.
3. Attitudes are selective. They provide for discrimination between alternative courses of action and introduce consistency of response in social situations of an otherwise diverse nature.
4. Attitudes reflect a disposition to an activity, not a verbalization. They are organizations of incipient activities, of actions not necessarily completed, and represent therefore the underlying dispositional or motivational urge.[3]

These four definitions form a basis for measuring attitudes of teachers. Although measurement is very difficult, much of teacher actions within the classroom can be defined in the terms of these four ideas. For it is evident that attitudes are socially formed, oriented toward others, are selective, and reflect in actions toward others.

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[3]George Stern, "Measuring Noncognitive Variables in Research on Teaching," Handbook of Research on Teaching (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1963), p. 404.

Citron further concludes that the

> . . . children sense the deep attitudes, spoken and silent, the real feelings. They see who is honored and who is dishonored. They hear tone and intonation, catch nuance and adopt attitudes which adults may be unaware they (the adults) carry or unaware they transfer to children.[4]

Washburne and Heil conclude that "teachers who deal with the same children every day have a definite and determinable influence upon the attitudinal growth of their pupils."[5]

The teacher is a vital element in the educational process of children, therefore the attitudes teachers display toward children from disadvantaged communities are very important. The assumption can be made from Sexton's[6] study of social class and income, that teachers can and do form attitudes about children and their achievements, if they know the type of community the child lives in, the class status and the parents' income level. Sexton states that:

> Social class is also a fairly accurate predictor of success in school. If you know a child's class status, his family income, his parents' educational

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[4]Abraham F. Citron, The Rightness of Whiteness (Detroit, Mich.: Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory Publication, February, 1969), p. 12.

[5]C. Washburne and C. Heil, "What Characteristics of Teachers Affect Children's Growth?" The School Review, 1960, p. 426.

[6]Patricia Cayo Sexton, Education and Income (New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1961).

> levels, you can quite accurately predict what will happen to him in school and how successful he will be.[7]

Silberman corroborates the assumption drawn from Sexton's study in his statement of three primary findings concerning teachers' attitudes toward children.

1. Teachers' attitudes are generally revealed in their actions, in spite of many forces operating to contain their expression.
2. Different attitudes are translated in different ways.
3. Students who receive transmissions are aware of most behavioral expressions of their teacher's attitudes.[8]

Thus, schools are a major instrument of socialization, and schools reflect the best and the worst attitudes in the society as such, teachers pass through a certifying institution which socializes them to consider certain behavior patterns and attitudes as normal. However, teachers must begin to evaluate their attitudes and behavior on the basis of their impact on children.

Statement of the Problem

The problem in this study is to determine if there is a significant relationship between demographic variables of inner-city school teachers and their attitudes toward disadvantaged or low-income communities,

---

[7] Ibid., p. 40.

[8] Melvin L. Silberman, "Behavioral Expression of Teachers' Attitudes Toward Elementary School Students," Journal of Educational Psychology, LX (October, 1969), 402-07.

and whether the attitudes teachers form regarding disadvantaged communities correlate significantly with the way in which teachers feel and behave toward those children they teach from disadvantaged communities.

Although the problem has several elements, that should be considered, such as (1) demographic variables, (2) socio-psychological variables, (3) contact variables, and (4) knowledge variables, only selected demographic variables will be measured.

Rationale for the Study

The need for research on teacher attitudes intensified during the past decade, because of the increased failure of schools to educate the children from disadvantaged or low-income communities.

The fact that schools were not successful in educating children from disadvantaged communities, contributed tremendously to the volatile climate existing between school and community. For example, teachers criticize parents for the lack of involvement in the educational process of their children; and, parents vehemently retorted that biased teacher attitudes help create a syndrome of failure and rebellion in the urban child's school experience. Thus, according to Kernesky and Melby, "the school is the final destructive force

in the life of many children."[9] However, most research and reports have concentrated on the attitudes of individuals toward communism and the attitudes of individuals toward the Democratic principles. Some of the research has also dealt with the attitudes of children towards teachers. The present study deals with an area neglected by most researchers--the attitudes of teachers toward disadvantaged communities in relation to their attitude and behavior towards children they teach from disadvantaged communities.

Thus, it is more understandable, if it were not so before, that it is important for teachers to be given the chance to become aware and conscious of their attitudes and behavior towards the disadvantaged communities in relation to their attitude and behavior towards children they teach from disadvantaged communities. However, most teachers come through classrooms similar to those in which they now teach.

Research on teacher attitudes can facilitate the training and proper placement of teachers. Therefore, those teachers who are cognizant of their attitude and behavior toward children increase the probability of creating an effective educational program. Davis corroborates the fact that teachers should be cognizant of

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[9]Vasil M. Kerensky and Ernest O. Melby, Education II--The Social Imperative (Midland, Mich.: Pendell Publishing Company, 1971), p. 27.

their attitudes when he cites two significant findings regarding the relationship between particular attitudes held by the teacher and effective learning:

1. All school-learning is stimulated or hindered by the teacher's feelings toward the student. Each must have faith and trust in each other.
2. All school-learning is influenced by the cultural attitudes which the teacher has toward the student and which the student experiences toward the teacher. In rejecting the cultural background, the teacher often appears to reject the student himself as a human being. In return, and as early as the first grade, the student may reject the culture of the school and of the teacher. Both teacher and pupil must learn to respect the ability and position of the other.[10]

This issue to an extent was investigated by Rosenthal and Jacobson. They conducted a study at a San Francisco school with a large student population of low socioeconomic status Mexican Americans. The teachers were told in the lower grades that certain children (randomly picked by the researchers) were "potential academic spurters."[11] Achievement tests were administered to the supposed "spurters" and to a control group at the beginning of the school year and several times during the next two years. Results of this study indicate the "children from whom teachers expected greater intellectual

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[10] A. Davis, "Changing the Culture of the Disadvantaged Student," in Proceedings of the AHEA Workshop, Working With Low Income Families (Washington, D.C.: American Home Economics Association, 1965), pp. 22-23.

[11] R. Rosenthal and Lenore F. Jacobson, "Teacher Expectations for the Disadvantaged," Scientific American, CCXVIII (April, 1968), 22.

gains showed such gains."[12] The gains were greatest in the first and second grades, and "the average gain of the randomly picked 'spurters' was better than 27 test points."[13] After the end of the first year, the "spurters" were characterized by their teachers

> . . . as having a better chance of being successful in later life and as being happier, more curious, and more interesting than other children. There was also a tendency for the designated children to be seen as more appealing, better adjusted, and more affectionate, and as less in need of social approval. In short, the children for whom intellectual growth was expected became more alive and autonomous intellectually, or were at least so perceived by their teachers.[14]

The study conducted by Rosenthal carries major implications for modern educational practice. In Rosenthal's words:

> If it could be learned how (the teacher) is able to bring about dramatic improvements in the performance of her pupils without formal changes in her methods of teaching, other teachers could be taught to do the same. If further research showed that it is possible to find teachers whose untrained educational style does for their pupils what our teachers did for the special children, the prospect would arise that a combination of sophisticated selection of teachers would give all children a boost toward getting as much as they possibly can out of their schooling.[15]

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[12] Ibid.

[13] Ibid.

[14] Ibid.

[15] Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson, Pygmalion in the Classroom (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968), p. 20.

Rosenthal and Jacobson's study which encompassed "low socioeconomic status" Mexican Americans, demonstrated how the attitudes and expectations of teachers influenced the educational advancement and emotional adjustment of these children; these facts do have some meaning for the present study. Teachers have attitudes where their children are concerned, and to expect other than this from them is to deny teachers the right to be human. However, it is unfortunate that teacher attitudes and expectations are quite often influenced by geographical, racial, and class stereotypes.

Torrance[16] hypothesized that the teacher's attitudes are intervening variables in the effectiveness of the learning process. His results show that although the teacher may try to inculcate the "right" attitudes, the teacher's "real" attitudes will show through. Silberman supports this hypothesis when he stated, " . . . even when the attitude is unconscious the teacher cannot avoid communicating it to the children in some way or other."[17]

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[16]E. Paul Torrance, "Teacher Attitudes and Pupil Perception," The Journal of Teacher Education, XI (March, 1960), 97-102.

[17]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in Black and White (New York: Random House, 1964).

Thus, according to Arthur Pearl:

> The teacher's responsibility is to teach but instead we engage in self-fulfilling prophecy. We decide that certain people cannot be educated. We refuse to educate them; they grow up uneducated and we pride ourselves on our exceedingly predictive index.[18]

The effect teacher attitudes have on disadvantaged inner-city children helps to explain a failure of American education.

Furthermore, the attitudes teachers have towards the disadvantaged or low-income communities is closely related to their attitudes towards disadvantaged children and, therefore, has great impact upon the effectiveness of the child's educational experience.

In summary, tenets which fashion the need for this study are seen as having significant implications for those who are concerned with the nature of human communication, the improvement of staff selection, and the utilization of pertinent information concerning ethnic and regional attitudes of teachers. To a degree some emphasis is placed on the fact that the findings will have implication for an improved educational experience for disadvantaged children from low-income communities.

Hopefully, the findings from this study will assist the following individuals: (1) school administrators, (2) community school directors, (3) teachers,

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[18]Arthur Pearl, Educational Change: Why--How--For Whom (San Francisco: San Francisco Human Rights Commission, 1968). (Compiled from speeches.)

(4) children, (5) parents, and (6) the Mott Program directors. Moreover, if teacher attitudes are viewed as being a vital element in education, such research is necessary.

Hypotheses of the Study

The major objective of this study is to determine whether there is a significant relationship between demographic variables of inner-city school teachers and their attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in relation to their attitudes toward children they teach from disadvantaged communities. The following hypotheses will be investigated:

Hypothesis 1:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' age and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale (CAS) and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI).

Hypothesis 2:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' total years of teaching experience and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 3:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' marital status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their

attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 4:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' academic degree held and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 5:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' teaching levels and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 6:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' undergraduate school attended and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 7:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' fathers' occupational status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 8:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' fathers' educational status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to

their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 9:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' residential background and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 10:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' race and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 11:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' northern or southern geographical location of rearing and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitudes Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Design of the Study

The study was designed to analyze the attitudes of inner-city school teachers toward disadvantaged or low-income communities in relation to their attitudes toward the children they teach from those disadvantaged communities.

Frequently, a major problem in studies dealing with the measurement of attitudes emanates from the lack

of valid instruments. However, the Community Attitude Scale, developed by C. Bosworth,[19] and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, developed by Walter W. Cook, Carroll H. Leeds, and Robert Callis[20] are used in this study to determine whether there is a significant relationship between teacher attitudes toward disadvantaged communities and their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities.

The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory questionnaire will be used to interview teachers regarding their attitudes toward children they teach from disadvantaged communities.

The interviews will take place a half-hour prior to the opening of school and a half-hour after school closes.

The basic procedure employed in the design of this study included the selection of the sample, the collection of the data by administering the instrument to the subjects, the analysis of the data in terms of the objectives of the study, and the formulation of discussions and recommendations which could be

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[19]C. Bosworth, "A Study of the Development and the Validation of a Measure of Citizens' Attitudes Toward Progress and Game Variables Related Thereto" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1954).

[20]Walter W. Cook, Carroll H. Leeds, and Robert Callis, The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, Manual (New York: The Psychological Corporation).

appropriately drawn from the research results. The study is comparative and descriptive in that it sought to obtain data about a phenomenon in education.

Investigation substantiates the fact that a preponderance of studies dealing with the attitudinal measure utilize the .05 significance level when measuring attitudes. Therefore, the hypotheses within the present study may bear out significance only at the .05 level and beyond.

Thus, in the present study the level of rejection for the hypotheses was established at the .05 level.

A Demographic Questionnaire used to supplement the Community Attitude Scale and Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was developed especially for the purposes of this study. The study is designed to determine whether attitudes toward disadvantaged communities and children are significantly affected by such demographic variables as age, educational level, and geographical situation.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are operationally defined in order to avoid semantic confusion concerning this study:

Demographic Variables.--are specific personal characteristics of an individual (i.e., sex, age, geographic background, etc.).

Inner-City School System.--is a complex of public supported schools characterized by a core of schools with a predominantly minority (Black and Chicano) student population.

Disadvantaged Children.--are those children who lack the necessary social skills and values due to economic deprivation and educational retardation. These disadvantages alienate them from the mainstream of society. Children who have not had exposure to language, as it is spoken by the educated adults in our land, who have not had exposure to written or pictorial materials that will assist them in learning, and those who have not had access to the other types of experiences that will equip them with a positive and confident attitude toward learning are designated as being disadvantaged children.

Attitude.--refers to an emotional stereotype. A generalized reaction for or against a specific psychological object.[21]

Inner-City Teachers.--are teachers who teach in the public schools of an urban community.

---

[21]L. Thurston and E. J. Chave, The Measurement of Attitude (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929).

Disadvantaged or Low-Income Community.--refers to the employed or unemployed residents of a community who receive $3,700 or less a year.

Delimitations of the Study

The delimitations of this study are as follows:

1. This study deals only with the phases of the program from pre-kindergarten to fourth grade and inclusive, implemented by certificated staff.
2. This study is concerned only with the analysis of the attitudes inner-city school teachers have toward disadvantaged communities in relation to their attitudes toward the children from those communities.
3. No attempt is made to evaluate the effectiveness of teachers or programs in terms of structure or outcome. No attempt is made to postulate ideal teacher attitudes. No attempt is made to postulate an ideal instructional situation or setting in relation to the attitudes teachers have about disadvantaged communities and children they teach from those communities.

Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is organized as follows:

Chapter I presents the rationale for the study, the statement of the problem, the description of the

data-gathering instruments, the limitations, the hypotheses to be tested, the terms pertinent to the study, and an overview of the thesis.

In Chapter II, related research and literature pertinent to the attitudes of teachers have been reviewed. This chapter contains relevant investigations upon which the present study is based.

In Chapter III, a description of the methodology and procedures of the study are included. Information is included on instrumentation and the statistical procedure used in the analysis of the data.

In Chapter IV, the research data and results of the analysis of the data are presented. The testing of hypotheses appear in this chapter.

In Chapter V, a summary of the results, conclusions, and recommendations of the study are included.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of a review of related literature is to survey the profusion of books, publications, and articles upon which the present research is based. The author will not attempt to report on all of the literature. Only pertinent research contributing knowledge related to the study will be investigated.

A survey of the literature indicates that critics of education continue to deplore the fact that the public schools have not been as perceptive as they might have been in regard to the problem of educating the low-income or the disadvantaged child. Some critics of education are of the opinion that schools reflect the attitudes of the society they serve. This point is corroborated by Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb: "The American School . . . reflects the socio-economic order in everything that it does, in what it teaches, whom it teaches, who does the

teaching, who does the hiring and firing of the teachers and what the children learn in and out of the classroom."[1]

Fortunately, the earlier research done by Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb was not ignored. Since that time the problem has received a considerable amount of attention and support from the Federal Government. The Federal Government showed its concern by enacting such legislation as the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Elementary-Secondary Education Act of 1965, and the Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966. Furthermore, there had been frequent allusion to the need to eradicate poverty in former President Johnson's description of the "Great Society" and the function education must play to achieve that goal.[2]

In order to investigate the different areas of this study it is imperative, for the sake of clarity, to delimit the review to three areas: (1) The Nature of Urban Poverty, (2) Urban Poverty and Its Effect Upon Children, and (3) Teacher Attitudes Toward Urban Disadvantaged Children.

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[1]W. Lloyd Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin Loeb, Who Shall Be Educated? The Challenge of Unequal Opportunities (New York: Harper and Row, 1944), p. 11.

[2]Frederick W. Bertolaet and Raphael O. Nystrand, "Urban Educational Problems," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 1969.

The Nature of Urban Poverty

The literature indicates that areas containing a higher incidence of disadvantaged or low-income families than are found in other communities, is due in part to racial discrimination, and mostly economic and social deprivation.[3]

> During 1970, tremendous interest was focused on those living in urban areas who were able to work but whose actual incomes were intolerably low because of chronic unemployment or intermittent unemployment, low wage rate, or a combination of both. This population includes the groups commonly referred to as "disadvantaged," "hard core," "ghetto," and "minority." And within these groups many families have total incomes below the poverty threshold, approximately $3,700 a year for a family of four. Though the majority of poor were white, the incidence of poverty was heaviest in black and the other minority groups. The Bureau of the Census reports that in 1967, in the central cities of metropolitan areas, the number of poor whites (4.7 million) exceeded the number of poor Negroes (3.5 million) by about 35 per cent. But the proportion of Negroes who were poor (30 per cent) was three times that of whites (10 per cent).[4]
>
> And the percentage for Spanish-Americans, who are mainly counted as whites, was even higher than for blacks. Out of the total number of poor, about 10.7 million (42 per cent) were children under 18.[5]

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[3]Ralph H. Rogers, "Health Characteristics of School Children Aged 8 to 9, in a Socio-Economic Poverty Area and Their Relation to Age and Achievement" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1971).

[4]"Training and Jobs for the Urban Poor," A Statement on National Policy, by the Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development, July, 1970, pp. 21-22.

[5]U.S., Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Consumer Income Series, P-60, No. 68, December 31, 1969.

The single most astonishing fact included in the figures referred to above is that many of the families indicated as being disadvantaged or low income have employed heads of the family. Willie provides additional evidence to support the fact that the heads of low-income families are employed when he states that:

> A 1963 survey of 1,000 households in the four square mile area surrounding Cardoza High School in the District of Columbia revealed that 190 of the households have "employed" heads who earn less than $3,000 per year. In most instances, the head is an unskilled worker who continues to work even though his earnings are insufficient to support his family. His the lot of the employed poor.[6]

The Research and Policy Committee for Economic Development further reports:

> About 30 per cent of poor white families, but only 11 per cent of poor Negro families, were headed by persons over 64 years old. In the under 65 group, 60 per cent of poor white families were headed by males and 40 per cent by females; with Negro families the proportions were reversed, 62 per cent were headed by females and 38 per cent by males.[7]

Thus these figures indicate that a relatively high proportion of white poverty is associated with age, and a relatively high proportion of black poverty is associated with fatherless families.

In investigating the literature on the socio-economic lower class, it becomes quite clear that there

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[6]Charles V. Willie, "Education, Deprivation and Alienation," Journal of Negro Education, XXXIV (Summer, 1965), 210.

[7]Training and Jobs for the Urban Poor, op. cit.

are certain distinguishing characteristics that seem to apply fairly generally to socio-economic lower-class families or communities. In the following paragraphs attention will be devoted to these lower-class characteristics referred to above.

In reference to the characteristics of the socio-economic lower class, Fine used the term "culturally disadvantaged" while referring to the men and women over age 16 that live outside the mainstream of American life in urban ghettos and in isolated rural areas. To paraphrase Fine further, this group includes both minority members (Negroes, Mexican-Americans, Indians), and whites. They are functionally illiterate. Their reading ability rarely is above sixth grade. If they are hired as workers, they must frequently be provided with basic education by their employers. They are people who have not experienced our mainstream culture in terms of buying and maintaining decent housing, eating balanced meals, wearing good clothes, and indulging in recreational pursuits.[8]

Havighurst further concludes that these groups are about evenly divided between whites and nonwhites. They consist of the following:

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[8]Sidney A. Fine, Guidelines for Employment of the Culturally Disadvantaged (Kalamazoo: The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, June, 1969).

1. Negroes from the rural south who have migrated recently to the northern industrial cities.
2. Whites from the rural south and southern mountains who have migrated recently to the northern industrial cities.
3. Puerto Ricans, who have migrated to a few northern industrial cities.
4. Mexicans, with a rural background, who have migrated into the west and middle west.
5. European immigrants with a rural background, from Eastern and Southern Europe.[9]

The above findings and possibly other research will support the fact that poverty in recent years has stemmed primarily from the country's rural areas, particularly those in the south, where it historically has been widespread and chronic. In the great migrations from rural to urban areas during the war and post-war periods, poverty migrated along with the people.

Thus according to the New York Times migration of minority groups was tapering off by the end of the 1960's and though greater numbers of their members were moving from central cities to suburbs, the concentration of blacks and other minority groups in cities promises to continue. The report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorder projected that by 1985 thirteen of the nation's largest cities would be predominantly Black.[10]

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[9]Robert J. Havighurst, "Who Are the Disadvantaged?" The Journal of Negro Education, XXXIV (Winter, 1965), 43.

[10]"Training and Jobs for the Urban Poor," New York Times Edition, 1968, A Statement on National Policy by the Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development, July, 1970, p. 391.

It is questionable whether a realistic comparison can be made regarding the early migration of people from the old world and this new migration of disadvantaged Americans from the rural areas to the urban cities. The early migrants were unable to meet the problems of adaptation; due in part to the economic problems that complicated their hopes of survival in the large urban cities.

> The European immigrants of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries also had to adapt to an America that was in the throes of change. They faced inevitable difficulties in adjusting to a new life and a new language. But a rapidly growing economy generally needed their labor, skilled and unskilled. They developed the capacity to assist later immigrants in adjusting to the new surroundings. They brought their values and loyalties conducive to the development leadership. Thus they have enjoyed a solid basis from which to move into American life, and the American school greatly accelerated the process of assimilation. The second and third generations have been able to participate fully in American progress.[11]

The hopes and aspirations of the early migrants seemingly were launched from a more anchored foundation than the new disadvantaged American migrants. The new disadvantaged American migrants are unable to cope with the new urban environment that they face. This is possibly due to the limited number of jobs available to the unskilled, and their lack of education. The

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[11]The Education Policies Commission, "Education and the Disadvantaged American" (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1962), p. 9.

mobility of the disadvantaged American migrants tended to impede and hinder rather than help them overcome socio-economic disabilities.

> Thus mobility often fails to relieve misery. Indeed, mobility becomes a way of life for many of the disadvantaged, who move from place to place within the city, seeking to better themselves. Nor is the lot of those who remain in rural areas necessarily improved in the long run by the departure of others. Depopulation and the growing inadequacy of the old ways to the demands of the new agriculture reinforce the processes of social deterioration in the rural society.[12]

The Education Policies Commission further concludes that:

> In this migration the tragic inadequacy of old cultures for new needs continues to exact its toll. In the cities as on the farms, jobs for the unskilled are decreasing, and the migrants are less able than are the better educated persons to be trained for skilled positions. They have little of the understanding required of wise consumers. Often they and their children reject schooling. Inferior and overpriced housing further handicaps their health, education and ability to support themselves.[13]

One of the characteristics of the new disadvantaged American migrant noted in the material above, is the various debilitating forces which nurture aspirational

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[12]The Education Policies Commission, "Education and the Disadvantaged American" (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1962), p. 5.

[13]Ibid., p. 6.

defeatism. "The new poverty is constructed so as to destroy aspiration; it is a system designed to be impervious to hope."[14]

Harrington further reports:

> . . . one of the most important things about the new poverty is that it cannot be defined in simple, statistical terms. Throughout this book a crucial term is used: aspiration. If a group has internal vitality, a will--if it has aspiration--it may live in dilapidated housing, it may eat an inadequate diet, and it may suffer poverty, but it is not impoverished. So it was in those ethnic slums of the immigrants that played such a dramatic role in the unfolding of the American dream. The people found themselves in slums, but they were not slum dwellers.[15]

Persons and Leske further conclude that there are four reasons why the aspirations of the poor, in this new kind of poverty, contributed to their decision to remain in the disadvantaged areas:

1. The people may not perceive themselves as disadvantaged.
2. The disadvantaged adults may have a degree of satisfaction with their station in life.
3. They often have psychological barriers to movement from one social strata to another. This might be fear of failure or unwillingness to accept more responsibility which a higher strata may demand, and fear of unknown expectations in the job or task of a higher level.
4. The persons may lack the self-confidence to achieve.[16]

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[14]Michael Harrington, The Other America (Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1962), p. 17.

[15]Ibid., p. 17.

[16]Edgar Persons and Gary Leske, "Adapting Adult Education to the Disadvantaged" (paper read at the Training Institute for Rural Disadvantaged, August 17, 1970, Willmar, Minnesota).

Dunkelberger made another study of aspirations. He interviewed 965 male heads of households in seven southern states. His investigation, carried out in low-income areas of the South, focused on levels and intensity of aspirations of job mobility. Two closely intertwined adult goals, occupations and income, were chosen as the most appropriate status attributes for the purpose of measuring intensity of adult aspiration. He found that many men had a high latent aspiration for occupational mobility and that their manifest level of aspiration would therefore rise in the event that changes occurred in their personal situation which removed any of the limitations serving to suppress these aspirations.

He reported that persons dissatisfied with either their job, family income, or family residence had much more intense aspirations, and persons giving or placing priorities to secular values including job, education, community, and recreation over religion and family had more intense aspirations. Dunkelberger also found that persons aspiring to blue-collar occupations had more intense job mobility aspirations than persons aspiring to white-collar or farm occupations. He concluded that workers, when they became aware of their limitations, had lowered their level of aspiration to a point consistent with their prospects for achievement. Although their levels of aspiration were low in terms

of the goals desired, the goals themselves were realistic, and desired with considerable intensity.[17]

If this aspirational defeatism is allowed to go unchecked it will ultimately infect the children with the same type of hopelessness that entraps their parents. Though the social agencies may have spent time changing the slum dweller's residence, by replacing the hovel he has been living in, some pessimists agree that good

> . . . public housing may even change the physical face of the slum beyond recognition. But the impoverishment and disorder which are the essence of a slum seem to remain. They can only be eliminated when the slum dweller himself changes.[18]

At this point an examination of the effect poverty has had on the children who were unfortunate enough to be irrevocably trapped in a vicious cycle of deprivation will follow.

Urban Poverty and Its Effect on Children

The research findings indicate that in America, poverty and gettoization are two real reasons why disadvantaged urban parents and their children are stereotyped and often forced to occupy an inferior place in

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[17]John E. Dunkelberger, "Intensity of Job Mobility Aspiration Among Household Heads in Low-Income Areas of the Rural South" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Mississippi State University, 1965), pp. 164-69.

[18]Christopher Jencks, "Slums and Schools," New Republic, CXLVII (September 10, 1962), 19.

society's social structure. Even though there are many children living in poverty, being poor in America is not a birth-right. However, there are still some people who believe differently

> . . . the real explanation of why the poor are where they are is that they have made the mistake of being born to the wrong parents, in the wrong section of the country, in the wrong industry, or in the wrong racial or ethnic group. Once that mistake has been made, they could have been paragons of will and morality, but most of them would never even have had a chance to get out of the other America.
>
> There are two important ways of saying this: The poor are caught in a vicious circle; or, the poor live in a culture of poverty.[19]

This point is further corroborated to an extent by Passow as he states that:

> . . . the child tends to be restricted to his immediate environment, with conducted explorations "outside" being infrequent and sometimes non-existent. In the slums, there is little opportunity to observe natural beauty, clean landscapes or other pleasant aesthetically pleasing surroundings.[20]

Although some of the fortunate and possibly a few of the less fortunate individuals, believe that persons living in poverty had mistakenly damned themselves by selecting the wrong parents at birth, there are other rational-thinking individuals in society who believe that birth is not the basis of poverty. Sexton,

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[19]Harrington, op. cit., p. 21.

[20]A. Harry Passow, ed., Education in Depressed Areas (New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1963), p. 167.

in Education and Income, provides evidence that supports this assumption. She contends that education plays a significant role in the problems of urban poverty.

> National surveys show that job security also increases with educational levels. A college graduate had almost twice as good a chance of working throughout the 1958 recession as did the person with only an elementary education.[21]

Sexton further confirms that "almost two thirds of those who earn incomes of less than $2,000.00 annually have no more than an elementary education."[22]

Research indicates that depressed income levels are related to low educational levels. Low educational levels depress income. This vicious cycle may have a great deal to do with the continued problems of the urban poor.

In corroborating Sexton's finding, Lipset and Bendix conclude that an individual from a lower socio-economic family will typically receive little education or vocational counseling; while he attends school his job plans for the future will be vague, and when he leaves school he is likely to take the first available job he can find. Thus, they maintain that poverty, limited education, absence of personal contact, lack of planning, and failure to explore fully the available job

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[21]Patricia C. Sexton, Education and Income (New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1961), p. 13.

[22]Ibid., p. 15.

opportunities that characterize the lower socio-economic family are handed down from generation to generation. They further contend that the same cumulation of factors, which in the working class creates a series of mounting disadvantages, work to the advantage of a child coming from a well-to-do family. The social status of parents and the education of their children is, therefore, closely related both to the nature of the latter's first jobs and to the pattern of their later careers.[23]

Quite obviously, the facts presented above seem to discredit the assumption that birth is the basis of poverty. Although one of the characteristics regarding the slum child not noted in the evidence presented earlier by Sexton, Lipset, and Bendix was that of the environment in which he lives. Kerber and Smith describe the milieu from which the disadvantaged child has emerged in the following manner:

> In general, these children do not know enough of our cultural heritage, do not have the possessions, rewards, competencies, or knowledge which are too much taken for granted as given everybody in the American society. The culturally poor child has some of the following characteristics:
> 1. He comes from a blighted segregated, or socially disorganized area.
> 2. His family has little education and are often hostile and abusive.
> 3. The socio-economic status of the home is low, employment and money to pay bills are constant insecurities.

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[23]Seymour M. Lipset and Reinhard Bendix, Social Mobility in Industrial Society (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1959), pp. 197-98.

4. The cultural traits of home and neighborhood--the arts, ideational resources, social organizations and recreational outlets, and esthetic surroundings are squalid and inadequate.
5. The cultural environment conditions him to violence and degradation. He has few opportunities to experience the meaning of the spoken American ideals.[24]

In light of the evidence presented in the above description regarding the disadvantaged child's environment, it is easy to visualize the debilitating circumstances that all too often thwart any hope of him escaping the "ghetto." However, many of these children present a puzzling paradox in that it is often very difficult to distinguish between them and the more fortunate youngsters. Thus, according to Harrington:

> Clothes make the poor invisible too: America has the best dressed poverty the world has ever known. For a variety of reasons, the benefits of mass production have been spread much more evenly in this area than in many others. It is much easier in the United States to be decently clothed than it is to be decently housed, fed, or doctored. Even people with terribly depressed incomes can look prosperous.[25]

Despite the possession of decent or suitable clothes which often makes the disadvantaged child invisible or hard to distinguish from the more fortunate youngster in school, there are other inherent disabilities

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[24]August Kerber and Wilfred Smith, eds., Educational Issues in a Changing Society (Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1964), p. 155.

[25]Harrington, op. cit., pp. 12-13.

about his life that will not allow him an opportunity to shield his blighted background.

Riessman[26] in accordance with the above material, provides evidence to indicate that the lack of a satisfactory parental relationship is a significant factor in the disadvantaged child's background. He contends that in the disadvantaged child's environment there is a common pattern and to think of the underprivileged family as consisting of a father, mother, and children alone is to miss vital aspects of this family today.

> The home typically includes aunts, uncles, and grandparents, all of whom may, to a degree, play a parental role. Intense parent-child relationships are infrequent, and while the danger of parental rejection is present, over protection is out of the question.[27]

Obviously, there are many other crippling disabilities that contribute to the disadvantaged child's background before he enters school. Evidence to attest this fact is provided by Conant as he quotes the principal of a slum school in describing the environment from which these youngsters come, " . . . in such an environment all forms of evil flourish, the peddling of dope,

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[26]F. Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child (New York: Harper and Brothers Inc., 1962), p. 36.

[27]Ibid., p. 37.

drunkenness, disease, accidents, truancies, physical, mental and moral handicaps, sex perversions involving children. . . . "[28]

Further evidence in support of Conant's findings is discussed by Klopf and Laster in the following manner:

(a) In about half of the homes one or both parents had a history of alcoholism, criminality, poverty and instability.
(b) Practically all of the homes may be described as culturally deprived.
(c) The houses, like the neighborhoods in which they live, are generally ugly.
(d) About a fourth of the children are born out of wedlock.
(e) There is little evidence of family pride.
(f) Half of the homes are without a male head.
(g) Parents had made no definite plans for their children's future.
(h) By and large parents did not teach their children self-respect.
(i) Children have not been taught to aspire for more than day-to-day success.
(j) The "problem" child has no clear conceptions of success as defined in traditional American thought.
(k) Case histories of most of these families reveal a series of traumatic stresses, strains and breakups brought on by chronic illness, imprisonment, poverty and/or separations.[29]

It is no wonder that the parents of youngsters who have led normal, or possibly sheltered lives, fear for the welfare of their children. Thus, it is easy to see that without the stimulation of positively oriented adults who are interested in the lower-class child's

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[28]James B. Conant, Slums and Suburbs (New York: New American Library, 1964), p. 22.

[29]Gordon J. Klopf and Israel A. Laster, Integrating the Urban School (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963), p. 4.

learning and future welfare, the child would have to be most fortunate to enter school without possessing some debilitating form of retardation. In corroboration with this contention, Deutsch states:

> The thesis is that the lower-class child enters the school situation so poorly prepared to produce what the school demands that initial failures are almost inevitable, and the school experience becomes negatively rather than positively reinforced. Thus the child's experience in school does nothing to counteract the invidious influences to which it is exposed in his slum, and sometimes segregated, neighborhood.[30]

Silberman further concludes that the child from the slums often lacks of the sensory development that ordinary experience provides. "Providing such experiences in school or community programs is most helpful, but as the child goes on through school the home influence continues to fail to provide the experiences that will help the child to profit most from his school experience unless some change is made in the home."[31]

While a vivid description has been presented regarding the stunted and often distorted background of the lower-class child before he enters school, very little attention has been devoted to the importance of proper language with which a child needs in order

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[30]Martin Deutsch, "The Disadvantaged Child and the Learning Process," in Education in Depressed Areas, ed. by A. Harry Passow (New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1963), p. 66.

[31]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in Black and White (New York: Random House, 1965), p. 370.

to seek for more information and understanding. Thus, it is easy to see that when a child enters the academic arena without the ability to understand, to speak correctly, and to ask questions clearly, he is immediately put at a distinct disadvantage.

In connection with the above point of view, Robison and Mukerji in a study of the disadvantaged child's language, contend that, "while their most important need is for a larger, functional vocabulary, other language needs include fluency and more standard forms of syntax, enunciation and pronunciation."[32]

In addition to Robison and Mukerji findings, Ortego in discussing the bilingual child, provides evidence supporting the fact that a child's ability to speak correctly is important. He indicates that if a bilingual child is unable to speak correctly he is often relegated to classes for the mentally retarded because teachers, school psychologists, and administrators have equated a poor capacity to function effectively in English with low intellectual capacity.[33]

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[32]Helen F. Robison and Rose Mukerji, "Language, Concepts--and the Disadvantaged," Educational Leadership, XXIII (November, 1965), 135.

[33]Philip D. Ortego, "Schools for Mexican-Americans: Between Two Cultures," Saturday Review, LIV, No. 16 (April 17, 1971), 64.

Deutsch, in reference to the previous view, is of the opinion that the causes hindering the disadvantaged child's ability to use proper language is due in part to the nonverbally oriented environment in the lower-class home. And while the environment is a noisy one, the noise is not, for the most part, meaningful in relation to the child, and for him most of it is background.[34]

All of the literature investigated to this point provides an almost complete syndrome of why certain expectations, opinions, and attitudes have developed toward the low-income community and the disadvantaged child. It appears that the same conditions will play an important part in forming the attitudes teachers will have toward these children when they enter school.

Teacher Attitudes Toward Urban Disadvantaged Children

A review of the literature provides evidence of the fact that teacher attitudes play a vital role in the learning process and pupil fulfillment. Noteworthy authors have written on this topic and in this section the principle points of what they have to state in regard to this subject as it relates to the disadvantaged child will be covered.

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[34]Deutsch, op. cit., p. 171.

Attitudes have been defined in a number of ways. Katz, one of the foremost writers on the "science of attitudes" suggests that an:

> Attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some symbol or object or aspect of his world in a favorable or unfavorable manner. Opinion is the verbal expression of attitude but some attitudes include both the effective, or peeling core of liking or disliking, and the cognitive or belief elements which describe the objective of the attitude, its characteristics and its relation to other objects. All attitudes, thus include beliefs, but all beliefs are not attitudes. When specific attitudes are organized into hierarchial structures, they comprise a value system.[35]

Allport in corroborating Katz's definition of attitudes, further concludes that:

> . . . attitudes are never directly observed, but, unless they are admitted, through inference, as real and substantial ingredients in human nature it becomes impossible to account satisfactorily either for the consistency of any individual's behavior, or for the stability of any society.[36]

In a study by Heil, Powel, and Feifer[37] evidence was provided to confirm the fact that certain types of teachers get along better with certain types of pupils. The ability to classify teachers and pupils as to types

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[35]Daniel Katz, "A Functional Approach to the Study of Attitudes," Public Opinion Quarterly, XXIV (1962), 163-68.

[36]F. H. Allport, Theories of Perception and the Concept of Structure (New York: Wiley, 1955).

[37]Beeman N. Phillips, "The Individual and the Classroom Group as Frames of Reference in Determining Teacher Effectiveness," Journal of Educational Research, LVIII (November, 1964), 124.

is indicative of the fact that attitudes are recognizable in the classroom environment, and that these attitudes do play a significant role.

Thelen[38] in accordance with the findings of Heil, Powel, and Feifer indicates that teachers and students vary, and the crucial problem is to get the right combination for the most effective teaching-learning process.

Fantini and Weinstein[39] refer to this as a "match" of teacher behaviors with learning styles of the disadvantaged, whereas Goldberg[40] calls it the "fit."

Phillips[41] further contends that children and teachers are different; and the analysis of teacher behavior should be directed toward obtaining the right "mesh" or best combination.

Therefore, it is obvious, according to the facts presented above, that if teachers teaching in disadvantaged schools are improperly "meshed" or "matched" with certain

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[38]H. A. Thelen, Classroom Grouping for Teachability (New York: Wiley, 1967).

[39]M. D. Fantini and G. Weinstein, The Disadvantaged Challenge to Education (New York: Harper, 1968).

[40]M. L. Goldberg, "Adopting Teacher Styles to Pupil Differences: Teacher for Disadvantaged Children," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, X (1964), 161-78.

[41]J. A. Phillips, Jr., "Teacher Typologies," High School Journal, LI (1967), 26-31.

children in class they become "bewildered and desperate; they feel they cannot reach these children; they clutch at the teaching choices (which their own experience and education contradict); they bitterly submit to a 'trainer's' role or misguidedly try a clinician's role, and they no longer have faith that they can be teachers any more--in these (disadvantaged) classrooms."[42]

The theory of "significant others" strongly testifies to the fact that teacher attitudes toward disadvantaged children influence them in a positive or negative manner. Brookover,[43] in discussing the theory of "significant others" theorizes that each person in society learns certain types of behavior, and the person learns the kinds of behavior that he considers appropriate for himself; and the appropriateness of this behavior is defined for him through the internalization of the expectation, of "significant others." An extension of the theory of "significant others" is that the person also takes on the attitudes of "significant others," and reacts according to his conception of how he thinks his "significant others" view him.

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[42]A. H. Passow, Toward Creating a Model Urban School System: A Study of the Washington, D.C. Public Schools, Report of the Washington, D.C. Public Schools (New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, 1967), p. 265.

[43]Wilbur B. Brookover, "Some Social Psychological Conceptions of Classroom Learning," School and Society, XXCVII (1959), 84-87.

It is therefore reasonable to assume that teachers are capable of being "significant others" for lower-class pupils. The supposition supporting this contention is that the teacher is an influential agent of change in pupils' attitudes providing the pupil perceives the teacher as being important to him. If the teacher is unimportant to the pupil, it does not matter to the pupil what the teacher thinks or expects of him. However, if the pupil perceives the teacher as being an important person to him, the pupil will be influenced by the teacher's attitude and expectation.

Menninger in support of Brookover's point of view regarding the theory of "significant others" states that:

> Most teachers are acquainted with what psychiatrists call the three basic parts of the personality--the conscious, the unconscious, and the conscience. The unseen energy drives or forces generated in these parts of the personality anatomy make us the people we are. . . . Some of our automatic responses and behavior patterns are the result of attitudes formed in early childhood. Relationships with our parents, our brothers, and sisters, and our teachers have all played a part in the development of our personality--just as, in turn, our personality and attitudes toward our students are affecting their development. . . . Since your students may be affected by your patterns, it is important that you understand them.[44]

According to Clark, teacher attitudes and expectation work unfavorably against many of the disadvantaged children in the inner-city classroom. He states that:

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[44]William Menninger, "Self Understanding for Teachers," National Education Association Journal, XLII (1953), 332.

> A normal child who is expected to learn, who is taught, and who is required to learn will learn. . . .
> A single standard of academic expectations, a demanding syllabus, and skillful and understanding teaching are essential to the raising of the self-esteem of urban disadvantaged children, increasing their motivation for academic achievement and providing our society with the benefits of their intellectual potential.[45]

In devoting much attention to the kinds of attitudes teachers exhibit toward children, Riessman[46] indicates that discrimination does exist in the classroom. The personal desires and expectations work unfavorably against the encouragement and respect disadvantaged children so badly need. He further contends that school psychologists and counselors frequently underestimate the possibility of the economically disadvantaged children attending college.

Clark, writing in Education in Depressed Areas, further concludes that:

> Among many of the teachers who are required to teach children from culturally deprived backgrounds there exists a pervasive negative attitude toward these children. These teachers say repeatedly, and appear to believe, that it is not possible to teach these children. They offer, in support of their conclusion, the belief that these children cannot learn because of "poor heredity," "poor home background," "cultural deprivation," and "low IQ."[47]

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[45]Kenneth B. Clark, "Educational Stimulation of Racially Disadvantaged Children," in Education in Depressed Areas, ed. by A. Harry Passow (New York: Teachers College, 1963), p. 157.

[46]F. Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child (New York: Harper and Brothers Inc., 1962).

[47]Clark, op. cit., p. 149.

Berscheid and Walster to a degree corroborate the findings of Riessman and Clark when they state that teachers tend to assume the best about the more attractive child from the moment he starts school. They asked 400 fifth-grade teachers to examine a child's report card. The report card itemized the student's absences during the school year, his grades, his performance in healthful living, his personal development, and his work habits and attitudes. Pasted in the corner of the report was a photograph of the child, one of six boys and girls who previously had been judged to be relatively attractive, or one of six boys and girls judged to be less attractive.

The teachers were requested to evaluate the student's IQ, his parents' attitudes toward school, his future educational accomplishment, and his social status with his peers.

The researchers predicted that the child's appearance would influence the teacher's evaluation of the child's intellectual potential, despite the fact that the report cards were identical in content. It did. The teachers assumed that the better looking youngsters were not only brighter and more likely to succeed but that their parents were more interested in their education.[48]

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[48]Ellen Berscheid and Elaine Walster, "Beauty and the Best," Psychology Today, V, No. 10 (March, 1972), 44-46.

In addition to the importance of a disadvantaged child's success in school being related to his attractiveness, he must possess decent or suitable looking clothes, as well as be void of body odor such as the smell of urine. Rist confirms this point of view when he states that a kindergarten teacher used certain nonacademic social facts to place ghetto children in one of three reading groups. He asserts that those children who were placed in the lowest reading group, had an odor of urine on them and that they were dressed quite poorly; and, the children that were placed in the next reading group above the lowest, did not have an odor of urine on them but they did wear noticeably old and often quite dirty clothes. Thus, the children that were placed in the first or "fast learner" group had no odor of urine on them, they often wore clean or new clothes to school, they verbalized frequently with the teacher, and they continually stayed physically close to her.[49]

He further declared that

> . . . no matter how well a child in the lower reading groups might have read, he was destined to remain in the same reading group. This is, in a sense, another manifestation of the "self-fulfilling prophecy" in that a "slow learner" had no option but to continue to be a slow learner, regardless of performance or potential.[50]

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[49]Ray C. Rist, "Student Class and Teacher Expectation," Harvard Education Review, XL, No. 3 (August, 1970), 411-20.

[50]Ibid., p. 435.

Rist concluded the following on the basis of his research:

> . . . the public school system not only mirrors the configuration of the larger society, but also significantly contributes to maintaining them. Thus the system of public education in reality perpetuates what it is idealogically committed to eradicate--class barriers which result in inequality in the social and economic life of the citizenry.[51]

Yee in substantiating the findings of Rist, stated that

> . . . social class status determines great and consistent differences in teachers' attitudes--warm, trustful and sympathetic teachers instruct middle-class pupils and cold blaming and punitive teachers instruct lower-class pupils.[52]

In this connection, Getzels and Jackson[53] indicated that teachers tend to be warm toward the children they like; whereas, Perkins[54] found that teachers tend to be more critical and less warm with underachieving and lower-class children than with achieving and middle-class children respectively.

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[51] Ibid., p. 449.

[52] Albert Yee, "Social Interaction in Classrooms? Implications for the Education of Disadvantaged Pupils," Urban Education, IV, No. 1 (April, 1969).

[53] J. W. Getzels and P. W. Jackson, "The Teacher's Personality and Characteristics," in Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. by N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963), pp. 506-82.

[54] H. V. Perkins, "Classroom Behavior and Underachievement," American Educational Research Journal, II (1965), 1-12.

Wilson[55] studied the effect that teacher attitudes had on the academic attainment of disadvantaged children. He discovered that the normalization of diverging standards by teachers crystallized different levels of scholastic attainment. Concluding that apparently teachers adapt their attitudes toward academic attainment and their concepts of scholastic excellence to the composition of the children in the school.

Rich further discusses the attitudes of teachers toward the disadvantaged child when he states:

> Middle class standards of refinement and ambition mean more to most teachers than many would care to admit, and viewing children through their own middle class perspective, teachers see the world through their own value system. From out of such a system values are placed on the virtues of work, thrift, and cleanliness along with sharply defined standards of respectability, morality, and sexual behavior. But many public school children, coming from a markedly different sociological and socio-economic background, adhere to a different set of standards. Nor do these children necessarily abhor activities such as dishonesty, sexual promiscuity, unruliness, and carelessness in dress and speech.[56]

The opinion of Rich was supported by Bettelheim when he stated that "white and Negro teachers of the disadvantaged apparently had similar attitudes toward

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[55]Alan B. Wilson, "Social Stratification and Academic Achievement," in Education in Depressed Areas, ed. by A. Harry Passow (New York: Teachers College, 1963), p. 234.

[56]John Rich, "How Social Class Values Affect Teacher-Pupil Relations," The Journal of Educational Sociology, XXXIII (May, 1960), 356.

their pupils and that classroom problems were not based on color but grew out of the clash between the teacher's middle class attitudes and the lower class attitudes of their pupils."[57] These teachers were considered to be academic and achievement oriented rather than oriented to the needs of their pupils.[58]

According to Davis and Havighurst[59] teachers need to see that their values do not become so removed from the lower-class children that communication is not only difficult, but may be largely negative. They further concluded that an attitude by the teacher, that her values are best "is fatal to the development of the full mental capacity of either the teacher or the pupil."[60]

Thus, in support of the evidence provided by the above material, Wayson[61] reported that teachers of the disadvantaged tend to impose their will on students in

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[57]Bruno Bettelheim, "Teaching the Disadvantaged," NEA Journal, LIX (September, 1965), 8.

[58]Ibid.

[59]Allison W. Davis and Robert J. Havighurst, "The Measurement of Mental Systems," in Educational Psychology, ed. by Arthur P. Coladarci (New York: The Dryden Press, 1955), pp. 605-07.

[60]Ibid., p. 606.

[61]W. W. Wayson, "Expressed Motives of Teachers in Slum Schools" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1966).

determining and planning the lesson. Yee[62] found that teachers who interact with lower-class students (over a period of two years) become more domineering and the students become more submissive. Passow[63] found that teachers who are assigned to lower-track students as opposed to honor-track students, tend to be more authoritarian.

Examining children's perception of their teachers' feelings toward them and their self-concepts, scholastic achievement, and behavior, Davidson and Lang found that children vividly sensed their teacher's attitudes toward them. "The children who felt their teachers ranked them low seemed to have lower self-perceptions, achieved less well, and behaved less well in the classroom than did more favored classmates."[64] In this connection Rousseve explains that the behavior of a disadvantaged child who feels he is ranked low by his teacher is characterized by "non-conformity to patterns of expected conduct, submissiveness, academic passivity, ambivalent reactions

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[62]A. A. Yee, "Source and Direction of Casual Influence in the Teacher Pupil Relationships," Journal of Educational Psychology, LIX (1968), 275-82.

[63]A. H. Passow, Toward Creating a Model Urban School System: A Study of the Washington, D.C. Public School, A Report of the Washington D.C. Public Schools (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1967).

[64]Robert D. Strom, ed., The Inner-City Classroom Teacher Behaviors (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1966), p. 98.

toward their own reference groups, clowning, aggression, truancy, living-for-the-moment attitudes, unconscious 'compensatory exhibitionism' and even tendencies to retreat from reality."[65] In addition to this, Coleman[66] found that the behavior of the lower-class child is accepted by his family and neighborhood but it is frowned on at school. Thus, the child typically does not expect empathy from the teachers, and often he feels like the teacher favors the upper- and middle-class children.

In corroborating the above findings to an extent, Goff[67] found that disadvantaged Negro children showed a significant (.01 level) decrease in confidence as they increase from six to fourteen years of age. She recommends, along with D. P. Ausubel and P. Ausubel,[68]

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[65]Ronald J. Rousseve, "Teachers of Culturally Disadvantaged American Youth," The Journal of Negro Education, XXXII (Spring, 1963), 116.

[66]James S. Coleman, The Adolescent Society (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), pp. 66-68.

[67]R. M. Goff, "Some Educational Implications of the Influence of Rejection on Aspiration Levels of Minority Group Children," Journal of Experimental Education, XXIII (1954), 179-84.

[68]D. P. Ausubel and Pearl Ausubel, "Ego Development Among Negro Children," in Education in Depressed Areas, ed. by A. H. Passow (New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, 1963).

Bowman,[69] Clift,[70] Havighurst,[71] Kvaraceus,[72] and Whipple[73] that teachers can counteract this regressive tendency with behaviors that raise the disadvantaged child's self-concept and/or ego-development. In this connection, Wirth[74] found that disadvantaged children's self-concepts were significantly related to the perceptions of the teacher's feelings toward them in twenty-one out of twenty-five classes. Paschal[75] confirmed the fact that

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[69]P. H. Bowman, "Improving the Pupil Self-Concept," in The Inner-City Classroom: Teacher Behaviors, ed. by R. D. Strom (Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1966), pp. 75-91.

[70]V. A. Clift, "Curriculum Strategy Based on the Personality Characteristics of Disadvantaged Youth," Journal of Negro, Education, XXXVIII (1969), 94-104.

[71]R. J. Havighurst, "Requirements of a Wild 'New Criticism,'" Phi Delta Kappan, L (1968), 20-26.

[72]William C. Kvaraceus, "Negro Youth and Social Adaptation: The Role of the School as an Agent of Change, Negro Self-Concept," in Implications for School and Citizenships, ed. by W. C. Kvaraceus, J. S. Gibson, F. Patterson, B. Seasholes, and J. D. Grambs (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965), pp. 91-128.

[73]G. Whipple, "Curriculum for the Disadvantaged," in Education and the Disadvantaged, ed. by H. Goldman (Milwaukee, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee Conference Proceeding on the Disadvantaged, June 8-9, 1967), pp. 91-105.

[74]J. W. Wirth, "Relationships Between Teachers and Opinions of Disadvantaged Children and Measures of Selected Characteristics of These Children" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Florida, 1966).

[75]B. J. Paschal, "A Concerned Teacher Makes the Difference," Arithmetic Teacher, XIII (1966), 203-05.

disadvantaged students substantially gain in achievement when their teacher's attitudes and behaviors are ego-supporting of them.

Carter[76] in an article in the March, 1968, School and Society came to the conclusion that the Chicano youngster did not have a lower self-concept, but that he was well aware of the fact that he was perceived in a lower regard by those around him. For example, the teachers and administrators tended to see the Chicano youngster as inferior to the Anglo and presumed that the Chicano child went along with their interpretation of him. Anderson and Safar[77] concluded in a study conducted in two southwestern communities, where Chicanos, Indians, and Anglos were in the school system, that school administrators and teachers unanimously felt that Chicano children are less capable of achieving in school, meeting desirable goals, and eventually becoming productive citizens, when compared with their Anglo peers. As a result of the attitudes and expectations of the administrators and teachers, the Chicano children saw themselves as having less potential

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[76]Thomas P. Carter, "Negative Self-Concept of Mexican-American Students," School and Society, XCVI, No. 2, 340 (March 2, 1968), 217-19.

[77]James G. Anderson and Dwight Safar, "The Influence on Differential Community Perceptions on the Provision of Equal Educational Opportunities," Sociology of Education, XL, No. 3 (Summer, 1967), 219-30.

than the Anglo and consequently the children failed in school to complete the cruel cycle of the "self-fulfilling prophecy."

In support of the findings of Carter, Anderson, and Safar the Civil Disorder Commission emphasized in a recent report that studies have shown the attitudes of teachers have very powerful impacts upon educational achievement of students.[78]

Wade[79] found that if a teacher does not have trust and respect for the students, he is not teaching, but rather indoctrinating.

It is quite obvious according to evidence presented on the previous pages that

> . . . children learn not what is taught, but what is "caught." Much of what is caught (attitudes toward learning, toward authority, values of right and wrong, and so on) come not from the formal curriculum but from the prevading culture of the school.[80]

Kvaraceus suggests that the school should become the ego-supporting institution that rebuilds the self-concept of disadvantaged children. Teachers play a vital

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[78] Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (New York: Bantam Books, 1968), p. 429.

[79] Francis C. Wade, "Causality in the Classroom," Modern Schoolman, XXVIII (August, 1955), 145.

[80] Robert J. Havighurst and Bernice Nevgarten, Society and Education (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1957), p. 185.

role in this rebuilding. However, evidence thus far indicates that the demands of a large city school system are most destructive to the egos of the disadvantaged children.[81]

With the support of Clark,[82] Deutsch,[83] and Ausubel,[84] Kvaraceus further contends that:

> Although the big city system accepts all children, it does so on its own terms. These terms frequently demand some renunciation of differences--personal, social and cultural, and constant submission to the processes of conformity and standardization. Most schools achieve their goals at the prices of some loss of privacy, identity and individuality--the demands of the large-city school system are most destructive to the egos of the disadvantaged child.[85]

It is not realistic or logical to assume that negative teacher attitudes are totally responsible for the debilitating circumstances that limit the disadvantaged child's academic and personal growth or progress in school. There are many other sources of destruction and frustration that afflict the child, such as the peer group relations, the home, the church, and the neighborhood

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[81]William C. Kvaraceus, et al., Negro Self-Concept (New York: McGraw-Hill Inc., 1965).

[82]A. Harry Passow, ed., Education in Depressed Areas (New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1963), p. 152.

[83]Ibid., p. 177.

[84]Ibid., p. 118-23.

[85]Kvaraceus, op. cit., p. 93.

environment. Thus since the school remains as the major area which monopolizes much of the child's time it is fair to assume that much of the rebuilding of "self" is derived from the relationships that exist within the limits of the classrooms. Combs supports this assumption when he concludes that:

> Good teachers have always been concerned about individual children and the classroom atmosphere or climate. These teachers have been concerned with the immediate, with changing ways of seeing things, with bringing knowledge and information to bear on the child's world in such a way that things are seen differently or that new ways of seeing things are learned. They know a good present experience is good for a child no matter what he has to put up with elsewhere.
>
> Good teachers are not like other people. They are not even like each other. They are intensely themselves and have learned to use themselves effectively and efficiently in tune with the situations and purposes within which they operate. If good teachers are unique, then a good school must be a place where unique and different people work together. Since good teaching is a highly unique and personal thing, the school which seeks to make all its teachers alike will only succeed in producing the most banal mediocracy. . . . It will recognize that from such differences in teachers the most significant values for children come about.[86]

In concluding the investigation of the literature, evidence strongly indicates that teacher attitudes play a vital role in the academic arena. Kvaraceus reports that the attitudinal role of the professional staff member is highly significant. "The most direct and effective way

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[86]Arthur W. Combs, "Teachers Too Are Individuals" (unpublished address at Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Conference, 1962).

to strengthen the school as an ego-supporting institution is to improve the interpersonal relationships between teacher and student."[87]

Combs[88] expresses a tremendous amount of concern to the extent that teacher attitudes should be concern with the individual child, especially as it pertains to underachievement.

Thus Ausubel,[89] Sexton,[90] Deutsch,[91] and Haubrich[92] all conclude that the teacher teaching in the big urban city school must be of a special nature, requiring certain attitudes, special training, and a deep personal philosophy that will encounter the desires of the urban disadvantaged.

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[87]Kvaraceus, op. cit., p. 110.

[88]Combs, op. cit., p. 232.

[89]Passow, op. cit., pp. 109-41.

[90]Sexton, op. cit., p. 44.

[91]Passow, op. cit., pp. 163-80.

[92]Ibid., pp. 243-61.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The procedure employed in the design of this study includes an identification and description of the samples, statements of the hypotheses, discussion of the instruments used, a description of the kinds of data collected, the sources of those data, and the methods of securing the data. Finally, an explanation is given of the methods of analyses used.

Selection of the Urban School

The study was designed to analyze the attitudes of selected urban elementary school teachers toward disadvantaged or low-income communities in relation to their attitudes toward the children they teach from those disadvantaged communities.

The school setting, a large 1,300 pupil, urban industrial elementary educational park in a Michigan school system, designated to participate in the study was not selected randomly. The decision to use the school was made on the basis of three criteria: (1) the

school's availability, (2) the willingness of the professional members of the school system to allow the school to participate, and (3) the author's interest and involvement in the educational park as a Mott Intern.

The educational park serves four contiguous school attendance districts, which have a total population of approximately 10,000 persons. The four elementary attendance areas in this urban city were basically lower socio-economic residential communities. In reference to these four communities, one was predominantly 90 per cent white, two were predominantly 95 per cent nonwhite, while the fourth was mixed with a 37 per cent - 53 per cent nonwhite-white racial makeup. The majority of the wage earners in the total area were employed at skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled positions within the cities industrial complex.

Additionally, the major thoroughfares, while practically devoid of any social agencies, were punctuated with local business establishments and some light industry.

Owing to the fact that the areas were in a state of declination and deterioration, the city government declared a principle part of them as major target areas for the Neighborhood Development of the Federal Department of Housing and Urban Development.

The park was designed to eventually serve 2,000-2,400 pupils from pre-school (ages 3-5) through grade six classes. In addition to the program for pre-school and elementary children, the facility included provisions for adult and community programs and activities. The educational park was planned jointly by the school district and city government to serve five basic needs:

1. To replace, in all or part, four existing elementary school buildings which were not adequate for the educational programs. The buildings ranged in age from 50 to 75 years.
2. To facilitate racial integration of students. (Two of the buildings were predominantly black in student population while the others were predominantly white.)
3. To provide an innovative and comprehensive educational program for children from age 3 to 12.
4. To increase and concentrate community services to adult residents. (Of the 176,000 square feet of floor space in the new facility, almost 40,000 was planned for community use and included medical-dental facilities, adult classrooms, a theater, agency offices and food services provisions.)
5. To facilitate the physical renewal of the neighborhoods in the attendance area through a cooperative program between school district, municipal government, and the Federal Department of Housing and Urban Development.[1]

Finally, the culminating efforts of the school district, parents, municipal government, and the Federal Department of Housing and Urban Development resulted in the opening of the educational park, with a differentiated

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[1]Thor Petersen, "School Approval-Disapproval and Educational Enlightment of Parents Based on Occupation, Educational Level, Age, Race, Geographic Area and Length of Residency" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1971).

staff composed of parent volunteers, paid para-professionals, and certificated teachers.

Population and Sample

The population in the study is the total number of certified elementary teachers (68) who taught in the urban-industrial educational park previously discussed.

In the beginning, the majority of the teachers in the population expressed a willingness to participate in the study. Although the sample used in this study is small, it provided an opportunity for the investigator to meet personally with the total teacher population being sampled, explain the purpose of the study, and elicit their cooperation; whereas, such efforts by the investigator could not have been achieved with a larger sample. Additionally, sampling a larger population would have required the mailing of instruments and the inevitable loss of some necessary information through this impersonal process of data collection. Therefore, the study could not have been more extensive and still have retained its intensive character.

Statement of Testable Hypotheses

To ascertain whether a significant relationship exists between demographic variables of teachers and their attitudes toward disadvantaged communities, with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those

disadvantaged communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale (CAS) and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory (MTAI), certain demographic data were collected on each of the teachers in the population and were used to categorize the groups.

The following hypotheses were investigated:

Hypothesis 1:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' age and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Hypothesis 2:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' total years of teaching experience and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Hypothesis 3:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' marital status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and MTAI.

Hypothesis 4:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' academic degrees held and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Hypothesis 5:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' teaching levels and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Hypothesis 6:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' undergraduate schools attended and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Hypothesis 7:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' fathers' occupational status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Hypothesis 8:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' fathers' educational status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Hypothesis 9:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' residential background and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Hypothesis 10:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' race and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged

communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Hypothesis 11:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' northern or southern geographical locations of rearing and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the CAS and the MTAI.

Instrumentation

Personal Data Form

The collection of selected demographic data from which the sub-groups were identified was secured from the Personal Data Form (Appendix A). The demographic data form was administered to the teacher population under investigation in the educational park.

Community Attitude Scale

The Community Attitude Scale (Appendix B) was designed to measure an individual's degree of progressive attitudes on community life in such areas as community improvement, living conditions, and business.[2]

The scale consists of sixty items with the Likert-based response alternatives of "strongly agree," "agree,"

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[2]C. Bosworth, "A Study of the Development and the Validation of a Measure of Citizens' Attitudes Toward Progress and Game Variables Related Thereto" (unpublished dissertation, University of Michigan, 1954).

"undecided," "disagree," "strongly disagree"; thus, these items were found to be most discriminating from an original pool of over 300 items.[3]

The author of the CAS assumes that an individual whose score places him at the low end of the scale will have a positive and a progressive attitude toward the community. On the other hand, the author assumes that an individual whose score places him at the high end of the scale will have a negative or unfavorable attitude toward the community.

Finally, according to Bosworth,[4] more progressive individuals were found to be better educated; and, the variables under investigation do seem important and the items do show good wording and high homogeneity, even though item content seems quite heterogeneous.

Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory

As a measure of teacher attitudes toward children, the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory form (Appendix C) was used. This inventory is composed of 150 items with the Likert-based response alternatives of "strongly agree," "agree," "undecided," "disagree," or "strongly disagree."

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[3] Ibid.

[4] Bosworth, op. cit.

The authors of the inventory assume that a teacher whose score places him at the high end of the scale will be able to maintain a harmonious classroom situation. The authors of the MTAI provide the following conclusions in their Instructional Manual:

> It is assumed that a teacher ranking at the high end of the scale should be able to maintain a state of harmonious sympathetic understanding. The pupils should like the teacher and enjoy school work. Situations requiring disciplinary action should rarely occur. The teacher and pupils should work together in a social atmosphere of cooperative endeavor, of intense interest in the work of the day, and with a feeling of security, growing from a permissive atmosphere of freedom to think, act and speak one's mind with mutual respect for the feelings, right and abilities of others.[5]

Regarding those teachers whose scores fall on the low end of the scale the authors state:

> At the other extreme of the scale is the teacher who attempts to dominate the classroom. He may be successful and rule with an iron hand, creating an atmosphere of tensions, fear and submission; or he may be unsuccessful and become nervous, fearful and distraught in a classroom characterized by frustration, restlessness, inattention, lack of respect, and numerous disciplinary problems. In either case both teacher and pupils dislike school work; there is a feeling of mutual distrust and hostility. Both teacher and pupils attempt to hide their inadequacies from each other. Ridicule, sarcasm, and sharp tempered remarks are common. The teacher tends to think in terms of status, the correctness of the position he takes on classroom matters, and subject matter to be covered rather than in terms of what the pupil needs, feels, knows and can do.[6]

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[5]Walter W. Cook, Carroll H. Leeds, and Robert Callis, Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory Manual (New York: The Psychological Corporation, 1965), p. 3.

[6]Ibid.

The authors of the MTAI, in describing its creation and its uses write:

> Investigations carried on by the authors over the past ten years indicate that the attitudes of teachers toward children and school work can be measured with a high degree of reliability, and they are significantly correlated with the teacher-pupil relations found in the teacher's classroom. The MTAI has emerged from these researches. It is designed to measure those attitudes along with pupils in interpersonal relationships and indirectly how well satisfied he will be with teaching as a vocation.[7]

Procedures Used in the Collection of Data

After securing the names of all the certified teachers teaching in the educational park, the author met with the teachers personally and individually to determine the willingness of each to participate in the study. As indicated previously, the majority of the teachers expressed an interest in the study and a desire to participate. Following this determination, the author designated the team leader in each of the teaching teams to handle the distribution and collection of the demographic data form, the CAS and the MTAI questionnaires.

Upon distribution of the demographic data form, the CAS and the MTAI, the team leaders instructed the teacher population to answer the questions with respect

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[7] Ibid.

to their knowledge concerning the disadvantaged communities in which the children they taught lived.

Table 3.1 indicates an overall response of 93 per cent of the total population. Thus, sixty-three of the sixty-eight teachers were sampled in the study. The other five teachers did not return their questionnaires.

Additionally, Table 3.1 includes the following demographic variable categories and groups:

1. In the age category there are twenty-seven teachers in the 20-25 years of age group, seventeen teachers in the 26-33 years of age group, and nineteen teachers in the 34 years of age and older group.

2. In the years of teaching experience category there are twenty-four teachers in the 1-3 years of experience group, twenty-seven teachers in the 4-7 years of experience group, and twelve teachers in the 8 years of experience and over group.

3. In the marital status category there are forty-three teachers in the married group, three teachers in the divorced group, fifteen teachers in the single group, two teachers in the separated group, and no teachers in the widowed.

TABLE 3-1.--Distribution of subjects by demographic variables.

Categories	Groups	Number of Teachers
Age	20-25	27
	26-33	17
	34 and over	19
Years of Teaching Experience	1-3	24
	4-7	27
	8 and over	12
Marital Status	Married	43
	Divorced	3
	Single	15
	Separated	2
	Widowed	0
Academic Degree Held	B.A.	41
	B.A. plus 0-15 hours	1
	B.A. plus 16 and more hours	21
Teaching Level	Pre-School-Kindergarten	12
	First-Fourth	51
Undergraduate School Attended	Northern predominantly black	0
	Northern predominantly nonblack	49
	Southern predominantly black	12
	Southern predominantly nonblack	2
Father's Occupation	Unskilled and skilled blue collar	19
	Salaried Professional and upper level manager or official	21

TABLE 3-1.--Continued.

Categories	Groups	Number of Teachers
Father's Occupation	Self-employed business man, or farm owner or operator	16
	White collar clerical, sales or public service	7
Father's Formal Education	Some school and grade school graduate	15
	Some high school and high school graduate	23
	Some college and college graduate	18
	Some post-graduate work and post graduate degree	7
Residential Background	Urban	28
	Rural	17
	Suburban	18
Race	Black	22
	Nonblack	41
Geographical Location of Rearing	Northern	46
	Southern	17

4. In the academic degree held category there are forty-one teachers in the B.A. group, one teacher in the B.A. plus fifteen hours group, and twenty-one teachers in the B.A. plus sixteen or more hours group.

5. In the teaching level category there are twelve teachers in the pre-school-kindergarten group and fifty-one teachers in the first-fourth group.

6. In the undergraduate school attended category there are no teachers in the northern predominantly black group, forty-nine teachers in the northern predominantly nonblack group, twelve teachers in the southern predominantly black group, and two teachers in the southern predominantly nonblack group.

7. In the father's occupation category there are nineteen teachers in the unskilled and skilled blue collar group, twenty-one teachers in the salaried professional and upper level manager or official group, sixteen teachers in the self-employed business man, or farm owner or operator group, and seven teachers in the white collar clerical, sales, or public service group.

8. In the father's formal education category there are fifteen teachers in the some school and grade

school graduate group, twenty-three teachers in the some high school and high school graduate group, eighteen teachers in the some college and college graduate group, and seven teachers in the some post-graduate work and post-graduate degree group.

9. In the residential background category there are twenty-eight teachers in the urban group, seventeen teachers in the rural group, and eighteen teachers in the suburban group.

10. In the race category there are twenty-two teachers in the black group and forty-one teachers in the nonblack group.

11. In the geographical location of rearing category there are forty-six teachers in the northern group, and seventeen teachers in the southern group.

In addition to the teachers completing the demographic data forms, the CAS and the MTAI, interviews were also employed for the purpose of eliciting covert or overt attitudes teachers have about disadvantaged children. To eliminate the interruption of actual classroom instruction of children during the school day, the interviews were to be conducted by appointment prior to the beginning of class, during the lunch period, and after

the last class period. The author made repeated attempts to interview the teachers during the scheduled times described above, only to realize very little cooperation or consideration from the teachers.

Thus, due to the lack of any adequate teacher cooperation, the author found it was impossible to make any significant inferences about the teacher population under investigation through the interview technique.

Statistical Analysis

The statistical procedure used in the analysis of the data is the one-way analysis of variance. The one-way analysis of variance identifies the statistics which permit the researcher to describe the relationship of data being studied.

The alpha (α) level of statistical significance was selected at the .05 level. The level of confidence was selected with the understanding that the chance of making a Type I error (falsely rejecting the null hypothesis) was increased. Conversely it was also recognized that the probability of making a Type II error (not rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false) is decreased.

Finally, the Scheffé *post hoc* procedure was used to provide exact information as to where the differences existed between the demographic variables,

while the univariate analysis of variance merely indicates that differences exist somewhere between the levels of the particular dependent or independent variables.

The demographic data collected on each teacher were coded and then punched on IBM data-processing cards. These cards were then processed by the Michigan State University CDC 3600 computer which used the Finn program and performed a one-way analysis of variance to establish the significance of difference between the means of each of the sub-groups' scores on the CAS and the MTAI.

A further analysis of the data was that of establishing a frequency distribution of the responses to the CAS and MTAI.

Finally, as a consequence of the statistical analyses of the data collected from the instruments, each hypothesis will be tested and analyzed in Chapters IV and V.

The data will be graphically and quantitatively presented so that the reader may more easily conceptualize the analyses being presented.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSES OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter contains the results of the statistical analysis of the data. Each hypothesis is restated and accompanied by the results of the univariate analysis of variance. The level of rejection for the hypotheses is established at .05.

Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' age and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Significant statistical results were obtained by the univariate analysis of variance on the CAS for the age variable (P = .0194). This portion of Hypothesis 1 is rejected. However, significant statistical results were not obtained by the univariate analysis of variance on

the MTAI for the age variable (P = .4862). This portion of Hypothesis 1 is accepted. Results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 1 are shown in Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

The group means for the age variable on the Community Attitude Scale were subjected to further analysis using the Scheffé post hoc procedure to identify which groups differed significantly and contributed to the overall significant F value. The Scheffé procedure indicates that there was a significant difference between the means of age groups two and three (refer to Table 4.1).

Hypothesis 2:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' total years of teaching experience and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

The univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 2 shows no significant results on the CAS (P = .9808) and the MTAI (P = .5990) when total years of teaching experience is used as a variable. Hypothesis 2 is accepted. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 show the results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 2.

TABLE 4-1.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the three age groups.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	27	140.5926	354.2222
(2)	17	147.7647	366.6471
(3)	19	135.6842	347.1579
	S.D.	12.5085	48.8148

[a]Groups are: (1) 20 to 25, (2) 26 to 33, and (3) 34 and over.

TABLE 4-2.--Univariate analysis of variance--Age.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	659.5873	4.2157	>0.0194[a]
MTAI	1739.2401	0.7299	>0.4862

[a]Denotes significance at the .05 alpha level.

Degrees of Freedom for Hypothesis = 2.

Degrees of Freedom for Error = 60.

TABLE 4-3.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the three groups regarding total years of teaching experience.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	24	140.6250	353.7083
(2)	27	141.2963	361.7037
(3)	12	141.3333	344.8333
	S.D.	13.3541	48.9847

[a]Groups are: (1) 1 to 3, (2) 4 to 7, (3) 8 and over.

TABLE 4-4.--Univariate analysis of variance--Total years of teaching experience.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	3.4679	0.0194	>0.9808
MTAI	1240.65059	0.5170	>0.5990

Degrees of Freedom for Hypothesis = 2.

Degrees of Freedom for Error = 60.

Hypothesis 3:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' marital status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 3 is accepted. The univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 3 reveals no significant results on the CAS (P = .9871) and the MTAI (P = .1074) when marital status is used as a variable. See Tables 4.5 and 4.6 for the results of the univariate analysis.

Hypothesis 4:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' academic degree held and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

The univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 4 indicates no significant results on the CAS (P = .5440) and the MTAI (P = .4649) when academic degree held is used as a variable. Hypothesis 4 is accepted. Results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 4 appear in Tables 4.7 and 4.8.

Hypothesis 5:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' teaching levels and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

TABLE 4-5.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the four groups regarding marital status.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	43	141.1628	359.2558
(2)	3	140.3333	289.3333
(3)	15	140.4667	359.3333
(4)	2	144.0000	343.5000
	S.D.	13.4557	47.3363

[a]Groups are: (1) Married, (2) Divorced, (3) Single, and (4) Separated.

TABLE 4-6.--Univariate analysis of variance--marital status.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	8.1989	0.0453	>0.9871
MTAI	4749.62329	2.1197	>0.1074

Degrees of Freedom for Hypothesis = 3.

Degrees of Freedom for Error = 59.

TABLE 4-7.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the three academic degree groups.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	41	140.9268	350.43908
(2)	1	127.0000	338.0000
(3)	21	141.9524	366.0476
	S.D.	13.2235	48.7782

[a]Groups are: (1) B.A., (2) B.A. + 0-15, and (3) B.A. + 16 and over.

TABLE 4-8.--Univariate analysis of variance--academic degree held.

Variables	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	107.5621	0.6151	>0.5440
MTAI	1846.2528	0.7760	>0.4649

Degrees of freedom for Hypothesis = 2.

Degrees of freedom for error = 60.

Hypothesis 5 is accepted. The univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 5 reveals no significant results on the CAS (P = .5075) and the MTAI (P = .4656) when teaching level is used as a variable. See Tables 4.9 and 4.10 for the results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 6:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' undergraduate school attended and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Significant statistical results were not obtained by the univariate analysis of variance on the CAS for the undergraduate school attended variable (P = .9395). This portion of Hypothesis 6 is accepted. However, significant statistical results were obtained by the univariate analysis of variance on the MTAI for the undergraduate school attended variable (P = .0145). This portion of Hypothesis 6 is rejected. Results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 6 appear in Tables 4.11 and 4.12.

The group means for the undergraduate school attended variable on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory were subjected to further analysis using the Scheffé post hoc procedure to identify which groups differed significantly and contributed to the overall

TABLE 4-9.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the two teaching level groups.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	12	143.3333	364.7500
(2)	51	140.5098	353.2549
	S.D.	13.2005	48.7832

[a]Groups are: (1) Pre-school and (2) Elementary.

TABLE 4-10.--Univariate analysis of variance--teaching level.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	77.4454	0.4444	>0.5075
MTAI	1283.6193	0.5394	>0.4656

Degrees of freedom for Hypothesis = 1.

Degrees of freedom for Error = 61.

TABLE 4-11.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the three undergraduate schools attended groups.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	49	141.0816	364.5714
(2)	12	140.4167	320.1667
(3)	2	144.0000	343.5000
	S.D.	13.3445	46.0344

[a]Groups are: (1) Northern predominantly nonblack; (2) Southern predominantly black; and (3) Southern predominantly nonblack.

TABLE 4-12.--Univariate analysis of variance--undergraduate school attended.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	11.1335	0.0625	>0.9395
MTAI	9650.6944	4.5540	>0.0145[a]

[a]Denotes significance at the .05 alpha level.

significant F value. The Scheffé procedure indicates that there was a significant difference between the means of undergraduate school attended groups one and two (see Table 4.11).

Hypothesis 7:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' fathers' occupational status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 7 is accepted. Inspection of Tables 4.13 and 4.14 showing the results of the univariate analysis of variance for the variable fathers' occupational status, reveals no significant results on the CAS (P = .6424) and the MTAI (P = .9129) for Hypothesis 7.

Hypothesis 8:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' fathers' educational status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

The univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 8 shows no significant results on the CAS (P = .6512) and the MTAI (P = .6243) when fathers' educational status is used as a variable. Hypothesis 8 is accepted. Check Tables 4.15 and 4.16 for the results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 8.

TABLE 4-13.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the four fathers' occupational status groups.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	19	143.3158	357.9474
(2)	21	142.0476	355.3333
(3)	16	138.2500	348.9375
(4)	7	138.2857	363.8571
	S.D.	13.2828	49.6017

[a]Groups are: (1) Skilled and unskilled blue collar; (2) Salaried professional and upper-level manager or official; (3) Self-employed businessman and farm owner or operator; and (4) White collar clerical, sales, or public service.

TABLE 4-14.--Univariate analysis of variance--fathers' occupational status.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	99.1236	0.5618	>0.6424
MTAI	430.7156	0.1751	>0.9129

Degrees of freedom for Hypothesis = 3.

Degrees of freedom for Error = 59.

TABLE 4-15.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the four fathers' educational status groups.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	15	142.2000	365.4667
(2)	23	143.0000	358.3043
(3)	18	139.2222	343.5000
(4)	7	136.8572	355.2857
	S.D.	13.2872	49.0915

[a]Groups are: (1) Some school and grade school graduate; (2) Some high school and high school graduate; (3) Some college and college graduate; and (4) Some post-graduate work and post-graduate degree.

TABLE 4-16.--Univariate analysis of variance--fathers' educational status.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	96.8296	0.5485	>0.6521
MTAI	1421.0080	0.5896	>0.6243

Degrees of freedom for Hypothesis = 3.

Degrees of freedom for Error = 59.

Hypothesis 9:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' residential background and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 9 is accepted. The univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 9 indicates no significant results on the CAS (P = .1947) and the MTAI (P = .9964) when residential background is used as a variable. Results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 9 are found in Tables 4.17 and 4.18.

Hypothesis 10:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' race and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

The results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 10 indicate no significant results on the CAS (P = .2554) and the MTAI (P = .1438) when race is used as a variable. Hypothesis 10 is accepted. See Tables 4.19 and 4.20 for the results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 10.

Hypothesis 11:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' northern or southern geographical location of rearing and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

TABLE 4-17.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the three residential background groups.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	28	143.5714	355.0357
(2)	17	141.7647	355.2353
(3)	18	136.4444	356.2778
	S.D.	12.9989	49.4020

[a]Groups are: (1) Urban, (2) Rural, and (3) Suburban.

TABLE 4-18.--Univariate analysis of variance--residential background.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	284.2484	1.6822	>0.1947
MTAI	8.9607	0.0037	>0.9964

Degrees of freedom for Hypothesis = 2.

Degrees of freedom for Error = 60.

TABLE 4-19.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the two race groups.

Group[a]	N		CAS	MTAI
(1)	22		143.6364	343.1818
(2)	41		139.6585	362.0244
		S.D.	13.1076	48.1405

[a]Groups are: (1) Black, and (2) Nonblack.

TABLE 4-20.--Univariate analysis of variance--race.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	226.5467	1.3186	>0.2554
MTAI	5083.3072	2.1934	>0.1438

Degrees of freedom for Hypothesis = 1.

Degrees of freedom for Error = 61.

Significant statistical results were not obtained by the univariate analysis of variance on the CAS for the northern or southern geographical location of rearing variable (P = .5613). This portion of Hypothesis 11 is accepted. However, significant statistical results were obtained by the univariate analysis of variance on the MTAI for the northern or southern geographical location of rearing variable (P = .0178). This portion of Hypothesis 11 is rejected. Tables 4.21 and 4.22 give the results of the univariate analysis of variance for Hypothesis 11.

Since there were only two levels contained in the geographical location of rearing variable (northern and southern), a Scheffé post hoc procedure would add no new information to the results reported in Tables 4.21 and 4.22.

Although only a portion of Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 6, and Hypothesis 11 was rejected on either the CAS or MTAI with a probability significance of less than the established alpha level of .05, a moderately high correlation between the two sets of scores was discovered.

Figure 4.1 clearly shows the moderately high correlation of the CAS and the MTAI scores as they cluster near the line of perfect, positive correlation (+1.0).

The computed correlation coefficient (r), using the Pearson product-moment formula, was found to be 0.539.

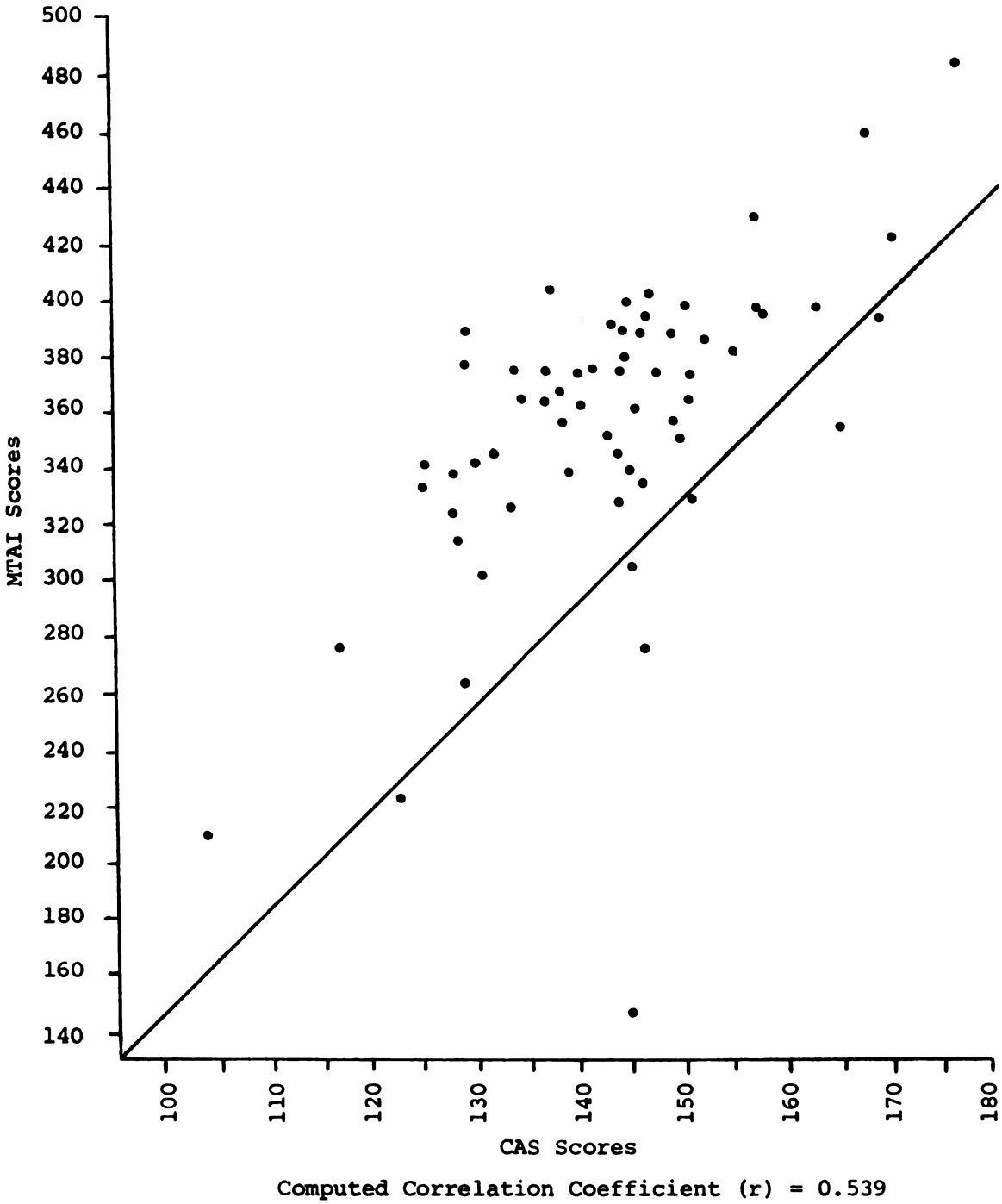

Figure 1.--Scatter Diagram of Scores on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the Community Attitude Scale.

TABLE 4-21.--Mean scores on the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory for each of the two geographical location of rearing groups.

Group[a]	N	CAS	MTAI
(1)	46	140.4565	364.1739
(2)	17	142.6471	331.8235
	S.D.	13.2116	46.7748

[a]Groups are: (1) Northern, and (2) Southern.

TABLE 4-22.--Univariate analysis of variance--geographical location of rearing.

Variable	Mean Square Between	Univariate F	P
CAS	59.5617	0.3412	>0.5613
MTAI	12990.4763	5.9375	>0.0178[a]

[a]Denotes significance at the .05 alpha level.

Degrees of freedom for Hypothesis = 1.

Degrees of freedom for Error = 61.

This moderately high correlation indicates that respondents tended to score in the same manner on the CAS as they did on the MTAI.

Summary

Employing the univariate analysis of variance to analyze the data, only a portion of Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 6, and Hypothesis 11 was rejected on either the CAS or MTAI with a probability significance of less than the established alpha level of 0.05.

Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 3, Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 5, Hypothesis 8, Hypothesis 9, and Hypothesis 10 were all accepted in their null form.

The conclusions and recommendations derived from the data in this chapter will be discussed in detail in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This final chapter will be devoted to a summary of the study followed by a discussion of the conclusions generated from the analysis of the data, and concluded with recommendations and implications for further research.

Summary

Purpose of the Study

The basic purpose of this study was to determine whether there is a significant relationship between demographic variables of inner-city elementary school teachers and their attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in relation to attitudes toward children they teach from disadvantaged communities.

Limitations of the Study

1. This study deals only with the phases of the program from pre-kindergarten to fourth grade and inclusive, implemented by certificated staff.

2. This study is concerned only with the analysis of the attitudes inner-city school teachers have toward disadvantaged communities in relation to their attitudes toward the children from those communities.

3. No attempt is made to evaluate the effectiveness of teachers or programs in terms of structure or outcome. No attempt is made to postulate ideal teacher attitudes. No attempt is made to postulate an ideal instructional situation or setting in relation to the attitudes teachers have about disadvantaged communities and children they teach from those communities.

Review of the Literature

A review of the research on the disadvantaged indicates that poverty and gettoization in America, are two real reasons why negative and stereotype attitudes are formed toward disadvantaged communities and the people living in those communities.

A survey of the literature on teacher attitudes suggests that attitudes of teachers compose a critical element of successful teaching. Further review indicates attitudes toward children and the teaching role can be influenced and indeed altered by the socio-economic level of the community and the children populating the school.

Design of the Study

The design of this study, which was comparative and descriptive in nature, sought to analyze the attitudes of urban elementary school teachers toward low-income communities in relation to their attitudes toward the children they teach from low-income communities.

Three instruments, the Personal Data Sheet, the Community Attitude Scale, and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory were used to gather the data for this study. The Personal Data Sheet was utilized to gather appropriate demographic data which served to establish the independent variables tested. The Community Attitude Scale was designed to measure the participants' degree of progressive attitudes on community life in such areas as community improvement, living conditions, and business. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory was the instrument used to determine the teachers' attitude toward children they teach in the classroom.

In an effort to validate the results on the MTAI, personal interviews were scheduled with teachers, but due to the lack of any adequate teacher complicity, it was impossible to carry out the interviews.

The collected data on the sixty-three teachers teaching in an urban-industrial educational park, within a Michigan school system (Spring, 1972), was coded by each independent variable and punched on data-processing

cards. These cards were subsequently used in a one-way analysis of variance program (UNEQ1), through the IBM 3600 computer at Michigan State University.

Findings of the Study

An amplified discussion of the analyzed data for each of the hypotheses follows.

Hypothesis 1:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' age and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

There is evidence in the data indicating that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores on the CAS for age groups of (2) 23-26 and (3) 34 and older. Age group (1) 20-25 was not statistically significant. The significant differences between the two age groups suggest that the 34 and older group had a more progressive attitude toward disadvantaged communities, than did the 26-33 age group. This portion of Hypothesis 1 was rejected ($P = .0194$).

However, further inspection of the data indicates that no one group of teachers displayed greater statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups, when age was used as a variable on the MTAI. This portion of Hypothesis 1 was accepted ($P = .4862$).

Hypothesis 2:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' total years of teaching experience and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 2 was accepted.

The results of the data analysis indicate that no one group of teachers displayed statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups when total years of teaching experience was used as a variable on the CAS (P = .9808), and the MTAI (P = .5990).

Hypothesis 3:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' marital status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 3 was accepted.

There is no evidence in the data indicating that one group of teachers displayed statistically significant differences in their attitudes than others, when marital status was used as a variable on the CAS (P = .9871) and the MTAI (P = .1074).

Hypothesis 4:

There is no significant relationship between teachers' academic degree held and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 4 was accepted.

The results of the data revealed that no one group of teachers displayed statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups when academic degree was used as a variable on the CAS (P = .5440) and the MTAI (P = .4649).

Hypothesis 5:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' teaching level and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 5 was accepted.

Data results indicate that no one group of teachers displayed greater statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups, when teaching level was used as a variable on the CAS (P = .5075) and the MTAI (P = .4656).

Hypothesis 6:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' undergraduate school attended and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

There is no evidence in the data indicating that one group of teachers displayed greater statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups, when undergraduate school attended was used as a variable on the CAS. This portion of Hypothesis 6

was accepted (P = .9395). However, further inspection revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores on the MTAI for the undergraduate school attended groups of (1) northern and predominantly nonblack and (2) southern and predominantly black. The third variable, southern undergraduate school attended was not statistically significant. The significant differences between the two undergraduate school attended groups, suggest that teachers who attended predominantly nonblack northern undergraduate schools have better attitudes toward disadvantaged children as measured by the MTAI than teachers who attended predominantly black southern undergraduate schools. This portion of Hypothesis 6 was rejected (P = .0145).

Hypothesis 7:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' fathers' occupational status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 7 was accepted.

The results of the data analysis indicate that no one group of teachers displayed greater statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups, when fathers' occupational status was used as a variable on the CAS (P = .6424) and the MTAI (P = .9129).

Hypothesis 8:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' fathers' educational status and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 8 was accepted.

Data results indicate that no one group of teachers displayed greater statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups, when fathers' educational status was used as a variable on the CAS (P = .6512) and the MTAI (P = .6243).

Hypothesis 9:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' residential background and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 9 was accepted.

The results of the data revealed that no one group of teachers displayed greater statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups, when residential background was used as a variable on the CAS (P = .1947) and the MTAI (P = .9964).

Hypothesis 10:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' race and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.

Hypothesis 10 was accepted.

There is no evidence in the data indicating that one group of teachers displayed sufficiently greater statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups, when race was used as a variable on the CAS (P = .2554) and the MTAI (P = .1438).

Hypothesis 11:

> There is no significant relationship between teachers' northern or southern geographical location of rearing and the attitudes they hold toward disadvantaged communities with respect to their attitudes toward children they teach from those communities, as measured by the Community Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Teacher Inventory.

Data results indicate that no one group of teachers displayed greater statistically significant differences in their attitudes than other groups, when northern or southern geographical location of rearing was used as a variable on the CAS. This portion of Hypothesis 11 was accepted (P = .5613). However, investigation revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores on the MTAI for the northern and southern geographical location of rearing groups. The significant differences between

the mean scores of the northern and southern teachers, suggest that teachers reared in the North have a better attitude toward the disadvantaged children they teach, as measured by the MTAI than teachers reared in the South. This portion of Hypothesis 11 was rejected (P = .0178).

Further Results

In addition to the results reported above that related to the hypothesis under investigation, the following results were considered of enough importance and interest by the investigator to report them here.

An examination of the MTAI and CAS scores plotted on the scatter diagram graphically depicts the moderately high correlation between the two sets of scores. The computed correlation coefficient showed the relation to be .0539 (see Figure 4.1).

Conclusions

On the basis of findings in this study, the following conclusions seem to be justified.

Hypothesis 1.--Age was a key variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live. However, the second portion of Hypothesis 1 shows that age was not a key variable in

determining whether or not teachers have harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 2.--Total years of teaching experience was not a significant variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live, or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 3.--Marital status was not a significant variable in determining whether or not teachers have progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 4.--Academic degree held, when used as a variable, was not essential in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 5.--Teaching level when used as a variable was not influential in determining whether or not teachers have progressive attitudes toward

disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 6.--Undergraduate school attended, when used as a variable, was not significant in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live. However, the undergraduate school attended variable was significant in determining whether or not teachers hold harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 7.--Fathers' occupationsl status was not an influential variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 8.--Fathers' educational status was not an essential variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live, or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 9.--Residential background was not a significant variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live, or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 10.--Race was not an essential variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live, or harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Hypothesis 11.--Northern or southern geographical location of rearing was not a key variable in determining whether or not teachers hold progressive attitudes toward disadvantaged communities in which the children they teach live. However, the northern or southern geographical location of rearing variable was significant in determining whether or not teachers hold harmonious attitudes toward disadvantaged children they teach.

Implications

Although this study was limited in scope and has primary application to the portion of a single elementary school from which the sample was drawn, it has significant implications for all school teachers and others who have

the responsibility for educating or providing education for inner-city, disadvantaged children or youth.

The following implications are based on the observations of the researcher, a review of the related literature, the data collected, and their analyses. For as is evident in this study, demographic data such as age, undergraduate school attended, and geographical location of rearing can be utilized to determine, correlate, and/or predict attitudes of teachers.

1. To promote the development of harmonious attitudes and strong self-concepts among inner-city teachers, numerous urban pre-service and in-service training workshops should be created. The need becomes especially acute among urban school teachers who come from backgrounds dissimilar to those of the children they teach in the urban school setting. There is a large body of research which indicates that a significant relationship exists between the academic progress and emotional well-being of children, and their self-concept which is directly contingent on the attitudes and self-concept of their classroom teacher. Therefore, it is paramount that inner-city school teachers have strong positive self-concepts, which would enable them to convey more "appropriate" attitudes toward their urban disadvantaged pupils.

2. The employment of teachers for the public schools in urban communities should be primarily contingent upon the relationship between some specific demographic variables and personal attitudes. On the other hand, personnel officials of an inner-city school system should not include or exclude certain prospective teachers for employment simply on the basis of their being different demographically--northern or southern collegiate background, age, geographical location of rearing, etc. There is evidence in this study supporting the contention that other nondemographic variables--warmth, personableness, sensitiveness, sympathetic awareness of urban community problems, etc., ought to be critically evaluated prior to the placement of any teacher in the public schools of an inner-city community.

3. Inner-city school teachers for the most part have not received in their pre-service training the experiences that would enable them to critically assess and evaluate the effect their attitudes have on the academic progress and emotional well-being of their pupils. Therefore, it is imperative and crucial that teacher training institutions begin to provide prospective teachers

with educational experiences that will allow them to become more conscious of their attitudes and permit them to cope more effectively, constructively, and creatively with the problems of disadvantaged inner-city children.

4. All teachers who teach in urban communities need to understand the impact of their inherent negative or stereotype attitudes toward disadvantaged children, and be cognizant of the necessity to alter their attitudes and behavior, if they are adversely affecting the urban schools' clientele.

Thus in order to change certain attitudes, the inner-city teacher should be exposed to a number of different models through intrinsic as well as extrinsic experiences, which will hopefully result in better educational experiences for all disadvantaged children in this country.

The need for the kinds of experiences recommended above simply underscore the effect that teacher attitudes have on disadvantaged children, if these attitudes are perceived by the disadvantaged child as being negative toward his own ethnic group.

Based upon the findings, conclusions, and implications from this study, the following recommendations

will be presented in two sections: (1) recommendations for inner-city community schools, and (2) recommendations for further study.

Recommendations

1. Personnel officials should use the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, the Community Attitude Scale, and such demographic variables as northern or southern collegiate background, age, and geographical location of rearing to assist them in determining attitudes that prospective teachers may have toward low-income communities and disadvantaged children, when building a profile for selecting and screening teachers for positions in inner-city schools. There are teachers who should not be assigned to inner-city schools.

2. A concerted effort should be made by personnel officials to employ many more male teachers for the purpose of teaching in early elementary grades. These male teachers should be dispersed throughout the system as models of the significant others for the pupils and particularly boys.

3. Personnel officials should not assign any teacher to an inner-city school without first requiring that he attend a three-week workshop, with pay, to gain experience working with disadvantaged children, to learn about the school itself, to know more about the school environment, and to have the opportunity to meet the parents of every pupil in the prospective teacher's class.

4. Personnel officials should make every effort to place teachers with special qualities and attitudes in inner-city schools. These attitudes include: (a) A concern about the quality of one's own work; (b) Capability to act with dignity; (c) Capability to act with quiet firmness and fairness; (d) Capability to act with consistent behavior toward all pupils; (e) Capability to act with directness; (f) Capability to communicate with these pupils and their parents, and (g) Capability to prepare for a good day's work and expect the same from the pupils.

5. There should be a constant in-service training program conducted at the district's expense and carrying college credit. The in-service training program should not only aid the supportive education of teachers, but it should enhance the

Democratic concept and maintain a better qualified staff. Such an in-service program should include: (a) The nature of self-concept and its relationship to the educational process; (b) Mental Health--designed to promote better mental health and less anxiety in the classroom; (c) Child growth and development to promote a better understanding of the inner-city cultures; (d) Sociology--for better understanding of ethnic, religious, and social problems of the large metropolitan populations; (e) Educational Psychology--with an emphasis on learning theories; (f) Counseling and Guidance, and (g) Humanities--for a better working knowledge of the contributions of all men, nations, and religions to civilization.

Recommendations for Further Study

1. The relationship between urban teachers' attitudes toward low-income communities and disadvantaged children has been a subject of educational research in recent years. Perhaps a follow-up study, using the data gathered in the present investigation should be undertaken to determine whether these correlations are unchanged in the urban educational park investigated.

2. The present study could be replicated using the CAS and the MTAI to measure the relationship between demographic variables of inner-city school teachers (in another inner-city community resembling the community illustrated in the present study) and their attitudes toward low-income communities in relation to their attitudes toward disadvantaged children. Further research could test the credibility of the findings in the present study.

3. A review of the literature relating to teacher behavior suggests that teacher attitudes toward children is one of the most critical components of a competent inner-city teacher. All elements of future teacher training should be geared to research in terms of its effect on the attitudes of prospective inner-city school teachers. Additionally, the children of inner-city schools and their parents have the right to expect that every teacher employed in the district be cognizant of urban school problems, and be willing to maximize all possible skills and competencies as dedicated professionals, to improve various urban school inadequacies.

4. For the sake of acquiring further knowledge of urban school problems, the CAS and the MTAI should be used in a study designed to determine if experimentally manipulated treatment can change stereotyped or negative attitudes of a selected sample of inner-city school teachers, toward low-income communities in relation to their attitudes toward disadvantaged children.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FORM

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FORM

Instructions: Please circle or fill in only one answer for each question.

1. How old are you?_____

   a. 20-25 b. 26-33 c. 34 and over

2. How many years have you been teaching (Please include present year)? _____

   a. 1-3 b. 4-7 c. 8 and over

3. What is your present marital status?

   a. Married b. Divorced c. Single
   d. Separated e. Widowed

4. What degree(s) do you presently hold?_____

   a. B.A. b. B.A. plus 0-15 c. B.A. plus 16 and over

5. What level are you presently teaching on?_____

   a. Pre-school--Kindergarten b. First grade--Fourth grade

6. How would you characterize the school from which you received your undergraduate teaching degree?

   a. Northern and predominantly black
   b. Northern and predominantly nonblack
   c. Southern and predominantly black
   d. Southern and predominantly nonblack
   e. Other (Please write in)_____

7. How would you characterize your father's occupation?

   a. Unskilled and skilled blue collar
   b. Salaried professional, upper-level manager or official

7. Continued

   c. Self-employed business man, farm owner or operator
   d. White collar clerical, sales, or public service

8. How much formal education did your father receive?
   _____

   a. Some grade school and grade school graduate
   b. Some high school and high school graduate
   c. Some college and college graduate
   d. Some post-graduate work and post-graduate degree

9. How would you characterize the community in which you grew up?_____

   a. Urban b. Rural c. Suburban

10. How would you characterize your racial background?
    _____

    a. Black b. non-Black

11. How would you characterize your geographical location of rearing?_____

    a. Northern b. Southern

APPENDIX B

COMMUNITY ATTITUDE SCALE

APPENDIX B

COMMUNITY ATTITUDE SCALE

Instructions: Please circle only one answer for each question.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	The school should stick to the 3 R's and forget about most of the other courses being offered today.	sa	a	?	d	sd
2.	Most communities are good enough as they are without starting any new community improvement programs.	sa	a	?	d	sd
3.	Every community should encourage more music and lecture programs.	sa	a	?	d	sd
4.	This used to be a better community to live in.	sa	a	?	d	sd
5.	Long-term progress is more important than immediate benefits.	sa	a	?	d	sd
6.	We have too many organizations for doing good in the community.	sa	a	?	d	sd
7.	The home and the church should have all the responsibility for preparing young people for marriage and parenthood.	sa	a	?	d	sd
8.	The responsibility for older people should be confined to themselves and their families instead of the community.	sa	a	?	d	sd
9.	Communities have too many youth programs.	sa	a	?	d	sd

10.	Schools are good enough as they are in most communities.	sa	a	?	d	sd
11.	Too much time is usually spent on the planning phases of community projects.	sa	a	?	d	sd
12.	Adult education should be an essential part of the local school program.	sa	a	?	d	sd
13.	Only the doctors should have the responsibility for the health program in the community.	sa	a	?	d	sd
14.	Mental illness is not a responsibility for the whole community.	sa	a	?	d	sd
15.	A modern community should have the services of social agencies.	sa	a	?	d	sd
16.	The spiritual needs of the citizens are adequately met by the churches.	sa	a	?	d	sd
17.	In order to grow, a community must provide additional recreation facilities.	sa	a	?	d	sd
18.	In general, church members are better citizens.	sa	a	?	d	sd
19.	The social needs of the citizens are the responsibility of themselves and their families and not of the community.	sa	a	?	d	sd
20.	Churches should be expanded and located in accordance with population growth.	sa	a	?	d	sd
21.	No community improvement program should be carried on that is injurious to a business.	sa	a	?	d	sd
22.	Industrial development should include the interest in assisting local industry.	sa	a	?	d	sd

23. The first and major responsibility of each citizen should be to earn dollars for his own pocket. sa a ? d sd

24. More industry in town lowers the living standards. sa a ? d sd

25. The responsibility of citizens who are not actively participating in a community improvement program is to criticize those who are active. sa a ? d sd

26. What is good for the community is good for me. sa a ? d sd

27. Each one should handle his own business as he pleases and let the other businessmen handle theirs as they please. sa a ? d sd

28. A strong Chamber of Commerce is beneficial to any community. sa a ? d sd

29. Leaders of the Chamber of Commerce are against the welfare of the majority of the citizens in the community. sa a ? d sd

30. A community would get along better if each one would mind his own business and others take care of theirs. sa a ? d sd

31. Members of any community organization should be expected to attend only those meetings that affect him personally. sa a ? d sd

32. Each of us can make real progress only when the group as a whole makes progress. sa a ? d sd

33. The person who pays no attention to the complaints of the persons working for him is a poor citizen. sa a ? d sd

34. It would be better if we would have the farmer look after his own business and we look after ours. sa a ? d sd

35. All unions are full of Communists. sa a ? d sd

36. The good citizens encourage the widespread circulation of all news including that which may be unfavorable to them and their organizations. sa a ? d sd

37. The good citizen should help minority groups with their problems. sa a ? d sd

38. The farmer has too prominent a place in our society. sa a ? d sd

39. A citizen should join only those organizations that will promote his own interests. sa a ? d sd

40. Everyone is out for himself at the expense of everyone else. sa a ? d sd

41. Busy people should not have the responsibility for civic programs. sa a ? d sd

42. The main responsibility for keeping the community clean is up to the city officials. sa a ? d sd

43. Community improvements are fine if they don't increase taxes. sa a ? d sd

44. The younger element have too much to say about our community affairs. sa a ? d sd

45. A progressive community must provide adequate parking facilities. sa a ? d sd

46. Government officials should get public sentiment before acting on major municipal projects. sa a ? d sd

47. A good citizen should be willing to assume leadership in a civic improvement organization. sa a ? d sd

48.	Progress can best be accomplished by having only a few people involved.	sa	a	?	d	sd
49.	Community improvement should be the concern of only a few leaders in the community.	sa	a	?	d	sd
50.	A community would be better if less people would spend time on community improvement projects.	sa	a	?	d	sd
51.	Only those who have the most time should assume the responsibility for civic programs.	sa	a	?	d	sd
52.	Living conditions in a community should be improved.	sa	a	?	d	sd
53.	A good citizen should sign petitions for community improvement.	sa	a	?	d	sd
54.	Improving slum areas is a waste of money.	sa	a	?	d	sd
55.	The police force should be especially strict with outsiders.	sa	a	?	d	sd
56.	The paved streets and roads in most communities are good enough.	sa	a	?	d	sd
57.	The sewage system of a community must be expanded as it grows even though it is necessary to increase taxes.	sa	a	?	d	sd
58.	Some people just want to live in slum areas.	sa	a	?	d	sd
59.	The main problem we face is high taxes.	sa	a	?	d	sd
60.	Modern methods and equipment should be provided for all phases of city government.	sa	a	?	d	sd

Bosworth, C.
Ph.D. dissertation
University of Michigan, 1954.

APPENDIX C

MINNESOTA TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY

DO NOT OPEN UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO

MINNESOTA TEACHER ATTITUDE INVENTORY

Form A

WALTER W. COOK
University of Minnesota

CARROLL H. LEEDS
Furman University

ROBERT CALLIS
University of Missouri

DIRECTIONS

This inventory consists of 150 statements designed to sample opinions about teacher-pupil relations. There is considerable disagreement as to what these relations should be; therefore, there are no right or wrong answers. What is wanted is your own individual feeling about the statements. Read each statement and decide how YOU feel about it. Then mark your answer on the space provided on the answer sheet. Do not make any marks on this booklet.

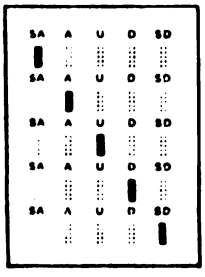
If you **strongly agree**, blacken space under "SA"

If you **agree**, blacken space under "A"

If you are **undecided** or **uncertain**, blacken space under "U"

If you **disagree**, blacken space under "D"

If you **strongly disagree**, blacken space under "SD"



Think in terms of the general situation rather than specific ones. There is no time limit, but work as rapidly as you can. PLEASE RESPOND TO EVERY ITEM.

The inventory contained in this booklet has been designed for use with answer forms published or authorized by The Psychological Corporation. If other answer forms are used, The Psychological Corporation takes no responsibility for the meaningfulness of scores.

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SA—Strongly agree A—Agree	U—Undecided or uncertain	D—Disagree SD—Strongly disagree

1. Most children are obedient.
2. Pupils who "act smart" probably have too high an opinion of themselves.
3. Minor disciplinary situations should sometimes be turned into jokes.
4. Shyness is preferable to boldness.
5. Teaching never gets monotonous.
6. Most pupils don't appreciate what a teacher does for them.
7. If the teacher laughs with the pupils in amusing classroom situations, the class tends to get out of control.
8. A child's companionships can be too carefully supervised.
9. A child should be encouraged to keep his likes and dislikes to himself.
10. It sometimes does a child good to be criticized in the presence of other pupils.
11. Unquestioning obedience in a child is not desirable.
12. Pupils should be required to do more studying at home.
13. The first lesson a child needs to learn is to obey the teacher without hesitation.
14. Young people are difficult to understand these days.
15. There is too great an emphasis upon "keeping order" in the classroom.
16. A pupil's failure is seldom the fault of the teacher.
17. There are times when a teacher cannot be blamed for losing patience with a pupil.
18. A teacher should never discuss sex problems with the pupils.
19. Pupils have it too easy in the modern school.
20. A teacher should not be expected to burden himself with a pupil's problems.
21. Pupils expect too much help from the teacher in getting their lessons.
22. A teacher should not be expected to sacrifice an evening of recreation in order to visit a child's home.
23. Most pupils do not make an adequate effort to prepare their lessons.
24. Too many children nowadays are allowed to have their own way.
25. Children's wants are just as important as those of an adult.
26. The teacher is usually to blame when pupils fail to follow directions.
27. A child should be taught to obey an adult without question.
28. The boastful child is usually over-confident of his ability.
29. Children have a natural tendency to be unruly.
30. A teacher cannot place much faith in the statements of pupils.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

SA—Strongly agree
A—Agree

U—Undecided
or uncertain

D—Disagree
SD—Strongly disagree

31. Some children ask too many questions.

32. A pupil should not be required to stand when reciting.

33. The teacher should not be expected to manage a child if the latter's parents are unable to do so.

34. A teacher should never acknowledge his ignorance of a topic in the presence of his pupils.

35. Discipline in the modern school is not as strict as it should be.

36. Most pupils lack productive imagination.

37. Standards of work should vary with the pupil.

38. The majority of children take their responsibilities seriously.

39. To maintain good discipline in the classroom a teacher needs to be "hard-boiled."

40. Success is more motivating than failure.

41. Imaginative tales demand the same punishment as lying.

42. Every pupil in the sixth grade should have sixth grade reading ability.

43. A good motivating device is the critical comparison of a pupil's work with that of other pupils.

44. It is better for a child to be bashful than to be "boy or girl crazy."

45. Course grades should never be lowered as punishment.

46. More "old-fashioned whippings" are needed today.

47. The child must learn that "teacher knows best."

48. Increased freedom in the classroom creates confusion.

49. A teacher should not be expected to be sympathetic toward truants.

50. Teachers should exercise more authority over their pupils than they do.

51. Discipline problems are the teacher's greatest worry.

52. The low achiever probably is not working hard enough and applying himself.

53. There is too much emphasis on grading.

54. Most children lack common courtesy toward adults.

55. Aggressive children are the greatest problems.

56. At times it is necessary that the whole class suffer when the teacher is unable to identify the culprit.

57. Many teachers are not severe enough in their dealings with pupils.

58. Children "should be seen and not heard."

59. A teacher should always have at least a few failures.

60. It is easier to correct discipline problems than it is to prevent them.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

SA—Strongly agree
A—Agree

U—Undecided or uncertain

D—Disagree
SD—Strongly disagree

61. Children are usually too sociable in the classroom.

62. Most pupils are resourceful when left on their own.

63. Too much nonsense goes on in many classrooms these days.

64. The school is often to blame in cases of truancy.

65. Children are too carefree.

66. Pupils who fail to prepare their lessons daily should be kept after school to make this preparation.

67. Pupils who are foreigners usually make the teacher's task more unpleasant.

68. Most children would like to use good English.

69. Assigning additional school work is often an effective means of punishment.

70. Dishonesty as found in cheating is probably one of the most serious of moral offenses.

71. Children should be allowed more freedom in their execution of learning activities.

72. Pupils must learn to respect teachers if for no other reason than that they are teachers.

73. Children need not always understand the reasons for social conduct.

74. Pupils usually are not qualified to select their own topics for themes and reports.

75. No child should rebel against authority.

76. There is too much leniency today in the handling of children.

77. Difficult disciplinary problems are seldom the fault of the teacher.

78. The whims and impulsive desires of children are usually worthy of attention.

79. Children usually have a hard time following instructions.

80. Children nowadays are allowed too much freedom in school.

81. All children should start to read by the age of seven.

82. Universal promotion of pupils lowers achievement standards.

83. Children are unable to reason adequately.

84. A teacher should not tolerate use of slang expressions by his pupils.

85. The child who misbehaves should be made to feel guilty and ashamed of himself.

86. If a child wants to speak or to leave his seat during the class period, he should always get permission from the teacher.

87. Pupils should not respect teachers any more than any other adults.

88. Throwing of chalk and erasers should always demand severe punishment.

89. Teachers who are liked best probably have a better understanding of their pupils.

90. Most pupils try to make things easier for the teacher.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

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SD—Strongly disagree

91. Most teachers do not give sufficient explanation in their teaching.

92. There are too many activities lacking in academic respectability that are being introduced into the curriculum of the modern school.

93. Children should be given more freedom in the classroom than they usually get.

94. Most pupils are unnecessarily thoughtless relative to the teacher's wishes.

95. Children should not expect talking privileges when adults wish to speak.

96. Pupils are usually slow to "catch on" to new material.

97. Teachers are responsible for knowing the home conditions of every one of their pupils.

98. Pupils can be very boring at times.

99. Children have no business asking questions about sex.

100. Children must be told exactly what to do and how to do it.

101. Most pupils are considerate of their teachers.

102. Whispering should not be tolerated.

103. Shy pupils especially should be required to stand when reciting.

104. Teachers should consider problems of conduct more seriously than they do.

105. A teacher should never leave the class to its own management.

106. A teacher should not be expected to do more work than he is paid for.

107. There is nothing that can be more irritating than some pupils.

108. "Lack of application" is probably one of the most frequent causes for failure.

109. Young people nowadays are too frivolous.

110. As a rule teachers are too lenient with their pupils.

111. Slow pupils certainly try one's patience.

112. Grading is of value because of the competition element.

113. Pupils like to annoy the teacher.

114. Children usually will not think for themselves.

115. Classroom rules and regulations must be considered inviolable.

116. Most pupils have too easy a time of it and do not learn to do real work.

117. Children are so likeable that their shortcomings can usually be overlooked.

118. A pupil found writing obscene notes should be severely punished.

119. A teacher seldom finds children really enjoyable.

120. There is usually one best way to do school work which all pupils should follow.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

SA—Strongly agree
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SD—Strongly disagree

121. It isn't practicable to base school work upon children's interests.

122. It is difficult to understand why some children want to come to school so early in the morning before opening time.

123. Children that cannot meet the school standards should be dropped.

124. Children are usually too inquisitive.

125. It is sometimes necessary to break promises made to children.

126. Children today are given too much freedom.

127. One should be able to get along with almost any child.

128. Children are not mature enough to make their own decisions.

129. A child who bites his nails needs to be shamed.

130. Children will think for themselves if permitted.

131. There is no excuse for the extreme sensitivity of some children.

132. Children just cannot be trusted.

133. Children should be given reasons for the restrictions placed upon them.

134. Most pupils are not interested in learning.

135. It is usually the uninteresting and difficult subjects that will do the pupil the most good.

136. A pupil should always be fully aware of what is expected of him.

137. There is too much intermingling of the sexes in extra-curricular activities.

138. The child who stutters should be given the opportunity to recite oftener.

139. The teacher should disregard the complaints of the child who constantly talks about imaginary illnesses.

140. Teachers probably over-emphasize the seriousness of such pupil behavior as the writing of obscene notes.

141. Teachers should not expect pupils to like them.

142. Children act more civilized than do many adults.

143. Aggressive children require the most attention.

144. Teachers can be in the wrong as well as pupils.

145. Young people today are just as good as those of the past generation.

146. Keeping discipline is not the problem that many teachers claim it to be.

147. A pupil has the right to disagree openly with his teachers.

148. Most pupil misbehavior is done to annoy the teacher.

149. One should not expect pupils to enjoy school.

150. In pupil appraisal effort should not be distinguished from scholarship.