"WHO GETS WHAT, WHEN AND HOW MUCH:" THE

POLITICS AND EFFECTS OF EDUCATIONAL

INEQUITY IN OKLAHOMA EDUCATION

By

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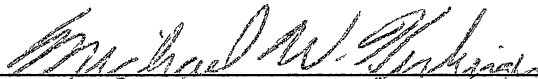Oklahoma Baptist University

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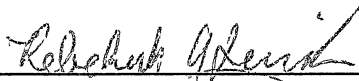the Degree of
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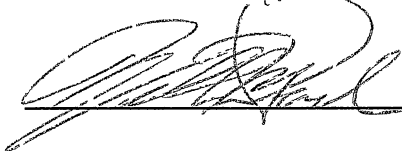"WHO GETS WHAT, WHEN AND HOW MUCH:" THE

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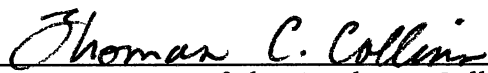
INEQUITY IN OKLAHOMA EDUCATION

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Only a few days after President Bush returned from Japan, the Japanese Prime Minister stated (in one of many speeches citing Japanese superiority in business affairs) that "American workers are lazy and unmotivated." Not only is this an insult to American workers, but also to the educational system which prepares these workers for the work force. It seems as though the last fifteen to twenty years has brought about an increased emphasis on education. The Japanese are pulling ahead of the United States in the economic realm. Math scores are at one of their lowest points in history. All these events have caused the national and state governments to reevaluate the educational system. The country's primary question concerning education has now become: How can we invest in our public schools to enhance their educational programs, in order to produce better citizens who are prepared for the work place (Schultz, 1961)?

The answer has now become to invest more funds into the current educational system. However, as this money is invested, we have continued to see a steady decline in the test scores of students. In addition, we have seen hostility developed from the student population towards both school administration and faculty . Discipline and respect and productivity are now

more of memory than reality. The current problems are still in existence despite

the incurrence of greater funds. This is the reason why many state lawmakers

and politicians nation-wide are calling for vast reforms of the educational

community. These reforms tend to be highly controversial and set the stage for

political battles between forces for educational reform and the traditional

education supporter. This study plans to provide an indication of what can be

done in Oklahoma schools to enhance the educational system.

Ample research has been done concerning funding disparities between

wealthy and poor districts. Research also has studied educational outcomes and

its effects on income and ability. This research study examines twenty Oklahoma

schools and how inequity affects student outcomes.

For example, Sunderman and Hinely (1979) did a similar study of

theTexas system after the 1973 San Antonio v. Rodriguez case. In addition,

Hickrod et.al. (1980) did a study of the Texas system after the 1973 San Antonio

v. Rodriguez case. In addition, Hickrod et.al. (1980) conducted a study of equity

systems in Iowa, Indiana, and Illinois. Also, the Coleman Report (1966) is

probably the best known and comprehensive study of the American educational

system. This study examined various background factors, as well as equity

factors and their impact on educational outcomes. Even though the report has

been criticized for its research techniques and data analysis, it still established a

basic foundation for future educational research.

This study of Oklahoma schools will take a different focus than previous

research. This study is based on an educational model similar to David Easton's

political systems model (see Appendix A, Figure 1). Easton's model is concerned with the demands that the political environment put on the political system. There seems to be factors involved in the ways that the political environment puts demands on the political system. Easton points out that the current attitude of the political environment is important. For example, if the environment has a cynical attitude towards the political system, as a whole, then the demands may become more intense. Therefore, this puts stress on the political systems to meet the demands of the environment.

A second factor concerns the political socialization of the political environment. For example, young voters are growing up around people who are cynical and untrusting of the political institutions. Therefore, the young voters are acquiring anti-establishment attitudes towards the political system. The basic question which Easton seems to be putting forward is: "How does the political system meet the demands of the political environment in a satisfactory manner?"

The educational political model (see Figure 1, Appendix A) that has developed for this study is similar in size to Easton's in the number of administrators compared to members of Congress. This study utilized 587 administrators - compared to 535 members of the Congress. The size of the model reflects the incredible demands placed upon school systems by a broad spectrum of administrators and their consitutencies; faculty, staff, students, and the community. The participants of this model also have to be subordinate to the decrees of the state legislature, gubernatorial plans of action, State Board of Education, and to some extent, the State Regents for Higher Education. As a

result, the school district's success in adhereing to the demands various intrests involved depends on two prominent outcomes: test scores and dropout rates.

While there are similarities between Easton's model and the study's, the model in this study differs from Easton's 1979 representation in three distinct ways: 1) the external environment consists of the funding which each school receives from its various sources (i.e, state, local property tax, etc...), and also the demands of the public on how this money should be used; 2) the internal system consists of the school system (i.e, administrators, teachers, curriculum, etc...). This is where the decisions are made on how to allocate the money to the specific educational areas of the school system; and 3) the educational outcomes which occur from the decisions of allocation. These outcomes are measured in test scores, graduation rates and dropout rates. It seems that the educational system has become a political system within itself. Actually, this educational model represents 587 districts which are trying to satisfy their environment in a manner to produce better educated students. Therefore, to an extent, it has become a process of who gets what, when and how much. Thus, this study will determine how Oklahoma's educational system fits into this model by examining possible inequity problems.

The study is organized into four sections. First, the study will examine the literature dealing with the inequity problem. For example, the importance of state aid and the state's responsiveness to education will be revealed. In addition, internal and external resources will be examined according to their effect on educational outcomes. Second, the operationalization of variables will

be discussed. Third, the data will be presented and discussed. Certain comparisons will be made between school districts of the same size, as well as larger and smaller. Finally, the study will consider future implications concerning Oklahoma's inequity problem. This section will look at House Bill 1017 (HB 1017) and President Bush's "America:2000" program.

CHAPTER II

THE INTERNAL RESOURCES OF THE INEQUITY MODEL

Definition of Equity

As research has indicated, there is no one specific definition of equity. Harvey and Klein (1985) seem to define equity as fairness and justice. Fairness and justice refer to the ability for all students to have the chance to receive the best education. One student who attends a school should not receive any less an education than another student who attends a school thirty miles down the road. Every student should have the access and the chance to receive the education needed for the work force or a college education. McMahon (1982) defines equity as the just distribution of educational benefits, taxation, or other burdens (see also Alexander, 1982). This study defines equity as the access to and distribution of educational resources and benefits, where no one student is able to receive more benefits than another students. Each student should be able to receive the education possible to go on to college or enter into the work force. This particular access to educational benefits and resources refers to the availability of courses in the curriculum, the availability of learning resources to enhance learning abilities. In addition, this educational equity refers to balanced per pupil expenditures according to school enrollment. For example, as this

study will possibly reveal, there seems to be discrepancies in per pupil expenditures between districts of similar size. Also, many smaller schools seem to have larger per pupil expenditures than larger schools. Thus, this study will address equity as the allocation of educational benefits to every student (see also Harvey and Klein, 1985).

Equity Measurement

Equity measurement is very important in determining disparities. McMahon (1982) suggests a type of measurement called horizontal equity. This consists of comparing identical schools' current expenditure per pupil. Also included is comparing the tax rates of people of similar income. If these comparisons reveal similar results, then horizontal equity is achieved. William Hartman (1988) creates a model for equity measurement (see Appendix A, Figure 2). Hartman describes how expenditures are implemented into the school's resources and programs, which eventually effect the outcomes of learning. The main emphasis in this model is whether schools devote as much dollars in learning resources as in programs, within the size proportion of the school's budget.

Harvey and Klein (1985) describe three additional methods to measure equity. The first consists of focusing on a learner or a group of learners and comparing their input, interaction, and achievement. They look at how much interaction takes place on the learner's part. This interaction is dependent upon the teacher, class materials and the learner himself (Harvey and Klein, 1985).

Other factors which are focused upon include the learner's attitude and outcome. These outcomes include changes in test scores and changes in the teacher's expectation of the learner (Harvey and Klein, 1985). The second method consists of stereotyping and discrimination. This method focuses on providing equal access, or educational opportunities to everyone. As this study will hopefully reveal, funding disparities give benefits to some and not to others, hence the differences in student outcomes. The final method seems to coincide with the previous one. It is concerned with the institution's emphasis on equity (Harvey and Klein, 1985). This examines the atmosphere of the institution. It wants to find out whether the curriculum structure is providing access to more educational opportunities. It also focuses on the teacher and their type of teaching. Is s/he motivating the learner? Is the teacher developing their cognitive skills? As we shall discuss later, the type of teacher is important in this method. And as the research will show, the more experienced and better qualified teachers are in the wealthier districts.

On the other realm of equity measurement, there arises arguments why equity cannot be met in the schools. James Ward (1987) gives several reasons why equity is different to measure and achieve. One reason is that school districts have inadequate resource bases. The lace of sufficient funds hampers a school's education. Without money coming in, programs have to be eliminated or cut back. Another problem deals with trying to serve minorities and slower learners. In order to teach these types of students, special clientele are needed, which results in more money being needed. A final problem consists of state aid

formulas failing to compensate for the increased need of many schools. While the need may be increasing, the state puts more emphasis on other programs which need help (Ward, 1987).

State Responsiveness

As we have just mentioned, the responsiveness of the state is essential in a school's education. Much of the inequity problem could be caused by a lack of state aid. One must remember that the state accounts for approximately two-thirds of educational funding. Morgan and Pelissero (1984) point out that the state is more responsive to those districts with need (see also Morgan and England, 1984). Since most of the local funding comes from the property tax, state funding is discretionary to those districts where land may not be as valuable. Morgan and Pelissero (1984) reveal that those cities that are unable to raise enough revenue, due to lack of resources, receive more aid. However, problems occur when the state tries to apportion the funds in an equal fashion. Some states have a large amount of districts compared to their population. Therefore, there is not enough money to go around equally (Morgan and Pelissero, 1984). For example, in 1988 Oklahoma had 636 school districts, which ranked sixth nationally. However, state and local spending for education was only $938 per capita income (37th nationally) (Brizius and Foster, 1990). On the other hand, states with less districts such as Iowa and Colorado were able to equalize their state and local expenditures more easily ($1,072 and $1,067, respectively) (Brizius and Foster, 1990). Another factor is that states must

respond to those cities where the population is large. For example, Pelissero (1984) reveals that state aid to cities over 500,000 increased 270 percent between 1964 and 1973, while aid to other cities increased by 211 percent (see also Morgan and Pelissero, 1984; Copeland and Meier, 1984). Morgan and Pelissero (1984) revealed in their study that the biggest determinant in state aid was enrollment. Pelissero (1984) found that educational influence had the second highest correlation (.54) when compared to state responsiveness. Hence, schools with a larger need and population are given more responsiveness. Consequently, schools located in larger cities have a better chance to obtain more funds.

<u>Types of Benefits and Educational Inequity</u>

Educational equity is also important because of the outcomes that education can produce. Cohn (1979) presents a model of a 'human capital' approach to education. Figure 3 shows that an investment in education leads to better productivity among students, which in turn, leads to higher earnings. Schultz (1961) also seems to agree that the more we invest in education, the better our work force. He found that emphasis on education in the work force rose eight and a half times between 1900 and 1956. This educational emphasis in the work force reveals the advancement of society, and the need for workers to have certain skills. Research tends to identify two types of benefits from education. First, is the private benefits, which increase the individual's chance to enhance their earnings, better their job chances, and contribute more to a society (Cohn,

1979). Hill (1981) points out that those people which are better educated have more prestigious jobs. Cohn (1979) presents research indicating that as a person gets older and has more education, the more income they will receive. As a person reaches his/her early twenties, the income difference shows in their educational investment. For example, a 35 year old person with a college education will make almost $6,000 more than someone with a high school education. Furthermore, these benefits open up more experiences to the individual. The individual is better able to understand abstract material, such as art, literature, and music (Cohn, 1979).

Second, besides having positive affects on the individual, benefits can be positive for the society as a whole. Research calls these benefits: social benefits. These benefits include research, a more talented work force, an ability for people to adjust to changing atmospheres, and better citizenship (Schultz, 1963). The education each person has can be absorbed by people around them, such as their co-workers. For example, a well educated supervisor can teach his workers, and thus spread his educational benefits to them. Also, Cohn's model would seem to indicate that a better educated work force would produce better products for consumption.

Hill (1981) also points out the nonmonetary job benefits that a better education brings. These benefits include good working conditions, and job stability. Hill found a strong relationship between those with better schooling and better nonmonetary benefits. Consequently, research would seem to indicate that the benefits of education outweigh the costs.

Life Chances

The benefits of the investment in education is linked to the research done on what is called "life chances." Life chances is defined as the child's future ability to participate fully in the different aspects of society (Levin, 1975). Life chances tends to examine the effects of the school's resources, test scores, teachers, and the child's background. The life chances research indicates that the schools view the students, opportunities provided children in school, and teacher's attitudes toward students all have an affect on educational outcomes. For example, a school seems to assess the abilities of a student and then assign them to a specific educational route (Levin, 1975). This causes low level students to be denied access to certain educational benefits.

The Coleman Report (1966) reveals that minority groups were grouped (or tracked) in their schools. For example, 80 percent of the blacks were grouped in the South, compared to 45 percent for the whites (Coleman, 1966). The Coleman Report (1966) also points out that educational tracking is regional. For instance, the Northeast and West revealed a small difference between black and white tracking, while the South revealed a significant difference. Levin (1975) points out that this is a mark against the student when they find a job. Levin argues that the type of educational routes they are given, will determine their job. For example, a lower level student put through lower level classes, will not be able to gain a prestigious position in a job. These students are usually put in the lower echelon of the job hierarchy. Therefore, Levin argues that schools inevitably determine the students fate by giving them or denying

them access to certain benefits.

Another research argument pertaining to life chances concerns the development and depth of a school's curriculum. As Monk (1987) indicates, there are three differences in curriculum between large and small schools. One difference consists of the curriculum breadth. The breadth indicates how many courses a school offers. Another difference is the depth of the curriculum. This refers to the detailed courses which are offered within a subject area. The final difference is that of accessibility. In other words, how many times is a course offered during the school day? The more times it is offered, the better the chance for the student to take the course. Monk (1987) finds in his analysis that larger schools provide a better choice of courses in the vocational area. Schools with larger enrollments offer an average of 25 different vocational courses, while smaller schools average 15 different vocational courses (Monk 1987:140). In addition, Monk (1987) found that larger schools also provided more depth and accessibility. Monk's research seems to conclude that larger schools provide better courses for a student's future career.

However, other research may disagree with the importance of Monk's research. Unks (1989) indicates that a smaller school's curriculum allows the student to be involved in more things and focused on one specific area. Unks (1989) emphasizes the feeling of being important, as a student in a small school would be. Even though a larger school has more courses, a student may feel left out in many areas. In addition, Bowles and Levin (1968) seem to argue that the number of courses are not as important as what type of students take the

particular courses. In order to determine the effectiveness of schools and students life chances, researchers need to examine vocational and academic curriculum separately. Those students whose careers are directed towards getting a job need to be examined by their effectiveness in vocational courses (Bowles and Levin, 1968).

Another internal factor consists of the development of the students non-cognitive skills. In other words, how cooperative are students, how much respect do they have for their teachers, and how well do they follow rules? Levin (1975) raises this point, in order to show how the student will react in an hierarchial job. He reveals that the students who receive higher grades are more cooperative and respect the teacher more. When entering the job market, they often received superior ratings, better earnings, and promotions (Levin, 1975).

Teachers and their attitudes are important in the life chances of a student. Barr and Dreeben (1977) define the teaching process as interaction between the students. The Coleman Report (1966) indicated a strong relationship between teacher characteristics and student achievement (see also Bowles and Levin, 1968; Bane and Jencks, 1975). Barr and Dreeben (1977) also point out that teachers should instruct the students in a way that will urge the students to independently learn on their own. This seems to be logical because these students will have to do the same thing when they get out on their own. Corcoran (1985) and Doyle (1985) indicate that quality time spent on instruction and keeping the class on task provide a better education for students (see also Evertson, 1986). The Coleman Report (1966) found that the average

time spent in classroom instruction is around six hours. The report also revealed that teachers of black students took more time in class preparation and instruction. The Coleman Report stated that this increase in instruction with black students might indicate the need for more interaction of teachers with black students.

Teachers also need to engage students in activities that will challenge the student. Doyle (1985) emphasized the importance of instructing and conducting assignments which will challenge the student's higher levels of thinking. These levels of thinking are evaluation, synthesis and application. only making the student learn the material is not enough. Both Doyle (1985) and Corcoran (1985) conclude that challenging the student on assignments will enhance the student's learning. Therefore, the time taken for classroom instruction, their expectations of students, and the quality of their instruction are essential.

Barr and Dreeben (1977) also point out two types of instruction that teachers might use. One consists of direct influence, where teachers restrict the amount of student feedback. This type includes lecturing, and giving directions. The second type consists of indirect influence. This type allows student interaction, by asking questions and encouraging students to respond. Doyle (1985) and Corcoran (1985) agree that student interaction is necessary to engage the student in higher level thinking.

Teachers also must create an atmosphere of learning within their classrooms. Important factors include management of student behavior, and understanding the rules of the classroom (Evertson, 1986). Disruptive behavior

and not adhering to rules take away from critical instruction. As Doyle (1985) indicates, good classroom management is needed in order to keep the students on task and working towards their goal. If students have an understanding of the consequences for breaking the rules, then they know their limits, and class time is not wasted on disciplinary action. Thus, the class atmosphere provides for learning to take place without many interruptions.

Finally, the teacher's expectations are influential. Evertson states that when teachers communicate reachable goals, students' performance and achievement increases (see also Good and Cooper, 1983). Other research has indicated that teachers who give lower level students less opportunities to perform, achievement decreases (Evertson, 1986). It seems that teachers need to know their students background and abilities very well; then work according to those abilities and improve them. Students' backgrounds are important because research has indicated that lower level students learned more with less experienced teachers (Geske, 1982). This research seems to reveal that certain types of teachers might be better for certain students. Other studies indicated that black teachers were more effective with black children (Geske, 1982). The Coleman Report (1966) also indicated that teachers of black students were less likely to have well educated parents, like many of their students. Therefore, cultural awareness by the teacher, seems to have an impact on educational outcomes.

Effects of Testing

Research has also revealed the affects of testing on student outcome. Most research has indicated that tests do not accurately reflect a student's achievement (Hawley, 1984). There are several reasons for this. Bridge, Moock and Judd (1979) state that these tests may cover material which is not covered by the school. For example, some tests test the students on higher level math problems. Many smaller and poorer schools do not offer advanced math courses, and therefore their students are at a disadvantage. Test makers make the assumption that every student covers the same material at the same pace (Bridge et. al, 1979). Bridge et.al suggest that test makers should test only the basic curriculum objectives. However, Hawley (1984) tends to disagree. He feels if test makers neglect the higher thinking questions, the teachers will also neglect them. In other words, if teachers know that material will not be tested, then they will not waste class time to teach it.

Another factor is that test scores may not reflect the true ability of the student. Many students do not take tests well, and possibly the test time is not adequate. Bridge et.al (1979) found that test scores may overestimate or underestimate a student's ability. We cannot take for granted that everything is taught at the same pace. A student in one school may not be taught a particular subject by test time. This would result in a disadvantageous position for this student. Therefore, we can observe a disadvantage for students in poorer schools, because their curriculum may not cover many of the advanced courses. Thus, test scores may not be an accurate way to show student achievement.

Other Resources

Other resources of the school which can affect student achievement includes electronic technology and the school administration. Thomas et.al (1982) argues that the availability of additional resources can increase student outcome. Wise and Gendler (1989) point out that certain New Jersey schools have 200 computers for their 2400 students, while others have 46 computers for their 2000 students. Wise and Gendler (1989) argue that both schools cannot give the same educational benefits to their students because of expenditure limitations on additional resources.   Tutorial programs are another good example. Thomas et.al (1982) argue that in classrooms where there might be a variety of learning styles, tutorial programs can help the slow children catch up. However, the poorer districts cannot afford these programs. Research also indicates that children who receive computer aided instruction showed gains in achievement (Hawley, 1984; Vinsonhaler and Bass, 1972). Student achievement also increased when computer aided instruction and traditional teaching were put together (Hawley, 1984; Edwards et.al, 1975). Burns and Bozeman (1981) found that computer based tutor programs increased achievement levels. Also, students seem to be more excited and motivated in classes that use computers (Hawley, 1984). Student exam scores also improved when computers were used as an instructional aid. Scores increased from the 50th to the 63rd percentile range (Hawley, 1984; see also Kulik et.al, 1983).

Along with computer resources, school administrators can improve student achievement. Hawley (1984) suggests four ways that administration can help student achievement. They need to identify and reinforce goals. Secondly, they

need to ensure competent, capable teachers, and staffs. Third, they need to provide conditions that facilitate teaching and learning. Finally, they need to be motivators and supporters. Research indicates that when teachers were encouraged by administrators, student achievement increased, implying a teacher's motivation funnels down to their students (Hawley, 1984). Hawley also found that schools which have a good atmosphere and good interaction among its faculty, received the best teachers. Furthermore, when administrators help teachers with advice or staff development programs, student achievement increased (Hawley, 1984). The leadership and attitude of the school administrators produce a funnel effect to the teachers and students. Therefore, if a school has positive administrators, then positive effects will be funneled down to the students.

Educational Inequity and the Courts

Along with life chances and school resources, the judicial branch has made an impact. One case of importance was Serrano v. Priest (1971). This case involved inequity charges against the California school system. The plaintiff felt his son was being denied educational services offered by other schools (Garms et.al, 1978; see also LaMorte, 1989). After much delay and deliberation, the California Supreme Court ruled that California's finance system revealed inequities. Evidence revealed that poorer districts spent less money on education, despite their high tax rate (Garms et.al, 1978). For example, the Beverly Hills school district spent $1232 per pupil with a tax rate of $2.38.

Baldwin Park school district spent $577 per pupil with a tax rate of $5.48

(Garms et.al, 1978). After state aid was added, there remained a discrepancy of

$450 per pupil (Garms et.al, 1978). This case emphasized the idea of disparities

just based on geographic location. The Serrano case established the idea that

benefits should not be denied to students in relation to location. It also seemed

to disapprove of the high spending per pupil and the low tax rate. However,

Coons (1978) argues the Serrano case dealt only with the fact of high spending

and low tax rates. It did not deal with fiscal equity, or what Coons calls, 'fiscal

neutrality.' Coons argues the Serrano case wanted to make sure that spending

on education was not affected by the availability of taxable wealth. LaMorte

(1989) argues that the court decision established public education as a

constitutionally protected right. Everybody is entitled to the same educational

resources and benefits; therefore eliminating any inequities.

Rodriguez v. San Antonio (1973) questioned the equity of the Texas

school finance system. However, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that Texas'

system passed the 'rational basis test' (Garms et.al, 1978). This test stated that

as long as Texas could explain their distribution process, it would not be

inequitable (Garms et.al, 1978). Research indicates the reason for this decision

was property poor districts could not be strictly classified as low income districts

(Garms et.al, 1978). In addition, the court was not convinced that inequalities

in funding did damage to the students. However, Robinson v. Cahill (1971)

revealed inequities in the Illinois school system, which was attributed to their

distribution process. The Illinois constitution stated that every student was

entitled to "a thorough and efficient education." The plaintiffs provided evidence which indicated that educational funding was distributed in an inequitable manner, thereby restricting students from a fair education (Garms et.al, 1978). It seems once the courts provide a workable definition for equity and equal educational opportunity, which is acceptable to all, finance reform may speed up.

Summary

We have examined several parts of the inequity problem by looking at the internal resources, life chances, and the influence of court judicial decisions. Research reveals that more aid to schools are given to those districts in need. In addition, state aid runs out many times because states have too many districts for their population. Bowles (1968), Levin (1975) and others reveal that education does effect the future outcomes of students. Factors such as teachers and their attitudes, test results, and additional learning resources all influence the life chances of a student. Finally, the courts have decided major decisions concerning school inequity. Rodriguez v. San Antonio (1973) and Serrano v. Priest (1971) have revealed inequities in states' educational system.

Now, we examine the external resources, such as the allocation of funds, and the property tax revenue. Research seems to indicate that external resources indirectly affect student outcome. Our model (figure 1) indicates that these outside resources put demands on the school district as to how to allocate their resources.

CHAPTER III

THE EXTERNAL RESOURCES OF THE INEQUITY MODEL

The Property Tax

In the past, local educational revenue was reliant on property tax. With 83 percent of educational costs coming from local sources in 1930, the property tax was an excellent resource for revenue (Due, 1982). However, in recent years, the state has taken some of the cost burden. Now, states are responsible for 42 percent of educational costs, while local governments are responsible for 48 percent and the federal government is responsible for the other ten percent (Due, 1982). This burden reduction has allowed local governments to increase their use of other revenue sources. However, Due (1982) points out that many districts do not have an abundance of additional resources. He also suggests additional resources are becoming necessary. Taxpayers are rejecting bond issues at an all time high. Only 29 percent of school bond issues passed in 1975 (Due, 1982). This is compared to 73 percent only eight years previously. It was obvious that taxpayers were getting upset over the increase in property taxes, and the lack to find other resources. The question must be raised: "Where did the local governments go for additional revenue?"

According to Due (1982), they put more emphasis on income tax would

produce an evenly distribution of burden (Due, 1982). In other words, where people were paying higher taxes for less valuable property, the use of the income tax should equal out the disparities. Therefore, with this change in revenue for educational costs, a system of cost equity seemed to be forming.

Tax and Wealth Reforms

Several reforms concerning tax and wealth have been tried. Odden (1982) points out that many states implemented the "equal yield, equal effort" plan. This plan consisted of the same amount of revenue for each school, as it put into their taxes. Therefore, local property wealth and personal income would not have any influence (Odden, 1982). Carroll and Park (1983) studied several states and how they neutralized taxes and wealth. For example, California decreased their inequalities by 32 percent (Carroll and Park, 1983). This was done by bringing tax rates in smaller districts closer to those of larger district. Also, property tax rates had begun to decrease in poorer districts. This decrease reveals a process of equalization between what is paid into the system, and what is paid in return (Carroll and Park, 1983). One state which was not so lucky in achieving neutrality of wealth and taxes was Kansas. Revenues and expenditures were more closely related to wealth and the tax rate after the reform (Carroll and Park, 1983). All in all, Carroll and Park (1983) suggest that reforms to neutralize the effect of wealth and taxes did achieve some gains intended, but did not decrease per pupil spending disparities.

Money Allocation

Another external factor concerns how districts use their money. Hartman (1988) reveals some interesting characteristics of the differences of spending between rich and poor districts. He makes the assumption that richer districts will provide smaller class sizes, higher teacher salaries, more support personnel, and more learning resources. His results indicate that richer districts' property value were almost three times larger than poorer districts. Obviously, this indicates the various resources of funds that a richer district has at its use. Richer districts hired more teacher personnel, and provided smaller classes for their students. The student/teacher ratio in rich districts was 14-1, while poorer districts had a 21-1 ratio (Hartman, 1988). This is important because the lower student/teacher ratio allows more one on one time between the teacher and the student. In determining quality of personnel resources, richer districts paid their teachers more, and had more experienced teachers. The richer districts had teachers with almost a Master's degree, while poorer districts had teachers with only a Bachelor's degree (Hartman, 1988). The overall results seem to indicate that richer districts spent more on personnel resources (i.e., teachers), which were expected to improve student performances. As has been earlier indicated, research reveals that teachers have an influential impact on student achievement. Therefore, the better experienced teachers might be in the richer districts. Also, the smaller class size possibly provides a better atmosphere for learning. However, Walberg (1989) indicates that more money spent does not always

mean better student achievement.

The Effects of District Size

There has been a wealth of research over school size and its effect on student achievement. Some of the findings are mixed; either size does not have an effect on achievement or size has a negative impact. Earlier research has found that larger schools are better (Conant, 1959). However, recent research has tended to disagree with the 'bigger is better' theory. Pittman and Haughwont (1987) found that the larger schools have higher dropout rates (.31) (see also Fetler, 1989). One reason for this is that students in larger schools often times feel left out and uninvolved.

Other research indicates that smaller schools provide a better education because of its social climate, lower teacher-student ratios and class sizes (see Webb, 1989; Jewell, 1989; Walberg, 1989; and Walberg and Fowler, 1987). Jewell (1989) indicates that smaller classes allow minority students and slower students to receive more one on one instruction. In addition, Walberg and Fowler (1987) found that larger schools have lower test scores, even though they offer more courses. The only problem revealed within the research seems to be the problem with attracting experienced teachers. However, this problem is mainly associated with the rural location of certain small schools (Webb, 1989; and Jewell, 1989).

Building the School Budget

In his book, <u>School District Budgeting</u>, Hartman (1988) points out that the way a school builds their budget explains how they use their money. Hartman (1988) reveals five steps in budget building. The first step requires the projection of student enrollment. Hartman (1988) states that this enrollment projection is the basis in budget building. It is this enrollment that determines personnel requirements and resource material. The process by which enrollment can be done is by using estimates from previous years. Another process is to use mathematical techniques to determine certain conditions which will effect enrollment (Hartman, 1988). For example, if a district has been going through economic troubles, they might lose population.

The second step are personnel projections. This step is the most important and expensive resource in the budget (Hartman, 1988). Garms et. al (1978) reveal that 70-80 percent of the operating budget goes to teacher's salaries. Administrators determine personnel projections by the enrollment projections. The district establishes student-teacher ratios and then determines the number of positions (Hartman, 1988).

The third step consists of the expenditures estimate. This step consists of identifying the tasks needed in the budget, determining the resources to perform the certain tasks, and estimating the costs (Hartman, 1988). School administrators must consider personnel salaries, employee benefits, textbooks and other supplies, as well as building maintenance. When an administrator takes into account personnel salaries, they must also consider cost of living and attractiveness of the school (Garms et. al, 1978). If schools want the best

teachers, then there must be something to attract them. Determining school supplies requires administrators to budget money on a per pupil basis. This will help teachers determine what resource materials are needed (Hartman, 1988).

The final two steps consist of revenue estimates and balancing the budget. Revenue estimates are the biggest problems in the budgeting, because administrators must rely on outside influences for their money. They must depend on state and federal legislatures to give them the appropriate amount of funds (Hartman, 1988). Besides state and federal appropriations, tax rates can be calculated to estimate revenue. Also, other sources of revenue, such as public services (i.e., utilities and industry) are estimated in the budget. Finally, this leads to balancing the budget between revenues and expenditures. Hartman (1988) reveals two methods to balance the budget. One is to reduce expenditures and the other is to increase revenues. Such revenue increases can occur by increasing the property tax, asking for local contributions, or leasing vacant building space (Hartman, 1988). All in all, the budget process is complicated and consists of many vital decisions; decisions which could lead to how students perform.

The Voucher

Another external resource is the voucher. Friedman (1975) argues that vouchers would bring about equity and a better educational system. Friedman (1975) states that vouchers should be given to parents in order to let the parents

choose their own school. Public schools would then charge tuition for entrance. The voucher idea creates competition amongst schools, and decreases the influence that geography has (Friedman, 1975). However, some potential problems need to be addressed. One is whether to allow vouchers to be used in parochial schools. This interferes with the issue of church-state separation. Friedman (1975) argues that vouchers would simply not apply to parochial schools. Another problem is the financial cost. However, Friedman (1975) is quick to point out that many private schools are closing. This puts added financial pressure on the government to educate these students. A final problem is the economic class issue. Some people feel that the voucher would benefit the wealthy, because they would be able to add more money to their voucher, and therefore send their children to better schools. However, Friedman (1975) suggests that poorer people by given larger vouchers to equal out the income issue. Friedman (1975) believes that for one of the few times, poor people could choose their education for their children, and try to improve it.

The Home Environment

Finally, Geske (1982) points out another external factor. This factor deals with the home environment. Geske (1982) reveals that better educational outcomes might come about with more parental involvement. If parents would police and keep in contact with their schools, educational outcomes might not be a problem. Parental involvement would offer a variety of ideas about school

processes, as well as provide equal education for all students (Geske, 1982).

Another parental involvement concerns the child. Parents should help their

children with their school work. As stated earlier, the Coleman Report (1966)

revealed low test scores could be attributed to the home environment. Geske

(1982) suggest a contract between the school and the parents about helping out

with homework. Even though studies reveal that wealthy and poor parents help

their children, poor parents need more guidance on how to effectively help their

children. Geske (1982) believes this can be done by the school.

CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESES

Research has indicated that various factors affect student outcome, both internally and externally. These factors include teachers, state aid, school size, minority rate, test scores and tax revenues. These factors create four hypotheses in this study.

Hypothesis I "Bigger is Not Better"

The first hypothesis concerns the theory of past research that larger schools provide a better education for their students. However, recent research tends to argue that smaller schools provide as equal or better education as larger schools. It is hypothesized that larger schools, even though they might receive more money, do not necessarily provide a better education.

Hypothesis II Life Chances

The second hypothesis concerns the research dealing with life chances and education. This hypothesis relates to the concern of how well prepared students are for the work force once they graduate from high school. It is hypothesized that the richer districts and those schools with more learning resources will not

necessarily provide a better education. It is also suggested that test scores will not be any higher than poorer or smaller districts, and dropout rates will not be any lower either. A school can have many outside resources, but how they allocate and use those resources is also vital, as well as the motivation inside the school system.

Hypothesis III Per Pupil Expenditure

The final hypothesis concerns the fact that per pupil expenditures will be higher in larger schools. It is hypothesized that disparities in per pupil funding will be found between the larger and smaller school levels. It would seem that there would be obvious funding disparities in pupil funding between large and small schools. The reason for this being is that larger schools receive more aid and usually have higher property values than small rural schools. Therefore, larger schools will have more money to spend on their pupils.

CHAPTER IV

DATA METHODS

The data which is used in this research study is obtained from the State
Department of Education in Oklahoma City. The data which is used comes from
the 1989-90 school year. It contains the data for 587 schools which are being
examined. Table 1 reveals the basic characteristics of the Oklahoma schools
during the 1989-90 school year. The 587 schools were divided into four groups:
city, large, medium, and small schools. This is done to compare schools and
reveal any inequities between schools of the same size, as well as larger and
smaller. The four categories are dispersed as follows: CITY- 11 schools; LARGE-
24 schools; MEDIUM- 110 schools; and SMALL- 441 schools. These divisions of
schools into these groups were calculated by putting those schools with an
average daily attendance (ADA) of 10,000 or more into the city category. The
large category consists of schools with an ADA of 5,000-9,999. The medium
schools have an ADA of 1,500-4,999. The small schools consist of those schools
with an ADA of less than 1,500. These divisions should be valid and scientific,
since they represent the various athletic divisions each school is a member of
(i.e, Class 6A, Class 3A, etc...).

This study examines fourteen different variables, which consists of the
following:

V01- Personal Property
V02- Public Services
V03- Size
V04- Local Revenue
V05- State Aid
V06- Federal Aid
V07- Per Pupil Expenditure
V08- Minority Rate
V09- Teacher Salary
V10- Experience
V11- Degree
V12- Dropout Rate
V13- Test Scores
V14- Teacher/Student Ratio

These variables should help indicate where inequities might be occurring and help explain this study's model. These variables can be divided into two different sets of data concerning the educational model; the external and internal resources. The external resources (i.e., public services, value of real property) measure how much funds the school receives from outside resources. The variable 'value of real property' reveals the monetary value of all the city's property, excluding personal property. 'Value of public services' refers to the number of utilities, factories, or industries in a city. The Oklahoma Tax Commission obtains this figure by setting a line usage fee of two percent for every city. The schools pay this two percent fee, and the Tax Commission redistributes some the money based on a per pupil ratio. These two variables have been combined to make a new variable called 'PROPERTY.' The reason for combining these variables is to eliminate the multicollinearity which occurred when these two variables were treated separately.

Another external variable is the amount of aid from the state and federal government. These variables will be measured by previous research done by

Morgan and Pelissero (1984) and others. This research reveals that the state responds more to those schools in need. These schools in need would be those schools with low property value and low economic status. For example, Konawa, because of its public services and property wealth, should not receive as much state aid as Wynnewood. Wynnewood is more in 'need' of state aid. These variables of local, state and federal aid were also combined into one variable called, 'EXPEND.' Again, the reason for doing this was to eliminate any multicollinearity which might occur.

Internal resources include teacher's salaries, minority rate, teacher experience and advanced degree, test scores, and student-teacher ratio. The teacher's salaries represent the average salary of the school system's teachers including fringe benefits. In addition, teacher's experience and advanced degrees will be compared. By examining experience and advanced degree, we can find out what makes a teacher go to a specific school, as well as find out if experienced teachers are in larger or smaller schools. The minority rate is analyzed as a percentage and reveals the percent of all minority groups in the school system. The dropout rate is measured by the percent of students who have reported having dropped out of school. As many school administrators will state, the dropout rate might be biased. The reason for this being that schools, many times, do not get a record of all the students who drop out of school. The test score variable is taken from the eleventh grade Iowa Basic Skills Test scores. By using the eleventh grade, this will allow us to have an indication of how prepared the student is as they prepare to graduate. Finally, the data will

include the student-teacher ratio for the schools. The full time faculty figure for each school was taken and then divided by the number of students.

CHAPTER VI

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The analysis of the various school's data revealed some very interesting, as well as some expected findings. It seems that the most important finding was that the size of the school had a tremendous impact on equity funding. Table 2 reveals that the schools size played a major factor in several variables. The R-squared for the size variable is an influential .52. Only the variable EXPEND had a similar influential r-square of .50. Many of the variables size correlated with were expected. For example, size correlated with EXPEND (.6460). This positive correlation would seem to agree with recent research concerning size and the amount of state aid. For instance, Morgan and Pelissero (1987) revealed that state aid is based on need, which translates into bigger schools having more need. Larger schools need more money because more students need more learning resources. Obviously, a school with an enrollment of six thousand will be in need of more money than a school of fifteen hundred. Therefore, larger schools will receive more state and federal aid.

The next influence of size is the one which is most interesting and unusual. Table 2 reveals that size is negatively correlated with per pupil spending (-.1672). This negative correlation seems to disagree with the hypothesis which argues that larger schools have higher per pupil spending. This

negative relationship reveals that there are many smaller schools with larger per pupil spending. There are two possible explanations for this relationship. One is that this reveals various inequities in our state educational system. If larger schools have more state and federal money, then they should have larger per pupil spending levels. However, it should not be forgotten that many small schools (i.e, Konawa, Fort Gibson and Catoosa) receive additional money from public services. These public services consist of industries, dams or factory plants. These towns receive additional money from these service revenues. Therefore, this presents an inequity problem with a school that is possibly only twenty miles away and has more students. The second explanation for the negative relationship is the process by which schools spend their money. Research shows that larger schools allocate their funds to administrative items (i.e, teachers, support personnel, computers), while smaller schools allocate their money to improve school buildings and updating textbooks (Hartman, 1988; Barr and Dreeben, 1977). Another possible factor involved in this negative relationship could be the fact that larger districts have more students to spread the money around. For example, a school with three thousand students has to allocate their monetary resources to more students, while a school with one thousand students does not have many students to allocate their resources towards.

Size also plays an important influence in several other areas. One of these areas is the teacher's salary. Table 2 reveals that size is positively related to teacher's salary (.4610). Research has indicated that larger schools pay their

teachers more, thereby attracting the better teachers. This seems to be exactly right because size correlates with experience. Teachers which have experience and are considered good teachers want to teach where the workload is light, where they are paid well, and where the availability of resources is prominent. In a smaller school, learning resources might be limited, and there might be more responsibility for lower pay. In order for smaller schools to conduct an appropriate education, they ask their teachers to take on more responsibility. Therefore, the more experienced teachers want to teach in larger schools because of more resources and better pay.

Size also effects the dropout rate and test scores. The larger a school is, the more dropouts and the lower the test scores. Jewell (1989) and Walberg (1989) found that test scores were not higher in larger schools just because of more experienced teachers or more money. This positive correlation also supports another of this study's hypotheses which argues that a rich district does not always provide better learning. Recent research has indicated that smaller schools have better test scores. The reason being is that students do not feel left out as they might in larger schools. Larger schools have higher teacher-student ratios and therefore, the slower students might feel left out and become discouraged. Thus, this leads them to drop out of school or do poorly on tests. In addition, one has to take into consideration the fact that many larger schools are inner city schools where many minority groups are located. Therefore, these inner city schools possibly provide less motivation and lack a good learning atmosphere because of the neighborhood environment.

Table 3 reveals a second important aspect of the data findings. EXPEND plays a significant part in educational funding and inequity. EXPEND has an influential r-square of .50. EXPEND has a positive correlation with teacher's salary (.2869). Since we have indicated that larger schools allocate more money to attracting better teachers; it is not surprising to see this positive correlation with teacher's salary. In order to attract better teachers, they must offer higher salaries. Therefore, those schools with more EXPENDITURES will allocate more money to salaries.

Table 3 also reveals that EXPEND is influential in dropout rates and teacher-student ratios. As Morgan and Pelissero (1987), as well as Morgan and England (1984) indicate that more state aid goes to larger schools, especially in the inner city areas. These inner city schools consist of the larger dropout rates. Therefore, these schools find out that more money does not always solve the problem. This seems to relate to this study's final hypothesis which argues that more money does not always provide a better education. This analysis of data seems to reveal that there is more to educating a child and keeping them in school than spending thousands of dollars. The positive correlation with teacher-student ratios (.2611) seems to disagree with research, which argues that smaller schools have better ratios. However, if larger schools try to attract more teachers and have more students, then possibly this correlation is not surprising. Especially in Oklahoma schools, House Bill 1017 requires that schools lower classroom sizes to twenty students. Therefore, this positive correlation is not surprising considering the requirements Oklahoma schools must abide by.

Tables 4 and 5 reveal other factors influential in the educational system, as well as an analysis of the whole model which was examined. Table 4 reveals several interesting correlations. The first consists of the school's minority rate and its relationship with the dropout rate (.1785) and test scores (-.2516). The positive relationship between minorities and dropouts reveal that those schools with more minorities have higher dropout rates. In addition, they have lower test scores. For example, the Boley school system has a 100 percent minority rate and test scores around 30. This disparity between high minority schools and other schools indicate the difficulty in educating our minority groups. This specific relationship could also reveal what Meier, Stewart and England (1989) have indicated. There need to be more black teachers and administrators in our schools. They are the ones who know what the black students are going through (see also Coleman, 1966). These teachers know how black students learn, while other teachers may give up on minority students. A good example is from observing classroom procedures at a high school in Oklahoma. One specific class, which was designed for slower students, as well as minority students revealed some interesting conclusions on the teacher-student relationship. The classroom had four different nationalities and four teachers representing those nationalities. Each teacher would have a specific subject to teach each week. Therefore, the students were urged to go to the specific teacher when they needed help on a subject. However, each student went to their own nationality teacher, no matter the circumstances. This reveals the comfortable relationship that minority students feel with their own type of teachers. When they have to

deal with someone different, they often become frustrated and lose confidence in themselves.

Table 4 also reveals that teacher's salary influences experience and test scores. Obviously, higher salaries will attract more experienced teachers; but it will also increase test scores. This relationship indicates that the higher paid teachers are more motivated, and in turn, transfer this motivation to their students. Thus, the students learn more and perform well on tests. This relationship might weaken my hypothesis which argues that more money does not always provide better learning. Obviously, higher paid teachers might work harder to teach their students.

Table 4 also reveals that teacher's salary is positively correlated with teacher-student ratio (.3829). This seems to indicate that those teachers with higher salaries receive the smaller classrooms. Therefore, we could surmise that if larger schools pay higher salaries, then they could conceivably have lower teacher-student ratios. In addition, research revealed that larger schools offer more upper level courses. These courses are usually taken by college bound students, which indicates that these classes might be smaller in number, unlike the mandatory core curriculum.

Table 5 presents the whole model which has a significant r-square of .52. However, one could argue that this high explanation is primarily due to the significance of size and state funding. This could be true because when other models were examined, and size and EXPEND were controlled, they only explained around ten percent of the variance. Therefore, size and EXPEND could

tip the balance of the model. However, as Table 5 reveals, and as this study has discussed, there are other factors, which effect the educational outcomes of learning.

This study's findings indicate to some extent, what research has indicated. However, some new findings are evident and disagree with research. It seems that Oklahoma is heading towards exactly what they should try to avoid. More money does not always account for a better education for students. More motivation on the teachers and students part is needed.

CHAPTER VII

THE IMPLICATIONS OF HOUSE BILL 1017

AND "AMERICA: 2000"

Before discussing future implications of Oklahoma education, there seems to be two major implications from this study's findings. First, this study indicated that more money does not create a better education. There has to be more to just spending money on learning resources, higher salaries and bigger buildings. This leads to the second implication, which entails that more motivation and dedication on the teacher's and student's part is needed. The school district cannot just pour more money into their school and expect the students and teachers to want to learn and become motivated. There has to be a motivation to teach the students on behalf of the teacher, and a willingness to learn on behalf of the student. A teacher cannot be satisfied with being knowledgeable on their subject, they have to be able to transmit that knowledge to the students in a way that constitutes learning. Actually, teaching is a three step process: know the subject, be able to transmit the knowledge in an unique manner, and care for the students as people. When these three things are done, then the nation, as well as Oklahoma, are heading towards a terrific educational system.

Along with these implications comes two programs which could effect the future of Oklahoma education. One program concerns the landmark state legislation passed by the legislature. House Bill 1017, (HB 1017), sets down four important educational reforms.

The first reform consists of a more enhanced and challenging curriculum. The main goal of this enlarged curriculum is to focus on an outcome based strategy. This strategy emphasizes the knowledge and skills that students should develop out of each class. Three things must exist in order for an outcome based curriculum to be effective. The first aspect deals with deciding what the students should learn in each grade. The second aspect is developing your curriculum to meet these objectives of learning. Finally, the teachers must transfer this knowledge to the students. In House Bill 1017, Oklahoma sets up a curriculum committee to monitor these three aspects. The job of the committee is to create a core curriculum for all schools based on an outcome based strategy. This is to be implemented into all schools by the 1993-94 school year (House Bill 1017, 1990).

The changes in curriculum deal with adding more math and science classes, foreign language classes, and computer literacy courses. Statistics regarding education for the 1988-89 school year revealed that half of Oklahoma's schools did not offer advanced math and science courses. Many schools did not offer foreign language, art, music and physical education courses ("Statistics Show that Students are not Faring Well," Shawnee News-Star, 1991). During the same school year, 85 schools did not meet the minimum curriculum

standards for science courses, while over 200 schools did not meet the foreign language requirements ("Statistics Show that Students Are Not Faring Well," Shawnee News-Star, 1991).

In addition to these changes in the core curriculum, the committee also wants to emphasize the importance of hands on learning in the junior high school. House Bill 1017 places a great amount of emphasis on individual work by the student. This allows the student to think on their own, as well as process information and make conclusions.

However, one main problem has occurred with the expanded curriculum. The small schools are unable to offer many of these higher level courses because of funding scarcity. The penalty set down for not complying with the curriculum standards is loss of accreditation. Therefore, many small schools are in danger of closing down. However, House Bill 1017 provides an outlet for these small schools.

This outlet is the second major reform in House Bill 1017. This reform consists of voluntary school consolidation. According to House Bill 1017, a "School Consolidation Assistance Fund," will be created to help fund schools who voluntarily consolidate with another school. Each year the state legislature will appropriate money to this fund to help those consolidated schools with textbook purchases, classroom space and equipment, extra transportation, and additional personnel (HB 1017, 1990). The purpose of voluntary consolidation is to urge smaller schools, which may have trouble meeting accreditation standards, to consolidate with adjacent districts.

Another purpose is to lower the number of school districts in the state. This is the primary purpose behind Oklahoma's consolidation argument. Many state legislators and educators feel there are too many districts for the size of Oklahoma. For example, 385 schools (out of 578) have less than 350 students ("GOP Plans to Force School Consolidation," Shawnee News-Star, 1991). In addition, many of these smaller schools are only a few miles apart from larger schools. Therefore, the legislators feel that these larger schools are suffering financially because money has to be appropriated to these small schools. One example is Leonard school district, which has an enrollment of 87 students. Leonard is just south of Tulsa and in close proximity to the Bixby school system. If Leonard consolidated with Bixby, the salaries of 11 teachers could be avoided and distributed elsewhere ("GOP Plans to Force School Consolidation," Shawnee News-Star, 1991). This idea has seemed to be successful. Consolidation requests are being studied for six school districts in northwestern Oklahoma. Also, consolidation is being considered for Binger and Oney schools, as well as Academy Central to the Tulsa school system. Since the voluntary consolidation has been implemented, Oklahoma has gone from over six hundred districts to 588 (The Daily Oklahoman, 1991).

A third reform consists of classroom size. As House Bill 1017 reveals, class sizes will eventually be reduced to twenty students by the 1997-98 school year. Any school that does not meet these requirements will be denied accreditation or lose state funds. For example, Shawnee, Lawton and Claremore were among 98 schools which were penalized for exceeding class sizes. Shawnee

schools were penalized over $51,000 dollars in state aid, while Lawton and Claremore were penalized $35,000 and $60,000, respectively (Shawnee News-Star, May 1, 1991). Overall, 98 schools have been penalized 2.9 million in state aid for exceeding class size requirements (Shawnee News-Star, May 1, 1991). Even more recently, 83 schools were penalized for not meeting class size requirements. Tulsa schools were penalized the most ($588,000), while Mustang, Shawnee and Mid-Del schools also received large penalties ("83 School Districts Penalized for Large Classes," The Daily Oklahoman, 1992). However, many school officials are upset with the penalties because of the lack of time to build or purchase additional classroom space. Therefore, in order to meet these requirements more quickly, many schools are purchasing portable classrooms. According to state educators, the request for portable classrooms has increased by 700 percent since House Bill 1017 passed ("Portable Classrooms Pop Up at Schools," The Daily Oklahoman, 1991). Many school officials indicate that these classrooms are easy to get and cheaper.

The final reform consists of teacher's salaries. According to House Bill 1017, the minimum salary will be $24,060 and the maximum salary will be $31,404 by 1994-95. (HB 1017, 1990). According to statistics on teachers' salaries before House Bill 1017, Oklahoma ranked 47th in teacher pay ("Oklahoma Teachers' Salaries Rank 47th in National Survey," Shawnee News-Star, 1991). While the national average was $32,000 a year, Oklahoma teachers averaged $24,300 a year. Even after House Bill 1017, Oklahoma still was behind the national average in teacher pay ($24,600 to $33,000, respectively)

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("Oklahoma Teachers' Salaries Rank 47th in National Survey," Shawnee News-Star, 1991). The problem that educators are beginning to realize with providing higher teacher salaries is that the standard of living in not as high as those states with higher teacher pay. Secondly, Oklahoma is trying to climb out of a recession. The National Education Association stated that it would take $700 million dollars for Oklahoma to equal the national average for teacher salaries ("Oklahoma Teachers' Salaries Rank 47th in National Survey," Shawnee News-Star, 1991).

Schools will also be required to develop incentive plans and staff development seminars. HB 1017 also provides for alternative certification for people in the working sector. For example, HB 1017 allows a school to go out in the work place and hire professional counselors, psychologists, etc. The reason for alternative certification is to allow experienced outsiders to come in and teach. These teachers are able to give students knowledge of the actual workings of the particular subject area. This allows the student to understand what skills and knowledge is needed in the specific area. New Jersey has implemented alternative certification and it has worked well. Students test scores have risen and interest in school is higher. The penalty for non compliance is loss of accreditation.

"America: 2000"

Another program which could have an effect on Oklahoma's education is President Bush's "America:2000" strategy. The most important part of this

proposal is the adoption of school choice. The basic idea of school choice is that parents and children will be able to select the school of their choice. President Bush believes school choice will enhance student achievement in school because the student will be able to choose where to learn (President Bush, 1991). Another advantage to school choice is that parents become involved. By allowing parents to help their children choose their school, the parents feel more of an obligation to help their child along. This parental involvement is where House Bill 1017 offers very little suggestions. If school choice does increase parental involvement, then this can only help House Bill 1017. On the negative side, many have argued that it will create racially segregated schools and benefit the wealthy. However, research tends to disagree. Chubb and Moe (1990) recently studied the school choice programs in Minnesota and Massachusetts. They found that the programs were successful. Student achievement scores were higher, teachers were more satisfied with their jobs, and more students were attending public schools (Chubb and Moe, 1990). Therefore, the idea of choice might prove to help Oklahoma education along and possibly decrease its number of school districts.

These two implications hopefully will improve Oklahoma's education when and if they are implemented to their full extent. As President Bush stated: "Dollar bills do not educate students. Education depends on committed communities, teachers, parents and students. There will be no renaissance without revolution" (Bush, 1991:3). President Bush is exactly right. Parents and students must be committed to support their schools and a drive for excellence.

If we work together, the saying on a poster in the Oklahoma City Administration Building will come true: "Everybody Can Learn."

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CAUSAL MODELS

POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT

RESOURCES   OUTCOMES

Property Tax   Dropout Rate

District Wealth ----------------EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM-------

Public Services   Test Score
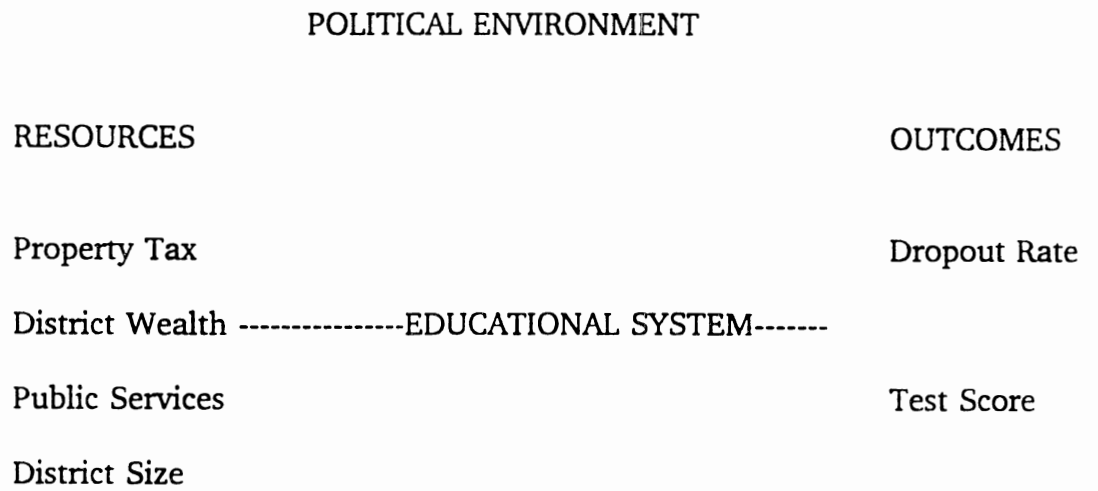
District Size

Figure 1. Educational Politics Model

EXPENDITURES----RESOURCES----PROGRAMS----OUTCOMES

(Source: William Hartman's "District Spending Disparities:
What Do the Dollars Buy?" 1988. Journal of Educational
Finance 13:456-469)

Figure 2. Educational Equity Model

INVESTMENT IN EDUCATION----HIGHER PRODUCTIVITY----INCOME

(Source: Elchanan Cohn's The Economics of Education Cambridge:
 Ballinger Publishing, 1979)

Figure 3. Educational Investment Model

APPENDIX B

SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS AND DATA TABLES

TABLE I

OKLAHOMA SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS
(1989-90)

CHARACTERISTICS	
Number of Districts	604
Number of Teachers	40,649
Average Teacher Salary	$24,306
Local Revenue	$ 518,945,584.00 (30%)
State Revenue	$ 1,084,019,528.00 (63%)
Federal Revenue	$ 123,156,389.00 (07%)
Total ADA	543,170
Per Capita Spending	$3,199
Total ADM	604,276
Graduates Eligible	39,096
Graduates Graduated	35,606
Teachers with Bachelor's	21,520
Teachers with Master's	18,605
Superintendent Salary	$45,571
Special Education Teacher	$23,438
Principal Salary	$37,000

(Taken from "The Annual Report: 1989-90." The Oklahoma State
Department of Education: Oklahoma City.)

TABLE II

INFLUENCE OF SCHOOL SIZE
(Pearson Correlation)

Variable	Coefficient	Sig of T
PROPERTY	.2128**	.0639*
EXPEND	.6460**	.0000*
Per Pupil Spending	-.1672**	.0023*
Minority Rate	-.0249	.5905
Teacher Salary	.4610**	.0000*
Experience	.1661**	.5656
Advanced Degree	.1783**	.1042
Dropout Rate	.1188**	.1573
Test Scores	.1332**	.0062*
Teacher/Student Ratio	.3370**	.2153

* significant T relationship   ** significant at LE .01

r-square= .52   Adjusted r-square= .51

TABLE III

INFLUENCE OF EXPEND VARIABLE
(Pearson Correlation)

Variable	Coefficient	Sig of T
PROPERTY	.4190**	.0000***
Size	.6460**	.0000***
Per Pupil Spending	-.0789	.4688
Minority Rate	.0147	.3430
Teacher Salary	.2869**	-------
Experience	.0962*	-------
Advanced Degree	.0977*	-------
Dropout Rate	.1296**	-------
Test Scores	.0797	.9384
Ratio	.2611**	-------

* significant at LE .05   ** significant at LE .01
*** significant T relationship

R-square= .50   Adjusted R-square= .49

TABLE IV

INFLUENCE OF VARIOUS OTHER
EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL
FACTORS
(Pearson Correlation)

Variable	Dropout	Test	Experience	PROPERTY	Ratio
Minority	.1785**	-.2516**	.0049	.0116	.0452
Salary	.0275	.1249**	.3773**	.1047*	.3829**
PROPERTY	-.0200	.0095	.0466	------	.1009*
Test	-.1479**	------	.0243	.0095	-.1300**

* significant at LE .05   ** significant at LE .01

TABLE V

RELATIONSHIP OF WHOLE MODEL
(Pearson Correlation)

Variable	PROPERTY	V03	EXPEND	V07	V08
PROPERTY	--------	.2128•	.4190•	-.0294	-.0116
V03	.2128•	--------	.6460•	.1672•	-.0249
EXPEND	.4190•	.6460•	--------	-.0789	.0147
V07	-.0294	-.1672•	-.0789	------	.1725•
V08	-.0116	-.0249	.0147	.1725•	--------
V09	.1047*	.4610•	.2869•	-.0545	-.0689
V10	.0466	.1661•	.0962*	.0093	.0049
V11	.0305	.1783•	.0977*	-.0716	-.0037
V12	-.0020	.1188•	.1296•	.0129	.1785•
V13	.0095	.1332•	.0797	.1607•	-.2516•
V14	.1009*	.3370•	.2611•	-.4953•	.0452

TABLE V (Continued)

Var.	V09	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14
PROP	.1047*	.0466	.0305	-.0020	.0095	.1009*
V03	.4610•	.1661•	.1783•	.1188•	.1332•	.3370•
EXP	.2869•	.0962*	.0977*	.1296•	.0797	.2611•
V07	-.0545	.0093	-.0716	.0129	.1607•	-.4953•
V08	-.0689	.0049	-.0037	.1785•	-.2516•	.0452
V09	------	.3773•	.5366•	.0275	.1249•	.3829•
V10	.3773•	-------	.4214•	.0374	.0243	.1348•
V11	.5366•	.4214•	-------	-.0234	-.0037	.2188•
V12	.0275	.0374	-.0234	------	-.1479•	.1107•
V13	.1249•	.0243	-.0037	-.1479•	-------	-.1300•
V14	.3829•	.1348•	.2188•	.1107•	-.1300•	-------

* Signifcant at LE .05   • Significant at LE .01

R-squared = .52   Adjusted R-squared = .51

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VITA ∂

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