

A SURVEY OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS' ATTITUDES
TOWARD POVERTY AND WELFARE
PROGRAMS IN OKLAHOMA

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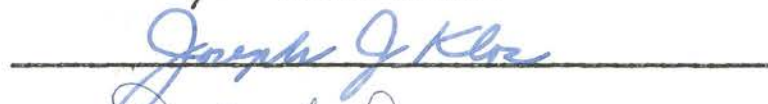
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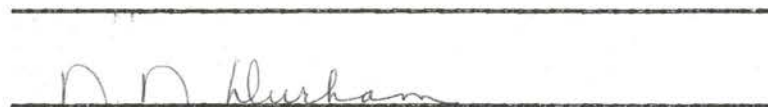


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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Poverty in the United States is not of a recent vintage but has been of a continuous nature throughout history (1:18). The public's social awareness of the magnitude of the problem of those living in poverty has fluctuated with the economic tides of the country (2:xii-xvi); however, shifts in the public's awareness toward these problems have generated genuine concern and some real effort to mitigate these problems (1:19). Even so, the degree of success of previous programs of action has been dismal in light of current thinking (3:457). It is premature to attach many significant conclusions to such recent efforts as Medicare, aid to depressed areas, equal employment opportunities, the Economic Opportunity Act, and other programs (1). Even though it might be surmised that current efforts are establishing some concrete programs to rectify human misery, the question that still remains open is, Has there been a general change in attitude on the part of the public toward those individuals living in poverty and on welfare?

Early American attitudes toward the poor were basically a combination of a European tradition of general neglect that was reshaped and blended with classical and contemporary philosophical theories and intensified in an atmosphere of a young country that was charged with individualistic opportunity (1:18-19). Darwinism, especially "social Darwinism" as espoused by Spencer, taught the "survival of the fittest"

(4). Adam Smith's "laissez-faire," (5) the Puritan Ethic of "work and thrift to bring God's favor," (6) and the pragmatic philosophy of the pioneer (7) were all tenets in the development of an American attitude that being poor was an individual problem and staying poor a conscious, if irrational, individual decision. Hamilton stated that "Throughout most of the nineteenth century, American conventional wisdom insisted that poverty was largely the fault of, and to be cured by the individual" (2:91). This then was the mark line of our American attitude toward those individuals living in poverty.

A renewed emphasis on the social problems of poverty during the depression of the 1930's led to the first national attempt to do something about poverty in the form of social security legislation passed in 1935. During this period a large percentage of the population of the United States was reduced to the poverty level (1:52). Because this condition was generally nation wide, Harrington stated in his book that "There was no need to write books about unemployment and poverty. That was the decisive social experience of the entire society. . ." (8:15). The general misery throughout the country created a public clamor for measures to assist and help rehabilitate those left jobless and poor because of the slumping economy. The result was a prolific amount of social legislation generated to alleviate the problem. Programs such as the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, Federal Emergency Relief Administration, Public Works Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps, and the Social Security Act of 1935 were all programs enacted during this period (1:53). One can only speculate on the extent of an attitudinal change that could have evolved from this era.

The advent of World War II provided the means for many to escape

from poverty through increased work opportunities and war service. The resurgence of the economy created an illusion that permeated our society that poverty had been eliminated. Hamilton stated that "This series of events in the two preceding decades gave some substance to the idea current in the 1950's that poverty was no longer a real danger" (2:xiii). This illusion muted a change in American attitudes toward the poor that was initiated by an aroused public in the 1930's.

The optimism of the 1950's was aborted as the attention of the masses was again directed to the plight of the poor. Galbraith's book, The Affluent Society, (9) although misinterpreted by many, poignantly attempted to focus attention on the poor. The census of 1960 confirmed his thesis that poverty was still the disease that inflicted many in our society (2:xiv). Prior to this census, poverty had become invisible to many observers (8, 9).

It is indisputable that the poor are still a significant portion of our population (various figures that are used today range between 30 and 50 million classified as poor) (2:33, 8:9). There is an increase in social awareness evidenced by the many articles, books, and investigations on poverty (10, 11); but the extent that American attitudes toward the poor and the programs to aid the poor have changed is subject to investigation.

In his book, The Other America, Harrington reiterates the aged American attitude toward the poor and a rationale for its continuation.

He states:

There are mighty historical and economic forces that keep the poor down; and there are human beings who help out in this grim business, many of them unwittingly. There are sociological and political reasons why poverty is not seen; and there are misconceptions and prejudices that literally blind the eyes. The latter must be understood if anyone is

to make the necessary act of intellect and will so that the poor can be noticed.

Here is the most familiar version of social blindness; 'The poor are that way because they are afraid of work. And anyway they all have big cars. If they were like me (or my father or my grandfather), they could pay their own way. But they prefer to live on the dole and cheat the taxpayers' (8:21).

If, as Harrington suggests, there is still a demeaning attitude toward the poor, then the persistency of this attitude has endured from generation to generation. The extent that the school environment has had an influence in perpetuating this attitude is open to speculation.

The role of the school can only be viewed as a means of perpetuating the values of the larger society or as a means of creating change. Regardless of what role the school society plays in fostering an attitude toward the poor, the role of the school is either defined through the framework of the school environment or it is, by default, defined by other social and cultural forces (12). Dewey, in defining the role of the school, says:

. . . it is the business of the school environment to eliminate, so far as possible, the unwanted features of the existing environment from influences upon mental habitudes (13:71-72).

He goes on to state:

. . . it is the office of the school environment to balance the various elements in the social environment, and to see to it that each individual gets an opportunity to escape from the limitations of the social group in which he was born, and to come into living contact with a broader environment (13:72).

In this respect Dewey has charged the school with the responsibility not only to be instruments of change in regard to the larger society but also to create a possibility of change within the individual.

The need for the student to develop his own individual cognitive and affective behavior has been recognized by many social studies

educators. Keller (14) and Engle (15:28) point out in their articles that teachers using the traditional method of teaching have created a doldrum in the classroom by being excessively dependent on the textbook for content and emphasizing the memorization of a large body of facts. "This ground-covering fetish is based on the false notion that remembering is all there is to knowing or the equally false notion that one must be well drilled in the facts before he can begin to think" (15:31).

Recent innovations in the social studies curriculum have focused attention on the process of inquiry using the scientific method of investigation (16). These studies are attempting to structure the classroom so that it becomes a student-centered learning arena with a redefined role for the teacher. In this new role, according to Oliver and Shaver (17:9), the teacher not only must decide on the data to be exposed to the student but also must be concerned with the processes that will enable the student to use the information in life situations. The task of the teacher, then, is magnified considerably by assuming the responsibility for content selection based on values the teacher feels the student should assimilate.

If teachers have the obligations of structuring classroom content, then their selection of this content must be based on some rationale. Shaver and Berkale (18), in probing the development of a rationale for teaching, state that ". . . what we [teachers] feel is good will influence what we [teachers] select as content in our social studies curriculum." In establishing a rationale based on affective behaviors of the teacher, the attitude of the teacher toward specific content can be a factor in setting priorities for including or excluding that content.

In defining an attitude, Allport states:

An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experiences, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (19:810).

If, as Allport states, there is some consistency of behavior, then the attitudes of social studies teachers toward the poor can be measured by examining the overt responses of a teacher when confronted by questions concerning members of the class or group toward which the teacher has an attitude.

The development of an attitude toward those living in poverty and on welfare is based on truths derived and internalized by the teacher through his interactions with society or accepted as such from his authoritative source. Information concerning the poor which an individual accepts as true does not imply that his attitude toward the poor is based on factual information, nor does it imply that an individual's attitude, once developed, becomes impervious to change. The extent that social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor are based on a cognitive awareness of facts is an aspect of this study; the extent that one can entertain and incorporate new information that may alter his affective behavior has already been studied extensively by Rokeach (20).

Rokeach, in his investigation of the attitude of dogmatism, has devised an instrument (Rokeach Dogmatism Scale) that, "purports to measure not only closed systems of thinking and believing but also the rejection of ideas and people perceived to threaten such closed systems" (21:92). Although the Dogmatism Scale measures the structure of how one believes rather than specific ideological content, Rokeach (21:48) states ". . . people often selectively avoid contact with stimuli,

people, events, books, etc., that threaten the validity of their ideology or proselyte for competing ideologies." The extent that this may be true has implications for social studies teachers who are charged with structuring classroom content. There exists the possibility that social studies teachers with closed belief systems may not be able to incorporate relevant material concerning the poor unless that material is consistent with their attitude toward the poor.

The preceding introduction has outlined the development of our American attitude toward the poor and presented an indication that poverty is still a continuing national social problem. With the social problem of poverty normally incorporated within the scope of the social studies curriculum, the role of teacher attitudes toward the selection of course content has been developed. Finally, with Rokeach indicating that an individual will selectively avoid contact with events, books, or people that threaten the validity of a particular belief, the investigator feels that an examination of social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor will be hueristic.

Statement of the Problem

The central problem of this study is to examine the attitudes of social studies teachers toward those individuals living in poverty and to determine the relationship between teachers' attitudes and their knowledge of factual information concerning the poor and the various welfare programs designed to assist the poor.

Because the structure of a teacher's belief system may affect the selection of course content, an additional concern of this study is to examine the extent that social studies teachers' belief systems are

open or closed.

The intensity of poverty and the number of welfare recipients vary throughout the counties of Oklahoma (22). By examining social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor and their factual knowledge of the poor in high and low welfare-recipient rate counties, some meaningful comparisons can be made. This study, then, will investigate the following questions:

1. Will different biographical characteristics of social studies teachers make a difference in their attitudes toward the poor?

The biographical characteristics selected to examine for differences in attitudes and the questions proposed are as follows:

1a. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers with an urban background and social studies teachers with a rural background?

1b. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers with six hours or less of sociology and social studies teachers with more than six hours in sociology?

1c. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers with six hours or less of economics and social studies teachers with more than six hours of economics?

1d. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers with ten years or less teaching experience and social studies teachers with more than ten years experience?

1e. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties and social studies teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties?

1f. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor

between social studies teachers under the age of 30, social studies teachers between the ages of 30 to 44, and social studies teachers age 45 and above?

1g. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between male social studies teachers and female social studies teachers?

2. What is the relationship of social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor and their knowledge of welfare facts concerning the poor?

3. Will different biographical characteristics of social studies teachers make a difference in the extent that they are open-minded or closed-minded?

The biographical characteristics selected to examine for differences in open-mindedness and closed-mindedness and the questions proposed are as follows:

3a. Is there any difference in the attitude of open- and closed-mindedness between social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties and social studies teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties?

3b. Is there any difference in the attitude of open- and closed-mindedness between social studies teachers with an urban background and social studies teachers with a rural background?

3c. Is there any difference in the attitude of open- and closed-mindedness between male social studies and female social studies teachers?

4. What is the relationship between the attitudes toward the poor of social studies teachers and the welfare recipient rate of the counties in which they work?

5. What is the relationship between the knowledge of welfare facts by social studies teachers and the welfare recipient rate of the counties in which they work?

Definition of Terms

1. Attitude toward the poor: This term refers to a position on a continuum ranging from a sympathetic attitude toward the poor to an unsympathetic attitude toward the poor. Scores on Part I of the Poverty and Welfare Attitude Scale are used to refer to positions on this continuum. For this study a low score represents a sympathetic attitude and a high score represents an unsympathetic attitude.

2. Open-mindedness or closed-mindedness: These terms refer to the degree to which an individual's belief system is open or closed as measured by Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale (21). A basic characteristic that defines the degree of openness or closedness of the belief system is:

the extent to which the person can receive, evaluate, and act on relevant information received from the outside on its own intrinsic merits, unencumbered by irrelevant factors in the situation arising from within the person or from the outside (21:57).

To be open-minded in this study means that the individual has a low score on the Dogmatism Scale, and to be closed-minded means that the individual has a high score on the Dogmatism Scale.

3. Welfare programs: This term refers to all those programs administered by the Oklahoma Department of Public Welfare and published in their Annual Report (23).

4. Welfare recipient rate: This term refers to a percentage found by dividing the population of a county into the average number of persons

on welfare in that county.

5. High welfare recipient rate counties: This term refers to those 25 counties in Oklahoma with the highest welfare recipient rate as determined by the Oklahoma Department of Public Welfare (22).
6. Low welfare recipient rate counties: This term refers to those 25 counties in Oklahoma with the lowest welfare recipient rate as determined by the Oklahoma Department of Public Welfare (22).
7. Urban or rural background: These terms refer to an evaluation made by each respondent of their background.

Assumptions of the Study

For the purpose of this study, the following assumptions have been applied:

1. That the responses of teachers to the investigative instruments accurately reflect their feelings toward, and their knowledge of, those individuals living in poverty.
2. That all social studies teachers selected for this study will have similar college preparation in order to be certified in Oklahoma as social studies teachers.

Limitations of the Study

1. This study is limited to a survey of a stratified, randomized sample of social studies teachers in Oklahoma.
2. The methods used for the stratification of high schools and the selection of social studies teachers may affect representativeness.
3. Social studies teachers, because of other studies done in Oklahoma using Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, may be familiar with this part of the

instrument, which could affect their response.

4. This study is limited by the inherent weaknesses of the instrumentation.

5. Another limiting factor of this study is the use of mailed questionnaires which sometimes produces a low percentage of responses, thereby affecting representativeness.

Significance of the Study

In the opinion of some (2, 8, 11), there is a general demeaning attitude of the American people toward the poor. Hamilton (2:119) has suggested that we have the means to eliminate poverty in the United States but apparently lack the will. If schools and the school environment are instruments of change [and Dewey (13) suggests that they are], then social studies teachers should be one avenue to create a change in this American attitude toward the poor.

One aspect of this study is an attempt to examine the attitudes of social studies teachers toward the poor and to determine if their attitudes are based on a knowledge of factual information about the poor. Information of this nature can be of importance to social studies curricula directors. With this information they can: 1. evaluate and make recommendation for upgrading their staff of teachers; 2. structure or restructure current units on poverty; 3. schedule seminars, films, and speakers around a unit on poverty; 4. develop continuing education units for teacher participation. Personnel charged with the training of prospective social studies teachers can use this information to evaluate students in their teacher programs. Training personnel will then be in a better position to recommend their students for teacher

certification and placement.

In addition, this information can be of importance to personnel in the State Department of Welfare. This department has the responsibility not only to aid and help rehabilitate the poor but also to inform the public of its programs and account for the money spent.

The extent that social studies teachers' belief systems are open or closed to change, the information concerning teacher attitudes and knowledge of the poor, and the relationship between attitudes and knowledge can all be of importance in later studies dealing with the actual selection of course content in various social studies courses.

Summary and Organization of the Study

Chapter I of this study has provided background information to the study. The purpose of this study, and the questions to be tested, have been identified. The terms used frequently in this study have been defined. Finally, the assumptions and limitations basic to this study have been stated. The format for the succeeding chapters is as follows: Chapter II treats the selected, related literature which was reviewed for this study. Chapter III relates the methodology and design of this study. Chapter IV presents the analysis of data collected for this study. Chapter V presents findings and makes recommendations in relation to these conclusions for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of the literature concerning this study is divided into three parts. The first part consists of an examination of the magnitude of poverty in Oklahoma; the second part is a review of the literature concerning attitudes; and the final part consists of studies that examine attitudes toward the poor, specifically those teacher attitudes toward the economically-disadvantaged child.

Poverty in Oklahoma

In Oklahoma during the fiscal year 1968-1969, over \$236 million (23:A2) in federal and state money was spent on 196,169 Oklahomans (23:A2) that were enrolled in the various welfare programs administered by the Department of Public Welfare. The average monthly welfare payment in Oklahoma during this period was \$86.47 (23:A12), which ranked Oklahoma in the top five states in average welfare payments (25). Although Oklahoma received 69 percent of its total welfare expenditures from federal funds, the citizens of Oklahoma still financed their own welfare programs indirectly through the payment of federal taxes (of which over \$164 million was returned for welfare assistance in Oklahoma) (23:A2) or through direct state taxation (23:8).

Poverty is not general throughout the state; therefore, it appears

to be less of a social problem in one area of the state than in another. Welfare recipient rates vary from a high of 28 per 100 population on welfare to a low of less than two per 100 (22). This appearance is deceiving. State-collected taxes for welfare (derived from a two percent state imposed sales tax) (23:8) are pooled, and money collected from the public in low welfare areas is used to support the programs in high welfare areas. In terms of these state-collected taxes, poverty is a 72½ million dollar social problem that all Oklahomans must share in supporting (23:A2).

Attitudes

Because one aspect of this study concerns an attitude toward a specific group, a review of the literature concerning attitudes has been made.

In his book on attitudes, Sherif states:

When we talk about attitudes, we are talking about what a person has learned in the process of becoming a member of a family, a member of a group, and of society that makes him react to his social world in a consistent and characteristic way, instead of a transitory and haphazard way. We are talking about the fact that he is no longer neutral in sizing up the world around him; he is attracted or repelled, for or against, favorable or unfavorable. We are talking about the fact that his behavior toward other persons, groups, institutions, and nations takes on a consistent and characteristic pattern as he becomes socialized (26:2).

If we accept this definition, then the attitude of social studies teachers toward the poor is a result of the socialization process in the teacher's home environment, the cognitive product of interaction with other attitude-shaping elements in the environment, or a combination of both.

Sarnoff defines an attitude as:

. . . a disposition to react favorably or unfavorably to a class of objects. This disposition may, of course, be inferred from a variety of observable responses made by the individual when he is confronted by a member of the class of objects toward which he has an attitude (27).

In this regard, Sherif states:

Specifically, when a person's attitudes are involved in an issue, the judgement process is no longer neutral. It is not neutral because it relates to matters touching his cherished relatedness, his stand, his commitment, in short, the stuff of which his very self-identity is composed (26:3).

To the extent that social studies teachers can entertain and incorporate new information that is counter to an established attitude, their belief system is said to be open or closed (21:57). In his definition of an attitude, Rokeach states that:

Virtually all theorists agree that an attitude is not a basic irreducible element within the personality, but represents a cluster or syndrome of two or more interrelated elements. In our definition, the elements are underlying beliefs. . . (20:112).

The belief within each attitude, according to Rokeach, is conceived to have three components:

. . . a cognitive component, because it represents a person's knowledge, held with varying degrees of certitude, about what is true or false, good or bad, desirable or undesirable; an affective component, because under suitable conditions the belief is capable of arousing affect of varying intensity centering around the object of the belief, around other objects (individuals or groups) taking a positive or negative position with respect to the object of belief, or around the belief itself, when its validity is seriously questioned, as in an argument; and a behavioral component, because the belief, being a response predisposition of varying threshold, must lead to some action when it is suitably activated (20:113-114).

Using this paradigm by Rokeach, we can trace the underlying components of an attitude toward the poor. Held with varying degrees of certitude, the knowledge of facts concerning the poor combined with an internalized attitude toward the poor of varying intensity must lead to some action on the part of an individual when this belief is suitably activated.

The possibility then exists that an individual with a closed belief system may not be able to incorporate relevant material concerning the poor unless that material is consistent with his attitude toward the poor.

One is limited in generalizing about teachers as a group without empirical evidence, but Soderbergh felt compelled to state "my experiences and observations have led me to conclude that some veteran public school teachers are excessively, and for the most part unwittingly, dogmatic" (28:245). According to Soderbergh, the classroom environment with a closed-minded teacher "could prove fatal to both the afflicted teacher and the exposed pupil" (28:245).

Cappelluzzo and Brine (29) in their study of the extent of dogmatism in prospective teachers, attempted to answer these questions: Are prospective teachers dogmatic? Is their degree of dogmatism a function of their religious preferences? Is their degree of dogmatism a function of their subject matter preference? To answer these questions, 254 prospective teachers at the University of Massachusetts completed the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale. These scores were compared with the scores of Rokeach's Ohio State University groups and the scores of a group of experienced teachers from the State of Washington. The results of an analysis of variance were significant at the .001 level, indicating a more dogmatic response from the undergraduate groups. No significant differences were obtained when the dogmatism scores of prospective teachers were compared using the variable of subject matter preference and the variable of religious preference (29). Of importance for this study was that some patterns did exist to show differing levels of dogmatism according to various subject preferences. Forty-five stu-

dents that had already selected social studies as a teaching field had a mean score on the Dogmatism Scale of 142.4. This compared favorably with a mean of 143.3 for the sample and also compared favorably with previous means established by Rokeach (21:90) of 142.3 to 143.8. Although no statistical information was given, the data would appear to infer that prospective social studies teachers were no more or less dogmatic than the overall general body of students.

The findings of Rabkin's (30) study of dogmatism with 107 teachers indicated that there was not a general tendency of teachers to be rigid or closed-minded in their thinking. Although the population for this study lacked randomness, Rabkin stated that "the results indicate a considerably lower degree of this rigid type of thinking as compared with various other college and noncollege groups,"

Using the Dogmatism Scale and the California Psychological Inventory, Blankenship and Hoy (31) investigated the relationship between open- and closed-mindedness and the capacity for independent thought and action. They compared the mean score of open-minded subjects on a set of six variables from the CPI with the mean score of closed-minded subjects. These six variables were termed "capacity for independent thought and action" (31). The results indicated a significant difference at the .01 level between the two groups. They stated that:

Personality characteristics on which the groups differed significantly indicated that, on the average, open-minded biology teachers were more ambitious, enthusiastic, resourceful, self-reliant, progressive, and assertive; conversely, closed-minded biology teachers were more conventional, less enthusiastic, retiring, conservative, methodical and rigid (31).

In a study of rigidity as a factor in ethnocentrism, Rokeach stated that rigidity is:

. . . not an isolated phenomenon within the personality but is rather an aspect of a general persistent personality characteristic which will also manifest itself in the solution of all kinds of problems, even though such problems are completely lacking in social content (32).

If we accept this basic assumption of Rokeach, rigidity and inflexibility of the thinking process in a teacher would have an affect on that teacher's solution to a classroom problem for which that teacher already had an established attitude.

Rigidity as a personality factor was a basic tenet of Solomon's study of rigidity and the use of the scientific method of thinking. He defined rigidity in its functional sense as:

. . . sluggishness in variation of response, fixation of response, lack of variability, inability to change one's mental set when the objective conditions demand it, and inability to rearrange a mental field in which there are alternative solutions to a problem in order to solve that problem more efficiently (33).

In this study, Solomon (33) compared the number of correct solutions by rigid and non-rigid groups on items testing the elements of the scientific method. He concluded that statistically the non-rigid group had done considerably better than the rigid group.

If we accept the definition that the scientific method of thinking is a process of flexibility (33), then Solomon's conclusion has implications for educators who emphasize the inquiry method of teaching. The inquiry method utilizes scientific principles in attempting to find a solution to a problem (17). Rigidity of thinking presupposes one solution to a problem based on an internalized belief of the solution's truth, an accepted authority's solution, or the solution's self-evident nature (33). A rigid-thinking teacher then becomes an authority in the classroom. Instead of the inquiry method of teaching, the classroom becomes teacher dominated in the traditional way.

Rigidity of thinking appears to be evident in today's solution to the age-old problem of poverty. Moynihan (34) indicates that current welfare standards offered as solutions to poverty are based on welfare standards much like those of the Elizabethan Poor Laws. With a history of continual poverty and the absence of any final answer, it appears that any investigation into this social problem will require teachers who are flexible in the examination of all historical solutions and who are open to any contemporary solutions that are proposed. This would require teachers who are committed to scientific principles while utilizing the inquiry method of teaching.

With a persistent, demeaning, American attitude toward the poor and with an equally persistent problem of poverty, the role of the school environment along with the attitudes of social studies teachers toward this problem becomes important. Dewey (13) indicates that the school has a responsibility to change the unwanted features of society and to provide a means for students to escape their environment; Oliver and Shaver (17:7-8) indicate that what is of interest to a community and its students is the key factor in determining the objectives of the social studies curriculum; Shaver and Berlake (18) indicate that how a teacher feels toward specific material will influence what that teacher selects as course content. Charged with these responsibilities, the dilemma of the social studies teacher is compounded by being a tax-paying supporter of welfare programs as well as having a personal attitude about the justification for welfare expenditures.

What part education plays in the influence of an attitude toward the poor may be to the extent that teachers incorporate information concerning the poor into their classroom content. Any values that educa-

tion holds for the student must by necessity incorporate the cognitive and affective behaviors of the student in the process of achieving those values. To accomplish this requires a certain type of teacher who is open to the exploration of ideas and the examination of policy decisions, as well as one who is able to tolerate the conflict of ideas and ideals (17:2-3). Poverty and poverty programs are legitimate social problems to be covered in the classroom (17), and one cannot escape considering teachers' attitudes toward this content.

Teacher Attitudes Toward the Poor

The review of literature concerning teachers' attitudes toward the poor is specifically directed toward attitude studies concerning children of the economic poor. This group has been identified as culturally deprived, disadvantaged children, or poverty children by the various authors of the studies included in this review. Regardless of what term is used to identify this group, underlying the definition of each term used, either directly or indirectly, is the connotation that the authors have included within the scope of their definition those individuals considered as economically poor.

The classroom environment for the economically disadvantaged child appears inhospitable in terms of his opportunities for successful achievement. The reasons given for the failure of this group of children have been divided. A lack of the economic means to provide a variety of childhood environmental stimuli has been cited as a reason for poverty children to fare poorly in the classroom (3:446); others have placed the blame on the environment of the educational system (35, 36) and/or the classroom teacher for failure to relate to the economically disadvantaged

child (37, 38).

Charter (39) in reviewing the literature on the social background of teachers, indicates that teachers internalize middle-class values, and these values are evidenced in the classroom. Although the research is inconclusive on these points, middle-class values are rewarded in the classroom. He states:

. . . it is proper to conclude that pupils of the lower-classes will experience frustration and failure and pupils of the higher-class will experience gratification and success in their educational experiences. The evidence supporting this conclusion is overwhelming (39).

Charter (39) emphasizes that this is true even if the social class categorization is determined by "casual indicators of socio-economic status such as occupation or income level."

Deutscher and Thompson (40) describe the middle-class values toward the poor. They characterize meetings between the poor and agents of the larger society as "paternalistic," and in these meetings "Seldom is there reciprocal respect or understanding. . . ." The attitudes of middle-class citizens toward the poor are described by the authors as a "condescending attitude" (40). All these have indicated a demeaning middle-class attitude toward the poor.

Groff (37) investigates the high turnover rate of teachers in core-city schools to determine their cause for dissatisfaction. These schools predominately enroll what Groff terms "the culturally deprived child." Although this term is not defined, it is implied that one element in the make-up of the culturally deprived child is poverty. The causal factor given by teachers as a source of their dissatisfaction is an inability to accept the peculiarities in the personalities of the culturally deprived. To correct this, Groff (37) recommends that teachers

be selected who have a basic sympathy for the culturally deprived child and that teacher education colleges should graduate students that are experienced with this group as well as ones that understand and accept the nature of this group. The implications of Groff are that teachers have an unsympathetic attitude toward the culturally deprived and that part of the fault lies with an inadequate training program.

In the Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (3:428-429), the attitudes of teachers in the disadvantaged schools are described as "negative attitudes." The authors indicate that these negative attitudes of teachers "act as self-fulfilling prophecies: the teachers expect little from their students; the students fulfill the expectation."

North and Buchanan (38) investigated teachers' attitudes toward children of the poor by administering the 300 words of Gough's Adjective Check List (ACL) and asking respondents to underline 50 of these words that best described poverty children. Children from families with an income below \$3000 were identified as poverty children, while 167 elementary teachers were identified in terms of the following five variables: 1. The proportion of poverty children in the teacher's present assignment, 2. The age of the teacher, 3. The teacher's childhood economic background, 4. The teacher's success in teaching poverty area children, and 5. The teacher's ethnic background (Negro or Caucasian). A separate sample rated each of the 300 words of the ACL from favorable to unfavorable in terms of a general description of children, and a favorability index was computed for each word. This index was then used to determine the favorability score for each subject's 50 word description of poverty area children. In addition through an item analysis of

the AGL words, the researchers attempted to find out if a relationship existed between the usage of words to describe poverty area children and the position of the teachers on each of the independent variables.

Teachers' differences in age, ethnicity, status of economic background, and the number of poverty children taught had no significant effect on favorability scores. There was a significant difference at the .02 level between teachers rated as successful in teaching poverty area children and those teachers not so rated. The fact that teachers who were basically sympathetic in describing poverty children had the most success in teaching this group tends to follow one of the recommendations put forth by Groff. In terms of the content of words used to describe poverty area children, there was a significant difference on three of the five variables. These significant differences indicated that teachers of poverty children tended to use words that depicted an irritated and frustrated attitude toward the poverty children; teachers who were rated as unsuccessful in teaching poverty area children appeared to select words that indicated something was "wrong or sick, or crippled about poverty children"; and although no organized picture of the word grouping was found, there was a significant difference between Negro and Caucasian teachers in the descriptive words used to identify poverty children (38).

Of particular importance to this study was the fact that North and Buchanan (38) reported a substantial correlation between the frequency of word usage in describing poverty children and the unfavorability value of these words. The 50 words used most by teachers as a stereotype of poverty children tended to be highly negative or unfavorable.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (41) in their study identified the dis-

advantaged children as one who lived in conditions of poverty. This child was a lower-class one who performed poorly in schools that were staffed almost entirely by middle-class teachers. To investigate the extent that teachers stereotyped the disadvantaged child, they hypothesized that this group of children would do poorly in school because of prejudged teacher expectations.

To test this hypothesis, the investigators casually indicated to pre-selected teachers those children in their classrooms who had the potential to spurt academically. The children indicated were selected at random from an elementary school population that was made up of predominately lower-class children. The experimental group consisted of about five students in each classroom with the remaining members of each classroom being the control group. The results indicated that children from whom teachers expected an intellectual gain, showed such gains. When the teacher was asked to rate the control group children in terms of future success the more these control group students gained in intellect during the year the less favorable they were rated (41).

Rosenthal and Jacobson implied that the attitudes of teachers toward the poverty child play a role in the success of that child in the classroom. No generalizations are made for the teacher in the secondary schools, but certainly the indication that an attitude on the part of the teacher plays a role in the classroom bears additional investigation on the secondary school level.

Some who have cited the school systems for the failure of the poverty child to succeed have not specifically indicted the teacher for their failure. Regardless of this fact, what part the school system plays in contributing to this lack of success must be shared by all

involved.

Fantini and Weinstein (35), experts on education for poor children, indicate that one goal of education appears to be the creation of middle-class schools in the slums. This method of educating the poor appears to them to be outmoded. In answering the question, "Who says the system is outmoded?" they replied, "The disadvantaged student says so poignantly by failing to learn or by dropping out." They go on to state that ". . . the ghetto students declare that the school is phony, that teachers don't talk like real people, that his reality and reality as painted by the language of the school are as night and day" (35). Although the system is criticized as being outmoded, there is an implication that teacher attitudes, as viewed by the ghetto student, are not genuine.

Stodolsky and Lesser (36) in their article about the disadvantaged child, cite the present school system for this group's failure in the classroom. They state:

The picture of educational disadvantage which emerges with examination of achievement data is a clear indication of the failure of the school systems. When intelligence test data and early achievement are combined, we have a predictor's paradise, but an abysmal prognosis for most children who enter the school system from disadvantaged backgrounds (36).

Summary

In review, these studies have shown that the problem of poverty is a real and costly problem in Oklahoma. Several studies point out a demeaning attitude toward the poor that has been recognized in the classroom attitude of teachers toward the poverty child. Children with an economically disadvantaged background often meet with failure in the

classroom, and some individuals trace this failure to the school systems and/or to the classroom teacher. To what extent secondary social studies teachers share a demeaning attitude toward the economically disadvantaged child is not revealed by a review of the literature.

Chapter III will present a detailed description of the design and methodology of the study.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Description of the Sample

The subjects of this survey were 201 secondary social studies teachers from the State of Oklahoma that taught a minimum of three classes of social studies subjects during the 1970-71 school year.

A stratified, randomized process was used to obtain the sample of social studies teachers. Because a list of social studies teachers was not available, the following technique was used to identify the sample. All high schools within the state were stratified according to the number of secondary teachers listed for each school in the Oklahoma Education Directory (42). High schools with up to 32 secondary teachers were identified as Group I schools, high schools with 33 to 64 secondary teachers were identified as Group II schools, and high schools with more than 64 secondary teachers were identified as Group III schools. Of the 481 high schools listed in the Oklahoma Education Directory (42), 426 high schools were in Group I, 32 in Group II, and 23 in Group III.

The randomization was accomplished by the use of a table of random numbers. One hundred seventy-five high schools were selected as the sample, with the number of schools selected in each group being that group's percentage of the total schools in the state. The number of schools selected were: Group I, 155; Group II, 12; and Group III, eight. One teacher was selected to participate from each Group I

school, two from each Group II school, and three teachers from each Group III school.

It was anticipated that some schools in Group I, because of their size, would not have a social studies teacher that taught the minimum number of classes. In order to obtain the necessary 155 participants from Group I schools, 30 conditional schools were selected and identified as to their numerical position of selection.

To identify the individual teacher or teachers from each school, a letter with an enclosed post card was sent to the principal of each school selected. (Appendix A) The letter informed him of the importance of research and the significance of this survey. The letter also asked him to write on the post card all the names of his social studies teachers that taught a minimum of three classes of social studies, to write the word "none" if no teacher qualified, and to return the post card. A follow-up letter (Appendix B) was sent approximately four weeks later encouraging the principals to return the post card with the names of their teachers that qualified or to return the post card with the word "none" written on the card. Personal letters and telephone calls were made in the following four weeks to insure a high-percentage return on these cards. Of the 175 principals queried, 173 returned the post card with the requested information; two principals from Group I schools failed to respond. Nineteen principals from Group I schools did not have a social studies teacher that met the minimum requirements. The first twenty conditionally-selected schools in Group I were used in this survey, with one of these conditionally-selected schools failing to have a teacher meeting minimum requirements. A total of 153 Group I schools were used in the survey. With 12 Group II and eight Group III schools,

the total of 173 schools represented approximately 36 percent of the total number of high schools in Oklahoma.

When only one name of a social studies teacher was returned from a Group I school, that teacher was used as a subject for the survey. All principals from Group II and Group III schools identified the names of at least the minimum number of social studies teachers required for that particular group. When more than the minimum number of social studies teachers were identified for a special group, each teacher's name was placed in a container; and a person other than the investigator selected one name for each Group I school, two for each Group II school, and three for each Group III school. A total of 201 social studies teachers were selected, with 153 social studies teachers selected from Group I schools, 24 from Group II schools, and 24 from Group III schools.

Individual letters were sent to each teacher (Appendix C) along with the instrument and a stamped, addressed, return envelope. The letter informed each teacher of the importance of research in the social studies area and pointed out the significance of this survey. The letter also stressed that individual responses would be treated confidentially.

The instrument (Appendix D) enclosed in the letter was divided into four sections. The first section consisted of biographical questions about the teacher; section two was Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, Form E; and the last two sections consisted of the two part Poverty and Welfare Attitude Scale. Each of the latter three sections was prefaced by a set of instructions on the method of scoring the instrument.

Follow-up letters (Appendixes E and F) were sent at approximately three week intervals. These letters encouraged those teachers that had

not responded to complete and return the instrument. They also stressed that once a teacher had responded to the instrument, all identification with a specific instrument would be destroyed. An additional copy of the instrument was sent in all follow-up letters as well as a stamped, addressed envelope. Personal letters as well as telephone calls were made on an individual basis if a teacher failed to respond after a second follow-up letter had been sent. Two hundred and one teachers were sent the instrument with 142 instruments being returned. This represented a 70.6 percent return. Of the 142 returned instruments, two were not usable. The sample available for analysis was 140, which represents 69.7 percent of the original sample. The variations in the number of subjects used for analysis purposes were due in part to the omission of one or more items of biographical information requested of each respondent in section one of the instrument.

Instrumentation

Section two of the instrument consisted of Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, Form E, which was used in this survey to measure the degree of open-mindedness and closed-mindedness of social studies teachers. Form E consisted of 60 questions, of which only 40 questions are specifically a part of the Dogmatism Scale. The additional items were suggested by Rokeach to be included when administering the instrument. This instrument has a Likert-like scale for each question ranging from a +3 to a -3. A +3 meant that the respondent agreed very much with the statement, and a -3 meant that the respondent disagreed very much with the statement. The investigator, in scoring this part, added a +4 to each value given by the respondent to create a possible range of scores from 40 to

280. Those who scored extremely high on this scale were seen to differ consistently from those who scored extremely low in the formation of new beliefs. This difference was found to be in the ability to analyze and synthesize. Those who were more open were found to have a greater ability to synthesize (21).

The reliability ranges for the Dogmatism Scale varied from .68 to .93. Validity of the scale was established by using the "Method of Known Groups."

Sections three and four of the instrument consisted of the two part Poverty and Welfare Attitude Scale, hereafter referred to as the PWAS, that was devised by the researcher. Part I of the PWAS consisted of 14 statements about the poor and the various welfare programs designed for the poor. Part II consisted of 14 multiple-choice, factual questions about the poor and their various welfare programs.

The 14 statements used for Part I of the PWAS were selected using the method of summated ratings (43). One hundred and three subjects responded to 21 statements about the poor. (Appendix G) A Likert scale was used in scoring each statement with values ranging from a +1 to a +7. Subjects that strongly agreed with a statement would place a value of +1 by that statement, and those subjects that strongly disagreed with a statement would place a +7 by that statement. A subject who had no opinion on a statement would place a +4 value by that statement. Six questions were worded so that a respondent that strongly agreed with those statements would put a value of +7, and those respondents that strongly disagreed with those statements would put a +1 value by those statements. This was done to minimize a possible response set of the subjects. After summing each subject's assigned values, the 25 subjects

with the highest scores and the 25 subjects with the lowest scores were compared using the method of summated ratings.

Using the method of summated ratings, a t score was computed for each of the 21 statements. Edwards (43) stated:

. . . we may regard any t value equal to or greater than 1.75 as indicating that the average response of the high and low groups to a statement differs significantly, provided we have 25 or more subjects in the high and also in the low groups.

T scores for the 21 statements (Appendix H) indicated that only statements 2 and 16 failed to obtain a t value as high as 1.75. Twelve questions with the highest t values were selected for inclusion in Part I of the PWAS. In addition, two questions with small t values were also included. These two questions were selected in an attempt to discriminate slight differences in the attitudes toward the poor of the respondents. A total of 14 questions make up Part I of the PWAS.

Part I of the PWAS was designed to determine the relative positions that social studies teachers' attitudes fall on a continuum ranging from sympathetic toward the poor and their welfare programs to unsympathetic. Part I used a Likert-like scale ranging from a +3 to a -3. Those respondents that strongly agreed with a statement would put a +3 value by that statement, and those who strongly disagreed would put a -3 value. In order to minimize possible response sets of the subjects, statements number 2, 4 and 7 were worded so that a respondent that strongly agreed with those statements would put a value of a -3, and those who strongly disagreed would put a +3 value by the statement. In scoring this part, a +4 was added to all values assigned by the respondents. This created a possible range of scores from 14 to 98. Those individuals that scored high on this part of the PWAS were considered as having an unsympathetic attitude toward the poor and those individuals

receiving a low score were considered as having a sympathetic attitude.

The 14 multiple-choice questions used for Part II of the PWAS were selected by a panel of judges. Twenty factual, multiple-choice questions were given to a panel of seven judges for evaluation. (Appendix I) Each judge was asked to select those he felt that social studies teachers should be familiar enough with to answer correctly. The panel was composed of three welfare workers employed by the State Department of Welfare in Oklahoma as case workers in Payne County, two administrators in the Stillwater Public Schools with backgrounds in the social sciences, one social studies teacher at C. E. Donart High School in Stillwater, and one Professor of Economics at Oklahoma State University who teaches a university class in Poverty and Economic Insecurity. No question was considered for inclusion in the PWAS unless a minimum of five judges concurred in its selection. Questions number 3, 8, 10, and 12 received the minimum number, the remaining ten questions selected received the concurrence of six or more judges. (Appendix J)

Of the 14 questions used as Part II of the PWAS questions 1 to 3 involved the poor and their welfare programs on a national level, questions 4 to 12 were about the poor of Oklahoma, and questions 13 and 14 concerned the poor within the county where each respondent was currently teaching. Where possible, a range was included for each of the five answers to a question. This was done in an attempt to eliminate the total recall of a specific answer.

Analytic Procedure

The questions proposed in Chapter I of this survey are stated in this section along with the procedures used to analyze the data.

1. Will different biographical characteristics of social studies teachers make a difference in their attitudes toward the poor?

The selected biographical characteristics to be analyzed for differences in attitudes and the rationale for their selection are enumerated in the following paragraphs.

Although poverty is identified as both an urban and a rural problem in terms of the number of individuals affected, the problem is more serious in urban areas (44). Because of this difference, it appears logical to examine the attitudes of social studies teachers toward the poor to determine if backgrounds affect their attitudes. The following question is then proposed:

1a. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers with an urban background and social studies teachers with a rural background?

The social problem of poverty has been identified as a legitimate problem to be studied within the field of sociology (11:40-41). The categories have been selected in an attempt to delineate between those social studies teachers with a basic number of hours in sociology and those with advanced hours in sociology. The following question was then proposed:

1b. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers with six hours or less of sociology and social studies teachers with more than six hours in sociology?

Poverty has also been identified as a legitimate problem to be studied within the field of economics (11:40). The categories selected were made in an attempt to delineate between those social studies teachers with a basic number of hours in economics and those teachers with advanced hours in economics. The following question was then

proposed:

1c. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers with six hours or less of economics and social studies teachers with more than six hours of economics?

The category of teacher experience was arbitrarily selected by the investigator. For this question, ten years was used to distinguish between the teachers' attitudes toward the poor with a relative few years teaching experience as opposed to those teachers with more teaching experience. The following question was then proposed:

1d. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers with ten years or less teaching experience and social studies teachers with more than ten years experience?

Because poverty and welfare recipient rates vary considerably in the counties of Oklahoma (22), this category was selected to determine if attitudes toward the poor were affected by the incidence of welfare within the respondents county. The comparison was made between social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties and those teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties. To determine the high and low welfare recipient rate counties, all 77 Oklahoma counties were ranked based on the recipient rate as determined by the Oklahoma State Welfare Department. (Appendix K) The first 25 ranked counties were classified as high welfare recipient rate counties and the 25 lowest ranked counties were classified as low welfare recipient rate counties. The following question was then proposed:

1e. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties and social studies teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties?

The categories for the variable of age were determined arbitrarily. In establishing the age brackets, the investigator was merely attempting to distinguish between the relatively young teachers, older teachers, and those teachers falling between these two groups. The following question was then proposed:

1f. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between social studies teachers under the age of 30, social studies teachers between the ages of 30 to 44, and those age 45 and above?

The following question was proposed to distinguish between the attitudes of male and female social studies teachers. The category of sex was used because it is a common comparison variable.

1g. Is there any difference in the attitudes toward the poor between male social studies teachers and female social studies teachers?

In the preceding seven parts of question 1, respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS (Appendix K) were used to determine social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor. Those teachers that scored high on Part I of the PWAS were considered as having an unsympathetic attitude toward the poor, and those teachers that scored low were considered as having a sympathetic attitude toward the poor. The range of possible scores on Part I was divided into three groups that approximate a high, low, and middle attitude score. Using the variables previously discussed, the distribution of scores for high and low respondents was then tested for differences using χ^2 . Siegel (45:175) stated, "When frequencies in discrete categories (either nominal or ordinal) constitute the data of research, the χ^2 test may be used to determine the significance of the difference among k independent groups."

2. What is the relationship of social studies teachers' attitudes

toward the poor and their knowledge of welfare facts concerning the poor?

The Pearson r , described by Runyon and Haber (46) on pages 82-86, was utilized to determine the relationship between attitudes and knowledge of welfare facts of social studies teachers. Respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS were compared with their scores on Part II of the PWAS. (Appendix L) Runyon and Haber (46) stated, "The assumption of linearity of relationship is the most important requirement to justify the use of the Pearson r as a measure of relationship between two variables." The two variables under investigation in this question were teachers' attitudes toward the poor and the teachers' knowledge of welfare facts concerning the poor. The assumption of a linear relationship was based on Allport's (19) definition that an attitude is a state of readiness, organized through experiences. With experiences being both the result of cognitive and affective behaviors, the assumption of a linear relationship was justifiable. To test the significance of r , Bruning and Kintz (48:155) indicated that a critical-ratio z -test was appropriate. The hypothesis used to test the significance was: $r = 0$. The statistical confidence level pre-selected for rejection of the hypothesis was the .05 confidence level.

3. Will different biographical characteristics of social studies teachers make a difference in the extent that they are open-minded or closed-minded?

The biographical characteristics selected to be analyzed for differences in open-mindedness and closed-mindedness and the rationale for their selection are enumerated in the following paragraphs.

With the central problem of this survey concerned with attitudes

toward the poor, it seemed appropriate to examine the attitude of open- and closed-mindedness of social studies teachers in those counties termed high or low in welfare. The question that was then proposed was as follows:

3a. Is there any difference in the attitude of open- and closed-mindedness between social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties and social studies teachers in high welfare recipient counties?

The variable of social studies teachers' background was used again based on the fact that poverty is both an urban and rural problem. The following question was then proposed:

3b. Is there any difference in the attitude of open- and closed-mindedness between social studies teachers with an urban background and social studies teachers with a rural background?

The following question was proposed to distinguish between the attitude of open- and closed-mindedness of male and female social studies teachers. The category of sex was used because it is a common comparison variable.

3c. Is there any difference in the attitude of open- and closed-mindedness between male social studies teachers and female social studies teachers?

In the preceding three parts of question 3, respondents' scores (Appendix L) on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale were used to determine the attitude of open-mindedness and closed-mindedness. Those individuals who scored low on this part of the instrument were considered as being open-minded and those individuals who scored high were considered as being closed-minded (21). Respondents' scores were classified into two groups. This distribution of scores was determined by dividing the

range of possible scores on the Dogmatism Scale in half. This was done to distinguish individuals considered to be relatively open- or closed-minded. Using the variables previously discussed, this distribution of scores was then tested using χ^2 , as cited earlier by Siegel (45:175).

4. What is the relationship between the attitudes toward the poor of social studies teachers and the welfare recipient rate of the counties where they worked?

Attitudes toward the poor were determined by respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS. The counties where respondents worked were classified into high, middle, and low welfare recipient rate counties. As previously discussed, these categories were determined using information supplied by the Oklahoma State Welfare Department. (Appendix L) The Point Biserial Correlation was then used to determine the relationship between respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS and those counties where respondents worked that were classified as either high or low welfare recipient rate counties. (Appendix L) Guilford (47) stated that if one variable was in the form of a dichotomy, the biserial correlation was appropriate. If the dichotomy was truly a discrete one, then the point biserial was the appropriate measure of correlation. The two variables under investigation met these two requirements. To test the significance of r_{pb} , Bruning and Kintz (48:166) indicated that a t -test was appropriate. The hypothesis used to test the significance was: $r_{pb} = 0$. The statistical confidence level pre-selected for rejection of the hypothesis was the .05 level.

5. What is the relationship between the knowledge of welfare facts by social studies teachers and the welfare recipient rate of the counties in which they worked?

Social studies teachers' knowledge of welfare facts were determined by respondents' scores on Part II of the PWAS. The counties of Oklahoma were classified into high, middle, and low welfare recipient rate counties as indicated in the preceding paragraph. The Point Biserial Correlation was again used to determine the relationship between respondents' scores on Part II of the PWAS and those counties where respondents' worked that were classified as either high or low welfare recipient rate counties. (Appendix L) Guilford (47) was again used to justify the use of the Point Biserial Correlation. The t-test by Bruning and Kintz (48:166) was again used to test the significance of r_{pb} . The confidence level was also pre-selected at the .05 level.

Summary

Chapter III has presented the procedures utilized in conducting the research study. A general description of the instrumentation and population sample was presented. The questions proposed were stated along with a description of the tests to be used. The following chapter will present the data derived from this investigation.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Introduction

One hundred forty social studies teachers responded to a four-part instrument. (Appendix D) Part I consisted of seven items of general biographical information; Part II was Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, Form E; and Parts III and IV consisted of the two part Poverty and Welfare Attitude Scale, hereafter referred to as PWAS.

All respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS were classified according to seven items of biographical information (Appendix L), and a comparison of scores was made using the χ^2 test for k independent samples (45:175). In addition, respondents' scores on Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale were classified according to three items of biographical information; and a comparison of scores made, again using the χ^2 test.

Attitudes toward the poor, which were determined by respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS, were compared with respondents' knowledge of facts concerning the poor, which was determined by their scores on Part II of the PWAS. (Appendix L) The comparison was made using the Pearson r (46:82-86) to determine the relationship.

In addition, respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS were identified from high and low welfare recipient rate counties and a Point Biserial Correlation (47) was then used to determine the relationship between respondents' scores on Part I and the welfare recipient

rate of the counties where respondents worked. (Appendix L) Respondents' scores on Part II of the PWAS were also classified in a similar manner, and the Point Biserial Correlation was used again to determine the relationship between respondents' scores and the high or low recipient rate counties where respondents worked.

Findings

The results of the statistical analysis are presented in this chapter. The statistical confidence level pre-selected for rejection of the hypotheses is set at the .05 level. Each question investigated is stated, and the results of the statistical analysis leading to its answer follow.

1. Will different biographical characteristics of social studies teachers make a difference in their attitudes toward the poor?

Respondents in this study were classified into each of seven categories of biographical information according to each individual's responses recorded in Section 1 of the instrument. Attitudes toward the poor were determined by respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS. A distribution of these scores was compared with the variables of biographical characteristics. Seven sub-questions of question 1 were proposed in Chapter III to determine if biographical characteristics affected social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor. The null hypothesis of each question was tested using χ^2 (45:175). Each null hypothesis is stated along with the results of the statistical analysis.

1a. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers with an urban background and social studies teachers with a rural background.

The computed χ^2 yielded a value of 3.2682 (Table I). With two degrees of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 5.99 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of social studies teachers with a rural background and those with an urban background.

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A χ^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHERS' BACKGROUND AND
TEACHERS' DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON
PART I OF THE PWAS

Teachers' Background	Distribution of Scores on Part I of the PWAS			Totals
	14-42	43-70	71-98	
Urban	(4.80)* 5	(33.28)* 37	(8.92)* 5	47
Rural	(9.20)* 9	(63.72)* 60	(17.08)* 21	90
Totals	14	99	26	137
$\chi^2 = 3.2682$	DF = 2	Not Significant at the .05 Level		

*Expected frequencies

1b. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers with six hours or less of sociology and social studies teachers with more

than six hours in sociology.

The computed χ^2 yielded a value of 1.4994 (Table II). With two degrees of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 5.99 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of social studies teachers with six or less hours of sociology and those teachers with more than six hours of sociology.

TABLE II
SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A χ^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHERS' HOURS IN
SOCIOLOGY AND TEACHERS' DISTRIBUTION
OF SCORES ON PART I OF THE PWAS

Teachers' Hours in Sociology	Distribution of Scores on Part I of the PWAS			Totals
	14-42	43-70	71-98	
Six hours or less	(7.70)* 6	(52.21)* 52	(12.09)* 14	72
More than six hours	(6.31)* 8	(42.79)* 43	(9.91)* 8	59
Totals	14	95	22	131
$\chi^2 = 1.4994$	DF = 2	Not Significant at the .05 Level		

*Expected frequencies

1c. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers with six hours or less of economics and social studies teachers with more than six hours in economics.

The computed χ^2 yielded a value of .3975 (Table III). With two degrees of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 5.99 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of social studies teachers with six or less hour of economics and those teachers with more than six hours of economics.

TABLE III
SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A χ^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHERS' HOURS IN
ECONOMICS AND TEACHERS' DISTRIBUTION
OF SCORES ON PART I OF THE PWAS

Teachers' Hours in Economics	Distribution of Scores on Part I of the PWAS			Totals
	14-42	43-70	71-98	
	(9.69)*	(65.08)*	(15.23)*	
Six hours or less	10	66	14	90
	(4.31)*	(28.92)*	(6.77)*	
More than six hours	4	28	8	40
Totals	14	94	22	130
$\chi^2 = .3975$	DF = 2	Not Significant at the .05 Level		

*Expected frequencies

1d. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers with ten years or less teaching experience and social studies teachers with more than ten years experience.

The computed χ^2 yielded a value of 1.2835 (Table IV). With two degrees of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 5.99 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of social studies teachers with ten years or less of teaching experience and those teachers with more than ten years of teaching experience.

TABLE IV

SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A χ^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHERS' YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND TEACHERS' DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON PART I OF THE PWAS

Teachers' Years of Experience	Distribution of Scores on Part I of the PWAS			Totals
	14-42	43-70	71-98	
	(8.90)*	(67.74)*	(17.28)*	
Ten years or less	10	65	19	94
	(4.02)*	(30.27)*	(7.72)*	
More than ten years	3	33	6	42
Totals	13	98	25	136
$\chi^2 = 1.2835$	DF = 2	Not Significant at the .05 Level		

*Expected frequencies

1e. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties and social studies teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties.

The computed x^2 yielded a value of 3.0329 (Table V). With two degrees of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 5.99 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties and those teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties.

TABLE V
SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A x^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHERS' WELFARE RECIPIENT
RATE COUNTY AND TEACHERS' DISTRIBUTION
OF SCORES ON PART I OF THE PWAS

Teachers' Welfare Recipient Rate Co.	Distribution of Scores on Part I of the PWAS			Totals
	14-42	43-70	71-98	
Low Welfare Counties	(7.09)* 6	(42.12)* 47	(11.81)* 9	62
High Welfare Counties	(4.91)* 6	(29.90)* 26	(8.42)* 11	43
Totals	12	73	20	105
$x^2 = 3.0329$	DF = 2	Not Significant at the .05 Level		

*Expected frequencies

1f. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers under the age of 30, ages 30-44, and social studies teachers age 45 and above.

The computed χ^2 yielded a value of .699 (Table VI). With four degrees of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 9.49 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of social studies teachers under the age of 30, teachers age 30 to 44, and teachers age 45 and above.

TABLE VI

SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A χ^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHERS' AGE AND TEACHERS'
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON PART I OF THE PWAS

Distribution of Scores on Part I of the PWAS				
Teachers' Age	14-42	43-70	71-98	Totals
Under Age 30	(5.44)* 5	(38.46)* 38	(10.10)* 11	54
Ages 30-44	(5.64)* 5	(39.89)* 41	(10.48)* 10	56
Above Age 44	(2.92)* 4	(20.66)* 20	(5.42)* 5	29
Totals	14	99	26	139
$\chi^2 = .6990$	DF = 4	Not Significant at the .05 Level		

*Expected frequencies

1g. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between male social studies teachers and female social studies teachers.

The computed x^2 yielded a value of 1.5481 (Table VII). With two degrees of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 5.99 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of male social studies teachers and female social studies teachers.

TABLE VII

SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A x^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHERS' SEX AND TEACHERS'
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON PART I OF THE PWAS

Sex of Teacher	Distribution of Scores on Part I of the PWAS			Totals
	14-42	43-70	71-98	
Male	(10.8)* 9	(77.14)* 78	(20.06)* 21	108
Female	(3.2)* 5	(22.86)* 22	(5.94)* 5	32
Totals	14	100	26	140
$x^2 = 1.5481$	DF = 2	Not Significant at the .05 Level		

*Expected frequencies

2. What is the relationship of social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor and their knowledge of welfare facts concerning the poor?

The computed Pearson r yielded a value of $-.876$. A critical-ratio z -test was used to test for significance of the Pearson r . Bruning and Kintz (48:155) indicated that a critical-ratio z -test was appropriate for testing the significance of r when N (the number of pairs) was 30 or larger. With $N = 140$, the computed value of z was -1.029 . A value for z greater than ± 1.96 was necessary for significance at the .05 level with a two-tailed test (48:155). The conclusion was that there was no significant relationship between the attitudes of social studies teachers toward the poor and their knowledge of factual information about the poor.

3. Will different biographical characteristics of social studies teachers make a difference in the extent that they are open-minded or closed-minded?

Three categories of the seven categories of biographical information identified earlier in this chapter were used in answering this question. Respondents' scores on Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale were classified into a distribution of scores for comparison with each variable of biographical information. Three sub-questions were proposed in Chapter III to determine if the degree of open-mindedness or closed-mindedness of social studies teachers was affected by the variables of biographical characteristics. The null hypothesis of each question was tested using χ^2 (45:175). Each null hypothesis is stated along with the results of the statistical analysis.

3a. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution

of scores on the Dogmatism Scale between social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties and social studies teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties.

The computed χ^2 yielded a value of 2.0676 (Table VIII). With one degree of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 3.84 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of social studies teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties and those teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties.

TABLE VIII
SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A χ^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHERS' WELFARE RECIPIENT
RATE COUNTY AND TEACHERS' DISTRIBUTION OF
SCORES ON ROKEACH'S DOGMATISM SCALE

Teachers' Welfare Recipient Rate Co.	Distribution of Scores on Dogmatism Scale		
	40-159	160-280	Totals
High Welfare Counties	(43.70)* 47	(18.31)* 15	62
Low Welfare Counties	(30.31)* 27	(12.70)* 16	43
Totals	74	31	105
$\chi^2 = 2.0676$ DF = 1 Not Significant at the .05 Level			

*Expected frequencies

3b. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on the Dogmatism Scale between social studies teachers with an urban background and social studies teachers with a rural background.

The computed χ^2 yielded a value of .0841 (Table IX). With one degree of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 3.84 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of social studies teachers with an urban background and those social studies teachers with a rural background.

TABLE IX
SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A χ^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN TEACHERS GROUPS--TEACHERS' BACKGROUND AND
TEACHERS' DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON
ROKEACH'S DOGMATISM SCALE

Teachers' Background	Distribution of Scores on Dogmatism Scale		
	40-159	160-280	Totals
Urban	(29.77)* 29	(16.24)* 17	46
Rural	(58.24)* 59	(31.24)* 31	90
Totals	88	48	136
$\chi^2 = .0841$ DF = 1 Not Significant at the .05 Level			

*Expected frequencies

3c. Null Hypothesis. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on the Dogmatism Scale between male social studies teachers and female social studies teachers.

The computed χ^2 yielded a value of 1.6708 (Table X). With one degree of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 3.84 was needed to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance (45:249). The conclusion was that there were no significant differences in the distribution of scores of male social studies teachers and female social studies teachers.

TABLE X
SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A χ^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHERS' SEX AND TEACHERS'
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON ROKEACH'S
DOGMATISM SCALE

Sex of Teacher	Distribution of Scores on Dogmatism Scale		
	40-159	160-280	Totals
Male	(70.05)* 67	(36.95)* 40	107
Female	(20.95)* 24	(11.05)* 8	32
Totals	91	48	139
$\chi^2 = 1.6708$ DF = 1 Not Significant at the .05 Level			

*Expected frequencies

No significant differences were revealed in the preceding three χ^2 tests of a distribution of respondents' scores on the Dogmatism Scale. It seemed appropriate, with the information available, to compute another χ^2 test to examine a conclusion of Soderbergh that was discussed in Chapter II. In an article, Soderbergh (28) concluded that some veteran teachers were excessively dogmatic. His finding was not supported in this sample of Oklahoma social studies teachers. A χ^2 test was computed comparing a distribution of social studies teachers' scores on the Dogmatism Scale using the variable of teaching experience. The computed χ^2 yielded a value of 3.40 (Table XI). With one degree of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 3.84 was needed to be significant at the .05 level (45:249). Although the computed value was significant at the .10 level, Soderbergh's conclusion was not confirmed in this study.

4. What is the relationship between social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor (as indicated by their scores on Part I of the PWAS) and the welfare recipient rate of the counties where they worked?

The computed Point Biserial Correlation yielded a value of .0859. Bruning and Kintz (48:166) indicated that a t-test was appropriate for testing the significance of the Point Biserial Correlation. In the t-test for significance, the hypothesis tested was that $r_{pb} = 0$. The computed t-test yielded a value of .8707. With 102 degrees of freedom, a value greater than 1.98 was necessary for significance at the .05 level with a two-tailed test (48:219). The conclusion was that there was no significant relationship between social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor and the welfare recipient rate of the counties where they worked.

TABLE XI
 SUMMARY OF THE DATA FOR A χ^2 TEST OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE
 BETWEEN TEACHER GROUPS--TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND
 TEACHERS' DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON
 ROKEACH'S DOGMATISM SCALE

Teaching Experience	Distribution of Scores on Dogmatism Scale		
	40-159	160-280	Totals
0-10 years	(61.3)*	(31.7)*	
	66	27	93
More than 10 years	(27.7)*	(14.3)*	
	23	19	42
Totals	89	46	135
$\chi^2 = 3.40$	DF = 1	Not Significant at the .05 Level	

*Expected frequencies

5. What is the relationship between the knowledge of welfare facts (as indicated by their scores on Part II of the PWAS) and the welfare recipient rate of the counties in which they worked?

The computed Point Biserial Correlation yielded a value of .1595. As discussed in the preceding paragraph, Bruning and Kintz's (48:155) t-test for significance of r_{pb} was utilized. The computed t-test yielded a value of 1.6316. With 102 degrees of freedom, a value greater than 1.98 was necessary for significance at the .05 level with a two-tailed test (48:219). The conclusion was that there was no significant relationship between teachers' knowledge of welfare facts and the welfare recipient rate of the counties where they worked.

Although the correlation between the knowledge of welfare facts and the recipient rate of the counties where social studies teachers worked was not significant, some notable differences were found. Part II of the PWAS consisted of 14 factual questions about the poor. Questions one and two concerned the poor on a national level, 3 to 12 related to the poor on a state level, and questions 13 and 14 involved the poor in the county where each teacher was working. (Appendix D, Section IV) The percentages of correct answers by respondents to each of these parts were 31.9 percent, 35.4 percent, and 44.2 percent, respectively. (Appendix M) The percentage of correct answers for all questions was only 35.9 percent. On questions 13 and 14 involving the poor where each teacher worked, 41.9 percent of the teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties knew what public assistance program received the largest amount of money (question 13) and 61.3 percent knew what ethnic group had the largest number of dependent children on welfare in their county (question 14). (Appendix M) In comparison, social studies teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties obtained only 30.2 percent and 48.8 percent of these two questions correctly.

Summary of Findings

Chapter IV has presented the procedural treatment and the statistical analysis of data collected through the use of a four-part instrument. Section 1 of the instrument consisted of seven items of biographical information, Section 2 was Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, and Sections 3 and 4 consisted of a two-part Poverty and Welfare Attitude Scale. The questions with data were presented with an appropriate

discussion concerning the statistical tests used and the results obtained. Statistical confidence was specified at the .05 confidence level for the standardized tests. No significant differences were revealed in the tests for independent groups. No significant correlational values were revealed in the tests for relationships.

Chapter V will present a summary, findings, conclusions, further considerations, and recommendations for further research in areas related to this study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was designed to examine social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor and to determine the relationship between their attitudes and their knowledge of factual information concerning the poor and the various welfare programs designed to assist the poor. An additional concern of this study was to examine the extent that social studies teachers' belief systems were open or closed as measured by the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale.

Summary

A review of related literature seemed to reveal some specific data in relation to this problem.

Poverty in the United States has been and continues to be a real and costly social problem (24). Part of the complexities of this problem has been attributed to an image of the poor that has been constructed and perpetuated by a demeaning American attitude toward the poor (8:21).

In 1968 poverty in Oklahoma varied from a high of 28 per 100 on welfare rolls in one county to a low of less than 2 per 100 (22).

Rokeach (21:57) defined an individual as open- or closed-minded in relation to his ability to incorporate new information that is counter to his established belief. Allport (19) and Sarnoff (27) indicated

that the judgement process was biased when a person's attitudes were involved in an issue. Concerning an attitude toward the poor, there was the possibility that social studies teachers with closed belief systems would not be able to incorporate relevant material concerning the poor unless that material was consistent with their attitude toward the poor.

Dogmatism studies of teachers were inconclusive, but open-minded and non-rigid thinking teachers performed significantly better in studies by Blankenship and Hoy (31) and by Solomon (33).

With social studies teachers charged with the selection of course content and with the social issue of poverty of concern in the social studies area (17), it seemed appropriate to examine the attitudes toward the poor of these teachers.

Charter (39) indicated that teachers rewarded middle-class values in the classroom, and Deutscher and Thompson (40) suggested that middle-class attitudes toward the poor were demeaning in nature. Other studies (37, 38) appeared to confirm that the poverty child's failure to succeed in the educational environment was, in part, due to an unsympathetic teachers' attitude toward this group.

In light of these data, an investigation into the attitudes of social studies teachers toward the poor seemed to have merit.

A stratified, randomized process was used to obtain the sample of social studies teachers. All public secondary high schools in Oklahoma were stratified into three groups according to the number of secondary teachers each school had listed in the Oklahoma Education Directory (42). A total of 175 schools were randomly selected for this study, with one social studies teacher to be selected from Group I schools, two from

Group II schools, and three from Group III schools. A total of 201 teachers were identified randomly from a list of social studies teachers which each school's principal supplied to the investigator.

The instrument used in this survey consisted of a section of questions devoted to biographical information, Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale, and a two-part Poverty and Welfare Attitude Scale (hereafter referred to as PWAS). The development of the PWAS was described in Chapter III of this study.

The major objective of this study was to examine the following questions:

1. Will different biographical characteristics of social studies teachers make a difference in their attitudes toward the poor?

To answer this question seven sub-questions were proposed, and the null hypothesis of each sub-question tested using a χ^2 test as described by Siegel (45). Attitudes toward the poor were determined by respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS. These scores were then classified into a distribution of scores and compared using the variables of biographical characteristics. The null hypothesis of each sub-question tested is stated below.

1a. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers with an urban background and social studies teachers with a rural background.

1b. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers with six hours or less of sociology and social studies teachers with more than six hours of sociology.

1c. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part

I of the PWAS between social studies teachers with six hours or less of economics and social studies teachers with more than six hours of economics.

1d. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers with ten years or less of teaching experience and social studies teachers with more than ten years teaching experience.

1e. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties and social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties.

1f. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between social studies teachers under the age of 30, ages 30 to 44, and social studies teachers above age 45.

1g. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS between male social studies teachers and female social studies teachers.

2. What is the relationship of social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor and their knowledge of welfare facts concerning the poor?

Respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS were used to determine attitudes toward the poor, and respondents' scores on Part II of the PWAS were used to indicate their knowledge of welfare facts concerning the poor. The Pearson r (46) was used to determine correlation, and a critical-ratio z -test by Bruning and Kintz (48) was used to test the significance of the value computed for r .

3. Will different biographical characteristics of social studies

teachers make a difference in their attitude of open- or closed-mindedness?

To answer this question three sub-questions were proposed, and the null hypothesis of each sub-question tested using a χ^2 test described by Siegel (45:175). It seemed appropriate to construct a fourth χ^2 test in order to test a conclusion of Soderbergh (28) that was reported in Chapter I. Respondents' scores on the Dogmatism Scale were classified into a distribution of scores and compared using four variables of biographical characteristics. The null hypothesis of each sub-question tested is stated below:

3a. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on the Dogmatism Scale between social studies teachers in high welfare recipient rate counties and social studies teachers in low welfare recipient rate counties.

3b. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on the Dogmatism Scale between social studies teachers with an urban background and social studies teachers with a rural background.

3c. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on the Dogmatism Scale between male social studies teachers and female social studies teachers.

3d. There is no difference in the distribution of scores on the Dogmatism Scale between social studies teachers with ten years or less teaching experience and social studies teachers with more than ten years teaching experience.

4. What is the relationship between the attitudes of social studies teachers and the welfare recipient rate of the counties where teachers worked?

Attitudes toward the poor were determined by respondents' scores on Part I of the PWAS. Respondents were classified as teaching in high or low welfare recipient rate counties, and the Point Biserial Correlation (47) was utilized to determine the correlation. The computed correlational value was tested for significance using a t-test by Bruning and Kintz (48).

5. What is the relationship between the knowledge of information concerning the poor of social studies teachers and the welfare recipient rate of the counties where teachers worked?

Social studies teachers' knowledge of the poor was determined by respondents' scores on Part II of the PWAS. Respondents were classified as teaching in high or low welfare recipient rate counties, and a correlational value was computed and tested as indicated in Question 4.

Findings

The findings of this study considered to be most significant were the following:

1. When biographical characteristics of social studies teachers were categorized and compared using their distribution of scores on Part I of the PWAS, no significant differences were found to exist.
2. The computed correlation between social studies teachers' scores on Part I of the PWAS and their scores on Part II of the PWAS was found to be not significantly different from zero correlation.
3. When biographical characteristics of social studies teachers were categorized and compared using their distribution of scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, no significant differences were found to exist.
4. The computed correlation between social studies teachers' scores

on Part I of the PWAS and the welfare recipient rate of the counties where teachers worked was found to be not significantly different from zero correlation.

5. The computed correlation between social studies teachers' scores on Part II of the PWAS and the welfare recipient rate of the counties where teachers worked was found to be not significantly different from zero correlation.

Conclusions

1. No significant differences were found in the attitudes of social studies teachers toward the poor in spite of the differences in the teachers' biographical characteristics of background (urban or rural), hours of sociology, hours of economics, teaching experience, welfare recipient rate of the counties where they worked, their age, and their sex.
2. It would appear that social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor have been established independently of their knowledge of factual information concerning the poor. The fact that this sample of social studies teachers answered correctly only 36 percent of the factual questions on Part II of the PWAS (Appendix M) also would appear to indicate that as a group social studies teachers were unaware of many pertinent facts concerning the poor.
3. No significant differences were found in the attitude of open- or closed-mindedness of social studies teachers in spite of the differences in their biographical characteristics of background (urban or rural), teaching experience, welfare recipient rate of the counties where they worked, and their sex.

4. Social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor appeared to be established independent of the degree of poverty within the counties where they worked.

5. There appeared to be no significant relationship between the degree of poverty within the counties where social studies teachers worked and their knowledge of pertinent facts concerning the poor. Those social studies teachers in counties with the highest incidence of poverty averaged less than 40 percent correct answers to two questions involving the poor within the county where they worked. (Appendix M) It would also appear that social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor in those counties with the highest incidence of poverty were established independent of the degree of poverty within the county where they worked and also independent of their knowledge of factual information concerning the poor within their county.

Recommendations

The recommendations by the investigator basically stem from two items of information gleaned from the study. The first is the seeming lack of information about the poor by social studies teachers. If social studies teachers are to treat the problem of poverty adequately in the classroom, it appears that some basic background of information concerning this group must be required. The following recommendations are derived from this item of information:

1. Resource units on poverty, including national, state, and county information about the poor, can be presented as part of the regular college preparation for prospective teachers in the social studies area.
2. If, as some indicate, poverty children need teachers that are

sympathetic toward the poor, then one recommendation is to inventory prospective teachers' attitudes to determine their attitudes toward the poor and to make recommendations for their placement in schools.

3. Social studies curricula directors can inventory their staff of social studies teachers to determine their attitudes toward the poor and can reassign, where possible, teachers with sympathetic attitudes in those schools with a high percentage of poverty children.

4. A teacher retraining program can be developed that will provide not only formal information about the poor but will also provide some vicarious experiences with those individuals living in poverty and/or enrolled in welfare programs. A model teacher retraining program can include some of the following:

a) A cooperative training period with teachers serving as aides to welfare workers as they meet with and assist those individuals on welfare can be developed.

b) Interviews with the poor can be conducted by the teacher on a one to one basis with one interview to be conducted in the home environment. Additional interviews with the non-poor may provide some insight for comparison of the reality of poverty and what is generalized by the public.

c) Seminars or workshops on poverty can be conducted at a county level. These seminars or workshops can incorporate welfare workers, poverty people, university personnel, students, and political leaders so that the spectrum of problems and possible solutions can be covered.

d) Fully-developed units on poverty can be presented at workshops or seminars at the county level using the technique of micro-teaching.

e) Teachers can prepare food stamp budgets and, where possible,

can experience living under the restrictions of these budgets. In addition, teachers can prepare a variety of menus using food items available in counties under a commodity distribution program.

f) Pretests and post tests of teachers' knowledge of and attitudes toward the poor can be administered to determine if any changes occur as a result of these programs.

The second item of information derived from this study is that in spite of the intensity of poverty in some counties, the attitudes of social studies teachers toward the poor in counties with the highest incidence of poverty appear to be similar to those teachers in counties with the lowest incidence of poverty. Although the above appears to be true, another factor may need to be considered; that is, to the investigator a given attitude score on Part I of the PWAS in low poverty areas will not be equal to the same score in high poverty areas because of the difference in the degree of poverty. The alternative to this statement is to consider that this given attitude is located at either pole of the continuum ranging from sympathetic to unsympathetic toward the poor.

The recommendations derived from this item of information relate to future studies in this area.

1. A study can be initiated to determine if social studies teachers have a sympathetic attitude or an unsympathetic attitude toward the poor.
2. A study can be initiated to determine if there are other factors that have an influence on social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor which are not considered in this study.
3. A study can be initiated to determine the relationship between social studies teachers' attitudes toward the poor and the classroom

practice of these teachers in the presentation of this social problem.

4. A study can be initiated to determine if there is a difference in the classroom practice of open- or closed-minded social studies teachers in the presentation of the problem of poverty.

Other recommendations are as follows:

1. The Department of Welfare can place on its mailing list each secondary school in the state so that social studies teachers will have access to all of its published materials.
2. The Department of Welfare can prepare a special publication on welfare facts and myths for direct use by teachers in the classroom.

Very little information is available concerning social studies teachers' knowledge of and attitudes toward the poor. The over-all effect of this study is in the degree it contributes to a better understanding of social studies teachers, and the interest it generates in further studies of teachers' attitudes toward the poor.

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APPENDIX A

FIRST LETTER TO HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

23 December 1970

Dear

The social studies curriculum in recent years has been the subject of many research projects. In general, the focus of these investigations was to restructure course content of a specific subject to facilitate the process of inquiry. As content in the social studies curriculum continues to expand, priorities for including or excluding specific content will be determined by the teacher's attitude toward that content. If this is true, the question that remains is, "What are the attitudes of social studies teachers toward specific content areas?"

As a graduate student in Social Studies Education, I am attempting to survey social studies teachers within the state to find out more about their attitudes, beliefs, and knowledge of one specific content area. For the purpose of this study, only those social studies teachers will be included that:

1. Teach at least three (3) classes of any of the social studies subjects. (History, Economics, Government, Sociology, etc.)
2. Teach classes that are made up of students that are basically sophomores, juniors, and/or seniors.

A random sample will be selected from this group of teachers and mailed a questionnaire at a later date.

The results of this study or of any study depend on the responses of the participants. I will be greatly in your debt if you will take a few minutes to list on the enclosed, pre-addressed, postcard, all of your social studies teachers that meet the above requirements.

Sincerely,

Dale O. Roark

APPENDIX B

FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

HELP!!

I realize that today is another busy one and I'm sure this letter will not be a "bit of honey" to further sweeten it for you.

Recently, though, I sent you a letter concerning a proposed research survey of social studies teachers throughout Oklahoma. In this letter I enclosed a pre-addressed postcard and asked that you write on it the names of all your social studies teachers that teach three or more classes of any of the social studies subjects.

I realize that often letters such as these are put aside and lost while the real work of the day is accomplished. I also realize that many administrators do not have the time or inclination to fill out requests such as this. But please, will you take a few minutes to list your social studies teachers that meet these requirements or put "none" on the postcard and drop it in the mail?

I have a genuine feeling that this survey of teacher attitudes is a worthy one, but without your help it can not be completed.

Any consideration given this request will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Dale O. Roark

APPENDIX C

FIRST LETTER TO SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

GRADUATE RESEARCH
Oklahoma State University
Dale O. Roark

The following questionnaire attempts to survey social studies teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and knowledge of one specific content area, that of poverty and welfare. As content in the social studies curriculum continues to expand, priorities for including or excluding specific content will be determined by the teacher's attitude toward that content. If this is true, the question that remains is, "What are the attitudes of social studies teachers toward these specific content areas?"

Poverty and welfare is one of the social issues of today that is both highly controversial and enduring. As a subject for content in the social studies curriculum, many problems must be resolved before a resource unit can be designed for use by social studies teachers. The information obtained from this questionnaire should provide a base for designing such a resource unit. In addition, this information should provide an indication of the basic attitudes of teachers, as well as to discover a common base of knowledge that social studies teachers have about those in poverty.

Research in education is difficult even under ideal conditions, but it is most difficult when conducted through a mailed questionnaire such as this. The success of this survey depends on you. Every precaution will be taken to treat your responses confidentially. Names are not asked for or required, so your responses are anonymous. Only general information is requested concerning each teacher, and the total time required for most to complete the questionnaire is about twenty minutes.

If you desire a summary of this survey, and wish to remain anonymous from your responses, I will be most happy to send you one upon request. Thanking you in advance, I remain

Sincerely,

Dale O. Roark

APPENDIX D

INSTRUMENTS

Graduate Research

Oklahoma State University

Dale O. Roark

GENERAL INFORMATION

Male _____ Female _____ Age: under 30 _____ 30 to 45 _____ Above 45 _____

Number of years teaching _____ County You Teach In _____

Would you say your background is: Rural _____ Urban _____

Number of College Hours in Economics _____ Sociology _____

The following statements represent what the general public thinks and feels about a number of important social and personal questions. The best answer to each statement is your PERSONAL OPINION. There are many different and opposing points of view; you may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others; whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same as you do.

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending how you feel in each case.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| +1 I agree a little. | -1 I disagree a little. |
| +2 I agree on the whole. | -2 I disagree on the whole. |
| +3 I agree very much. | -3 I disagree very much. |

- _____ 1. The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.
- _____ 2. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion, I just can't stop.
- _____ 3. Most people are failures and it is the system which is responsible for this.
- _____ 4. In times like these, a person must be pretty selfish if he considers primarily his own happiness.
- _____ 5. It is by returning to our glorious and forgotten past that real social progress can be achieved.
- _____ 6. The highest form of government is a democracy, and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are most intelligent.
- _____ 7. Fundamentally, the world we live in is a pretty lonesome place.
- _____ 8. There is so much to be done and so little time to do it in.
- _____ 9. While the use of force is wrong by and large, it is sometimes the only way possible to advance a noble idea.
- _____ 10. In a discussion I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.
- _____ 11. A man who does not believe in some great cause has not really lived.
- _____ 12. If I had to choose between happiness and greatness, I'd choose greatness.
- _____ 13. It is only natural for a person to have a guilty conscious.
- _____ 14. There is nothing new under the sun.
- _____ 15. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders and experts who can be trusted.
- _____ 16. Young people should not have too easy access to books which are likely to confuse them.
- _____ 17. Communism and Catholicism have nothing in common.
- _____ 18. Most people just don't give a "damn" for others.
- _____ 19. It is only when a person devotes himself to an idea or cause that life becomes meaningful.
- _____ 20. It is better to be a dead hero than a live coward.
- _____ 21. In the long run, the best way to live is to pick friends and associates whose tastes and beliefs are the same as one's own.
- _____ 22. The worst crime a person could commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.
- _____ 23. I'd like it if I could find someone who could tell me how to solve my personal problems.

- _____ 24. In the history of mankind there have probably been just a handful of really great thinkers.
- _____ 25. My hardest battles are with myself.
- _____ 26. When it comes to differences of opinion in religion, we must be careful not to compromise with those who believe differently from the way we do.
- _____ 27. A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness is beneath contempt.
- _____ 28. The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is only the future that counts.
- _____ 29. Even though freedom of speech for all groups is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.
- _____ 30. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit that he is wrong.
- _____ 31. If a man is to accomplish his mission in life, it is sometimes necessary to gamble "all or nothing at all."
- _____ 32. In a heated discussion people have a way of bringing up irrelevant issues rather than sticking to the main issues.
- _____ 33. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.
- _____ 34. The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.
- _____ 35. There is no use in wasting your money on newspapers which you know in advance are just plain propaganda.
- _____ 36. Most people just don't know what's good for them.
- _____ 37. There are certain "isms" which are really the same even though those who believe in these "isms" try to tell you they are different.
- _____ 38. It is only natural for a person to be rather fearful of the future.
- _____ 39. In a heated discussion I generally become so absorbed in what I am going to say that I forget to listen to what others are saying.
- _____ 40. Of all the different philosophies which exist in this world, there is probably only one which is correct.
- _____ 41. At times I think that I'm no good at all.
- _____ 42. I'm sure I'm being talked about.
- _____ 43. There are a number of people I have come to hate because of the things they stand for.
- _____ 44. Unfortunately, a good many people with whom I have discussed important social and moral problems don't really understand what's going on.
- _____ 45. It is sometimes necessary to resort to force to advance an idea one strongly believes in.
- _____ 46. A person who gets enthusiastic about too many causes is likely to be a pretty "wishy-washy" sort of person.
- _____ 47. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.
- _____ 48. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our own side.
- _____ 49. It's all too true that people just won't practice what they preach.
- _____ 50. If given the chance, I'd do something of great benefit to the world.
- _____ 51. In times like these it is often necessary to be more on guard against ideas put out by people or groups in one's own camp than those in the opposing camps.
- _____ 52. I have often felt that strangers were looking at me critically.
- _____ 53. There are two kinds of people in this world: (1) those who are for the truth, or (2) those who are against the truth.
- _____ 54. A group which tolerates too much differences of opinion among its own members cannot exist for long.
- _____ 55. I sometimes have a tendency to be too critical of the ideas of others.
- _____ 56. To compromise with our political opponents is to be guilty of appeasement.
- _____ 57. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man, like Einstein, or Beethoven, or Shakespeare.
- _____ 58. Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays aren't worth the paper they are printed on.
- _____ 59. Even though I have a lot of faith in the intelligence and wisdom of the common man I must say that the masses behave stupidly at times.
- _____ 60. It is only natural that a person would have a much better acquaintance with ideas he believes in than with ideas he opposes.

Those individuals living in poverty, along with their problems and their various welfare programs, evoke varied feelings from the general public. The following questionnaire has been designed to find out what your feelings are towards these individuals and their programs. Your answers are not dependent on how knowledgeable you are about facts concerning the poor, but are intended to only register how you feel concerning various statements about the poor and their programs.

These statements will evoke many different feelings of varying intensity; you may find yourself agreeing strongly with some statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others; whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same as you do.

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| +1 I agree a little. | -1 I disagree a little. |
| +2 I agree on the whole. | -2 I disagree on the whole. |
| +3 I agree very much. | -3 I disagree very much. |
- _____ 1. Individuals who are poor should be working if they are physically able.
 - _____ 2. Only a small percentage of those on welfare rolls are there through fraudulent means.
 - _____ 3. Everyone who is poor and is physically able to work should be denied welfare payments.
 - _____ 4. Circumstances beyond the control of the individual is more often than not the cause of an individual being poor.
 - _____ 5. One major problem of those living in poverty is their refusal to accept employment.
 - _____ 6. Welfare payments provide an adequate standard of living for the poor.
 - _____ 7. As many suggest, the poor actually pay higher prices for goods and services than do middle income groups.
 - _____ 8. All things considered, our public welfare system does more harm than it does good.
 - _____ 9. Only a very small percentage of those on welfare lack sufficient skills to qualify for employment.
 - _____ 10. Welfare payments to the poor are too high.
 - _____ 11. One major problem of those on welfare is the increasing rate at which welfare recipients have illegitimate children.
 - _____ 12. It is difficult to be sympathetic toward those on welfare because of the number of them driving late model cars.
 - _____ 13. In grading students, a teacher should not take into consideration the socio-economic background of those students.
 - _____ 14. Everyone who is physically able to work but is unemployed, should accept any type of work that is available.

The following part of the questionnaire has been designed to take an inventory of what information, concerning the poor, is common to social studies teachers throughout the state. It is important that you continue answering this part of the questionnaire without stopping. An accurate inventory would provide a base for colleges to build resource units about the poor and their programs and to incorporate these units in teacher training. In addition, this inventory will provide the welfare department with an index on what information should be disseminated from their public information department.

Select one of the answers to each statement that is correct or that you think is most correct. Place that letter to the left of the number of that statement. This part should take you about five minutes.

- _____ 1. Federal Government estimates (for 1970) of individuals living in poverty in the United States range from:

A. 1 to 10 million	D. 30 to 40 million
B. 10 to 20 million	E. 40 to 50 million
C. 20 to 30 million	
- _____ 2. Federal Government estimates (for 1970) of the total number of non-white classified as in poverty range from:

A. 1 to 10 million	D. 31 to 40 million
B. 11 to 20 million	E. 41 to 50 million
C. 21 to 30 million	

APPENDIX E

SECOND LETTER TO SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

GRADUATE RESEARCH
Oklahoma State University
Dale O. Roark

It's difficult to anticipate every teacher's reaction to a mailed questionnaire such as the one I recently sent you, but I'll attempt to answer some questions that might be slowing your response.

First, I am not trying to identify any one teacher! In fact, the responses of one teacher will have absolutely no meaning if considered individually. One can only draw generalizations from a summation of all teacher responses. Second, when a questionnaire is received, the identification card with that number is removed and destroyed; hence the need for you to enclose or mail a separate request for a summary of the survey. The number allows me an opportunity to send follow-up letters to get a questionnaire returned and by disposing of the identification card your responses remain anonymous. Third, although the first part of the questionnaire seems unnecessary and the questions somewhat redundant, I assure you that this part of the instrument in itself is highly respected in the field of education for determining a range of general attitudes. I think the logic of the survey is now apparent, from general attitudes to a specific attitude to content knowledge. Fourth, although the questionnaire appears long and the time given to complete it short, it's your feelings upon reading the questions that is wanted and not a reaction after a period of meditation. So the time given should be ample.

I know how pressed for time most teachers are in completing the real work of the day, but I feel that this survey can make a worthy contribution to education, especially to social studies education. I've enclosed another copy of the questionnaire, will you take the few minutes required to fill it in and return it as soon as possible.

Sincerely,

Dale O. Roark

APPENDIX F

THIRD LETTER TO SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

In any study conducted through a mailed questionnaire, there is an accepted minimum return necessary to establish reliability. Although about 150 teachers have responded, I still need a minimum of 30 additional responses to meet the acceptable limits.

As a teacher, I can sympathize with your position. The questionnaire is long, and does seem to be somewhat personal to the extent of prying. I can only defend this by saying that the last thing I want to do is to antagonize or demean any teacher or the teaching profession. I still feel this to be a worthy survey, but allow me to appeal my case in a different manner. This is not a survey funded through the University. It is, hopefully, the culmination of several years of summer schools, a painful year of residency, a few hundred hours of work, and several hundreds of borrowed dollars. The last step toward a Doctors of Education Degree depends on a 50 percent return from this last letter.

One teacher returned an unanswered questionnaire with the notation, "What the He--," I think she probably meant, "Go to He--" instead. If you feel like this person, that you cannot overcome those painful parts in order to complete the questionnaire, then file it in the wastebasket-- but use the stamp that I've enclosed unlicked. I don't feel this survey will be my answer to number 50 on the questionnaire, and at this point I'm painfully aware of number 33. Will you take a few minutes to help me?

Sincerely,

Dale O. Roark

APPENDIX G

QUESTIONS TESTED FOR PART I OF THE FWAS

ATTITUDE QUESTIONS TESTED FOR PART I OF THE PWAS

Those individuals living in poverty, along with their problems and their various welfare programs, evoke varied feelings from individuals throughout the state and the nation. The following questionnaire has been designed to find out what your feelings are towards these individuals and their welfare programs. Your answers are not dependent on how knowledgeable you are about facts concerning the poor, but are intended to register how you feel concerning various statements about the poor and their programs.

Your feelings are scaled on a continuum from strongly agree to strongly disagree, with five intermediate points. Read each statement, then select one of the seven answers below that most nearly indicates your feelings. Place the numerical equivalent of your answer to the left of that statement.

+1--strongly agree	+5--disagree to some extent
+2--agree	+6--disagree
+3--agree to some extent	+7--strongly disagree
+4--no opinion	

1. Individuals who are poor should be working if they are physically able.*
2. The majority of people living in poverty are part of minority ethnic groups.
3. Less than five percent of those on welfare rolls are there through fraudulent means.*
4. Everyone who is poor and is physically able to work should be denied welfare payments.*
5. One major problem of those on welfare is the increasing rate at which illegitimate children are born to welfare recipients.*
6. Circumstances beyond the control of the individual is more often than not the cause of an individual being poor.*
7. A majority of welfare money is spent on aid to families with dependent children.
8. One major problem of those living in poverty is their refusal to accept employment.*
9. Only a very small percentage of the poor own cars and television sets.
10. Welfare payments provide an adequate standard of living for the poor.*

- __11. As many suggest, the poor actually pay higher prices for goods and services than do middle income groups.*
- __12. Everyone who is physically able to work but is unemployed, should accept any type of work that is available.*
- __13. Welfare payments to the poor are too high.*
- __14. One major problem of the poor is that they mismanage the welfare aid they receive.
- __15. Everyone who is unemployed could get a job if they were willing to work for a lower wage.
- __16. Most of the people on welfare are either too old or too young to work or are blind or otherwise disabled.
- __17. All things considered, our public welfare system does more harm than it does good.*
- __18. Welfare payments to the poor should provide enough money for some recreation in addition to providing for necessities.
- __19. Only a very small percentage of those on welfare lack sufficient skills to qualify for employment.*
- __20. In assigning grades to students, a teacher should not take into account the students' socio-economic background.*
- __21. It is difficult to be sympathetic toward those on welfare because of the number of them driving late model cars.*

*Questions that were used as Part I of the PWAS

APPENDIX H

COMPUTED t VALUES OF QUESTIONS TESTED FOR PART I OF THE PWAS

t VALUES OF ATTITUDE QUESTIONS TESTED FOR PART I OF THE PWAS

Question	t Value
1.	4.41**
2.	1.39
3.	3.94**
4.	7.44**
5.	4.98**
6.	6.37**
7.	2.08*
8.	8.55**
9.	2.19*
10.	5.25**
11.	3.84**
12.	6.15**
13.	6.00**
14.	2.89*
15.	5.17*
16.	1.70
17.	4.52**
18.	4.37*
19.	3.76**
20.	2.51**
21.	5.56**

*Questions that differed significantly

**Questions that differed significantly and that were used as Part I of the PWAS

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONS TESTED FOR PART II OF THE PWAS

QUESTIONS EVALUATED BY A PANEL OF JUDGES

FOR PART II OF THE PWAS

On this part of the questionnaire, select the answer to each statement that is most correct. Circle the letter by your answer and then place that letter to the left of the number of that statement.

- ___ 1.* Federal Government estimates for 1970 of individuals living in poverty in the United States range from:
- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| a. 1 to 10 million | d. 30 to 40 million |
| b. 10 to 20 million | e. 40 to 50 million |
| c. 20 to 30 million | |
- ___ 2. Rural poverty in the United States, according to Federal Government estimates, accounts for what percent of the total number classified in poverty.
- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| a. 1 to 10 percent | d. 31 to 40 percent |
| b. 11 to 20 percent | e. 41 to 50 percent |
| c. 21 to 30 percent | |
- ___ 3.* Federal Government estimates for 1970 of the total number of non-white classified as in poverty ranges from:
- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| a. 1 to 10 million | d. 31 to 40 million |
| b. 11 to 20 million | e. 41 to 50 million |
| c. 21 to 30 million | |
- ___ 4.* Participation in the Federal Government Food Stamp Program has:
- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| a. decreased slightly | d. increased slightly |
| b. decreased sizeably | e. increased sizeably |
| c. remained about the same | |
- ___ 5.* Total welfare payments from both Federal and State monies in Oklahoma for the fiscal year 1969-70 range from:
- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| a. 50 to 100 million | d. 200 to 250 million |
| b. 100 to 150 million | e. 250 to 300 million |
| c. 150 to 200 million | |
- ___ 6.* The largest number of welfare recipients in Oklahoma are:
- | | |
|-----------|------------|
| a. Negro | c. White |
| b. Indian | d. Mexican |

- ___7.* In Welfare payments per capita, Oklahoma's rank in the nation is:
- a. Within the top 5
 - b. In the second 5 from the top
 - c. In the bottom 5
 - d. In the second 5 from the bottom
 - e. About midway
- ___8.* The average number of Oklahomans on welfare rolls during the 1969-70 fiscal year was:
- a. Less than 100,000
 - b. 100,000 to 150,000
 - c. 150,000 to 200,000
 - d. 200,000 to 250,000
 - e. 250,000 to 300,000
- ___9. Of the total expenditures in fiscal year 1969-70 for welfare in Oklahoma, the percent spent in direct aid to families with dependent children (exclusive of medical services) was:
- a. Less than 5 percent
 - b. 5 to 12 percent
 - c. 12 to 18 percent
 - d. 18 to 24 percent
 - e. 24 to 30 percent
- ___10.* During the 1960's, Oklahoma mainly participated in the following welfare program:
- a. A negative income tax program
 - b. A food stamp program
 - c. A guaranteed annual income program
 - d. A commodity distribution program
 - e. None of the above
- ___11. The percent of households in Oklahoma headed by individuals 65 and over that were enrolled in Old Age Assistance programs in fiscal year 1969-70 was:
- a. Less than 3 percent
 - b. 4 to 10 percent
 - c. 15 to 20 percent
 - d. 20 to 30 percent
 - e. 30 to 40 percent
- ___12.* Of the total expenditures on welfare in fiscal year 1969-70 in Oklahoma, the percent spent on Aid for Medical Services was:
- a. 10 to 20 percent
 - b. 20 to 30 percent
 - c. 30 to 40 percent
 - d. 40 to 50 percent
 - e. Above 50 percent
- ___13.* The Federal Government provides approximately what percent of the total money expenditures for welfare in Oklahoma:
- a. Less than 25 percent
 - b. About 33 percent
 - c. About 50 percent
 - d. About 66 percent
 - e. More than 75 percent

- 14.* In the fiscal year 1969-70, welfare payments per capita in Oklahoma range from:
- a. Less than 50 dollars
 - b. 50 to 75 dollars
 - c. 75 to 100 dollars
 - d. 100 to 125 dollars
 - e. Above 125 dollars
- 15.* In Oklahoma for the fiscal year 1969-70, the average welfare payment for each child under the Aid to Families with Dependent Children program was:
- a. 30 to 40 dollars
 - b. 40 to 50 dollars
 - c. 50 to 60 dollars
 - d. 60 to 70 dollars
 - e. Above 70 dollars
16. The number of individuals on welfare per 100 population in your county is:
- a. Less than 10.9 per 100
 - b. 11.0 to 20.9 per 100
 - c. 21.0 to 30.9 per 100
 - d. 31.0 to 40.9 per 100
 - e. 41.0 to 50.9 per 100
17. Expenditures for Public Assistance (Old Age Assistance, Aid to Families with Dependent Children, Aid to the Blind and the Disabled) in your county for fiscal year 1969-70 was:
- a. Below \$100,000
 - b. \$100,000 to \$300,000
 - c. \$300,000 to \$600,000
 - d. \$600,000 to \$900,000
 - e. Above \$900,000
- 18.* In your county, the largest expenditure of money for Public Assistance is in the category of:
- a. Old Age Assistance
 - b. Aid to Families with Dependent Children
 - c. Aid to the Blind
 - d. Aid to the Disabled
 - e. None of the above
- 19.* The ethnic group with the largest number of dependent children of welfare rolls in your county is:
- a. Negro
 - b. Indian
 - c. White
 - d. Mexican
20. In expenditures for Public Assistance, your county ranks:
- a. Within the top 12 in payments
 - b. 13th to 30th
 - c. 31st to 45th
 - d. 46th to 60th
 - e. 61st to 77th

*Questions that were used as Part II of the PWAS

APPENDIX J

JUDGES EVALUATION OF QUESTIONS FOR PART II OF THE FWAS

JUDGES EVALUATION OF QUESTIONS PROPOSED
FOR PART II OF THE PWAS

Question Number	Judges That Concurred in the Selection of This Question
* 1.	six out of the seven judges
2.	four out of the seven judges
* 3.	five out of the seven judges
* 4.	six out of the seven judges
* 5.	seven out of the seven judges
* 6.	six out of the seven judges
* 7.	six out of the seven judges
* 8.	five out of the seven judges
9.	five out of the seven judges
*10.	five out of the seven judges
11.	four out of the seven judges
*12.	five out of the seven judges
*13.	seven out of the seven judges
*14.	six out of the seven judges
*15.	six out of the seven judges
16.	two out of the seven judges
17.	zero out of the seven judges
*18.	six out of the seven judges
*19.	seven out of the seven judges
20.	two out of the seven judges

*Questions that were used as Part II of the PWAS

APPENDIX K

RANKINGS OF OKLAHOMA COUNTIES BY WELFARE RECIPIENT RATES

PERCENT OF POPULATION RECEIVING PUBLIC ASSISTANCE

FISCAL YEAR 1968-1969

Counties	Recipient Rate Percentage	Counties	Recipient Rate Percentage
*1. Adair	28.0	40. Pottawatomie	8.8
*2. Choctaw	23.2	41. Cotton	8.7
*3. McCurtain	20.7	42. Kiowa	8.5
*4. Pushmataha	19.3	43. Creek	8.2
*5. McIntosh	19.0	44. McClain	8.1
*6. LeFlore	18.7	45. Jackson	8.1
*7. Johnston	18.3	46. Ottawa	8.0
*8. Sequoyah	18.3	47. Pawnee	7.9
*9. Delaware	18.0	48. Rogers	7.7
*10. Atoka	17.7	49. Blaine	7.0
*11. Okfuskee	17.2	50. Noble	6.9
*12. Haskell	17.0	51. Stephens	6.8
*13. Coal	15.5	52. Craig	6.7
*14. Cherokee	15.4	**53. Osage	6.2
*15. Wagoner	15.0	**54. Custer	6.1
*16. Marshall	14.9	**55. Oklahoma	6.1
*17. Seminole	14.6	**56. Roger Mills	5.6
*18. Hughes	14.5	**57. Dewey	5.3
*19. Latimer	13.8	**58. Tulsa	5.2
*20. Okmulgee	13.8	**59. Ellis	4.5
*21. Muskogee	13.3	**60. Payne	4.0
*22. Harmon	13.1	**61. Alfalfa	3.9
*23. Bryan	12.8	**62. Kay	3.8
*24. Tillman	12.0	**63. Harper	3.7
*25. Murray	11.7	**64. Garfield	3.4
26. Love	11.6	**65. Canadian	3.4
27. Jefferson	11.5	**66. Comanche	3.3
28. Mayes	11.4	**67. Cimarron	3.2
29. Carter	10.9	**68. Kingfisher	3.2
30. Beckham	10.5	**69. Woods	3.2
31. Caddo	10.4	**70. Washita	3.2
32. Nowata	10.2	**71. Grant	3.0
33. Greer	10.1	**72. Woodward	2.9
34. Pontotoc	10.0	**73. Washington	2.8
35. Logan	9.9	**74. Cleveland	2.6
36. Pittsburg	9.8	**75. Major	2.5
37. Grady	9.3	**76. Texas	2.4
38. Lincoln	9.0	**77. Beaver	1.7
39. Garvin	8.9		

*High welfare recipient rate counties

**Low welfare recipient rate counties

APPENDIX L

SCORES ON THE ROKEACH DOGMATISM SCALE, PART I AND II OF THE
PWAS AND THE IDENTIFICATION OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL
CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

SCORES ON THE ROKEACH DOGMATISM SCALE, PART I AND II OF THE PWAS AND THE IDENTIFICATION OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Dogma- tism Score	PWAS Scores		Sex		Age			Years of Teaching Experience		Background		Hours in Econ.		Hours in Socio.		Recipient Rate County		
	Part		M	F	Under 30	30-44	45 up	Above		Urban	Rural	Above		Above		Low	Mid.	High
	I	II						0-10	10			0-6	6	0-6	6			
168	75	2	x		x			x		x			x	x			x	
93	63	3	x			x		x			x	x	x				x	
95	57	6	x			x			x		x	x		x			x	
102	47	6	x				x		x			x		x			x	
163	59	0	x		x			x			x	x		x			x	
154	55	6	x		x			x			x	x		x			x	
122	51	6	x			x			x			x					x	
*	50	4	x		x			x		x		x			x		*	
121	36	4	x		x			x			x	x			x		x	
122	63	4	x			x		x			x	x		x			x	
121	53	5		x	x			x		x		x	x				x	
119	51	3	x			x		x		x		x		x			x	
130	55	3	x		x			x			x	x		x			x	
153	63	5	x			x			x		x	x			x		x	
134	93	5	x			x		x			x	x		x			x	
121	63	8	x				x	x			x	x		x			x	
134	54	7		x	x			x		x		x		x			x	
174	83	6	x		x			x			x	x		x			x	
161	52	5	x				x		x			x		x			x	
183	70	3	x		x			x		x		x		x			x	
172	49	5		x	x			x		x		x			x		x	

APPENDIX L (CONTINUED)

Dogma- tism Score	PWAS Scores		Sex		Age			Years of Teaching Experience		Background		Hours in Econ.		Hours in Socio.		Recipient Rate County		
	Part I	Part II	M	F	Under 30	30-44	45 up	0-10	Above 10	Urban	Rural	0-6	Above 6	0-6	Above 6	Low	Mid.	High
159	69	4		x			x	x		x			x	x			x	
200	60	4	x				x		x	x			x		x		x	
149	55	7	x			x			x		x				x		x	
144	56	2	x		x			x		x			x		x		x	
99	79	9	x		x			x		x			x		x		x	
226	86	4	x		x			x		x			x		x		x	
143	80	3	x			x		x			x		x			x	x	
102	48	5	x			x			x		x			x		x	x	
112	48	7	x			x		x		x			x		x		x	
137	37	6		x	x			x		x			x	x			x	
137	29	4	x		x			x		x			x		x		x	
142	70	2	x			x		x		x			x		x		x	
138	60	4	x			x			x		x			x			x	
142	59	9	x		x			x		x			x			x	x	
115	43	4		x		x		x			x		x		x		x	
160	88	3	x			x		x			x		x		x			x
162	43	3	x		x			x			x		x		x			x
109	56	6	x			x		x		x			x		x			x
153	40	9		x			x		x		x				x		x	
125	54	5		x		x		x			x			x				x
213	78	1	x		x			x		x			x		x			x
100	44	7	x			x		x		x					x			x
168	61	5	x		x			x			x		x	x				x
143	58	6	x		x			x		x			x	x				x

APPENDIX L (CONTINUED)

Dogma- tism Score	PWAS Scores		Sex		Age			Years of Teaching Experience		Background		Hours in Econ.		Hours in Socio.		Recipient Rate County		
	Part I	Part II	M	F	Under 30	30-44	45 up	Above		Urban	Rural	Above		Above		Low	Mid.	High
								0-10	10			0-6	6	0-6	6			
134	50	4		x	x			x		x		x		x		x		x
184	45	5	x		x			x		x		x		x		x		x
180	59	5	x		x			x		x		x		x		x		x
164	43	2		x	x			x		x		x		x		x		x
138	33	6		x		x		x			x	x		x		x		x
139	66	4	x		x			x			x	*		*		x		x
170	76	2	x		x			*			x	x			x		x	
137	48	7		x			x		x		x	x		x		x		x
151	64	3		x	x			x			x	*		*		x		x
128	61	7		x	x			x		x		x		x		x		x
121	76	5	x		x			x			x	x		x		x		x
146	60	7	x			x			x		x		x		x		x	x
155	45	5	x			x			x	*			x		x		x	x
150	53	5	x			x			x	x		x			x		x	x
142	38	4		x			x		x	x		x		x		x		x
151	59	3	x			x		x		x		x		x		x		x
163	50	7	x			x		x		x			x		x		x	x
158	50	5		x		x		x			x		x		x		x	x
126	45	5	x			x		x		x		x			x		x	x
137	57	7	x		x			x		x			x		x		x	x
139	56	4	x			x		x			x	x			x		x	x
153	57	4	x		x			x		x		x		x		x		x
160	58	6		x	x			x		x		x			x		x	x
150	50	4		x	x			x		x		x		x		x		x

APPENDIX L (CONTINUED)

Dogma- tism Score	PWAS Scores		Sex		Age			Years of Teaching Experience		Background		Hours in Econ.		Hours in Socio.		Recipient Rate County		
	Part I	Part II	M	F	Under 30	30-44	45 up	Above		Urban	Rural	Above		Above		Low	Mid.	High
								0-10	10			0-6	6	0-6	6			
151	49	4	x				x		x	x			x				x	
105	37	5	x			x		x			x	x		x			x	
171	64	5	x			x			x		x	x		x			x	
176	57	7	x		x			x		x		*			x		x	
196	84	5	x			x			x		x	x		x			x	
156	49	5		x			x	x			x	x			x		x	
144	54	7	x		x			x			x	x		x			x	
171	57	3	x			x			x		x	x		x			x	
102	55	4	x		x			x			x	x		x			x	
133	88	3		x			x	x			x	*		*			x	
123	47	5	x				x		x		x	x		x			x	
191	79	4	x			x		x			x	x			x		x	
129	52	7	x		x			x			x		x	x			x	
142	49	3	x		x			x			x	x		x			x	
188	73	7		x		x		x			x	x		x			x	
166	63	6	x			x		*			x	*		*			x	
123	44	5		x	*			*		*		*		*			x	
200	68	2		x		x			x		x		x		x		x	
154	39	3	x			x		x			x		x		x		x	
176	68	6	x		x			x			x	x			x		x	
140	66	6	x			x		x		x		x			x		x	
185	61	5	x				x		x	x			x	x			x	
170	65	2	x				x			x			x		x		x	
166	53	8	x		x			x			x	x		x			x	

APPENDIX L (CONTINUED)

Dogma- tism Score	PWAS Scores		Sex		Age			Years of Teaching Experience		Background		Hours in Econ.		Hours in Socio.		Recipient Rate County		
	Part I	Part II	M	F	Under 30	30-44	45 up	Above		Urban	Rural	Above		Above		Low	Mid.	High
								0-10	10			0-6	6	0-6	6			
174	43	6	x				x		x		x		x				x	
141	67	5	x			x			x		x		x		x		x	
148	62	8	x		x			x		x		x		x			x	
159	85	6	x			x			x		x	*		*				x
147	57	8	x		x			x		x		x		x				x
137	48	5	x				x		x		x		x					x
105	57	5		x	x			x		x			x		x			x
151	63	7	x			x		x			x		x		x			x
116	58	3	x			x		x			x		*		*			x
147	51	7	x			x			x		x		x		x			x
101	48	6		x		x		x			x		x		x			x
116	73	5	x			x		x			x		x		x			x
191	66	7	x				x		x		x		x		x			x
170	56	6		x		x			x		x		x		x			x
165	60	5	x			x		x			x		x		x			x
127	28	5	x		x			x			x		x		x			x
167	34	5		x			x		x		x		x		x			x
161	46	5	x			x		x		x		x		x				x
119	75	5	x			x		x			x		x		x			x
159	57	3	x			x		x			x		x		x			x
148	71	3		x			x		x		x		*		*			x
132	92	6		x	x			x			x		x		x			x
140	53	6	x			x		x			x		x		x			x
130	55	7	x			x		x		*			x		x			x
141	39	1	x				x		*		x		x		x			x

APPENDIX L (CONTINUED)

Dogma- tism Score	PWAS Scores		Sex		Age			Years of Teaching Experience		Background		Hours in Econ.		Hours in Socio.		Recipient Rate County		
	Part		M	F	Under 30	30-44	45 up	Above		Urban	Rural	Above		Above		Low	Mid.	High
	I	II						0-10	10			0-6	6	0-6	6			
155	71	6	x		x			x			x			x				x
168	81	5	x				x		x		x		x		x			x
167	73	4	x				x		x		x		x			x		
215	81	5	x		x			x		x		x		x				x
193	70	5	x		x			x		x		x			x			x
149	57	4	x		x			x		x		x		x				x
153	66	5	x		x			x		x		x			x			x
148	42	5	x		x			x		x		x			x			x
69	37	6	x			x		x		x		x			x			x
165	61	9		x			x		x		x		x	x				x
169	58	7	x			x			x		x		x	x				x
127	40	6	x			x		x		x		x		x				x
207	51	5	x			x			x		x		x		x			x
143	73	7		x	x			x		x		x		x				x
197	55	6	x		x			x		x			x		x			x
117	52	3	x			x			x		x		x		x			x
177	65	4	x				x	x		x			x		x			x
143	60	5		x			x		x		x		x		x			x
134	57	7	x			x			x		x		x		x			x
170	51	7	x			x			x		x		x	x				x
167	72	7	x		x			x		x		x	x	x				x
186	78	4	x				x		x		x	*		*				x

*Teachers did not respond to this item or their response failed to distinguish between categories of informational items.

APPENDIX M

COMPOSITE SCORING OF QUESTIONS ON PART II OF THE FWAS

COMPOSITE SCORING OF QUESTIONS ON PART II OF THE PWAS

Question	Respondent's Answers From												
	Low Welfare Counties			High Welfare Counties			Other Counties			Totals			
	Rt.	Wg.	%	Rt.	Wg.	%	Rt.	Wg.	%	Rt.	Wg.	%	
Nat'l. Questions	1.	14	48	22.6	15	28	34.9	13	21	38.2	42	97	30.2
	2.	26	36	41.9	18	25	41.9	14	20	41.2	58	81	41.7
	3.	14	48	22.6	11	32	25.6	8	26	23.5	33	106	23.7
Subtotal		54	132	29.0	44	85	34.8	35	67	34.3	133	284	31.9
	4.	3	59	4.8	7	36	16.3	1	33	2.9	11	128	7.9
	5.	33	29	53.2	28	15	65.1	13	21	38.2	74	65	53.9
	6.	35	27	56.5	17	26	39.5	20	14	58.8	72	67	51.8
State Questions	7.	15	47	24.2	4	39	9.3	9	25	26.5	28	111	20.1
	8.	45	17	72.6	37	6	86.0	26	8	76.5	108	31	77.7
	9.	9	53	14.5	9	34	20.9	2	32	5.9	20	119	14.4
	10.	11	51	17.7	15	28	34.9	7	27	20.6	33	106	23.7
	11.	15	47	24.2	15	28	34.9	14	20	41.2	44	95	31.7
	12.	15	47	24.2	24	19	55.8	14	20	41.2	53	86	38.1
Subtotal		181	377	32.4	156	231	40.3	106	200	34.6	443	808	35.4
County Questions	13.	26	36	41.9	13	30	30.2	13	21	38.2	52	87	37.4
	14.	38	24	61.3	21	22	48.8	12	22	35.3	71	68	51.1
Subtotal		64	60	51.6	34	52	39.5	25	43	36.8	123	155	44.2
Grand Total		299	569	34.4	234	368	38.9	166	310	34.9	699	1247	35.9

Mean number of right question: N = 139 5.03

2

VITA

Dale O. Roark

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: A SURVEY OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD POVERTY
AND WELFARE PROGRAMS IN OKLAHOMA

Major Field: Secondary Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Kansas City, Missouri, November 26, 1930,
the son of Ray and Martha Roark.

Education: Graduated from East High School, Kansas City, Missouri
in 1949; received the Bachelor of Science in Commerce degree
from Oklahoma University in 1954 with a major in Business
Administration; received the Master of Science in Business
Education degree from Oklahoma State University in 1958;
attended an Economic Institute sponsored by the National
Science Foundation at Oklahoma State University during the
summer of 1966; completed requirements for the Doctor of
Education degree in May, 1973.

Professional Experience: Served in the United States Air Force,
1954-1956; served as a graduate assistant coach at Oklahoma
State University, 1956-1957; taught business courses at Yale
High School, Yale, Oklahoma, 1957-1959; taught business
courses at Garden City High School and Garden City Junior
College and was basketball coach at Garden City Junior
College, Garden City, Kansas, 1959-1962; taught business,
social science and physical education courses and coached
basketball at Cameron Junior College, Lawton, Oklahoma, 1962-
1965; taught business courses and coached basketball at
C. E. Donart High School, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1966-1971.