A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF STUDENT PERCEPTIONS

ABOUT DESEGREGATION IN

1981 AND IN 1991

By

KERMIT TILFORD

Bachelor of Science Oklahoma State University Stillwater, Oklahoma 1960

Master of Teaching Southeastern Oklahoma State University Durant, Oklahoma 1967

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College of the Oklahoma State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION May, 1997

Thesis 1997D Totac

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF STUDENT PERCEPTIONS

ABOUT DESEGREGATION IN

1981 AND IN 1991

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to take this opportunity to express his appreciation to the School District, whose resources made the study possible. To my first committee, Dr. Lynn Arney, Dr. Kenneth St. Clair, Dr. Gerald Bass, and Dr. Russell Dobson for encouraging me in my efforts. I regret that they moved away or retired before my completion. My sincere gratitude is extended to Dr. Kenneth H. McKinley, Chairman of the thesis advisory committee, for his consistent guidance. Dr. Martin Burlingame, Dr. Kenneth Stern, and Dr. Katye Perry for their assistance in completing this thesis. Thanks also to Dr. Lee Morris, evaluator of the 1981-82 continuing ESAA Project and who encouraged me to complete this document.

A debt is owed to numerous friends and family that encouraged me in my educational career. My parents (deceased), Bernard Tilford (1940) and Mildred Tilford (1975), whose tremendous love, dedication, sacrifice for family, and commitment to education directed me to educational excellence. A special thanks to my H. S. (coach) and teachers Kermit M. and Thelma Anderson. My siblings and their spouses: Baxter Tilford and Barbara, Dr. Michael Tilford and Marilyn, Gerald Tilford and Margie, Geraldine and Henry Dillard. I appreciate the friendship of Dr. John Martin, and Dr. Earnest Holloway. Also, my Uncle and Aunt E.T. Tilford and Nettie.

Finally, there were the contributions of my wife, Pat, who encouraged me to make the commitment this late in my educational career. Her love and devotion along with her typing and educational skills aided and sustained me throughout. Also to our children, all three who graduated from the Oklahoma State University College of Engineering: Kermit Tilford, Jr. and Kittye, who said, "Go for it." Kermit Jr. always said, "Without you, Pops, I wouldn't have had a start." He paved the way for our girls. Bernadette Tilford, our academic scholar, who through her genius encouraged me to go do it, and be successful. Milessa A.Tilford, allowed me to be on campus with her during her last Summer in 1990 at Oklahoma State University. My children's courage, commitment, dedication and desire to succeed in graduating from O.S.U.'s College of Engineering gave me the sustenance to complete my doctoral degree.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Background for the Study	2
	Statement of the Problem	8
	Purpose of the Study	9
	Need for the Study	10
	Definition of Terms	10
	Limitations	12
	Organization of the Study	13
II.	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	14
	Introduction	14
	Racial Attitudes	
	Problems	
	Hypotheses	
	Discussion of Variables	
	Design and Sample	
	Procedures	
	Statistical Measures	
	Findings	
	Conclusions	
	Federal Intervention Programs	
	Problems	
	Hypotheses	
	Discussion of Variables	
	Design and Sample	
	Procedures	
	Statistical Measures	
	Findings	
	Conclusion	
	Summary	30

Chapter		Page
· III.	METHODOLOGY	31
	Introduction The Study Participants Student Subjects Adult Subjects Instrument Collection of Data Data Analysis Interview Question #1 Interview Question #2 Interview Question #3 Summary	31 32 34 35 38 38
IV.	ANALYSIS OF THE DATA	40
	Introduction Collection of Data Findings Research Question #1 Research Question #2 Research Question #3 Research Question #4 Research Question #5 Interview Question #1 Interview Question #2 Interview Question #2 Interview Question #3	40 42 48 54 56 63 64
V.	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY	66
	Recapitulation Purpose of the Study Research Procedures Student Participants Interview Participants Findings Research Question #1 Discussion Conclusion Research Question #2	66 67 68 68 68 69
	Discussion	

Chapter		Page
	Conclusion Research Question #3 Discussion Conclusion Research Question #4 Discussion Conclusion Research Question #5 Discussion Conclusion Summary Summary Summary Conclusion Recommendations Further Research	72 73 73 74 75 75 75 76 76
A SELECT	ED BIBLIOGRAPHY	79
APPENDIX	ŒS	85
,	APPENDIX A - CHRONOLOGY OF PROGRAMS FUNDED BY TITLE IV AND VII	86
	APPENDIX B - STUDENT OPINIONNAIRE	99
2	APPENDIX C - INSTRUCTIONS FOR STUDENT OPINIONNAIRE	. 101
	APPENDIX D - INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	. 103
	APPENDIX E - INTERVIEWEE RESPONSES	. 106
	APPENDIX F - INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHICS	. 118
	APPENDIX G - ADDITIONAL TABLES	. 121
2	APPENDIX H - INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FORM	. 135

LIST OF TABLES

Γable	Pag	зe
I. Sti	Ident Survey Population by Race and Gender for Each School Attendance Center: 1981-1991	33
II. Pe	recentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "Racial Differences Are Not Important in This School"	14
III. Pe	rcentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "Students Which This School Favors"	15
IV. Pe	centage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: Student Body Preference"	1 7
V. Pe	Exact School from 1981 to 1991: Affect of Mingling With Students of Other Races on Learning	19
VI. Pe	rcentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "Books and Activities Respect All Races"	50
VII. Pe	rcentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "Students Which Teachers Seem Most Interested in Helping"	52
VIII. Pe	rcentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "Student RacialPreferences of the Teachers"	53
IX. Pe	centage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "Students Have Teachers From More Than One Racial Group"	55

Table		Page
X .	Percentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "The Principal Wants to Eliminate Racial Prejudice in School"	57
XI.	Percentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "There Is No Racial Tension In This School"	58
XII.	Percentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "Treatment Received by Students Because of Race"	60
XIII.	Percentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "Class Composition of Students In Which the Best Education is Obtained"	61
XIV.	Percentage Differences in Student Responses by Race and Gender at Each School from 1981 to 1991: "Extent to Which Students Like Attending This School"	62

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

After a series of racially motivated riots across the United States in the 1960's, President Lyndon B. Johnson appointed the President's National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders to recommend ways to improve racial relations. The 1968 report of the commission, known as the Kerner Commission Report, concluded that our nation was moving toward two societies, one Black and one White-separate and unequal (Kerner 1968).

To correct this situation, one of the recommendations suggested by the members of the Commission was the elimination of segregated schools. As a result, seventeen (17) Oklahoma school districts located in and around Oklahoma's two largest metropolitan areas desegregated their public school districts between 1964 and 1974. (Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1975).

By 1967, a school district in Oklahoma near a metropolitan area had desegregated its secondary schools. During the 1970-71 school year, racial tension and conflict erupted at the high school-junior high school complex (T-IV project report 1972). Ironically, instead of improving racial relations, as the Kerner Commission had hoped, school desegregation had contributed to deteriorating racial conditions. In the summer of 1972, the school district was awarded a Title IV grant (Civil Rights Act of 1964) to

improve racial relationships between Black and White students. After this initial grant, funding began and continued over a ten year period of time, ending in the 1981-82 school year. After which those federal desegregation funds, used by many Oklahoma school districts to improve racial relations, were eliminated in the State.

Background for the Study

The school district which served as a focus for this study had a student population of 1,010 in 1981 and is located near one of Oklahoma's two (2) major metropolitan areas. Desegregation efforts on the part of the district began in September, 1960, after the all Black high school was destroyed by a tornado. All Black students in grades 10-12 were then moved to the formerly all-White high school. One could almost say that school desegregation began through "An act of God". Integration of faculty also began that year.

In 1966-67 and 1967-68, grades 7-12 were completely desegregated at both student and staff levels. In 1967-68 this researcher was first employed by the district as a teacher/coach at the junior high school. In 1969-70, the researcher was promoted to principal at the predominantly Black elementary school.

In response to a 1971 request by the U.S. Department of Health Education and Welfare (HEW) to formulate a voluntary desegregation plan, the district responded by integrating staff, redistricting to decrease racial imbalance, closing the predominantly Black elementary school and placing the children from that elementary school in three contiguous schools that were predominantly White.

The school district complied with HEW to provide a voluntary desegregation plan.

The plan basically closed the Black school. Once Black and White students were mixed in

the former all White school, negative racial attitudes at the school began to emerge. In the two year period, 1970-72, 17 serious fights erupted, four required medical attention and several involved a number of student suspensions. When arguments or fights between Black and White students occurred, Black students felt that teachers usually sided with White students (1972 ESAA Project Proposal).

During the 1970-71 school year, several racial incidents involving Black and White students occurred. In the fall of 1970, there was a walkout of the Black students at the high school. In the spring of 1971, there was a fight between Black and White students involving both junior and senior high school students and which resulted in some injuries. The incident involved a number of suspensions. These problems created tension and an attitude of mistrust developed among Black and White students in both communities (1972 ESAA Project Proposal).

At the end of the 1971 school year, junior high staff turnover was high (30%). Several remaining staff members admitted they locked classroom doors all spring due to a fear of violence. Tensions between Black and White students were often acted out by fist fighting, verbal insults, intimidations, and occasionally weapons. In a typical week, one or more outbreaks of this type were serious enough to be brought to the attention of the principal. Periodically, there was a flurry of these interracial hostilities which, on three occasions in 1970-71, erupted into mass fights and rock throwing, with sides drawn along racial lines. A violent rock and fist fight that spring (1971) involving 300 junior high, senior high and outside participants left the community polarized (ESAA Project Proposal, 1972).

Black students alleged that they were unable to acquire positions of leadership and prestige in the school. An examination of some key leadership areas supported this claim. In the 1970-71 school year, of the 39 student council representatives, only one was Black; of the 18 office assistants for 1971-72, none were Black; all seven cheerleaders for 1971-72 were White; all 21 library assistants were White in 1970-71 (ESAA Project Proposal, 1972).

On the other hand, White students and White sponsors said that Blacks were not elected or selected to student offices or leadership positions because they failed to file for offices. They pointed to a Black being selected by the student body as the Outstanding Male Student in 1971 and to a Black female voted as Queen of Melody after being selected by all 300 music students in 1971. Another reason that Black students were not selected for key positions, according to several White sponsors, was their rude behavior and their poor communication skills.

In response to this racial tension, the Black community came en masse to a school board meeting that overflowed into the high school cafeteria. At that meeting, one Black man stood up and said:

I pay taxes to the IRS, to the State of Oklahoma, and locally, just like my White brethren. Maybe not as much because I do not make as much, but I pay a proportionate share of taxes. It may be asking a little much to ask White teachers to teach my child, some of whom before desegregation never had any contact with Black people, let alone, little Black children. But I send my kids to school here, and I expect them to be taught reading, writing, and arithmetic just like the White students (school board minutes 1971).

As is true today, in 1970-71, the junior high and senior high shared the same campus and the buildings were connected. The cafeteria and gymnasium were also shared. This close proximity compounded the racial problems because unrest in one building

usually spread rapidly to the other. In 1970-71 the school board relieved the problem somewhat by arranging a staggered schedule whereby senior high and junior high lunched separately, passed from classes at different times, and arrived and left school at different times. While it was believed by the administration that this new schedule would be helpful, the problem was still not solved because of the close proximity of the two schools and easy passage from one building to the next through common hallways.

In 1970-71, the faculty of the schools were composed of seven percent minority race teachers. There were eight Blacks and five American Indians. In 1971-72 the ratio increased to ten percent with 13 Blacks and five American Indians (1971-72 new teacher orientation file).

During the 1972-73 school year, several incidents involving Black and White students occurred. In the fall of 1972, two young adult White males drove a truck through the high school parking lot several times, verbally harassing Black students and eventually pointing a shotgun at a group of Black students. Charges were filed by the high school administration. (Local newspaper, November 24, 1972).

Extracurricular activities such as after school social functions were kept to a minimum in 1972-1973. At one after school social (held off-campus in the city library) two White female students were assaulted. One was struck on the head with an object, knocking her unconscious and opening a wound requiring X-rays, doctor's care, and stitches. Several students (mostly Black) had negative replies such as, "I don't know", when asked about the assailants. A "togetherness against White authority," whether right or wrong, seemed to be the attitude of the Black students. Two Black female students

eventually admitted guilt in striking the White female students with shoes. The case was referred to the juvenile courts. (ESAA Desegregation Report for 1972-1982).

There were several fights involving Black and White students, for example:

Two White high school males assaulted two Black junior high males in a White section of the community because the Black males had used a "bad word" in the presence of a sister of one of the youths as the Black males passed by their house (reported a White male). A parent of one Black male called the police. The policeman talked to the White males and left (Local Newspaper, 1973).

The next morning after the above incident a fight erupted during the second passing period in the high school hallway, requiring several faculty members and an assistant principal to stop it. This was a community-based fight that carried over into the high school, involving several White and Black males and five students were suspended. (Local Newspaper, November, 1973).

In November, 1973, a fight erupted off campus among junior high school students, during the lunch hour. It involved a Black student and a White student and several by standers. The White student who was fighting was hit in the eye by an unknown bystander. The eye required a doctor's attention. This off-campus incident resulted in a tough stand by the junior high administration whereby any junior high student fighting would receive an automatic suspension, after full administrative review. At this point in the school year, there were 47 junior high school suspensions, mostly for fighting (Local Newspaper November, 1973).

In 1972, the school district bused students who lived at least two miles from an attendance center. There were several reported incidents on busses. One incident, in particular involved about ten minority bus students using profanity, creating undue problems, causing confusion, and interrupting the bus routes because disruptive students

had to be returned to school. This was reported by the bus driver (White female). The bus also carried approximately 50 White students.

After several days of investigation and discussion between parents, students, the high school and junior high school administration, the bus supervisor, the bus driver and this researcher, it was determined that the driver first used profanity, dehumanizing minority students by her words and actions, thus creating the incidents reported. The driver was reprimanded and one Black female student was suspended from riding the bus for a week. Minority students seemed to feel some justice was accorded to them (ESAA desegregation report 1972-1982).

After mixing students under a voluntary desegregation plan and requesting federal intervention funds to help improve race relations, with the exception of 1975-76, the district was awarded nearly \$700,000 in federal Emergency School Aid Act (ESAA) funds each year from 1972-73 through 1981-82 (ESAA desegregation report, 1982).

While there were specific annual objectives for each project the ultimate goal for all projects may be summarized as an attempt to "improve racial understanding between Black and White students and to increase positive relationships among different ethnic groups, including students, teachers, and parents" (ESAA Evaluation Report, 1972-1982). For A Chronology Of Programs Funded By Title IV (Civil Rights Act Of 1964) and Title VII (ESAA) see Appendix A.

With the infusion of federal intervention funds to support integrated education programs, racial relations were continuously improved (with an occasional racial incident once or twice each year) in the district through 1982.

Racial tensions subsided between 1972 and 1982, but began to rebuild in 1982. That was the final year for federal school desegregation intervention programs in the district. That year also ended a continuous three-year grant that had been awarded in 1979 and provided a 1981 evaluation of the project's final three years. The director of those federal programs was reassigned as a teacher rather than as a principal as previously promised. The Black community exploded in anger at this treatment, went in mass and spent an all night vigil at the school board meeting and tried, to no avail, to change the decision of the board of education.

Additionally, with the demotion of the director of federal programs, racial tensions gradually began to build and then leveled off until 1989. After the passage of H.B. 1017, by the Oklahoma legislature in 1990, tension among Black parents in the district was building up for two reasons: there was no Black counselor at the local high school and of the 23 new teachers hired in 1990-91, none were Black. Because the parents felt that their concerns had not been addressed by the district, they met to organize during the 1990-91 school years and established a Black parent advisory committee to advise the superintendent about the educational curriculum and extra curricula activities for Black youth. The committee also met to increase Black teacher recruitment and hiring of a Black counselor for Black high school students and additional Black teachers (Minutes of the Concerned Citizens, 1990).

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to investigate the perceptions of selected students at

a K-12 district high school, junior high school and middle school to determine whether there has been a shift in racial attitudes from 1981 to 1991. The following questions were investigated:

- 1. Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-student racial relationships in the K-12 district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?
- 2. Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-teacher racial relationships in the K-12 district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?
- 3. Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-principal racial relationships in the K-12 district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?
- 4. Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding racial climate at each school in the K-12 district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?
- 5. Will responses of interviewed study participants regarding public school desegregation relate to student perceptions of racial attitudes in the K-12 school district under study from 1981 to 1991?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of selected students in a local school district's high school, junior high school and middle school about racial attitudes in 1981 and in 1991. The relationship between the perceptions of racial attitudes by selected students and individual interviews with adult participants in early desegregation programs were also analyzed.

Need for the Study

It is believed by this writer that federally funded intervention programs in school districts reduced racial incidents considerably over the years they were in force. However, most of these programs were eliminated by 1981 by the federal government. Currently, Black community members are concerned about the quality of education their children are now receiving (Elam, 1990). The conclusion could be drawn that there is a lack of trust between Black parents and the all White school board, and that this distrust is passed on to the student as well (Gay, 1990). White teachers and administrators are challenged by Black students and parents to address their demands. On the other hand, White administrators, teachers and students often behave as if a problem does not exist. This disparity in beliefs (Trevino, 1991) has grown over the decade between 1981-1991, the ten year period following a decade of federally funded school desegregation intervention programs.

It is expected that a comparison study of selected students at a high, junior high and middle school in a local school district about racial attitudes would appear to be a necessary step to determine if this disparity in beliefs does exist. The comparison study could be used by state legislature, local business communities and local school boards and superintendents.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are relevant to this study and are thus defined in order that the reader might acquaint him/herself with the working definitions utilized by the author pursuant to the completion of the study.

- 1. <u>Desegregation</u> is the U.S. court-ordered closing of all public schools that enroll more than 49% Black students and assigning them to White public schools.
- 2. <u>Federal Emergency School Aid Act</u> (ESAA) provided programs designed to help school districts with court ordered or voluntary school desegregation plans.
- 3. <u>Federal Intervention Programs</u> were designed to meet special needs arising from school desegregation. A variety of programs evolved, such as human relations, key minority personnel for student-to-staff reduction, compensatory education, and in-service training for school personnel.
- The <u>School District</u> selected as the site for this study was a suburban/rural, K independent public school district in Oklahoma with an enrollment of approximately
 students.
- 5. <u>Key state educational leaders</u> are presently administrators in or near one of the two large metropolitan areas in Oklahoma. Those administrators were interviewed in 1991, about school desegregation in 1981 and 1991, in an attempt to provide validity to the study.
- 6. <u>Perception</u> is the tendency to integrate sensations based upon inner representations of the world and organizing these elements into meaningful patterns.
- 7. Racial attitudes refer to the way students, teachers, administrators or school board members behave mentally, emotionally, or physically towards students that are racially different.
- 8. <u>Student respondents</u> are selected students in a local school districts high school, junior high school and middle school.

Limitations

Several limitations present themselves as inherent in this study due to the nature of the investigation. They include the following:

- 1. The findings, as a result of this study, are limited to the views expressed by selected students who participated in this investigation during the school years 1981-82 and 1991-92.
- 2. The racial relations and racial attitude issues are limited in topical coverage to the items included on the survey instrument utilized in this study, the Student opinionnaire from the National Study Of School Evaluation Guidelines for Multicultural-Multiracial Education (1973).
- 3. Limitations are incurred by the use of a teacher administered survey, and the validity problem inherent with such a mode of attritional data collection (see Chapter III).
- 4. The major descriptive procedure, utilized in this study to identify the patterns of racial belief of selected high school, junior high school and middle school students in a local school district is limited by its appropriateness relative to the present study.
- 5. In view of the exploratory nature of this study, the tentativeness of the findings is also recognized. The fact that race relations and racial attitudes within its ever changing social, economic, and political milieu mandates that the issues will change as will the many and varied proposals for reform. It is proposed that the present study will generate productive areas for further dialogue and study in the realm of improving race relations and racial attitudes in a public school.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I has included an introduction and background along with a statement of the problem to be studied, the purpose of and need for the study, a working definition of the commonly used terms throughout the study, and limitations incurred by the nature and method of the investigation. Chapter II contains a review of the relevant literature pertaining to racial attitudes in the U.S. from 1940 through 1990 and the status of several federal intervention programs 1971 through 1981, and some methodological considerations. Chapter III describes the methods and procedures utilized in the study. Chapter IV presents the compilation and analysis of the data in answer to the questions emanating from the problem studied in this investigation. Chapter V summarizes the study with conclusions, implications, and suggestions for further research included.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Due to the ever increasing problems of racism in our society, schools are confronted with the issues of racial attitudes and federal involvement (Ashmore, 1982).

This review consists of 13 studies about racial attitudes and federal intervention programs.

The researcher included 75 references with publication dates. The format was consistent and all references used in the study were cited.

Racial Attitudes

School desegregation was initiated to address the social inequity of racism. A 1992 scientific research study by Steeh and Schuman investigated the notion that "racist attitudes" escalated in the 1980's during the presidential terms of Ronald Reagan, whose administration refused to enforce civil rights legislation. Many highly publicized racial incidents on college campuses and in communities during the last few years have inflamed society. As a result of this trend, a polarization is becoming more obvious between races, and schools have become the battle ground for the acting out of racial tensions. Blacks don't have a problem with positive attitudes toward Whites (Crisis, 1992). However, Black parents in various parts of the United States are concerned about their children's

education and view integrated schooling as covert racism which fails to educate their children and stigmatizes Blacks as a social group (Crisis, 1992).

Problems

Research questions vary on the specificity of White racial attitudes towards school desegregation and the schooling of Black Americans. Examined in an earlier study were the racial attitudes of White Americans toward the position Black Americans should occupy in American society (Greely and Sheatsley, 1971). Of major concern in racial relations is what role, if any, does group conflict play in racial attitudes in the contemporary United States (Bobo, 1984). Another investigator argues for increasing the number of actors in the desegregation equation, discusses the decline of overt racism and the rise of covert racism while criticizing the contact theory as applied in schools. (Grant, 1990). More recent research writers examine racism among young White adults using twelve racial policy questions (Steeh and Schuman, 1992). This study examines whether students are resegregated in schools through the mechanisms of extra-curricula membership and student course enrollment (Trent, 1985). Also described in this study are the effects of school organizational structure on students interracial and cross-sex communication patterns (Damaico and Sparks, 1986).

The priority attached to inner-city school desegregation has often become diminished with the onset of mandatory faculty desegregation. Consequently, students tend to be substantially more segregated than teachers in urban schools (Sanders, 1984). The problem of this study was racial attitudes after graduation from public schools and whether Black freshmen have failed academically in large numbers at colleges and

universities around the country and whether they have failed at a greater rate than their White counterparts (Johnson, 1989). This analysis asks, is school desegregation still feasible in the 1980's (Bell, 1983)? The final study in this review examines why certain minority groups in the United States have consistent patterns of failure in schools, while other minority groups, such as orientals, have a pattern of reversed failure (Ogbu, 1978).

Hypotheses

A majority of researchers in these review studies agree with the concern about racial attitude and its effect on school desegregation. One study informs us that there is a connection between White racial attitudes toward approval of integration and racial turmoil during the eight years from 1963 to 1971 (Greeley and Sheatsley, 1971).

Another researcher contrasts the concept of Whites who accept the principle of racial issues, but refuse to support the implementation of those principles whose two concerns are (1) a relationship between understanding the place of group conflict in intergroup belief systems and ways of conceptualizing and measuring group conflict motives, and (2) that there are several ways in which group conflict motives differ from prejudice and other racial attitudes (Bobo, 1984). The educational system comes under scrutiny when there is a correlation between racial attitudes and intergroup contact when desegregating public schools for educational change (Grant, 1990). Behavioral changes will follow one of these patterns (1) linear increase in positive liberal attitudes or (2) U-shaped with increased positive attitudes in 1960's and 1970's and decrease in 1980's,

which is more accurate in describing tolerant racist beliefs of young White adults (Steeh and Schuman, 1992).

The educational system supports either positively or negatively racial attitudes about schooling. Trent sees an association between academic programs, course enrollments, extra-curricular memberships and the extent of participation by Black and White students within schools (Trent, 1985).

Other investigators emphasize Allport's 1954 contact theory, i.e., does structure affect the frequency with which students talk to other students (Damico and Sparks 1986)? In other words, student achievement is a function of the net influences of (1) the extent to which teachers are racially isolated, (2) teacher experience, (3) involuntary teacher transfers, (4) faculty turnover, and (5) previous student achievements (Sanders, 1984). Also the learning style differences between Black and White college freshmen might be a contributing factor to diagnosing Black student achievement (Johnson, 1989). In addition, there is a reciprocation between efforts to achieve desegregation through compliance with the Brown decision and society's persistent willingness to deny Black children quality schooling (Bell, 1983).

Finally, addressing racial attitudes and school desegregation, an anthropologist finds a correlation between patterns of failure for minority groups in the United States and the relationship of those groups to the wider social structure and the history of oppression of such groups (Ogbu, 1978).

Discussion of Variables

Research variables relating to racial attitudes and school desegregation are studied by Greeley and Sheatsly, 1971; Bobo, 1984; Grant, 1900; Steeh and Shuman, 1992; Trent, 1985; Damico and Sparks, 1986; Sanders, 1984; Johnson, 1985; Bell, 1983 and Ogbu, 1978. The following literature relates school desegregation and racial attitude to student achievement: Trent, 1985; Damico and Sparks, 1986; Sanders, 1984; Johnson, 1989; Ogbu, 1978. Interestingly these scientists have studied polls and surveys from the 1940s through the 1980s. The polls and surveys indicate that there are progressive (small or hardly noticeable) gains in White liberal racial attitudes, however, not on all issues (Greely and Sheatsley, 1971; Bobo, 1984; Trent, 1985). Racial attitudes of school administration, teachers and structure of the school help determine the extent of participation by Black students; White students, racial isolation, teacher transfer, and previous student achievement all relate to positive racial attitudes (Trent, 1985; Damico and Sparks, 1986; Sanders, 1984; Johnson, 1989).

Trends for racial attitudes are basically the same north and south in the United States. However, cohort effects and period effects play a role in racial attitudes (Bobo, 1984; Steeh and Schuman, 1992). The definition of students is varied, ranging from college freshmen (Johnson, 1989) to Junior high school students and middle school students (Trent, 1985; Damico, and Sparks, 1986; Sanders, 1984).

It is interesting to note that two studies were more involved with racism, and studied not only the school but (1) the community's social, political, and economic structure and a comparison of taxpayers versus non-taxpayers as well (Ogbu, 1978) and

(2) support the principle of racial issues versus non-support of racial issues such as should Black students and White students attend school together (Bobo, 1984).

Period effects, education, region, gender, family income, racial tolerance, and racial attitude are cited in the research. Also, other variables were assessed by a survey that asked about teacher's race, mobility, experience, turnover, and transfers. It also asked about student's race, achievement, and effects of desegregation (Sanders, 1984).

Design and Sample

Sample groups range in age from 20% across the 4th, 5th, and 6th grade classes in Houston, Texas (Sanders, 1984) to middle school 6th, 7th, and 8th grade levels (Damico and Sparks 1986) to 1,318 high schools nationally in 1972 (Trent, 1985). To Black and White, male and female, college freshmen (Johnson, 1989). A few sample groups are specifically labeled due to their unique features, such as, they are from the "contemporary" Northeast U.S. (Bobo, 1994).

All students in each population lived in the Northeast (Bell, 1983). Also 1500 adults were surveyed by Greely and Sheatsley, 1971, and a sample of 18 year old White adult males who turned 18 in 1959 was surveyed by Steeh and Schuman 1992. Also included are a classroom of over fifty (50) experienced educators from Wisconsin school districts (Grant, 1990) and finally a survey of all African American people in Stockton, California was included (Ogbu, 1978).

Procedures

The review studies provided several different methods for gathering and analyzing information about racial attitudes and school desegregation. The reviewed tests are varied and deal with many of the major racial issues of the last four decades. One survey question is: Do you think White students and Black students should go to the same schools or separate schools? (Greely and Sheatsley, 1971). Several other studies provided adequate designs for the samples selected (Bobo, 1984; Grant, 1990; Steeh and Schuman, 1992). A national longitudinal survey (NLS) was used to gather and analyze information by Trent, 1985.

A slightly more structured approach was used with students who were provided with an alphabetical listing of all students in their grade (junior high) or on their team (team A or team B) and asked to circle their own name and then place a check mark in the appropriate column indicating how frequently they talked to every other student. Four choices were available ranging from "I talk to this person a lot" to "I never talk to this person." The task was indicating frequency of verbal contact with classmates across and within race and sex groups (Damico and Sparks, 1986). To measure achievement a pre and post Iowa test of basic skills was administered (Sanders, 1984). The instruments used to conduct the remainder of the research were well thought out and precisely documented. For example, the inquiry about college freshmen used the MBTI and LSI as test instruments for comparison (Johnson, 1989). The analysis of whether school desegregation is still feasible was built on an analysis of school desegregation statistics for

the school year 1980-81 and was used to show a relationship between efforts to achieve school desegregation ten years after the Brown versus Topeka decision (Bell, 1983).

The final investigation in this review provides a "multi-level approach" that looks at the historical perspective of Blacks and Whites in the United States, the process of classroom interaction, role of the family, neighborhood, and the social, economic and political system to investigate racial attitudes (Ogbu, 1978).

Statistical Measures

In 1963 (NORC) the national opinion research center, the source of the largest number of questions available in producing an attritional record, employed in its racial attitude survey a "Guttman scale." The seven items of a Guttman scale comprise a "pro-integration scale" on which each respondent can be assigned a score ranging from 0 to 7 depending on the number of pro-integration responses he gave. The properties of a Guttman scale are that if a respondent rejects one item on the scale, the chances are at least 90% that he/she will reject all the items below it (Greeley and Sheatsley, 1971).

General Social Survey (GSS) and National Election Studies (NES) employ a racial policy questionnaire with a wide range of racial attitude questions (Steeh and Schuman, 1992). A qualitative analysis of a variety of educators, such as administrators, teachers, counselors, and librarians, as they planned for a multi-cultural classroom or school district was used (Grant, 1990). Another technique, A National Survey was used by (Trent, 1985). Catij, a modified method of collecting and analyzing the quantity of interactions rather than quality within groups, such as a sociometric scale (Damico and Sparks, 1986).

Standardized tests used to measure achievement and degree of racial isolation were measured by the proportion of same race students assigned to respective teachers (Sanders, 1984). Also considered were tests to measure learning styles of Black and White college freshmen in order to make a comparison (Johnson, 1989), analysis of school desegregation statistics for the school year 1980-81 (Bell, 1983) and a qualitative method "Multi-level approach" (Ogbu, 1978).

Findings

The majority of the research reviewed finds that integration of schools is still an issue. Measures of political ideology and self-identification (as a liberal or conservative) are important predictors of positive racial attitudes for integration.

Race relations provides a problem for every American. Interracial contact is diminished in desegregated schools where students are resegregated by putting students into low achieving classes for tracking purposes. Achievements of Black students are negatively related to the extent that their teachers are racially isolated. Learning styles of Blacks and Whites differed significantly on both subscales of the test instrument a "Guttman Scale" (Greeley and Sheatsley, 1971). There is little difference in racial attitudes among the cohorts of the 60's, 70's and 80's (Steeh and Schuman, 1992). Schools can structure curriculum to improve majority-minority racial interactions but school boards in several areas are in court today trying to eliminate busing and other desegregation plans (Grant, 1990). Few desegregated districts show Black scholastic achievement scores equal to those of Whites or Black expulsion and disciplining ratio lower than that of Whites (Sanders, 1984). The White majority's view of the system of

education versus Black minority's view can be seen in relation to a "Job ceiling" where there will always be a limit on the amount of jobs available in the community (Ogbu, 1978).

Conclusions

A dichotomy exists between research conclusions on whether liberal racist attitudes for school desegration have increased or decreased. The studies conclude that there is change in attitude about the principle of integration, but very little meaningful change about implementation. Improperly planned desegregation policies can affect student achievement. Merely integrating schools in a society still committed to White dominance does not insure Black parents and their children equal educational opportunity. Blacks in Stockton, California and other communities with respect to their history of oppression and the current situation of struggle are more of a caste rather than a class and in order to have equal educational opportunity in desegregated schools the Black minority needs to become empowered politically, economically and socially (Ogbu, 1978).

Federal Intervention Programs

School district compliance to school desegregation was concerned with two major laws enacted by the United States Congress. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Emergency School Aid Act (ESAA, 1972). A description of these laws follows.

Title VI, the central provision of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits racial discrimination by recipients of federal aid. Health Education and Welfare (HEW) assigned

responsibility for the enforcement of that prohibition to the Office for Civil Rights (OCR).

OCR's role included both monitoring and enforcing Title VI among federal aid

recipients, including public elementary and secondary schools. Title VI of the Civil Rights

Act established a program of technical assistance and training for districts drawing up or

implementing a required desegregation plan. Federal funds could be withheld if education

agencies were not in compliance with Title VI (The Civil Rights Act, 1964).

In the Emergency School Aid Act (ESAA, 1972), Congress provided for financial assistance to school districts for three reasons: to meet special needs arising from school desegregation, to encourage the voluntary reduction of minority group isolation in schools with substantial proportions of minority group students, and to aid school children in overcoming the educational disadvantages of minority group isolation. ESAA funds were allowed to be used for a variety of purposes including compensatory education, human relations, staff training and community relations. These funds were not be used for bussing (The Civil Rights Act Of 1964).

Problems

Research questions vary on the relevancy of federal intervention programs for school desegregation. Of more general concern is how ESAA and OCR (the enforcement for Title VI prohibitions), was involved in school desegregation (Russell, et. al, 1979).

Some critics of federal intervention programs, funded through ESAA, have questioned the quality of education in desegregated schools and how a recent ethnographic depiction of a multi-ethnic urban high school compares to a series of ten year old ethnographic studies on court ordered desegregated school settings (Semons, M.

1989). Another critic advances the effects of magnet schools on both educational quality and school desegregation (Blank, R. 1984).

Finally, after several years of ESAA funding, school districts were phased out of the funding process, and those funds were then lumped into block grants. The concern is whether consolidation of 28 categorical grants into one block grant had a disproportionate impact on the nation's large city school districts (Jung and Tashijan 1983).

Hypotheses

Researchers in this quest are examining ways in which five urban school districts made use of assistance programs and have been affected by Title VI (Russell, et al., 1979). Behavioral changes of students and staff are observed by comparing a school's acquisition of a solid identity, a color-blind perspective, the natural progression assumption, the modern paradox, and intergroup toleration and ethnic stereotyping (Semons, 1989). Specific questions on facilities, resources, and educational effectiveness of magnet schools are addressed here, do magnet schools improve the quality of education in urban school districts? is the selection of students a determining factor in the educational outcomes that magnet schools produce? what district and school factors are important in producing high quality education in magnet schools? (Blank, 1984). ESAA funding ceased in 1982 and this, of course, is an interesting contrast to investigators who want to know the consequences of folding 28 federally funded categorical programs into a single block grant with a reduced total budget (Jung and Tashjian 1983).

Discussion of Variables

Desegregation case studies are cited in the research along with interviews and activities directly related to desegregation processes (Russell et al., 1979; Semons, 1989; Blank, 1984). In addition to other variables this study involved ESAA, OCR and Title VI (Russell, 1979). Another study chose to specify students, listed as White majority, non-White majority, ethnic group, spoiled identity, color-blind perspective, intergroup relations, modern paradox, subgroups, racial, natural progression and participant-observer (Semons, 1989).

To assess educational quality and desegregation this study observed attendance rates, behavioral problems, suspension and dropout rates, educational options, program choices, magnet themes, teaching methods, school sizes, voluntary enrollments, average ability students, high ability students, achievement test scores, grade point averages, leadership, community involvement, and school boards (Blank, 1984). Researchers observing first-year fiscal impact on big districts and the block grant were concerned with not only the geographic region but also the type of desegregation plan and the amount of funding (Jung, 1983).

Design and Sample

One sample group consisted of five urban school districts with enrollment ranging from 23,000 to 53,000 each (Russell et al.,1979). Research related to ESAA schools

consists of a sample of federal intervention programs that compare a multi-ethnic urban school to five desegregated schools (Semons, 1989). The Blank's study population sample is 15 school districts and 45 magnet schools selected from those school districts (Blank, 1984). Jung's single block grant sample is composed of the nation's largest school districts selected through a two-part process: twenty school districts with the largest enrollment and districts located in the 20 largest cities. The two subjects overlapped leaving a final sample of 28 school districts (Jung and Tashjian, 1983).

Procedures

Several research studies reviewed have ethnographic procedures. One has a loosely designed structure of observing classrooms, community and federal program personnel, desegregation activities, activities of ESAA, T-VI, OCR and the respondent perceptions of those three federal programs. On-site visits to the five school districts were conducted by a team of social scientists who did interviews and collected limited archive data such as ESAA and Title VI proposals. Perceptions of respondents, together with an analysis of those perceptions formed the basis of each case study report (Russell et al., 1979).

Semons did an ethnographic study of a multiethnic high school using a participant interview system and, with that system in place, interviewed students over the course of one academic year. This data is then compared to "an intimate portrait based on five ethnographic studies" of desegregated schools, edited by Murray L. Wax (Semons, 1989). In addition another study gathered data from the selected districts and schools in one-week site visits in the spring of 1993. At each site, administrators, board members,

principals, teachers, parents, community leaders and students were interviewed.

Observations were conducted in the three selected magnet schools in each district. Each school was rated on aspects of schooling such as instructional activities, student/teacher interactions, opportunities of students to learn and the use of school resources (Blank, 1984). A three year funding history for 28 districts covering fiscal years 1980 and 1981 was developed. School districts using ESAA funds in previous years were compared to districts using block grants from chapter 2 fiscal year 1982. (Jung and Tashijan, 1983).

Statistical Measures

Due to the fact that most of the research conducted in the area of ESAA federal desegregation programs are based on qualitative research, few of the studies used statistical tests. In most studies a semi-structured interview guide was used to question respondents on topics appropriate to their particular role (Russell, 1979). In another study participant-observor interviews were used (Semons, 1989). A multiversity design was the instrument used for statistical analysis of the relationship of district and school leadership (Blank, 1984). The study by Jung and Tashjian (1983) is descriptive and analyzes quantitatively the difference in FY 1980 to FY 1982 funding. The study did not have a control for either internal or external validity.

Findings

Of the five case studies at their sites (Dayton, Ohio; San Francisco, California; Chattanooga, Tennessee; Seattle, Washington; and Pueblo, Colorado) Pueblo came closest to having achieved a degree of integration regarding the status of the ethnic and

racial groups in the schools. Seattle in contrast was poised to initiate massive forced movement of students for the first time. Chattanooga was unable to solve the difficult problem of secondary school desegregation. San Francisco has had massive bussing for years and faces the painful task of introducing a new desegregation plan, while Dayton's recent mass bussing is still clouded by uncertainties regarding final legal requirements.

Despite years of effort in these cases, none of the five sites has successfully concluded a desegregation process. Partial success has been achieved in all cases, but, even in those sites still actively attacking the problem, a date for successful conclusion of the desegregation process cannot be foreseen (Russell, 1979).

"The spoiled identity phenomenon" is the result of a shift from White majority in a school to non-White majority, and should be expanded to include social class as well as racial composition when identifying the forces that collectively change the reputation of a school. Both the color-blind perspective, where the issue of racial differences was never raised by teachers or students and the natural progression assumption, which caused schools to expect that positive intergroup relations would develop without administrative interventions must be reexamined in the light of a more recent study. The more recent study found a more pragmatic attitude toward intergroup tolerations as well as a desire to avoid ethnic stereotyping (Semons, 1989).

Conclusion

School district compliance to school desegregation was concerned with two major laws enacted by the United States congress. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 OCR (for enforcement) and the Emergency School Aid Act of 1972 ESAA (for funding). This

review has included studies about school desegregation and federal intervention programs.

Studies that focused on overcoming negative aspects of racial attitudes. School desegregation is the mixing together of students of different ethnic and racial backgrounds.

School integration is advanced by the practices of; social mixing, racial fairness, staff support for integration, security, staff modeling and multicultural exposure. Those and other elements of educational school climate are within the control of the school district. It is important for the economic, social and political school community to comply with the Congress of The United States of America about school desegregation.

Summary

The strength of this literature review is that a topic of extreme importance to advocates of quality race relations is addressed. This review discusses racial attitudes in the U.S. from the early 1940's through 1992 and the federal intervention programs from the early 1960's through 1980 that were used to improve racial attitudes and racial relations among Blacks and Whites in public schools.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study was conducted in order to investigate the difference in perceptions of selected students in a local school district about racial relations in 1981 and in 1991.

Presented in Chapter III is a description of the methods and procedures that were utilized in this study. This presentation is divided into the following sections: the selection of the study participants, the development and selection of the survey instrument, collection of the data, and the methodology used to analyze the data.

The Study Participants

Student Subjects

There were three schools in the district where all students in the district at a particular grade level attended. The middle school (6 and 7 grades), junior high school (8 and 9 grades) and the high school (10, 11 and 12 grades). The subjects surveyed were all available students attending those schools in 1981-82 and 1991-92. In both 1981 and 1991 the principal of each school was consulted regarding the date and time that their

students would be given the student opinionnaire. Only those students present at the agreed upon date and time were included in the survey. There were 1,685 subjects surveyed in 1982 and 1,529 subjects surveyed in 1991. A population survey table showing a breakdown of subjects in this study by race and gender at each school of the years 1981 and 1991 is presented in Table 1.

The 1981 and 1991 comparison groups were similar in that they came from the same school district. This means that some students from each group may have had some of the same teachers and administrators. One of the district's desegregation goals through the 1970's was to hire intelligent, task-oriented, positive, compassionate teachers with excellent race relations skills. Several of those teachers remained in the district through 1991. Out of the 41 teachers at the high school in 1981, seven remained in 1991. Out of 37 teachers at the junior high school, eight remained. Out of 23 teachers at the middle school in 1981 four remained in 1991. Out of the seven administrators in the three schools in 1981 only one remained in 1991.

Adult Subjects

To validate the findings, the investigator interviewed adult subjects who had official roles in the integration of public schools during this tumultuous period of time (late 60's and early 70's). In addition several educational administrators in a major metropolitan area were interviewed for approximately 30 minutes to assist in determining the significance of federal intervention programs for school desegregation, after the Black schools were closed in the early and late 60's.

TABLE I

STUDENT SURVEY POPULATION BY RACE AND GENDER FOR EACH SCHOOL ATTENDANCE CENTER: 1981-1991

Category	1	981		19	 991	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Senior H.S.						
White	243	280	523	234	261	495
Black	37	25	62	15	8	23
Indian	38	37	75	17	19	36
Total	318	342	660	266	288	554
Junior H.S.			· · ·			
White	166	255	421	205	222	427
Black	26	32	58	18	17	35
Indian	36	54	90	17	19	36
Total	228	341	569	240	258	498
Middle School						
White	187	168	368	200	184	384
Black	27	16	43	16	21	37
Indian	27	31	58	21	35	56
Total	241	215	456	237	240	477
Grand Total			1,685			1,529

Senior H.S.:

1981, N=660 1991, N=554

Junior H.S.:

1981, N=569 1991, N=498

Middle School: 1981, N=456 1991, N=477

Because anonymity was promised to the interviewees, neither their names nor school districts are reported herein. Verbal consent to use selected portions of the interviewee's responses in the study was acquired at the time of the interview. Therefore, the interviewees and their school districts will be identified by fictitious names (see Appendix F).

Instrument

The instrument administered in this study during 1981 and 1991 was the Student Opinionnaire taken from the Guidelines for Multicultural-Multiracial Education (1973) of the National Study of School Evaluation (NSSF). The Student Opinionnaire was used by several evaluators for the teacher corps organization in the 1960's, 1970's, and 1980's (ESAA Desegregation Report for 1972-1982).

This investigator obtained a test packet from the evaluator of the district's 1981 multi-cultural and multi-racial evaluation. The packet included materials for administering the test but did not explain the instrument's reliability and validity. Thus, the researcher relies only on the reliability and validity as developed by the NSSE.

The Opinionnaire measures student perceptions of: (1) student-to-student racial relationships, (2) student-to-student teacher racial relationships, (3) student-to-principal racial relationships, and (4) student-to-school climate racial relationships.

The instrument consists of 13 short answer questions. Response format is either "yes" or "no" or "multiple choice" answers (see Appendix B). An example of a yes-no question is: "I have teachers this year from more than one racial group." If the answer is

"yes" the student places a check next to the "yes" response or next to the "no" response if the answer is negative. An example of a multiple choices question is: "There is no racial tension in this school." The choice for each multiple choice response are agree, disagree, or uncertain.

For the three structured interview sessions the instrument administered was a 13-question interview about school desegregation with an introductory paragraph explaining the purpose of the interview. The interviewer asked the respondent, as a participant of the desegregation era, to answer the questions from their own experiences. The first five (5) questions were asked as warm-up questions (to relax and put the participants at ease) and to determine demographics such as: the respondent's position with public schools when desegregation took place. Eight (8) interview questions were chosen to correspond with the five research questions stated in Chapter I. The purpose of the interview sessions was to validate differences in student responses between 1981 and 1991 (see Appendix D for interview questions).

Collection of Data

The school district applied each year for a federal grant for its intervention programs. In 1979, a one-time application was made for a three year continuous grant; 1979-80 school year through 1981-82 school year. The grant was awarded to the school district, but in order to finalize the grant, the district was obliged to provide an evaluation of the status of multicultural/multi-racial education in the district among students, teachers, administrators, and central office administrators. In 1981, a management group composed of the project director (this investigator), the school superintendent and his

administrative staff, chose to survey all participants in the district's high school, junior high school, and middle school.

Although all the District's teacher/staff, building administrators, and central office administrators were solicited to participate in the 1981 study for multicultural/multi-racial education the response rate was zero percent. Statistical data were not available from all of them for several reasons. For example, some teacher/staff would not give their race as well as other important demographic information. Comments written on the response forms indicated that they objected to several items. Few school principals or central office administrators returned their forms. Consequently, only data from the student population were analyzed. Presented in Appendix G are Tables XV through XXVII that display raw data of 1981 and 1991 student responses to the survey instrument.

It was the student's perceptions of school desegregation as expressed on the Student Opinionnaire in 1981 that provided the baseline for the comparison study of 1991. In April, 1981, the Opinionnaire was administered at three (3) District attendance centers to a student population of approximately 1,685. The identity of the student study participants was kept completely anonymous.

The investigator, a continuous employee in the district from 1967 to the fall of 1991, requested permission from the school board to administer the same Opinionnaire to students in the same schools. This survey was done to compare student responses after a ten year period of time in which there were no federal intervention programs.

In 1991, a student population of approximately 1,529 were administered the student Opinionnaire. The Opinionnaire was administered October 21, 1991 during the school day, the first 15 minutes of the regular class period for social studies or English.

Again, no one including the investigator, was able to ascertain the identity of any of the students.

Since each student at the middle school is required to take social studies and each student at the junior high school and high school is required to take English, it was feasible for the social studies teachers at the middle school and English teachers at the junior high school and high school to administer the Student Opinionnaire following written instructions (see Appendix C).

Interview data were also collected from several educational administrators in the metropolitan area nearer to the school district. Face-to-face interviews of 30 minutes were used to collect the data. All interviewees were informed that the interview would be taped. A date and time for the interview were established with each interview participant. Each interviewee was sent an agenda of questions to be asked at the interview and called by telephone the day before in order to confirm the time and date of the interview. The interview questions were selected according to guidelines in school desegregation-integration and federal intervention programs by the advisor of the first dissertation committee of the investigator (see Appendix D).

Each interview was conducted and recorded at the subject's office by the investigator. After each interview the tape was played, the conversation typed and a copy sent to each interviewee to check for accuracy of statements and to secure each respondent's verbal consent for the information to be used in the study.

Questions asked by the investigator allowed the interview respondents to do most of the talking. The investigator, also an active participant in school desegregation as a project director of federal intervention programs in the 1960's and 1970's, did relay

personal feelings and reactions to the report in order to enhance the validity of the study.

The investigator used various cohort readers to review the interview data in order to achieve some balance and perspective in the interpretation of the responses.

Data Analysis

The student response data were coded and keyed in for computer analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyze the data.

Descriptive analyses were performed.

Descriptive information from counting and percentages was used to examine the data for absolute percentage differences in student responses between 1981 and 1991 on the Student Opinionnaire. Differences in the percentage of responses that varied by ten percent or more between 1981 and 1991 are addressed in Chapter IV.

Qualitative data analysis was performed through the use of several face-to-face long interviews. Very few usable responses from interview questions 1, 3, 6, 7, and 8 were given by the subjects. Therefore responses from adult subjects Ross, Smith and Doe have been compiled into three basic interview questions listed below and have been addressed in Chapter IV.

Interview Ouestion #1

Do you think integrated schools of today do a better job of educating Black children than the integrated schools in the 1970's and 1980's?

Interview Question #2

Do you think Black children would have been and would be better off if integration had not taken place?

Interview Question #3

Is there less racism in the schools of today than in the past?

Summary

The local school board gave permission for the 1981 Student Opinionnaire to be given at the end of a total of ten years of federal intervention programs for school desegregation in the study district. The local school board also gave permission to use the 1981 data and administer the survey again in 1991 after ten years of no federal intervention programs to make a comparison of student responses.

Quantative data analysis was performed through the use of descriptive information from counting and percentages of the 1981 and 1991 Student Opinionnaire. Qualitative data analysis was performed through the use of several face-to-face long interviews with educators in or near one of Oklahoma's metropolitan areas during March, 1994. The results of data analysis will be discussed in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This study was conducted to investigate the perceptions of selected students at the middle school, junior high school and high school attendance centers of a suburban/rural, K-12 Oklahoma independent school district (hereinafter known as the "district"). Specifically, an attempt was made to determine whether there had been a shift in student racial attitudes in the district from 1981 to 1991. The findings and conclusions of this study will center on the five general questions stated in Chapter I.

Collection of Data

The data gathered for analysis in this study were obtained by administering the Student Opinionnaire taken from the National Study of School Evaluation Guidelines for Multicultural-Multiracial Education in 1973 (See Appendix B). The data were collected by this investigator from students attending the district's middle school, junior high school and high school in 1981 and in 1991.

The study participants were all students in attendance during regular English classes in the senior high and junior high schools and regular social studies classes in the

middle school. Instructions for administering the Student Opinionnaire were discussed with the building principals and provided to the teachers by this investigator through each building principal (see Appendix C).

As shown in Table I, Chapter III, a profile of the student survey participant population by race, gender and attendance center is shown. Tables II through XIV in this chapter display study participant responses to the questionnaire that was administered as the major data collection vehicle in this study. The data in Tables II through XIV display responses to the questionnaire items, which in the aggregate differ by 10% or more by group (cell) when comparing the 1981 and 1991 student response sets.

To read and interpret the data found in Tables II through XIV, the following conventions must be applied:

A table cell containing an X indicates that the change in the aggregate response of the given subset of the student study participant population did not result in a shift of 10% or more. This observation was noticed when comparing responses from the 1991 administration of the study Student Opinionnaire with those acquired from the student subset, in terms of gender, race and attendance level, in 1981.

A plus (+) sign indicates a positive shift of 10% or more in the aggregate responses from 1981 to 1991.

3. Likewise, a negative (-) sign will indicate an aggregate negative shift in the respondent subgroups from 1981 to 1991.

An interpretative statement relative to the example below regarding the statement: "Because of the advent of new technologies, the world is smaller" would be as follows:

SAMPLE TABLE

"The World Is Smaller"

Group	Yes	No	Maybe
A	X	-15	X
В	+12	X	X
C	X	X	+20

- a. When comparing responses from 1991 study participants with those who participated in the study ten years earlier (1981), 15% fewer of Group A respondents thought the world was smaller;
- b. Under like circumstances, 12% more of the Group B study participants agreed with the assertion that the world was smaller and,
- c. Finally, 20% more of the 1991 Group C study participants could neither agree or disagree with the statement of their 1981 counterparts.

Findings

Research Question #1

Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-student racial relationships in the K-12 school district under study differ from 1981 to 1991?

When presented with the statement: "Racial differences are not important to the students in this school", there was no significant change in the responses of the White students who participated in the study in 1981. In 1991, at all three attendance centers (Table II), the response was relatively the same.

However, among the minority students, Black males at all three attendance centers and Black females at the junior high school indicated that racial differences were important. For example, 43% of the Black male high school (BMHS) students agreed with this assertion in 1981 but none agreed in the 1991 respondent group. Likewise there was a 25% increase in disagreement with this statement among the BMHS students from 1981 to 1991.

Similar trends of lowering of agreement were observed among the Black male junior high school (BMJHS) students and Black male middle school (BMMS) students. The most pronounced shift in attitude among female respondents with regard to the importance of racial differences were the Black female junior high school (BFJHS) students. They echoed the trend observed among their male counterparts that a definite attitudinal shift toward disagreeing with the belief that racial differences are not important occurred from 1981 to 1991. Indian male high school (IMHS) students also exhibited this trend in belief patterns.

When student respondents were asked about the racial make-up of the students which their school favored, all respondent groups except BMHS, BMJHS, BFJHS, and BMMS students indicated predominantly that there were no favorites in 1991 (Table III). Black male junior high and middle school respondents showed relatively large increases in

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "RACIAL DIFFERENCES ARE NOT IMPORTANT IN THIS SCHOOL"

Race & Gender		High School		Ju	nior High Sc	hool	Middle School		
	A	В	С	A	В	c	A	В	С
White Male	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
White Female	x	x	-13	x	x	x	x	x	x
Black Male	-43	+25	+18	-22	+25	x .	-19	+22	x
Black Female	x .	x	x	-45	+63	-19	x	-18	+11
Indian Male	-15	+11	x	x	-16	+10	x	-22	+13
Indian Female	x	x	x , ,	x	x	-10	x	x	x

Note:

A = Agree

B = Disagree

C = Uncertain

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991
-= a decrease in percent for that same period

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE
AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991:
"STUDENTS WHICH THIS SCHOOL FAVORS"

Race & Gender	I	ligh Sci	hool	Juni	or High S	chool		Middle School				
	A	В	С	A	В	С	A	В	С			
White Male	-11	Х	+20 :	Х	Х	Х	х	Х	х			
White Female	x	X	+10	X	x	x	x	x	X			
Black Male	x	-19	+24	X	+24	-26	+31	+15	-46			
Black Female	X	-16	+16	+17	-16	X	+13	3 -27	+14			
Indian Male	-12	X	+11	-11	X	+21	-15	+14	x			
Indian Female	-14	-10	X	X	+13	X	+12	x	x			

Note:

A = Non-White

B = White

C = No Favorites

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

their responses from 1981 to 1991 which indicated their belief that their school favored White students: 24% and 15% respectively.

All student respondents at the high school, except for Indian female high school (IFHS) students indicated an increase in their belief from 1981 to 1991 that no favoritism with reference to racial make-up of the student body is shown at this school.

Finally, BMMS students increased their response from 0% in 1981 to 31% in 1991 relative to their perception of favoritism toward non-White students while at the same time, 52% of the BMMS students indicated no-favorites in 1981 but only 6% took this position in 1991.

Also, as shown in Table IV, BMJHS and Black female middle school (BFMS) students displayed marked variation from 1981 to 1991. The BFMS respondents particularly did not agree as shown when the 1991 study responses for their sub-group were compared with their 1981 counterparts. Twenty-five percent (25%) more of the BFMS students indicated they did not care what the racial composition of their school was, while 56% fewer 1991 respondents than 1981 indicated that they did not wish to attend a segregated, "own-race" school.

Finally, there is consistency in the data across all respondent groups when analyzing the "own-race" student body preference choice question. Except for the BMMS, BFJHS and BMJHS students who increased their preference for an "own-race" student body composition by 11%, 40%, and 17% respectively, all other groups at all levels indicated a lowered preference for an "own-race" student body in 1991 when compared with the responses of their counterparts who were queried on this issue in 1981 (Table IV).

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "STUDENT BODY PREFERENCE"

Race & Gender		High	School			Junior 1	High Scho	ool	Middle School			
	Α	В	С	D .	A	В	С	D	A	В	С	D
White Male	-18	Х	X	+14	х	X	X	X	-11	X	Х	+11
White Female	-21	X ·	+14	X	-18	X	X	X	-15	x	X	+11
Black Male	-25	x	+28	X	. +17	x	X	-22	+11	+13	+17	X
Black Female	X	X	X	Χ.	+40	-13	-20	X	-56	+10	-20	+25
Indian Male	-14	X	X	+21	-25	X	X	+28	-12	X	X	+19
Indian Female	X	X	+25	-30	-11	X	X	X	-23	x	-11	+12

Note:

A = Own Race

B = Another Race

C = Mixed Race

D = Don't Care

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

When asked whether "mingling with students of other races on affected learning" in their school, three (3) subgroups of respondents lowered their belief that it 'helped' from 1981 to 1991. Those student subgroups and their respective "lowered" opinions, by percentage, were the BFJHS (-32%), BMMS (-31%), and the IFMS (-26%) students. Also the BMMS student respondents increased their response (by 49%) that desegregation (mingling) hindered learning in their school when compared with responses of the 1981 study participants with those in 1991. The IMHS increased their "no-effect" response over the 10-year period (1981-1991) to this by 28% while also dropping the percentage of their response (by 26%) that they were "not certain" that it made any difference to mingle the races over that same 10-year interval. Finally, the BFJHS student participant group while lowering their opinion as a group by 32% that mingling of the races at their school helped learning, also indicated a similar lowering of their belief from 1981 to 1991 that this composition of student body at their attendance had no effect on learning (Table V).

Research Question #2

Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-teacher racial relationships in the K-12 school district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?

When asked whether or not, "books and activities (in my school) respected all races" and given the response categories of "always", "usually", "seldom", and "never", the greatest change from 1981 to 1991 with regard to this statement came from the Black students at all three (3) attendance centers (Table VI).

TABLE V

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "EFFECT OF MINGLING WITH STUDENTS OF OTHER **RACES ON LEARNING**

Race & Gender		High	School			Junior H	ligh Schoo	I	Middle School			
	A	В	С	D	A	В	С	D .	A	В	С	D
White Male	X	-11	+12	X	Х	X	X	-12	+10	X	X	X
White Female	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	-12	X	X	+10	-16
Black Male	X	+24	-13	-10	X	+15	X	-19	-31	+49	-12	X
Black Female	X	+12	X	-16	-32	X	+15	+10	X	X	X	X
Indian Male	X	X	+28	-26	+31	X	-38	X	х	X	X	X
Indian Female	+13	X	X	X	х	X	+13	-23	-26	X	+17	-12

Note:

A = Help B = Hinder

C = No Effect

D = Not Certain

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "BOOKS AND ACTIVITIES RESPECT ALL RACES"

Race & Gender		High	School			Junior H	ligh Schoo	·1		Middle School			
	Α	В	С	D	Α.	В	С	D	A	В	С	D	
White Male	X	X	X	. X	x	X	X	X	х	+10	X	X	
White Female	X	X	X	X	Х	X	$\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{X}$	X	х	+15	x	X	
Black Male	-17	x	+19	X	-34	-31	+38	+27	х	X	X	X	
Black Female	-19	+39	X	-12	x	-21	X	+12	-23	X	+24	X	
Indian Male	+13	. X	X	-13	X	X	X	X	+18	X	X	X	
Indian Female	X	X	X	X	X	+17	X	-11	х	+14	X	-14	

Note:

A = Always

B = Usually

C = Seldom

D = Never

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

The 1991 BMJHS student respondents noticeably disagreed with their 1981 counterparts in indicating a much lowered opinion that books and activities at their school respected all races. The 1991 BMJHS students indicated 34 and 31% lower to the "always" and "usually" choices to this question and 38% and 27% higher as a group to the "seldom" and "never" choices respectively. However, the 1991 BFJHS respondents did indicate a 39% higher response to this question than did their 1981 counterparts.

When study participants were asked what "students do teachers in this school seem most interested in helping?", Table VII comparisons between the years 1981 and 1991 show that the IMHS students increased their belief that teachers help all students by 28% while BMHS students increased their response by 20% to the "none" choice given as a possible option to this question. At the same time the BMJHS and BFJHS respondents educed their group response by 26% and 46% respectively to the "all" choice when comparing 1991 with 1981 responses. Interestingly, 34% more of the 1991 BFJHS student participants indicated that the teachers in their school helped White students than did that same student subgroup in 1981.

When asked the racial preference of teachers at their attendance center (Table VIII), only two (2) subgroups, IMJHS and BMMS students, indicated a greater response in 1991 to the "Don't Care" choice than did their 1981 counterparts. The Indian males at the junior high school (IMJHS) increased their "I don't care" response by a whopping 82% from 1981 to 1991 while indicating a lowered preference of 44% and 22% respectively to the choices of "mixed race" and "another race". Only one (1) response subgroup, the BMJHS students, revealed an increase preference from 1981 to 1991 for teachers of their race. Three (3) respondent subgroups, the BFHS, BMHS, and BFMS

TABLE VII

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "STUDENTS WHICH TEACHERS SEEM MOST INTERESTED IN HELPING"

Race & Gender		High S	School		1	Junior H	ligh Schoo	1	Middle School			
	Α	В	С	D	A	В.	С	D	A	В	С	D
White Male	X	Х	X	Х	Х	X	X	X	х	X	X	Х
White Female	X	X	X	x	X	X	X	x	х	X	X	X
Black Male	-14	+20	X	x	-26	X	X	+18	Х	X	X	X
Black Female	+16	X	X	-12	-46	X	+12	+34	х	X	+14	-17
Indian Female	+28	-15	X	-11	x	X	X	X	х	X	X	X
Indian Female	-12	X	. X	+15	+12	X	X	X	-11	X	X	X

Note:

A = Ali

B = None

C = Non-White

D = White

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

TABLE VIII

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "STUDENT RACIAL PREFERENCES OF TEACHERS"

Race & Gender		High	School		Junior High School				Middle School			
•	Α	В	С	D	A	В	С	D	A	В	С	D
White Male	-22	X	X	-21	х	х	Х	X	-11	х	X	+11
White Female	-18	X	X	+15	х	X	X	x	x	X	X	X
Błack Male	x	X	+27	-15	+39	X	-13	-26	х	X	-17	+22
Black Female	x	X	+38	-43	+11	X	+10	-21	х	-13	+20	-13
Indian Male	-15	X	X	+11	-16	-22	-44	+82	x	X	X	X
Indian Female	X	X	+17	-33	X	X	X	X	х	-10	+17	-10

Note:

A = Own Race

B = Another Race

C = Mixed Race

D = Don't Care

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

students exhibited a preference for an increase in a "mixed race" teacher cohort composition when 1991 responses were compared with 1981 results.

Table IX shows the responses of student study participants when asked in 1981 and again in 1991 if they "have teachers from more than one (1) racial group" in their school. A plus (+) sign before the column A numerical (percentage) entries in Table IX indicate that there was an increase in the racial mix of teachers at the various attendance centers of the district involved in the study as measured through their response of the student study participants. In like manner, a negative numerical entry indicated a drop or decrease. Thus, if a positive was indicated the respective A (or yes) columns, there was an increase in the mix or percentage of "teachers from more than one racial group" at that attendance center from 1981 to 1991 as measured through the responses of the study participants. A positive (+) sign in the "no" or B column indicates a decrease from 1981 to 1991. This phenomenon of a combination of a positive yes and a negative no is most prominently displayed in the data pertaining to the junior high school and middle school. The high school data is, for the most part, reversed which would tend to indicate that the teaching ranks at the study district's high had become less integrated while the junior high school and middle school had become more so.

Research Question #3

Will the perceptions of the study respondents regarding student to principal racial relations in the K-12 school district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?

In response to the statement: "The principal sincerely wants to eliminate racial prejudice in this school", there was a noticeable increase in agreement and lowering of

TABLE IX

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "STUDENTS HAVE TEACHERS FROM MORE THAN ONE RACIAL GROUP"

Race & Gender	High	School	Junior Hi	gh School	Middle School		
	A	В	A	В	A	В	
White Male	-10	+10	+14	-14	+27	-27	
White Female	-12	+12	+21	-20	+25	-25	
Black Male	-32	+32	X	X	+23	-23	
Black Female	-15	+15	+28	-28	X	, X	
Indian Male	-20	+20	+28	-28	X	x	
Indian Female	X	\mathbf{X}_{i}	+27	-27	+23	-23	

Note:

A = Yes

B = No

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

disagreement from 1981 to 1991 by practically all respondent groups except the IMHS, BFJHS, IFMS students (Table X). The largest increase in uncertainty over the 10-year period on this item was displayed by the IFHS, IFJHS, and both BM and BF JHS students.

Research Question #4

Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding racial climate at each school in the K-12 school district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?

As shown in Table XI, when presented the statement that "there is no racial tension in this school", there was no noticeable shift in attitude regarding this item among the White student respondents at all three (3) attendance centers. However, the 1991 BMHS respondents dropped their agreement as a group with this proposition when compared with their 1981 BMHS counterparts by 32% and raised their disagreement by 39%. Also there appeared to be a high degree of uncertainty about racial tension in their schools among the BFMS and IMMS students in that the 1991 respondents raised their collective response to this statement by 23 and 25% respectively over their 1981 counterparts.

Student participants were next asked to render their opinion as to the treatment of students in their school. Response choices given were: "Equal, regardless of race"; "Unequal, because of race"; or "I don't know". The results were greatly variable ranging in a decrease of 45% in the 'equal' response by BFJHS when comparing 1991 responses with 1981 to an increase of the same amount (45%) by the same subgroup for the same

TABLE X PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND

GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "THE PRINCIPAL WANTS TO ELIMINATE RACIAL PREJUDICE IN SCHOOL"

Race & Gender	H	ligh Scho	ol .	Ju	nior High	School	Middle School			
	A	В	С	A	В	С .	Α	В	С	
White Male	+10	X	X	X	X	X	+12	X	X	
White Female	X	-11	+12	X	: X	X	X .	X	X	
Black Male	+35	-25	-10	-16	X	+11	X	-24	+20	
Black Female	+39	-27	-12	-14	+16	X	X	-24	+19	
Indian Male	\mathbf{X}^{\perp}	+29	-32	+27	X	-2 6	X	-14	+13	
Indian Female	-18	-17	+35	X	-22	+25	X	+12	-12	

Note:

A = Agree

B = Disagree

C = Uncertain

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10% + = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

TABLE XI

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "THERE IS NO RACIAL TENSION IN THIS SCHOOL"

Race & Gender	:	High Scho	ol		Junior High School					Middle School		
	A	В	С		A	В	С	_	A	В	С	
White Male	X	X	X	-	X	X	X		X	X	X	
White Female	X	X .	X		$\mathbf{X} \stackrel{\mathbf{Y}}{\rightarrow} \mathbf{X}$	X	X		X	X	X	
Black Male	-32	+39	X		X	+13	-13		X	X	X	
Black Female	X	X	X		+12	X	-14		-15	X	+23	
Indian Male	X	+17	-19		X	-19	+18		X	-28	+25	
Indian Female	X	X	X		+17	-11	X		X	X	X	

Note:

A = Agree

B = Disagree

C = Uncertain

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

time period on the unequal <u>because</u> of race choice. A similar reversal from 1981 to 1991 was noted in the case of the BFHS students -24% and +35%, equal and unequal respectively. The opposite of this trend was noted as shown in the data in Table XII wherein the IMJHS and the BMMS students tended to show an increase (25 and 25% respectively) from the 1981 to 1991 response sets in their perception of being treated equal <u>regardless</u> of race and a decrease (31 and 34% respectively) in their perception of being treated unequal because of their race.

When asked in which racial class mix they believed they obtained their "best education", a variety of results were obtained when comparing the choices of 1991 respondents with 1981 respondents in this study (Table XIII). For example, the 1991 WMHS, BMHS, and BFMS students lowered their preference for being in a class composed mainly of their own race when compared with 1981 respondents. However, there was a 29% increase by the 1991 BMJHS students for an "own-race" class composition. Other groups, namely the 1991 BM and BF high school students showed a marked increase in their preference for a balance(d) mixture of races in their classes while the IFJHS and IMSS students showed a decrease in their preference for this option.

When student respondents were asked how they liked attending their school (attendance center) no participating subgroups raised or lowered their opinion greatly when given the chance to answer "very well" in 1991 as compared to their counterparts in 1981 (Table XIV). However, a number of the responding 1991 student subgroups did raise their group percentage response to the "well enough" option in 1991. Only one (1) student group, the BMJHS students, lowered their preference of this response in 1991 and they confirmed that preference by indicating an increase of 24% in their preference for the

TABLE XII

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "TREATMENT RECEIVED BY STUDENTS BECAUSE OF RACE"

Race & Gender]	High Scho	ool	Ju	nior High	School	Middle School			
	A	В	С	Α	В	С	A	В	С	
White Male	+21	-14	X	X	X	Х	X	Х	Х	
White Female	+12	X	x	x	X	X	X	X	-13	
Black Male	X	X	x	-13	+20	X	+35	-34	x	
Black Female	-24	+35	-12	-45	+45	X	X	-28	+22	
Indian Male	+14	x	-19	+25	-31	X	X	X	X	
Indian Female	+16	X	. X	X	X	X	+19	X	-21	

Note:

A = Equal, regardless of race

B = Unequal, because of race

C = Don't Know

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

TABLE XIII

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "CLASS COMPOSITION OF STUDENTS IN WHICH THE BEST EDUCATION IS OBTAINED"

Race & Gender	High School				Junior High School				Middle School			
	A	В	С	D	A	В	С	D	A	В	С	D
White Male	-23	X	X	+21	Х	X	Х	X	-12	X	X	+13
White Female	-17	X	· X	+12	-16	X	X	+14	-11	X	X	+10
Black Male	-35	X	+30	X	+29	X	X	-20	х	+13	X	X
Black Female	-12	X	+22	X	+10	. X	X	X	-24	+10	X	+16
Indian Male	-18	. X	X	+20	X	X	X	X	х	X	-23	+19
Indian Female	Х	X	+15	-16	X	X	-28	+35	-12	X	+10	X

Note:

A = Own Race

B = Another Race

C = Mixed Race

D = Don't Care

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

TABLE XIV

PERCENTAGE DIFFERENCES IN STUDENT RESPONSES BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL FROM 1981 TO 1991: "EXTENT TO WHICH STUDENTS LIKE ATTENDING THIS SCHOOL"

Race & Gender	High School				Junior High School				Middle School			
	A	В	С	D	A	В	С	D	A	В	С	D
White Male	+12	X	X	X	-10	X	+11	X	-16	X	X	X
White Female	-11	+16	X	X	-17	X	X	X	x	X	X	X
Black Male	X	+21	, X	-24	Х	-34	+18	+24	-12	+18	X	X
Black Female	X	+33	-10	-17	Х	+52	-3 6	-12	X	X	X	X
Indian Female	+15	X	x	-13	х	+24	-14	-12	-15	X	X	+20
Indian Female	-13	+30	X	-11	х	X	+15	X	х	+14	X	-10

Note:

A = Very Well

B = Well Enough

C = Not Very Well

D = Not At All

X = Absolute difference in percentage of responses from 1981 to 1991 is less than 10%

+ = an increase in percent of responses from 1981 to 1991

"not at all" response in 1991. By the same token the BFJHS students raised their opinion of their school by 52% when comparing 1991 with 1981 cohorts, on the "well enough" option, and supported that answer by lowering the group percentage for "not very well" by 36%.

Research Ouestion #5

Will responses of interviewed study participants regarding public school desegregation relate to student perceptions of racial attitudes in the K-12 school district under study from 1981 to 1991?

In an attempt to validate student perceptions in 1981 and 1991, responses listed below have been solicited from interviewed participants who were key public school personnel during early stages of desegregation in the 1960's. These personnel later became public school administrators and were asked to participate in the study. After critical examination of source materials (interviewee responses) regarding school desegregation and racial attitudes, the eight (8) interview questions and responses were reduced to address three (3) interview questions. Interviewee responses are included below under fictitious names that were assigned for the purpose of the study.

Interview Question #1

Did integrated schools do a better job of educating Black children in the 1960's and 1970's than integrated schools of today?

Ross. With school desegregation Black children lost the attention of Black teachers. Prior to desegregation, Black teachers' and principals' expectation levels for Black children were higher. Today, there are fewer Black teachers in public schools and the numbers continue to drop. Recently, Black kids are going back to the Black universities.

<u>Smith</u>. Federal implementation programs in integrated schools provided educational success opportunity to all students and created a better environment for Black students by providing an increase of materials and supplies but, because of low teacher expectation levels, the environment in desegregated schools was not good for Black students. Therefore, (we must) empower principals to be accountable for effective desegregation at their building level.

<u>Doe</u>. While school desegregation facilities and learning materials are better, Black males were put in special education classes and Black children regressed as a whole. Today, we should have training programs for teachers, parents and community leaders in order to change racial attitudes of adults. For example, White parents run from racial problems by pulling their children out of public schools and enrolling them in private schools (See Appendix E).

Interview Question #2

Do you think Black children would have been better off if integration had not taken place?

Ross. It would have been better not to have rushed into desegregation in schools until desegregation happened in our society. The statement that some educators make that Black children would have been better off without school desegregation has merit. For example, today there is a stigma attached to students in a predominantly Black school, in a large urban school district. Whereas, before school desegregation, it was okay to attend an all Black school and you were expected to learn.

<u>Smith</u>. Teacher expectation was greater in the Black school where Black students achieved at the teachers' level of expectations. However, the key to desegregation is the atmosphere and attitudes generated by the business community for Black children and how it is carried out through cooperative efforts of the business community and the school.

<u>Doe</u>. Black children relate better to teacher of their own culture.

Interview Question #3

Is there less racism in schools of today than in the past?

Ross. There is more racism in schools today. Since school desegregation, the percentage rate of Black teachers versus White teachers has decreased rapidly. A lower rate of Black teachers helps to perpetuate racism. It appears that Black kids have just been thrown to the dogs. It's a very tough situation right now in this country about education in general but about Black youth in particular.

<u>Smith</u>. Racism exists and is perpetual. The need is to continue race relations and human relations programs.

Doe. Covert racism exists in schools today (See Appendix E).

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Recapitulation

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess whether there was a shift in selected students perceptions of racial attitudes in a local K-12 school district between 1981 and 1991. The following questions were investigated:

- 1. Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-student racial relationships in the K-12 school district under study, differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?
- 2. Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-teacher racial relationships in the K-12 school district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?

- 3. Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-principal racial relationships in the K-12 school district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?
- 4. Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding racial climate at each school under study in the K-12 school district differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?
- 5. How will several key participants who took part in the desegregation of public schools, compare racial relations then and now?

Research Procedures

A 13 item survey instrument enumerating current and general issues with regard to racial attitudes and climate of a "yes" or "no" and multiple choice variety was submitted directly to all available students at a K-12 school districts high, junior high and middle school students in 1981 and in 1991.

Student Participants

One thousand six hundred eighty-five usable instruments were returned in 1981 and 1,529 were returned in 1991 by the participants defined in this study as selected students.

Analysis consisted of forming a table for each of the thirteen items. Participant response to each item was entered after counting and determining percentages for each group in the study by (gender, race and school level) for 1981 and 1991.

Further analysis of the participants' responses in this study was obtained by using the tables in Chapter IV to compare and report differences between 1981 and 1991 for

each group. Percentage differences between the years (1981 and 1991) of ten percent (10%) or more, were calculated. A plus (+) sign indicated an increase in percentage of response for that same period by item by respondent subgroup from a negative (-) sign indicated a decrease for that same period. Differences in responses between selected participants in 1981 and 1991 was obtained in this study by adding and subtracting percentages.

Interview Participants

In an attempt to confirm or further explain quantitative responses of student participants, a 30 minute face-to-face interview was directed to three (3) prominent area public school administrators in the area in March of 1993.

Findings

The following findings are a result of the research questions presented in Chapter I of this study.

Research Question #1

Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-student racial relationships in the K-12 school district under study, differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?

Discussion

Student-to-student racial relations as perceived by the student participants in this study, appear to be as effective in 1991 as they were in 1981 but not at all schools and not for all students. For instance, White students at all three attendance centers responding to the four survey items related to student-to-student racial relations see little or not difference in racial relations between 1981 and 1991.

While on the other hand Black male students at all three attendance centers and Black female junior high school (BFJHS) students responding to the four survey items think racial differences are important in their schools.

But Indian female high school (IFHS), Indian female junior high school (IFJHS), Black male junior high school (BMJHS), Black male middle school (BMMS) and Indian male middle school (IMMS) students indicated that White students are favored in their schools.

As far as preference relative to racial composition of the study body, White students and Indian students at all three attendance centers did not favor a segregated, "own-race" student body while Black male and female students at the junior high and BMMS students favored a study body comprised of their own race.

Again, Black males at all three attendance centers and Black female high school (BFHS) students believe that mingling with students of other races is a hindrance to their learning. This belief appeared to be greater in 1991 than in 1981.

Conclusion

If student-to-student racial relationships in the K-12 school district appear as effective in 1991 as in 1981, it may be because responses of White and Indian students at all attendance centers, in many cases, reflect no noticeable change between 1981 and 1991 regarding the four survey items.

However, something happened between 1981 and 1991 with Black students, male and female at all three schools, that caused them to increase their response which was that "racial differences are important in this school." During the 1960's and 1970's parents of the 1981 cohort experienced the civil rights movement and school desegregation legislation and the student cohort of 1981 benefitted from the federal intervention programs that were used to help school district desegregate (Steech & Schuman, 1992). However, in the 1980's, under the Reagan and Bush administrations, federal intervention programs were reduced and in some instances civil rights legislation was corraborated by Katz and Taylor (1988). During the 12-year period from 1980 to 1992 the United States had a conservative administration for which civil rights enforcement was not a high priority, and by which many earlier gains and goals were questioned. The parents of the 1991 cohort which participated in this study mass have not had the benefit of experiencing the civil rights movement as adults nor did the students experience federal intervention programs between 1981 and 1991. These trends may have had some influence on the racial attitudes of the two study comparison groups.

Research Ouestion #2

Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-teacher racial relationships in the K-12 school district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?

Discussion

Student-to-teacher racial relations as perceived by the student participants in this study, appear to be as effective in 1991 as they were in 1981 but not for all schools and not for all students. For instance, White students at all three attendance centers responding to the four survey items related to student-to-teacher racial relations see little or no difference between 1981 and 1991.

However, 27% more BMJHS students indicated that books and activities in their school never respect all races in 1991 than in 1981; 34% more Black female junior high school (BFJHS) students think that teachers seem most interested in helping White students, 39% BMJHS students now prefer their own race as teachers. It appears that students may wish to have teachers from more than one racial group at all attendance centers except at the high school where it seemed that only White teachers teach at that school.

Conclusion

If student-to-teacher racial relations in the K-12 school district appear as effective in 1991 as in 1982, it may be because White males, for the most part, reflect no noticeable change between the years. Black students may have been more observant about the

growing lack of positive student-to-teacher racial relations than other groups in 1981 and 1991. However, the main ingredients for effective student-to-teacher racial relations is the extent to which teachers are racially isolated, teacher-acquired experience, teachers transferring involuntarily, faculty turnover and previous student achievements (Sanders, 1984).

Research Question #3

Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding student-to-principal racial relationships in the K-12 school district under study differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?

Discussion

Student-to-principal racial relations as perceived by the student participants in this study, appear to be as effective in 1991 as they were in 1981, but not for all student groups. For example, WMHS, Black male high school (BM HS) and Black female high school (BFHS) students responding to the survey item related to student-to-principal racial relations at the high school in 1991 saw the principal as wanting to eliminate racial prejudice while White female high school (WFHS) and IFHS students were uncertain that the principal wanted to eliminate racial prejudice in school.

But on the other hand, variable percentages of student study participants at all three attendance centers increased their uncertainty in 1991 that the principal wanted to eliminate racial prejudice in school.

Conclusion

Student-to-principal racial relations in the K-12 school district appears to be as effective in 1991 as in 1981. But some students are uncertain as to whether the principal wants to eliminate prejudice in 1991. It may be because students in the three attendance centers see the principal as a role model and the educational leader in the building. Student participants may believe all principals are fair and impartial in educational and disciplinary matters concerning students. Black male student's disagreement that the principal wanted to eliminate prejudice in their school may have been because of a lower number of minority administrators in the K-12 district in 1991.

Also of concern to Black students and Black male students in particular are stigmas that may be attached to Black students by society. The lack of attention to school desegregation by the students as well as teachers, principals, administrators and local school boards may contribute to this concern of Black students (Orfield, 1996).

Research Question #4

Will the perceptions of the study participants regarding racial climate at each school under study in the K-12 school district differ significantly from 1981 to 1991?

Discussion

Student perceptions of racial climate at each school appear to be as effective in 1991 as they were in 1981. For instance, White students, White males in particular, at all three attendance centers responding to the four survey items related to school climate see little or no difference in school climate between 1981 and 1991.

While on the other hand BMHS and Indian male high school (IMHS) students disagree that there is no racial tension in their school. BFHS and BFJHS students continue their belief of unequal treatment in school because of race. White students at all three attendance levels seemingly do not care about the class racial composition in which best education is obtained and BMHS and BFHS students prefer a mixed race class composition. Most students liked attending their school when very well and well enough were combined.

Conclusion

Student perceptions of racial climate at each school as perceived by the student participants in this study, appear to be as effective in 1991 as they were in 1981.

However, BMHS, IMHS, and BMJHS students seem to be the most disturbed about the assertion that "there is no racial tension in this school" in 1991. Whereas, BFHS, BFJHS, BMJHS students seemed to be disturbed with the survey item "treatment received by students because of race" in 1991. A general negative feeling about school racial climate in the K-12 district seems to exist only among Black students. This perceived difference in education seems to have caused an outward migration of Black parents to other school districts. The educational system supports either positively or negatively racial attitudes about schooling. Trent (1985) noted an association between academic programs, course enrollments, extra-curricular memberships and the extent of participation by Black and White students within schools.

Research Ouestion #5

How will several key participants who took part in the desegregation of public schools, compare racial relations then and now?

Discussion

Responses of the interviewees indicate that school desegregation and racial attitudes may not have had a positive influence on Black students. But because of school desegregation Black students were provided with more and better supplies and equipment. Conclusion

With school desegregation Black students lost the attention of the Black teacher. Black teacher expectations were higher for Black students. Perhaps, with school desegregation Black children regressed as a whole or maybe most of the remaining Black males were put in special education classes. It may have been better to wait and not have rushed into desegregation. It appears that there was a stigma attached to attending a predominantly Black school in 1991; whereas during desegregation, Black schools were all that Black students had. In other words, there was no choice but to attend an all Black school. Now, those once all Black schools are "Magnet Schools" in some urban settings.

Summary

After comparisons of the 1981 and 1991 surveys were made, differences relative to the five research questions stated in Chapter I have been observed and noted. Racial relations between 1981 and 1991 appeared to have been affected in the education of Black

students by the discontinuation of federal intervention programs in 1981. Two factors may have been prevalent between 1981 and 1991. Both the "color blind" perspective where the issue of racial differences was never raised by teacher or students and the "natural progression" assumption which caused schools to expect that positive intergroup relations would develop without administrative intervention must be re-examined in the list of a more recent study (Semons, 1989). The more recent study found a more pragmatic attitude toward intergroup toleration as well as a desire to avoid ethnic stereotyping.

Summary Conclusion

Public schools are educational organizations and patterned after businesses and steeped in bureaucracy with decision making usually coming from the top down.

Schools have a culture and the Black and White schools prior to desegregation each had their own different cultures. This study indicates that desegregation impacted those two different and distinct cultures. When students are placed into a culture different from their own, the insertion results in expressions of student differences. School desegregation involved restructuring the school for desegregation (integration purposes mixing of Black and White students in a school setting). In desegregating students, racial attitudes played a significant part in the effectiveness of change. Successful change processes can only happen with positive racial attitudes and effective leadership.

For the past 40 years public schools in Oklahoma have been desegregated-integrated. Very few longitudinal studies have been done to show the effects of integration on the lives of children. However, in 1991 Black parents in a K-12 school district in

Oklahoma were concerned about racial attitudes of school personnel in desegregated schools toward Black students. The context of classrooms was a concern; there was no Black teacher at the high school nor in the district to consult for special needs of Black students, and negative racial comments are often made to Black students.

Black male students reduced in numbers between 1981 and 1991. Without interference from federal intervention programs the school district seems to be reverting to the way it was before school desegregation. Presently the school district has no Black school and only a few Black students.

This study has attempted to show that because of racism and negative racial attitudes in the K-12 school district, there is a need to provide racial relation activities on a continual basis. The activities are required in order to help direct Black, White, Indian, and other children toward accepting diversity as a human phenomenon.

Recommendations

In light of the findings of this study and the investigator's summation of the related literature, it is recommended that the following action steps be undertaken:

- 1. Provide a transformation leader who displays morality and vision for positive school desegregation and who has the education, political, economics and religious support of the community;
- 2. Put more effort toward sensitizing White teachers to the needs of Black and Indian students, thereby increasing teacher expectation;
- 3. Empower principals, teachers, students and parents to gain support in improving present racial relations;

It is hoped that the findings of this research will provide positive literature on school desegregation and multi-racial concerns. It is further hoped that the findings will aid the school district in providing educational excellence to all of its students and Black students in particular.

Further Research

Further research needs to be conducted in the area of perception of school desegregation among students, teachers, administrators and school board members in school districts near large metropolitan areas. Further research efforts should pay close attention to percentages of Black student enrollment at the beginning of the school's desegregation and at the end of federal funding and take positive steps to enhance that enrollment.

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Alexander, K. et al. (1987). "School performance, status relations, and the structure of sentiment: bringing the teacher back in." *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 52, No. 5, 665-682 Oct 1987.
- Anderson, B. (1971). The psychology experiment: An introduction to the scientific method 2nd edition. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Ashmore, H. S. (1982). Hearts and minds: The anatomy of racism from Roosevelt to Reagan. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Bates, P. (1990). Desegregation: Can we get there from here? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1, 8-17.
- Banks, J. A. (1983). Multi-ethnic education and the quest for equality. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 64, 582-585.
- Bell, D. (1983) Learning from our losses: Is school desegregation still feasible in the 1980's? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 64. 572-575.
- Biassey, E. L. (1972). Paranoia and racism in the United States. *Journal of National Medical Association*, 64, 353-358.
- Blank, R. K. (1984). The effects of magnet schools on the quality of education In urban school districts. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 12, 270-272.
- Bobo, L. (1984). Racial harmony: Group conflict, prejudice, and the paradox of American racial attitudes. Doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
- Borg, W. & Gall, M. (1989). Educational research: An introduction. 5th edition. White Plains, NY: Longman, Inc.
- College Entrance Examination Board. (1985). The educational status of black Americans. *Equality and Excellence*, 1, 3-12.

- Comer, J. P. (1972). Beyond black and white. New York, NY: Quadrangle Books.
- Crain, R., M., R. & Narot, R., (1982). Making desegregation work: How schools create social climate. Cambridge, MA: Balinger.
- Damico, S., & Sparks, C. (1986). Cross-group contact opportunities: Impact on interpersonal relationships in desegregated schools. *Sociology of Education*, 59, 113-123.
- Dorn, E. (1979). Rules and racial equality. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Dubois, W.E. (1973). The education of black peoples: Ten critiques, 1900-1960, Amerherst, MA: University of Massachusetts Press.
- Elam, S. M. (1990). The 22nd annual gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1, 41-55.
- Epps, E. (1979). Impact of school desegregation on the self evaluation and achievement orientation of minority children. *Law and Contempory Problems*, 78, 57-76.
- Ford, M. D. (1985). Boston's schools after the battle. Commonwealth, 68, 239-242.
- Foster, W. (1986). Paradigms and promises: New approaches to educational administration. Buffalo, NY: Prometheus Books.
- Gay, G. (1990). Achieving educational equality through curriculum desegregation. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1, 56-62.
- Glock, C. (1967). Survey design and analysis in sociology: Survey research in the social sciences. New York, NY: Sage Foundation
- Grant, C. A., (1990). Desegregation, racial attitudes, and intergroup contact: A discussion of change. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1, 25-32.
- Greely, A. M., & Sheatsley, P.B. (1971). Attitudes towards racial integration. *Scientific American*, 6, 13-19.
 - Greenberg, Jack, (1962). (3rd ed.) Columbia University Press.

- Harris, F. R. & Wilkins, Roger W. (1988). "Quiet riots: Twenty years after the Kerner report". New York, NY: Pantheon Books.
- Hawley W. D. (1983). Achieving quality integrated education with or without federal help. *Phi Delta Kappan*. 1, 334-338.
- Irvine, J. J. (1988). An analysis of the problem of disappearing black educators. *Elementary School Journal*, 22, 355-365.
- Johnson, W. M. (1989). A comparative analysis of learning styles of black and white college freshmen. (Unpub. doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University.)
- Jomills, H. B. (1985). School desegregation and back assimilation. *Journal of Social Issues*, 41(3).
- Jung, R., & Tashjian, M. (1983). Big districts and the block grant: First year fiscal impacts. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 65, 199-203.
- Katz, J.H. (1976). White awareness: Handbook for anti-racism training. Norman: OK: University of Oklahoma Press.
- Kennedy, X. & Kennedy, D. (1990). The bedford guide for college writers. 2nd edition. Boston, MA: Bedford Books.
- Leedy, P. A comparative study of student perceptions about desegregation in 1981 and in 1991 (1889). Practical research: Planing and design. New York, NY: Macmillian Publishing Company.
- Levin, H. M. & Hopfenberg, W. S. (1991). Don't remediate: Accelerate. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 3, 11-13.
- Lincoln, C. A., & Higgins, N. M. (1991). Making schools work for all children. *Principal*, 3, 6-8.
- Martens, M. M. (1991). An analysis of the perceptions of the participants in the german marshall fund of the United States teacher in-service training. (doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University).
- McKinley, K. H. (1971). Belief patterns of key Iowa State educational leaders concerning selected educational issues and reform proposals. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa).
- Million, A. (1987). Oklahoma and the United States constitution: A selected and annotated bibliography. (Report No. 50020295). Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Libraries. (ERIC document Reproduction Service No. Ed 312-195).

- Morris, .L. A. & Others. (1980). Multi-cultural education. (Report No. 142). Norman, OK: Oklahoma University.
- Morrow, R. D. (1991). "The challenge of southeast Asian parental involvement". *Principal*, 3, 20-22.
- Ogbu, J. (1978). Minority education and caste: The American system In cross-cultural perspective. New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Ogbu, J. (1981). "School ethnography a multi-level approach. Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 12, 3-29.
- Ogbu, J. (1982). Cultural discontinuities and schooling. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 13, 290-307.
- Orfield, G. (1996). Dismantling desegregation: The quiet reversal of Brown v Board of Education. New York, NY: New Press.
- Orfield, G. & Ashkinaza, C. (1991). The closing dooe: Conservative and black opportunities. Chicago, IL: Chicago Press.
- Orfield, G. (1981, December). Toward a strategy for urban integration: Lessons in school and housing policy from twelve cities. New York, NY: Ford Foundation.
- Peretti, P.O. (1976). Effects of teachers attitudes on discipline problems in schools recently desegregated. *Education*, 97, 1976 136-140.
 - Poinsett, A. (1967, April). Thirteen years after 1954. p. 84.
 - Popham, J. W. & Sirotnik, K. A. (1973). New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Redman, G. L. (1977). Study of the relationship of teacher empathy for minority persons and inservice human relations training. *Journal of Educational Research*, 70, 205-210.
- Rudestam, K. & Newton, R. (1992). Surviving your dissertation: A comprehensive guide to content and practice. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Russell, S. et al. (1979). Desegration case studies. Volume 1: Final report. (Report No. SRI-PR-FPPC-24). Menlo Park, CA: Stanford Research Institution, (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED-135210).
- Sanders, J. (1984). Faculty desegregation and student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 3, 605-616.

- Scott, R., & McPartland, J. (1982). Desegration as national policy: Correlates of racial attitudes. *American Educational Research Journal*, 19, 397-414, 1982.
- Schofield, J.W. (1987). The review of research on school desegregation's impact on black Americans. (Report No. UD027413). Pittsburg, PA: Pittsburg University, Learning Research and Development Center, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 319-826).
- Semons, M. (1989). Ethnographic depiction of a multiethnic school: A comparison to desegregated settings. (Report No. UDo26875). San Francisco, CA: American Educational Research Association, (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED 309214).
- Siegel, S. (1956). Nonparametric statistics for the behavorial sciences. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Slavin, R. E., & Nancy, M. (1979). School practices that improve race relations. *American Educational Research Journal*, 16, 169-180.
- Sleeter, C. E. (1990). Staff development for desegregated schooling. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1, 33-40.
- Smylie, J. A. (1983). Reducing racial isolation in large school districts. *Urban Education*, 17, 477-502.
- Stanfield, J. H. II. (1990). American business people and the ambivalent transformation of racially segregated public schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1, 63-67.
- Steeh, C., & Schuman, H. (1992). Young white adults: Did racial attitudes change in the 1980's? *American Journal of Sociology*, 98, 340-367.
- Stocklinski, J. & Miller-Colbert, J. (1991). The comer process: Moving from "I" to "we." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 3,18-19.
- Stephan, W.G. (1983). Blacks and "browns:" The effects of school desegregation on black students. (Report No. xxx). (ERIC document Reporduction Service No. ED2 39001).
- Stephan, W. (1978). School desegregation: An evaluation of predictions made in brown v. board of education. *Psychological Bulletin*, 85, 217-238.
- Taeuber, K. (1990). Desegregation of public school districts: Persistence and change. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1, 18-24.

- Taylor Fitz-Gibbon, Carol & Morris, Lyons Lynn. (1978). California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Taylor, G., Sheatsley, P., & Greeley, A. (1978). Attitudes toward racial integregation. *Scientific American*, 238, 42-51.
- Tilford, M. P. (1971). Factors related to the choice of science as a major among negro college students. (Unpub. doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University.)
- Trent, W. T. (1981). Contrasts, trends, and implications of student enrollments and extra-curricular memberships in desegregated high schools. (Grant No: NIE-0-1265) Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University, center for social organization of schools, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 229-491).
- Trevino, S. G. (1991). Mission Impossible? Success for at-risk students. *Principal*, 31-32.
- Washington, V. (1982). Implementing multicultural education: Elementary teacher's attitudes and professional practices. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 59, 198.
 - Williams, J. D. (1991, June/July). The NAACP in Focus. Crisis, pp. 60-70.
- Wirt, F. (1986). School finance and school desegregation: Ten year effects in southern school districts. Urbana, IL: Department of Political Science, University of Illinois-Urbana.
- Wolf, E. P. (1981). Trial and error: The Detroit school desegregation case. Detroit, IL: Wayne State University Press.

APPPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

CHRONOLOGY OF PROGRAMS FUNDED BY TITLE IV AND VII

Listed below are the objectives of the ESAA project during the period 1972 to 1982, and the tasks (in terms of activities) performed toward the accomplishment of those objectives.

I. ESAA PROJECT - 1972-73

- A. The primary purpose was to provide solutions to problems emanating out of desegregation attempts.
- B. The general objective of this program was to provide all educational staff and personnel with methods of improving race relations and, therefore, education in the desegregated school.
 - C. Specific objectives of the program were:
- 1. To increase participants' knowledge of race relations, human rights and related human relations skills.
 - 2. To increase participants' knowledge of various ethnic and minority groups.
 - 3. To increase participants' awareness of critical ethnic and cultural differences.
- 4. To improve the participants' ability to become more open and honest about their personal and/or controversial views on racial matters.
- 5. To improve and develop appropriate attitudes toward ethnic and cultural differences.
- 6. To increase participants' knowledge of appropriate materials for reading and learning about racial and cultural problem.
- 7. To increase positive racial interactions among students, professional colleagues and employees.

- 8. To improve participants' ability to deal with their own attitudes and behaviors toward people of another race or social class.
- 9. To create a climate within the school and school activities of interpersonal intimacy and trust among students and colleagues so that difficulties can be admitted and resources shared without competition and judgment.
- 10. To enhance student and staff feelings of involvement and influence in school policy-making and to increase support from peer groups and administrators.
- D. In order to achieve the above objectives, project activities were first designed for administrators and counselors.
- E. This was an important strategy, because these educators were expected to set a climate within which teachers could be brought into the process.
 - II. ESAA PROJECT 1973-74
- A. The major events during this period were concerned with maintaining and securing staff for the ESAA project.
 - B. The ESAA director held the title of "Human Relations Director."
 - C. The only other staff assignment was a secretary.
- D. Other major events conducted during this phase of the project were the purchase of materials and supplies, and extensive surveys of students, teachers, and parents.
- E. The survey led to a workshop entitled "Parent, Teacher Concern for Integration."
 - F. It seems appropriate to view this period as developmental in nature.

- G. Staff was hired, materials and equipment were purchased for program operation, and programs were initiated. The programs included:
 - 1. Inservice training for language arts teachers.
 - 2. Preschool inservice.
 - 3. After school programs (recreation, art, drama).
 - 4. High school tutoring program.
 - 5. Tutoring elementary students in basic academics.
 - 6. Inservice program for parents.
 - 7. Evaluation of students by school district psychometrist.
 - 8. Restructure of secondary school language arts curriculum.
- H. The activities initiated during this period appeared to be extremely important to the school district in terms of involving both human and material resources, as well as establishing a foundation for future ESAA activities.
 - I. Energies of the project director may be summarized as:
 - 1. Identification of students for tutoring.
 - 2. Facilitation of tutor activities for students.
 - 3. Purchase of essential teaching-learning materials.
 - 4. Identification and securing full and part-time personnel for ESAA project.
 - 5. Facilitating inservice training for teachers and parents.
 - III. ESAA PROJECT 1974-75
- A. The goal of the project during this time frame was to "increase positive relationships among different ethnic groups."

- B. The proposed objective was to improve students', teachers', and parents' attitudes by 25 percent.
 - C. A random sample of 50 parents, and 30 support personnel was conducted.
 - D. The instrument used was developed by the Human Relations Committee.
- E. The instrument for teachers contained 13 items which dealt with cooperation, communication, and acceptance of black students.
- F. Results of the survey indicated an overall improvement in acceptance of minority students as perceived by teachers.
- G. While there is no way of determining the validity of the instrument, the objective of "improving relationships" seems to have been achieved, as evidenced by the survey of elementary, junior high, and high school teachers (See survey of staff attitude results).
- H. Similarly, on the basis of a 17 item instrument, students perceptions were more positive than negative.
- I. Of the two parents groups surveyed, the PTA council yielded 211 positive responses and 47 negative responses. Black parent groups showed 199 positive responses and 41 negative responses.
- J. The date indicates that the objective of increasing or improving racial attitudes by 25 percent was achieved.
- K. Inservice and racial awareness activities implemented may be summarized as follows:
- 1. Seminars, conferences and workshops for school personnel and parents designed to improve skills in race and human relations was held.

- 2. Weekend, after school, and summer activities were sponsored by the project for:
 - a. Activity sponsors.
 - b. Social studies teachers.
 - c. Counselors.
 - d. New teachers (orientation to a desegregated setting).
- 3. A major need identified in the project proposal was to "reduce the disparity between the achievement pattern of minority and non-minority students in reading, math, and English."
- 4. The objective was to increase the reading and math level of 80 percent of the minority students by at least 1.0 grade level by the end of the 1974-75 school year as measured by the Standford Achievement Test.
 - L. The director initiated a series of tutorial activities involving students.
- M. Before tutorial services began, tutors were trained and assigned to elementary and junior high students, with priority given to minority students.
 - IV. ESAA PROJECT 1975-76 -No Funds-
 - V. ESAA PROJECT 1976-77
 - VI. ESAA PROJECT 1977-78
- A. Objectives for the ESAA project during this time frame were articulated in terms of process and product objectives.
 - B. Only the product objectives will be outlined in this report.
- C. These objectives will serve as a bench-mark for determining the extent to which the project was successful. The product objectives are:

- 1. A minimum of 45 junior high 8th and 9th grade students will enroll in photography in 1977-78.
- 2. Seventy percent of the 60 9th grade students enrolled in math lab at the junior high school will gain one or more grade levels in basic math computational skills, as measured by the SRA achievement test.
- 3. Sixty percent of minority students tutored in junior high 7th and 8th grades will show a gain in reading and math of at least one grade level by the end of 1977-78.
- 4. Summer school students will increase reading and math scores 20 percent as reflected by pre and past tests on both the Houghton/Mifflin diagnostic test in reading and math.
- 5. Sixty percent of 60 poor and/or non-reading students in grade 10 will raise their reading scores by 20 percent between the reading diagnostic test administered by the reading resource teacher.
- 6. The 1st and 2nd grade students in the three elementary target schools will raise their achievement level in reading and math 20 percent by comparison of pre and past diagnostic test scores.
- D. The following activities were performed toward accomplishment of the objectives:
- 1. Establishment of a math lab and hiring a teacher to coordinate remedial activities for target 9th grade students.
- 2. Establishment of tutorial program and hiring teacher to coordinate reading, math, and English tutorial activities for target 7th and 8th grade students.

- 3. Establishment of a reading lab and hiring a teacher to coordinate remedial reading activities for target 10th grade students.
- 4. Establishment of teacher aide program and hiring six teacher aides to assist in the areas of reading, math and English at the high school and three elementary schools.
- 5. Establishment of a communication mechanism by hiring three parents on a part-time basis to provide communication in three directions: e.g., student-teacher-parent.
- E. The following results address not only the five product objectives, but the process objectives as well. They are:
 - 1. Actual Accomplishments Tutoring
- a. Data collected shows at the end of school year 1976-77 a total of 18 tutors were active.
- b. For the school year 1976-77 there was a total of 33 tutors: 3 indian, 0 Black and 30 other.
- c. For the school year 1976-77 a total of 82 students were tutored: 5 indian, 15 black and 62 Other students.
- 2. Results: The objective of 60 percent minority students and 60 percent white students tutored and tutoring would indicate appreciation for the tutoring program and other ethnic students, was met and exceeded.
 - 3. Actual Accomplishments Tutoring
 - a. Unable to collect date on Stamford Achievement Test.
- b. Tutoring was not provided for elementary students 4-6 during the school day, for lack of transportation each hour to the elementary school tutoring sites.

- c. Results: The objective was not met.
- 4. Actual Accomplishments High School Reading (remedial)
- a. Students learned to use effectively both dictionaries and basic reference materials.
- b. Choosing and planning a post-high school career, DECA sponsored class discussions, reading and filling out job applications, voter registration forms and marriage license forms.
 - C. Writing and performing student written dramatic works.
 - d. Four students had poems published in the school literary magazine.
 - e. Read discussed literature selections daily in an open, humanistic environment.
 - f. Small classes established great rapport between students and teacher.
- 5. Results: 25 of the 52 students made reading gains based on subjective teacher assessment. The other 75 percent made little or no gain.

VII. ESAA PROJECT 1978-79

- A. The projects' mission for 1978-79 was a continuation of that for 1977-78.

 That is, there were seven product objectives, 5 of which articulated cognitive outcomes and two were expressed in affective terms.
- 1. During the project funding period, 70 percent of the 60 ninth grade students enrolled in math lab at the junior high school will gain one or more grade levels of basic math computational skills.
- 2. During the project funding period, 60 percent of the minority students tutored in junior high will show a gain in reading and math of at least one grade level.

- 3. Summer school students will increase reading and math scores by 20 percent between pre and post testing as measured by the Houghton Mifflin Diagnostic and the Hoffman Mastery tests.
- 4. Sixty percent of 60 poor and/or non-readers in grade 10 will raise their reading scores by 20 percent on comparison of pre and post diagnostic test scores.
- 5. The lst and 2nd grade students in the three elementary target schools will raise their achievement level in reading and math by 20 percent on comparison of pre and past diagnostic test scores.
- 6. The number of school/home contacts will increase by 20 percent over the school year 1978-79.
- 7. To provide a minimum of ten hours of human relations inservice training to project staff in the five target schools during 1978-79.
 - B. Activities for fiscal year 1978-79.
- 1. In order to determine the math performance level, placement and diagnostic tests were administered.
- 2. Efforts were made to select tutors from each cultural group contained in the school.
- 3. Support services were organized (consisting of parents, advisory committee, principal, and project director) to monitor the progress of the tutorial program.
- 4. The reading program sponsored by ESAA consisted of 60 low reading achievers assigned to classes on a 12 student per class basis.
 - 5. Other activities sponsored by ESAA included:
 - a. A teacher aide.

- b. A parent as Communication Specialist tohelp establish stronger home support.
- c. Staff development for five schools in areas of need.

VIII. ESAA PROJECT 1979-80

- A. Project objectives and activities were very similar to those of 1978-79 objectives.
 - B. The project objectives for this time-frame are as follows:
- 1. To develop a Martin Luther King, Jr. program involving at least 500 community persons.
- 2. Eighty-five percent of the minority students in the junior high (target school) math lab will raise their achievement level in math.
- 3. There will be at least a ten percent reduction in the number of minority negative interactions.
- 4. To promote an activity to the extent that at least a maximum of 300 community persons will attend.
- 5. Eighty-five percent of the minority students in the high school reading lab will raise their achievement level in reading.
- 6. Given a Teacher Aide program, 85 percent of the 1st and 2nd grade minority students in the target schools will raise their achievement level in reading and math by 20 percent.
- 7. Given two part-time communication specialists to work with, the five target schools, there will be an increase in the number of minority home/school contacts by 20 percent.

IX. ESAA PROJECT 1980-81

- A. The ESAA project design for this fiscal year is essentially the same.
- B. However, an evaluation component was added to:
- 1. Assess the extent to which positive relationships among ethnic groups increased.
 - 2. Assess the extent to which discriminatory discipline practices were removed.
- C. The school district cited two basic needs in its application for the ESAA project.
 - 1. To focus on increasing positive relationships among different ethnic groups.
- 2. To focus on discriminatory discipline practices that exist between minority and on-minority students.
- D. The same program activities were the same as (or extensions of) previous years in achieving project objectives.
- E. A management plan was constructed not only to guide development of the design but, also, to serve as a guide for:
 - 1. The information collection plan.
 - 2. Selection of instruments.
 - 3. The information analysis plan.
 - 4. Analysis of information.
 - 5. Interpreting and reporting findings.
- F. The sample contained a "middle school--junior high school--senior high school" student population of approximately 2,530.

- G. Samples consisted on 1010 valid scores for senior high school students, 606 for junior high students, and 515 for middle school students, representing valid scores for 84 percent of the "middle school--junior high--senior high" student population.
- H. There were 130 valid scores for black students and 142 for Native American students from a population of approximately 163 black student (middle, junior, senior high school) and 181 Native American students.
- I. The instrument administered to students was the Student Opinionnaire taken from the National Study of School Evaluation Guidelines for Multi-Cultural-Multiracial Education (1973).
- J. The instrument is concerned with student's perceptions of student-to-student racial relationships, teacher-to-student racial relationships, principal-to-student racial relationships and whether the racial climate reflect cultural diversity.

XI. ESAA 1981-82

- A. The ESAA three-year (1979-80, 1980-81, 1981-82) continuation grant ended in 1981-82.
 - B. The project evaluation was completed in 1980-81.
 - C. The project terminated at the end of 1981-82 school year.

APPENDIX B

STUDENT OPINIONNAIRE

1.		nces are not imp			s school.		
		(a) agree	(b)	disagree		(c) und	certain
2.	This school se	ems to favor st	udents who are	e:			
		(a) non-white					
		(b) white		4			
		(c) no favoritisn	n is shown				
3.	I would prefe	r to be in a stude	ent body:				
	-	(a) mainly of m	•	(c) fairl	v well ra	cially m	ixture of races
		(b) mainly of an		(d) don'			
4.	Effect of min	gling with stude	nts of other ra	ces:			
		(a) help my lear			ld not af	fect my	learning
		(b) hinder my le		(d) not			
5.	The books an	d activities in m	y classes respe	ect all races:			
	((a) always	(c)	seldom			•
	((b) usually	(d)	never			
6.	Teachers in th	is school seem	most interested	d in helping:			
	((a) all students	(c)	non-white stu	dents		
	((b) no students	(d)	white student	S		
7.	I prefer teach	ers who are:					
		(a) mainly of my		(c) a bal	lanced m	ixture o	f races
	. ((b) mainly of an	other race	(d) don'	t care ab	out the	race of my teachers
8.	I have teacher	s this year from	more than on	e racial group	:		
	((a) yes	(b)	no			
9.	The principal	sincerely wants	to eliminate ra	acial prejudic	e in this	school.	
	(a) agree		(b) disagree		(c) unc	ertain	
10.	There is no ra	cial tension in th	nis school.				
		a) agree		(b) disagree			(c) uncertain
11.	In general, stu	dents in this sch	nool receive:				
	(a) equal treatme	ent, regardless	of race	•		
	(b) unequal treat	tment, because	of race			
	(c) don't know					
12.	I think I obtai	n my best educa	tion in classes	in which the	students	are:	
		(a) mainly of my		(c) a bal			races
		b) mainly of an		, ,		ace is a f	
13.	I like attendin	g this school:	***				
	(a) very well	-	(c) not v	ery wel	l	
•	(b) well enough		(d) not a	at all		
I ar	nmale,	female.	My	race is			
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		nformation is i				
	GRADE	: 6	7 8	9	10	11	12
			(Circle one)				

APPENDIX C

INSTRUCTIONS FOR STUDENT OPINIONNAIRE

To the person\persons administering the student opinionnaire.

- (1). Distribute the student opinionnaires and ask the students not to start until they are directed to do so.
- (2). Read the following statement aloud to the students:

The opinionnaire before you is designed to obtain information and assess attitudes regarding your perceptions of racial relations in your school. Your co-operation and sincere responses to the items on the opinionnaire will be greatly appreciated.

- (a). Do not write your name on the form. A code will be assigned and no names will appear in the compilation of responses or in reports of this study.
- (b). Mark in the space provided race gender or grade as they apply to you.
- (3). Please read each question carefully and indicate your response as directed.
- (4). If you have a question please raise your hand for assistance.
- (5). When you finish wait for the opinionnaire to be collected.
- (6). You may begin.

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

During the 70's and 80's, a great deal of money was spent on Federal Intervention Programs for school desegregation. As someone who was a part of the school desegregation movement, please answer the following questions.

Warm up questions: (to encourage relaxation and feel at ease)

- 1. What was your position with the Public Schools when desegregation took place, when did desegregation occur and when did the intervention program begin and end?
 - 2. What was your community's reaction to desegregation?
 - 3. What did your students think about desegregation?
 - 4. How did the teachers and administrators feel about it?
- 5. Before you received federal funding, what programs did you implement to facilitate the transition?

Interview Questions

- 1. Did your intervention programs work to make the transition easier? To improve the quality of educational experiences for black children.
- 2. Do you think integrated schools of today do a better job of educating black children than the integrated schools in the 70's and 80's?
- 3. Did our intervention programs work to improve the quality of educational experiences for black children. More specifically, was there any carry over?
- 4. Do you think black children would have been and would be better off if integration had not taken place?
 - 5. Is there less racism in schools today than in the past?

- 6. If you had to be responsible for facilitating the integration of schools again, what would you do the same and what would you do differently?
- 7. Did your district continue funding intervention projects after federal funds ceased?
- 8. Is there anything else you would like to say about this topic which has not yet been asked?

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEWEE RESPONSES

How key participants in desegregation of public schools compare racial relations in public schools then and now is summarized by an analysis of face-to-face interviews. As stated in Chapter III anonymity was promised to the interviewees, neither their names nor school district would be used. Interviewees and their school districts have been identified by fictitious names. Of the 13 interview questions, five were warm-up questions (creating a relaxed atmosphere) with one question pertaining to demographics.

Information gathered from the warm-up questions and the eight question interview were used in relation to the five research questions stated in Chapter I.

Warm-up Questions

"What was your position in public schools when desegregation took place"?

Dave Ross said that the first part of desegregation began in 1963 when he was a college student. After graduation he was the only black teacher in that public school.

Bill Smith said that he was a teacher-coach in an all white public school in the early 1960's. In the late 1960's he was a graduate student at a desegregated state university.

In the early 1970's he became superintendent of a severely racially troubled desegregated school district.

Jane Doe began her teaching career as a classroom teacher in 1968 and was one of the first black teachers to integrate an all white high school.

"Community reaction to desegregation."

Dave Ross said that his community was very hostile and that the teacher's job was to keep law and order at school.

Bill Smith said that his community reacted very violently initially, but later had total community effort for desegregation and integration.

Jane Doe said that there was some resistance to desegregation among the white community but more acceptance and less resistance by the black community.

"Student reaction to school desegregation"?

Dave Ross said that white students were hostile when then black students and black teachers were put into white schools.

Bill Smith said that students had mixed emotions because during earlier desegregation efforts the student body had been divided along racial lines. Jane Doe feels that students went along with desegregation and what ever resistance was there, came from parents and other adults.

"Teacher and administration reaction to desegregation".

Dave Ross feels that desegregation was very demoralizing to the staff of the former black school because black teachers who had been department chairs were made regular teachers. Black principals and coaches became assistants to white principles and coaches in most cases. Bill Smith said that his teachers and administrators were willing to work with all (white, black and Indian) community leaders in order to make desegregation work.

Jane Doe said that on the surface teachers and administrators seemed to get along fine and this was a facade but we respected each other as professionals.

"Programs implemented to facilitate the transition before federal funding"?

Dave Ross reveals that basically federal funds (for title programs) involved in both separate schools were floated to the one school.

Bill Smith said that two strategies were undertaken first, recruit additional black teachers and second, perform a united community needs assessment (from white, black

and Indian leaders) for unity. Smith said that community meetings to discuss and improve bad situations and misunderstandings between black and white students, all were programs instigated from the *Phi Delta Kappan* journal, to facilitate transition from segregation to desegration.

Jane Doe said she was not aware of very many federal programs at her school, however she was aware of title programs during the 70's that helped disadvantaged children.

The school she taught at was in a disadvantaged, low economic area. She was encouraged to work there in order to get part of her national defense loan deducted for every year taught in that school.

Interview Question #1

"Did intervention programs work to make the transition easier and improve the quality of education for black children"?

Dave Ross reveals that his school did not have the ESAA program, however I think "because of the overall quality of title I materials the transition was made somewhat easier and did help to improve the quality of educational experiences of black children. The fallacy in desegregation was that black students lost the attention of black teachers. Black teachers could no longer call black students aside and tell them what they needed to do in the desegregated school. With desegregation the black teacher had to be discreet about showing partiality to black students.

Bill Smith said, I don't know. The question could be debated either way.

However, school desegregation and integration of black students into the school system did improve the quality of experiences for those black students (from the closed black

school). I sincerely believe that federally funded ESAA programs improved the quality of the total community because of the emphasis put on human relations and race relations. The non-minority and minority students caused an awareness to take place in the total community in the area of race relations and getting along with each other. I don't think you can look at quality educational experiences in terms of black children, but for all the children involved.

Jane Doe feels that after the schools were desegregated, black children seemed to regress as far as progressing academically. There was an increase of black children, especially black males, that were placed in special education classes. Furthermore prior to the desegregation of schools, only a very few black students were classified for special education programs out of 400 students in my graduating class.

Interview Question #2

"Do integrated schools today educate black children better than the integrated school of the 70's and 80's"?

Dave Ross said yes! because integration is an accepted fact today. However, when it comes to educating black youth, the schools of today do not do a better job of educating black youth than black schools during segregation."

Bill Smith said yes! by providing more opportunities and more alternatives, not only for minority students but, for all students.

Jane Doe feels unsure as to whether schools today do a better job of educating black children. However, as a result of integrated schools, black children have more opportunity to study advanced classes, use better textbooks and updated

equipment. But, on the other hand, there is an under-representation of black students in higher level courses.

Black children could lack confidence in their abilities and feel that they can not achieve in these high level classes. Usually these high level classes are taught by teachers of the dominant race, white male or female. Black children have a difficult time relating to the teaching style of those teachers. We need black role models teaching high level courses so that black children can feel more comfortable when taking those classes.

Interview Question #3

"Was there any carry over of quality educational programs for black children"?

Dave Ross includes title programs such as title-I and special education as federal intervention programs. These programs helped out a great deal and provided some services for kids who wouldn't have achieved without those programs. The sad part about it, is that it hurt those children because they became labeled. The labels of special education, Chapter-I kid, or Title I math, beats kids down and the expectation level of teachers for black kids was very low. They didn't expect the kids to do anything and the kids didn't do anything. There was more-carry over to the present from the black schools before desegregation because every body had to reach the top and black principles and teachers expected all students to reach the top.

Bill Smith said that integrated schools today do a better job with not only black students but with, all students than they did back then.

Jane Doe feels that students in the desegregated school have the opportunity to excel whereas in the segregated school black students were limited as far as facilities and learning materials were concerned.

Interview Question #4

"Would black children have been better off without integration"?

Dave Ross said that is a very tough question. But if there were guarantees that schools could be separate and equal then it would have been better not to have rushed into desegregation in the schools until that process (desegregation) happened in society. Schools and children were the experiment and as we became integrated in school, the kids in the schools assumed that the desegregation process worked throughout society, and that was not so. If blacks and whites had worked together jointly, for a full transition, then I think black children would have been better off without desegregation.

Bill Smith said that the key to integration is the atmosphere and attitude generated by the business community for black children, and is carried out through involvement of the school. Teacher expectations during desegregation were less for minority students than non-minority students. However teacher expectation levels were probably greater in the all-black schools where black students achieved at the teachers level of expectation.

Jane Doe said that she does not intend to sound racist, but believe's that black children relate better to teachers of their own culture.

Interview Question #5

"Is there less racism in schools today than in the past?"

Dave Ross feels that due partially to cyberspace technology and global communication, there is more racism in schools today. (a) When things happen kids have a tendency to emulate good or bad situations which creates an understanding of what has been (such as slavery, Jim Crow and racism). For instance when we have black history month or Dr. Martin Luther King day it does something internally to people and reminds

them of how things were and that helps perpetuate racism. (b) Also, the past twelve years of the Reagan and Bush administrations signaled that it is O.K. to be a racist and a bigot in our society and that helps perpetuate racism. (c) Another reason is that we have lost many excellent black educators. Before school desegregation in this Oklahoma metropolitan city, black teachers were 25% of the total teaching force. Since desegregation that percentage has decreased rapidly and that lower percentage rate of black teachers helps perpetuate racism.

Bill Smith reveals that there is less racism in schools today. But Smith believes that the problem does exist is ongoing and perpetual. The successes in combating racism in the 70's was because of the focus of ESAA, (A federal intervention program). In the first two to three years of the program, focus was on students, faculty and the business community. In the community that I was in (ESAA) federal intervention programs, focused on the problems of racism and its relation to the things that we do in education. However, once that focus was pushed into the background with the advent of the Reagan administration in the 1980's, some of the positive racial relationships achieved by ESAA wore off. There is less racism today but the problem of racism and human relations still exists which means we have to continually work on racism and human relations.

Jane Doe reveals that covert racism exists in schools today and it is difficult to determine if racism is more or less. Recently, Jane observed an increase in racial tension among students. For example, recently she received several phone calls from white parents about incidents or conflicts that their children were having. One parent indicated that her son was approached in the hall by a group of black students who made prejudiced remarks to him and of course he responded to them in the same way. Concern by parents,

teachers and students this school year (1993-1994) determined that there is a need to address the problem. A peer remediation program where student leaders will be trained to work with other students and help resolve racial problems at our school will be implemented.

Interview Question #6

"If you had to facilitate integration of schools again what would you do?"

Dave Ross said he would do integration gradually as before. I would make sure all schools are separate and equal, not close the black schools and move to the white schools, but I would redraw school district lines and have an integrated situation that way.

Bill Smith feels he would do the initial intense focus of race and human relations programs. I would, after the initial intense focus of race and human relation activity, continue to focus on the problem in a systemic manner over a greater period of time. I would also make a tremendous effort to create and support higher teacher expectation levels for black students so that teacher expectation levels would not fall.

Jane Doe reveals that I would do training programs for teachers. I would do training programs with parents and the business community in order to change the racial attitudes of adults as a first step to helping children go to school together, learn together and treat one another fairly.

Research Question #7

"Did your district continue funding intervention projects after federal funds ceased"?

Dave Ross feels that several districts that he served in did continue funding because they had the local resources, but other districts he served in let those programs drop, because they did not have the local resources.

Bill Smith said that the district he was in did not continue with intervention programs after federal funds ceased. He was no longer in the district when federal funds ceased and the focus diminished so he does not know why the programs were not continued.

Jane Doe said that as a very young teacher she concentrated more on what was going on in the classroom than on political things. However the district that she is in now has recently (past 3-4 years) reinstated federal intervention programs after racial tensions began to re-surface.

Interview Question #8

"What else would you like to say about this topic"

Dave Ross feels that readdressing the question, would black children have been better off without desegregation? Has merit! What would happen today if it would be ok to have all black schools? With desegregation we put a stigma on schools that happen to be in a large school district and be predominantly or 90% black, that there's something bad about them. Whereas, before desegregation, it was ok to be an all black school and you were expected to learn. But today it seems like there's a stigma attached to the predominantly black school. I'll give an example using black universities. The black universities in the south were excellent universities during the 60's, until about 1965, because top black students (academicians and athletes) went to those schools. From my experience as a basketball player at one of those universities we beat some big ten teams

because we had top black athlete's in our conference. But with desegregation the large white universities offered more money and recruited the top academicians and top athletes. This left the politically and financially poorer black schools at a disadvantage. That's the process that happened and now those black universities are struggling. Recently (late 70's and early 80's) black kids are starting to go back to the black universities. If we were able to control attaching stigmas to predominantly black schools then it would have been better to leave public black schools open allowing all schools to operate. I used the example of the universities, to show that with desegregation black students lost the attention of the black teacher. Now there are fewer black teachers in public schools and the numbers are continuously dropping. Desegregation has been a painful process because of all the struggles during that time and it appears that black kids have just been thrown to the dogs, so to speak, we're just in a very tough situation right now in this country when it comes to education in general, but black youth in particular.

Bill Smith said that a lot of good came out of (ESAA) federal intervention programs for school desegregation. It improved race and human relations in the city and community, among students, faculty, school support people, and the business community. As far as academic benefits for black children I could not verify whether it did or did not. I think federal intervention programs provided a better environment of materials and supplies for all students but in some cases, because of low teacher expectation levels, the environment was not good for black students.

Jane Doe feels that until people can learn to live together and expect the best learning experiences for their children, we're going to continue to have racial problems in our schools. I fear that the white community tends to run from the racial problem by pulling their children out of inner city schools and enrolling them in private schools. Until this stops happening, I don't know how the problem will be resolved.

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS'

DEMOGRAPHICS

- (1) Dave Ross was a student in segregated black public schools in the 1960s. He was educated in an excellent all black college as a teacher-coach. After graduation he taught in a public school as a teacher-coach and was the only black teacher in that school during the late 60s and early 70s. In the late seventies, during the latter part of school desegregation, Mr. Ross received outstanding acclaim as an educator and administrator in schools at risk. Because of his outstanding performance as a systemic leader he was recruited to lead, not only the state, but also the nation in implementing educational reform. Presently he is a superintendent of a school district near a large metropolitan area.
- (2) Bill Smith was a student in segregated public white schools in the 60s. He attended and graduated from an integrated college in the late 60s. He was hired, as a Teacher-coach, where he did an outstanding job resulting in his promotion to an administrative position in that segregated public school. During desegregation, a time when systemic leadership abilities were in demand, Bill was heavily recruited and became the superintendent of a school district in racial turmoil. Bill immediately requested and received federal intervention programs for that district near a large metropolitan area, and administered a very intense array of federal intervention programs for several years. He is presently superintendent of a school district near a large metropolitan area.
- (3) Jane Doe was a student in a segregated black public high school in the late 60's. After graduation she attended a desegregated college with a major in education. She was recruited and hired as a public school teacher, the only black teacher at her school.

Later she taught in a school in a disadvantaged neighborhood as part of the criteria in repaying her government loan. She is presently an assistant Principal of a magnet school in a large metropolitan area.

APPENDIX O

ADDITIONAL TABLES

TABLE XV

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "RACIAL DIFFERENCS ARE NOT IMPORTANT IN THIS SCHOOL?"

Category	Agr	ee(a)	Disag	ree(b)	Unce	rtain(c)
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
Senior H.S.		v				
White Male	29	38	49	41	22	21
White Female	33	40	36	42	31	18
Black Male	43	0	35	60	22	40
Black Female	40	38	40	38	20	24
Indian Male	45	30	34	45	21	25
Indian Female	38	42	38	37	24	21
Junior H.S.						
White Male	40	41	27	30	34	29
White Female	51	46	20	27	29	27
Black Male	38	16	31	56	31	28
Black Female	69	24	13	76	19	0
Indian Male	47	53	28	12	25	35
Indian Female	44	47	19	26	37	27
Middle School						
White Male	52	61	18	15	29	24
White Female	58	66	13	13	29	21
Black Male	56	37	22	44	22	19
Black Female	31	38	56	38	13	24
Indian Male	48	57	41	19	11	24
Indian Female	61	60	19	20	19	20

TABLE XVI

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "STUDENTS WHICH THIS SCHOOL FAVORS"

Category	Non-V	Vhite (a)	Whi	te (b)	No-Favorites (c)		
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991	
Senior H.S.							
White Male	25	14	17	8	58	78	
White	19	12	14	12	66	76	
Black Male	5	0	79	60	16	40	
Black	0	0	54	38	46	62	
Indian Male	24	12	16	18	59	70	
Indian Female	19	5	11	21	69	74	
Junior H.S.							
White Male	8	13	16	17	76	70	
White	9	10	18	18	73	72	
Black Male	4	6	48	72	48	22	
Black	0	17	75	59	25	24	
Indian Male	11	. 0	25	18	61	. 82	
Indian Female	4 .	0	29	42	64	58	
Middle School				•			
White Male	5	5	21	12	74	83	
White	3	2	14	15	83	83	
Black Male	0	31	48	63	52	6	
Black	0	13	56	29	44	58	
Indian Male	. 15	. 0	15	29	69	71	
Indian Female	3	15	16	12	81	73	

TABLE XVII

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "STUDENT BODY PREFERENCE"

Category	Own R	ace (a)	Another	r Race(b)	Mixed	Race (c)	Don't	Care (d)
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
Senior H.S.								
White Male	48	30	1	2	16	17	36	50
White Female	32	. 11	0	0	25	39	43	51
Black Male	25	Ö	0	0	45	73	30	27
Black Female	33	38	8	. 0	42	50	17	12
Indian Male	26	12	5	6	32	24	37	58
Indian Female	11	16	0	0	22	47	. 67	37
Junior H.S.								
White Male	30	27	2	1	18	22	50	50
White Female	29	11	1	1	21	30	49	58
Black Male	33	50	0	0	22	28	44	- 22
Black Female	13	53	13	0	38	18	38	29
Indian Male	31	6	11	6	17	18	42	70
Indian Female	22	11	0	. 0	_ 24	26	55	63
Middle School	ŧ							
White Male	29	18	3	2	17	16	52	63
White Female	28	13	2	0	20	14	56	67
Black Male	19	30	0	13	13	30	52	44
Black Female	. 75	19	0	10	33	13	13	38
Indian Male	26	14	0	0	19	26	48	67
Indian Female	32	9	0	0	34	23	45	57

TABLE XVIII

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "EFFECT MINGLING WITH STUDENTS OF OTHER RACES HAS ON LEARNING"

Category	He	lp(a)	Hind	er(b)	No A	ffect(c)	Not C	ertain(d)
., -	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
Senior H.S.								
White Male	9	15	21	10	40	52	30	23
White Female	19	25	7	5	49	54	25	16
Black Male	29	27 27	3	27	53	40	16	6
Black Female	29	25	0	12	42	50	29	13
Indian Male	17	12	3	6	36	64	44	18
Indian Female	19	32	6	5	58	53	17	11
mulan remaie	19	<i>32</i>	U	3	50	. 33	17	11
Junior H.S.								
White Male	9	12	11	13	49	56	31	19
White Female	8	10	4	6	53	61	35	23
Black Male	11	17	7	22	30	28	52	33
Black Female	44	12	0	6	44	59	13	23
Indian Male	22	53	6	6	61	23	11	18
Indian Female	6	11	6	11	40	53	48	25
Middle School								
White Male	11	21	10	5	47	45	32	29
White Female	10	18	5	4	45	.5 55	39	23
Black Male	37	6	7	56	37	25	19	13
Black Female	13	19	19	14	56	53	13	14
Indian Male	15	10	7	5	48	47	30	38
Indian Female	52	26	6	8	26	43	35	23
Indian i cinaic	<i>52</i>	20	J	O,	20	•5	55	

TABLE XIX

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER
AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "BOOKS
AND ACTIVITIES RESPECT ALL RACES"

Category	<u>Alwa</u> 1981	<u>ys (a)</u> 1991	<u>Usual</u> 1981	<u>ly (b)</u> 1991	<u>Seld</u> 1981	<u>om (c)</u> 1991	<u>Ne</u> 1981	<u>ver (d)</u> 1991
Senior H.S.								•
White Male	36	35	53	58	8	6	3	1
White Female	36	39	56	56	6	3	1	2
Black Male	24	7	37	40	34	53	5	$\bar{0}$
Black Female	32	13	36	75	20	12	12	Õ
Indian Male	34	47	45	41	8	12	13	0
Indian Female	37	37	54	58	9	5	0	0
Junior H.S.								
White Male	38	43	56	49	5	5	2	3
White Female	41	40	54	54	4	5	2	1
Black Male	40	6	48	17	12	50	0	27
Black Female	25	28	56	35	19	25	0	12
Indian Male	43	47	46	41	6	6	6	6
Indian Female	33	26	36	53	20	21	11	0
Middle School								
White Male	52	47	33	43	9	8	5	2
White Female	52	45	32	47	10	7	6	1
Black Male	30	25	33	31	30	38	7	6
Black Female	56	33	44	43	0	24	0	0
Indian Male	44	62	44	38	7	0	4	0
Indian Female	42	46	26	40	13	9.	19	5

TABLE XX

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER
AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "STUDENTS
WHICH TEACHERS SEEM MOST
INTERESTED IN HELPING"

Category	All (a) 1981 1991		<u>No</u> 1981	None (b) 1981 1991		Non-White (c) 1981 1991		White (d) 1981 1991	
Senior H.S.				<u> </u>	<u>.</u>	 -		·	
White Male	81	85	10	6	6	3	3	6	
White	85	92	8	3	4	2	3	3	
Black Male	67	53	0	20	5	0	27	27	
Black Female	84	100	4	0	0	0 .	12	0	
Indian Male	66	94	21	6	3	Ö	11	ő	
Indian	86	74	6	0	3	5	6	21	
Junior H.S.				.					
White Male	80	80	11	8	2	4	7 .	8	
White	90	86	5	5	$\overline{1}$	4	4	5	
Black Male	70	44	15	17	0	6	15	33	
Black Female	75	29	0	0	0	12	25	59	
Indian Male	69	77	8	6	6	6	17	11	
Indian	83	95	8	0	0	0	9	5	
Middle School									
White Male	88	87		5	6	3	3	5	
White	96	95	2	1	1	1	1	5 3	
Black Male	70	75	0	0	0	0	30	25	
Black Female	69	72	0	0	0	14	31	14	
Indian Male	96	91	0	5	0	0	4	4	
Indian	94	83	3	6	3	9	0	3	

TABLE XX1

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER
AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "STUDENT
PREFERENCE OF TEACHERS"

Category	Own Race (a) 1981 1991		<u>Anothe</u> 1981	Another Race 1981 1991		Mixed Race (c) 1981 1991		Don't Care (d) 1981 1991	
					····				
Senior H.S.									
White Male	35	13	1	0	4	6	60	81	
White Female	21	3	0	2	9	10	70	85	
Black Male	20	13	5	0	20	47	55	40	
Black Female	16	25	4	0	12	50	68	25	
Indian Male	21	6	5	0	3	12	71	82	
Indian	6	11	0	0	14	31	81	58	
Junior H.S.					_	_			
White Male	20	12	1	9	7	0	73	79	
White Female	11	6	0	. 0	8	. 5	81	88	
Black Male	11	50	. 0	0	30	17	59	33	
Black Female	19	30	0	0	25	35	56	35	
Indian Male	22	6	22	0	56	12	0	82	
Indian	2	0	4	0	5	11	89	89	
Middle School									
White Male	17	6	3	3	7	7	73	84	
White Female	8	4	1	1	6	7	85	88	
Black Male	22	18	7	6	30	13	41	63	
Black Female	19	24	13	0	13	. 33	56	43	
Indian Male	4	0	7	5	7	10	81	85	
Indian	6	9	10	0	6	23	77	67	
man	J		10	v	Ü	23	, ,	0,	

TABLE XXII

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "STUDENTS HAVE TEACHERS FROM MORE THAN ONE RACIAL GROUP"

	1991		
%Yes	%No		
20	80		
13	87		
13	87		
25	75		
35	65		
37	63		
62	38		
65	35		
40	60		
59	41		
82	18		
74	26		
65	35		
64	36		
75	25		
	43		
	46		
- ·	35		
	57 54 65		

TABLE XXIII

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "THE PRINCIPAL WANTS TO ELIMINATE RACIAL PREJUDICE IN SCHOOL"

Category	Agre	e (a)	Disagr	ree (b)	_ Uncer	tain (c)
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
Senior H.S.						
White Male	42	52	20	12	38	36
White Female	41	40	21	10	38	50
Black Male	5	40	65	40	30	20
Black Female	24	63	52	25	24	12
Indian Male	34	37	24	53	42	10
Indian Female	39	21	22	5	39	74
Junior H.S.						
White Male	52	43	12	12	36	45
White Female	41	36	15	11	44	53
Black Male	44	28	22	28	33	44
Black Female	56	42	. 13	29	31	29
Indian Male	28	55	28	27	44	18
Indian Female	. 46	43	22	. 0	32	57
Middle School	•					
White Male	44	56	22	19	34	25
White Female	41	46	18	14	41	40
Black Male	52	56	37	13	11	31
Black Female	44	48	38	14	19	38
Indian Male	37	38	33	19	30	43
Indian Female	35	35	23	35	42	30

TABLE XXIV

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "THERE IS NO RACIAL TENSION IN THIS SCHOOL"

Category	Agre	ee (a)	Disag	ree (b)	Uncer	tain (c)
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
Senior H.S.						
White Male	18	12	57	57	24	31
White Female	17	20	51	53	32	27
Black Male	39	7	34	73	26	20
Black Female	25	25	50	50	25	25
Indian Male	32	35	43	60	24	5
Indian Female	17	16	40	47	43	37
Junior H. S.						
White Male	21	24	46	50	33	26
White Female	22	17	37	46	41	37
Black Male	11	11	48	61	41	28
Black Female	6	18	75	77	19	5
Indian Male	17	18	54	35	29	47
Indian Female	15	32	53	42	33	26
Middle School						
White Male	36	31	34	31	30	38
White Female	27	36	29	26	44	38
Black Male	44	44	30	25	26	31
Black Female	44	29	38	29	19	42
Indian Male	26	29	52	24	22	47
Indian Female	21	27	38	34	41	39

TABLE XXV

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER
AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "TREATMENT
RECIEVED BY STUDENTS BECAUSE OF RACE"

Category	Equa	al (a)	Unequ	ıal (b)	Don't Kı	now (c)
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
Senior H.S.	·····					
White Male	38	59	27	13	34	28
White Female	52	64	19	11	30	25 25
Black Male	20	13	60	60	20	23 27
Black Female	36	12	40	75	20 24	12
Indian Male	50	64	13	73 18	24 37	18
Indian Female	37	53	23	16	40	31
indian remaie	31	33	23	10	40	31
Junior H.S.						
White Male	51	43	11	20	39	37
White Female	57	48	11	16	33	36
Black Male	41	28	7	27	52	45
Black Female	69	24	25	70	6	6
Indian Male	28	53	31	0	39	47
Indian Female	51	42	7	16	42	42
Middle School						
White Male	59	63	13	8	28	29
White Female	59	67	4	9	37	24
Black Male	33	68	59	25	7	7
Black Female	38	43	38	10	25	47
Indian Male	63	57	11	10	26	33
Indian Female	32	51	6	9	61	40
			Ŭ		V X	10

TABLE XXVI

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "CLASS COMPOSITION OF STUDENTS IN WHICH BEST EDUCATION IS OBTAINED"

Category	<u>Own R</u> 1981	Race(a) 1991	<u>Anotho</u> 1981	er Race(b) 1991	<u>Mixed</u> 1981	l <u>race(c)</u> 1991	<u>Don't (</u> 1981	<u>Care(d)</u> 1991
Senior H.S.								
White Male	47	24	2	1	10	12	42	63
White Female	24	7	0	1	11	15	65	77
Black Male	35	0	5	7	30	60	30	33
Black Female	12	0	8	0	28	50	52	50
Indian Male	30	12	3	0	30	30	38	58
Indian Female	11	10	3	5	17	32	69	53
Junior H.S.								
White Male	29	24	2	2	9	12	61	62
White Female	23	7	0	4	11	9	66	80
Black Male	4	33	15	12	38	33	42	22
Black Female	31	41	13	. 0	31	35	25	24
Indian Male	20	18	0	0	17	23	63	59
Indian Female	18	11	0	0	44	16	38	73
Middle School								
White Male	22	10	4	3	16	16	58	71
White Female	24	13	1	1	13	14	62	72
Black Male	24	18	0	13	40	31	36	38
Black Female	38	14	0	10	31	29	31	47
Indian Male	11	5	0	0	33	10	- 56	85
Indian Female	26	14	6	0	19	29	48	57

TABLE XXVII

STUDENTS RESPONSE PERCENTAGE BY RACE AND GENDER AT EACH SCHOOL IN 1981 AND 1991: "EXTENT TO WHICH STUDENTS LIKE ATTENDING THIS SCHOOL"

			·					
Category	Very Well (a)		Well Enough (b)		Not Much (c)		Not At All (d)	
	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
Senior H.S.								
White Male	24	36	49	41	14	13	14	10
White Female	41	30	39	55	12	9	8	6
Black Male	18	27	32	53	26	20	24	0
Black Female	20	25	30	63	22	12	17	0
Indian Male	. 32	47	38	41	11	6	19	6
Indian Female	35	22	38	68	11	5	16	5
Junior H.S.								
White Male	37	27	42	42	8	19	13	12
White Female	49	32	37	45	10	14	4	9
Black Male	22	14	48	14	4	. 22	26	50
Black Female	15	11	7	59	48	12	30	18
Indian Male	29	30	29	53	14	0	29	17
Indian Female	34	.26	45	47	6	21	15	6
Middle School					•			
White Male	52	36	30	36	10	13	8	15
White Female	61	55	28	34	6	7	5	4
Black Male	56	44	7	25	15	13	22	18
Black Female	25	33	44	48	19	14	13	5
Indian Male	44	. 29	37	38	15	9	4	24
Indian Female	55	49	26	40	10	11	10	0

APPENDIX H

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

FORM

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 03-19-97

IRB#: ED-97-073

Proposal Title: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF STUDENT PERCEPTIONS ABOUT SCHOOL DESEGREGATION IN 1981 AND 1991

Principal Investigator(s): Kenneth McKinley, Kermit Tilford

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended: Disapproved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING. AS WELL AS ARE SUBJECT TO MONITORING AT ANY TIME DURING THE APPROVAL PERIOD.

APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR DATA COLLECTION FOR A ONE CALENDAR YEAR PERIOD AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.

ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Disapproval are as follows:

The portion of the study dealing with the juvenile subjects is anonymous survey data and as such would be exempt. However, the interviews with the Key Public School Administrators is not exempt and requires use of informed consent. Such forms were not used and the study was performed in 1981 and 1991. The IRB cannot approve intervention with human subjects a posteriori. It is further grounds for disapproval because the federal regulations for conduct of this research were violated as far as using informed consent forms.

PLEASE DO NOT PROCEED WITH THIS STUDY PRIOR TO RECEIVING FINAL APPROVAL

If you have any strong disagreements with the reviewer's recommendations, you may respond in writing to the executive secretary (Gay C. Clarkson, 305 Whitehurst, 744-5700) or request a meeting with the full IRB to discuss the recommendations.

Signature:

Date: March 19, 1997

Chair of Institutional Review Boar

cc: Kermit Tilford

VITA

Kermit Tilford

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF STUDENT PERCEPTIONS ABOUT DESEGREGATION IN 1981 AND IN 1991

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born June 5, 1934, in (Tilfordsville), Pittsburg County, Oklahoma, the second son of Bernard and Mildred Watkins Tilford, Married to Patricia Anne Beck, September 30, 1961, son, Kermit Tilford, Jr., daughters, Bernadette Tilford and Milessa Tilford, and one Grandson, Kermit Tilford III.

Education: Attended grade school in Pittsburg County (Tilfordsville), Oklahoma; graduated from L'Ouverture High School, McAlester, Oklahoma, 1952; received the Bachelor of Science degree from Oklahoma State University in 1960; received the Master of Teaching degree from Southeastern Oklahoma State University in 1967; completed requirements for elementary principal in 1971 and the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 1997.