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EDUCATORS' ATTITUDES CONCERNING RIGHTS OF STUDENTS  
AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHERS'  
ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS' CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR.

The University of Oklahoma, Ed.D., 1972  
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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA  
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EDUCATORS' ATTITUDES CONCERNING RIGHTS OF STUDENTS  
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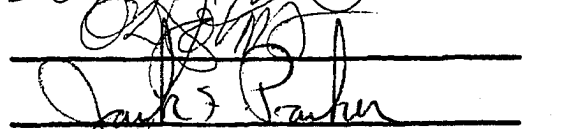

A DISSERTATION  
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the  
degree of  
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY  
JOHN DAVID GUILLIAMS  
Norman, Oklahoma

1972

EDUCATORS' ATTITUDES CONCERNING RIGHTS OF STUDENTS  
AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHERS' ASSESSMENT  
OF STUDENTS' CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR

APPROVED BY

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

When a student reaches the final stages of his doctoral program, he realizes, or should, that a major portion of his success rests with many persons. This candidate was more fortunate than most, for his committee was composed of four professors representing different facets of school administration. These men are respected because they have assumed the role of master teachers in the college classroom and they attempt to impart sound educational teaching for every student. My research and educational experiences have convinced me that the key to classroom learning centers around the teacher's fairness, leadership and interest shown toward the student and his role.

The classroom experiences to which I am addressing are associated with Dr. Glenn Snider's contributions to underlying the ideas of democratic leadership, human rights and equality of educational opportunity; To Dr. Jack Parker who stimulated my interest in organizational theory and its place in understanding the administrative roles and functions; To Dr. Gerald Kidd who also assisted in directing my masters program and his ability to view education from a realistic frame of reference; and, To Dr. O. D. Johns for adding the administrative dimension

of school finance and management. Unfortunately, new candidates will not have an opportunity to study under Dr. Johns for he will retire at the end of this term.

Certainly, I want to express my appreciation to Dr. Snider for the unselfish time and effort he contributed to this study. The dialog between the candidate and his professor during the development was not always in agreement, but one of the basic philosophies which guides Dr. Snider's life is the student's opportunity to disagree with him. Any candidate who has an opportunity to study under Dr. Snider will not find the task necessarily easy, but educationally rewarding.

An expression of appreciation is extended to Dr. Joe Garrison, a long-time friend, and the members of his staff, for contributions they made to this study. A special "thank you" goes to Mrs. Shirley Holt for her computer assistance, and Mrs. Pat Watson for her positive encouragement and assistance.

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EDUCATORS' ATTITUDES CONCERNING RIGHTS OF STUDENTS  
AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO TEACHERS' ASSESSMENT  
OF STUDENTS' CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Varying forms of student dissent and violence have increased in the public schools of this country since the late 1960's.<sup>1</sup> The current issue of rights versus control practices appears to be one source of conflict in public education, and students have reacted by challenging school policies regulating hair and dress, due process practices, the right to expression through various forms, and others. The legitimacy of this dissent may be related to the extent that students are exercising certain basic human rights and the degree to which their rights have been denied.

The conflict between students' rights and control practices in public education are influenced by educators' perception of institutional norms and role-expectations.

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<sup>1</sup>Mildred McQueen, "Today's Students," Research Report, Science Research Associates (Chicago: 1970).

Traditionally, school officials have had the power to control the curriculum, establish employment practices, and make policies effecting students. Recent studies of teacher subcultures indicate that educators are informally evaluated and judged by their peers according to the manner in which they emphasized student control and discipline.<sup>2</sup> Gallup's<sup>3</sup> 1971 survey of public attitudes indicated that discipline and control practices in education were a major concern of citizens across the nation. These attitudes also may influence the educators' perceptions of their roles.

Because public education in America is a social system operating within a democratic framework, many persons have assumed that the value system reflects those attitudes which recognize and protect the rights of students. Inherent in this basic assumption is the notion that public education provides for equality of educational opportunity for all students. Both assumptions may be ideal educational goals for a democratic society, but part of the problem in attaining those

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<sup>2</sup>Richard A. Gorton, "Comments of Research: Do Teachers Equate Good Discipline With Good Teaching," The Bulletin of The National Association of Secondary School Principals, LV (April, 1971), pp. 29-36.

<sup>3</sup>George Gallup, "Third Annual Survey of the Public's Attitudes Toward The Public Schools," Phi Delta Kappan, LIII (September, 1971), pp. 39-40.

goals can be attributed to the fact that public education practices give lipservice only to many of the democratic processes that it purports to teach.

The issue of where one man's rights ends and another's begins has been difficult to resolve because policies and practices which place limitations on students' rights may have been established to enhance the educational processes without regard for the individual. The intent of state statutes that gives someone the power to exercise authority is that each student has access to equal educational opportunity.

The legitimate accepted practices and policies which in some cases are applied to all students because of the threat of violations by some is not, in its self, a defensible reason for denying rights. It is unlawful for a person to exceed the speed limit on our highways, but legislation is not enacted which deprives the public the right to drive an automobile because some person violates the law. The behavior of some students poses a threat to the smooth operation of a school, but this, in itself, is not the legal or moral grounds for denying all students their rights. Laws regulating speed limits do not prevent some persons from speeding, and discipline codes do not prevent some students from being disruptive.

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The standards to which students are held accountable are often related to values and attitudes of educators. Research and theory in the areas of classroom management and control have had limited functional use to educators because of the many impinging variables effecting the interactions of personalities.<sup>4</sup> As a result, educators' perception and assessment of students' behavior is not based on a reasonable exercise of authority based on democratic principals, but on values and attitudes associated with control.

#### Statement of Purpose

The purpose of the investigation was to determine the relationship of teachers' and administrators' attitudes concerning the rights of students on teacher assessment of students' classroom behavior.

#### Statement of the Problem

The problem of this investigation was: To determine the relationship between teachers' attitudes concerning rights of students and teachers' assessment of students' classroom behavior, and to determine if differences existed between administrators; and teachers' attitudes concerning the rights of students. The variables of level of secondary school, race, and sex were controled.

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<sup>4</sup>B. Othanel Smith, "Discipline," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, ed. by Robert Ebel (Toronto: The McMillan Company, 1969), p. 295.

### Statement of the Hypotheses

Because differences and commonalities associated with teaching-learning processes exist simultaneously, it is difficult to isolate all of the significant interactions affecting classroom behavior. Each person comes to the classroom with an unique set of values and experiences. These differences in the individual's experiences are associated with his race and sex and they are among the more basic and predominant factors influencing others' attitudes. These variables were considered factors which influenced teachers' attitudes with regard to rights and their perception of students' behavior.

The hypotheses established were as follows:

- Ho<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between students' assessed classroom behavior when students were grouped according to race, sex or grade level.
- Ho<sub>2</sub>: There is no significant difference between teacher attitudes concerning rights of students when teachers were grouped according to race, sex, and grade level.
- Ho<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant difference in the assessed classroom behavior of students when grouped according to three levels of teachers' regard for rights.
- Ho<sub>4</sub>: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of teachers, and principals or assistant principals, concerning the rights of students.

- Ho<sub>5</sub>: There is no significant difference between attitudes of two groups of teachers concerning the rights of students when teacher groups were identified according to principals who indicate relatively more or less regard for these rights.
- Ho<sub>6</sub>: There is no significant difference between the assessed classroom behavior of two groups of students when the groups were identified according to principals who indicate relatively more or less regard for these rights.
- Ho<sub>7</sub>: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of teachers concerning the rights of students when one group taught in an urban and the other group taught in a suburban school district.
- Ho<sub>8</sub>: There is no relationship between teachers' attitudes concerning the rights of students and teachers' assessment of students' classroom behavior.

### Procedure

The preliminary steps of the investigation involved developing two instruments. One of the instruments was titled the Rights of Students Inventory (RSI) and it was used to measure teachers' and administrators' attitudes concerning several basic issues of the current student rights movement. The second instrument was titled the Classroom Behavior Inventory (CBI) and it was used to assess students' classroom behavior

based on the teacher's perception and recall of classroom interactions between student-student and teacher-student.

The sample of educators used as subjects were selected from 14 junior high and 10 senior high schools from two adjoining districts. One was designated as an urban district and approximately 18 percent of the teachers were randomly selected for subjects; a sample of 53 administrators of these schools was also included. The other district was designated as the suburban and 60 teachers from one of three junior high schools were used as subjects.

Initially, a one percent random sample of students' names was selected from each school and their teachers were identified. After the sample of teachers had been selected, each was requested to assess his student's classroom behavior on the CBI and respond to the RSI. All administrators were requested to respond to the RSI.

Similar testing procedures were used for the suburban teachers, but students whose behavior was assessed were selected and identified from the discipline records of the assistant principal. Thirty students were identified and two teachers were requested to assess the student's behavior. One of the student's two teachers had referred him to the office of the assistant principal.

Data were grouped according to the variables of race, sex and grade level and a one percent random sample of students'

names was stratified by grade level and school. Factorial and correlation procedures were incorporated in the statistical design for testing hypotheses. Appropriate parametric and nonparametric statistics were applied to the data to determine if significant differences or relationships existed and the hypotheses were accepted or rejected based on the findings. The following chapters of this study contain a description of the procedures, findings, conclusions and recommendations.

#### Definition of Terms

Student Rights: Portions of the Human Rights Creed in Education<sup>5</sup> developed by the National Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Education and Human Rights were adopted as a conceptual framework for identifying student rights. They were as follows:

1. To Equal Opportunity for All in  
education
2. Of Due Process and Equal Protection  
Under the Law

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<sup>5</sup>Human Rights Creed in Education, quoted in A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights, (Project Headquarters, University of Oklahoma: Published by the Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project supported by funds from the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under contract number OEG O-70-2213 (721) Phi Delta Kappa, the National Education Association and the National Conference for Christians and Jews, (1971), p. 7.

3. Of Freedom of Speech and of the Press
4. To Dissent
5. To Privacy
6. To be Different
7. Of Freedom from Self-Incrimination
8. To Security of Person and Property
9. To Petition and Redress of Grievances
10. To Freedom of Assembly

Observed Classroom Behavior: A selected set of behaviors in which teachers are requested to assess students' classroom behavior along a continuum from acceptable to unacceptable according to the teacher's perception of the student's behavior. The following classroom behaviors were identified as being common to many classroom interactions of pupil-pupil and pupil-teacher. The student:

1. Listens to and follows the teacher's instructions.
2. Shows respect for the property of others.
3. Works cooperatively with others in classroom activities.
4. Reacts favorably to the teacher's authority.
5. Comes to class with required materials.
6. Attends class with enough regularity to keep up with the required work.
7. Attempts to make teaching difficult by deliberately creating problems unnecessarily.

8. Comes to class with his assignments completed satisfactorily.
9. Utilizes his mental capabilities to the fullest extent in classwork.
10. Demonstrates a willingness to share his ideas, time, material, etc., with others.
11. Controls his frustrations.
12. Comes to class on time.
13. Respects the rights of others in the group.
14. Demonstrates a positive attitude toward the subject matter.
15. Obeys classroom rules and regulations.
16. Works independently.
17. Follows as well as leads in group activities.
18. Is polite to the teacher.
19. Assumes his share of classroom responsibilities.
20. Utilizes his study time satisfactorily.

#### Delimitations

This investigation was limited primarily to the junior and senior high school teachers and principals of the Oklahoma City Public Schools and one junior high school from the Putnam City Public Schools. Findings were attributed to those attitudes which prevailed during the 1971-'72 school year. These findings have been subject to some extraneous bias because of

the community's and Oklahoma City School Board's reaction to the federal court's involvement in the present desegregation policies.

Some teachers may have had high regard for students' rights, but the student behavior did not warrant such favorable ratings. If teacher regard for students' rights is a factor influencing assessment, then this type of variance should not appreciably effect statistical procedures in which differences between two groups are sought. However, strengths in relationships between assessment and rights' attitudes may be reduced. This study was not limited to ranges in behavior and as a result no controls were imposed on the statistical designs.



## CHAPTER II

### RELATED LITERATURE

#### The Student Rights Movement

A search of the literature and research associated with students' rights indicated several situations existed. During the last seven years, many articles have appeared in the professional journals concerning the current student rights movement in both public schools and colleges. Widespread unrest, tension and conflict has resulted in court decisions which show wide disagreement over the issues of student rights, responsibilities, control and basic values.<sup>1</sup>

At one end of the rights continuum were those who subscribed to the premise that responsibilities cannot be learned in the absence of freedom.<sup>2</sup> The other end of this value laden continuum was occupied by those who contended that it was within the power of school officials to exercise those practices necessary to maintain adequate student control policies regardless of the amount of infringement on

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<sup>1</sup>James P. Shaver, "The Teaching of Controversial Issues," The Encyclopedia of Education, I, (New York: The McMillan Company and the Free Press, 1971), p. 434.

<sup>2</sup>Morrel J. Clute, "Rights and Responsibilities of Students," Educational Leadership, (December, 1968), pp. 240-242.

individual rights.<sup>3</sup> Some place between these two extremities of prevailing attitudes was the notion that school officials have the right to the reasonable assertion of authority.<sup>4</sup>

The students' rights movement of the past decade has been associated with various forms of violence and dissent which has shocked many individuals and groups in this pluralistic society. For example, the civil strife in the large urban cities has carried over to the large urban schools and has been the source of racial overtones within many high schools.<sup>5</sup> Students at both the university and high school levels have reacted negatively to the United States' position in the Vietnam War, and this issue has provided another source for open dissent.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>Edward Newton, The Courts and the Public Schools, (2d. rev., Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 564.

<sup>4</sup>Kenneth L. Fish, "The Reasonable Assertions of Authority," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, LV (October, 1971), p. 35.

<sup>5</sup>Mildred McQueen, "Today's Student," Research Report, (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1970), p. 2.

<sup>6</sup>S. L. Halleck, "Hypotheses of Students Unrest," Phi Delta Kappan, XL (September, 1968), p. 5.

Lipset<sup>7</sup> indicated that students are more responsive to political trends, changes in mood, opportunities for action than almost any other group. He also stated:

Historically then, a sharp increase in student activism can be expected in a society when accepted political and social values are being questioned, particularly when events are testing the viability of a regime and where policy failures seem to question the legitimacy of social and economic arrangements and institution. In societies where rapid change, instability, or weak legitimacy of political institutions is endemic, there is what looks like almost constant turmoil among students.<sup>8</sup>

#### Students and the Courts

There have been several reasons why students have been denied the right to due process: (1) School officials and legislative bodies have provided weak and limited policies with regard to due process. (2) Many courts have been reluctant to rule against written or unwritten school policies and practices.<sup>9</sup> (3) The courts have been hesitant to determine if an accused student was guilty of the alleged provocation, i.e., the courts accept investigation practices

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<sup>7</sup>Seymour Lipset, "Rebellion on Campus," The Best Of American Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970), pp. 16-19.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid.

<sup>9</sup>Stephen J. Voelz, "Expulsion Laws Confront Due Process in Federal Courts," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, LV, (February, 1971), p. 30.

conducted by school officials to determine the guilt of the student.<sup>10</sup> (4) There have been and still exist differences in rulings on similar issues among the courts.<sup>11</sup>

The battle between students and school officials over hair length and dress codes has been one primary issue in many school districts across the nation. Some courts have ruled in favor of the student. A judge from the First Circuit Court supported the rights movement when he said:

The Founding Fathers wrote an amendment for speech and assembly; even they did not deem it necessary to write an amendment for personal appearance. We conclude that within the commodious concept of liberty, embracing freedoms great and small, is the right to wear ones hair as he wishes.<sup>12</sup>

These issues have not been resolved and there remain conflicting rulings at various levels of the judicial system and between judicial districts. The U.S. Supreme Court has refused to hear any cases dealing with hair.

Interesting enough, the attitudes as reflected by many court rulings have indicated that the youth of this country have the same basic constitutional rights as any

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<sup>10</sup>Newton, op. cit., p. 564.

<sup>11</sup>Edward T. Ladd, "Students' Rights and the Need For Change in School Laws," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, LV (February, 1971), p. 27.

<sup>12</sup>Thurston v. Richards, 1st. Cir. (1970).

other citizen.<sup>13</sup> Judge Ketcham's<sup>14</sup> analogy probably reflects the Puritan attitudes of the past and provides evidences of the Madison attitudes of the present. His comments were as follows:

When the XIVth Amendment was adopted ... much of our criminal law was rooted in moral theocracy. Punishment was considered necessary for the salvation of an erring individual's soul, but punishment was reserved for the conscious guilt by responsible adults. Hence, a child - not being subject to punishment - was not considered a "person" in the constitutional meaning of that word. ...Current legal standards are reasonableness, fairness and individual rights, not moral right or wrong.<sup>15</sup>

#### The Current Status

Some studies in the area of democratic attitudes attest to the fact that teachers and practicing teachers have either poor understanding or a lack of regard for the democratic process.<sup>16</sup> There was evidence that students had less accepting attitudes toward democracy after having

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<sup>13</sup>Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community District et al., 393 U.S. 503 (1969).

<sup>14</sup>Orman W. Ketcham, "The School and the Law," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals 346 (May, 1970), p. 62.

<sup>15</sup>Ibid.

<sup>16</sup>H. H. Remmers and R. D. Franklin, "Sweet Land of Liberty," Phi Delta Kappan (October, 1962) pp. 22-27.

taken a course in civics or government.<sup>17</sup> Weiser and Hayes,<sup>18</sup> replicated portions of these studies in 1965 and similar results were obtained. They indicated that teachers and their students may have an inadequate or distorted understanding of the meaning of democracy and the Bill of Rights.<sup>19</sup>

The behavior of many schools has changed regarding rules and regulations affecting student behavior and rights since the mid 1960's. Many of these changes were influenced by court decisions especially from the higher, federal courts; others by the social and campus unrest of the late sixties. These processes were given impetus by provisions of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. For example, the California State Department of Education developed a source book for teaching the Bill of Rights.<sup>20</sup> The U.S. Office of Education has funded independent organizations for similar

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<sup>17</sup>Roy E. Horton and H. H. Remmers, Anti-Democratic Attitudes in American Schools, (Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 1963).

<sup>18</sup>John C. Weiser and James E. Hayes, "Democratic Attitudes of Teachers and Prospective Teachers," Phi Delta Kappan XLVII (May, 1966) pp. 476-481.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid.

<sup>20</sup>California, The Bill of Rights: A Source Book for Teachers, Prepared by the Project Staff for the California State Department of Education under the direction of the Advisory Panel to the State Board of Education Committee on the Teaching about the Bill of Rights, 1967.

projects in the area of human rights.<sup>21</sup>

The American Civil Liberties Union has probably been the most active private organization in publishing materials in the area of individual rights and also in defending the rights of students in the courts.<sup>22</sup> A later publication dealt more specifically with the difference in age range for secondary and college students.<sup>23</sup>

Probably the most controversial and threatening publication to many school officials has been the Student Rights Handbook for New York City.<sup>24</sup> Two million copies were printed and distributed to students of the city's school district.<sup>25</sup> The contents described what rights a student

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<sup>21</sup>Human Rights Creed in Education, quoted in A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights, (Project Headquarters, University of Oklahoma: Published by the Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project supported by funds from the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under contract number OEG 0-70-2213 (721) Phi Delta Kappa, the National Education Association and the National Conference for Christians and Jews, (1971), p. 7.

<sup>22</sup>Combatting Undemocratic Pressures on Schools and Libraries: A Guide for Local Communities (New York: The American Civil Liberties Union, 1964).

<sup>23</sup>Academic Freedom in the Secondary Schools (New York: The American Civil Liberties Union, 1968).

<sup>24</sup>Student Rights Handbook for New York City, (Students' Rights Project, Civil Liberties Union: New York).

<sup>25</sup>Ibid.

has and how he may take action against school officials when he feels that his rights have been abridged.

In 1971 the National Educational Association published a detailed account of the rights and responsibilities of students.<sup>26</sup> The Code stated:

... A man's right to control other men is being challenged; a man's right to make his own decisions and act on them is being recognized and exercised.  
 ... Out of the struggle a more balanced concept of rights is emerging; the line where one man's rights end and another's begins is being drawn more nearly half-way between them instead of far to one side.<sup>27</sup>

The recent trends in publishing student rights handbooks have stressed the responsibility dimension as well as rights. The Massachusetts Public Schools published a document entitled Guidelines for Student Rights and Responsibilities in early 1971. This document was rejected by many of the educators of the state because it cited numerous students' rights but it mentioned student responsibilities only one time. As a result of the adverse reaction to the Guidelines, the Massachusetts Secondary School Principals' Association established a committee whose task was to develop another

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<sup>26</sup> Code of Student Rights and Responsibilities, (Developed by the NEA Task Force on Student Involvement: Received by the 1971 Representative Assembly of the National Education Association and referred to its Executive Committee and Board of Directors for implementation) National Education Association Publications, Washington, D.C., 1971.

<sup>27</sup> Ibid, p. viii.



students' rights guide with the explanation of the responsibilities dimension.<sup>28</sup>

A search of the literature and research associated with students' rights indicated an increased concern in public schools in recent years regarding this matter. During the last seven years, there has been increased activity and interest in the area, and the professional journals reflect this new interest. An increase in the number of legal cases involving students and school officials was the major result of widespread student unrest and revolt. A result of the latter was the publishing of many student rights handbooks and codes by individual schools or school districts and educational organizations.

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<sup>28</sup>Student Rights and Responsibilities: A Position Paper, Adopted by unanimous vote of the Massachusetts Secondary School Principals' Association at the Fall Meeting in Auburn, November 9, 1971.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### The Sample

Selection of Urban Educators. The selection of urban teachers was limited to the 23 junior and senior high schools of the Oklahoma City Public Schools. The original sample contained 300 randomly selected teachers which constituted approximately 20% of the total population of secondary teachers. The final sample contained 261 subjects or approximately 18 percent. The reduction in the sample occurred because 22 teachers failed to return the questionnaires and 17 were returned with incomplete information.

An IBM Model 360 computer was used for identifying a random sample of subjects for the investigation. The procedure required using student files to identify students and their teachers. The selection was limited to teachers who taught during the first time period of each day. A second limitation placed on the selection was that no teacher would be requested to assess more than one student. This sampling technique produced a one-to-one matching of students and teachers.

Initially, the computer listed a one percent random selection of students' names by school. Other information included the student's race, sex, grade level and his teacher's identification number. This information was transcribed to the testing materials and forwarded to the principals of each of the respective schools.

The selection of administrators was to have included the entire population from the district. The total was 59 and this information was obtained from the Personnel Directory.<sup>1</sup> The final sample contained 53 administrators; six failed to return the questionnaire.

Table 1, page 24, provides data concerning teachers, students and administrators from the urban school district. The left-hand portion of the table contains population parameters and the right-hand portion contains statistics for the samples. Data concerning students were obtained from pupil membership records,<sup>2</sup> and data for teachers were obtained from personnel records.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Oklahoma, Oklahoma City Public Schools, 1971-72 Personnel Directory of the Oklahoma City Public Schools.

<sup>2</sup>Oklahoma, Oklahoma City Public Schools, Pupil Membership by Time Block and Race, prepared by the Department of Research and Statistics (December, 1971).

<sup>3</sup>Oklahoma, Oklahoma City Public Schools, Certified Personnel Profile, prepared by the Department of Research and Statistics (November, 1971).

Selection of Suburban Teachers. Part of this investigation was concerned with students and teachers from a suburban school district which was adjacent to the urban district. The suburban district had a student membership of approximately 20,000 in grades K through 12. The district had three junior high schools with approximately 1,650 students in each.

Data were obtained for 60 of 74 teachers from one of the junior high schools. The selection processes were designed in order that classroom assessments could be obtained from two of the student's teachers. The classroom assessments were limited to a special sample and the information was also used in the validation procedures of one instrument. The details of this selection of students are presented in a latter section of this chapter.

#### Testing Procedures

Each teacher was provided copies of the Rights of Students Inventory and the Classroom Behavior Inventory; administrators were given the RSI only. The names of students whose behavior was assessed were written on the CBI and teachers were identified by computer number.

After the tests were labeled and coded, they were packaged and sent to the principal of each school for processing. Each package of materials contained a memorandum from the Research Coordinator and the memorandum indicated that this

investigation had been approved by the Research committee of the school district. The instructions also included information as to the selection of subjects and instructions for processing. After the materials had been completed, principals were requested to return all questionnaires to the Research Department via school mail.

TABLE 1

COMPARISONS OF FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF SELECTED SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS WITH KNOWN POPULATION PARAMETERS FOR TEACHERS, STUDENTS, ADMINISTRATORS, AND SCHOOLS

Group	Population		Sample	
	Freq.	Percentage	Freq.	Percentage
Teachers:	1462	100	261	17.9
Female	782	53.4	145	55.3
Male	680	46.6	116	44.7
Black	376	25.7	70	26.7
White	1086	74.3	191	73.3
Students:	30,002	100	261	.009
Female	15,001*	50	132	50.4
Male	15,001*	50	129	49.6
Black	6,957	23.2	66	25.2
White	23,045	76.8	195	74.8
Junior High	14,952	49.88	132	50.4
Senior High	15,040	50.12	129	49.6
Administrators:				
Principals	23	100	22	96.0
Assistants	36	100	31	86.0

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TABLE 1 (cont'd)

Group	Population		Sample	
	Freq.	Percentage	Freq.	Percentage
<b>Schools:</b>				
Junior High	13	100	22	100.0
Senior High	10	100	10	100.0
Suburban District	74	100	60	81.0
*Estimated percentages				

### Instrumentation

#### Earlier Forms of the Classroom Behavior Inventory (CBI).

The development of the CBI took place over a period of approximately two years. Similar forms were used in several Title I programs in the Oklahoma City Public Schools. Earlier such versions of the CBI were used for diagnostic purposes to evaluate certain areas of the affective domain. The CBI was used to evaluate a program based on individualized, prescriptive instruction in several subject areas. Schnee<sup>4</sup> found significant differences in students' assessed classroom behavior following the specialized program. These students had been identified as having academic, psychological and/or classroom adjustment problems.

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<sup>4</sup>Ronald G. Schnee, "Evaluation of the Learning Resource Center Program," Journal of Research and Evaluation of the Oklahoma City Public Schools, Vol. 1, No. 2. (July, 1971).

Guilliams<sup>5</sup> used a similar form of the CBI to measure differences in teacher assessment of classroom behavior of two groups of students. Both groups were identified by their teachers as students whose behavior warranted special recognition. The assignment of students' names to either the control or experimental group was based on a random number selection. The parents of the experimental group were sent a letter of commendation from the school's principal. The teachers were not informed as to which students had been assigned to either group. Students' behavior was assessed four weeks later by the recommending teachers. The results indicated that teachers assessed the treatment group higher than the control group in the following areas: (1) grade level, (2) grade level and sex, and (3) the interaction of treatment, grade level and sex.

Guilliams<sup>6</sup> used another form of the CBI to determine if students who had been placed in a special school for disruptive male students would have positive gains in their assessed classroom behavior. The results were highly significant in

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<sup>5</sup>David Guilliams, "A Method for Rewarding Students with Desirable Classroom Behavior," Journal of Research and Evaluation of the Oklahoma City Public Schools, Vol. 1, No. 4 (January, 1971).

<sup>6</sup>David Guilliams, "A Description and Evaluation of the Washington Center's Program," Journal of Research and Evaluation of the Oklahoma City Public Schools, Vol. 1, No. 9 (December, 1971).

the positive direction. Also, it appears that the CBI has been an effective diagnostic tool for student placement. Norms have been established by discipline specialists to help determine deviant student behavior in a more objective manner.

Revised Form of the Classroom Behavior Inventory. The Classroom Behavior Inventory (CBI) was designed to help facilitate the assessments of students' classroom behavior based on the teacher's recall of the student's social and academic interactions. The CBI contained twenty statements relating to normal classroom activities. All questions, with the exception of item number six, were stated in the positive form and each Likert-type scale was weighted in the corresponding direction. Each statement described some classroom activity and was followed by four adverbs related to frequency of occurrence. For example, question number two stated, "The student shows respect for the property of others." Teachers were requested to respond by selecting one of the following: (4) Very frequently, (3) Often, (2) Sometimes, or (1) Rarely. (Appendix A contains a copy of the Classroom Behavior Inventory.)

#### Validation Procedures of the CBI

Content Validity. Approximately one hundred educators were used to help establish content validity of the CBI. They were selected from the ranks of teachers, principals, assistant superintendents, directors of elementary and secondary education and members of the Consultative Center for Equal



Educational Opportunity and Human Relations Staffs at the University of Oklahoma.

Validity procedures included mailing each evaluator a copy of the CBI. An enclosed letter requested that the original instrument be evaluated according to the following:

- (1) Are there items not present that should be included?
- (2) Which items are irrelevant or unnecessary and could be deleted?
- (3) What suggestions for alteration of the language should be made to make each item as understandable as possible?
- (4) Other comments or suggestions.

Predictive Validity. The final form of the CBI was used in another research effort to determine its predictive or concurrent validity. A set of students' names was selected from the discipline records kept in the assistant principal's office. The records were maintained by the suburban school included in this investigation, and supplied a sample of students who had been referred to the principal's office because of classroom disruptions. After the sample had been selected, two of the students' teachers were requested to assess each student's behavior. One group of teachers had made one or more referrals for each student to the assistant principal; the other group had not reported any classroom infractions.

This procedure provided assessments of each student by two different teachers. The unstated hypotheses were that students who had been sent or referred to the assistant principal would receive less favorable ratings. A second assumption was that this group of students would reflect more deviant behaviors than the average student in most classroom situations. These assumptions were supported by the findings. Therefore, it was concluded that the CBI appeared to be a usable instrument for predicting differences in deviant classroom behavior.

TABLE 2

FREQUENCIES, MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS OF T-TESTS FOR THE ASSESSED CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR OF THREE GROUPS OF STUDENTS\*

Group	Frequencies	Means	Standard Deviation	Significance Level
More deviant	30	49.07	12.90	.02
Less deviant	30	57.48	12.30	
More deviant	30	49.07	12.90	.001
Urban	261	62.44	13.45	
Less deviant	30	57.48	12.30	.05
Urban	261	62.44	13.45	

\*The students in the more and less deviant groups represent the same person, but their behavior was assessed by two different groups of teachers.

When statistical tests were applied to the assessment data of each group, the findings indicated that the "more deviant group" was assessed significantly lower than the "less deviant group." When statistical comparisons were made between the assessed behavior of the mean rating for the urban students and the two suburban groups, the results were significantly different in both cases, i.e., the urban students received more favorable ratings from their teachers. Table 2, page 29, provides statistical data and comparisons for each of the identified groups.

Construct Validity. The CBI was factor analyzed to help determine certain properties related to construct validity. The procedures required that each item for each individual be key punched on IBM cards. The data were factor analyzed using the varimax rotation method, i.e., the IBM's System/360 Scientific Subroutine Package (360A-CM-03X) Version III. The output contained the following data: (1) means, (2) standard deviations for each item, (3) correlation coefficients of all possible combinations of items, (4) unrotated and rotated factor loading by item, (5) eigenvalues, (6) cumulative percentage of eigenvalues, and (7) commonalities for each item.

Table 3, page 31, provides the correlation coefficients matrix for all intercorrelated items. The data indicated that all items were positively correlated. The correlation between

TABLE 3

CORRELATION COEFFICIENT MATRIX OF ALL ITEMS  
ON THE CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	(1)																			
2	58	(1)																		
3	72	57	(1)																	
4	66	66	62	(1)																
5	63	55	60	54	(1)															
6	47	42	47	39	63	(1)														
7	31	32	34	41	21	20	(1)													
8	68	51	66	53	65	56	18	(1)												
9	69	56	64	60	70	53	21	71	(1)											
10	60	48	63	52	51	44	25	64	69	(1)										
11	50	56	54	56	38	31	39	37	46	38	(1)									
12	46	45	44	39	49	50	15	40	33	28	35	(1)								
13	52	70	60	62	51	38	46	43	50	46	65	46	(1)							
14	71	56	70	63	67	55	30	70	74	71	49	44	55	(1)						
15	62	65	60	68	59	45	46	48	55	44	61	50	71	63	(1)					
16	60	51	56	55	51	47	35	63	60	54	51	33	50	63	61	(1)				
17	60	52	63	52	57	52	23	68	71	71	41	38	44	69	50	51	(1)			
18	50	57	47	72	43	29	49	34	42	42	60	35	64	53	66	50	38	(1)		
19	68	55	71	59	61	52	27	69	69	72	46	37	54	71	61	63	70	49	(1)	
20	70	54	64	59	67	50	26	74	79	64	48	41	53	74	57	64	66	45	69	(1)

items 6 and 7 was the only one which failed to be significant at the 0.05 level of significance for 100 degrees of freedom. The correlations between items 5-7, 6-7, 6-9, were significant at  $p = 0.05$  and all other items were either significant at 0.01 levels or less for 100 degrees of freedom. The actual degrees of freedom were 259 and the significant correlations established the amount of shared variance among all items.

Table 4, page 33, provides the factor loadings for the unrotated and rotated matrices. The varimax system isolated three factors from the 20 items on the CBI. Factor I accounted for 51.5 percent of the total variances; factors II and III accounted for 8.75 and 5.87 percent of the remaining variance. The cumulative percentages of the eigenvalues for the three factors were as follows: I - 80.29, II - 12.48 and III - 7.24.

Some experimentation was attempted with item 12 because of its lower variability in the preliminary testing procedures using suburban teachers. When the data from item 12 were removed, the analyses resulted in isolating only two factors. This phenomenon was attributed to the fact that more than 50 percent of the variance of Factor III was produced by the responses from item 12. However, item 12 was not removed because it was sufficiently variable for teachers' responses from the urban schools.

TABLE 4

ITEMS, FACTOR LOADINGS, UNROTATED AND ROTATED VARIMAX  
MATRICES FOR THE CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

Item	Unrotated Matrix			Rotated Matrix			Factor Loading $h^2$
	I	II	III	A	B	C	
1	0.83	- .08	-0.02	0.67	0.40	0.29	0.69
2	0.75	0.24	0.12	0.38	0.59	0.38	0.64
3	0.82	-0.05	-0.06	0.66	0.42	0.26	0.68
4	0.79	0.27	-0.08	0.46	0.67	0.20	0.70
5	0.77	-0.19	0.27	0.59	0.22	0.55	0.71
6	0.64	-0.24	0.42	0.47	0.09	0.64	0.65
7	0.43	0.53	-0.24	0.10	0.71	0.09	0.53
8	0.79	-0.38	-0.03	0.81	0.13	0.29	0.77
9	0.83	-0.28	-0.12	0.82	0.25	0.21	0.78
10	0.75	0.27	-0.31	0.82	0.24	0.01	0.73
11	0.66	0.42	-0.05	0.27	0.72	0.17	0.62
12	0.56	0.06	0.69	0.15	0.24	0.84	0.79
13	0.74	0.42	0.08	0.28	0.74	0.32	0.74
14	0.86	-0.16	-0.07	0.75	0.36	0.27	0.77
15	0.79	0.34	0.12	0.36	0.69	0.38	0.76
16	0.75	-0.01	-0.15	0.61	0.43	0.14	0.59
17	0.77	-0.31	-0.12	0.79	0.20	0.20	0.71
18	0.68	0.51	-0.09	0.24	0.81	0.13	0.73
19	0.83	-0.18	-0.15	0.77	0.34	0.18	0.74
20	0.83	-0.22	-0.07	0.77	0.29	0.25	0.74

Estimates of Validity and Reliability Coefficients

The Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR-20) was used to determine an estimate of the reliability coefficient for the CBI. Individual item variance was computed from the standard deviations produced by the varimax rotation. These standard deviations were converted to variances, summed, and entered

with other variables into the KR-20 equation. The resultant KR-20 coefficient was  $r_{tt} = .9141$ . The computed value was significant at  $p > .01$ ; therefore, the CBI was considered to be a reliable instrument.

Kerlinger<sup>7</sup> defines reliability, validity, specific variance, and error variance as components of the total variance and he expresses these concepts of variance in the following equation:

$$\frac{v_t}{v_t} = \frac{\overbrace{v_A + v_B + \dots + v_K}^{h^2}}{\underbrace{v_t}_{r_{tt}}} + \frac{v_{sp}}{v_t} + \frac{v_e}{v_t}$$

This equation was used to determine estimates of the various components of the total variance. Some numerical values were substituted into the equation to determine the remaining values. The reliability and validity indices of the data collection instrument (CBI) were acceptable, and the instrument was considered to be ready for use.

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<sup>7</sup>Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), pp. 456-457.

Total Variance ( $V_t$ ) = 1 unit  
 Common factor variance or the estimate of  
 validity ( $V_A + V_B + V_B$ ) = .7005  
 Reliability Estimate ( $r_{tt}$ ) = .9141  
 Specific variance ( $V_{sp}$ ) = .2136  
 Error variance ( $V_e$ ) = .0859

Development of the Rights of  
 Students Inventory (RSI)

The RSI was developed after reviewing literature related to students' rights and assessment of those rights. Sources of test items were as follows: (1) A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights;<sup>8</sup> (2) Code of Students Rights and Responsibilities;<sup>9</sup> (3) Student Rights

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<sup>8</sup> A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights, (Project Headquarters, University of Oklahoma: Published by the Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project supported by funds from the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under contract number OEG C-70-2213 (721) Phi Delta Kappa, the National Education Association and the National Conference for Christians and Jews, (1971).

<sup>9</sup> Code of Student Rights and Responsibilities. (Developed by the NEA Task Force on Student Involvement: Received by the 1971 Representative Assembly of the National Education Association and referred to its Executive Committee and Board of Directors for implementation) National Education Association Publications, Washington, D.C., 1971.



Handbook for New York City;<sup>10</sup> (4) Court Cases; and (5) Personal interviews with staff members from the college of Education and the Southwest Center for Human Relations Studies at the University of Oklahoma.

The researcher worked closely with various groups while developing items for the RSI. These included recognized authorities in the area of human rights, college professors, graduate students and high school students. Regents Professor Glenn R. Snider, Chairman of the Phi Delta Kappa National Commission on Human Rights in Teacher Education, worked directly with the researcher in selecting and developing items for the RSI.<sup>11</sup>

The original Rights of Students Inventory (RSI) contained 40 generalized statements depicting various forms of school activities in which some students have attempted to challenge school officials' authority. A later version of the RSI was expanded to 53 items. The final form of the

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<sup>10</sup> Student Rights Handbook for New York City, (Students Rights Project New York Civil Liberties Union: New York).

<sup>11</sup> Professor Glenn Snider has served on the faculty of the University of Oklahoma for more than fifteen years. Some of his contributions include: (1) member of the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Human Rights, (2) Author of many articles on public school administration and human rights, and (3) Twelve years experience with the Southwest Center for Human Relations Studies at the University of Oklahoma.

RSI contained 44 items each followed by a five choice, Likert-type response continuum. Attitudes associated with the items could be rated from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). (A copy of this instrument is presented in Appendix B).

#### Validation Procedures

Several methods were used to appraise the content of items of the revised RSI. A general description of the validation and reliability procedures are presented in the following sections of this chapter.

Content Validity. In addition to the sources of items previously mentioned, content validity was established with the aid of judges who responded as to representativeness of content that the instrument was designed to measure and to relevancy of each test item. Members of the jury were: Dr. Ira Eyster, Director of the National Phi Delta Kappa project on Human Rights in Teacher Education, Dr. Joe Garrison, Director of the Consultative Center for Equal Educational Opportunity and the five members of his staff, Dr. Don Hall, Director of the Southwest Center for Human Relations Studies, and professors John Pulliam and Don Reynolds. All of these persons had assignments at the University of Oklahoma.

One class of graduate students was asked to respond to the instrument to determine the representativeness of items and ambiguity of wording. The class consisted of secondary educators, i.e., teachers, principals and counselors

enrolled in a doctoral seminar in Human Rights in Education. The data were analyzed to determine if individual item responses were sufficiently varied. The results were positive for all but one item.

Several members of the Oklahoma City Intra School Communication Group critiqued the instrument. This group was composed of student council representatives from the various high schools within the district who functioned as a student advisory group to the assistant superintendents, the director of secondary education and principal groups concerning school and student problem areas.

#### Construct Validity

The RSI was factor analyzed to determine the extent to which item variance was related to a set of common factors. The varimax procedures were similar to those used in the analyzation of the CBI. This analysis produced 13 factors or clusters for the 44 items in the final form of the RSI. Most items had reasonably high loadings on two or three factors which accounted for approximately 60 percent of common or shared variance for each item.

Table 5, page 39, provides factor loadings ( $h^2$ ) and the shared variance for each factor and item. Negative correlation coefficients were underlined. Correlation coefficients were significant at the 0.05 level when the value was 0.164 for 100 degrees of freedom. The actual loadings were



TABLE 5 (cont'd)

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	$h^2$
21.	17	69	6	12	<u>10</u>	9	13	<u>9</u>	13	4	<u>2</u>	<u>5</u>	17	61.8
22.	13	2	21	13	6	<u>23</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>7</u>	0	<u>2</u>	58	<u>10</u>	<u>25</u>	55.3
23.	4	13	<u>10</u>	8	<u>6</u>	0	<u>8</u>	<u>8</u>	77	0	<u>6</u>	<u>5</u>	7	65.1
24.	8	<u>11</u>	<u>18</u>	0	6	<u>63</u>	14	11	<u>17</u>	0	3	<u>4</u>	10	53.1
25.	12	14	0	10	2	0	2	<u>2</u>	1	72	16	<u>13</u>	<u>3</u>	60.5
26.	1	13	71	4	4	4	<u>1</u>	7	4	<u>11</u>	16	<u>6</u>	1	56.9
27.	46	6	15	<u>9</u>	12	<u>15</u>	32	<u>24</u>	3	<u>33</u>	4	<u>3</u>	25	61.6
28.	11	26	<u>8</u>	6	1	<u>14</u>	70	<u>5</u>	3	8	10	<u>10</u>	<u>4</u>	63.3
29.	28	0	49	<u>26</u>	<u>24</u>	6	<u>4</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>14</u>	6	12	<u>2</u>	35	57.5
30.	37	31	<u>2</u>	<u>5</u>	47	4	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>7</u>	22	19	<u>24</u>	<u>7</u>	63.0
31.	21	64	7	0	16	10	<u>3</u>	3	10	15	10	2	<u>14</u>	56.9
32.	20	6	2	7	<u>1</u>	9	72	<u>9</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>2</u>	15	<u>9</u>	<u>6</u>	62.6
33.	23	13	0	<u>7</u>	10	0	36	<u>64</u>	13	8	4	<u>7</u>	<u>5</u>	65.2
34.	5	15	1	<u>10</u>	0	<u>12</u>	26	3	<u>7</u>	7	59	<u>14</u>	14	51.0
35.	33	3	<u>13</u>	<u>11</u>	39	<u>13</u>	<u>1</u>	7	<u>13</u>	4	38	<u>18</u>	<u>36</u>	65.2
36.	10	4	0	<u>7</u>	73	<u>10</u>	5	<u>9</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>	58.7
37.	4	19	12	3	22	<u>62</u>	5	<u>13</u>	<u>10</u>	14	26	8	7	60.4
38.	0	<u>25</u>	17	<u>2</u>	17	<u>37</u>	2	<u>14</u>	23	10	16	<u>20</u>	<u>39</u>	56.3
39.	6	0	10	<u>14</u>	8	<u>20</u>	28	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	9	4	<u>61</u>	<u>19</u>	59.7
40.	2	<u>8</u>	64	9	8	13	<u>5</u>	8	<u>11</u>	27	1	<u>13</u>	14	57.6
41.	23	12	5	<u>10</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>10</u>	8	<u>34</u>	<u>14</u>	24	50	9	1	56.3
42.	7	26	<u>1</u>	31	<u>17</u>	37	10	<u>11</u>	<u>10</u>	34	<u>16</u>	18	27	61.6
43.	43	2	<u>3</u>	10	3	<u>25</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>39</u>	<u>20</u>	6	<u>1</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>6</u>	62.3
44.	55	<u>5</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>5</u>	14	<u>26</u>	27	<u>24</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	16	<u>13</u>	<u>3</u>	57.5

### Reliability Procedures

The varimax computer printout was used to help determine which items were stronger discriminators among individuals. Before the final form of the RSI was scored, the maximum variance possible was computed for each item. Those items which failed to account for 70 percent of the maximum variance were rejected. For example, if the maximum variance for 100 individuals were 1.4, then values of 0.98 or less were rejected.

This statistical procedure served three purposes: (1) It helped to increase the value of the estimated reliability coefficient for the total test; (2) It helped to identify individual test items which were poor discriminators on various attitudes; (3) This procedure increased the uniqueness or specific variance of the test.

Nine of the original 53 items failed to account for 70 percent of the maximum variance and, as a result, they were removed from the final form of the RSI. Variances for the individual items and the total variance were obtained and these values were substituted into the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR-20) to obtain an estimated reliability coefficient of  $r_{tt} = 0.8414$ . This value was considered sufficiently adequate for the purposes of this investigation.

### Components of the Total Variance

Known values of  $h^2$  and  $r_{tt}$  were applied to Kerlinger's formula to determine all sources of variance.<sup>12</sup> The results were as follows:

- (1) Common factor variance (Validity) = 0.60
- (2) Specific variance,  $V_{sp}$  = 0.24
- (3) Error variance,  $V_e$  = 0.16
- (4) Reliability,  $R_{tt}$  = 0.84

### Scoring of RSI Items

Scoring of individual items was one of the researcher's main concerns. There were several reasons why this problem existed. Some items were stated in such a manner that the negative end of the scale would indicate a more appropriate democratic attitude. This scheme was used to help reduce the chances of subjects responding to each item without reading the content. The final form of the RSI contained 14 items in which the values of each scale were inverted before scoring.

Many educators expressed attitudes on some items which might have been interpreted as being undemocratic or unconstitutional in nature. One reason for these apparent discrepancies was the fact that there were no recognized definitions

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<sup>12</sup>Kerlinger, loc. cit.

pertaining to the rights of students. Yet, these negative views existed in some areas despite recent court rulings in which students have been granted relief.<sup>13</sup>

The educators who served as members of the jury were asked to help determine which end of the scale on each item of the RSI would reflect a more democratic attitude. The procedure required that jury members respond to the final form of the RSI. However, the jury was not in agreement on all items and the direction of scoring was determined from the responses of the majority.

A computer program was designed which reversed the response of these items in order that all would be additive values. For example, if an item were scored inversely, the value of five was changed to a one, four was changed to two, etc. An asterisk was used to identify these inversely scored items for the reader's convenience. (The items are presented in Appendix B of this paper).

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<sup>13</sup>Stephen J. Voelz, "Expulsion Laws Confront Due Process in Federal Courts," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, LV, (February, 1971), p. 30.



CHAPTER IV  
STATISTICAL PROCEDURES AND FINDINGS

Introduction

The statistical treatment of the data necessary for testing the hypotheses and the consequent results are presented in this chapter. The level of significance of each finding was based on appropriate nonparametric statistics, and Siegel's<sup>1</sup> text was the primary source. Most of the descriptive statistics are presented in "parametric style," i.e., means, standard deviations and standard error of means. This method of presentation was followed for most tables because of the similar range of scores for most groupings of data. Variances were converted to standard deviations because they provided a better conceptualization of the dispersion of scores along similar continuum.

Educator groupings were identified and categorized in many of the tables by race, grade level and sex. The code used for the Black, junior high male student was BJMS. The teacher group with similar race, teaching level and sex characteristics was labeled BJMT. The labeling for variables was

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<sup>1</sup>Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1956).

as follows: B - Black, W - White, J - junior high, H - senior high, M - male, F - female, S - student, and T - teacher.

Differences Between Students' Assessed  
Classroom Behavior When Grouped By  
Race, Sex and Grade Level

Ho<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between students' assessed classroom behavior when students are grouped according to race, sex or grade level.

After the data had been ranked for students' assessed classroom behavior, they were grouped according to the variables identified in Ho<sub>1</sub>. A Mann-Whitney U Test was applied to the sum of the ranks to determine if significant differences existed for each of the variables of race, sex and grade level. There was a significant difference between the rank order of students' assessed classroom behavior beyond the .001 level for male and female students. Differences between the races and grade levels of students were found to be nonsignificant. Ho<sub>1</sub> was rejected on the basis of sex. Table 6, page 46, provides information concerning the identified variables and level of significance for the statistical procedures.

The Kruskal-Wallis One-way Analysis of Variance was applied to the rank order data to determine if significant differences existed among all combinations of groupings of students by race, sex and grade level. This application was a (1 x 8) factorial design. The results were significantly different at the 0.05 level. Table 7, page 47, provides descriptive data concerning these groupings.

TABLE 6

MANN-WHITNEY U TEST RESULTS AND DESCRIPTIVE DATA  
 CONCERNING STUDENTS' ASSESSED CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR  
 WHEN STUDENTS WERE GROUPED BY RACE,  
 SEX AND GRADE LEVEL

Group	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Significance Level
<b>Race:</b>					
Black	66	60.76	13.96	1.72	N.S.
White	195	63.20	13.09	0.93	
<b>Sex:</b>					
Male	129	59.59	13.99	1.23	0.001
Female	132	65.51	11.90	1.04	
<b>Grade Level:</b>					
Junior High	132	61.57	13.97	1.22	N.S.
Senior High	129	63.33	12.88	1.33	

Once it was established that significant differences existed between two or more of the eight groupings of students, it was necessary to determine which group(s) differed significantly. This procedure required grouping eight sets into 28 different combinations of two's. For example, the Black, junior high male was compared with seven other student groupings and they were: BJFS, WJMS, WJFS, BHMS, BHFS, WHMS, and WHFS. The Mann-Whitney U Test was applied to the ranked data, and the statistics produced seven significant differences for the 28 student groupings. Table 8, page 48, provides a matrix of significant levels for the 28 combinations.

The significant differences in teacher assessment of students' classroom behavior for grouping by race, sex and grade level were as follows:

- (1) White students were rated significantly higher than Black students.
- (2) WHFS were rated higher than BHMS, WJMS and WHMS.
- (3) WJFS were rated higher than BJMS, WJMS and WHMS.
- (4) BHFS were rated higher than BJMS.

$H_{01}$  was rejected and it was concluded that students' assessed behavior differs by race, sex and grade level.

TABLE 7

FREQUENCIES, MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, STANDARD ERROR OF MEANS OF STUDENTS' ASSESSED CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR WHEN STUDENTS WERE GROUPED BY RACE, GRADE LEVEL AND SEX

Group	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
BJMS	16	56.05	13.07	3.27
BJFS	19	59.16	17.15	3.93
WJMS	52	59.54	14.97	2.08
WJFS	45	66.89	9.78	1.46
BHMS	10	59.90	14.95	4.72
BHFS	21	61.29	15.08	3.29
WHMS	51	61.90	12.23	1.71
WJFS	47	66.53	11.79	1.72

TABLE 8

LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE MATRIX OF MANN-WHITNEY U TESTS OF STUDENTS' ASSESSED CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR WHEN STUDENTS WERE GROUPED BY RACE, GRADE LEVEL AND SEX

	BJMS	BJFS	WJMS	WJFS	BHMS	BHFS	WHMS	WHFS
BJMS	-							
BJFS	N.S.	-						
WJMS	N.S.	N.S.	-					
WJFS	.001	N.S.	.01	-				
BHMS	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	-			
BHFS	0.10	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	-		
WHMS	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	0.01	N.S.	N.S.	-	
WHFS	.001	N.S.	.01	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	0.01	-

Differences Between Teacher Attitudes Concerning the Rights of Students

Ho<sub>2</sub>: There is no significant difference between teacher attitudes concerning the rights of students when teachers are grouped according to race, sex, and teaching level.

The Mann-Whitney U Test was applied to the data for Ho<sub>2</sub>. Data were grouped independently by race, sex and grade level. Significant differences were obtained beyond the .001 level for comparisons between White and Black teachers. When the data were grouped by teachers' sex significant differences were obtained beyond the .01. Comparisons for data grouped by grade level were not significantly different.

$H_0$  was rejected on the basis of teachers' race, and sex, i.e., female teachers and Black teachers responded more favorably to student rights than did male teachers or White teachers. Table 9, below, gives descriptive data and level of significance for these comparisons.

TABLE 9

MANN-WHITNEY U TESTS RESULTS AND DISTRIBUTION DATA  
OF TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD STUDENT RIGHTS  
WHEN TEACHERS WERE GROUPED BY RACE, SEX  
AND GRADE LEVEL

Group	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Significance Level
Teachers					
Race:					
Black	70	133.11	17.02	2.03	
White	191	125.39	19.89	1.44	.001
Sex:					
Male	116	124.41	19.40	1.80	
Female	128	128.94	21.95	1.82	.01
Teaching Level:					
Junior High	132	128.83	20.02	1.74	
Senior High	129	126.06	18.79	1.65	N.S.

The Kruskal-Wallis (H) tests were applied to the data to determine differences between teacher groupings when the variables of race, sex and grade were considered simultaneously. The results were significant beyond the .01 level. These results implied that significant differences existed between two or more of the eight teacher groupings. Table 10, page 50,

provides descriptive data concerning the eight teacher groups.

TABLE 10

FREQUENCIES, MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND STANDARD ERROR OF MEANS OF TEACHER ATTITUDES CONCERNING STUDENTS RIGHTS WHEN TEACHERS WERE GROUPED BY RACE, TEACHING LEVEL AND SEX

Group	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
BJMT	15	139.00	19.65	5.07
BJFT	20	130.05	21.28	4.76
WJMT	40	122.38	16.23	2.57
WJFT	57	130.00	21.07	2.79
BHMT	14	126.07	8.96	2.39
BHFT	21	136.52	12.81	2.80
WHMT	47	121.00	22.16	3.23
WHFT	47	126.45	17.93	2.62

Mann-Whitney U tests were applied to the data of all possible combinations of teacher groupings to determine where significant differences existed when the data were grouped by race, teaching level and/or sex. The computations produced 11 significant differences. They were as follows:

- (1) BJMT rated significantly higher than the WJMT, WJFT, BHMT, WHMT and WHFT.
- (2) WFJT rated significantly higher than the WJMT and WHMT.
- (3) BHFT rated significantly higher than BHMT, WHMT, WJMT and WHFT.

Table 11, page 51, provides a matrix of significant levels for teacher groupings.

TABLE 11

SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL MATRIX OF THE MANN-WHITNEY U TEST  
RESULTS FOR TEACHERS' ATTITUDES CONCERNING  
STUDENT RIGHTS WHEN TEACHERS WERE GROUPED  
BY RACE, TEACHING LEVEL AND SEX

	BJMT	BJFT	WJMT	WJFT	BHMT	BHFT	WHMT	WHFT
BJMT	-							
BJFT	N.S.	-						
WJMT	.001	N.S.	-					
WJFT	.01	N.S.	0.01	-				
BHMT	.10	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	-			
BHFT	N.S.	N.S.	.01	N.S.	.01	-		
WHMT	.001	N.S.	N.S.	.01	N.S.	.001	-	
WHFT	.01	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	.01	N.S.	-

Teachers' Attitudes for Student Rights Used  
as a Predictor for Assessed Classroom  
Behavior

Ho<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant difference in the assessed classroom behavior of students when grouped according to three levels of teachers' regard for rights.

Because of the significant differences obtained for student and teacher groupings by race, sex and grade level for Ho<sub>1</sub> and Ho<sub>2</sub>, it was necessary to structure statistical designs to account for the sources of systematic variance. To test Ho<sub>3</sub>, data were grouped according to the following criteria: (1) Black students, (2) White male students and (3) White female students' assessed classroom behavior ratings. The data were further divided into the upper 25th, middle 50th and lower 25th percentiles according to teachers' relative regard



for student rights. After the data had been ranked for each group, the Kruskal-Wallis (H) Test was applied in a (1 x 3) factorial design.

The purpose of  $H_0_3$  was to determine the effects of teachers' assessment of students' classroom behavior. The results were found to be non-significant, and Hypothesis five was accepted. Table 12, below, provided the scheme of student groupings and other statistical information.

TABLE 12

KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST RESULTS AND DESCRIPTIVE DATA OF  
BLACK AND WHITE STUDENTS' ASSESSED CLASSROOM  
BEHAVIOR WHEN STUDENT GROUPS WERE SELECTED ON  
THE BASIS OF THREE LEVELS OF THE ASSESSOR'S  
REGARD FOR STUDENT RIGHTS

Group	Frequency	Mean	Range	Significance Level
<b>Black Student:</b>				
Upper 25%	16	62.19	183 - 147	N.S.
Middle 50%	33	60.61	145 - 119	
Lower 25%	16	58.19	118 - 96	
<b>White Male:</b>				
Upper 25%	27	61.04	173 - 135	N.S.
Middle 50%	51	60.67	134 - 114	
Lower 25%	25	58.16	113 - 83	
<b>White Female:</b>				
Upper 25%	27	65.59	175 - 138	N.S.
Middle 50%	40	68.00	137 - 114	
Lower 25%	26	66.19	113 - 96	

Comparisons of Attitudes of Principals, Assistant  
Principals and Teachers Concerning  
Students' Rights

Ho<sub>4</sub>: There are no significant differences among the attitudes of teachers, assistant principals and principals concerning the rights of students.

To test Ho<sub>4</sub>, a Kruskal-Wallis test was applied to data of administrators, male and female teachers' responses using a (1 x 3) factorial design. This design was selected because of the established significant differences existing between male and female teachers. The results were significant beyond .02 level. Table 13, below, provides descriptive data and significant levels for the comparisons.

TABLE 13

MANN-WHITNEY U TEST RESULTS AND DATA DISTRIBUTION  
OF ADMINISTRATORS, MALE, AND FEMALE TEACHERS  
CONCERNING STUDENT RIGHTS

Group	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Significance Level
Adminis- trators:	53	128.09	18.89	2.59	N.S.
Men	116	124.41	19.40	1.80	
Adminis- trators:	53	128.09	18.89	2.59	N.S.
Women	128	128.94	21.95	1.82	

When the Mann-Whitney U test was applied to the data for administrators and male teachers, the statistical comparisons between the two groups were not significantly different. When similar tests were applied to responses by administrators and female teachers the results were not significantly different.

The Mann-Whitney U was used to determine if significant differences existed among various grouping arrangements for administrators. For example, comparisons were made between the following groups: (1) principals-assistant principals, (2) Black-White Administrators, (3) Junior High - Senior High Administrators, and (4) Junior High Principals - Senior High Principals. No significant differences existed at the 0.05 level for any arrangement, but significant differences were found at the 0.10 level for all administrators at the junior and senior high levels. Similar differences also existed for principals when the data were grouped by level of school. In both instances senior high administrators had higher regard for students' rights.

The results of the statistical comparisons between male teachers and assistant principals were not significantly different. Also, comparisons between female teachers and assistant principals were not significantly different. As a result,  $H_{04}$  was accepted and it was concluded that no significant differences existed between educator attitudes regarding rights for

principals - assistant principals, principals - teachers, and assistant principals - teachers. Table 14, below, provides data concerning these comparisons.

TABLE 14

MANN-WHITNEY U TEST RESULTS AND DATA DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS' ATTITUDES CONCERNING RIGHTS OF STUDENTS WHEN ADMINISTRATORS WERE GROUPED BY POSITION, RACE, AND GRADE LEVEL

Group	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Significance Level
Principals	22	131.59	18.27	3.89	N.S.
Ass't. Prin.	31	125.65	19.20	3.45	
Race:					
Black	17	135.59	21.23	5.15	N.S.
White	36	124.58	16.83	2.80	
Grade Level:					
Junior High	26	121.92	14.36	2.82	0.10
Senior High	27	134.07	20.95	4.03	
Jr. Prin.	12	115.16	27.35	7.89	0.10
Sr. Prin.	10	141.30	19.21	6.07	
Ass't. Prin.	31	125.65	19.20	3.45	N.S.
Male Teachers	116	124.41	19.40	1.80	
Ass't. Prin.	31	125.65	19.20	3.45	N.S.
Female Teachers	128	128.94	21.95	1.82	

Principal Influence on Teacher Attitudes  
Concerning Students' Rights

Ho<sub>5</sub>: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of two groups of teachers concerning the rights of students, when teacher groups were identified according to principals who indicated relatively more or less regard for these rights.

The initial procedure required ranking the principals' responses on the RSI to determine how principals ranked regarding these rights. After the principals were identified, the teachers' from the respective schools were identified and the data were grouped. The Mann-Whitney U test was applied to the ranked data to determine if significant differences existed among the following groups: (1) Black males, (2) Black females, (3) White males, (4) White females and (5) totals for all teachers. The grouping of students was used in an attempt to control differences in assessed behavior by race and sex.

The statistical procedures failed to produce any significant results. Hypothesis five was accepted. Table 15, page 57 provides the Mann-Whitney U Test results and distribution data of teachers' attitudes concerning student rights when groups were selected from schools whose principals indicated relatively more or less regard for student rights.

TABLE 15

MANN-WHITNEY U TEST RESULTS AND DISTRIBUTION DATA  
OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES CONCERNING STUDENT RIGHTS  
WHEN GROUPS WERE SELECTED FROM SCHOOLS WHOSE  
PRINCIPALS INDICATED RELATIVELY MORE OR LESS  
REGARD FOR STUDENT RIGHTS

Group	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Significance Level
More Regard	136	126.32	19.69	1.69	N.S.
Less Regard	114	127.96	19.48	1.82	
Black Male:					
More Regard	18	129.89	9.41	2.22	N.S.
Less Regard	11	137.43	24.01	7.24	
Black Female:					
More Regard	18	134.63	17.26	3.52	N.S.
Less Regard	11	128.80	19.28	4.98	
White Male:					
More Regard	48	120.40	21.13	3.05	N.S.
Less Regard	33	120.61	17.01	2.96	
White Female:					
More Regard	46	127.00	20.91	3.08	N.S.
Less Regard	55	130.25	19.03	2.57	

Principals' Influence on Teachers' Assessment  
of Students' Classroom Behavior

$H_{06}$ : There is no significant difference between the assessed classroom behavior of two groups of students, when the groups were identified according to principals who were ranked according to their relative regard for student rights.

Similar procedures were used for testing this hypothesis six as were used in testing of previous hypotheses. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to determine whether significant differences existed between the groups of students based on principals' relative regard for rights. The results were not significant for any grouping; therefore, hypothesis six was accepted. Table 16, below, provides information concerning these findings.

TABLE 16

MANN-WHITNEY U TEST RESULTS AND DISTRIBUTION DATA  
OF STUDENTS' ASSESSED CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR WHEN  
GROUPS WERE SELECTED FROM SCHOOLS WHOSE  
PRINCIPALS INDICATED RELATIVELY MORE OR  
LESS REGARD FOR STUDENT RIGHTS

Group	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Significance Level
<b>Total:</b>					
More Regard	136	63.08	13.49	1.16	N.S.
Less Regard	114	62.04	13.00	1.22	
<b>Black Male:</b>					
More Regard	18	64.50	14.63	3.45	N.S.
Less Regard	11	65.55	13.56	4.09	
<b>Black Female:</b>					
More Regard	24	62.33	12.06	2.46	N.S.
Less Regard	15	60.40	11.88	3.07	
<b>White Male:</b>					
More Regard	48	63.04	12.84	1.85	N.S.
Less Regard	35	60.09	13.59	2.30	
<b>White Female:</b>					
More Regard	46	62.96	14.73	2.17	N.S.
Less Regard	55	62.20	13.57	1.83	

The Attitudes of Teachers from Urban and Suburban  
School Districts Concerning Student Rights

Ho<sub>7</sub>: There is no significant difference between the attitudes of teachers concerning the rights of students when one group was selected from an urban school district and the other group was selected from schools in a suburban district.

Two factors influenced the statistical design used to group data for Ho<sub>7</sub>: First, the suburban school district did not have any Black educators employed, and testing of previous hypotheses had produced significant differences for race of teachers. When the data were grouped by school district only, and statistical comparisons were made, the differences were not significant. But this was a superfluous finding in view of the rationale underlying race differences.

The Mann-Whitney U test was applied to the groupings of White, urban and suburban teachers, and Black urban and White suburban teachers. No significant differences existed between White teachers' attitudes concerning rights for either district. However, Black urban teachers scored significantly higher, beyond .001, than White suburban teachers. Ho<sub>7</sub> was rejected and it was concluded that urban and suburban teachers differed with regard to rights according to their race. Table 17, page 60, provides data concerning these comparisons.



TABLE 17

MANN-WHITNEY U TEST RESULTS AND DISTRIBUTION DATA  
OF SUBURBAN AND URBAN TEACHERS CONCERNING RIGHTS  
OF STUDENTS

Group	Frequency	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	Significance Level
Suburban	56	127.38	16.89	2.26	
Urban	261	127.46	19.74	1.22	N.S.
Suburban	56	127.38	16.89	2.26	
Black Urban	70	133.11	17.02	2.03	.001
Suburban	56	127.38	16.89	2.26	N.S.
White Urban	191	125.39	19.89	1.44	

Relationships Between Teacher Attitudes and  
Teacher Assessment of Students'  
Classroom Behavior

$H_{08}$ : There is no relationship between teachers' attitudes concerning the rights of students and teachers' assessment of students' classroom behavior.

Because of the evidence derived from  $H_{01}$  and  $H_{02}$  concerning differences in assessed classroom behavior of students and differences in teachers' attitudes with regard to rights, data were grouped by race, sex and grade level of assessed and assessor.

Spearman's Rho was applied to the data used to determine correlation coefficients among various combinations of students and teachers by race, sex and grade level. Only

five significant correlations were derived from 32 possible combinations of teachers and students. Significant correlations were derived between: (a) WHMT and WHMS; (b) WHMT and BHMS; (c) BHFT and WHFS; (d) WJFT and BJFS; and (e) BJMT and WJFS. Table 18, below, provides data concerning the correlations between teacher attitudes and assessment of students' classroom behavior.

TABLE 18

SPEARMAN RANK CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS, AND ATTENUATED COEFFICIENTS OF COMPARISONS BETWEEN TEACHERS AND STUDENTS WHEN BOTH WERE GROUPED BY RACE, GRADE LEVEL AND RACE

Group	Frequency	Correlation	Signif- icance Level	Attenuated Correlation	Signif- icance Level
WJFT (WJFS)	21	-.0668	N.S.	-.0762	N.S.
WJFT (WJMS)	22	.1880	N.S.	.2144	N.S.
WFJT (BJFS)	6	.7715	.10	.8797	.02
WJFT (BJMS)	8	.2380	N.S.	.2714	N.S.
WJMT (WJFS)	12	.0298	N.S.	.0388	N.S.
WJMT (WJMS)	21	.0694	N.S.	.0791	N.S.
WJMT (BJFS)	5	.70	N.S.	.7982	.10
WJMT (BJMS)	4	-.40	N.S.	-.4561	N.S.
BJFT (WJFS)	7	.5357	N.S.	.6108	N.S.
BJFT (WJMS)	5	-.40	N.S.	-.4561	N.S.
BJFT (BJFS)	6	-.3714	N.S.	-.4235	N.S.
BJFT (BJMS)	2	-1.00	*	-1.00	*
BJMT (WJFS)	6	-.7143	.10	-.8145	.05
BJMT (WJMS)	4	-.40	N.S.	-.4561	N.S.
BJMT (BJFS)	2	-1.00	N.S.	-.100	*
BJMT (BJMS)	3	-.50	N.S.	-.5701	N.S.

TABLE 18 (cont'd)

Group	Frequency	Correlation	Signif- icance Level	Attenuated Correlation	Signif- icance Level
WHFT (WHFS)	24	.2040	N.S.	.2326	N.S.
WHFT (WHMS)	18	.1315	N.S.	.1499	N.S.
WHFT (BHFS)	4	.80	N.S.	.9122	.10
WHFT (BHMS)	0	0	*	0	*
WHMT (WHFS)	13	-.1250	N.S.	-.1425	N.S.
WHMT (WHMS)	28	.3924	.05	.4474	.02
WHMT (BHFS)	4	.80	N.S.	.9122	.10
WHMT (BHMS)	5	.90	.05	1.00	.01
BHFT (WHFS)	10	-.5575	.10	-.63.57	.05
BHFT (WHMS)	0	0	0	0	0
BHFT (BHFS)	8	.5953	N.S.	.6788	.05
BHFT (BHMS)	0	0	*	0	*
BHMT (WHFS)	0	0	*	0	*
BHMT (WHMS)	5	.3750	N.S.	.4276	N.S.
BHMT (BHFS)	5	.40	N.S.	.4561	N.S.
BHMT (BHMS)	4	.80	N.S.	.9122	.10

\* Indicates insufficient data.

Ferguson<sup>2</sup> indicates that errors of measurement reduce the size of the correlation coefficient, i.e., this phenomenon operates when the reliability of two instruments is less than unity (1). The formula for an attenuated correlation was applied to the identified groups. This application produced five additional significant correlations, and increased

<sup>2</sup>George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), pp. 382-83.

the magnitude of the other coefficients. The five significant correlations observed after attenuation correction were as follows: (1) WJFT and BJFS; (2) WHMT and BHFS; (3) WHFT and BHFS; (4) BHMT and BHMS; and (5) BHFS and BHFS.  $H_{08}$  was rejected on the bases of these findings and it was concluded that a relationship existed between elicited teacher attitudes concerning students' rights and teacher assessments of students' classroom behavior.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION AND ANCILLIARY FINDINGS

#### Sources of Systematic Variance

There were several complex problems associated with this investigation. These were attributed to systematic and directional variances for many of the identified, dependent variables. Some of these variances significantly influenced the nature of the statistical procedures and ultimately the findings.

The effects of the directional variances tended to reduce the strength of relationships between the variables of assessed classroom behavior and attitudes concerning rights. For example, the assessed classroom behavior of male students was rated significantly lower than female students by all teachers, but male teachers, and White teachers rated significantly lower on rights attitudes than did female teachers and Black teachers. As a result, correlation coefficients were reduced significantly. Similar phenomena would exist if height and weight were correlated for the general population rather than limiting the variables to males between 25 and 30 years of age.

Adjustments were made by grouping students and teachers

by race, sex and grade level. This procedure helped to improve the strength of relationships among the three identified variables, but it had some adverse effects on the power of the statistical design. This was attributed to the fact that some instances the sample sizes became too small to make statistical computations.

There were other sources of systematic variance which were not accounted for in the initial investigation. These sources were attributed to significant differences in attitudes concerning rights when teachers were grouped by subject area and years of educational experience. These findings were also included in the investigation and are presented in the latter portions of this chapter.

The large, within variances for many subgroups were also too discrepant to produce statistical differences. Part of the problem was attributed to the fact that the power of the selected nonparametric statistics was based on the rank order data. The problem seemed too complicated because of high discriminatory powers of both instruments. The variables of sex, race, and age produce similar numerical ranges for most groupings, e.g., the range of scores for RSI was within the limits of the 90's to the 170's. As a result, data were widely scattered along the response continua. This was evidenced by the large standard deviations indicated in most of the data tables.

Other Findings Related to the Investigation  
Years of Teaching Experience

Data concerning students rights were grouped according to three intervals of teaching experience, i.e., first year to four years, five to 10 years and more than 10 years of experience. A one-way analysis of variance test was applied, using a (1 x 3) factorial design. The results of three levels of educational experience were found to be significantly different at the .01 level. Table 19, below, shows the results of the analysis of variance.

TABLE 19

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA AND RESULTS OF ATTITUDES  
TOWARD STUDENT RIGHTS WHEN TEACHERS WERE GROUPED  
ACCORDING TO THREE LEVELS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Source	df	S.S.	M.S.	F-Ratio	P
Between groups	2	10,084	5,042	14.67	.01
Within groups	244	83,880	344		
Totals	246	183,964			

A version of Scheffe's test was applied to the data of three combinations of groupings, significant differences were found between the following: (1) Teachers with less than five years of experience had significantly higher regard, beyond .001, for student rights than did teachers with more than ten years of experience. (2) Teachers with five to ten years

of experience had higher regard beyond .01, for student rights than did teachers with more than 10 years of experience. (3) Teachers with less than five years of experience had higher regard for rights than did teachers with five to ten years, but the differences were not significant. Table 20, below, provides data concerning grouping of teachers by the number of years of experience.

TABLE 20  
RESULTS OF SCHEFFE'S TEST AND OTHER DATA CONCERNING  
TEACHER GROUPINGS BY THREE INTERVALS OF YEARS  
TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Freq.	Means	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	P
0 - 4 (I)	133	132.02	18.07	1.56	
5 - 10 (II)	50	126.68	22.27	3.15	
More than 10 (III)	64	116.75	16.18	2.02	
-----					
I - II					N.S.
I - III					.001
II - III					.01

An analysis of variance in a (1 x 3) factorial design and statistical procedures was applied to the data to determine if the number of years of teaching experience was a factor influencing teacher assessment of students' classroom behavior. The results produced no significant F-ratio for the three groupings by experience.

Data were grouped by subject area taught to determine if this factor influenced the teachers' attitudes concerning student rights. Subject areas were as follows:



Business, Physical Education, Industrial Arts, Language Arts, Social Studies, Science, and Math. Music and Art were combined. A one-way analysis variance using a (1 x 8) factorial design indicated significant differences among the group. The results were significant beyond the .05 level. Table 21, below, provides the results of the ANOVA computations.

TABLE 21

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA AND RESULTS OF ATTITUDES  
TOWARD STUDENT RIGHTS WHEN TEACHERS WERE GROUPED  
BY SUBJECT AREA TAUGHT

Source	df	S.S.	M.S.	F-Ratio	Significance Level
Between groups	7	10,700	1,529	4.32	.05
Within groups	229	80,940	353		
Totals	236	91,640			

After it had been established that differences existed among the subject areas, Scheffe's tests were applied to the data to determine which areas differed significantly. The tests indicated that teachers of Physical Education scored significantly lower on the RSI than teachers of other subject areas with the exception of Industrial Arts teachers. Social studies teachers had the highest means and they scored significantly higher than all others with the exception of teachers in the Music, Science and Language Arts areas. Industrial Arts teachers ranked second lowest on the RSI

and their scores were significantly lower than teachers of all areas with the exception of Physical Education teachers. Language Arts teachers scored significantly higher than Physical Education, Industrial Arts, Business and Math.

Table 22, below, provides the significant levels among the 28 different comparisons of teacher attitudes concerning rights when teachers were grouped by subject areas. Means, frequencies and standard deviations are listed at the bottom portion of Table 22, to help facilitate interpretation.

TABLE 22

SIGNIFICANT LEVELS MATRIX OF SCHEFFE'S TESTS FOR  
TEACHER GROUPINGS BY SUBJECT AREA TAUGHT

Subject Area	P.E.	I.A.	Bus.	Math.	Mus.	Sc.	L.A.	S.S.
Physical Ed.	-	N.S.	.05	.02	.05	.01	.001	.001
Industrial Arts		-	.10	.10	.10	.01	.001	.01
Business			-	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	.10	.10
Mathematics				-	N.S.	N.S.	.05	.10
Music					-	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
Science						-	N.S.	N.S.
Language Arts							-	N.S.
Social Studies								-
-----								
Frequencies	.16	18	29	43	17	19	69	26
Means	110.8	114.4	123.7	124.7	126.6	131.2	132.3	132.7
Standard Deviations	18.12	11.21	20.14	16.49	18.57	17.20	20.56	21.47

Attempts were made to determine if differences existed in assessed classroom behavior when teachers were grouped by

race, teaching level, sex, and combinations of all three variables. In each instance, the differences were not found to be significant. The apparent reasons were attributed to the previously identified, directional variances.

Comparisons were made among the 23 schools to determine if significant differences existed among teacher attitudes concerning rights and assessed behavior. There was no significant difference with regard to student rights, but there were significant differences in the assessed classroom behavior of students by schools. However, no statistics were applied to the data to determine the extent to which individual schools differed. This difference may have been attributed to the sample, i.e., a high percentage of white female students.

The relationship between rights attitudes and assessed behavior was not significant when the mean ranks of the CBI and RSI were compared by school. The rho coefficient was .21 and a value of .359 was needed for significance at the .05 level.

#### Principals' Influence on Rights Attitudes and Assessed Behavior

Hypotheses five and six were included in the investigation to determine whether principals influenced teachers' attitudes concerning students' rights and their assessed classroom behavior. Neither hypothesis could be rejected

since no differences existed among attitudes of teachers whose principals scored above the median on the RSI and those teachers whose principals scored below the median.

The data revealed some unpredicted phenomena in that the principals who indicated relatively more regard for students' rights had teachers who tended to have less regard for students' rights. The opposite situation was found with teachers of principals who indicated relatively less regard for students' rights.

The data were grouped five different ways and the negative effects were observed in all but one group, i.e., Black female teachers of principals with more regard for rights scored highest. These apparent negative effects may have been the result of chance factors operating in the selection procedures. The selected samples may have been represented by higher concentration of Blacks, females, and/or younger teachers in the language arts areas. If the discrepancies were not attributed to sampling bias, then there would appear to be some interaction effects among principals and teachers with regard to the rights of students.

Similar groupings and statistical procedures were applied to the data for assessed classroom behavior for teachers whose principals indicated relatively more regard for rights. No significant differences were found, but teachers

tended to rate students' behavior lower when principals indicated higher regard for rights. These findings also may have been related to the chance factors operating in this investigation.

There were other forms of directional variance within the administrator ranks. These variances tended to cancel each other and negated the possibility of significant findings. For example, high school principals indicated higher regard for student rights than did junior high principals, but junior high students were rated somewhat higher than high school students on the CBI. Some of the higher teacher attitudes were associated with junior high teachers, but the principals as a group had lower attitudes. These differences produced canceling effects on relations between principals' regard for rights and teachers' regard and assessment of behavior.

It was also noted that the administrator sample was among the more variable of the educator groups with regard to students' rights. Large variances in scores tended to lower the chances of finding significant difference for some comparisons. For example, principals differed from assistant principals; Blacks rated higher than Whites; senior high administrators scored significantly higher than junior high principals and similar findings existed between the principals of this school level. These large variances lessen

the discriminative powers of some statistical tests for determining significant differences.

### Educators Responses to the RSI

Statistical comparisons were made to determine the differences between mean responses to the RSI and an "absolute neutral" position to determine the relative percentage of educator groups with regard to student rights. Absolute neutral was computed by multiplying the number of test items by the neutral position of 3 on the RSI. The product was 132 units of measure. The highest possible score was 220 and the lowest was 44.

Twenty-five comparisons were made between the established neutral mean and the obtained means of various groups to determine the percentage of educators who scored below this reference point. A z-score value was computed from the difference between these means and the standard deviations of each group.

The only groups scoring above the neutral mean were as follows: (1) Language Arts teachers, (2) Social Studies teachers, (3) Black teachers, (4) teachers with less than five years of experience (5) Black administrators and (6) senior high school administrators.

The results tended to support the accusations of others who claimed that educators have anti-democratic

attitudes.<sup>1</sup> Justice William O. Douglas<sup>2</sup> contended that "if educators were given an examination on the Bill of Rights -- most of our teachers would fail it." These views may be indirectly supported by the percentages of educator groups who failed to recognize or agree that students are entitled to rights identified in the RSI. Table 23, below, provides information concerning the type of educator grouping, means, z-scores and percentages of educator groups scoring below the neutral position of 132.

TABLE 23

MEANS, Z-SCORES AND PERCENTAGES OF NEGATIVE  
RESPONSES OF EDUCATOR GROUPS TO THE RSI

Group	Mean	Z	Percentage
<u>Urban Teachers</u>	127.38	.23	59.1
<u>Experience:</u>			
0 - 4	130.02	.00	50.4
5 - 10	125.68	.24	59.0
More than 10	116.75	.94	83.0
<u>Subject Area:</u>			
Business	123.7	.41	65.9
Physical Ed.	110.8	1.17	87.9
Industrial Arts	114.4	1.57	94.2

<sup>1</sup>John C. Weiser and James E. Hayes, "Democratic Attitudes of Teachers and Prospective Teachers," Phi Delta Kappan, (May, 1966) pp. 276-281.

<sup>2</sup>William O. Douglas, quoted in Isidor Starr, The Encyclopedia of Education I, (New York: The McMillan Company and the Free Press, 1971), p. 246.

TABLE 23 (cont'd)

Group	Mean	Z	Percentage
Language Arts	132.3	.02	49.6
Social Studies	132.7	.03	48.8
Science	131.3	.04	51.6
Math	124.7	.44	51.7
Music	126.6	.29	61.4
<u>Teaching Level:</u>			
Junior High	128.83	.16	56.4
Senior High	126.06	.32	62.6
<u>Race:</u>			
Black	133.11	.07	47.2
White	125.39	.33	62.9
<u>Sex:</u>			
Male	124.41	.39	65.2
Female	128.94	.14	63.9
Administrators	128.09	.21	57.9
Principals	131.59	.02	50.8
Ass't. Principals	125.63	.33	62.9
Junior High Adm.	121.92	.70	75.8
Senior High Adm.	134.07	.10	46.0
Black Adm.	135.59	.17	43.2
White Adm.	124.58	.44	67.0



## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary of Findings

The problem of this investigation was: To determine the relationship between teachers' attitudes concerning rights of students and teachers' assessment of students' classroom behavior, and to determine if differences existed between administrators; and teachers' attitudes concerning the rights of students when the variables of level of secondary school, race, and sex were controled.

The statistical treatment and analysis of the data produced findings which are summarized and presented in the following section. The first hypothesis was that there is no significant difference between students' assessed classroom behavior when students were grouped according to race, sex or grade level.  $H_{o_1}$  was rejected for the variable of sex.

It was also hypothesized that there is no significant difference between teacher attitudes concerning rights of students when teachers were grouped according to race, sex and grade level.  $H_{o_2}$  was rejected for the variables of race and sex. Sources of these differences were in the following groupings:

- (1) Black teachers who indicated a significantly higher regard for rights than did White teachers.
- (2) Female teachers who indicated a significantly higher regard for rights than did male teachers.
- (3) Black junior high, male teachers who indicated significantly higher regard for student rights than did the following teacher groups:
  - (a) White, junior high, male teachers
  - (b) White, junior high, female teachers
  - (c) Black, high school, male teachers
  - (d) White, high school, male teachers
  - (e) White, high school, female teachers.
- (4) Black, high school, male teachers who indicated a significantly higher regard for student rights than did the White, high school, male teacher.
- (5) Black, high school, female teachers who indicated significantly higher regard for rights than did the following groups:
  - (a) Black, high school, male teachers
  - (b) White, high school, male teachers
  - (c) White, high school, female teachers
  - (d) White, junior high, male teachers.
- (6) White, junior high, female teachers who indicated significantly higher regard for rights than did the following teacher groups:

- (a) White, junior high, male teachers
  - (b) White, high school, male teachers.
- (7) Black teachers who indicated a higher regard for rights than did White teachers, and
- (8) Female teachers who indicated a higher regard for rights than did male teachers.

On the basis of significant differences in these groups,  $H_{02}$  was rejected.

The third hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the assessed classroom behavior of students when grouped according to three levels of teachers' regard for rights was accepted.

A test of the fourth hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the attitudes of teachers, and principals or assistant principals, concerning the rights of students revealed no significant differences between: (1) principals and assistant principals, (2) Black and White administrators, (3) male teachers and administrators, (4) female teachers and administrators, and (5) administrators and all teachers.  $H_{04}$  was accepted. However, there were significant differences between junior and senior high administrators, i.e., the latter had higher regard for rights of students. When the principals were compared for the two levels, significant differences were obtained in the same order.

The fifth hypothesis that there is no significant difference between attitudes of two groups of teachers concerning the rights of students, when teacher groups were identified according to principals who indicate relatively more or less regard for these rights was accepted when analysis of the data revealed no significant differences.

The sixth hypothesis was that there is no significant difference between the assessed classroom behavior of two groups of students, when the groups were identified according to principals who indicate relatively more or less regard for these rights. This hypothesis was also accepted.

The seventh hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the attitudes of teachers concerning the rights of students when one group taught in an urban and the other group taught in a suburban school district was rejected. Although no significant differences were found between White teachers from urban and suburban school districts, there was a significant difference between Black, urban teachers and White, suburban teachers concerning the rights of students.

The eighth hypothesis was that there is no relationship between teachers' attitudes concerning the rights of students and teachers' assessment of students' classroom behavior. Results of tests indicated that significant correlations existed between teacher assessment of students'

classroom behavior and their teachers' regard for rights for the following groups:

- (1) A positive relationship between the White, junior high, female teacher and the Black, junior high, female student.
- (2) A positive relationship between the White, junior high, male teacher and the Black, junior high, female student.
- (3) A negative relationship between the Black, junior high, male teacher and the White, junior high, female student.
- (4) A positive relationship between the White, high school, female teacher and the Black, high school, female student.
- (5) A positive relationship between the White, high school, male teacher with the following high school student groupings:
  - (a) White male, (b) Black male, and
  - (c) Black female.
- (6) A positive relationship between the Black, high school, female teacher and the Black, female student; and a negative relationship between the White, female student.
- (7) A positive relationship between the Black, high school, male teacher and the Black, high school male students.

### Related Findings

When teachers were grouped by subject area with regard to student rights, the following differences were obtained:

- (1) Business, Mathematics, Music and Science teachers were significantly higher than Physical Education and Industrial Arts teachers.
- (2) Language Arts and Social Studies teachers were significantly higher than Physical Education, Industrial Arts, Business and Mathematics teachers.

When teachers were grouped according to teaching experience, a significant difference was found. Teachers with less than ten years experience had higher regard for students rights than did teachers with more than ten years experience.

In view of the fact that teachers' race, sex, years of experience, subject area taught and other variables were factors influencing attitudes concerning student rights, it is doubtful that the statistical design and sample sizes of this investigation were adequate. As a result, the relationship between teacher assessment of students' classroom behavior and teacher attitudes concerning student rights did not produce the strengths of relationships which may exist between the two variables. However, the findings did reveal relationships which supported the basic premise that teachers' assessment of

students classroom behavior is influenced by their attitudes concerning rights.

### Conclusions

The major conclusions were: (1) Attitudes elicited by the RSI appeared to be only one set of factors influencing teachers' perception of students' classroom behavior for certain interaction of both persons when sex, race and grade are considered; (2) The majority of educators, both teachers and principals, either do not understand the relationship between student rights and the principles underlying the democratic process or they feel that students should not be given the same rights as other American citizens; (3) Male students may not generally receive the same positive reward as female students because teachers tend to perceive their behavior as being more deviant.

If students are to be provided a genuine equality of educational opportunity in our schools, considerable effort must be given to the re-education of teachers, principals and other educators in the areas of human relations and human rights. Teacher perception of deviant behavior may often be due to inadequate understanding of these matters and fixed behaviors regarding the control factors in the school.

### Recommendations

Based on the findings of this investigation, it is suggested that the following might help expand the area of

known research in the area of students' rights:

- (1) An investigation might be made between the relationship of pupil control practices, rules and regulations, and educators' attitudes concerning the rights of students.
- (2) The Rights of Students Inventory should be correlated with other attitudinal instruments for similar educator groups.
- (3) Determine if the frequency of certain types of student dissent is related to the attitudes of educators in different schools.
- (4) Determine if principals employ assistant principals and teachers with similar attitudes concerning student rights.
- (5) School officials should provide leadership in the creation of written codes and policies which clearly define the rights of students.
- (6) Any research effort with the RSI should be limited to statistical designs which control for the variables of race, grade level, sex, subject area and age.



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**APPENDIX A**  
**CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY**

CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR INVENTORY  
(Confidential)

CODE \_\_\_\_\_

SCORE \_\_\_\_\_

Student's Name \_\_\_\_\_ Grade \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher's Name \_\_\_\_\_ Subject \_\_\_\_\_

After reading each item, circle the number in each column which best describes the student's behavior.

Very Frequently	4
Often	3
Sometimes	2
Rarely	1

- |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Listens to and follows the teacher's instructions.                                   | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. Shows respect for the property of others.  | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. Works cooperatively with others in classroom activities.                             | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. Reacts favorably to the teacher's authority.   | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. Comes to class with required materials.  | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. Attends class with enough regularity to keep up with the required work.              | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. Attempts to make teaching difficult by deliberately creating problems unnecessarily. | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. Comes to class with his assignments completed satisfactorily.                        | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. Utilizes his mental capabilities to the fullest extent in classwork.                 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. Demonstrates a willingness to share his ideas, time, material, etc., with others.   | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Very Frequently	4
Often	3
Sometimes	2
Rarely	1

11. Controls his frustrations.	4	3	2	1
12. Comes to class on time.	4	3	2	1
13. Respects the rights of other in the group.	4	3	2	1
14. Demonstrates a positive attitude toward the subject matter.	4	3	2	1
15. Obeys classroom rules and regulations.	4	3	2	1
16. Works independently.	4	3	2	1
17. Follows as well as leads in group activities.	4	3	2	1
18. Is polite to the teacher.	4	3	2	1
19. Assumes his share of classroom responsibilities.	4	3	2	1
20. Utilizes his study time satisfactorily.	4	3	2	1

**APPENDIX B**

**RIGHTS OF STUDENTS INVENTORY**



CURRENT ISSUES CONFRONTING PUBLIC SCHOOLS

During the past decade, students of public schools have repeatedly challenged many rules and regulations governing student conduct. The authority of teachers, principals and other school officials has been tested in local, state and federal courts. Court rulings have been inconsistent and as a result, the conflict between the basic issues of authority and rights has not been resolved.

This instrument was designed to help survey teachers' and principals' attitudes concerning these basic issues.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA  
(circle appropriate areas)

Race:	Black	White	Other
Sex:	Male	Female	
Position:	Teacher	Assistant Prin.	Principal
Years Experience:	0, 1, 2,	3-5, 6-10,	more than 10
Level:	Elementary	Junior High	High School
Subject Area(s):	_____		
	(write)		
Size of District:	Under 500,	500-1000,	1,000-5,000,
	5,000-10,000, over 10,000		
Size of School:	Under 250,	250-500,	500-1,500
	Over 1,500		

## INSTRUCTIONS

After reading each item, circle the number in each column which best describes your personal feeling concerning the statement. Please respond to each item.

Strongly Agree	5
Generally Agree	4
Undecided	3
Generally Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * 1. Public schools do not have strong enough discipline policies to control adequately student conduct.                                  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. Students have the right to distribute newspapers and other literature on school property without prior approval from school officials. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. The degree to which individual rights are respected and protected in schools is a good indicator of quality education.                 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| * 4. Students have a good understanding of the basic principles associated with the democratic process.                                   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. Parents have the right to inspect their child's "full" school record at any time during school hours.                                  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| * 6. Teachers and principals always consider students innocent of wrong doings until guilt is clearly established.                        | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. The amount of student dissent in public schools is directly related to the denial of their basic human rights.                         | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| * 8. School officials have the right to deny the operation of underground newspapers.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. Students have a right to choose what is appropriate grooming for school.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Strongly Agree	5
Generally Agree	4
Undecided	3
Generally Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *10. Students should be given only those rights which they can handle responsibly.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| *11. Censorship of students' written materials, (newspapers, pamphlets, etc.) is a right of school officials.                                   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 12. Students have a right to wear arm bands and symbols of protest in public schools.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 13. Parents and other interested citizens have a right to inspect group statistical records.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 14. Students have a right to abstain from testifying against themselves or other persons.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 15. Students have the right to choose their teacher when more than one teacher is assigned to a specific class.                                 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 16. Public education provides an equal opportunity for all students, regardless of socioeconomic level, ethnic background, or academic ability. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 17. Students have the right to conduct peaceable demonstrations on school property.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 18. Students respect the rights and authority of teachers and school officials.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 19. Married students have the right to participate in all organized classroom and school supported extra activities, (sports, drama, etc.).     |   |   |   |   |   |
| *20. School officials have the right to inspect students' lockers without student consent.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| *21. Public education operates as a functional model of the democratic process.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Strongly Agree	5
Generally Agree	4
Undecided	3
Generally Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 22. Students are denied their rights when textbooks and other published materials are void of contributions made by members of minority groups. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| *23. Students respect the rights of other students.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 24. Students have the right to share in developing most governing policies of their schools.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 25. Compulsory attendance may be a denial of students' rights.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| *26. Teachers have the right to lower students' academic grades for discipline reasons.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 27. Public schools should abolish all dress codes.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 28. Students have the right to petition against existing school policies or practices.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| *29. It is necessary to deny some individual rights to support the majority rule concept.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 30. Students are denied many of their basic human and civil rights in most educational institutions.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| *31. Teachers support and defend the rights of all students.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 32. Students have a right to actively campaign against school policies or other political issues.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 33. Unwed pregnant female students have the right to attend their regular schools.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Strongly Agree	5
Generally Agree	4
Undecided	3
Generally Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 34. Students have the right to refrain from participating in the Flag Salute and the Pledge of Allegiance.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 35. Dissent and violence in any institution or society is directly related to the denial of individual, civil, and basic human rights.                                  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 36. The denial of students' rights in public education can be attributed to the fact that the democratic process is often cumbersome, time consuming and disruptive.    | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 37. Students have a right to share in many actual decision-making processes of public education (curriculum, selection of materials, and teachers).                     | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 38. The State Department of Education should require public school officials to develop needed regulations and policies which respect and protect basic student rights. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| *39. Students have a right to a formal hearing with their parents and/or legal counsel before expulsion from school.  | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 40. Punishment of an entire class is permissible under certain circumstances.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 41. Militant students should not be permitted to attend public schools.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 42. Students have a right to know and to challenge the accuracy or retention of records kept in school files.   | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Strongly Agree	5
Generally Agree	4
Undecided	3
Generally Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1

43. Students should have the right to be a member of any school sponsored extra-curricular activity regardless of grades, regularity of attendance or marital status. 5 4 3 2 1
44. Student and student organizations should have the right to invite and hear any person speak. 5 4 3 2 1