This study was based on the assumption that urban black students hold more positive attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education than urban white students. The black students were from schools with a high concentration of lower-to-middle-class students and the white students were from schools with a high concentration of middle-to-upper-middle-class students. Both sets of students were from the metropolitan school district of Portland, Oregon. The purpose of this study was to compare differences in the educational attitudes and opinions of these two groups of students.
In meeting this objective, it was first necessary to construct an appropriate survey-instrument composed of three separate scales of attitudes and opinions toward (a) teachers, (b) school, and (c) education. The instrument was comprised of thirty-three statements: eleven items having to do with teachers, eighteen items having to do with school, and four items having to do with education.

Based on Portland Public Schools' academic and demographic data, eight schools were selected to participate in the study. Four schools had a high concentration of black students from lower-to-middle-class families and four schools had a high concentration of white students from middle-to-upper-middle-class families. A total of 213 eighth-grade students (100 black students and 113 white students) completed the attitude and opinion questionnaire during the week of April 21, 1975. Questionnaires were scored, allowing one point for each positive response, and no points for each negative or for no response.

Appropriate statistical tests were used: three Student's "t" tests in testing differences of means between the two groups were applied to total, teacher, and school scores; and four Chi-Square tests in testing differences between the two groups were applied to four items having
to do with the concept of education. In all tests, the .05 level of significance was used.

The findings of the statistical tests revealed that these two racially- and socio-economically-different groups of students held essentially the same attitudes and opinions toward school and education. The tests, however, revealed that "the white group" was more positive toward teachers than "the black group," and that "the black group" was slightly more positive toward the concept of education than "the white group." Both sets of students responded equally toward statements concerning school. The assumption that "the black group" held more positive attitudes and opinions toward the composite of the concepts of teachers, school, and education was rejected.

Because these two sets of students were from different racial and socio-economic backgrounds, the findings that they both valued school and education positively and almost equally is of importance. As pointed out by the literature, social class is not a determining factor in attitudes and opinions toward schooling. Based on this study, at least for these two groups of students, it was concluded that race does not influence attitudes toward school and education.
A Comparison of the Educational Attitudes of Eighth-Grade Students of Portland, Oregon: Urban Black and Urban White

by

Victor Matthew Rini

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Professor of Education in Charge of Major

Redacted for privacy

Dean of School of Education

Redacted for privacy

Dean of Graduate School

Date thesis is presented ___________ July 2, 1979

Typed by Doresa Dressler for ___________ Victor Matthew Rini

Redacted for privacy
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A COMPARISON OF THE EDUCATIONAL ATTITUDES OF EIGHTH-GRADE STUDENTS OF PORTLAND, OREGON: URBAN BLACK AND URBAN WHITE

I. INTRODUCTION

Having traversed the passive Fifties, through the turbulent Sixties, and the relative indifference of the Seventies, Americans may wonder if in fact any permanent social change took place over the past three decades. Recently, a most persistent youth culture permeated the nation. Currently, instead of a generation gap and a greening of America, there seems to be an overwhelming nostalgia for the past, and at least among students, a return to proms and homecoming queens. A recent survey of attitudes toward the public schools (Gallup 1976) revealed that most Americans were in favor of stronger discipline in the classroom and a traditional curriculum of reading, writing and arithmetic.

However, there was a time, during the Sixties and early Seventies when, at least for the youth of America, it seemed as if some of our cherished institutions and traditions were becoming timeworn and outdated. There was
a growing awareness among many young people that what was once acceptable for parents would no longer suffice. In its stead, reported the Carnegie Commission of Higher Education (1973), a new "mentality" was developing, one which opposed many of middle-class America's accepted values and institutions.

The underlying force of this new perspective was change. Toffler (1970) believed that change was producing an assortment of contradictory phenomena; turnabouts were the order of the day and hypothetical paradoxes were no longer hypothetical.

It seemed as if traditional institutions for many mainstream youth (white, middle-class and under thirty) to a large extent no longer applied but were merely given lip-service. Conversely, while in the past, opportunities for full participation in society's institutions were often denied to the minorities (Blacks, Chicanos, and Native Americans), these same institutions, especially in education, were seemingly being utilized and becoming viable avenues for equality and success.

Was it possible, because of the dynamic aspects of our change-oriented society, that traditional attitudes held by white and black students, two socially and culturally different groups, were doing a turnabout? Was there
a growing disenchantment among many white, middle-class youth, turning away from traditional education and maintaining the assumption that school was merely an extension of a crass and commercial society? And, conversely, was it possible that many black youth from the inner-cities, inspired by the black movement of the Sixties, paradoxically took on the role of the white middle-class student who believed that a good education leads to success, a good job, and the American Dream?

If it is in fact true that a new consciousness was developed during the Sixties and early Seventies, and new attitudes were created by both black and white youth, then it must be reckoned with by persons most concerned with the education of American youth. This study deals with such an issue.

Statement of the Problem

For years the American public has seemingly accepted the proposition that most black youngsters in the nation's public schools hold rather negative attitudes toward teachers, school, and education. The accepted belief among most has been that formal schooling has always been of great importance to most white middle-class youth. In the light of the Sixties and early Seventies,
it becomes essential to investigate and to re-appraise certain timeworn assumptions of students' attitudes toward teachers, school, and education.

This study focuses on the paradoxical assumption that there has been a shift in attitudes toward schooling at the junior-high school level. Specifically, are black eighth-graders from predominantly lower-to-middle-class families more positive toward teachers, school, and education than white eighth-graders from predominantly middle-to-upper-middle-class families?

Objectives

The ultimate objective of this study was to discover differences, if any, in the educational attitudes of lower-to-middle-class black eighth-graders and middle-to-upper-middle-class white eighth-grade students, both groups from the urban school district of Portland, Oregon.

The following objectives were to be accomplished:

1. A review of the literature to include:
   (a) educational attitudes and opinions of black and of white students, (b) public attitudes toward the public schools, (c) the Portland black community and its social classes, (d) the Portland school district, and (e) current
theories of attitude change.

2. A survey of Portland Public Schools' demographic data designed to identify (a) schools with heavy populations of lower-to-middle-class black students, and (b) schools with heavy populations of middle-to-upper-middle-class white students as defined in the definition of terms in this study.

3. The construction of an instrument comprising three Likert-type scales of attitudes toward (a) teachers, (b) school, and (c) education, for specific use by eighth-grade students.

4. A survey of black and white eighth-grade students in selected Portland schools designed to reveal attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education.

5. The collection, compilation, and statistical analysis of written response-data from selected Portland, Oregon eighth-grade students.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education held by "the black group" and "the white group."
Hypothesis 1 deals with the entire tripartite questionnaire, which included eleven statements concerning teachers; four statements concerning education; and eighteen statements concerning school. The questionnaire as a whole contained thirty-three statements, sixteen positive and seventeen negative.

The rationale for hypothesis 1 is based on the assumption that schooling is necessarily concerned with the concepts of teachers, school, and education. Although these concepts may be treated separately, it would be unrealistic to compare the two groups without comparing them in terms of all three concepts. Hypothesis 1 then is concerned with the responses of the two groups of students toward a composite of the concepts of teachers, school, and education.

2. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions toward teachers held by "the black group" and "the white group."

Hypothesis 2 is concerned with the responses of the two groups toward teachers, and is dealt with separately from school and education. The rationale for this is based on the assumption that, while students may favor the concepts of school and/or education, they may still hold their teachers in disfavor, or vice versa.
An example of statements used in this section is: "most teachers treat students fairly."

3. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions toward school held by "the black group" and "the white group."

Hypothesis 3 deals only with the concept of school, and is dealt with separately from teachers and education. The rationale for this is based on the assumption that, while students may favor the concepts of teachers and/or education, they may still hold the concept of school in disfavor, or vice versa.

An example of statements used in this section is: "what I learn in school really helps me."

4. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that education makes one a happier person.

5. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that one needs education for what one wants to become.

6. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that education is mostly a waste of time.

7. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that
life is hard when one doesn't have a good education.

Hypotheses 4, 5, 6, and 7 are concerned with the concept of education in general. They are treated as four separate elements because only four items dealing with education were included in the overall questionnaire. Because of this, responses to each item were tested separately and analyzed more closely. It is possible, for example, that a future-oriented respondent may favor the idea that individuals need education for what they want to become and still feel that, in terms of the present, education per se is a waste of time.

Rationale for testing the four items separately from the concepts of teachers and school is that while a student may hold the concepts of teachers and/or school in disfavor, he may still hold favorable attitudes toward education, or vice versa.

An example of statements used in this section is: "education makes you a happier person."

**Definition of Terms**

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions will be used:

**Alienation.** In the *Dictionary of Education* (Good 1959), alienation is defined as "removed from or out of
sympathy with the prevalent goals, trends, or mores of society or of one's cultural group; characteristic responses include withdrawal, rebellion, and anomie."

Attitude. A relatively enduring and learned predisposition to respond consistently, positively or negatively, toward a given social object or a class of social objects. \(^1\)

Education. As defined in the Dictionary of Education (Good 1959), education is a general term which basically includes "the social process by which people are subjected to the influence of a selected and controlled environment (especially that of the school) so that they may attain social competence and optimum individual development."

Educational Attitude. A relatively enduring and learned predisposition to respond consistently, positively or negatively, toward a set of phenomena having to do with schools and schooling, which include (a) school work (class-work, subject matter, and homework), (b) teachers (administrators, aides, and other school personnel), (c) school in terms of success and failure

\(^1\)The definition is largely based on Marvin E. Shaw & Jack M. Wright, Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes, pp. 3-4; and Milton Rokeach, Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values, p. 112.
(grades, tests, retention, promotion, and graduation),
(d) attendance, punctuality, and preparedness, and (e)
attending school as a means of advancement (getting a good job,
earning a living, and making money).

Lower-to-Middle-Class Urban Black Student: A black
student from the social class which includes blue- and
white-collar employees, laborers, and the unemployed,
generally with some high school education (but less than
12.2 years of education completed), and a combined family
income of less than $9,750 per annum, who resides in the
inner-city (the Albina district) of Portland, Oregon.2

Middle-to-Upper-Middle-Class Urban White Student. A
white student from the social class which includes pro-
fessionals, semi-professionals, corporate employees, and
certain white-collar employees, generally with some col-
lege education (above 12.2 years of education completed),
and a combined family income of more than $9,750 per
annum, who resides outside the inner-city of Portland,
Oregon.

Opinion. According to the Dictionary of Modern
Sociology (Hoult 1969), opinion is defined as a judgment

2Education and income figures were based on Port-
land Public Schools Evaluation Department, Achievement
Profiles (Portland, Oregon: Portland Public Schools,
1974).
about a particular phenomenon, not necessarily based on evidence. Opinion differs from attitude in that the latter is less specific and situational but more persistently held and more deeply felt. In comparison with belief, an opinion is less enduring and emotional.

The Issue of Color and Class

This study deliberately revolves around the comparison of attitudes and opinions of two groups of students, each from different races and social classes.

Comparing the attitudes and opinions of black middle-class students and white middle-class students is not the issue of this paper. In such a study, the underlying assumption would be, except for race, that socioeconomic factors would be equal or at least almost equal. Based on the literature, it would be difficult to assume the equality of a black and white middle-class in America (see Chapter II in this paper, section on Social Class in the Black Community). Among the reasons for this, as pointed out by Goffman (1963), is that racial minorities experience a social phenomenon called stigma. According to Newman (1973):

... one is not an athlete who happens to be black, but a black athlete. ... physical stigma is socially defined in a way that all but completely overshadows the individual's personality and social experiences (p. 217).
Hence, one is not merely a member of the middle-class; he may be a black member of the middle-class, or, more accurately, a member of the black middle-class. Blackness then, in our society, is an important variable which tips the scales in favor of the white majority, and makes for a "different kind" of middle-class. What the black middle-class may be, however, is a middle-class in the black community, aspiring to the same goals of the white mainstream, but not on a par with the white middle-class in the overall society. Havighurst & Neugarten (1967) have pointed out that

Negroes and whites of the United States are caste-like groups with barriers of custom, rather than law, now operating to separate them. . . . Within a caste-like group there is likely to be a social-class structure if the group is large, and if there has been sufficient opportunity for some of its members to secure property or occupations that confer leadership and prestige so that variations in socio-economic status can occur. This has happened among Negroes . . . (pp. 33-34).

This study, however, is concerned with comparing the attitudes and opinions of two racially and socio-economically different groups. They are the two social classes that may have been influenced the most by what occurred in the Sixties (the black movement, the anti-war and student protests, alternative lifestyles, and the drug
culture). They are the large lower-to-middle-class group of blacks residing in the inner-cities and the younger siblings of the white middle-to-upper-middle-class college youth. The assumption is that what took place at that time may have influenced the lives of ghetto blacks more than the complacent black middle-class and white college youth more than the average white lower-to-middle-class.

Furthermore, a curious relationship exists between these two racially and socially different groups. In his discussion of the phenomenon of black youth choosing white colleges over black colleges, Thompson (1974) argues that blacks "obviously accept the white upper middle class as their cultural reference groups" (p. 19).

In summary, the major rationale for comparing these two particular groups is that it was felt that they would have been influenced more by the events of the Sixties and early Seventies than any other group of students at this particular grade level.

Assumptions and Limitations of the Study

Based on Portland Public Schools' racial and socio-economic analysis of the Portland schools, eight schools were selected to participate in the target study: four schools with the highest concentration of lower-to-middle-
class black students, and four schools with a high concentration of middle-to-upper-middle-class white students.

The four schools selected from the Albina neighborhood had the highest percentage of black students enrolled in the city. Fortunately, the administrators of each of the four schools were willing to participate in the study. On the other hand, the four schools with the highest concentration of white middle-to-upper-middle-class students were selected on the basis of socio-economic status and their willingness to participate. There were other schools which could have participated; however, the willingness of the administrators in the four "white" schools was the deciding factor in using their schools in the study.

Sabin School, a fifty-fifty "black-white" school, was included, because although not predominantly black, it was, in addition to the other three selected "black" schools, the only school in the Albina district which had a nearly equal number of "white" and "black" students in attendance. Historically, Sabin School had been enrolling more and more black students over the past few years, and it was assumed that Sabin would eventually become a predominantly black school.

Based on Portland Public Schools' demographic data, it was assumed that the four "black" schools would reflect
lower-to-middle-class black attitudes toward teachers, school, and education. Based on the same demographic data, it was assumed that the four "white" schools would reflect middle-to-upper-middle-class educational attitudes.

It is possible that in the "black" schools there may have been some upper-class blacks in attendance, and some lower-class whites in attendance at the "white" schools. It was also assumed that the majority of black eighth-grade students from these four "black" schools generally reflected the educational attitudes of black eighth-grade students in the Albina neighborhood. It was further assumed that the majority of eighth-grade students from the "white" schools generally reflected the attitudes of white middle-to-upper-middle-class eighth-grade students outside of the Albina neighborhood.

One of the arbitrary choices made in the early stages of the study was that one eighth-grade class from each school, "black" and "white," would participate in the study. The rationale for this was the fact that some of the schools had only one eighth-grade class. Therefore, King School, the school with the largest black population, was selected to "contribute" two eighth-grade classes so
that the "black" numbers would nearly equal those of the "white" schools, an ingredient necessary to accomplish the proposed statistical tests.

Out of a total of almost 5,000 eighth-graders in the Portland public schools, 213 students participated in the target study, slightly less than 5 percent of all Portland public schools' eighth-graders. A total of 100 black and 113 white eighth-graders completed the attitude and opinion questionnaire.
II. REVIEW OF SUPPORTIVE LITERATURE

Supportive literature relevant to this study and indirectly related to students' educational attitudes was reviewed. The literature surveyed touches briefly on (a) public attitudes toward the schools, (b) size and structure of the Portland School District, (c) certain aspects of the black community of Portland, Oregon, (d) social classes among black Americans, and (e) theories of attitude-change.

Public Attitudes Toward the Schools

In a national survey of attitudes toward the public schools (Gallup 1976), the major findings revealed an emphatic shift toward the more traditional values: a demand for more strict discipline of the young, a need for higher academic standards, and a return to the traditional curriculum of reading, writing, and arithmetic. In order of importance, the following list of major problems was viewed by the general public as critical:

1. Lack of discipline
2. Integration/segregation/busing
3. Lack of financial support
4. Poor curriculum
5. Use of drugs
6. Difficulty of getting "good" teachers
7. Parents' lack of interest
8. Size of school/classes
9. School Board policies
10. Pupils' lack of interest

When asked to grade the quality of public school education in general, on a scale of "A" to "Fail," the findings were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ratings Given the Public Schools</th>
<th>National Totals</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;A&quot; Rating</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;B&quot; Rating</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;C&quot; Rating</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;D&quot; Rating</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Fail&quot;</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know/no answer</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the rating of "C" is considered "average," then 42 percent of the public considers the quality of the schools as above average, 28 percent considers them as just average, and 16 percent as below average.

In analyzing the response-data, the researchers discovered that the groups of adults most critical of the schools were: (a) the youngest group (the recent graduates), the eighteen to twenty-nine age group; (b) city
dwellers as opposed to suburbanites; and (c) adults from the western states.

The breakdown in terms of race was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>FAIL</th>
<th>Don't Know/No Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonwhite</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>13</td>
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Of the white adults, 43 percent considered the public schools above average, as opposed to only 31 percent of the nonwhites.

In terms of favoring certain measures for the improvement of the public schools, nonwhites proved to be more positive than whites.

1. As opposed to 76 percent of whites, 84 percent of nonwhites thought it was a good idea for the local school system to offer courses to parents to help their youngsters in school.

2. As opposed to 65 percent of whites, 67 percent of nonwhites were in favor of a standard national examination in order for students to get a high school diploma.

3. As opposed to 21 percent of whites, 26 percent of nonwhites believed that unionization of teachers has helped the quality of the schools.
4. As opposed to 51 percent of whites, 62 percent of nonwhites were in favor of extending the bargaining rights of teachers to include such things as class size, curriculum, and teaching methods.

The overall findings revealed a continued concern over discipline, the teaching of basic skills, meeting the needs of individual students, improving parent/school relations, and an emphasis on moral development. Teachers were expected to be of high moral character and to communicate, discipline, inspire, be dedicated to their profession, and have a love and concern for children.

The Local School District

During the time this study was undertaken, based on a report distributed by the Portland Public Schools ("The Word 1974-75"), the school district served a total of 63,638 students in 125 schools. At that time there were 4,998 eighth-grade students. Employed by the district was a total of 5,415 personnel; of these, 3,160 were certificated teachers. Pupil-teacher ratio in K-8 schools was 21.5 to one. Cost per elementary school student was $1,051 as compared with $1,490 for a secondary school student.
Divided into three areas, the district covered a total of 152 square miles. Headed by a seven-member board of education, it was run by a superintendent and a staff of associate, assistant, and area superintendents. It served the large metropolitan area of Portland, Oregon, a city with a population of approximately 350,000.

In 1975, the year of this study, 11 percent of the total student population was black, and 11 percent of the elementary school students were black (Rist 1978).

The Local Black Community

The black community, similar to the "Little Italys" and the "Chinatowns" of the large cities, has been and still is very much a part of the American scene. It has served as a refuge and a dead-end for blacks for over 200 years, and while the white-ethnic communities for the most part have assimilated, the black community continues to endure. Patterned essentially on the white community (Frazier 1957), the black community has survived as something less than ideal, but also as a haven for those denied access to complete participation in the American mainstream.
The Neighborhood

In the Fifties, the black community of Portland, Oregon, the Albina neighborhood, was an area bounded by Union Avenue on the east, Interstate Avenue on the west, Oregon Street on the south, and Fremont Street on the north (City Club of Portland 1957). Since that time, the black population has steadily grown and Albina has annexed contiguous tracts of land, northward and eastward, until now the meaning of "Albina" has changed to mean the black community, the area where Portland's blacks reside. The 1970 Census of Population and Housing reported that 21,572 blacks were residing in the city of Portland, 5.6 percent of the city's population. The largest majority of blacks resided in the Albina neighborhood (see Appendix 2).

When comparing the Albina neighborhood with the entire city, the Portland Development Commission (1968) reported that Albina

... contains Portland's greatest concentration of sub-standard housing, the highest incidence of welfare assistance, crime, the lowest income (47 percent of the families reported an income of under $3,000), and educational achievement (p. 15).

In an article in The Sunday Oregonian Magazine, Van Cleve (1968) described the Albina community as "schizophrenic, complex, controversial" (p. 7).
If Albina is a ghetto and a poverty pocket, however, Albina is also, more so a neighborhood--one of the oldest in the city--with its own network of churches, organizations, traditions, and customs reflecting human identification rather than human emasculation.

This Albina has an interracial complexion. This Albina has stores and restaurants reflecting Negro tastes. This Albina has a language and a style that would imply to the visitor why Negroes have contributed more to the national culture in terms of music, literature, and human expressions than any other minority group (p. 7).

At that time, Van Cleve reported that at least fifty service organizations were registered with the Neighborhood Services Center in Albina. Among those reported were the Model Cities Program, the Multi-Services Center, the Albina Family and Community Services Project, the Albina Health Care Center, the Legal Aid Clinic, the Albina Neighborhood Improvement Center, the Youth Opportunity School, and the Youth Teen Center.

The Family

The most fundamental issue underlying many of the problems in the black community is that of the black family. According to the Moynihan Report (United States Department of Labor 1964), the black family in the urban ghettos is slowly crumbling.

At the heart of the deterioration of the fabric of Negro society is the deterioration of the Negro family. It is the fundamental source of the weakness of the
Negro community at the present time. . . . the family structure of lower-class Negroes is highly unstable, and in many urban centers is approaching complete breakdown (p. 5).

The report brought out the following:

1. Nearly a quarter of urban black marriages are dissolved.

2. Nearly a quarter of black births are illegitimate.

3. Nearly a quarter of black families are headed by females.

4. One-third of non-white children live in broken homes.

5. Fertility rates for non-white women are one-third higher than those for whites.

6. The black family is essentially based on a matriarchal structure.

Basic reasons for the deterioration of the black family in the community all seem to be directly or indirectly linked to the historical racism and segregation which has been forced on American blacks.

The 1970 Census of Population and Housing reported that of a total of 6,743 black households in Portland, Oregon, there were 2,118 where the female was either the head of the household or the primary individual in the family; this was a total of more than 31 percent of all
black households.

Many children in Albina were from broken homes, homes in the process of breaking up, or from foster homes. Name-changing because of a step-father was common. Many lived in what is described as an "extended family" rather than the family unit with which whites are familiar. A father might or might not be present, but often one or two cousins lived in the same household. In many Albina families, the absence of an adult male was noticeable and resulted in the absence of a male model for many Albina youths. Also, more so than in the white community, it seemed that many school-age children baby-sat younger siblings, and by necessity learned early in life to fend for themselves.4

The Schools

For many black parents, education has always been viewed as a way out of the ghetto; however, while education has played a major role in the social mobility of many European immigrants and their children, black Americans have not been as successful, mainly because of ____________________________

4Observations made by the author while teaching at Eliot and Boise Schools in the Albina neighborhood of Portland, Oregon, over a seven-year period (1967-74). This information was acquired through interviews, discussions and "rap-sessions" with black students, black teachers, and blacks from the local community.
segregation, discrimination, and because of "the ghetto school" itself.

Educationally, Albina fared lower than the remainder of the city. The 1970 Census of Population and Housing reported that 24 percent of Albina adults had never finished grade school as compared to 8 percent of the general Portland population. The median of completed school years among Albina adults was 10.5 years compared to 12.3 years for Portland adults.

In the Sixties, the Portland School Board appointed a committee to discover what might be done to improve the achievement of students in "culturally-deprived" areas. After extensive research, the Committee on Race and Education (1964), chaired by the Honorable Herbert M. Schwab, submitted its report to the Board of Education in October 1964. The committee reported that

... the Albina community image is unattractive for some who live in it and for those who observe it from the outside (p. 44).

The Committee's most significant observation was that the "disadvantaged" in Portland were largely neglected. It was found that while the school system had developed programs for children with mental and physical problems, it had "paid little attention to the educational consequences of low-socio-economic environment in disadvantaged schools" (p. 92).
The major recommendation of the committee was the proposal of a model school program to aid those students whose achievement levels were below the city-wide mean. Class sizes were to be reduced to twenty children, and pre-school programs were to be developed. A full-time nurse and community agent for each model school was to be provided. A total of fifty recommendations were made to the school board.

The school district implemented many but not all of the committee's recommendations. A "model school" program based on the principle of compensatory education was instituted, and was designed to help the "disadvantaged" students of Portland, in effect, the black students. Nine schools were involved, eight schools in or adjacent to the Albina neighborhood and one in a poor white section of the city. Funds for operating the program came from the federal government under the provisions of several acts, the most important being the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 and the Economic Opportunity Act. Smaller class loads, tutorial programs, and a pre-school program were established. Community agents--to serve as liaisons between the schools and the community--were hired; teacher and neighborhood aides were added to the schools. Teacher Corps interns were used as reading teachers, tutors, and as reliefs for overworked teachers. In-service
classes in Black History were developed to give teachers a better understanding of the black subculture.\textsuperscript{5}

In 1970, the program ran its course, the district was reorganized and the black schools of Albina remained black. In 1972, the Oregon State Department of Education reported that ten schools in or adjacent to Albina were considered de facto segregated schools. The Department stated that "over the past two years, the proportion of black students has remained consistently segregated, particularly at the elementary level" (p. 9).

During the 1971-72 school year, district-hired recruiters invited parents to send their children to selected white schools designated as "receiving" schools by the school district. While a sizable number of students were transferred to schools outside the Albina community, many parents elected to keep their children enrolled in the neighborhood "ghetto" schools. The policy of transferring black students on a voluntary basis from Albina schools to "receiving" schools is in existence as of this writing.\textsuperscript{6}

\textsuperscript{5}Observations made by the author.

\textsuperscript{6}Ibid.
Social Class in the Black Community

Under conditions of slavery, social class as such did not exist among blacks. According to Bernard (1973), a class system based on personality characteristics and a personal pecking order had somehow evolved. Rose (1964) points out that after emancipation, a black middle and upper class developed in order to minister to the needs of the black community, tending to tasks that whites did not wish to take on.

While a class system was developing within the black community, a caste system existed which placed blacks in an inferior position to whites. Warner, Meeker, & Eells (1949) argued that any member of either of the two castes was punished by society's rules if he intermarried, and his offspring were also punished by being placed in the lower caste. Caste rules varied, however, from region to region throughout the United States. According to Rose (1964), the effect of caste has been gradually changing as the black class structure develops. Mayer & Buckley (1955) reported that a caste system was still operating, especially in the South. Havighurst & Neugarten (1967), arguing that the position of blacks had changed rapidly during the late Fifties and early Sixties, placed blacks in a "caste-like" group rather than in a rigid caste group.
Social classes in the black community developed into a three-class system of lower, middle, and upper classes. Rose (1964) points out that the largest majority of blacks comprise the lower class. This group contains the unskilled, semi-skilled, and domestic workers down to the criminals, prostitutes, gamblers, and no-goods. Many blacks in this group are illiterate; they have little education and by necessity their incomes are low or non-existent. There is no feeling of individual dignity, family life is disorganized, and sexual morality is lax; dishonesty, violence, and aggression are not uncommon in this group. The black middle class, although larger than the upper class, is smaller than the lower class. It is composed of members of a higher economic level than the lower class. Education is valued and while many have an elementary and high school education, few have gone to college. They belong to the Baptist or Methodist Church, and family life is considerably more stable than that of the lower class. This group values respectability, thrift, independence, honesty, and industriousness, and looks down on lower-class blacks. The upper class earns the highest income, usually own their own homes and value higher education. Many are the light-skinned professionals in
banking and insurance. Respectability and good manners are important to this group. They usually attend the Episcopal, Congregational, or Presbyterian Church.

According to Rose (1964), in large cities there is also a "shady" class structure, a tripartite system with racketeers in the upper class, lieutenants and the less successful in the middle class and, at the bottom, petty criminals. The lower-class blacks of this structure aspire to the upper and middle classes of the shady society and a life of crime appears desirable to many lower-class ghetto youths.

In discussing the class structure of blacks in the Far West, Forbes (1967) believes that there is no difference in lifestyles between the urban black middle class and white middle class. In their desire to be accepted by the white society, middle-class blacks imitate Anglo patterns and have done little to help the black community.

Forbes believes that the middle-class black is middle class because of similarities to the white society at large. He further divides the remaining blacks into two groups who live a distinctive black lifestyle; they are the Lower Middle-Class Transitional and Black Ghetto. The first of these two groups, although valuing a black way of life, is also interested in integration with the
dominant society. This is the working-class group with some degree of economic stability and is the creator of "hip" styles of dress and behavior, jazz, dance, "soul," and other uniquely black styles. The Black Ghetto dwellers, the lowest class, is composed of Southern rural migrants and their children. These are the welfare recipients, with little education and few job skills. They are the most hostile and volatile within the community.

Forbes believes that a kind of Ghetto "middle class" or "elite" is in the process of evolving; these are the many creative and educated blacks who have elected to remain in the ghetto, turning their back on the white society and especially rejecting the "Negro middle-class" way of life.

There is, then, evidence that within the black caste-like group, there are social classes which function much the same as in the overall white structure. There also seems to be some evidence that the black community is composed of three fairly distinct groups: upper, middle, and lower, and sometimes smaller groups overlap, such as the "shady" class structure, and the "elite" middle-class ghetto dwellers. It is also safe to assume that their caste-like position is somewhere at the bottom of the larger class structure. As Wrong (1972) points out:
Both in status and in economic terms only, the American Negroes came close to constituting a definable and cohesive deprived group, with the possible exception of tenant farmers and labourers in certain sectors of the agricultural economy. There is indeed some justification for calling Negroes the American lower class (p. 75).

**Current Theories of Attitude-Change**

In a study centering on attitudes and the possibility of attitude-change, it is essential to include a brief survey of current theories on the subject of attitude-change.

Triandis (1971) offers an overall view of the field. Attitudes, he argues, contain three major components: (a) A cognitive component (the idea or thinking aspect of attitude), (b) an affective component (the feeling or emotional aspect of attitude), and (c) a behavioral component (the action or the predisposition-to-action aspect of attitude).

Attitudes are indispensible because they help to (a) understand reality, (b) protect self-esteem, (c) adjust to a complex world, and (d) express fundamental values. Attitudes are changed, however, in many different ways, some of which

... can occur by first changing the cognitive component (for example, with new information), the affective component (for example, by pleasant or
unpleasant experiences in the presence of the attitude object) or the behavioral component (for example, by norm change, or the legal imposition of behavioral changes). It can change also by forcing a person to act or by presenting him with a "fait accompli." When one of the components has changed, the others also are likely to change . . . .

Attitudes also can be changed through psychotherapy by increasing the person's insight into the reasons he holds certain attitudes, by providing positive reinforcements for certain attitudes . . . (p. 143).

According to Triandis, there are five necessary elements in the course of changing an attitude:

. . . who says what, how, to whom, and with what effect. The who concerns the source of a message. The what is the message itself. The how is the channel in which the message is delivered, the whom is the audience to which the message is delivered, and the effect may include changes in attention, comprehension, yielding, retention, or action (p. 145).

Although each of the five necessary elements in the course of changing an attitude is vital, the recipient of a communication must go through a series of steps in order for the attitude-change process to come to fruition. As previously stated, the steps involved are: (a) attention, (b) comprehension, (c) yielding, (d) retention, and (e) action. Attention is a selection process an individual goes through when exposed to information. Comprehension is the entire process of understanding the information. Yielding is the process dealing with the acceptance of the information. And action is the ultimate adoption of the information.
Triandis is only one of many social psychologists who have explored the field of attitude-change. According to Suedfeld (1971), by 1968 thirty-four distinguishable theories of attitude-change were identified. One of the reasons for this is that attitude-change theories are not markedly different from each other, and yet each can be supported on the basis of its own research. Furthermore, because of problems of definition and the curious nature of "attitudes," the search for a metatheory that can explain all aspects of attitude-change may have been abandoned. Instead, social psychologists seem to pursue the study by identifying the particular domain in which a specific theory is the strongest.

According to Wagner & Sherwood (1960), the general parameters of the study include four major approaches: (a) the Functional theories, (b) the Learning theories, (c) the Perceptual theories, and (d) the Consistency theories. Suedfeld, on the other hand, divides the study into two main segments and six subdivisions. They are:

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<th>Consistency Theories</th>
<th>Nonconsistency Theories</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Balance</td>
<td>1. Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Congruity</td>
<td>2. Functional</td>
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Suedfeld's classification is based on the idea that

... there is one obvious dichotomy in the literature,
between theories which propose that attitude-change occurs because of a need for cognitive and emotional consistency, on the one hand, and theories based on other psychological concepts (mostly learning and perception) on the other (p. 5).

Consistency Theories

The homeostasis approach to the study of attitude-change is based on the assumption that individuals require their systems of attitudes to be internally consistent. When inconsistency occurs, an uncomfortable imbalance and non-homeostastic state exists. Attitude-change then follows in order to resolve the imbalance. The three major consistency theories which have evolved are: (a) the Balance theory, (b) the Congruity theory, and (c) the Cognitive Dissonance theory.

Consistency theories have been the dominant theme in the study of attitude-change. According to Barron & Pitch (1969), there are theories aplenty, more literature on the subject, and more adherents of consistency theories than there are of nonconsistency theories.

Nonconsistency Theories

Nonconsistency theories of attitude-change, those not based on consistency, congruity, balance, or cognitive dissonance, deal more with attitude-formation than
with attitude-change per se. Where consistency theories deal with a universal assumption about human beings in general, nonconsistency theories seem to deal more with the individual differences of the participant. Among the more popular nonconsistency theories are the Learning theories, the Functional theories, and the Cognitive and Perceptual theories.

The foregoing section on attitude-change is only a brief survey of the literature, and only addresses the different types of models. As stated earlier, attitude-change theories are varied and in abundance. The fact that a metatheory has not been developed is probably attributable to the varied approaches taken in the field of attitude-change.

Summary

Chapter II covered the following areas: (a) a brief survey of public attitudes toward the schools; (b) a statistical description of the local school district of Portland, Oregon; (c) the local black community of Albina in the city of Portland (including certain characteristics of the family and education); (d) social class in the black community; and (e) certain theories of attitude-change.
III. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

While abundant information exists on both black and white education in America, relatively little research has been done in the area of specifically comparing attitudes of black and white junior-high students toward teachers, school, and education. This is not to say that literature does not exist concerning the educational attitudes of various groups of students, especially when these attitudes are correlated with achievement, sex, and social class. Most studies, however, were done almost entirely on particular populations such as the local school, or schools within a district, or all the school districts of a particular state, and unfortunately black and white groups of students were not treated as separate samples. Some of the literature reviewed are studies of students' attitudes toward teachers, school, or education, but not necessarily studies which specifically compare the educational attitudes of black and white students.
Students' Attitudes Toward Teachers, School, and Education

Tenenbaum's (1940) "Uncontrolled Expressions of Children's Attitudes Toward School" encompasses the formative work in the area of elementary school children's educational attitudes. In this study, Tenenbaum surveyed 639 sixth- and seventh-grade students from three New York City schools located in poor, average, and superior residential sections. No distinction was made as to race of the respondents.

Tenenbaum's major findings revealed that most children were overwhelmingly positive toward school because of what education could possibly do for the individual. School was serious business and it helped one to "make money" and become "successful." Girls favored school more than boys, and sixth-graders more than seventh-graders.

In analyzing his data, Tenenbaum found that almost 60 percent of all respondents "liked school," only 17 percent "disliked school," and the remaining students had mixed feelings and emotions concerning school. As had been expected, "problem" children, as identified by teachers, were more negative toward school and teachers than the group as a whole. Failing students and low-achievers,
however, showed no notable difference in educational attitudes than the high-achieving students.

Tenenbaum concluded that

... children regard school in a serious and an earnest light. School stands for education, and children believe that this education will help them get ahead in the world--vocationally, socially, and otherwise (p. 673).

While Tenenbaum was surveying students' educational attitudes, Tschechtelin, Hipkind, & Remmers (1940) were interested in constructing a valid and reliable instrument to measure student attitudes toward teachers. Again, no distinction was made as to race of the respondents. In Tschechtelin's study, the findings revealed that students from fourth- to eighth-grade were substantially favorable toward their teachers. Moreover, children from the rural areas were, in every case, more favorable than city children, yet no statistical difference existed between the public and parochial students. Essentially, Tschechtelin's study confirmed Tenenbaum's work in that the findings revealed that children were basically favorable toward their teachers.

During the Forties, Hollingshead (1949) completed his now famous study, Elmtown's Youth. In this classic work, Hollingshead established that social class was an influential factor in the general attitudes toward school and education.
Hollingshead had separated the predominantly white community of Elmtown into five social classes, testing the hypothesis that the social behavior of high-school students was related to their family's position in the community's social structure. On the top end of Hollingshead's scale, classes I, II, and III (the middle-to-upper-classes) had a positive view toward certain aspects of school, while the lower classes (IV and V) generally held negative views.

The culture complex associated with classes I, II, and III trains boys and girls to respond positively to competitive situations such as that presented by examinations and intelligence tests. Experience imbues them with a need for personal achievement that is expressed in their constant search for success, teaching them from infancy to face each new situation aggressively and to overcome it to the best of their ability (p. 175).

On the lower end of the scale, the attitudes toward school and education of classes IV and V were such that they felt helpless and at the mercy of the system; among these classes there was little appreciation for the school and its teachers.

On the other hand, especially for classes I and II, many factors were at work to make for positive attitudes toward school. These students were expected to receive high grades, to model themselves after prominent types, to achieve, to go on to college, and to become the leaders of
the community.

In the Fifties, specifically interested in the relationship between attitudes toward school and level of income, Coster (1958) surveyed 878 students from nine Indiana high schools. Dividing his sample into three income groups, high, middle, and low, he tested each of his twenty-seven items by utilizing the Chi-Square technique. Items on the questionnaire included such questions as: (a) What is your opinion of your high school teachers? (b) What is your general opinion of your high school? (c) Will going to high school help you get more satisfaction from living?

The findings revealed that students from all three income levels responded similarly to items dealing with school, school personnel, school programs, and the value of getting an education. However, responses varied significantly according to level of income on items dealing with interpersonal relationships, e.g.,

... social life, being liked by other pupils, opinions of other pupils, feelings of parental interest in school work, and personal interest of teachers (p. 65).

Also, responses varied significantly in the type of jobs students wanted after they left school.

Coster concluded that all three income levels accepted the educational programs provided by the nine
high schools, and that low-income students were more likely to have less parental interest and support.

Also in the Fifties, Jackson & Getzels (1959) undertook their study of dissatisfaction with school among students by investigating two groups of adolescents from a Midwestern private school: those who were satisfied with school and those who were dissatisfied. The researchers discovered that these two groups of students did not differ from each other in either intellectual or in scholastic achievement. They concluded that, while some degree of dissatisfaction was the rule, "dissatisfaction with school, like beauty, is frequently in the eye of the beholder (p. 300)."

In 1966, a literature-search (Rhea) on the subject of "alienation" and involvement among students yielded very little information. At that time, students from two high schools in Massachusetts were surveyed to gather data concerned with involvement and "alienation" in school. Tape-recorded interviews and fill-in, multiple-choice questionnaires were used in the collection of data. Rhea discovered no evidence of any large-scale "alienation" among the high school students. On the contrary, the findings indicated that students appeared to value their education, to get through school and go on to college.
During that same time period, in a study of high school students in New England (Friedenberg 1967), it was found that most students were not interested in learning for the pleasure of learning. Learning was viewed purely as a vehicle, a means to an end, and as a way of getting a good job.

In a study of 292 sixth-graders from a predominantly white, working-class suburb (Jackson & Lahaderne 1967), the researchers concluded that perhaps students typically do not either hate school or love it, but feel rather neutral about their classroom experience (p. 18).

In 1969, a study (Gottlieb) was done on the aspirations of adolescents from three eastern urban areas of the United States. It was found that many middle-class youngsters were rejecting what was considered a "crass and commercial" society, and were, in fact, being placed in the position of choosing between "involvement or estrangement." On the other hand . . . the poor adolescent, and this is probably most true of urban blacks, does not reject the middle-class style of living. . . . given the chance, he would gladly exchange his current status with the disenchanted of Harvard, Vassar, and Yale (p. 92).

A similar study of alienated youth from Portland, Oregon (Bakke 1970), resulted in the same findings. Many
youngsters were turning their backs on money, power, and prestige. Also, these students were by no means the most "alienated"; both "alienated" and "non-alienated" youth were rejecting much of what the society offered. The Portland youngsters rated happiness and being loved very high, while traditional school curriculum was rated low.

One of the most relevant studies done on attitudes and opinions of high school students toward school and education, What Students Want (United States Commission on Civil Rights 1971), was done from mid-1968 through early 1969. Commission-staff interviewed 277 students from seventeen cities and towns throughout the country; the students were of varying ethnic, social, and geographic backgrounds.

Perhaps the most vivid of these impressions was the bitterness and frustration expressed by the students. Many clearly felt that the schools were not responsive to their needs or to the needs of society; and were not keeping pace with the rapid political and social changes of the time (p. 1).

Poussaint (United States Commission on Civil Rights 1971), engaged by the Commission to analyze the students' perceptions, reported on the diversity of attitudes and opinions found among the 277 high school students. Poussaint stated that enormous differences existed among the youth, even within the same social class, that upper-class dropouts had good jobs, and some went to
jail and, most of all, that many students were not per-
ceiving school as we would like them to perceive it.

The clash between our schools' stated mission to edu-
cate and the students' perception of that mission is 
both startling and ominous (p. 6).

This is clearly shown in a statement made to the
Commission by a white student from a predominantly white
school on the West Coast. Kris was a senior high school
student who, at the time of the interview, was still
planning to go on to college. Kris stated:

School is a separate little world in itself, set up
with its own conditions and its own rules for living
and learning together, and it is really, really
difficult to relate education to the way life is
outside (p. 24).

When you come to school, you just sort of contract and
prepare yourself to be talked at all day long. There
is a bell that says you can eat and a bell that says
you can stop eating; a bell to tell you to sit down
--a routine all the time. It really is such an un-
realistic sort of world. You either go insane or you
laugh at it and alienate yourself (p. 24).

Another white student, Elizabeth, who attended a
predominantly white school in a Mideastern city, stated
her feelings as follows:

I feel dissatisfied, but I can't really put my finger
on it completely, and I can't give very good sugges-
tions what to do about it because I'm not sure
(pp. 23-24).
In 1970, McElhinney, Kunkel, & Lucas analyzed the responses of 6,000 fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade students enrolled in forty-two buildings in rural school districts in east-central Indiana. It was found that some evidence of alienation existed in every building. In the median building it was found that one student in six believed that attempts to improve his school work were frustrated by outside forces; one student in four was unsure about his chance to succeed as an adult; and over half of all students found almost no relationship between what was learned in school and the community.

However, Lasseigne (1972) found that among sixth-, seventh-, and eighth-grade students from a medium-size, predominantly middle-class community, "... all junior-high students perceived school and good grades as important to their future (p. 140)." Similar findings were reported by Douglas (1972). At all three grade levels, students believed their teachers to be fair and their school administrators to be genuinely interested in the welfare of students.

School and school-related attitudes of 372 third- and fifth-grade children enrolled in three "open," non-traditional schools were assessed by Simmons (1972). Findings revealed that children in schools practicing open
education have positive attitudes toward school and teachers. Girls were found to have more positive attitudes toward school than boys, and boys had more favorable attitudes than girls toward staff.

In 1973, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education issued a report which, among other things, referred to the dissent that had developed among students over the political role of the university. It was concerned with the development of a "new mentality" among students who showed

... a new interest in the affective and the sensate, a new refusal to enter into competition in college and out, and an effort to press instead for a society organized more on horizontal rather than on pyramidal, meritocratic lines (pp. 78-79).

The report was also concerned with "sliders," i.e., students who accept or even insist upon a lower socioeconomic status than their parents.

The Commission was by no means a unique observer of these new attitudes among students. The media, too, had pointed it out; in a study done by CBS News, it was discovered that there was a clearly-delineated split between young and old, especially in the areas of social and political issues (Chandler 1972).

In 1970, Charles Reich reported that changing attitudes toward education among many white "mainstream"
youth were becoming more and more apparent. Many were no longer accepting the traditional educational system as the only means to learning. Reich described the situation as follows:

The new consciousness uses many other "institutions" for its education. It founded "freeschools" as alternatives to high schools or colleges. It seeks job experiences such as work in a ghetto school, or migrant labor, or the Peace Corps. It takes part in political activism and radical politics with education in mind. It uses underground newspapers, work in theatre or film, summers in the wilderness, or a rock festival as institutions of education (p. 395).

However, by 1974 this was not the case, at least in a study of student attitudes in the state of Florida (Beard & Convey). A total of 120,000 eighth-graders from 540 public and private schools in Florida were surveyed in terms of their attitudes and opinions toward their schools. The students were a "mixed bag" of all races, and no attempt was made to separate and compare responses of black and white groups.

Results of the study showed, among other things, that about half of all students believed that the schools had a sufficient number of rules. Only 40 percent of the eighth-graders felt that school rules were too strict, and 6.7 percent felt they were not strict enough. The findings also revealed that students felt the schools were permitting a sufficient amount of freedom in subject choice and hair styles, but not in clothing.
According to the Florida study, most eighth-graders were generally satisfied with their schools, and no evidence of any large-scale dissatisfaction existed.

Little has been published concerning the relationships of students' attitudes toward school to ability and socio-economic status in a cross-cultural comparison. The most inclusive study of this kind was undertaken in 1968-69 by Berk, Rose, & Stewart, who compared the attitudes of American and English children toward school. Berk et al. measured the attitudes of 565 fourth- and fifth-graders toward school in relation to sex, socio-economic status, and ability, while replicating an English study so that comparisons could be made.

The study, carried out in England, dealt with 2,100 children between the ages of nine and eleven. In this study, it was found that girls were more generally positive toward school than boys, and that ability and socio-economic status were significantly related to attitude toward school.

In the American study, it was found that girls favored school more than boys; however, the Americans differed from the English in regard to ability and socio-economic status. In other words, no significant relationships existed among the American students between ability
and socio-economic status, and attitudes toward school.

. . . Ability and social class are much more important determiners of attitudes toward school among British than among American children. The fact that ability and social class differences appear to be virtually nonexistent in the American data is consistent with the allegedly more egalitarian nature of American schools. . . . The findings of this study are in keeping with those of previous investigations in demonstrating that an American child's sex, not his ability or social class origins, is the influential factor in determining his attitudes toward school (p. 39).

There is little desegregation research as it relates to school attitudes of children (St. John 1975). In a study of elementary schools in the Minneapolis school system, Johnson (1977) reported that desegregation had little or no impact on the attitudes of white children who had attended predominantly white schools before desegregation. Responses of 1,445 white children showed the same liking for school and teachers before and after desegregation. Similar findings are reported by Erbe (1977).

In 1977, school attitudes and opinions of junior-high students enrolled in an average, middle-class neighborhood in Spokane, Washington, were elicited by Tiffany. Some of the comments of eighth-grade students "actively involved in school life" (p. 116) are as follows:

. . . I think some teachers are very unfair. If they don't like you, they sort of pick on you (p. 116).
I feel that lecturing is a waste of time for teachers and students. The reason is because after the first five minutes nobody is listening; then the teachers only get a sore throat and the students don't learn a thing (p. 116).

Students need more independence (p. 116).

Teaching is what school is all about, and if teachers can't get their points across, we are going to suffer (p. 117).

Tiffany concluded that many of the junior-high school students surveyed were disillusioned by teachers who lacked ability and enthusiasm.

Black Students' Attitudes Toward Education

Although the literature supports the assumption that most black Americans have always had a high regard for education (Rose 1964; Glazer & Moynihan 1963), there seems to be much evidence that their academic performance is generally inferior to whites (Garrett 1945, 1947; Shuey 1958) and, because of that, it is widely believed that black children hold negative attitudes toward school and learning (Greenberg, Gerver, Chall & Davidson 1965).

The faith of the black community in education has persisted throughout the years. In the early Sixties, Glazer & Moynihan (1963) in their classic study of ethnic groups of New York City, attested again the
positive educational attitudes of black Americans. The authors commented that

... Negroes do place a high value on education. The educational attainments of young men and women are emphasized in news stories and announcements. Negro professionals stand at the top of the social ladder, and make the highest incomes. Parents continually emphasize to children the theme of the importance of education as a means of getting ahead; and this is true among the uneducated as well as the educated, the failures as well as the successful. And yet the outcome is a poor one (p. 45).

But while parents and community emphasized education, and while many black students had high aspirations, the results were poor. At that time there were not as many qualified black high school graduates as there were places in colleges to put them.

The reasons for such poor academic performance were varied and inter-related: (a) individual and group self-concept; (b) the absence of a large group of black models relating to education; (c) instability of the black family; (d) the large-scale blatant and subtle prejudice of the dominant society; and (e) segregation in the schools and community (Glazer & Moynihan 1963).

In 1965, Greenberg et al. measured various attitudes of 115 fourth-grade students from a public school in a severely deprived urban area. The attitudes measured ranged from school and school-related items ("school," "homework," "arithmetic," "reading," and "teacher") to
non-school-related items ("mother," "father," "television," "playing," "best friend," "myself," "dumb child," and "smart child.") The students were classified into three groups: "good achievers," "average achievers," and "poor achievers."

In this study, Greenberg disproved the long-held assumption that lower-class black students hold negative attitudes toward school and school-related concepts, at least among the black children surveyed in the study. Paradoxically, it was revealed that the "poor achievers" were more favorable toward school than the remaining students, and that the boys were more favorable than girls.

Greenberg explained her findings as follows:

Lower-class Negro boys are apt to face special difficulties in identification and other important aspects of development and maturation. The poor-achieving boys, with their psychological and educational burdens, may well be the sub-group with the strongest defense needs. The good achievers . . . seemed to demonstrate greater critical ability, self-confidence and reality orientation which may be related to their success in school (pp. 60-61).

A study paralleling that of Greenberg et al. is that of Neale & Proshenk's 1967 survey of attitudes of culturally-disadvantaged children. In this study the researchers set out to test prevailing assumptions about attitudes held by students of low socio-economic status.
Neale & Proshek had hypothesized that children from a culturally-disadvantaged neighborhood were less favorable toward school and school-related concepts than children from a middle-class area. The researchers measured attitudes held by 350 children in the fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grades from two schools (one low socio-economic-status school and one middle socio-economic-status school) in Minneapolis, Minnesota. One of the selected socio-economic indicators for the two schools was the percentage of non-white students in attendance. At the low socio-economic-status school, there were 27.5 percent non-white students, as compared with 1.4 percent at the middle socio-economic-status school.

Neale & Proshek's study revealed that the children from the lower-class school were more positive than the middle-class children regarding "my school books," "my school building," "talking in front of the class," and "having to keep quiet." The middle-class students were more positive than the lower-class students toward concepts of "father," "college student," and "my teacher." The researchers concluded that this was consistent with the literature that middle-class children regarded college and teachers more favorably than the lower-class children.
It was also found that children learn to like school less, and like themselves less, as they advance through the grades. As was the case with Greenberg's study (1965), sex-role differences relating to education were not as important in culturally-deprived schools as in middle-class schools.

At that time, the findings did not reveal that children were becoming more alienated with school and society. Neale & Proshek (1967) concluded that

... comparisons between the two schools indicate that culturally-deprived children, as defined in this study, are not negative about school, at least in the sense of devaluing school and school-related activities. To the contrary, it appears that school is valued highly, perhaps as something difficult to attain, and perhaps as a place where unpleasant things occur, but nevertheless valued (p. 243).

Encouraged by the Supreme Court's ruling of 1954 (which declared desegregation in the schools to be unconstitutional), and the Montgomery bus-boycott of 1956, black Americans were gradually embarking upon a struggle to overcome the prejudices that had been directed against them. The traditional role of the stereotyped black was to undergo change that would contribute to an even more positive perspective toward education. In 1966, Havighurst reported that
the Negro Revolution is engaged in changing the Negro role to one which connotes success in urban industrial society. The new Negro role is one that encourages Negro children to work hard in school, to set high educational and vocational goals for themselves, and to become confident of their ability to do anything that those of another color can do (p. 168).

In a later work, Havighurst & Neugarten (1967) commented that

the growing numbers of Negro middle-class people, of Negro college graduates, of Negro business and professional workers, including school teachers, show that the positive role is being acquired. As the numbers of these people grow, the old stereotype will disappear, just as the unfavorable stereotypes of other ethnic groups have disappeared (p. 369).

In the Sixties, black scholars such as Proctor (1966) believed strongly that a new kind of black was emerging, that black Americans were changing and that they would outlive the traditional stereotypes held by whites by 1980.

In 1967 it was established that some black students had a different view of themselves than in the past. At that time Wendland (1967) made a study comparing self-esteem of black and white students. Wendland tested 685 eighth-graders (337 white and 348 black). The white youngsters were enrolled in essentially "white" schools and the black students were attending "black" schools. The response-data revealed that the traditional view that black students develop negative attitudes toward themselves because of color, and because of the negative aspects
attributed to color by the larger society, was no longer valid (at least for those students in the study). The analysis of the data revealed that black scores significantly exceeded white scores and that black students blamed the environment for their inner unrest instead of themselves. Although the white eighth-graders felt more at ease with their environment, they may have had a tendency to blame themselves for their deficiencies; however, the reverse was true of the black students.

In a study by Baughman & Dahlstrom (1968) concerning black and white eighth-graders in the rural South, findings revealed that black students were more positive than white students in their attitudes toward school and education. Results of the study showed that 60 percent of the black eighth-graders, compared with only 34 percent of the white students, desired to attend college. When asked if college education was necessary for the type of work they wanted to do as adults, 84 percent of the black students (as opposed to only 61 percent of the white students) believed it was necessary.

Writing in 1969, Young believed that black Americans had destroyed the assumption that black students do not have positive attitudes toward school and education. Young commented that
... the success of the street academies also demonstrates that these youngsters can succeed academically -- to the point of graduating from Harvard. We have not only demolished the myth that black kids are slow learners and not interested in school, but we have also shown the public schools how to change their practices (p. 252).

In a study measuring the educational attitudes of 350 sixth-graders, Glick (1970) surveyed fourteen classrooms in a Midwestern metropolitan school district. Using a sixty-item Likert-type scale, Glick measured student attitudes toward teachers, school work, classmates, and school as they related to student popularity and classroom involvement. Two racially and socio-economically different groups were measured: students from middle- and upper-middle-class white neighborhoods and students from lower-class and lower-middle-class black neighborhoods. Furthermore, student attitudes were measured in the fall and then in the spring of the same school year.

Findings revealed that black females from the lowest socio-economic group held the least favorable attitudes of all the groups. This was consistent throughout the school year, from fall to spring. In line with the results of previous research, white females from the highest socio-economic group held the most favorable attitudes of all students throughout the school year. Attitudes of male students, however, changed from fall to spring: black
males from the lowest socio-economic group became more positive, and white males from the highest socio-economic group became more negative.

Glick established that children from the lowest socio-economic group generally hold more favorable attitudes toward school than the next highest group of students. Similar findings were reported by Dunn (1968).

As recently as 1973, an appraisal of black students (Cuban) revealed a strong similarity between the needs and desires of black youngsters and those of white middle-class Americans. Black youth were considered "more American than Americans," they were more materialistic and conservative; and "things," individualism, and competition were all highly valued.

That dreams of some black youngsters are deeply rooted in the American dream of material success should surprise no one. After all, enough black writers have pointed out that blacks are more American than Americans. But it does astonish many people of both races anyway. To them, blacks are supposed to be for revolutionary change; they are militantly nationalistic and righteously anti-white (pp. 13-14).

In the late Seventies, the issue of desegregation as it related to school attitudes of children was investigated by Johnson (1977). According to Johnson, evidence suggests that desegregation is related to attitude-change of students who had attended predominantly black schools before desegregation. At desegregated schools, many of
the children who had come from predominantly black schools felt that teachers were unfair and became more negative about their academic achievement.

Busing did not appear to be a factor in children's school-related attitudes. Johnson commented that

... no difference was found between the attitude-changes of black children from black schools before desegregation who (1) attended post-desegregation schools in black neighborhoods (most were bused), and (2) those who attended post-desegregation schools in white neighborhoods (almost all were bused) (p. 136).

In Erbe's (1977) study of student attitudes in a desegregated school system, it was found that both black and white students were in favor of desegregation (50 percent of white students and 64 percent of black students).

In a study of 834 black fourth-graders enrolled in schools in a large urban school district in the northeastern United States, Sweeting, Willower, & Helsel (1978) examined teacher-pupil relations. It was found that

... the more closely pupils' perceptions of their teachers' actual behavior approximated their conception of ideal teacher behavior, the more positive were their attitudes toward teacher and school (p. 76).

Findings revealed that these particular students preferred more custodial teacher-control behavior than a humanistic approach. One explanation for these findings is that
these students prefer a more structured and organized classroom experience than they were receiving.

Summary

In reviewing the literature on students' attitudes toward school, teachers, and education, it was found that in the early Forties, children were overwhelmingly positive toward school because of what education could do for the individual, e.g., help to make money, or become successful. Children regarded school seriously in the hope that it would help them get ahead in the world. In Hollingshead's study, it was found that social class was an influential factor concerning attitudes toward education. The community expected children of the upper classes to "get good grades," to achieve, and to go to college, and later to become the community's leaders.

In the Fifties, however, studies based on the relationship between attitudes toward school and social class revealed that social class was not a factor. It was found that three different income levels responded similarly, but that low-income students were more likely to have less parental interest and support. At that time, it was found that dissatisfaction with school, like beauty, was in the eye of the beholder.
In the Sixties, it was found that some children were not interested in learning per se, but that education was still viewed as a vehicle for "getting a good job." Jackson & Lahaderne (1967) concluded that students neither loved nor hated school, but felt neutral toward the experience.

It was revealed that social class plays a more important role among English students than it does among American students.

Also in the Sixties, many college youth attempted to use the educational institution as a political agent for change. In a time of protest and unrest, the dynamics of the Sixties helped create a "new mentality" among the college youth. At that time, it was found that many middle-class youngsters were rejecting a "crass and commercial" society.

Some alienation among high school students was reported; happiness and being loved were rated high, while the traditional school curriculum was rated low. No evidence of any large-scale dissatisfaction was found among 120,000 eighth-graders from the state of Florida. In a study by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1971), it was revealed that a wide range of diversity existed among 277 high school students from seventeen cities and towns. It was discovered that enormous differences
existed among the youth studied, even within the same social class. Many students were perceiving education differently from what educators wanted them to perceive.

In surveying the literature on black students' attitudes toward school, teachers, and education, it was found that blacks have always supported the concept of education but their performance has been less satisfactory than the performance of white students. The reasons for this poor performance were varied: economic, social, educational, and personal.

In the Sixties it was found that lower-class black students were more favorable toward school than other students, and that boys were more favorable than girls. Middle-class white children, however, were more favorable toward concepts of "father," "college student," and "my teacher." It was also found that children liked school and themselves less as they advanced through the grades.

Because of the Black Movement of the late Fifties and Sixties, and because of Federal legislation, many scholars believed that the role of the stereotyped black was changing. In the early Seventies an appraisal of black students revealed that black youngsters were "more American than Americans," that they were more materialistic and more competitive than white middle-class youth.
Wendland (1967) had found that no longer did blacks develop negative self-concepts because of prejudice against them.

In a study of black eighth-graders, Baughman & Dahlstrom (1968) revealed that an overwhelming number of black students were in favor of attending college. Within class levels, aspirations were higher for blacks than for whites.

In 1977, Erbe's study revealed that 64 percent of black students, as contrasted with 50 percent of white students, in a desegregated school system were in favor of busing to "white" schools.

As recently as 1978, Sweeting et al. discovered that 834 black fourth-graders preferred more custodial teacher-control behavior rather than a humanistic approach.
IV. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This study was based on the assumption that urban black students hold more positive attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education than urban white students. The black students were from schools with a high concentration of lower-to-middle-class families and the white students were from schools with a high concentration of middle-to-upper-middle-class families. Both sets of students were from the metropolitan school district of Portland, Oregon. The purpose of this study was to compare differences in the educational attitudes and opinions of these two groups of students.

The population under study included 100 urban black lower-to-middle-class eighth-grade students from four schools in the inner-city of Portland, Oregon; and 113 urban white middle-to-upper-middle-class eighth-grade students from four schools outside of the inner-city of Portland.

The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education held by "the black group" and "the white group."
2. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions toward teachers held by "the black group" and "the white group."

3. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions toward school held by "the black group" and "the white group."

4. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that education makes one a happier person.

5. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that one needs education for what one wants to become.

6. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that education is mostly a waste of time.

7. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that life is hard when one doesn't have a good education.

Sources of Data

Data used in this study were obtained from the following sources:

1. A review of the literature on educational attitudes and opinions of black and white students, the
black community of Portland, Oregon, the alienation of students toward education, and current theories of attitude-change.

2. A survey of literature compiled and analyzed by the Portland Public Schools of Portland, Oregon, concerning the racial and socio-economic characteristics of Portland schools.

3. Questionnaire responses of eighth-grade students regarding their attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education.

Obtaining the Data

The target population for this study consisted of black and of white eighth-grade students from selected public schools in the city of Portland, Oregon. Prior to selecting the sample population for use in the construction and testing of the instrument (Phase One) and for the gathering of data from the target group (Phase Two), a review of Achievement Profiles (Portland Public Schools 1974) was made to determine the racial and socio-economic characteristics of those selected Portland schools.

Written approval for the study was granted by George S. Ingebo, Ph.D., Testing Administrator for the Portland Public Schools (see Appendix 1).
Phase One of the Study

Four scales were examined prior to the final decision to construct an instrument to be used specifically for this study. One of the instruments surveyed, "The Education Scale" (Shaw & Wright 1967), a twenty-two-item Likert-type scale developed by E. A. Rundquist and R. F. Sletto, was seriously considered. However, this particular instrument had been intended to reveal attitudes toward high school education, and while it has good content-validity, it would have been necessary to modify certain items because of its outdated vocabulary and because it had been intended for high school use. The other three scales, the Student Opinion Poll, the Questa Scale, and the Michigan Student Questionnaire, were discarded for similar reasons of inappropriateness.

The Student Opinion Poll (Jackson & Getzels 1959) is a sixty-item questionnaire designed to elicit attitudes and opinions toward teachers, curriculum, fellow students, and procedures in the classroom. It was not used because its vocabulary was too sophisticated for the population under study. For example, words such as "inspiring," "challenging," and "intellectual stimulation" were considered too advanced for students with a fifth-grade reading level. The Questa Scale (Educational Testing
Services 1971) is specifically designed for secondary schools and was considered much too sophisticated for the two groups under study. The Michigan Student Questionnaire (Flanders 1965) was also discarded for the same reasons of inappropriateness. Finally, it was decided to construct and test a new instrument specifically for use with eighth-graders who have a fifth-grade reading level.

The basis for this study was an earlier study made in March 1973 that compared black and white students' attitudes toward education (Rini 1973). Of all the schools to be surveyed, the lowest reading level for eighth-graders averaged 5.2 years. Therefore, slight modifications were made, and sixty items from this earlier study were selected for use in the construction of three separate scales of attitudes toward (a) teachers, (b) school, and (c) education.

In the earlier study, the type of scale used was based on the Likert method of summated ratings (Selltiz, Jahoda, Deutsch, & Cook 1961). While the classic Likert scale uses five categories of agreement-disagreement, these scales called only for an expression of agreement or disagreement, a simple "yes" or "no." This had been done so that the questionnaire would present as few decision-making problems as possible for thirteen- and fourteen-year-old respondents. Also, with this particular age-group
respondent in mind, the scales had been constructed using common wording and short, uncomplicated statements.

Construction of the Phase
One Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed containing sixty mixed positive and negative statements having to do with teachers, school, and education. The source of the sixty statements was an unpublished study by the investigator made in 1973 concerning the educational attitudes of black and white eighth-graders from two Portland, Oregon schools. In this earlier study, a total of ninety statements were developed from extensive interviews with eighth-grade students from one predominantly black school and one predominantly white school. The ninety statements of the 1973 survey were spread over ten separate areas as follows:

1. Schools 6. My School
2. Teachers 7. Cafeteria
3. Schoolwork 8. Library
4. Parents 9. After-School Activities
5. Education 10. The Principal

Cassette tape-recorded conversations were used to elicit attitude-statements toward these ten areas having to do with education. Conversations were held with both sets of students, black and white, during and after school hours and were as informal as possible.
The interviews took place mainly in the classrooms; however, many times interviews were also held in the hallways, the gyms, during lunch periods in the cafeteria, and in the neighborhood areas of the schools. Informal discussions and "rap-sessions" were held with the students individually or in groups. Furthermore, students were encouraged to talk about their feelings. Being an eighth-grader was the only basis for selection in the interview process. High or low achievement was not considered a criterion for involvement. Altogether, a total of forty-seven students participated in the development of the attitude-statements, twenty-seven from the predominantly white school and twenty from the predominantly black school.

In constructing the sixty-item questionnaire, sixty of the most appropriate statements of the ninety-item questionnaire were used. The criterion for appropriateness was based on the assumption that statements which had received the most student attention during the interviews were the most important to eighth-grade students. The sixty statements were then classified into three major areas, eighteen statements concerning teachers, thirty-two statements concerning school, and ten statements concerning education in general.
Administering the Phase One Questionnaire

In completing the sixty-item questionnaire, students were told by their teachers that they would remain anonymous in their responses. The teachers read the instructions to the class. The instructions were:

1. They were not to put their name on the answer sheet.

2. They were only to write the name of the school, their sex, and race.

3. When reading a statement, they were to check the "yes" box if they agreed, or the "no" box if they disagreed.

4. They were instructed that the questionnaire was not a test, but only a survey of how they felt about teachers, school, and education (see Appendix 3).

Selection of Phase One Schools

The Portland Public Schools' Achievement Profiles publication was used to select schools for Phase One of this study. Data used in the selection were:

1. Student achievement

2. Racial composition
3. Median family income
4. Adult median grade completed by parents
5. Percentage of family membership on welfare

Student achievement was based on reading and mathematics test-results for fourth- and eighth-graders. Each school's relative achievement position in comparison with other city schools was indicated on scales representing a city-wide reading and math test.

Using the school district's indicator of student achievement and taking into account the racial composition of the school, the median family income, the adult median grade completed by parents, and the percentage of welfare families, the seven schools were selected representing a cross-section of the Portland City Schools (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Below Average</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Above Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ockley Green</td>
<td>Binnsmead</td>
<td>Alameda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portsmouth</td>
<td>Llewellyn</td>
<td>Harvey Scott</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sellwood</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 1
CHARACTERISTICS OF PHASE ONE SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Median Family Income</th>
<th>Student Achievement&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Adult Median Grade Completed By Parents</th>
<th>Welfare Family Membership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alameda</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>$10,874</td>
<td>75% +</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binnsmead</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>$9,980</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Llewellyn</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>$9,245</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ockley Green</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>$9,416</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portsmouth</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>$9,338</td>
<td>25% -</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>54.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scott</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>$11,209</td>
<td>50% +</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sellwood</td>
<td>603</td>
<td>$9,085</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Portland Public Schools, Achievement Profiles, pp. 30-177.

<sup>a</sup>Based on city-wide math and reading tests. Percentages indicate the position of each school in relation to other Portland, Oregon schools.
"School and community factors" is the overall category used by Portland Public Schools which takes into account various factors about a particular school and is used for the purposes of comparison (see Table 2). Included in this category are the following:

1. Ratio of students to certified teachers
2. Percentage of student mobility (students moving into and out of the community where the school is located)
3. Percentage of student attendance
4. Percentage of children from welfare families
5. Percentage of free lunches to the average daily total lunches
6. Percentage of two-parent families
7. Median grade completed for adults twenty-five years and older.
8. Median family income

Data covering items 6, 7, and 8 were obtained by the school district from the 1970 Census of Population (Census Tracts Portland, Oregon: Washington, U.S. Department of Commerce). All other data were obtained from each of the Portland schools.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alameda</td>
<td>Greater than in 75% of the city schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binnsmead</td>
<td>Exceeding that in about 50% of the city schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Llewellyn</td>
<td>Cluster around the average for the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ockley Green</td>
<td>Less favorable than in 50% of the city schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portsmouth</td>
<td>Variable with factors falling within all quarters of the city schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scott</td>
<td>Exceeding that in about 75% of the city schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sellwood</td>
<td>Cluster around the lower 25% level of the city schools</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Scoring of Phase One Questionnaire

A total of 199 eighth-graders were given the sixty-item questionnaire on attitudes toward teachers, school, and education. One eighth-grade class from each of seven schools was given the test during the first week in March, 1975 as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>BOYS Black</th>
<th>BOYS White</th>
<th>BOYS Other</th>
<th>GIRLS Black</th>
<th>GIRLS White</th>
<th>GIRLS Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alameda</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binnsmead</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Llewellyn</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ockley Green</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portsmouth</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvey Scott</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sellwood</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTALS 14  60  12  11  89  13

A total of twenty-five black, 149 white, and twenty-five other seventh-grade students completed the sixty-item questionnaire on attitudes toward teachers, school, and education.

Each of the 199 questionnaires was scored, allowing one point for each positive answer, and no points for each negative answer or for no response.

7Twenty-five students considered themselves as other than white or black; they were classified as "Native," "Mexican," and "Asiatic-Americans."
Item Analyses

The High-Low-27 Percent Group method. In the selection of items for the final instrument, response-data from the sixty-item questionnaires were subjected to two separate methods of item analysis: (a) the High-Low-27 Percent Group method, and (b) the Rasch technique of item analysis.

The High-Low-27 Percent Group method involved the selection of 27 percent of the highest scored questionnaires and 27 percent of the lowest scored questionnaires (Lemon 1973). Each of the sixty items was analyzed according to these two high and low groups. The analysis revealed the numbers of students from the high and low groups who had responded positively or negatively on each of the sixty items, e.g.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Positive Response</th>
<th>Negative Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>High 27%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low 27%</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The positive and negative figures were then converted into percentages and were located in Fan's Item Analysis Table (1952).

The discrimination index (the biserial r)—the correlation which corresponds to the proportions of
correct responses in the highest 27 percent and the lowest 27 percent— is the deciding factor in the selection of items. According to Dr. George S. Ingebo, Portland Public Schools, Portland, Oregon, a discrimination index of .30 is acceptable; however, it was decided that an index of .50 and above would be used so that items would be of a higher discriminating power.

Using Fan's tables, forty of the sixty items received a discriminating index of .50 and above (see Appendix 5), resulting in the elimination of twenty items (see Appendix 6). The remaining forty items were to undergo an additional item analysis for a further refinement of item discrimination.

The Rasch Method. After the High-Low-27 Percent Group method, the Rasch technique of item analysis was utilized on response-data from the remaining forty items. Conceived in 1966 by a Danish mathematician, George Rasch, this approach was made famous in this country by Benjamin D. Wright (1972) of the University of Chicago. According to Wright, the Rasch model goes one step further than the traditional test theory of rank-order measurement to equal-interval measurement. A two-parameter model, it takes into consideration (a) the difficulty of the item, and (b) the ability of the person. The results of mathematically
combining the two parameters is an equal-interval scale of difficulties that compares every item on the test with every other item.

The Rasch technique of item analysis for use in the development of an attitude and opinion questionnaire can be explained as follows: Using the Rasch technology amounts to substituting (a) the probability that a student will respond "in this way" for the achievement-test concept labeled "difficulty"; (b) the strength of a student's tendency to respond in "a specified way" for "ability"; and (c) the response of a student to a question consonant with "the student's attitude" for "success." Furthermore, the item analysis, point biserial, mean square fit, and the item characteristic curve are all useful in determining how any one question (a) fits the basic trait, or attitude, being measured by the other items in the instrument; and (b) separates respondents into two or more classifications such as "does or doesn't know something" or "attitude is positive or negative." This item discrimination is important in that it takes more low discrimination items to produce a result in which one can have confidence for examining hypotheses. Obviously, items that do not discriminate between groups are useless in information-gaining instruments of this type.
The rationale for using an item analysis such as the Rasch method is that it has been used to develop attitude and opinion surveys in this country. The Rasch technology was employed by George Ingebo to develop three separate scales of attitudes and opinions toward artists and poets for use with Portland, Oregon students.

According to Ingebo, in the selection of items to be used in an attitude instrument, only the first of three steps in the Rasch program is used.

The output of the first step in the program is divided into five sections. It includes a choice distribution table, the item information, the ability information, the item-characteristic curves, and the test-characteristic curve. In the item-characteristic section, if the mean-square-fit statistic is greater than 2.0, or if the point-biserial correlation is less than 0.3, or if the percentage rate as it relates to the key is less than 10 percent, an asterisk appears next to the item. This means that the item may possibly be a weak item and should be analyzed closely.

Information obtained during an interview with Dr. George S. Ingebo, Portland Public Schools, Portland, Oregon.
Seven of the forty items analyzed by the Rasch program were earmarked with an asterisk. All seven items had either received mean-square-fit statistics greater than 2.0 or point-biserial correlations of less than 0.3. An analysis of the item-characteristic curves revealed that five of the seven items were low-discrimination items and two were weak items. All seven items were excluded from the questionnaire (see Appendix 6).

Thirty-three items were finally selected to be included in the finished test instrument: eleven items having to do with teachers, eighteen items having to do with school, and four items having to do with education (see Appendices 7 and 8). Because a total of only ten statements having to do with education had been used in the original sixty-item questionnaire, after two separate item analyses, only four statements were selected for use in the finished thirty-three-item instrument.
Reliability and Validity of the Finished Instrument

A major method of measuring the reliability of attitude-instruments is the Kuder-Richardson procedure (Lemon 1973). As a method for assessing reliability, the Kuder-Richardson method is based on consistency in a student's test performance on different items. Based on the split-half technique, the Kuder-Richardson method yields a reliability coefficient

... that approximates the average of all split-half coefficients which would be obtained on all possible divisions of the test into equivalent halves (Adams 1964, p. 88).

If the universe of items we are sampling is fairly homogeneous, student performance will be fairly consistent from item to item. If the universe is very homogeneous, interitem consistency will be unusually high; only a relatively small sample will be needed as a basis for inferences about student performance on the universe of possible items (Adams, p. 90).

Using the Kuder-Richardson-20 method to determine reliability, the finished attitude-instrument of thirty-three items yielded a high reliability coefficient of .977.

Because the measurement of attitudes is an indirect process, it is impossible to be certain that an instrument measures the precise trait for which it was designed (Helmstadter 1964). It is believed, however, that the
finished instrument of thirty-three items possesses content validity by virtue of its derivation (Lasseigne 1974) and its content (Helmstadter 1964).

All items in the questionnaire were based on statements made by forty-seven eighth-graders from two Portland schools. Students had volunteered various opinions, attitudes and comments about school, teachers, and education. These statements were later included in the original questionnaire as positive and negative items. Lasseigne (1974) used a similar technique in the construction of an attitude-instrument for use with junior-high school students. Lasseigne's instrument possessed face validity based on "... the original self report of the students themselves concerning their attitudes toward school" (p. 139).

Content validity, as defined by Kerlinger (1965), is "... the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content... of a measuring instrument" (p. 445). Items in the instrument appear to be representative of the universe of items having to do with eighth-graders' attitudes and opinions toward school, teachers, and education. They resemble items included in similar instruments measuring attitudes toward schooling (Lasseigne 1974; Berk, Rose, & Stewart 1970; Jackson & Lahaderne 1967).
The test appears to be measuring the attitudes and opinions for which it was designed.

**Phase Two of the Study**

The eight schools selected to participate in the study were four schools with the highest concentration of lower-to-middle-class black students and four schools with a high concentration of middle-to-upper-middle-class white students. They were based on Achievement Profiles, a racial and socio-economic analysis of the Portland Schools. The selected schools were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>White Middle-to-Upper-Middle-Class</th>
<th>Black Lower-to-Middle-Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chapman</td>
<td>Boise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duniway</td>
<td>King</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laurelhurst</td>
<td>Sabin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Sylvan</td>
<td>Vernon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Description of White Schools**

Chapman Elementary School (K-8) had a student enrollment of 576 students and a staff of thirty-two, which included teachers, aides, and teacher-trainees. Out of a total of ninety-three elementary and middle schools in Portland, Oregon, Chapman ranked eighth in terms of median grade completed for adults twenty-five years and older.
Somewhat inconsistent was the fact that while Chapman ranked high in median family income ($12,058) almost 25 percent of the students came from welfare families. Student achievement was quite high—in the top 25 percent of all Portland schools. Chapman's racial composition of students was 87 percent white, 9 percent black, and 4 percent other.

Duniway Elementary School (K-8) had a student enrollment of 678 and a staff of twenty-nine teachers, aides, and teacher-trainees. The school ranked sixth in median family income ($13,263) and median grade completed for adults twenty-five and older (12.9). Student achievement at Duniway was quite high—one of the top four schools in the city. Generally, achievement levels and community factors (median income, median grade completed for adults, number of welfare families) were more favorable at Duniway than in 75 percent of Portland schools. Welfare families were almost nonexistent (0.6 percent of all children). Racially, almost 94 percent of all students were white, 4.4 percent were black, and 2.1 percent other.

Laurelhurst Elementary School (K-8) had a student population of 730 and a staff of thirty-five teachers and aides. In terms of median family income, the school
ranked twelfth ($11,351) and eleventh in median grade completed for adults twenty-five years and older (12.7). While student achievement was the lowest of the four predominantly white schools selected, it still exceeded more than 50 percent of all Portland schools. As with Duniway, school and community factors were more favorable than in 75 percent of the schools. Only 3.5 percent of the students were from welfare families, and racially, almost 92 percent of all students were white, 7 percent were black, and 1.5 percent other.

West Sylvan Elementary School, grades three through eight, had the lowest student enrollment (417) of the selected white schools, and a staff of only eighteen teachers and teachers aides. The median family income ($17,893) was the highest of all Portland schools. In terms of median grade completed for adults twenty-five years and older, West Sylvan ranked second with 14.8 years. Student achievement was the highest in the city, while community factors were among the highest. No welfare families were reported. Racially, 89 percent of all students were white, almost 10 percent black, and 1 percent other (see Table 3).
TABLE 3.
CHARACTERISTICS OF SELECTED WHITE SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Students White Black</th>
<th>Median Family Income</th>
<th>Student Grade Completed By Parents</th>
<th>Adult Median Education</th>
<th>Welfare Membership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chapman*</td>
<td>500 51</td>
<td>$12,058</td>
<td>75% +</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duniway**</td>
<td>634 30</td>
<td>$13,263</td>
<td>75% +</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laurelhurst#</td>
<td>669 50</td>
<td>$11,351</td>
<td>50% +</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Sylvan##</td>
<td>372 41</td>
<td>$17,893</td>
<td>75% +</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


*School and Community Factors: Somewhat inconsistent, but some factors more favorable than in 75 percent of city schools. Ranks eleventh in Family Income and, out of a total of ninety-three elementary schools, ranks eighth in Adult Median Education.

**School and Community Factors: More favorable than in 75 percent of city schools. Ranks sixth in Family Income and Adult Median Education.

#School and Community Factors: More favorable than in 75 percent of city schools. Ranks twelfth in Family Income and eleventh in Adult Median Education.

##School and Community Factors: High in top 25 percent of city schools. Ranks first in Family Income and second in Adult Median Education.
Description of Black Schools

Boise Elementary School (K-8) had a staff of thirty-four teachers and teachers aides, and the lowest enrollment (345) of the four black schools. The median family income of $6,121 ranked ninety-first out of ninety-three, among the lowest of all the Portland schools, and the lowest of the four predominantly black schools. The median grade completed for adults twenty-five years and older (10.4) was tied with King as the lowest in the city. Student achievement at Boise was also the lowest, again tied with King, of all the city schools. Welfare-family students amounted to 60.4 percent of the total school population. Racially, Boise was de facto a predominantly black school, with a black population of over 90 percent; 9.3 percent were white, and 0.6 percent were other.

King Elementary School (P-8) had a student enrollment of 512 and a staff of forty-nine teachers, teachers aides, and teacher-trainees. The median family income of $6,449 ranked ninetieth, which was among the lowest in the city. The median grade completed for adults twenty-five years and older (10.4) was, as previously stated, tied with Boise School for the lowest of the Portland Schools. Student achievement was also the lowest in the
city, tied with Boise School. Almost 69 percent of the King students came from welfare families, the highest of the four predominantly black schools. Racially, King was a predominantly black school, with a black enrollment of over 89 percent, a white enrollment of only 8.2 percent, and 2.5 percent other. As was the case with Boise School, King School's community factors fell at the low end of the lower 25 percent of all Portland schools.

Sabin Elementary School, grades one through eight, had a staff of twenty-nine teachers and teachers aides, and a student population of 478. The median family income for Sabin was $8,531, and ranked eightieth in the city. The median grade completed for Sabin adults over twenty-five was 11.7 and ranked seventy-seventh in the city. While student achievement was low, it was not as low as Boise and King; still, school and community factors ranked within the lowest quarter of the city schools. Welfare students amounted to 33.6 percent of the school population. Sabin was considered a "fifty-fifty-black-white" school: over 49 percent of its students were black, 49 percent were white, and 2 percent other.

Vernon Elementary School (K-8) had a student enrollment of 662 and a staff of forty-nine teachers, teachers aides, and teacher-trainees. The school ranked
seventy-fifth in median family income with $8,774, and seventy-first with a median grade completed of 11.9 for adults twenty-five years and older. Student achievement was low, in the lowest quarter of the city schools, and community factors were also in the lowest 25 percent. More than half of all students at Vernon (51.3 percent) were from welfare families and the school was more black than white, with a population of 54 percent black, 42 percent white, and 4 percent other (see Table 4).

The Research Population

Students from the eight schools selected to participate in Phase Two of the study—the actual gathering of data from the research population—represented two distinct groups. The eighth-graders from the black schools were lower-to-middle-class urbanites residing almost entirely in the Albina district, the predominantly black community of Portland, Oregon. The larger community would generally consider these students relatively poor, on welfare or potentially on welfare, residing in less than standard housing, poorly educated, and generally typical of ghetto black youth.
### TABLE 4.

**CHARACTERISTICS OF SELECTED BLACK SCHOOLS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Median Family Income</th>
<th>Student Achievement</th>
<th>Adult Median Grade Completed By Parents</th>
<th>Welfare Family Membership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boise*</td>
<td>32 331</td>
<td>$ 6,121</td>
<td>25% -</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>60.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King**</td>
<td>42 457</td>
<td>$ 6,449</td>
<td>25% -</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>68.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sabin#</td>
<td>234 235</td>
<td>$ 8,531</td>
<td>25% -</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>33.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vernon##</td>
<td>279 357</td>
<td>$ 8,774</td>
<td>25% -</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Portland Public Schools, Achievement Profiles, pp. 62-195.

*School and Community Factors: Near the low end of the lower 25 percent of all city schools, except for pupil-teacher ratio. Ranks ninety-first in Family Income, and tied with King for lowest in Adult Median Education.

**School and Community Factors: Near the low end of the lower 25 percent of all city schools, except for pupil-teacher ratio. Ranks ninetieth in Family Income, and tied with Boise for lowest in Adult Median Education.

#School and Community Factors: In the lowest 25 percent of city schools. Ranks eightieth in Family Income and seventy-seventh in Adult Median Education.

##School and Community Factors: In the lowest 25 percent of city schools. Ranks seventy-fifth in Family Income and seventy-first in Adult Median Education.
The eighth-graders from the predominantly white schools were middle-to-upper-middle-class city dwellers residing outside of the inner-city, coming from generally affluent homes, fairly well-educated, and generally among the community's top citizens.

The two groups, racially, socially, and economically different, however, shared at least one factor in common. They were all eighth-graders, thirteen- and fourteen-year-olds, attending the Portland Public Schools. Fortunately, the predominantly black schools selected to participate in the study were allowed to participate because of the willingness of the four principals at these schools. The predominantly white schools, however, were selected from a list of middle-to-upper-middle-class schools, and were finally selected on the basis of willingness to participate in the study. The rationale for selecting eight schools to participate was the fact that there were only four predominantly black schools in the Portland area. Hence, students from the four "black" schools were simply compared to those from four middle-to-upper-middle-class "white" schools.

There were 213 students who completed the tripartite test on attitudes toward teachers, school, and
education. Of these students, 100 were black and 113 were white (see Tables 5 and 6).

TABLE 5

RACIAL COMPOSITION OF EIGHT SELECTED SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Staff</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapman</td>
<td>86.8%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>93.1%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duniway</td>
<td>93.5%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>96.5%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laurelhurst</td>
<td>91.6%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>90.9%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Sylvan</td>
<td>89.2%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boise</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>90.1%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>69.4%</td>
<td>30.6%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>89.3%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>58.1%</td>
<td>39.3%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sabin</td>
<td>49.0%</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>68.3%</td>
<td>30.1%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vernon</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
<td>53.9%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>65.8%</td>
<td>30.4%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the "white" schools, a total of fifty-one boys and sixty-two girls completed the attitude-questionnaire; while in the "black" schools, a total of fifty-three boys and forty-seven girls participated. It is possible that the survey could have been performed using equal numbers of boys and girls from both the "black" and "white" schools; however, this was not done. The literature shows that there is a difference in attitudes toward schooling between boys and girls from white middle-class families (Berk et al. 1970). Generally, white middle-to-upper-middle-class girls are more positive toward schooling than
TABLE 6.
STUDENTS FROM THE EIGHT SELECTED SCHOOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>White</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapman</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duniway</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laurelhurst</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Sylvan</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Black</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boise</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King*</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sabin</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vernon</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td>104</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td>104</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Normally, one class of eighth-graders was selected from each school. However, two classes were selected from King Elementary School, the school with the highest number of black students, so that the overall black and white samples would be approximately equal, an important ingredient of the "t" test.
white middle-to-upper-middle-class boys. This is a factor which must be taken into consideration when evaluating the findings of this study.

In addition, a factor which may have influenced the findings of this study was the race of the teachers involved in the administration of the questionnaire. At the "white" school, the eighth-grade teachers who administered the questionnaire were white, while at the "black" schools, with the exception of one black eighth-grade teacher at King School, all were white. It is possible that the race of the teachers involved had an influence on the responses of the questionnaire. However, because of the realities of the situation, this one variable could not have been controlled.

Administering the Thirty-Three-Item Questionnaire

The finished instrument was a three-page questionnaire containing thirty-three statements, and sectioned into three parts consisting of (a) eleven statements having to do with teachers, (b) eighteen statements having to do with school, and (c) four statements having to do with education. The cover page of the instrument consisted of directions and information for the student and teacher. It informed them that the questionnaire should be
administered to classes of eighth-grade students by their own eighth-grade teachers, and that no student preparation was necessary except that students be told that they would remain anonymous and their answers confidential. Briefly, the student was to print the name of school, sex, and race, but not his name. Then, after reading each statement, he was to check the "yes" box if he agreed with the particular statement, or the "no" box if he disagreed with that particular statement.

The questionnaires were mimeographed and hand-carried to the selected schools with a cover letter explaining the project to the principals (see Appendix 9). Also, numerous telephone calls had been made to the principals before this time to prepare them in advance. In addition, in-person discussions were held with the principals and teachers, further explaining how to administer the questionnaire to their students.

For the sake of control and uniformity, it was requested that the test should be administered to students by their own teachers, preferably during a morning session, mid-week, during the same week. Teachers complied with this request although it was difficult for some to re-adjust their schedules. All questionnaires were administered during the week of April 21, 1975 at each of the eight schools.
Treatment of the Data

Data from the questionnaires were compiled as follows, and statistical analysis of response-data made in order to test the hypotheses.

1. Each questionnaire was scored, allowing one point for each positive response and no points for each negative response or for no response. Based on the key (see Appendix 3), a positive or a negative response to a statement could be either a "yes" or a "no" response: one point was scored for a "yes" response to a positive statement or a "no" response to a negative statement. No points were scored for a "yes" response to a negative statement, a "no" response to a positive statement, or for no response. Scores from "zero" to "thirty-three" were possible.

2. Only "black" questionnaires from "black" schools, and only "white" questionnaires from "white" schools were analyzed.

3. Separate scores were maintained for each questionnaire as follows:
   A. The total questionnaire (thirty-three items)
B. The teacher scale of the questionnaire (eleven items)

C. The school scale of the questionnaire (eighteen items)

D. Each of the four items pertaining to education

4. The following means were calculated for each group:

A. The total questionnaire

B. The teacher scale for black and white students

C. The school scale for black and white students

D. The education scale for black and white students

5. Using the following formula (Edwards 1955), Student's "t" test was applied to (a) the total scores, (b) the teacher scores, and (c) the school scores, in order to test for significance of differences between the two groups:

\[ t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{E_{x_1}^2 + E_{x_2}^2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}\right)}} \]
The "t" test is one of several two-sample parametric statistics comparing the means of two independent samples (Blalock 1960). The significance of the difference between the two means yields a numerical value. This value is then located on a statistical "t" table where it indicates a level of confidence for rejecting the null hypothesis (Best 1959).

The following should be taken into consideration before using this test: 

1. the assumption of normality,
2. equidistant interval data, and
3. two groups of data.

In order for normality to be achieved, the samples must come from populations which are normally distributed. Also, the larger the size of the sample, the more accurately the "t" distribution will resemble the normal distribution. Furthermore, normality is violated if sample sizes are not approximately equal.

The test is appropriate for this study because only two sets of equidistant interval data (the means from two independent samples) are being compared with respect to other variables. In other words, in comparing blacks and whites (two samples) with respect to school, teachers, and education (other variables), we are relating color and class to opinions about school, teachers, and education.
6. For each test, the level of significance of .05 was used. According to Blalock (1960), the significance levels commonly used in statistical research are the .05, .01, and .001 levels. Although Blalock feels there is nothing absolute about these particular levels, the decision to select the most appropriate one depends on the relative costs of making one of two types of errors: (a) Type One, in which a set of assumptions is rejected when they are true, and (b) Type Two, in which a set of assumptions is not rejected when they are false. The smaller the chances of getting a Type-One error, the greater the chances for making a Type-Two error; in other words, the probabilities of making a Type-One error (the rejection of a set of assumptions when they are true) is referred to as the significance level. Selecting the appropriate statistical test minimizes the risk of a Type-Two error (accepting a set of assumptions as true when, in fact, they are false).

Important considerations in the selection of an appropriate significance level are (a) the number of cases involved, and (b) the practical consequences of the outcome. The larger the sample, the easier it is to reject a false hypothesis. On the other hand, the smaller the sample, the more extreme the results are required in order to reject the hypothesis.
In other words, the more serious the outcome, in terms of lives and money, the more difficult it is to select a significance level. However, if there is no practical decision to be made, the following should be applied: "The researcher should lean over backwards to prove himself wrong or to obtain results that he actually does not want to obtain (Blalock, p. 125)."

Also, in this case, as in many others, there is no specific basis for determining which of the two errors would be more costly to make—a Type-One or a Type-Two error. When this occurs, especially in the social sciences, the investigator generally uses the conventional level of .05 for determining statistical significance (Selltiz et al. 1961).

Given the number of cases in this study (113 and 100) and because no practical decision had to be made on the basis of the outcome, it was decided to use the conventional .05 level of significance (such a difference would be attributed to chance in only five in 100 cases).

7. Using the following formula (Garrett 1958), a Chi-Square test was applied to each of the items on education (items twelve, thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen), in order to test significance of differences between the two groups:
The Chi-Square statistic is generally used when the researcher wishes to evaluate frequencies which are empirically obtained with those which are theoretically expected. Although this test has many applications, its most common use in the social sciences is in contingency problems, where two nominal scale variables have been cross-classified (Blalock 1960).

The difference between the obtained and the expected frequency is squared, and then divided by the expected frequency, and the sum of these quotients is Chi-square ($X^2$).

The Chi-Square test is appropriate for this study because only four statements are concerned with attitudes toward education; it follows that each statement can be considered a contingency problem, and therefore lend
itself to the application of Chi-Square. For example, if color and/or class affiliation and attitude toward education are interrelated, then the data can be summarized in a 2x2 contingency table.

8. For each test, the .05 level of significance was used.

9. Computed values were compared with tabular values in order to determine the significance of differences between the two groups (black and white) for the three separate areas (total, teacher, and school), and for each of the four items concerned with education.
V. FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The objective of this study was to discover differences, if any, between the educational attitudes of lower-to-middle-class black eighth-grade students and middle-to-upper-middle-class white eighth-grade students. Both groups were from the urban metropolitan school district of Portland, Oregon.

The purpose was to test the assumption that black students from the inner-city held more favorable attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education than white students from middle-to-upper-middle-class schools. This difference seemed to be supported by prevailing attitudes developed during the Sixties by the older siblings of both groups of students.

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire included three scales comprised of thirty-three items having to do with teachers, school, and education.

The teacher scale consisted of the following eleven statements having to do with teachers:
1. Most teachers treat students fairly
2. Most teachers understand students
3. Most teachers are friendly
4. Most teachers are too bossy
5. Teachers make students work too hard
6. Most teachers are good at their jobs
7. Most teachers are too concerned over discipline
8. Teachers are usually uptight
9. Most teachers are good teachers
10. Most teachers are paid too much money
11. Most teachers are bad teachers

The school scale consisted of the following eighteen statements having to do with school:

1. School work is boring
2. I hate going to school
3. I learn more in school than outside of school
4. Schools are like jails
5. School rules are usually fair
6. I'm usually sad at school
7. I enjoy school
8. I learn more out of school than in school
9. I like going to school
10. I hate school
11. I'm usually happy at school
12. School is really O.K.
13. What I learn in school really helps me
14. School is boring
15. I would rather go to school than stay at home
16. School work is a bunch of junk
17. School work is too hard
18. I would rather stay home than go to school

The education scale consisted of the following four statements having to do with education:

1. Education makes you a happier person
2. I need education for what I want to become.
3. Education is mostly a waste of time
4. Life is hard when you don't have a good education

The Statistical Tools

Statistical tools selected as the most appropriate for testing significant statistical differences between the two groups were the Student's "t" test and the Chi-Square test. A total of seven tests of hypotheses were used: three "t" tests and four Chi-Square tests. The "t" test was selected for testing the significance of the differences between the two groups' responses to statements concerning teachers, school, and education. The
Chi-Square test was selected for testing differences concerned only with attitudes toward the concept of education.

Rationale for selecting the Student's "t" test, an inferential statistic designed to measure the difference between two independent group means, was based on the following: (a) samples came from populations which were normally distributed, (b) two sets of nominal data were tested, and (c) more than one comparison was made at a time (Best 1959; Courtney & Sedgwick 1974a).

The significance level of .05 was used for each statistical test. Rationale for the use of the .05 level as the appropriate significance level was based on (a) the number of cases involved, and (b) the practical consequences of the outcome.

Degrees of freedom were computed for the two independent groups of data according to the following formulas (Courtney & Sedgwick 1974b):

1. Degrees of freedom for the total, teacher, and school "t" tests were as follows:
   A. \( N_1: \) 113 white students
   B. \( N_2: \) 100 black students
   C. \( df: \) \( N_1 + N_2 - 2 \)
   D. \( df: \) \( 113 + 100 - 2 \)
   E. \( df: \) 211
2. Degrees of freedom for the education Chi-Square tests were as follows:

A. df: (rows minus 1) times (columns minus 1)
B. df: (2 rows - 1) X (2 columns - 1)
C. df: 1 X 1
D. df: 1

Findings and Statistical Analysis of Data

The responses of the two racially- and socio-economically-different groups were computed as mean scores. Based on the key (see Appendix 3), each questionnaire was scored, allowing one point for each positive response and no points for each negative or for no response. Mean scores were derived by summing the raw scores of each of the two groups and dividing by the number of respondents within each group. Separate mean scores were obtained for each of the variables: (a) teacher, (b) school, (c) education, and (d) total questionnaire (see Table 7).

The differences in the mean number of responses of the two groups on the three variables of teachers, school, and total of all questionnaire items appeared to be worthy of further examination.
A comparison of responses by the two groups of students was made with a "t" test of significance of means (see Table 8).

TABLE 7
COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES OF BLACK AND WHITE STUDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude Scale</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Black Students(^a)</th>
<th>White Students(^a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.85</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13.04</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers, School, and</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23.57</td>
<td>6.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.--Attitude Toward Education Scale: four items only (too few for a reliable measure for standard deviation).

\(^a\)N=100 black students; \(^a\)N=113 white students.
TABLE 8
TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE OF MEAN NUMBER OF RESPONSES BY TWO GROUPS OF STUDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Mean Number of Responses(a)</th>
<th>&quot;t&quot; Tests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>White</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23.79</td>
<td>25.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.85</td>
<td>8.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13.04</td>
<td>13.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

df: 211.

\(aN=100\) black students; \(aN=113\) white students.

*Significant at .05 level.

Further Analysis of Data as Related to Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education held by "the black group" and "the white group."

The "t" test for the total number of responses (teachers, school, and education) resulted in a computed value of 2.018. This difference in means was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis concerning the total of attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education was rejected. This study showed that white
middle-to-upper-middle-class students (among the students surveyed) have a more positive regard toward these concepts than black lower-to-middle-class students.

2. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions toward teachers held by "the black group" and "the white group."

The "t" test for the teacher responses resulted in a computed value of 4.853. This difference in means was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis concerning attitudes and opinions toward teachers was rejected. This study showed that white middle-to-upper-middle-class students (among the students surveyed) have a more positive regard toward teachers than black lower-to-middle-class students.

3. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions toward school held by "the black group" and "the white group."

The "t" test for the school responses resulted in a computed value of 0.193. This difference in means was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis concerning attitudes and opinions toward school was not rejected. This study showed that those white middle-to-upper-middle-class students surveyed regard school in much the same way as black lower-to-middle-class students.
4. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that education makes one a happier person.

The Chi-Square test for item number twelve resulted in a computed value of 6.204 (see Table 9). This difference in the responses of the two groups was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis concerning attitudes and opinions toward the statement that education makes one a happier person was rejected. This study showed that the black lower-to-middle-class students surveyed are more positive toward the concept that education makes one a happier person than white middle-to-upper-middle-class students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHI-SQUARE TESTS OF RESPONSES\a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO EDUCATION ITEMS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Computed Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.204*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.043</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\aN=100 black students; \aN=113 white students.

*Significant at .05 level.
5. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that one needs education for what one wants to become.

The Chi-Square test for item number thirteen resulted in a computed value of 0.002. This difference in the responses of the two groups was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis concerning attitudes and opinions toward the statement that one needs education for what one wants to become was not rejected. This study showed that the black lower-to-middle-class students surveyed regard the concept that one needs education for what one wants to become in much the same way as white middle-to-upper-middle-class students.

6. There is no difference in attitudes and opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that education is mostly a waste of time.

The Chi-Square test for item number fourteen resulted in a computed value of 0.642. This difference in the responses of the two groups was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis concerning attitudes and opinions toward the statement that education is mostly a waste of time was not rejected. This study showed that (among the students surveyed) black lower-to-middle-class students regard the concept that education is mostly a
waste of time in much the same way as white middle-to-
upper-middle-class students.

7. There is no difference in attitudes and
opinions of "the black group" and "the white group" that
life is hard when one doesn't have a good education.

The Chi-Square test for item number fifteen
resulted in a computed value of 0.043. This difference in
the responses of the two groups was not significant at the
.05 level. The null hypothesis concerning attitudes and
opinions toward the statement that life is hard when one
doesn't have a good education was not rejected. This
study showed that (among the students surveyed) black
lower-to-middle-class students regard the concept that
life is hard when one doesn't have a good education in
much the same way as white middle-to-upper-middle-class
students.

Summary of the Findings

Attitude Toward Teachers,
School, and Education

The questionnaire included three scales comprised
of thirty-three items having to do with teachers, school,
and education. Mean scores for the two groups were 23.57
for "the black group" and 25.19 for "the white group."
Results of the "t" at the .05 significance level showed a significant statistical difference between the two groups regarding attitudes and opinions toward a composite of the factors of teachers, school, and education. Responses to the questionnaire revealed that both groups were much more positive than negative toward the three concepts of teachers, school, and education, with "the white group" more positive than "the black group" (see Table 7 for a comparison of mean scores).

Attitude Toward Teachers

The Teacher scale included eleven items, five positive and six negative statements, having to do with various characteristics of teachers: (a) understanding, (b) fairness, (c) friendliness, (d) strictness, and (e) competence. The teacher mean scores for the two groups were 6.85 for "the black group" and 8.44 for "the white group," revealing that "the white group" held more favorable attitudes toward teachers than "the black group." Results of the "t" test at the .05 level of significance showed a difference between the two groups. Based on the mean scores and the statistical test, "the white group" was more positive toward the
concept of teachers than "the black group."

**Attitude Toward School**

The School scale included eighteen items, eight positive and ten negative statements, having to do with (a) school work, (b) school rules, (c) learning in or out of school, (d) being happy or sad at school, (e) liking or not liking school, and (f) going or not going to school. The school mean scores for the two groups were 13.04 for "the black group" and 13.15 for "the white group," with both groups responding virtually the same (see Table 7). Results of the "t" test at the .05 level of significance showed no significant statistical difference between the two groups. Based on the mean scores, however, both groups held more favorable attitudes and opinions toward school than unfavorable ones. Both groups enjoyed school and going to school more than not going to school. Both groups believed they learned more in school than out of school; that school rules were usually more fair than unfair; that school was really "OK" and not just boring; and that school work was not hard or "a bunch of junk."
Attitude Toward Education

The Education scale included four items, one negative and three positive statements, having to do with the concept of education:

1. Education makes one a happier person
2. One needs education for what one wants to become
3. Education is mostly a waste of time
4. Life is hard when one doesn't have a good education

The composite of education factors yielded mean scores of 3.79 for "the black group" and 3.56 for "the white group." The Chi-Square tests showed differences in the two groups to be significant only on the question concerned with education making one a happier person (see Table 10). As opposed to 73 percent of the white students, 88 percent of the black students believed that education makes one a happier person. While the questionnaire responses showed that both groups were substantially positive toward education in general, more favorable attitudes were held by the black students.
TABLE 10
COMPARISON OF RESPONSES TO POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE STATEMENTS CONCERNING EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude Statement</th>
<th>Black Students(^a)</th>
<th>White Students(^a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education makes one a happier person.</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One needs education for what one wants to become.</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education is mostly a waste of time.(^b)</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life is hard when one doesn't have a good education.</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)N=100 black students; \(^a\)N=113 white students.

\(^b\)8% of the black students and 4% of the white students responded positively to the negative statement that "education is mostly a waste of time." Conversely, 92% of the black students and 96% of the white students responded negatively to this negative statement.
VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study was intended to test the assumption that urban black eighth-grade students from schools with a high concentration of black lower-to-middle-class students have, in general, more positive attitudes and opinions toward teachers, school, and education than urban white eighth-graders from schools with a high concentration of white middle-to-upper-middle-class students. The purpose of this study was to look for differences in the educational attitudes and opinions of these two groups. In meeting this objective, it was first necessary to construct an appropriate survey-instrument for use by urban eighth-grade students in selected Portland, Oregon schools.

Phase One of the study involved the development and testing of the attitude and opinion questionnaire. It contained sixty items, thirty-five positive and twenty-five negative statements, concerning teachers, school, and education. Based on Portland Public Schools' academic and demographic data, seven schools of varying racial, academic, and socio-economic levels were selected.
The questionnaire was administered by the classroom teachers to 199 eighth-graders. After scoring, the High-Low-27 Percent Group method and the Rasch method of item-analysis were utilized to determine the selection of items, which resulted in the elimination of twenty-seven items from the original sixty-item questionnaire. The completed instrument included thirty-three items: eleven statements having to do with teachers, eighteen statements having to do with school, and four statements having to do with education.

Phase Two of the study involved a survey of the target population. Based on Portland Public Schools' academic and demographic data, eight schools were selected to participate in the target study, four schools with the highest concentration of black students from lower-to-middle-class families, and four schools with a high concentration of white students from middle-to-upper-middle-class families. A total of 213 eighth-graders (100 black students and 113 white students) completed the questionnaire during the week of April 21, 1975. After June of that year, most of the black upper-graders at the predominantly black schools were to be transferred to various predominantly white "receiving" schools because
of the local school district's policy of integration.

After the survey was completed, questionnaires were scored, allowing one point for each positive response. The few non-black students from the predominantly black schools and the few non-white students from the predominantly white schools were not included in the study. Separate tallies of positive responses were maintained for each of the three sections of the questionnaire (teachers, school, and education), plus a score for all items. Appropriate statistical tests were applied to the response-data: three "t" tests in testing differences between the two groups were applied to teacher, school, and total scores; and four Chi-Square tests in testing differences between the two groups were applied to four items having to do with education. In all seven tests, the .05 significance level was used.

The findings of the statistical tests revealed that these two racially- and socio-economically-different groups of students held essentially the same attitudes and opinions toward school and education. The tests revealed that "the white group" was more positive toward teachers than "the black group"; and that "the black group" was slightly more positive toward the concept of education than "the white group." Both sets of students
responded equally toward statements concerning school. The assumption that "the black group" held more positive attitudes and opinions toward the composite of the concepts of teachers, school, and education was rejected.

The Findings as they Relate to the Literature and Expectations of the Study

The lack of prior research in this area makes for some difficulty in the interpretation and evaluation of the findings. As stated earlier, almost uninvestigated is the area specifically dealing with comparisons of educational attitudes and opinions of black and white children. Before generalizing to a much larger population, it would be necessary to replicate this study in similar contexts.

Attitude Toward Teachers, School, and Education

The white children scored significantly higher statistically on the total questionnaire than the black children at the .05 significance level. The total mean difference between the two groups was small, less than 10 percent. Based on the high mean scores, the findings also revealed that neither group of students is
negative toward schooling. To the contrary, it appears that teachers, school, and education are valued by both black and white children, with the white children holding slightly more positive attitudes than the black children.

The findings are in agreement with the literature of educational attitudes of black students. It was widely believed that black children held negative attitudes toward schooling. This was shown not to be the case by several studies (Baughman & Dahlstrom 1968; Greenberg et al. 1965; Neale & Proshek 1966). The literature has shown that black children from low and middle socio-economic levels have been consistently positive toward the concepts of school and education, but have been hampered by poor academic performance.

On the other hand, the history of educational attitudes of white children is not as clearly defined. In Tenenbaum's study (1940), it was found that children from three different income levels were overwhelmingly positive toward schooling. Coster's study (1958) revealed that students uniformly accepted the educational program which nine Indiana schools had provided. In Jackson and Lahaderne's study (1967), it was felt that children from a predominantly white, working-class suburb neither loved nor hated school, but were rather neutral toward it. In a
study made in Portland, Oregon, Bakke (1970) revealed that many white youngsters were "turned-off" with school and education; and at that time, in a survey made by the United States Commission on Civil Rights (1971), it was found that white and non-white children held a diversity of educational attitudes. Yet, in the early Seventies (Beard & Convey 1974), in a state-wide assessment of 120,000 eighth-graders, it was found that no evidence of any large-scale dissatisfaction existed among the students.

Because of events which occurred in the Sixties (the black movement, white student unrest and disenchantment with education), it was expected that "the black group" would be more positive than "the white group." This did not prove to be the case. One could argue that because of the small difference in mean scores, both groups hold attitudes toward schooling that are almost equal, that black children from the inner-city are almost as positive toward schooling as white children from middle-to-upper-middle-class families.

Attitude Toward Teachers

The results of the statistical test concerning attitudes toward teachers revealed that the difference in the responses of "the white group" were significantly higher than "the black group" at the .05 significance
level. The mean difference in group responses to statements regarding the teacher factor came to approximately 20 percent. Based on reasons stated earlier, it had been expected that "the black group" would be more positive toward teachers than "the white group." This did not prove to be the case. In fact, the reverse was true: black students were less positive toward teachers than the white students.

The findings seem to be in agreement with the literature and the prevailing assumption that middle-to-upper-middle-class white children regard teachers more favorably than lower-to-middle-class black children. For example, in an investigation undertaken by Neale & Proshek (1967) of attitudes of fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-graders in two Minnesota schools, it was found that of students from the lower socio-economic school, 28 percent of non-white students in attendance regarded teachers significantly less favorably than students from the middle socio-economic school, where only one percent of non-white students were in attendance.

Attitude Toward School

The results of the survey of student responses concerning attitudes toward school revealed that both
groups hold similar attitudes. The mean scores of the two groups were 13.04 for "the black group" and 13.15 for "the white group." Both groups of students value school highly and equally. The assumption that "the black group" would be more positive toward school than "the white group" did not prove to be true. Instead, black children from predominantly lower-to-middle-class schools were equally favorable toward the concept of school as white children from predominantly middle-to-upper-middle-class schools.

The prevailing assumption that black children from the inner-city do not hold generally positive attitudes toward school is not valid. The findings of this study are in agreement with those of previous studies (Greenberg et al. 1965; Neale & Proshek 1967).

Attitude Toward Education

The results of the survey of student responses concerning attitudes toward education revealed that both groups hold similar attitudes. The black students responded slightly more favorably toward the assumption that education makes one a happier individual. While the educational mean scores of the two groups were virtually the same, 3.79 for "the black group" and 3.56
for "the white group," the responses of the black students were significantly higher than the responses of the white students on one of the statistical tests dealing with the statement that education makes one a happier person. The assumption that the black children would be more positive toward the concept of education was upheld, at least in the one area concerning the concept that education makes one a happier person.

The prevailing belief that black children from the ghetto are negative toward education is not in agreement with the findings of this study, nor with the literature. On the contrary, black children appear to value education and, based on this study, black students were slightly more positive toward education than white students.

The Findings as they Relate to Theories of Attitude-Change

The lack of previous studies concerned with comparisons of these two groups makes it difficult to interpret and evaluate the findings, especially in relation to sociological theory. If the events of the Sixties had an impact on the attitudes of these two groups, the findings of this study alone are inconclusive. What was needed, of course, were previous studies of this type before, and perhaps during, the Sixties.
In addition, the variables which could have contributed to any possible attitude-change are too numerous and complex to be covered in this type of study. Some of the more important factors are: (a) general decrease in prejudice toward blacks by the white society; (b) liberating dynamics of modernization; (c) civil rights groups, black militancy, and ghetto riots; (d) gradual increase of black-white marriages; (e) exposure of black models through the media, including television and films; and (f) federal legislation which has affected integration of the schools, job-skill training programs, aid to dependent children, education grants for minorities, loans to black businessmen, and pre-school education programs.

While the social climate of the Sixties may have had an effect on the educational attitudes of these two groups, the problem is too vast and complex to confirm or deny.
Conclusions

A review of the findings of this study, done in the Portland Public Schools, leads to the following conclusions:

1. Black children from predominantly black lower-to-middle-class schools are neither more positive nor more negative toward school than white children from predominantly white middle-to-upper-middle-class schools.

2. White children from predominantly white middle-to-upper-middle-class schools are more positive toward teachers than black children from predominantly black lower-to-middle-class schools.

3. White children from predominantly white middle-to-upper-middle-class schools and black children from predominantly black lower-to-middle-class schools share virtually the same attitudes and opinions toward education as it relates to its usefulness: that education is not a waste of time; that it helps toward a successful career or job; and that without it life is that much harder.

4. Black children from predominantly black lower-to-middle-class schools value the concept that "education makes one a happier person" more than white children from
predominantly white middle-to-upper-middle-class schools.

5. Black children from predominantly black lower-to-middle-class schools value school highly; the assumption that black children hold negative attitudes toward school and education is not true.

6. White children from predominantly white middle-to-upper-middle-class schools are not disenchanted with teachers, school, and education. On the contrary, this group of students values schooling highly.

Implications of the Conclusions

If black children from predominantly lower-to-middle-class families share the same positive attitudes and opinions toward school as white children from predominantly middle-to-upper-middle-class families, then it must be assumed that both groups value school equally. Both groups enjoy going to school more than not going; school work is important, and not meaningless; school rules are usually fair; school is not boring, but really "OK"; and they are usually happy at school rather than sad.

It would seem, then, that black children from ghetto schools are receiving the same messages concerning school that white children from middle-to-upper-middle-class families have been receiving: that school is
worthwhile and brings economic rewards and success. Many black children are, however, still hampered by inferior performance in the classroom.

Because these two sets of students are from different racial and socio-economic groups, the findings that they both value school positively and equally is of major importance. If social class is not a determining factor in attitudes toward school, as pointed out in the literature, then, based on this study, it would also seem that race does not influence attitudes toward school. Neither social class nor race has a bearing on attitudes toward school. The knowledge that race is not a determining factor on attitudes toward school can be a contributing factor toward raising the expectations of ghetto teachers; and, once and for all, the belief that black children hold negative attitudes toward school will be shattered.

Because black students have historically been positive toward school, it is difficult to assess how much, if any, impact the events of the Sixties had on changing attitudes toward school, especially where it concerns this particular group of students.
In the case of the white students, one could argue, based on the literature, that during the Forties, white children were substantially positive toward school; during the Fifties, positive; while during the Sixties there existed a mixture of educational attitudes--some negative and some positive; and, during the Seventies, a modified return to positive attitudes toward school. Because the studies on attitudes were not all particularly aimed at white children (many studies involved black and other non-white students) and, because the studies are too few to represent over three decades of attitudes, it is difficult to make such an argument. Most of the studies, however, reveal that white children, over the past thirty years, have generally been positive toward school.

Based on the fact that over the years the academic performance of most black students has generally been lower than white students while holding positive attitudes toward school, it is conceivable that school may be looked upon by black students as a social arena and not just a place where learning takes place. The school, more than any other locale in the black community, may provide a forum where friends meet, where most of the socializing is
conducted, and where individuals can excel in the extracurricular activities of the educational program. The school may also be important because the school is an integral part of the neighborhood, the center of the community.

For many white middle-to-upper-middle-class children, however, school may be only one medium of socialization. While the local school may fulfill the same needs for white students as it does for black students, it may not be as vital as it is to those whose major area of community-participation is the local neighborhood and its school.

One possible implication of the conclusion that black students are less positive toward teachers than the white students may be based on the dynamics of the social environment of the black students. The Albina neighborhood, where the black students reside, is an area with many social problems. Many children who come from such a background may have a tendency to distrust outsiders and strangers (Anti-Defamation League of B’nai B’rith 1964) and may, in fact, consider teachers as such. The social environment may contribute to aggressive classroom behavior, which many times is directed toward the most
available authority figure, the teacher. According to John (1964),

children who experience a social environment in which the difficulties of adults are not secret, and wherein the various social ills of the community are but too visible to the very young, view their environment as a far more hostile and dangerous entity than do children who are raised under more protected conditions. Many who work with disadvantaged children have observed striking changes in motivational and adaptive patterns during pre-adolescence. While young disadvantaged children entering kindergarten seem as eager to please the teachers and "behave well" as their middle-class counterparts, the fourth- and fifth-grade classrooms in the ghetto schools present teachers with more overly-hostile, active, or deeply withdrawn children (p. 10).

An additional factor explaining why the black students were less favorable toward teachers than the white students may be the variable of social class. Havighurst & Neugarten (1967) state that, regardless of the social origins of teachers,

. . . by and large most teachers in America see themselves as middle-class people; they participate with others of the middle-class and hold middle-class attitudes and values (p. 413).

Because of this, most teachers reflect a middle-class view and have a tendency to expect students to hold, or at least to aspire to, middle-class values. White middle-class students generally relate to their teachers' middle-class views, yet black students may be viewed as "culturally disadvantaged," a group with differing values
than those of the teacher. If black students are perceptive enough to detect this clash in values and attitudes, they may see the teacher as someone who does not approve of the students.

The low academic performance on the part of black students may further aggravate this situation. Many of the low-achieving students may blame the teacher for the students' own poor performance. In Jackson & Getzels' (1959) study of dissatisfaction with school among adolescents, it was found that "dissatisfied boys lay the blame for dissatisfaction upon others in the environment, particularly school authorities" (p. 299). The dissatisfied girls tended to put blame on themselves for their dissatisfaction, rather than on the environment.

If black children from predominantly lower-to-middle-class families share the same positive attitudes and opinions toward education as white children from predominantly middle-to-upper-middle-class families, then it must be assumed that both groups value the merits of education equally and positively; that education is important, that without it life is hard, and one cannot succeed, and that it certainly is not a waste of time. The institution of education is viewed by these two groups as contributing to happiness and to a happy life.
As was the case with attitudes toward the concept of school, the findings imply that neither social class nor race has a bearing on attitudes toward education, that both groups, each from different races and social classes, value education equally, regardless of their backgrounds. While this has generally been believed, it has not been widely accepted that black children from the ghetto value the concept of education.

These two sets of students believe that education is the vehicle for social competence and individual development and that without it they may be deprived of social and economic rewards. Education may also be viewed as a panacea for many of the individual's problems.

Based on the findings, education is more valued than the concepts of school and teachers by these two groups. Their faith in the school and teachers is somewhat less than their faith in the institution of education. It is possible that while students may be inclined to hold teachers in disfavor, they would still rank education high; that a child may be unhappy at school, and still believe that education is valuable and worthwhile. One can be a low-achieving student and still value the merits of education.
The findings that revealed that "the black group" was significantly more positive than "the white group" toward the assumption that education makes one a happier person may have as its basis the historical belief that education is the cure-all for many of the problems in the black community. The belief may be that with education one is able to escape the ghetto, to move "up the social ladder," to find a good job, and to give stability to an unstable existence, all of which contribute to a happier life. While "the white group" of students may also believe these same assumptions, it is possible, because of prejudices in the society, that their situation is not as urgently felt as "the black group."

If, as has been pointed out earlier, many white college and high school-age students were becoming disenchanted with schooling in the crisis era of the Sixties, these negative attitudes did not filter down to the junior-high level, at least they were not found to be true during 1975, the time of this study. Based on the findings, white middle-to-upper-middle-class students from the Portland, Oregon area were not disenchanted with teachers, school, and education. On the contrary, they valued all three concepts highly.
Because of the lack of previous studies in this particular area, the data must be viewed as far from conclusive. What is necessary, of course, is to replicate this study in similar contexts.

Suggestions for Further Study

It is suggested that:

1. Further research, including replication of the present study be done, including the use of the attitude-instrument developed for this study;

2. A longitudinal study be undertaken, measuring the educational attitudes of present-day black lower-to-middle-class students and white middle-to-upper-middle-class students over a five-year time span;

3. An additional study be undertaken, comparing the attitudes of the two groups under study at an integrated "receiving" school;

4. An attitudinal study be undertaken, comparing the attitudes of lower-to-middle-class urban black students with those of middle-to-upper-middle-class suburban white students; and

5. Further research be done which examines the relationship of race to attitudes toward teachers, school, and education.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Bakke, James F. "Alienated Youth--Part II: Attitudes of Youth Toward Social Institutions." Portland (Oregon) State University, 1970. (A typewritten paper.)


Courtney, E. Wayne, & Sedgwick, Lorry L. "Reading Student's 't' Table." Corvallis, Oregon: Oregon State University, 1974. (A typewritten paper.)

Courtney, E. Wayne, & Sedgwick, Lorry L. "Use of Chi-Square." Corvallis, Oregon: Oregon State University, 1974. (A typewritten paper.)


APPENDICES
LETTER OF PERMISSION TO
ADMINISTER THE ATTITUDE
AND
OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

FROM: Geo. S. Ingebo
DATE: April 8, 1975

TO: Mr. Victor Rini
SUBJECT: Sellwood School

Your request for permission to administer the student attitude scale to Area III eighth grade students is approved, subject to the decision of the school principal, because it is very close to a project Area III and Area II have pursued for several years and because you are not using student's names in acquiring data.

GS1/ds
APPENDIX 2

CENSUS TRACT MAP OF ALBINA NEIGHBORHOOD
PORTLAND, OREGON

CENSUS TRACTS

Albina,
Portland, Ore., 1970

CENSUS TRACTS
APPENDIX 3

60-ITEM QUESTIONNAIRE WITH KEY

INSTRUCTIONS

The enclosed questionnaire should be administered to classes of eighth-grade students by their own eighth-grade teachers. No student preparation is necessary except that students should be told that they will remain anonymous. No names are to appear on the questionnaire—only school, sex, and race; the student is to merely check the appropriate "YES" or "NO" box.

For your own information, results will be used in developing an eighth-grade scale of attitudes toward school, teachers, and education. Student responses for your particular class will gladly be provided. Thank you for your participation.

Please return all questionnaires in the envelope provided, to:

Victor M. Rini
Sellwood School
8300 S.E. 15th Ave.
Portland, OR 97202
### APPENDIX 3

**KEY TO 60-ITEM QUESTIONNAIRE**

**School:**

**Sex:** ___________  **Race:** ___________

**DIRECTIONS:** Answer this questionnaire by checking the correct box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I like most teachers.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Students get too much homework.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Most teachers treat students fairly.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. School work is boring.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Education makes you a better person.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. School work should be hard.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. A teacher should be more like a friend.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I'm proud of my school.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The principal should be strict.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. School work is usually fun.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Most teachers understand students.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I need education for what I want to become.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. School work is too hard.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Teachers are old-fashioned.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I want to be a good student.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Education is good for everyone.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Most teachers are too concerned over discipline.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. School should be fun.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I like getting good grades.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. A good education gets you a good job.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. School helps most kids learn.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I wish I were a better student.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I learn more in school than outside of school.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I want to go to college</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I want to get better grades.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Schools are like jails.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Most teachers are friendly.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. School rules are usually fair.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I enjoy school.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I'm usually sad at school.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Grades show how smart a student is.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. You need a good education to make lots of money.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Students should get more homework.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. I hate school</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Education makes you a happier person.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX 3</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. I learn more out of school than in school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Education is mostly a waste of time.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Most teachers are too bossy.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. I like going to school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. I'm usually happy at school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. School is fun.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. I hate going to school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. A good teacher is a strict teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. School is really OK.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Teachers make students work too hard.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. What I learn in school really helps me.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Most teachers make school interesting.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. School is boring.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Most rules at school are unfair.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. Most teachers are good at their job.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. A good teacher is an easy teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. School work is a bunch of junk.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. Life is hard when you don't have a good education.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. I would rather go to school than stay home.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## APPENDIX 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>55. Education helps you get a good job.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56. Teachers are usually uptight.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. Most teachers are good teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. Teachers are paid too much money.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. Most teachers are bad teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. I would rather stay at home than go to school.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 4

THE HIGH-LOW-27 PERCENT GROUP METHOD

Forty items with Biserial Index $r$ of .50 and above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Biserial Index $r$</th>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.67</td>
<td>3. Most teachers treat students fairly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.62</td>
<td>4. School work is boring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.50</td>
<td>8. I'm proud of my school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.53</td>
<td>10. School work is usually fun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.61</td>
<td>11. Most teachers understand students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.53</td>
<td>12. I need education for what I want to become.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.56</td>
<td>13. School work is too hard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.57</td>
<td>15. I want to be a good student.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.57</td>
<td>17. Most teachers are too concerned over discipline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.62</td>
<td>23. I learn more in school than outside of school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.66</td>
<td>26. Schools are like jails.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.71</td>
<td>27. Most teachers are friendly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.62</td>
<td>28. School rules are usually fair.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.82</td>
<td>29. I enjoy school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.69</td>
<td>30. I'm usually sad at school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.74</td>
<td>34. I hate school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.71</td>
<td>35. Education makes you a happier person.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### APPENDIX 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Biserial Index r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36. I learn more out of school than in school.</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Education is mostly a waste of time.</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Most teachers are too bossy.</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. I like going to school.</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. I'm usually happy at school.</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. School is fun.</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. I hate going to school.</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. School is really OK.</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Teachers make students work too hard.</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. What I learn in school really helps me.</td>
<td>.66</td>
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<td>47. Most teachers make school interesting.</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. School is boring.</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Most rules at school are unfair.</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. Most teachers are good at their job.</td>
<td>.67</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. School work is a bunch of junk.</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. Life is hard when you don't have a good education.</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. I would rather go to school than stay home.</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Biserial Index r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>56. Teachers are usually uptight.</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. Most teachers are good teachers.</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. Teachers are paid too much money.</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. Most teachers are bad teachers.</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. I would rather stay home than go to school.</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 5

THE HIGH-LOW-27 PERCENT GROUP METHOD

Biserial Index \( r \) of Twenty Items
Excluded from the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Biserial Index ( r )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I like most teachers.</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Students get too much homework.</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Education makes you a better person.</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>School work should be hard.</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>A teacher should be more like a friend.</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The principal should be strict.</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Teachers are old-fashioned.</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Education is good for everyone.</td>
<td>.40</td>
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<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>School should be fun.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I like getting good grades.</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>A good education gets you a good job.</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>School helps most kids learn.</td>
<td>.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>I wish I were a better student.</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>I want to go to college.</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>I want to get better grades.</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### APPENDIX 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Biserial Index r</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Grades show how smart a student is.</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>You need a good education to make lots of money.</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Students should get more homework.</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>A good teacher is a strict teacher.</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>Education helps you get a good job.</td>
<td>.47</td>
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</table>
### APPENDIX 6

**RASCH ITEM ANALYSIS**

Mean Square and Point Biserial of Seven Items Excluded from the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean Square Fit Statistic</th>
<th>Point Biserial Correlation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I'm proud of my school.</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>.367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>School work is usually fun.</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>.030</td>
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<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>I want to be a good student.</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>.220</td>
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<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>School is fun.</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>.106</td>
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<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Most teachers make school interesting.</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>Most rules at school are unfair.</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>.179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>A good teacher is an easy teacher.</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>.308</td>
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# APPENDIX 7

## RASCH ITEM ANALYSIS

### Mean Square and Point Biserial of Forty Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>Point Biserial</th>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>Most teachers treat students fairly.</td>
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<td>.750</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>School work is boring.</td>
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<td>.620</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I'm proud of my school.</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>.367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>School work is usually fun.</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Most teachers understand students.</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.571</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>I need education for what I want to become.</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.759</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>School work is too hard.</td>
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<td>.720</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>I want to be a good student.</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>.220</td>
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<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Most teachers are too concerned over discipline.</td>
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<td>23.</td>
<td>I learn more in school than outside of school.</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.813</td>
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<td>26.</td>
<td>Schools are like jails.</td>
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<td>Most teachers are friendly.</td>
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<td>School rules are usually fair.</td>
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<td>29.</td>
<td>I enjoy school.</td>
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<td>I'm usually sad at school.</td>
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<td>.857</td>
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<td>Item No.</td>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Mean Square</td>
<td>Point Biserial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>I hate school.</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.887</td>
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<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>Education makes you a happier person.</td>
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<td>I learn more out of school than in school.</td>
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<td>Education is mostly a waste of time.</td>
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<td>38.</td>
<td>Most teachers are too bossy.</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.832</td>
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<td>39.</td>
<td>I like going to school</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.898</td>
</tr>
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<td>40.</td>
<td>I'm usually happy at school</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>School is fun.</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>I hate going to school</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>.351</td>
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<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>School is really OK.</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.548</td>
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<td>45.</td>
<td>Teachers make students work too hard.</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.747</td>
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<td>46.</td>
<td>What I learn in school really helps me.</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.618</td>
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<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Most teachers make school interesting.</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>School is boring.</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>.548</td>
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<td>49.</td>
<td>Most rules at school are unfair.</td>
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<td>.179</td>
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<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>Most teachers are good at their job.</td>
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<td>Mean Square</td>
<td>Point Biserial</td>
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<td>---------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>A good teacher is an easy teacher.</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>School work is a bunch of junk.</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.787</td>
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<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>Life is hard when you don't have a good education.</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>I would rather go to school than stay home.</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.542</td>
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<tr>
<td>56.</td>
<td>Teachers are usually uptight.</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.721</td>
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<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>Most teachers are good teachers.</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>.477</td>
</tr>
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<td>58.</td>
<td>Teachers are paid too much money.</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.783</td>
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<td>59.</td>
<td>Most teachers are bad teachers.</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.</td>
<td>I would rather stay at home than go to school.</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.780</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 8

THIRTY THREE-ITEM-QUESTIONNAIRE

April 1975

DIRECTIONS . . . for the student.

On the next page, print the name of your school, your sex, and your race. DO NOT STATE YOUR NAME. Then, after reading each statement, check the "YES" or "NO" box if you honestly agree or disagree with the statement.

INFORMATION . . . for the teacher.

The attached questionnaire should be administered to classes of eighth-grade students by their own eighth-grade teachers. No student preparation is necessary except that students should be told they will remain anonymous, and their answers confidential. No names are to appear on the questionnaire, only school, sex, and race; the student is to merely check the appropriate "YES" or "NO" box.

For your information, results of the questionnaire will be summarized and reported back to your school. Thank you for your participation. Please return all questionnaires in the envelope provided, to: Victor M. Rini
Sellwood School
8300 S.E. 15th Ave.
Portland, OR 97202
APPENDIX 8

THIRTY-THREE-ITEM QUESTIONNAIRE

School: ____________________________

Sex: _______  Race: _______

DIRECTIONS: Answer this questionnaire by checking (✔) the correct box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Most teachers treat students fairly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Most teachers understand students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Most teachers are friendly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Most teachers are too bossy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Teachers make students work too hard.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Most teachers are good at their job.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>Most teachers are too concerned over discipline.</td>
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<td>Teachers are usually uptight.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Most teachers are paid too much money.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Most teachers are bad teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Item</td>
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<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Education makes you a happier person.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>I need education for what I want to become.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Life is hard when you don't have a good education.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>School work is boring.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>I hate going to school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>I learn more in school than outside of school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Schools are like jails.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>I like going to school.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Item</td>
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<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>School is really OK.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>28.</td>
<td>What I learn in school really helps me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>School is boring.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>I would rather go to school than stay home.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>School work is a bunch of junk.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>School work is too hard.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>I would rather stay home than go to school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
April 9, 1975

Mr. W.R. Staub
Vernon School
2044 N.E. Killingsworth St.
Portland, Oregon 97211

Dear Mr. Staub:

Enclosed are thirty-five copies of an Attitude Questionnaire for use with eighth-grade students.

After your students complete the questionnaire forms, please return them on the Pony in the enclosed self-addressed envelope.

The information gleaned from these questionnaires will be summarized, and the results will be sent back to your school.

Thank you for your participation.

Yours truly,

Victor Rini

VR/djd
Enclosures