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AN ANALYSIS OF POLICIES AND PRACTICES IN  
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INDICATE A COMMITMENT TO OR VIOLATION OF  
HUMAN RIGHTS.

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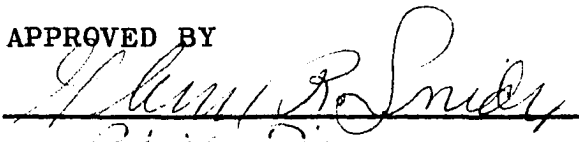

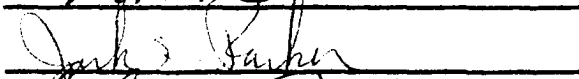
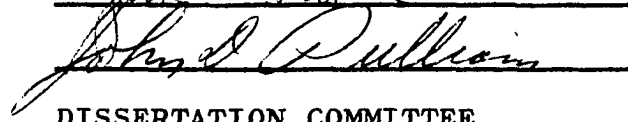
AN ANALYSIS OF POLICIES AND PRACTICES IN SELECTED OKLAHOMA  
URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS WHICH INDICATE A COMMITMENT  
TO OR VIOLATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

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

BY  
MELVIN RICHARDSON TODD  
Norman, Oklahoma  
1973

AN ANALYSIS OF POLICIES AND PRACTICES IN SELECTED OKLAHOMA  
URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS WHICH INDICATE A COMMITMENT  
TO OR VIOLATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

APPROVED BY

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Dr. Elmyra

R. Davis, whose life has been my light.

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R. Davis, whose life has been my light.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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\*Pertains to items on Student Human/Civil Rights Instrument

## PROLOGUE

How does one bring himself to writing still another piece on human rights? Has anything on this theme been left unsaid by the lawyers, statesmen, clergymen, and philosophers? Probably not, and it probably has all been said and about as well as it can be said. Saying it again cannot be justified by the hope of enlarging man's wisdom; it can be justified only by the perpetual need to remind ourselves of what remains to be done. In other words, it may be tiresome to talk about human rights, but it is dangerous not to.

--Harry S. Broudy

AN ANALYSIS OF POLICIES AND PRACTICES IN SELECTED OKLAHOMA  
URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS WHICH INDICATE A COMMITMENT  
TO OR VIOLATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the late 1960's and early '70's, the American public was stunned by the widespread student unrest, student dissent and frequent disruptions that were being screamed from their television sets, newspapers, radios and weekly periodicals. This student unrest and dissent spread rapidly throughout the nation in numerous colleges and universities.

The unrest and dissent was expressed in boycotts, sit-ins, walkouts, teach-ins, sleep-ins, and riots. Lives were lost and property damage soared. Committies were appointed and commissions formed to identify the causes and seek approaches and solutions to the problems. Some of the findings that emerged indicated that many of the students on the various college campuses felt that they had no voice in policies which affected them. Some articulated well and quite loudly, that their institutions of higher learning were saturated with authoritarian practices which stifled creativity and suppressed individual differences, freedom of speech, freedom to dissent and other rights guaranteed under the United States Constitution.



As a result of demands by college students that they be heard and that they be involved in decisions which affect them and through several large and effective student organizations, students on the college and university campuses have begun to wield a significant political power on their campuses.<sup>1</sup>

Subsequently, student unrest and militancy spread to the public high schools and to a lesser degree to the junior high schools in this country. Controversy continues to swirl around dress codes, length and style of hair, the wearing of arm bands and/or buttons, and underground newspapers. In many schools where a racial minority is included in the student population, charges of institutional and individual racism have been hurled at the administration and faculty; thus, compounding the already complex problems which confront numerous public high schools.

The secondary schools, although long used as a vehicle to inculcate in the young those values which this society prizes--values which intimate human rights and human responsibilities and upon which a democratic society is built and rests, are being indicted from several quarters as often violating the most fundamental human and civil rights.

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<sup>1</sup>Robert L. Ackerly, The Reasonable Exercise of Authority (Washington, D.C.: The National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1969), p. 1.

Many lay individuals and not a few educators are now painfully aware that there is a multitude of students in the public secondary schools today who feel that the schools are not concerned with them, not administered in their best interest, nor relevant to them. The trend which appears gives indication that high school students are continuing the push to acquire what a great many of them regard as their basic rights; i.e., the right to the truth, the right to express ideas and opinions on any subject or issue, the right of due process of law especially as this pertains to accusations by administration, faculty and peers, the right to privacy, the right to assume an opposing point of view without fear of recrimination, and the right to equal opportunity as this relates to all facets of school life.

The American people have been living in a period where the masses of the populace have been bombarded by rhetoric regarding certain basic rights which all should enjoy simply because of citizenship in this country. High school students are not isolated from this fallout; subsequently, they make efforts to exercise many of these rights in the place where they spend a large portion of their young lives. It should not be too difficult to understand why many high school students react with disillusionment to the value of the democratic process as exalted in their textbooks and in the larger society. Westin and others, in a study entitled

Civic Education for the Seventies, put it bluntly: "Our schools are educating millions of students who are not forming an allegiance to the democratic political system simply because they do not experience such a democratic system in their daily lives in schools."<sup>1</sup>

The American society has as one purpose for its public schools the development of human potentialities. The Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Education and Human Rights in its statement "Education and Human Rights," makes the point quite accurately when they suggest: "If human potentialities are to be realized, society must be concerned not only with theoretical and philosophical concepts of human rights, but equally with translating these concepts into realities expressed in the behavior of free men."<sup>2</sup> The Commission, in the same statement, recognizes that formal education is a powerful and effective means by which the American society can realize the promise of its human rights heritage; however,

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<sup>1</sup>Alan Westin, John P. DeCecco, and Arlene Richards, Civil Education for the Seventies: An Alternative to Repression and Revolution (New York: Columbia University, 1970, p. 25.

<sup>2</sup>Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project on Human Rights, A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights, (Norman, Oklahoma, 1971), p. 2.

the Commission cautions: "It is impossible to teach and practice democratic values and human rights and responsibilities in a school in which the worth of the individual is not prized."<sup>1</sup>

There are questions in the minds of a large number of persons with respect to how effective American public high schools have been and are in preparing their graduates and current students to appreciate and value fully the meaning of the democratic process and the human and civil rights implicit in this system -- along with the concomitant responsibilities.

The constitutional guarantees and the Bill of Rights are worthless paper promises if they fail to transcend the printed page. They become meaningless abstractions. It does not matter how well they are written; the guarantees have little meaning if students are not permitted opportunities to study about and exercise the human and civil rights guaranteed under the Constitution and which they are entitled to enjoy -- first, because they are human and secondly, because they are living in America.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 4.

The Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Education and Human Rights makes a salient point in the following statement:

It is not sufficient to offer the student information in order to make him an intelligent adult citizen. Education for citizenship must grow out of actual participation in the democratic process. There is little hope that human rights can survive where they are merely a part of the curriculum but not a part of the educational process and practices to which students and faculty are subject.<sup>1</sup>

There are specific practices and policies occurring in public high schools today which are indicative of a school's commitment to or violation of human rights--rights entrenched in basic moral and ethical values and upon which this American democratic system was founded.

This research effort was conducted to ascertain the extent to which some selected high schools in Oklahoma placed emphasis upon the acquisition of knowledge and the development of understandings and concerns for human/civil rights and the values which undergird them.

#### Need for the Study

The significance of the study of policies and practices in Oklahoma high schools which indicate a commitment to or a violation of human rights lies in the fact that the high schools in this state cannot and have not remained isolated from a growing ferment in schools

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 12.

around this country. Those who administer and teach in the high schools need to become fully aware of behaviors ingrained in those institutions of which they are a part and behaviors which they perpetuate that either enhance or negate positive human relationships and which promote understandings and concern for the human rights of all individuals.

Data are needed which indicate the degree to which policies and practices in Oklahoma high schools show a commitment to the human rights identified earlier. This study will provide this information which is a necessary prelude to improving effects of the public school in this regard.

Hopefully, once the conditions have been identified, corrective measures where and when warranted will be incorporated. It is assumed that those who have primary responsibilities for providing the formal education for young people are genuinely and vitally concerned with establishing an atmosphere that would be conducive to the development of the democratic citizen.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which selected urban public high schools in Oklahoma indicate a commitment to providing opportunities for the development of understanding, behaviors and the corresponding responsibilities inherent in the exercise of basic human

and civil rights on the part of their students. These rights are delineated in the Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project's A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights.

The Human and Civil Rights studied were:

- The Right of Equality of Opportunity;
- The Rights of Freedom of Assembly, Association and Petition;
- The Right of Due Process and Equal Protection under the Law;
- The Right of Freedom of Speech and Press;
- The Right of Dissent;
- The Right to Freedom of and from Religion;
- The Right to Security of Person and Property and the Right to Privacy;
- The Right against Self-Incrimination; and the Right to be Different;
- The Right to a Trial by a Jury of Actual Peers<sup>1</sup>

#### Statement of the Problem

The problem for this study was to discover and analyze policies and practices in Oklahoma urban high schools which indicate a commitment to or violation of fundamental human rights. More specifically, the effort was designed to determine the extent to which high schools in Oklahoma's largest urban center recognize and provide opportunities for the development of understandings, responsibilities, and behaviors consistent with certain human and civil rights as delineated by the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Education and Human Rights and employed by that professional organization's Teacher Education Project in

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 5.

its publication, A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights.

#### Hypotheses to be Tested

- H<sub>0</sub> 1: There is no significant difference between the ratings of schools by respondents.
- H<sub>0</sub> 2: There is no significant difference between the ratings made by males and females.
- H<sub>0</sub> 3: There is no significant difference between the ratings made by blacks and whites.
- H<sub>0</sub> 4: There is no significant difference among the ratings made by respondents classified high, middle or low socio-economic levels.
- H<sub>0</sub> 5: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex and race.
- H<sub>0</sub> 6: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex and socio-economic levels.
- H<sub>0</sub> 7: There is no significant interaction between the variables of race and socio-economic levels.
- H<sub>0</sub> 8: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex, race and socio-economic levels.

#### Assumptions

It was assumed that public high schools should provide opportunities for students to develop understandings, appreciations for and skills in the exercise of fundamental human rights and civil liberties along with the corresponding responsibilities as identified by the National Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project and delineated in its publication, A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights.

It was also assumed that a healthy respect for and



commitment to human rights should not only be reflected in units of course work but also in the general atmosphere of the school, in the policies and regulations which govern the institutions and in the attitudes of the teachers and administrators.

It was further assumed that twelfth-grade pupils were capable of making valuable observations concerning their schools and the policies and practices which characterize them.

#### Delimitations of the Study

The investigation was limited to the largest urban center in the state and the nine public high schools located in that school system.

The sample for analysis was confined to twelfth-graders only. By making the high school seniors the focus of the research, knowledge and insight concerning the final product of the high schools was acquired.

Although there are a number of human rights which concern a great many persons, this investigation was restricted to the rights identified and listed in Section I of the Phi Delta Kappa's A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights.

#### Definition of Terms

1. Right--That to which one has just claim; a power or privilege to which one is entitled upon principles of

morality, religion, law or the like.

2. Human Rights--The concept of human rights is based on the belief that human beings live together in ways which accord each person full dignity, respect and value, simply because he is human. It requires that no person be denied opportunity to engage in any kind of activity or behavior valued by his society. The human rights identified in the Phi Delta Kappa statement on "Education and Human Rights" are those central to this investigation.<sup>1</sup>
3. Civil Liberties--Those personal and social freedoms derived from one's civil relationships which are guaranteed by law against restraint unless made for the common good and public interest.<sup>2</sup>
4. Civil Rights--Civil Liberties which become civil rights when they are claimed and enforced through judicial or administrative action.<sup>3</sup>
5. Public School--A school organized under a school district of the state, supported by tax revenues, administered by public officials and open to all.
6. High School--Term will be used to indicate a division of the public schools consisting of grades nine, ten, eleven, and twelve or ten, eleven, and twelve.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 7-8.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

7. Skill--A learned power of performing a task competently.
8. Attitude--A readiness to react toward or against some situation, person or thing in a particular manner.
9. Value--Beliefs which give direction and meaning to an individual's or a group's behavior.
10. Knowledge--The fact or condition of knowing something with familiarity gained through experience or association.

#### Design and Procedure of the Study

The study was designed to indicate whether there were significant differences among the views expressed by respondents regarding the way high schools either violate or show commitment to fundamental human/civil rights in their policies and practices.

The descriptive-survey method of investigation was employed in the study. This method is described by Good as useful when securing information pertaining to an existing or current condition. He further suggests that a descriptive study may involve the procedures of analysis and classification of data. Good points out that adequate survey data in the hands of a competent investigator can be useful for forward looking purposes.<sup>1</sup> This method of research is considered appropriate for a study which seeks

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<sup>1</sup>Carter V. Good, Introduction to Educational Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), p. 167.

to ascertain the prevailing conditions and compare them with established criteria.

### Procedures

The initial step in the study was to review the available literature related to the problem under investigation.

A careful and detailed examination was made of bibliographies, Eric, Dissertation Abstracts, and indexes pertaining to human, civil and student rights as well as areas of general education and human relations. Relevant published books, articles, papers and unpublished materials were consulted.

### Sample

A roster of twelfth-grade students from each school included in the study was secured from the building principal. The students were stratified by race and sex within each school and assigned a number from a table of random numbers and a quota stratified sample was thus drawn from each school. The total number of subjects utilized was 347.

### Data Collection Instrument

The instrument was constructed in the form of a questionnaire. It was formulated around the human and civil rights identified in Section II of A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights, published by

Phi Delta Kappa's Teacher Education Project. The specific section entitled "A Guide for Analyzing Institutional and Individual Behaviors in Human Rights." In addition to providing specific demographic data, the instrument was designed to survey respondents' opinions with respect to urban public school behaviors which exemplify a commitment to or an abridgement of the human and civil rights in question. Content validity was established by a panel of judges and pre-testing with high school seniors.

#### Correspondence to Participants

An Application to Do Research was mailed to the target school system requesting permission to conduct the study. Telephone calls and personal visits were made to each school to arrange time schedules and conduct follow-up.

#### Treatment of the Data

##### Independent Variables

The independent variables manipulated were sex, race, schools and socio-economic levels. The latter was determined by combined family income, educational attainment of parents and parental occupations.

##### Statistical Test

The statistical tests used in the computations were one and three-way Analysis of Variances along with Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference Test.

The Analysis of Variance was used because it permits an analysis of the data in more than two samples at a time.<sup>1</sup>

Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference Test was used because of its power in locating differences between sample means.<sup>2</sup>

### Reporting Results

The results of the Analysis of Variance were presented in reporting tables indicating the following values:

- a) The differences in ratings of males and females.
- b) The differences between blacks and whites.
- c) The differences among ratings of high, middle, and low socio-economic levels.
- d) The interaction of the sex and race variables.
- e) The interaction of the sex and socio-economic levels variables.
- f) The interaction of the race and socio-economic level variables.
- g) The interaction of the sex, race, and socio-economic level variables.
- h) A record of responses toward specific items included in the Student Human/Civil Rights Survey was reported by schools using percentages.

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<sup>1</sup>Freeman F. Elzey, "Simple Analysis of Variance," A Programmed Introduction to Statistics (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Pub. Co., 1966), p. 212.

<sup>2</sup>Roger E. Kirk, Experimental Design: Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences (Belmont, Calif.: Brooks-Cole, Inc., 1968), p. 88.

### Organization of the Study

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter I includes the statement of the problem as well as major divisions describing the study, its need and treatment of the data.

Chapter II consists of a review of the research related to the study. The design of the study and the procedure involved in its completion is included in Chapter III.

Chapter IV is designed to include a presentation and analysis of the data. Chapter V contains a summary of the study, conclusions based on the findings of the study and recommendations and suggestions for further research.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

During the last twenty-five years and subsequent to the United Nation's Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, an abundance of literature has been accumulating reflecting a global concern for fundamental human rights and civil liberties. However, a careful review of the literature revealed a paucity of research directly related to evidences of commitment and concern for human rights in the realm of American education.

For the purpose of this investigation the review of literature centered around three specific questions:

1. What has been the prevailing mood in American schools regarding democratic attitudes and practices?
2. What have been the causes and effects of student unrest and militancy in public high schools?
3. Human Rights Education: Why the need?

The literature reviewed in each of the general areas presented clear evidence of an interdependence between the three questions previously posed. More specifically, student unrest and militancy have been directly associated with the prevailing mood in public high schools



with respect to democratic attitudes and practices. And both, unmistakably, point to the need for a deeper awareness, understanding, and appreciation for the values upon which this country's democratic promise rests and from which stems the fundamental human rights and civil liberties that are basic components of a democratic society.

What Has Been the Prevailing Mood in American Schools  
Regarding Democratic Attitudes and Practices?

Pupils and teachers have the right to enjoy a school characterized by a democratic atmosphere. This is especially vital if schools are to prepare students for democratic living and participation in the democratic process.

The Phi Delta Kappa National Commission on Education and Human Rights notes that it is not enough that educational philosophy be grounded in the democratic creed but also the methods and the curriculum used must be consistent with democratic ideals.<sup>1</sup>

The same publication points out:

If the democratic tradition embodies the deepest intellectual and moral commitments of the American people as Gunnar Myrdal says it does in An American Dilemma, then that tradition must be a basic component of education. Schools must define democratic ideals, they must provide leadership for the development of individual commitment to the rights and duties of the

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<sup>1</sup>Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project on Human Rights, A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights (Norman, Oklahoma, 1971), p. 10.

democratic citizen, they must teach about democracy without indoctrination.<sup>1</sup>

Some years ago, Reusser enumerated a number of observable evidences of democratic school practices.<sup>2</sup> Some of the evidences listed were as follows:

- a) In a democratic school there is evidence of pupil participation in planning certain phases of the classroom work and in making policies affecting the whole school.
- b) In a democratic school there is evidence that pupils have definite purposes, that they have to some extent analyzed their own needs and that they are working to attain their purposes and to satisfy their needs.
- c) In a democratic school there is evidence that all pupils have opportunity to learn intelligent followership and to assume leadership in some area.
- d) In a democratic school there is evidence of cooperative planning for the child's education and adjustment in pupil-parent-teacher groups.
- e) In a democratic school there are evidences of clearly stated and well-understood objectives of education in general and of the particular school. These objectives are known by pupils, parents, teachers, administrators, and citizens.
- f) In a democratic school there is a sharing of responsibility among the teachers, the administration and the pupils. Those responsible realize and seek to discharge their responsibilities in accordance with the best interests of all.
- g) In a democratic school there are organized avenues through which teachers and pupils are invited to present ideas and to discuss issues. There is a reasonable guarantee that ideas so presented will receive a fair hearing.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Walter C. Reusser, "You Can Judge a School's Democracy by These 16 Points," Nation's Schools, XXXII (Oct., 1943), pp. 16-17.

- h) In a democratic school the rights and privileges as citizens are respected and safeguarded.

Reusser further observed that it should not be assumed that the evidence is either all positive or all negative since democracy in a school may be present in varying degrees and may be more evident in one area than another.<sup>1</sup>

Hutchins suggested nearly a quarter of a century ago that in the past there has been no particular reason why Americans should take democratic education seriously. He contended:

We could afford to trifle away our time in any way we liked. Now America is the most powerful nation in the world; and it is not the least dangerous. The whole world knows of our riches, our resources, our scientific knowledge, our technical skill. The question is, will they be used for good or ill? The fate of the whole world--and the whole world knows it very well--depends upon the answer. The fate of the whole world depends from minute to minute on the intelligence and character that the American people bring to their common task of democratic citizenship.<sup>2</sup> The time for trifling in American education is past.

There are some in our society who have suggested--and rather strongly--that we are, as Hutchins put it, still "trifling" in American education with democracy.

One aspect of the problem of determining policies and practices in high schools which indicate a commitment to human rights and which provides a democratic climate is that facet of school administration concerned with student involvement in the curriculum.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 16.

<sup>2</sup>Robert M. Hutchins, "Education and Democracy," School and Society, Vol. 69 (June, 1949), pp. 525-528.

In 1970, the CASSA Curriculum Committee inaugurated a group known as the Student Involvement in Curriculum group. To discover whether or not adolescents are meaningfully involved in curriculum, the group prepared a questionnaire containing twelve questions.<sup>1</sup> It was mailed to a random sampling of 500 high schools, including some continuation schools in the state of California. Three hundred ten, or 52 percent of the questionnaires were returned.

The sampling revealed that 56 percent of California high schools did not have student involvement in curriculum development, although more than 50 percent contemplated involving students in such planning. The largest number, about 61 percent, believed students should become actively involved in curriculum studies even though 30 percent felt students were too immature or indifferent and there was not sufficient time to instigate involvement. Several faculty members suggested that students, "come and go," have "limited knowledge," that curriculum is "an adult responsibility" and students need "adult assistance."

The study showed, further, that where there was student involvement in developing the high school curriculum, it was initiated by administrators or faculty 39 percent of the time; by students-faculty-administration 33 percent. The majority of these coordinated curriculum studies were

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<sup>1</sup>Stanley L. Combs, "A Summary of a Survey on Student Involvement in Curriculum," Journal of Secondary Education, XLV (Oct., 1970), pp. 243-249.

instigated within the last three academic years. Only 10 percent of the respondents indicated the hope that their student-assisted programs would continue and approximately 60 percent definitely felt that the programs were on-going.

Student participation in school policy making is not a recent phenomenon. As early as 1938, an article was published which gave a factual indication of how far and how successfully democracy might be applied in the administration of a school. Jarvie<sup>1</sup> described a democratic program at the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, of Rochester, New York. The author pointed out that practices at his school were common in schools which accepted a concept of education that looked upon school experiences as common to both students and faculty, and for that reason students participated in policy initiation and formation.

Jarvie observed that adherence to such a philosophy meant that administrators and teachers must have been willing to go along on student initiated policies as participating members of the school community. He stated that establishment of a point where student participation in school administration must be curtailed is a difficult and perhaps an arbitrary decision. It was his belief that the only criterion is whether students have a contribution to make in the discussion of larger institutional policies and problems.

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<sup>1</sup>L. L. Jarvie, "Students Take Part in Policy-Making," Clearing House, XIII (Dec., 1938), pp. 223-225.

Yet in another article written some years ago, Schutte,<sup>1</sup> disagreed with the concept that high school pupils should have a great deal to say about the administration of the school. He contended that the great need of the learner is to learn facts, interpret facts, assemble facts, or to render interpretations and expression of thoughts on the basis of such facts. According to him, that certainly doesn't indicate pupil leadership or dictation in the selection of content and procedures in teaching. As another case in point, in an article written in 1938, Ortel<sup>2</sup> stated that democracy in school administration does not require or demand wide participation in managerial responsibilities. He pointed out that democracy outside the school does not imply that all persons must engage actively in administrative functions. He stated, further, that the sovereignty of a people or of a school staff is a judicial sovereignty; it is not an executive sovereignty; nor is it a performing, or creative sovereignty. The members of a

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<sup>1</sup>T. H. Schutte, "Pupil-Participation in the Selection of Content and Procedure," American School Board Journal, XCI (Dec., 1940), p. 18.

<sup>2</sup>Ernest Ortel, "The Issue of Democracy in School Administration", American School Board Journal, XCVII (Dec., 1938), pp. 27-28.

democratic society of any type may be expected to assist in outlining and formulating standards and principles for democratic group procedure, but it is not necessary that they participate in executing these standards or principles in order to be democratic.

Educators have been divided in rendering an opinion about the ability of students to participate in determining their own destiny. Students have sensed this division and confusion, and have proceeded to seek answers to the questions themselves. Their answers have been manifested in student protest and demonstrations.

In 1969, more than 2,000 high schools across the nation experienced walkouts, sit-ins, boycotts or other means of student expression in an attempt to prove that they were important and wanted to participate.<sup>1</sup> A careful analysis of the student protest movement indicate that many of the demands and concerns of students are indeed legitimate, and would suggest that a complete evaluation of how educators do business with youngsters in school is needed. In fact, to deny a student the right to participate in his own destiny is an

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<sup>1</sup>J. E. House, "Can The Student Participate in His Own Destiny," Educational Leadership, XXVII (Feb., 1970), pp. 442-445.

infringement of his constitutional rights as described in the Fourteenth Amendment and the Bill of Rights, and reflected in a growing body of court opinions.

Clute<sup>1</sup> advocated that:

Students must become partners with us in the process of their education. Partners in that students must share in the vital decisions of school life. Particularly those that affect his privacy and his precious individual constitutional rights and equally important his participation in the decisions which affect the rights of others. Responsibility grows out of the respect for one's self and an understanding of the meaning of personal freedom. Responding cannot develop prior to the granting of freedom.

One very simple but effective way of collecting information about some of the problems in the educational arena is merely to seek answers from students. In a recent study conducted for Life<sup>2</sup> magazine, more than half of the students polled in one hundred schools across the nation revealed that they were unhappy with their limited participation in school policy making. Moreover, more than 60 percent of the same students

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<sup>1</sup>Morrell J. Clute, "The Rights and Responsibilities of Students," an unpublished paper, Wayne State University, Detroit, 1969 (mimeographed).

<sup>2</sup>"What People Think about Their High Schools," Life, LXVI (May 16, 1969), pp. 24-25.



wanted more say about making rules under which they must live, and a greater share of involvement in making curriculum decisions. The issue of decision making was relevant for students as 54 percent labeled it "very important."<sup>1</sup>

The findings of the above study are comparable with one conducted by House.<sup>2</sup> In the latter study, more than 60 percent of the pupils revealed that in the schools, pupils really wanted to decide what happened to them. Only 30 percent of the pupils in the same survey felt that they "usually" or "always" had a chance to participate in decision making on policies and rules under which they must live.

Chesler<sup>3</sup> expressed the opinion that student involvement in decision making means that students must exercise a significant degree of control over major portions of the formal activities and events of school. He contended that one of the areas of school life in which students can exercise power immediately could be in curriculum determination. The

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 25.

<sup>2</sup>James E. House, "A Study of Innovative Youth Involvement Activities in Selected Secondary Schools in Wayne County, Michigan." Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Detroit: Wayne State University, 1969.

<sup>3</sup>Mark A. Chesler, "Shared Power and Student Decision Making," Educational Leadership, XXVIII (Oct., 1970), pp. 9-14.

content of the curriculum, the organization of classes, the choice of classroom method, the paths of curriculum sequencing and the criteria for success and fulfillment of a high school education, and according to Chesler, all must be subject to review, guidance and management by students.

Chesler<sup>1</sup> also stated that students' participation in school decision making also means that the qualifications of teachers as they may be recruited, evaluated, considered for merit pay and promoted or transferred must be open for student review. He believes that a student voice in making decisions about the professional staff also may extend to the selection and evaluation of the high school principal. He was of the opinion that a great deal of arbitrary behavior by educators could be curtailed by the use of accountability systems of this type. According to him, the development of criteria for teacher behavior, observational or attitudinal instruments, and of ways providing performance feedback would be helpful supports for such decision making activities.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 10.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

The study mentioned earlier by Life Magazine<sup>1</sup> showed that 89 percent of all high school parents and 65 percent of all teachers oppose greater participation by students in school administration. A survey conducted by Nation's Schools<sup>2</sup> revealed that 81 percent of all U. S. Superintendents agreed with some student complaints about their schools and 51 percent felt that students should have more say about what goes on inside the schools.

A special report<sup>3</sup> appearing in the publication mentioned above demonstrates a number of ways in which students have been given that greater say.

Of all the areas of student involvement, none has a greater lure than changes and new ideas in curriculum. At Hyde Park High, in the heart of Chicago's inner city, students worked with teachers and community leaders to abolish the track system for classifying pupils and implemented 21 new courses centering on work study programs and the Humanities. Instead of track classes, Hyde Park students were

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<sup>1</sup>"What People Think About Their High Schools," Op. cit., p. 24.

<sup>2</sup>"Schoolmen Split over Student Involvement," Nation's Schools, LXXXIV (Sept., 1969), p. 47.

<sup>3</sup>"Student Involvement: Channeling Activism Into Accomplishment", Nation's Schools, LXXXIV (Sept., 1969), pp. 39-50.

grouped in large lecture halls manned by teams, each a specialist in one subject area. Students broke off into smaller groups to work at their own levels.

Another example of student involvement occurred in Floral Park, New York<sup>1</sup>. Seventh, eighth and ninth grade students enrolled in ESEA Title I curriculum projects met once a month with administrators and parents to present their (student) views on how the Title I program could be improved. Students in the advisory group were asked to complete a questionnaire designed to indicate preference concerning certain items relating to the program. The tabulations, plus written comments, were instrumental in tailoring remedial reading and math classes to student needs. Two suggestions were implemented:

- 1) Teachers agreed to make classes more lively through word games and math puzzles;
- 2) More class time was to be used for discussions involving pupil attitudes, recommendations and feelings.

A third illustration was seen in New York.<sup>2</sup> The parent-

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 41.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 42.

student advisory board, a direct line of communication to school administration proved highly effective at the 3,200 student Bronx High School of Science. Created in December, 1968, in response to a list of 20 demands made by student activists, the 15 member board, which included five students prompted action on a number of demands. Within five months, the following changes took place:

- 1) Students are now using the front door of the school, once reserved for teachers and visitors.
- 2) There are now seven additional electives in social studies.
- 3) Students are now involved in the evaluation of at least one course in each department.
- 4) Two pages were set aside in the student newspaper for the views of dissident students.
- 5) The demand for a new student lounge was approved.

Still another instance can be seen in the "new respectability for underground papers" that developed in Valley Falls, Kansas.<sup>1</sup> Administrators, accepted the fact that students were determined to criticize, developed an attitude of tolerance

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 43.

and sensitive guidelines that turned what had become a nightmare for many schoolmen into an acceptable outlet for student dissent.

The Draconian, started in 1968 at Valley Falls High, enjoys power to editorialize on any subject concerning the school or local and national events. Its only restrictions are that it cannot be libelous, endanger the health or safety of students, or publish material which would tend to disrupt the educational process.

Caliguri<sup>1</sup> recently observed that adolescent students' dissent has generally been smothered or filtered through the institutional halo of formal authority, the restrictive syndrome of rules and regulations, and the reward theme of conformity to adult views and pronouncements. He indicated that this dissent may be triggered within today's context of Civil Rights, teacher's bargaining, and the federal judicial decisions on individual rights. He contended that it was less than speculative that high school students will demand a part in the socio-political power drama of our time. He felt that this presentation will be manifested by emerging adolescent dissent, the linkage of interpretative or authoritative insights and avant garde comments about the concept of adolescent power.

In a similar vein, Coleman states:

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<sup>1</sup>Joseph Caliguri, "Adolescent Power and School Policy," Journal of Secondary Education, XLIII (Oct., 1968), pp. 265-268.

Children are the last to be freed by the openness of an industrial economy, but they too are no longer content to have a fixed station, "to be seen and not heard." The openness coupled with affluence allows the adolescent to share fully in his family consumption, and to do so independently: To own a car, to select his own clothes, to spend time outside school as he sees fit. A steelworker's son aspires to the same jobs and the same style of life as does the company president's son. . . . The school has a great disadvantage in capturing the adolescent's interests. If he is eager for adulthood, he is quick to turn his attention to those areas of leisure and<sup>1</sup> consumption that allow him the freedom of an adult.

Silberman points out that not too many of us realize how bad American schools are from the point of view of humanity, respect, trust, or dignity.<sup>2</sup> He calls attention to a statement by Charles E. Brown of the Ford Foundation, a former Superintendent of Schools, wherein Brown indicated that secondary schools are perhaps the worst offenders of all. Because adolescents are harder to "control" than younger children and that secondary schools tend to be even more authoritarian and repressive than elementary schools; the value they transmit, according to Brown, are the values of docility, passivity, conformity, and lack of trust.<sup>3</sup>

It should not be too surprising, if the preceeding comments have any validity, to note that there is some evidence which supports the fact that many of the students who attended American public high schools during the last two

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<sup>1</sup>James S. Coleman, Adolescents and the Schools (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965), p. 98.

<sup>2</sup>Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 323.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 324.

decades developed anti-democratic attitudes. Remmers, et al. made an intensive study of teenagers during the late fifties and early sixties. Areas of feelings, thinking and behaving were measured by means of 49 individual polls through the high schools of the nation. Ten thousand to 18,000 teenagers were polled: The study was known as the Purdue Opinion Polls.<sup>1</sup>

The sample comprised 3,300 students which matched very closely the characteristics of the American teenager population at large. Forty-six percent of the students polled were against any more women holding public office. Thirty-nine percent would have denied visiting foreigners any right to criticize the United States. Thirty-three percent felt that there was nothing they themselves might do to prevent another war. Forty-four percent of the students felt that if a person was uncertain how to vote, it was better not to vote. Forty-two percent disagreed that pressure groups were useful and important features of representative government. Fifty-seven percent of the teenagers believed that democracy depended fundamentally upon the existence of free business enterprise.<sup>2</sup>

Horton studied attitudes toward freedom as defined by the Bill of Rights. This study was concerned with the ideology of the nation's high school youth with regard to

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<sup>1</sup>H. H. Remmers and D. H. Radler, The American Teenager (New York: Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc., 1957).

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 57.



the values of freedom and fascism. The study was conducted during the school year 1951-52 and involved 103 schools, with 18,052 pupils participating.<sup>1</sup> The schools were widely distributed geographically, with 34 states represented. A stratified random sample of 3,000 twelfth graders were selected for analysis.

Horton found that a significant proportion of the nation's high school seniors did not agree with the freedoms guaranteed by the Bill of Rights. Specifically, about one student in five did not agree with the freedoms stated in the Bill of Rights, and on some issues the proportion was even greater. Horton further discovered that those students who manifested the symptoms of authoritarianism were likely to declare themselves to be the "best" Americans and the most loyal supporters of American democracy.<sup>2</sup>

Horton contended that the implications for education are clear, if one accepts "good citizenship" as an important educational goal.<sup>3</sup>

The analysis of belief in democratic values, in terms of having taken a school course in U.S. Government or Civics showed no constructive effect attributable to such school courses. In fact, Horton found when differences in response did occur on those items dealing with the freedoms guaranteed

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<sup>1</sup>Roy E. Horton, "American Freedom and the Values of Youth," Anti-Democratic Attitudes in American High Schools, H. H. Renner (ed.) (Evanston: Northwestern University Press, 1963), p. 22.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 57.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

by the Bill of Rights, those who had a course in Civics tended to be less in agreement with the Bill of Rights. Horton further suggested that it may well be that courses in civics or government concentrate more upon the mechanics of government than upon the values of democracy.<sup>1</sup> He pointed out that from the result of his research there appears a big need for greater emphasis upon the basic values of freedom upon which the existence of the democratic society depends.<sup>2</sup>

When the comparison of ninth graders with twelfth was considered, the implications for education were even more apparent. While the acceptance of the Bill of Rights increased slightly with grade, such change, Horton strongly contended, was equivocal evidence for the benefits of education. He observed that those changes could have been the result of greater maturity regardless of the intervening school experiences. And, since a considerable proportion of those entering high school will "drop out" before graduation, the differences between ninth graders and twelfth graders might have been one of selection rather than education.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 58.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

For the majority of "drop outs" come from families of lower income level and lower level of parental education, and as Horton's investigation revealed, it was precisely those pupils of such background who were least likely to believe in the Bill of Rights.<sup>1</sup>

Remmers and Horton<sup>2</sup> were in accord that the typical teenager of the 1950's showed an alarming disposition to reject some democratic beliefs, to throw away some of the basic freedoms guaranteed in the Bill of Rights, and to accept many authoritarian and totalitarian beliefs and values in their place. Suffice it to state, that those teenagers of the fifties are the adults of today and it is questionable whether public school educators have accepted this fundamental challenge now when evidence tends to suggest that they didn't a generation ago.

Weiser and Hayes,<sup>3</sup> in a follow-up study in 1965, obtained results similar to the earlier Purdue Opinion Polls.

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid., p. 59.

<sup>2</sup> Remmers and Radler, op.cit., p. 195.

<sup>3</sup> John C. Weiser and James E. Hayes, "Democratic Attitudes of Teachers and Prospective Teachers, "Phi Delta Kappan XLVII (May, 1966), pp. 476-481.

Their findings further strengthened the idea that both teachers and their students may have an inadequate or distorted understanding of the meaning of democracy and the Bill of Rights. The investigators suggested that whereas most school objectives require efforts to bring students to an understanding of the meaning of democracy and to instill in them skills and attitudes which will make it function, the responses of many of the experienced teachers in their sample indicated rather clearly that if they worked effectively for such ends, they must depart from personal convictions to do it. The prospective teachers showed a pattern which would allow them to "fit in" rather than provide change.<sup>1</sup>

The prospective teachers studied appeared to have attitudes which they, according to Wieiser and Hayes, would not understand as, or admit to being, anti-democratic. They appeared to realize the probabilities of change in our society, perhaps even accepted the need for change; but some would not provide for change through democratic means. They seemed, generally, to have concern for the private rights of individuals but many did not approve of free exercise of means to bring

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

about change. The investigators concluded that the pre-occupation of many teachers with authority, and in particular with authority over children, arouses serious questions. Wieiser and Hayes asked "How many teachers are there who really understand and practice democracy?"

Guilliams<sup>1</sup> conducted an investigation during the school year 1971-72 to determine if teachers' attitudes concerning the rights of students actually influenced their assessment of students' classroom behavior. The study dealt with the question of rights at the basic level of the educational institution, i.e., the classroom. The major assumption was that there would be a relationship between the assessment of behavior and the assessor's attitudes.

Significant differences in assessed classroom behavior were found when students were grouped by all possible combinations of race, sex, and grade level. Students' sex was found to be the most prominent factor influencing teacher assessment. The female student was rated significantly higher than the male.

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<sup>1</sup>John D. Guilliams. "Educator's Attitudes Concerning Rights of Students and Their Relationship to Teachers' Assessment of Student Classroom Behavior." Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation in Education, University of Oklahoma, 1972.

The variables of race, sex and teaching level were found to be factors influencing teachers' and principals' attitudes concerning student rights. Differences in race appeared to have the strongest influence on educator attitudes, i.e., black educators expressed higher regard for student rights. The variable of sex was the second strongest factor. Female teachers scored significantly higher than male. Teaching or grade level was not found to be a factor in influencing teacher attitudes, but Guilliams found it a significant factor when the responses of principals of junior and senior high schools were compared. Teachers with more than ten years of experience had significantly less regard for student rights than did teachers with ten or less years of experience.<sup>1</sup>

Although there is evidence which seems to suggest that numerous educators as well as students indicate a lack of understanding and/or general disregard for individual rights, there are a growing number of students who continue to express disenchantment with the lack of recognition of individual rights. One study done at Columbia University two years

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

ago revealed that students view schools as basically undemocratic.<sup>1</sup> Resolution of conflict by unilateral action and fiat increases tensions and frustrations, resulting in an atmosphere that is not conducive to learning. Student responses showed that issues of individual rights account for over 50 percent of the total concern of students. Principally, students pointed to the daily obstacles they meet in attempting to exercise the basic rights of citizens.<sup>2</sup>

Westin summed it up thusly:

The great majority of students are angry, frustrated, increasingly alienated by the school. They do not believe they receive individual justice or enjoy the rights of dissent or share in critical decision making affecting their lives within the school. Our schools are now educating millions of students who are not forming an allegiance to the democratic political system simply because they do not experience such a democratic system in their daily lives in schools. When currents of frustration such as these are running through our schools, we should not be surprised that withdrawal through drugs or revolutionary attacks on school and society are the commitments so many of our students are choosing.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Westin, DeCecco and Richards, Op. cit., pp. 25-30.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Much of the literature tends to suggest that the prevailing mood in American public schools regarding democratic attitudes and practices is one of contradiction and inconsistencies.

One contributing factor to the contradictions and inconsistencies might be found in a statement by Snider<sup>1</sup> which follows:

The thesis advanced here is a high percentage of those individuals now practicing administration in the public schools and institutions of higher learning in the nation provide a quality and a brand of leadership for their schools which does not contribute significantly to the achievement of the purposes for which the institution exists and is in fact inconsistent with the political, philosophical and social framework of the American democratic society.

Some Causes and Effects of Student Unrest  
and Militancy in Public High Schools

There has been during the past five years an accumulation of evidence to the effect that recent student behavior in an increasing number of high schools, especially urban high schools, has deteriorated to a point where in many areas, the educative capacity of the high schools has been seriously

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<sup>1</sup>Glenn R. Snider, "Education Leadership: An Analysis," The National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 49, No. 30 (April, 1965), pp. 80-94.



impaired. And at times this turbulence appears to be spreading.

Much of the recent unrest and dissension in secondary schools has made it imperative that administrators and teachers examine their attitudes and positions with concerned awareness. Many educators and laymen alike have pondered the reasons for this unrest.

Bailey<sup>1</sup> in conjunction with the Syracuse University Research Corporation conducted a survey on high school disruption. Questionnaires were mailed to 1,962 principals of high schools which had enrollments of more than 750 pupils and were located in Metropolitan areas of more than 50,000 population. The 682 replies were tabulated and analyzed. Two general causes for the disruptions in secondary urban schools were identified as societal and in-school.

Some of the societal causes listed were, a) violence in America; b) the success of the Civil Rights protest in the 1960's; c) visibility and apparent success of college protest; d) the expression of ethnic and racial pride; e) racism:

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<sup>1</sup>Stephen K. Bailey, Disruption in Urban Public Secondary Schools. (Washington, D. C. National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1970), pp. 13-32.

Black and White; f) Participatory Democracy; g) the television generation.

Some of the In-school causes identified were: a) restrictions on behavior; b) cross cultural clashes; c) increasing politicalization of schools; d) classification of students and career counseling and e) student involvement in policy.<sup>1</sup>

Bailey also pointed out that the National Association of Secondary School Principals in early 1969 surveyed more than 1,000 high schools and discovered that 59 percent of the high schools and 56 percent of the junior high schools had experienced some form of protest. That investigation revealed that 10 percent of the principals responding to the survey had undergone race-related protest.<sup>2</sup>

The way minority groups have been treated in American society and in some American schools certainly had not gone unnoticed by students. Carter<sup>3</sup> discovered that textbooks in

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 7, quoting National Association of Secondary School Principals Survey on Student Unrest, 1969.

<sup>3</sup>Aleane Carter, "A Black Teacher Finds Her Answer," Instructor, Vol. 80 (October, 1970), pp. 23-24.

one school presented only skeletal suggestions of famous black people, even failing to mention many of those, and every other black person mentioned in the book was picking cotton. The black students and parents were understandably upset.

Along that same vein, Bowman<sup>1</sup> pointed out that one source of student unrest and protest is the lack of forthrightness and honesty on the parts of high schools in not teaching the whole truth about the early history of the United States. He suggested that in our efforts to present only the "good side" that we have been perpetrators of delusion.<sup>2</sup>

Munnelly<sup>3</sup> discusses how violence or dissension of any sort (as it pertains to the early shaping of the heritage of the United States) has been omitted, entirely from the school curriculum, thus depriving children of a true understanding of the democratic tradition, which he pointed out, is built on individuals and groups and resulting conflicts and

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<sup>1</sup>Constance H. Bowman, "Alternative To Violence," Educational Leadership, Vol. 3 (October, 1972), pp. 26-28.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Robert G. Munnelly, "Is It Time to Break the Silence on Violence?" Elementary School Journal, Vol. 71 (February, 1971), p. 231.

settlements. Munnelly holds that we cannot really teach children to understand the democratic process and background unless we take the risk of teaching about the conflict itself.

In a related study, Corr<sup>1</sup> investigated the extent to which social studies teachers in large Oklahoma high schools were committed to teaching their students the means of resolving controversial issues. The sample for the investigation consisted of 131 social studies teachers from fifteen Oklahoma high schools with enrollments over 1,000. Corr concluded that social studies teachers in large public senior high schools of Oklahoma have not been sufficiently committed to teaching their students attitudes, skills and knowledge necessary to resolve significant controversial issues. He also concluded that the respondents had not provided their students sufficient opportunity to study current controversial issues and the respondents as a group did not believe the conditions of their school promoted or encouraged the teaching of controversial issues.

With regard to the administrators in many public high

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<sup>1</sup>Ethelbert L. Corr, "The Teaching of Controversial Issues in the Social Studies Classes of Large Oklahoma Senior High Schools," Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1970.

schools, Taylor<sup>1</sup> contended that their thinking was 5-10 years behind the thinking of the students. The students, according to Taylor, felt that administrators were not really informed on the issues facing the society; nor were they aware of changes that were taking place or have occurred. Taylor further suggested that some administrators even considered the discontented attitudes of students a personal threat.

McKenna<sup>2</sup> also observed that students complain that their instructors did not treat them as human beings of dignity and worth. He further reported that students are of the opinion that their instructors don't try very hard to understand how students feel about themselves, their relationship to their peers, to adults, and to the greater community. McKenna emphasized that great numbers of students, not just revolutionary dissidents, reported that curriculum content is not interesting to them. Not only did they find it uninteresting, according to McKenna, they also found it irrelevant.

Another factor affecting the quality of interaction between students and educators was stated by Thomas:<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Harold Taylor, Interview, "Student Activism Steers Away from SDS and Toward Educational Reforms," Nation's Schools, Vol. 84 (July, 1969), pp. 39-40.

<sup>2</sup>Bernard McKenna, "Student Unrest: Some Causes and Cures," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Vol. 55 (Feb., 1971), pp. 54-60.

<sup>3</sup>Arthur E. Thomas, "Community Power and Student Rights," Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 42 (May, 1972), pp. 174-216.

"We don't even see a child in the context of rights. We see a child in the context of somebody who is supposed to do as he or she is told."<sup>1</sup>

However, as Silberman<sup>2</sup> stated, schools all over the country are starting to respond to a growing student hostility to arbitrary or demeaning rules and regulations which have been a common source of student unrest and dissatisfaction. Some schools are responding voluntarily, some in response to court orders--many are abandoning codes, governing dress and appearance, codes which Silberman described as inane as they are unenforceable. Silberman asserted that it is hard to persuade students that a school respects their rights and values their individuality when its rules specify, as did one fairly typical suburban school that: "Whatever, in the judgement of the faculty, is considered bizarre, unusual, eccentric or careless in personal appearance and dress will not be tolerated."<sup>3</sup>

Concerning the question of Constitutional Rights and students, Hentoff<sup>4</sup> reinforces the contentions of Silberman when he suggested that high school students in increasing numbers were conducting a stubborn, sometimes explosive

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 177.

<sup>2</sup>Silberman, op. cit., p. 337.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Nat Hentoff, "Why Students Want Their Constitutional Rights," Saturday Review (May 22, 1971), pp. 60-74.

struggle to get their rights recognized. He indicated that despite various court rulings, some as early as 1943, there had been little significant change until recently, in the attitudes of most public school administrators toward their students. Hentoff pointed out that students are compelled by law to attend schools then find their constitutional freedoms routinely violated rather than scrupulously protected by those in charge of the schools. He contended that such basic rights of an American citizen as freedom of speech and assembly, protection from invasion of privacy, and the guarantee of due process of law do not exist for the overwhelming majority of high school students.<sup>1</sup>

It is not unusual, particularly in recent years, for students and parents to initiate court proceedings in an effort to overturn unfavorable decisions by school officials. Historically, the courts have been hesitant to involve themselves in these matters. However, Melson, a District Attorney,<sup>2</sup> is of the opinion that today while fairly uncritical acceptance of school authorities views as to the "reasonableness" or "fairness" of school rules is still widespread by the judiciary the more recent cases definitely indicate

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Gordon Melson, "Aspects of the Legal Relationship between Students and the Public School," unpublished paper, prepared for the Consultative Center for Equal Educational Opportunity, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma, 1971.

an increasing tendency to scrutinize the facts and to give something more than a cursory hearing to student claims.

There are those educators, parents and students who no doubt view this emerging trend by the courts as long overdue.

One of the classic cases which continues to have significant impact and yet is often overlooked by school administrators and a cause for unrest by students, is a 1943 decision handed down by the Supreme Court of the United States. The case concerned a state requirement that children in public schools salute the American flag. The student at issue was a Jehovah's Witness. The Supreme Court held that the state had no power to compel anyone to pledge allegiance to the flag. The requirement was found to violate the First and Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States.<sup>1</sup>

Students contend that they don't enjoy freedom of expression in the public high schools and this is often a source of dissatisfaction. The National Association of Secondary School Principals assumed the position that freedom of expression cannot legally be restricted unless its exercise interferes with the orderly conduct of classes and school work.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>West Virginia State Board of Education vs. Barnette, 319 45.624 (1943), 637.

<sup>2</sup>Robert L. Ackerly, The Reasonable Exercise of Authority (Washington, D.C.) National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1969, p. 7.



In a landmark court case, and one quite often cited by knowledgeable students, lawyers and parents and perhaps the most significant of court cases dealing with student rights was that of *Tinker vs. Des Moines*.<sup>1</sup> In this case heard before the U.S. Supreme Court, three students were suspended from their respective schools for wearing arm bands to school to protest the Vietnam war. Their action defied the restriction of this activity by the school authorities. It was February, 1969 when the U.S. Supreme Court acting upon the case decided that the wearing of an armband is symbolic speech and is thereby protected under the First Amendment. The court held that students are indeed persons under the constitution and therefore have fundamental rights which school authorities must respect.<sup>2</sup>

Nat Hentoff, writing in the Saturday Review, felt that a vital element in the *Tinker* decision was the assertion by the court that:

. . . a student's rights . . . do not embrace merely the classroom's hours. When he is in the cafeteria, or on the playing field, or on the campus during the authorized hours, he may express his opinions, even on such controversial subjects as to the war in Vietnam, if he does so without materially and substantially interfering with appropriate discipline in the operation of the school and without colliding with the rights of others.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>*Tinker vs. Des Moines Community School District*, 393 4.S 503, 89 S.Ct. 733 (1969).

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Hentoff, op. cit., p. 61.

In addition, the Court made clear the following:

Mere speculation or fear that dissruption will follow the exercise of this right does not justify the curbing of students' expression of opinion. In our system undifferentiated fear or apprehension of disturbance is not enough to overcome the right to freedom of expression. Any departure from absolute regimentation may cause trouble. Any variation from the majority's opinion may inspire fear, any word spoken, in class, in the lunch room, or on the campus that deviates from the views of another person may start an argument or cause a disturbance. But our constitution says we must take this risk . . . and our history says that it is this sort of hazardous freedom--this kind of openness--that is the basis of our national strength and of the independence and vigor of Americans who grow up and live in this relatively permissive, often disputatious society.<sup>1</sup>

The Tinker decision is a landmark in that it affirmed that students are persons under the Constitution and are entitled to the protections afforded by that document. Moreover, the decision delineated more precisely than before those aspects of school life over which the school authorities may exercise control and has placed beyond the reach of school officials those areas of student autonomy which are protected by the Constitution.

#### Human Rights Education: Why the Need?

Since education is the process by which children acquire the attitudes, motives, beliefs, skills and methods of thinking which are sanctioned by the adult society, then it seems justifiable that educators and the educational system in America be deeply concerned and just as deeply

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<sup>1</sup>Tinker vs. Des Moines, op. cit., pp. 508-509.

committed to providing opportunities for students to gain insights into and positive experiences regarding the democratic ideals and the human rights and value of this democratic society.

Recent reports have recommended almost unanimously that learning about the practice and principles of human rights and the moral and political values in which they are rooted should be a school-wide process rather than an isolated activity. It has been demonstrated that the cooperation of as many teachers and school authorities as possible generally creates the most favorable conditions for this teaching.<sup>1</sup>

Kidd, in defining the role of the teacher, stated:

Every hour of every school day teachers deal with matters which concern human rights--order and justice, the maintenance of individual dignity, regard for truth and objectivity, and mutual respect. As pupils develop and mature, the elements involved become more complex. It becomes necessary to distinguish freedom from license, economic progress from greed, authority from tyranny. At the same time, the pupils' widening perspective of life and events requires that concepts of human rights be transferred to larger issues: individual dignity must be reflected in respect for minorities or in responsible participation in the life of the community; justice for individuals must be seen in acknowledgement of the rules of law between nations; economic security for the group must be transposed into freedom from want for all people. Little by little, teaching for human rights becomes a form of moral and civic education concerning the relationship of the individual to society and societies to one another.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Sheila Kidd, "Teaching about Human Rights," School and Society, XCVII (April, 1969), p. 233.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

Snider<sup>1</sup> contended that it is in the elementary and secondary school classrooms in America that the biases, prejudices, and tolerance of a future generation may be averted. He stated:

The efforts to reduce the destructive attitudes and behaviors rest on basic moral and ethical values which have long formed the foundation of American political and social democracy: the importance and dignity of the individual personality, truth, equality of opportunity, justice, freedom, liberty, moral responsibility, brotherhood, cooperation among equals, the concept that social institutions are servants of mankind, and the belief that the application of reason is the best way to resolve problems. Is it any less appropriate to rest the provision of leadership on these same values? To do otherwise makes leadership the major contributive force for man's dehumanization.<sup>2</sup>

It is highly probable that our public schools have not been as effective as they can and should be in teaching about and practicing fundamental human rights and civil liberties. Perlumutter<sup>3</sup> reported that educational systems in the suburbs have not been as successful as they might with regard to teaching about civil rights and civil liberties, especially the Bill of Rights. He suggested that the need is greater in the suburbs than in the urban cities. He feels that the urban poor are sensitive to injustice and they react strongly, psychologically and behaviorally. Perlumutter asserted that the suburban comfortable do not seem to care.

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<sup>1</sup>Snider, op. cit., p. 82.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 83.

<sup>3</sup>Phillip Perlumutter, "Suburbia and Human Rights" (New York: American Jewish Committee, March, 1969).

One may, or may not, readily agree with Perlmutter's contention about the urban poor; however, there probably won't be much disagreement with his observations concerning the suburbs.

Justice Brennan<sup>1</sup> indicated concern for the failure of high school students and graduates to appreciate fully the meaning of basic civil liberties. He indicated that if students learn only what is written on paper, they understand little about the basic sources of protection for human rights. He posed the following question: "What difference does it make whether high school students understand and care about individual liberties?"<sup>2</sup> In answering his own question, he pointed out that civil rights must be every person's concern so long as each individual can physically interfere with someone else's liberty, often without breaking any law, or going unnoticed and unpunished where a law is broken.<sup>3</sup>

Brennan called attention to the following statement by Crary and Robinson:

Developing knowledge and understanding of human rights is no easy assignment. But it is essential to our future. Too often schools and communities feel little concern for these problems. There is a dangerous lack of information even at the simple level of knowing the basic civil liberties to which we are morally and

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<sup>1</sup>William J. Brennan, Jr., Teaching the Bill of Rights (New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'Nai B'rith, 1963), pp. 7-23.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 13.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

constitutionally committed.

Teachers must discover what their students<sup>1</sup> and communities think and know about these issues.<sup>1</sup>

Again, Snider suggested that school programs and instructional efforts specifically in the social studies areas are often no more than patriotic window-dressing and all too often do not lead to the development of student understanding and of commitment to basic democratic values.<sup>2</sup>

Broudy<sup>3</sup> indicated that he thought the single greatest obstacle to doing much with human rights in the public schools was the fear of absolutes and ultimates. He wrote:

Human rights if they are unalienable, cannot be contingent upon place, time, culture, or circumstance. They are not even contingent upon democracy; democracy itself justified as the most<sup>4</sup> plausible way of protecting and respecting human rights.

Broudy felt that the pupil may be forgiven for leaving school convinced that human rights are only words. He added, "Even youthful idealism can stand only so much cynicism, and the reaction often is an even more violent cynicism of its own." Broudy concluded by suggesting:

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 9, quoting Ryland W. Crary and John T. Robinson, America's Stake in Human Rights. No. 24 (Washington, D.C., National Council for the Social Studies, 1949), p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>Glenn R. Snider, "Bible Reading and Prayers--Some Guidelines for School Behavior," Phi Delta Kappan (June, 1967).

<sup>3</sup>Harry S. Broudy, "What Can the Schools Say about Human Rights?" Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XLVII (May, 1966), p. 467.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

Education is itself the supreme acknowledgement of human rights, but not when a school justifies itself solely on the promises it makes to prepare the pupil for service to state and factory. Education respects human rights when it makes the realization of human powers, of selfhood, its primary justification. Schools unfortunately speak loudly and clearly about the economics of education they tend to mumble about self-development.<sup>1</sup>

Taylor and Morgan<sup>2</sup> felt if we really believed in human rights we would teach students at school, from their earliest years, not merely the fundamentals of education, but also to respect the rights, the dignity, the welfare, and the opinions of others; to cultivate a sense of personal value and responsibility, the better to understand the value and responsibilities of their neighbors; to think for themselves; to love justice and uphold the law; to see things as they are without the distortion of bias and propaganda; and to make easy social contacts with children from very different economic, racial, and political environments.

One might suppose that schools are currently doing what was suggested by Taylor and Morgan, yet there are educators who don't agree: Ladd put it this way:

Throughout the country, high school graduates are demonstrating a frightening degree of ignorance of the way a government of free men under law must operate.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 471.

<sup>2</sup>John Taylor and Betty Morgan, "Education for Human Rights in an Atomic Age," Phi Delta Kappan, XXXIII (October, 1951), p. 106.

Some of our high schools are trying to combat such ignorance; others are merely adding to the confusion.<sup>1</sup>

Snider<sup>2</sup> reported that the Phi Delta Kappa National Commission on Human Rights in Teacher Education believes that public and higher education programs often violate important human rights. He indicated that for decades Teacher Education institutions have been bitterly criticized for failing to practice what they teach. He pointed out that this criticism comes from both the naive teacher education undergrad and the veteran in-service educator. Snider believed with others that teacher education institutions must be alerted to their responsibility in helping public schools prepare a generation of young people who have understanding of and commitment to the values and human rights without which, in his words, "life itself will become meaningless."<sup>3</sup>

In that same vein, the Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education project produced a stinging indictment of educators on all levels. The indictment is as follows:

Educators and schools at all levels have far too long demonstrated in their individual and collective behaviors a calloused disregard for many basic American

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<sup>1</sup>Edward T. Ladd, "Civil Liberties: Yet Another Piece of Baggage for Teachers," Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. 20 (Summer, 1969), p. 136.

<sup>2</sup>Glenn Snider, "Human Rights: A High Priority in Teacher Education," The Phi Delta Kappan (November, 1971), p. 172.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 173.



moral and political values and many of the human rights they are charged to perpetrate.<sup>1</sup>

### Summary

The review of literature revolved around three questions: (1) What has been the prevailing mood in American schools regarding democratic attitudes and practices? (2) What have been the causes and effects of student unrest and militancy in public high schools? and (3) Human Rights Education: Why the Need?

In response to the first question, it was concluded from the literature reviewed that the prevailing mood in American public schools regarding democratic attitudes has been one of contradictions and inconsistencies. The literature indicated that educators were divided on various issues regarding student participation in the development of school policy. Especially was this true in decisions concerning curriculum. Studies indicated that not only were students unhappy with their limited participation in decision making but they expressed this unhappiness in student demonstrations and on occasions disruptions.

In response to the second question, what have been the causes and effects of student unrest and militancy in public high schools?, it was concluded that the causes were both societal and in-school. Some of the societal

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<sup>1</sup>Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project on Human Rights, op. cit., pp. 23-24.

causes were identified as violence in America, the success of the Civil Rights protest in the sixties, visibility and apparent success in college protest, the expression of ethnic and social pride, and racism. Some of the in-school causes identified were restrictions on behavior, cross cultural clashes, and increasing politicalization of schools. Add to these a lack of opportunity for students to discuss controversial issues and a growing student hostility to arbitrary or demeaning rules and regulations.

It was also concluded that effects of student unrest and militancy have been such that some schools are responding voluntarily to student demands, some to court orders and some as a direct result of democratic administrations in the schools. More and more schools are reviewing and revising archaic policies and practices inherited from earlier periods.

In response to the third question, Human Rights Education: Why the Need?, it was concluded from the literature reviewed that learning about the practices and principles of human rights and the moral values in which they are rooted should be a school-wide process rather than an isolated activity. It was suggested that it is in the elementary and secondary school classrooms in America that the biases, prejudices and intolerance of a future generation may be averted.

It should be realized that making students vitally

and permanently interested in human rights will not be an easy task. Perhaps educators must begin by recognizing that it is much more a matter of creating attitudes of mind than of giving routine instruction about the Constitution and Declaration of Independence. Whatever the matter, the literature leaves small doubt as to the need for education and educators to reflect a genuine concern for human rights and the moral, political and ethical values which this country cherishes. This concern must be reflected at all levels of education if America is to realize its promise--the need is certainly evident.

## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

#### Design of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the extent to which high schools in one metropolitan area recognize and provide opportunities for the development of understandings, responsibilities and behaviors consistent with certain human and civil rights. It was believed that a study of this nature would contribute in some way to improving conditions in the public schools with regard to how young people are perceived and treated.

One major consideration regarding the design of the study involved a decision to use a student population rather than one of teachers or administrators. This decision was made for two fundamental reasons: (1) Student opinions at the secondary level in public schools are infrequently sought by administrators, teachers, and boards of education and less frequently utilized. (2) Students are capable of making valuable observations about policies and practices which affect them and their education and many welcome the opportunity to express their opinions.

It appeared evident that some limitation would need

to be placed on the population included in the study. Subsequently, the decision was made to confine the sample for analysis to high school seniors. The seniors were the most mature students in the school from the standpoint of chronological age. Seniors are also regarded as the final product of the schools which they attend; thus, well-suited to respond to questions concerning their school's behaviors and policies.

The study was further limited to include only those seniors in the public schools of the largest metropolitan community in the state. This was done for two reasons: (1) The administration of the school system indicated an interest in the type of data the study was designed to generate. (2) This particular school system had undergone a series of recent court decisions regarding the complete desegregation of all schools in the district leaving in its wake pockets of hostile students, teachers and parents as well as apprehensive administrators. During the past five years all high schools in the district experienced, at one time or another, seething racial controversy, open racial conflict, and other various manifestations of student disruption and unrest. Administrators of these high schools appeared to be genuinely seeking ways to improve the school climate and more effectively equalize the educational opportunities for all of the students.

### The Population and Sample

All of the nine high schools in the urban school system were included in the study. They were designated and listed as schools: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, and I. A total of 17,166 pupils were enrolled in these institutions at the time the study was conducted. Of those enrolled, 3,851 were classified as twelfth grade students. All schools included grades nine through twelve and served multi-racial student bodies as well as having multi-racial staffs pursuant to court orders. Of the nine schools, School A had no white pupils in the twelfth grade and School I had no blacks enrolled at that level.

Schools A, B, C, and I had less experience with desegregated student bodies than did Schools E, D, G, H, and F. The latter group had been involved in earlier court-ordered desegregation plans. Schools A and D were located in predominantly black communities and Schools B, C, E, and F were in previously all-white strongholds. Schools H and G served somewhat mixed areas.

Twelfth grade class rosters were secured from each building principal and the subjects were stratified by sex and race. A table of random digits developed by Fisher and Yates<sup>1</sup> was utilized in the sample selection. A total

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<sup>1</sup>Ronald A. Fisher and Frank Yates, Statistical Tables for Biological, Agricultural and Medical Research (New York: Hafner Publishing Company, Inc., 1953), pp. 114-119.

of 396 students comprised the random stratified sample selected for the survey; however, 49 were absent on the days the instrument was administered. This left a total of 347 subjects, approximately nine percent of the total seniors enrolled in the school system during the academic year of 1972-73. Of the 347 students included in the study, 50.73 percent were females and 49.27 percent males. Approximately 28 percent of the subjects were black; this closely matched the black/white ratio reflected at the secondary level. The sample of subjects included from each school was no less than 7.26 percent of each senior class. Table 1 illustrates the sample composition by school, race and sex.

TABLE 1  
SAMPLE COMPOSITION BY SCHOOL RACE AND SEX

School	B		W		Sample Totals	Number of Seniors Enrolled	Number of Students Enrolled
	M	F	M	F			
A	13	17			30	398	1,545
B	2		11	11	24	291	1,422
C	4	1	11	15	31	425	1,913
D	9	6	10	5	30	300	1,250
E	9	9	15	17	50	550	2,577
F	4	2	25	37	68	643	2,901
G	2	6	10	7	25	344	1,750
H	6	7	12	14	39	300	1,196
I			28	22	50	600	2,612
Sub-Total	49	48	122	128			
Grand Totals	97		250		347	3,851	17,166

### The Instrument

The literature pertaining to human rights and public education failed to reveal an adequate instrument designed to analyze the attitudes and opinions of high school students regarding policies and practices exhibited by high schools that would provide some indication of a school's commitment to or violation of basic human rights; therefore, it became necessary to develop such a tool. One major contributive source in this endeavor was the National Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project on Human Rights.<sup>1</sup> This particular project produced and dissiminated A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights in 1971 which received widespread attention.

Section II of the above-mentioned publication, entitled "A Guide for Analyzing Institutionsl and Individual Behaviors in Human Rights," was the basic frame of reference for the development of the Student Human/Civil Rights Survey Instrument used in this investigation.

The 49 items included in the instrument were constructed around the following human and civil rights:

The Right of Equality of Opportunity

The Rights of Freedom of Assembly, Association and Petition

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<sup>1</sup>The project headquarters is located at the University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma. Glenn R. Snider is Chairman of the National Policy Committee for the Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project and Ira M. Eyster is Executive Director of the project.



The Right of Due Process and Equal Protection under the Law

The Right of Freedom of Speech and Press

The Right of Dissent

The Right to Freedom of and from Religion

The Right to Security of Person and Property and the Right to Privacy

The Right against Self-Incrimination

The Right to a Trial by a Jury of Actual Peers

The Right to be Different<sup>1</sup>

Following in Table 2 are item numbers of the statements which were designed to measure policies and practices by schools with human and civil rights in question as incorporated in the Student Human/Civil Rights Instrument.

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<sup>1</sup>Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project, op. cit., pp. 25-46.

TABLE 2

ITEM NUMBERS OF THE HUMAN AND CIVIL RIGHTS BEING  
MEASURED BY THE STUDENT HUMAN/CIVIL RIGHTS  
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Right	Item Number							
The Right of Equality of Opportunity	1	10	15	16	17	19	37	48
The Right to Security of Person and Property and the Right to Privacy	8	9	20	22	32	39	40	
The Right to Dissent	2	5	14	24				
The Right to Freedom of and from Religion	7	13						
The Right to Freedom of Speech and Press	11	23	29	41	44			
The Right to Freedom of Assembly, Associ- ation and Petition	3	12	21	33	34	42	46	
The Right of Due Process and Equal Protection under the Law	25	26	31	35	30			
The Right to a Trial by a Jury of Actual Peers	4							
The Right against Self- Incrimination	27	43						
The Right to be Different	6	18	28	38	45	46	47	49

The items contained in the instrument, in addition to being developed around section two of the guide previously mentioned, were formulated from ideas, suggestions

and items contained in papers developed by Dr. Gertrude Noar<sup>1</sup> specifically for the Phi Delta Kappa Project on Human Rights and Teacher Education; and items and suggestions generated by graduate students in a post-master's seminar on Human Rights and Education conducted at the University of Oklahoma during the spring of 1972.

The Likert method of summated ratings as described by Edwards<sup>2</sup> was the fundamental technique utilized in constructing the instrument. Approximately half of the statements were both favorable and unfavorable toward the school in the manner presented.

#### Validity

After numerous revisions, the statements were submitted to a panel of twelve validating judges in an effort to achieve content validity for the instrument. The selection criteria for the judges were based on previous or present experience in Secondary Education and some demonstrated knowledge of human relations concepts.

Prospective judges were contacted by mail (see Appendix C) requesting their consent to serve on the validating panel by judging the applicability of the statements

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<sup>1</sup>Gertrude Noar is a Special Consultant to the PDK Project on Human Rights and Teacher Education. She is a noted author and lecturer of national stature.

<sup>2</sup>Allen L. Edwards, Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1957), pp. 149-162.

in assessing twelfth grade students' responses regarding policies and behaviors in their respective schools in the human/civil rights area. All twelve judges consented to serve on the panel and rendered constructive criticism regarding the statements contained in the instrument.

In an effort to further strengthen the content validity a decision was made to submit the instrument to fifty twelfth grade students in the target area to ascertain student comprehension, the degree of ambiguity and the time needed for the administration of the instrument.

#### Reliability

The reliability coefficient was calculated using Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation and applying a correction method to the resulting coefficient using the Spearman-Brown Formula. More specifically, the split-half method was employed to estimate the reliability by treating the statements on the instrument as two scales, i.e., odd-numbered items as one scale and even-numbered items as another. The reliability estimate was the correlation between the scores of the separate scales. The Spearman-Brown prophecy formula was then applied to the obtained correlation to estimate the reliability of the total scale.<sup>1</sup> The estimated reliability of the Student Human/Civil Rights

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<sup>1</sup>Marvin E. Shaw and Jack M. Wright, Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967), p. 17.

Survey Instrument is .79. Following are the formulas used in the calculations:

$$r = \frac{N\sum xy - \sum x \sum y}{\sqrt{[N\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][N\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}^1$$

$$r_{xx} = \frac{2rhh}{1 + rhh}^2$$

The  $r$  required for significance at the .01 level with 48 degrees of freedom is .361; therefore, an obtained  $r$  of .79 is considered highly significant.<sup>3</sup>

In addition to providing an opportunity for high school seniors to analyze the human rights behaviors in their schools, the instrument was designed to provide specific demographic data which was employed to categorize the respondents into three socio-economic levels for later analysis. The three levels were labeled high, middle and low and were based on combined family income, educational attainment of parents and parental occupations.

The subjects were requested not to sign their

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<sup>1</sup>George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966), p. 112.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 378.

<sup>3</sup>Freeman F. Elzey, A Programmed Introduction to Statistics (Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1966), Table IV, p. 349. Reprinted from Table VI, Allen L. Edwards, Statistical Methods for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1954).

names and were assured that their personal identity would be treated in a confidential manner. This was done in an effort to encourage candid responses and to minimize the possible fear of administrative and/or teacher reprisals.

The subjects were asked to respond to each item on a continuum: strongly agree, generally agree, undecided, generally disagree, strongly disagree. Weights were assigned the response alternatives from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). Weights for negative items were reversed and the score a respondent gave the school was the sum of the weighted alternatives endorsed by him. The highest score possible on the instrument is 245, the lowest 49. Any score above 147 was interpreted as a positive direction; any below was considered as a negative direction by the school with regard to policies and practices indicating commitment to or violation of fundamental human and civil rights.

#### Procedure of the Study

A minimum of three visits to each of the nine high schools in the target area were made by the researcher. The first visit was to explain in detail and answer questions about the study to the building principal and gain his individual permission to administer the instrument in that particular school.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Permission had previously been granted by the Research Committee for the school system; however, a stipulation was included which required that permission be given by each principal and permission by parents of each of the subjects chosen.

The second visit was needed to meet with those students who had been randomly selected, to brief them about the study, and to request their participation. One other objective was to provide the students with letters to their parents requesting their permission for their son or daughter to participate. (See Appendix C.)

The third visit was to administer the instrument and to express gratitude to both administration and students for their assistance. The administration of the instrument took approximately 33 minutes. There were a total of 27 visits to the high schools in conjunction with the study.

#### Statistical Procedures

In an effort to test the hypotheses stated in Chapter 1, it was necessary to test to see if the separate means of the several groups differed significantly from one another. A statistical technique for making this determination is an Analysis of Variance and this method was employed. The raw data was tabled in groups where it could be combined in various ways. A One-Way Anova was computed for the nine schools and a Tukey HSD test was computed on the results of the One-Way Anova. The schools were then grouped based on the results of the Tukey. Following this grouping two Three-Way Anovas were computed.

It was not possible to use the four variables in this study in a Four-Way Anova or Ancova because of the nature of the data.

The significance of the difference in each case was tested at the .01 level of confidence.

Percentages were employed to report the responses of the subjects on specific items by schools.



## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

#### Introduction

This study was concerned with those policies and practices which characterize an urban community's public high schools in the area of human rights as identified and discussed in the Phi Delta Kappa's, A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights. The major purpose of this chapter was to present, analyze and interpret the data derived from the investigation. The general format was to report the data and the results of the data analysis in condensed form. Tables were employed to report what the data essentially stated. Their purpose was to illuminate and clarify the discussion while providing statistical evidence for assertions made in the discussion.

This specific chapter was divided into six sections. The sections are presented in the following order: Introduction; One-Way Analysis of Variance by Schools; Three-Way Analysis of Variance for Those Schools Placed in Group I; Three-Way Analysis of Variance for Those Schools Placed in Group II; Interpretation of the Results; and, finally, a Discussion regarding the findings.

One-Way Analysis of Variance by Schools

As indicated in the preceding chapter, the nature of the collected data did not lend itself to a Four-Way Analysis of Variance or an Analysis of Covariance. Therefore, a One-Way analysis of variance was computed for the nine schools. Following in Table 3 are the highest and lowest ungrouped individual scores by schools.

TABLE 3

HIGHEST AND LOWEST UNGROUPED INDIVIDUAL SCORES ON STUDENT  
HUMAN/CIVIL RIGHTS INSTRUMENT BY SCHOOLS

School	Highest	Lowest	Number in Sample
A	202	113	30
B	212	124	24
C	197	117	31
D	212	102	30
E	205	114	50
F	217	106	68
G	194	101	25
H	194	103	39
I	207	118	50

The highest possible score on the Student Human/Civil Rights Instrument was a 245; the highest individual score a school received was 217. School F was rated highest by an individual subject. School G received the lowest rating with a score of 101. The lowest score possible was 49.

The first step was to tabulate each respondent's score into groups according to a three-way classification scheme; i.e., race, sex, and socio-economic level, I, II, or III. Each group was listed by school. The mean scores for each school were calculated and are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4  
MEAN SCORES OF EACH OF THE NINE HIGH SCHOOLS  
INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

School	Number Students in Sample	Mean Scores
A	30	148.50
B	24	156.51
C	31	158.16
D	30	164.13
E	50	164.34
F	68	163.07
G	25	146.26
H	39	157.28
I	50	163.60

School E earned the highest mean score in relation to the other schools on the Student Human/Civil Rights Instrument, School G the lowest. Using the data generated from this procedure the preliminary calculations for the One-Way Analysis of Variance were employed. Calculations were done in small groups so that they could be done by school, by socio-economic level or whatever way needed for

the analysis of variances. The results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance by school using mean scores is illustrated in Table 5:

TABLE 5  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA USING MEAN SCORES  
FROM NINE URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS

Source	S.S.	df	M.S.	F-Ratio	p
Between	13,657	8	1707	3.870	.01
Within	153,322	347	441		
Totals	166,979	355			
p < .01 3.74					

Results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance test indicated that there was a difference between schools significant at the .01 level in the way respondents rated their schools; thus, it became necessary to reject  $H_0$ : That there was no significant difference between the ratings of schools by respondents.

If the results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance had not been significant, it would not have been necessary to consider schools in the computation of the rest of the statistics. One, Three-Way Analysis of Variance could have been performed to control for all the variables. However, since there was a significant difference between schools it was necessary to locate the difference and control for it in the remainder of the statistical analysis.

The technique used to locate the mean difference was Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference Test. The Tukey H.S.D. test is considered the most powerful test for pairwise comparisons.<sup>1</sup> It was necessary to use the H.S.D. formula for unequal N's. The formulas employed are entered below:<sup>2</sup>

$$n' = \frac{1}{[(1/n_1) + (1/n_2) + \dots + (1/n_j)]}$$

$$HSD = q.01347 \sqrt{\frac{MS_w}{n'}}$$

The first formula, for N prime was used to compute the value necessary in the H.S.D. formula because of the unequal N's. The Honestly Significant Difference test was computed and the obtained result was 17.704. This was the difference between means necessary for the difference to be significant at the .01 level. Table 6 presents the differences among means used in the analysis of variance by schools.

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<sup>1</sup>Kirk, op. cit., p. 88.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

TABLE 6  
DIFFERENCES AMONG MEANS USED IN THE ANALYSIS  
OF VARIANCES BY SCHOOLS

School	Means	$\bar{X}_1$	$\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{X}_3$	$\bar{X}_4$	$\bar{X}_5$	$\bar{X}_6$	$\bar{X}_7$	$\bar{X}_8$	$\bar{X}_9$	
G	146.26	$\bar{X}_1$	--	2.24	10.35	11.02	11.90	16.81*	17.34*	17.87**	18.08**
A	148.50	$\bar{X}_2$		--	8.11	8.78	9.66	14.57	15.10	15.63*	15.84*
B	156.61	$\bar{X}_3$			--	.67	1.55	6.46	6.99	7.52	7.73
H	157.28	$\bar{X}_4$				--	.88	5.79	6.32	6.85	7.06
C	158.16	$\bar{X}_5$					--	4.91	5.44	5.97	6.18
F	163.07	$\bar{X}_6$						--	.53	1.06	1.27
I	163.60	$\bar{X}_7$							--	.53	.74
D	164.13	$\bar{X}_8$								--	.21
E	164.34	$\bar{X}_9$									--
p < .01		**17.704	p < .05		*15.299						

Table 6 shows the means for each school down the second left column. The body of the table illustrates the differences between the means. Any differences over the Honestly Significant Difference (17.704) is significant at the .01 level. School G with mean number 1 was involved in every significant difference, at least those which were significant at the .01 level. The school which was the least different from School G was School A. The school indicating the most difference from School G was School E and the school least different from School E was School D.

On the basis of the differences between means and the way the significance level developed, the schools were grouped according to high and low scores. The school with the lowest score was used as the reference point. All schools with a difference at or higher than that required for significance at the .05 level, 15.299, were placed in one group. Those schools with a difference lower than that significance level were placed in the other group. Following in Table 7 are the schools as they were grouped for further analysis:

TABLE 7

## SCHOOL GROUPINGS USING DIFFERENCES AMONG MEANS

	Schools	Mean Differences
	G	--
Group II Low	A	2.24
	B	10.35
	H	11.02
	C	11.90
	F	16.81
Group I High	I	17.34
	D	17.87
	E	18.08

Three-Way Analysis of Variance for Those  
Schools in Group I

As Table 7 indicates, there were four schools placed in the high group. When the data were tabulated for the Three-Way Analysis of Variance, it was found that one cell had only one individual in it. Since a difference of one to 55 would have been very difficult to defend statistically, socio-economic levels I and II were combined for the first Three-Way Analysis of Variance. This meant that there were still three factors; i.e., socio-economic level (Middle II and High III), sex and race. There were two levels in each factor. Table 8 illustrates the means for the groups used in the Analysis of Variance



for schools with high scores.

TABLE 8

MEANS FOR THE GROUPS USED IN THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE  
FOR SCHOOLS PLACED IN GROUP I

Socio- Economic Level	Black		White	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Middle II	159.21	158.07	163.21	164.03
	N 14	N 14	N 32	N 25
High III	156.42	178.66	163.65	166.49
	N 7	N 3	N 47	N 55

Table 9 shows the results of the Analysis of Variance using means from schools rated high by the respondents and included in Group I.

TABLE 9

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE USING MEANS FROM SCHOOLS RATED  
HIGHER BY RESPONDENTS (GROUP I)

Source	S.S.	d.f.	M.S.	F-Ratio	p
SEL	445	1	445	1.093	N.S.
RACE	705	1	705	1.732	N.S.
SEX	340	1	340	.835	N.S.
SEL x RACE	946	1	946	2.325	N.S.
SEL x SEX	986	1	986	2.423	N.S.
RACE x SEX	1012	1	1012	2.487	N.S.
SEL x RACE x SEX	--	1	--	--	
TOTALS	80130	197			
ERROR	77294	190	406.81		
p > .01    p > .05					

An F-ratio value of 10.83 or above is required for significance at the .01 level and an F-ratio value of at least 7.88 for significance at the .05 level. With these requirements, there were no significant differences between any of the factors tested nor were any interaction effects found to be significant for the four schools placed in the higher group. The factors tested were differences between socio-economic levels; differences between races; differences between sex; and interactions between socio-economic levels and race; interactions between socio-economic levels and sex; interactions between race and sex and a three-way interaction between socio-economic level, race, and sex.

Three-Way Analysis of Variance for Those Schools  
with Lower Scores (Group II)

The five schools identified as schools G, A, B, H, and C were placed in the low group as indicated in Table 7. A Three-Way Analysis of Variance was performed on the group to further test the hypotheses stated in Chapter I. Table 10 presents the means for the groups used in the Analysis of Variance for schools assigned to Group II.

The results of the Three-Way Analysis of Variance on those schools placed in Group II are shown in Table 11.

TABLE 10

MEANS FOR THE GROUPS USED IN THE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE  
FOR SCHOOLS IN GROUP II

Socio- Economic Levels	Black		White	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Low	142.86	144.66	164.25	167.22
	N 15	N 12	N 4	N 9
Middle	137.66	153.06	158.73	161.44
	N 18	N 16	N 23	N 29
High	162.75	167.33	153.60	145.50
	N 4	N 3	N 15	N 10

TABLE 11

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE USING MEANS FROM SCHOOLS RATED  
LOWER BY RESPONDENTS (GROUP II)

Source	S.S.	d.f.	M.S.	F-Ratio	p
SEL	276	2	138	.315	N.S.
RACE	5505	1	5505	12.567	.01
SEX	1253	1	1253	2.860	N.S.
SEL x RACE	10737	2	5368	12.254	.01
SEL x SEX	2681	2	1340	3.059	N.S.
RACE x SEX	6855	1	6855	15.648	.01
SEL x RACE x SEX	--	2	--	--	
TOTALS	77272	157	--	--	
ERROR	63956	146	438.05		
p < .01 10.83 p < .01 6.91					

As a result of the Analysis of Variance test on the five schools in the lower group classification, significant differences were found to exist at the .01 level in the ratings of schools by race. There was also a significant interaction at the .01 level between the variables of sex and race. The Analysis of Variance test further indicated a significant interaction between the variables of race and socio-economic levels.

#### Effects of the Collected Data on the Stated Hypotheses

On the basis of the information revealed in the statistical analysis, the following statements can be made:

1. There was a significant difference between the way schools were rated by respondents as shown with the One-Way Analysis of Variance technique.
2. There was no significant difference between the ratings made by males and females in those schools placed in Group I or Group II.
3. There was a significant difference between the ratings made by blacks and whites in those schools in Group II.
4. There were no significant differences among the ratings made by respondents classified as high, middle or low socio-economic levels in Group I or II.
5. There was a highly significant interaction between the variables of sex and race in those schools included in Group II.

6. There was no significant interaction between the variables of sex and socio-economic levels in those schools in Group I or II.
7. There was a significant interaction between the variables of race and socio-economic levels in those schools in Group II.
8. There was no significant three-way interaction between the variables of sex, race, and socio-economic levels in Groups I or II.

Pursuant to the findings, it was necessary to respond to the null hypotheses in the following manner:

- H<sub>0</sub>1: There is no significant difference between the ratings of schools by respondents. Rejected.
- H<sub>0</sub>2: There is no significant difference between the ratings made by males and females. Accepted.
- H<sub>0</sub>3: There is no significant difference between the ratings made by blacks and whites. Rejected.
- H<sub>0</sub>4: There is no significant difference among the ratings made by respondents classified high, middle or low socio-economic levels. Accepted.
- H<sub>0</sub>5: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex and race. Rejected.
- H<sub>0</sub>6: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex and socio-economic levels. Accepted.
- H<sub>0</sub>7: There is no significant interaction between the variables of race and socio-economic levels. Rejected.

H<sub>0</sub> 8: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex, race, and socio-economic levels.

Accepted.

A Report on Six Items Included in Student Human/Civil Rights Instrument using Percentages

An analysis of responses to each item of the Human/Civil Rights Instrument was not presented because of the space required for such presentation and because the following six items were regarded as most central to the purposes of this study. The statements which follow with ways in which the subjects responded were specifically concerned with six of the ten major rights areas covered within the instrument. In addition to the preceding rationale for their inclusion, the statements were chosen because they appeared to be the focal point for much of the conflict characterizing many high schools today. The items selected stem from the rights to equal opportunity, religion, due process, to be different, security of person and freedom of speech and press. The responses were reported by school, race and sex using percentages.

The symbols used in the following tables are:

WF--white females	GA--generally agree
WM--white males	GD--generally disagree
BF--black females	SA--strongly agree
BM--black males	U--undecided
	SD--strongly disagree

88  
School A

Statement:

Item 13      This school does not sponsor exercises or  
activities that promote a particular religious  
belief.

TABLE 12

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF					
WM					
BF	12	0	12	29	47
BM	0	15	8	39	38

Statement:

Item 32      Many students do not feel that they are physically  
safe while at school.

TABLE 13

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF					
WM					
BF	0	6	6	53	35
BM	8	39	15	30	8

## Statement:

Item 17      School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

TABLE 14

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF					
WM					
BF	24	6	0	35	35
BM	0	15	7	39	39

## Statement:

Item 18      Most teachers do not treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.

TABLE 15

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF					
WM					
BF	53	29	0	6	12
BM	46	46	0	8	0



## Statement:

Item 31        Students are assumed to be innocent until proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.

TABLE 16

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF					
WM					
BF	18	24	18	12	28
BM	46	0	15	15	24

## Statement:

Item 23        The school newspaper is viewed as a learning opportunity and students are encouraged to express their views in the school paper within a framework of responsibility for what is published.

TABLE 17

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF					
WM					
BF	12	12	0	29	47
BM	15	15	0	39	31

## School B

## Statement:

Item 13      This school does not sponsor exercises or activities that promote a particular religious belief.

TABLE 18

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	9	9	9	73
WM	9	18	27	27	19
BF					
BM	0	50	0	0	50

## Statement:

Item 32      Many students do not feel that they are physically safe while at school.

TABLE 19

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	46	27	0	27	0
WM	36	18	19	27	0
BF					
BM	50	0	0	50	0

## Statement:

Item 17      School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

TABLE 20

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	9	0	9	73	9
WM	19	0	9	36	36
BF					
BM	50	0	0	50	0

## Statement:

Item 18      Most teachers do not treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.

TABLE 21

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	10	36	9	9	36
WM	36	46	9	9	0
BF					
BM	100	0	0	0	0

## Statement:

Item 31        Students are assumed to be innocent until proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.

TABLE 22

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	18	18	0	46	18
WM	46	27	18	0	9
BF					
BM	50	0	0	0	50

## Statement:

Item 23        The school newspaper is viewed as a learning opportunity and students are encouraged to express their views in the school paper within a framework of responsibility for what is published.

TABLE 23

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	18	18	0	64	0
WM	18	46	0	18	18
BF					
BM	50	50	0	0	0

94  
School C

Statement:

Item 13      This school does not sponsor exercises or  
activities that promote a particular religious  
belief.

TABLE 24

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	7	0	20	33	40
WM	0	19	27	27	27
BF	0	0	0	0	100
BM	25	0	0	0	75

Statement:

Item 32      Many students do not feel that they are physic-  
ally safe while at school.

TABLE 25

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	67	13	7	13	0
WM	73	27	0	0	0
BF	0	100	0	0	0
BM	0	25	75	0	0

## Statement:

Item 17      School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

TABLE 26

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	7	7	13	60	13
WM	9	9	0	45	37
BF	0	0	0	100	0
BM	0	50	0	0	50

## Statement:

Item 18      Most teachers do not treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.

TABLE 27

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	27	40	7	13	13
WM	27	10	18	27	18
BF	0	100	0	0	0
BM	50	0	0	25	25

## Statement:

Item 31      Students are assumed to be innocent until  
proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.

TABLE 28

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	33	7	20	20	20
WM	36	0	36	10	18
BF	0	0	100	0	0
BM	0	0	0	25	75

## Statement:

Item 23      The school newspaper is viewed as a learning  
opportunity and students are encouraged to  
express their views in the school paper within  
a framework of responsibility for what is pub-  
lished.

TABLE 29

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	7	13	0	60	20
WM	18	9	18	45	10
BF	0	0	100	0	0
BM	0	0	25	25	50

## School D

## Statement:

Item 13      This school does not sponsor exercises or activities that promote a particular religious belief.

TABLE 30

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	40	0	60	0
WM	0	30	20	20	30
BF	17	0	0	50	33
BM	0	22	0	45	33

## Statement:

Item 32      Many students do not feel that they are physically safe while at school.

TABLE 31

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	0	40	40	20
WM	0	20	0	60	20
BF	0	0	17	33	50
BM	0	12	22	33	33



## Statement:

Item 17      School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

TABLE 32

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	20	20	40	20
WM	0	0	10	50	40
BF	0	0	0	33	67
BM	0	0	22	56	22

## Statement:

Item 18      Most teachers do not treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.

TABLE 33

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	40	60	0	0	0
WM	20	10	0	50	20
BF	17	33	16	17	17
BM	22	44	12	22	0

## Statement:

Item 31      Students are assumed to be innocent until  
proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.

TABLE 34

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	20	60	0	20	0
WM	10	60	10	20	0
BF	33	33	17	0	17
BM	22	33	11	22	12

## Statement:

Item 23      The school newspaper is viewed as a learning  
opportunity and students are encouraged to  
express their views in the school paper within  
a framework of responsibility for what is pub-  
lished.

TABLE 35

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	0	0	40	60
WM	0	10	20	60	10
BF	0	0	33	17	50
BM	0	34	22	22	22

100  
School E

Statement:

Item 13      This school does not sponsor exercises or  
activities that promote a particular religious  
belief.

TABLE 36

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	6	12	47	35
WM	6	0	0	47	47
BF	11	11	12	22	44
BM	0	11	22	11	56

Statement:

Item 32      Many students do not feel that they are physic-  
ally safe while at school.

TABLE 37

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	29	12	41	18
WM	7	27	0	66	0
BF	22	22	33	23	0
BM	11	11	33	33	12

## Statement:

Item 17      School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

TABLE 38

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	0	0	65	35
WM	0	13	7	40	40
BF	22	11	33	12	22
BM	11	11	0	45	33

## Statement:

Item 18      Most teachers do not treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.

TABLE 39

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	12	18	5	53	12
WM	40	40	7	7	6
BF	11	45	11	11	22
BM	33	12	22	33	0

## Statement:

Item 31      Students are assumed to be innocent until  
proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.

TABLE 40

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	24	18	23	35	0
WM	20	20	20	33	7
BF	22	0	33	22	22
BM	33	11	11	33	12

## Statement:

Item 23      The school newspaper is viewed as a learning  
opportunity and students are encouraged to  
express their views in the school paper within  
a framework of responsibility for what is pub-  
lished.

TABLE 41

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	6	12	0	41	41
WM	20	13	0	53	14
BF	0	22	33	33	12
BM	11	33	0	56	0

## School F

## Statement:

Item 13      This school does not sponsor exercises or activities that promote a particular religious belief.

TABLE 42

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	5	30	8	19	38
WM	8	8	36	28	20
BF	0	0	50	50	0
BM	0	0	50	0	50

## Statement:

Item 32      Many students do not feel that they are physically safe while at school.

TABLE 43

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	3	24	8	46	19
WM	12	16	16	40	16
BF	0	0	0	50	50
BM	0	25	0	25	0

## Statement:

Item 17      School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

TABLE 44

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	8	8	59	25
WM	0	16	12	52	20
BF	0	0	0	100	0
BM	0	25	0	50	25

## Statement:

Item 18      Most teachers do not treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.

TABLE 45

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	24	35	0	27	14
WM	24	28	24	16	8
BF	0	100	0	0	0
BM	25	0	0	50	25

## Statement:

Item 31        Students are assumed to be innocent until  
proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.

TABLE 46

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	32	35	14	14	5
WM	32	28	20	12	8
BF	0	0	50	50	0
BM	0	0	25	50	25

## Statement:

Item 23        The school newspaper is viewed as a learning  
opportunity and students are encouraged to  
express their views in the school paper within  
a framework of responsibility for what is pub-  
lished.

TABLE 47

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	3	3	40	54
WM	4	12	0	36	48
BF	0	0	0	50	50
BM	0	0	75	25	0



## School G

## Statement:

Item 13      This school does not sponsor exercises or activities that promote a particular religious belief.

TABLE 48

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	14	29	0	14	43
WM	20	30	10	0	40
BF	33	0	0	17	50
BM	8	8	8	33	43

## Statement:

Item 32      Many students do not feel that they are physically safe while at school.

TABLE 49

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	14	43	0	0	43
WM	20	60	0	20	0
BF	0	66	0	17	17
BM	17	50	8	17	8

## Statement:

Item 17      School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

TABLE 50

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	14	14	14	29	29
WM	0	10	10	50	30
BF	33	17	17	33	0
BM	42	0	0	50	8

## Statement:

Item 18      Most teachers do not treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.

TABLE 51

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	29	43	0	28	0
WM	30	20	0	30	20
BF	50	17	17	16	0
BM	33	33	25	9	0

## Statement:

Item 31      Students are assumed to be innocent until proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.

TABLE 52

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	43	43	0	0	14
WM	20	20	10	20	30
BF	33	33	0	17	17
BM	33	17	25	0	25

## Statement:

Item 23      The school newspaper is viewed as a learning opportunity and students are encouraged to express their views in the school paper within a framework of responsibility for what is published.

TABLE 53

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	29	0	0	57	14
WM	20	20	0	20	40
BF	33	33	17	17	0
BM	17	33	16	17	17

## School H

## Statement:

Item 13      This school does not sponsor exercises or activities that promote a particular religious belief.

TABLE 54

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	8	0	21	71
WM	0	0	8	17	75
BF	0	0	0	43	57
BM	17	0	17	33	33

## Statement:

Item 32      Many students do not feel that they are physically safe while at school.

TABLE 55

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	8	21	21	21	29
WM	17	17	24	25	17
BF	0	13	29	29	29
BM	0	17	33	0	50

## Statement:

Item 17      School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

TABLE 56

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	7	21	0	57	15
WM	0	0	0	83	17
BF	0	0	14	43	43
BM	0	0	0	50	50

## Statement:

Item 18      Most teachers do not treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.

TABLE 57

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	7	36	7	43	7
WM	17	25	25	33	0
BF	14	57	15	14	0
BM	33	17	17	33	0

## Statement:

Item 31      Students are assumed to be innocent until proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.

TABLE 58

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	21	36	15	14	14
WM	8	42	8	34	8
BF	57	14	15	14	0
BM	17	33	0	33	17

## Statement:

Item 23      The school newspaper is viewed as a learning opportunity and students are encouraged to express their views in the school paper within a framework of responsibility for what is published.

TABLE 59

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	7	14	57	22
WM	0	0	8	58	34
BF	0	0	0	57	43
BM	0	17	0	33	50

## School I

## Statement:

Item 13      This school does not sponsor exercises or activities that promote a particular religious belief.

TABLE 60

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	14	9	36	41
WM	7	7	11	36	39
BF					
BM					

## Statement:

Item 32      Many students do not feel that they are physically safe while at school.

TABLE 61

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	9	23	14	45	9
WM	22	18	7	32	21
BF					
BM					

## Statement:

Item 17      School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

TABLE 62

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	5	5	9	45	36
WM	4	7	25	46	18
BF					
BM					

## Statement:

Item 18      Most teachers do not treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.

TABLE 63

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	18	32	0	32	18
WM	29	25	18	21	7
BF					
BM					



## Statement:

Item 31        Students are assumed to be innocent until proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.

TABLE 64

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	23	36	0	41	0
WM	39	18	11	21	11
BF					
BM					

## Statement:

Item 23        The school newspaper is viewed as a learning opportunity and students are encouraged to express their views in the school paper within a framework of responsibility for what is published.

TABLE 65

Race Sex	SA	GA	U	GD	SD
WF	0	18	9	59	14
WM	11	11	11	46	21
BF					
BM					

Interpretation of the Findings

The mean scores for each of the nine high schools included in the study, as shown in Table 4, were only considered high or low in relation to one another. They were not considered high overall. The highest possible score on the Student Human Civil Rights Instrument is 245 and the highest mean score achieved was 164.34. Individual schools rated quite high on some items and extremely low on others.

The One-Way Analysis of Variance performed on the nine high schools clearly indicated a significant difference between schools in the manner in which the subjects responded. This difference was attributed to the way the students perceived their administration, faculty, fellow students and the general school environment.

The means for the groups used in the Three-Way Analysis of Variance performed on those schools placed in Group 1, i.e., those schools with higher mean scores, yielded some interesting information upon cursory inspection. Black female students classified in socio-economic level III (high) appeared to rate their schools higher than any other group; their mean score was 178.66. Following were white female students in the same socio-economic level with a mean score of 166.49. The black males in socio-economic level III had a mean score of 156.42, the lowest of all the groups. It appeared from the data

presented in Table 8 that females were rating their schools higher than males; however, the results of the Three-Way Analysis of Variance did not support this observation. Conversely, the results indicated no significant differences between ratings made by males and females; no significant difference between ratings made by blacks and whites; no significant difference among ratings made by students classified as high, middle, or low socio-economic levels; no significant interaction between the variables of sex and race; none between the race and socio-economic levels and no significant interaction between the variables of sex, race, and socio-economic level.

The group means for the five schools in Group II suggested that black males in socio-economic level II (middle) rated their schools lowest with a mean score of 137.66. Following closely were black males in socio-economic level I (low) with a mean score of 142.86. Black females in the same socio-economic level had a mean score of 144.66. The highest mean score, 167.73, was indicated by black females in socio-economic level III. White females in socio-economic level III, in somewhat of a surprise, showed a mean score of 145.50. In that same vein, white females in socio-economic level I achieved the second highest mean score, 167.22.

The Three-Way Analysis of Variance indicated support for some of the initial observations, specifically

that there were significant differences in ratings made by blacks and whites; a significant interaction between the variables of sex and race and a significant interaction between the variables of race and socio-economic levels.

In the group of schools with lower scores (Group II) the black students in socio-economic level I rated their schools significantly lower in the area of human rights, while the white students in socio-economic level II rated their schools quite low.

In the interaction between sex and race, black students rated their schools lower than white students and black males rated the schools lowest of all students.

#### Responses to Selected Statements

The subjects' responses to the statements selected from the Standard Human/Civil Rights Instrument provided some interesting revelations. For example, on item 13:

This school does not sponsor exercises or activities that promote a particular religious belief.

the majority of the responses were in disagreement with the statement, approximately 71 percent of all students, black and white, male and female, indicated that their schools did sponsor exercises or activities that promoted a particular religious belief.

Equally revealing from item 17 were the responses to the following statement:

School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

In somewhat of a surprise, approximately 76 percent of all the subjects disagreed with the statement while 15 percent agreed and 9 percent were undecided.

When asked to respond to the following statement:

This school provides an equal educational opportunity for all students regardless of academic ability, race, social economic or religious background.

only 19 percent of the total sample agreed with the statement. Approximately 75 percent were not in agreement, and 6 percent were undecided.

Equally striking was the response to item 12 which was stated:

An atmosphere is promoted and maintained wherein students feel free to associate at school with other students of their choice without pressures from teachers, counselors, or administrators.

A scant 9 percent of all the subjects were undecided. 15 percent agreed with the statement and approximately 76 percent of all the students disagreed; interestingly enough 36 percent strongly disagreed.

Another disclosure which was germane to this study was the response to item 37:

This school is attempting to increase participation by racial minority students in all of its programs and activities.

The responses from all nine high schools indicated that approximately 69 percent of the total sample disagreed with the statement, another 15 percent were not sure and only 16 percent agreed. The findings were all the more informative when it was considered that 250 of the 347

subjects were not of the minority race.

Over half the students in the sample indicated that they were not allowed to participate meaningfully in the development of school rules and regulations relating to student behavior and conduct. Approximately 58 percent of the subjects responded to the preceding manner, 30 percent, however, felt that they were allowed to participate in a meaningful way and 12 percent were not sure.

On the question of dress and appearance, item 38, as follows:

This school has regulations which infringe on the students' manner of dress and appearance.

Approximately 45 percent agreed that the schools did indeed have such regulations, while 49 percent indicated that the schools did not; 6 percent could not be sure.

The subjects appeared evenly divided in their responses to item 42 which was concerned with student grievances. Following the statement are the responses:

Consideration is not given to student grievances by the administration.

Of the total sample responding, 40 percent of the subjects were in agreement with the statement. An additional 40 percent were in disagreement and a high 20 percent were in the undecided range. Here, again, the major portion of the variance was attributed to the difference in administrative styles and the climates existing in each school.

The seniors participating in the study were also

divided in their response to item 32:

Many students do not feel that they are physically safe while at school.

The responses indicated that approximately 45 percent of the subjects did not agree with the statement, however another 40 percent did agree and 15 percent of the subjects were not sure whether they agreed or not.

On item 4 which was stated as follows:

No opportunities are provided wherein a student in trouble may be judged by other students rather than by teachers or administrators.

the responses indicated that 71 percent of the subjects agreed with the statement while 15 percent disagreed, 14 percent were undecided. These results were not unexpected since traditionally students have not judged other students for rule infractions in the secondary schools across the nation; it was not thought that schools in Oklahoma would be a great deal different.

Another statement which the respondents were divided on was item 11 which dealt with controversial issues being discussed in the school. The statement and responses follow:

This school does not provide students the opportunity to explore and freely discuss important controversial problems and issues in their classes.

The results showed that 43 percent of the respondents agreed with the above statement, another 46 percent disagreed while 11 percent were not sure.

The following statement revealed an interesting result:

This school takes disciplinary action against a student for his out-of-school participation in such things as public demonstrations, picketing, and protest marches.

Approximately 50 percent of the subjects disagreed with the statement indicating that in their opinions their schools did not invoke punishment for such actions. However, 27 percent of the respondents agreed with the statement and 23 percent were undecided.

Finally, on item 35:

This school provides opportunities in some phase of the regular classwork for students to learn what their rights and responsibilities are as citizens in relation to the Bill of Rights.

The subjects indicated that they were again divided in their responses with approximately 44 percent of the subjects indicating agreement with the statement, 42 percent in disagreement, and 16 percent undecided. The one haunting factor which lingered from the responses on this item was that 58 percent of the respondents could not agree that their schools provided opportunities in some phase of the regular classwork for students not only to learn what their responsibilities were as citizens in relation to the Bill of Rights but they indicated that their schools failed to provide opportunities for them to even learn what their rights were . . . a stinging indictment to suggest the least.

### Discussion

In spite of earlier and current manifestations of student dissent, unrest and dissatisfaction, recent judicial decisions by courts and crash human relations inservice



training directed toward public school staffs and administrators, the high schools in this study gave evidence which suggested that they did not place a high priority on the human and civil rights of those students who are in attendance. The policies and practices as perceived by those students included in this investigation provided little comfort that their school's behavior was consistent with the values from which the human and civil rights stem: specifically, that each individual is equal in dignity and worth to every other individual; that freedom must be granted to pursue individual goals which do not infringe upon the rights of others; that the application of reason is the best means of resolving man's problems; that institutions are established by men and should contribute to the welfare of the individual and society and that the concepts of truth and moral responsibility are crucial and fundamental.<sup>3</sup>

Conversely, students indicated overwhelmingly, that some school officials have been reluctant to adjust their behavior from a straight-laced authoritarian style to behavior which is characterized by student involvement and democratic processes.

The data presented in this chapter revealed that

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<sup>3</sup>Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project on Human Rights, op. cit., p. 3.

there was a significant difference between schools. Four of the nine schools were rated significantly higher than the others. Could this difference be ascribed to administrative styles? Personal characteristics of the staff? Socio-economic levels of those students attending? Any pre- or post-professional preparation of the staff? The data tended to suggest a combination of these factors in accounting for the difference and yet it is necessary to reiterate that the mean scores each of these schools received were not considered laudatory. Whether the subjects in Group I were male or female, black or white, or placed in a low, middle, or high socio-economic level made no significant difference in the way he or she responded to some of the items on the Student Human/Civil Rights Instrument. This result was somewhat surprising and yet this supports the fact that some practices which are different are occurring in the four schools in Group I.

This was not the case in the five schools placed in Group II. The evidence suggested that blacks perceived the school's policies and practices in the area of human and civil rights somewhat differently than whites. The fact that black males rated their schools lowest of all was not surprising. Black males appear to run afoul of school regulations in disproportion to whites and charges of racism and prejudice are omni-present at this point in time. Yet, overwhelmingly, the majority of the students

black and white, male and female, high, middle, or low socio-economic level suggested that they did not think that their schools provided equal educational opportunities for all of the students who attended. They also overwhelmingly indicated that school officials did not provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races. They further suggested by the majority of their responses that their schools were not attempting to increase participation by racial minority students in all of their programs and activities.

More than half of the students indicated that they were not allowed to participate in a meaningful way in the development of school rules and regulations relating to their behavior and conduct.

Particularly disquieting, was the fact that approximately 42 percent of the students could not agree nor another 16 percent be sure that their schools provided opportunities in some phase of their regular classwork for them to learn what their rights and responsibilities were as citizens in relation to the Bill of Rights.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The problem for this study was to discover and analyze policies and practices in Oklahoma urban high schools which indicated a commitment to or violation of fundamental human rights. More specifically, the effort was designed to determine the extent to which high schools in Oklahoma's largest urban center recognized and provided opportunities for the development of understandings, responsibilities and behaviors consistent with certain human and civil rights as delineated by the Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Education and Human Rights and employed by that professional organization's Teacher Education Project in its publication, A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights.

Nine public high schools in the largest urban area in Oklahoma were included in the study. The schools were identified as School A, School B, School C, School D, School E, School F, School G, School H, and School I.

The study attempted to determine whether or not there were significant differences between the perceptions regarding school policies and practices by the following

subject groups: (1) between males and females, (2) between blacks and whites, and (3) between high, middle or low socio-economic levels.

The design of the study required the testing of eight hypotheses:

- H<sub>01</sub>: There is no significant difference between the ratings of schools by respondents.
- H<sub>02</sub>: There is no significant difference between the ratings made by males and females.
- H<sub>03</sub>: There is no significant difference between the ratings made by blacks and whites.
- H<sub>04</sub>: There is no significant difference among the ratings made by respondents classified high, middle or low socio-economic levels.
- H<sub>05</sub>: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex and race.
- H<sub>06</sub>: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex and socio-economic levels.
- H<sub>07</sub>: There is no significant interaction between the variables of race and socio-economic levels.
- H<sub>08</sub>: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex, race and socio-economic levels.

Each of these hypotheses was tested at the .01 level of significance.

A stratified random sample was drawn from each school and 347 twelfth grade students were utilized as the

total sample. There were 97 black students included in the study, 48 of whom were females and the other 49 males. There were 250 white students included, 128 females and 122 males. The total sample composition reflected 176 females and 171 males.

Section II of the Phi Delta Kappa's A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights was the basic frame of reference for the development of the Student Human/Civil Rights Instrument used in this investigation; the specific section was entitled "A Guide for Analyzing Institutional and Individual Behaviors in Human Rights." The 49 items included in the instrument were constructed around the following human and civil rights: The Right of Equality of Opportunity, the Rights of Freedom of Assembly, Association, and Petition, the Right of Due Process and Equal Protection under the Law, the Right of Freedom of Speech and Press, the Right of Dissent, the Right to Freedom of and from Religion, the Right to Security of Person and Property and the Right to Privacy, the Right against Self-Incrimination, the Right to a Trial by a Jury of Actual Peers, and the Right to be Different.

The Likert method of summated ratings was the fundamental technique utilized in constructing the instrument. Approximately half of the statements were both favorable and unfavorable toward the school in the manner presented.

The statements contained in the instrument were submitted to a panel of twelve validating judges in an effort to achieve content validity. To further strengthen the validity the instrument was pre-tested with 50 twelfth grade students in the target area.

The Student Human/Civil Rights Instrument achieved an estimated split-half reliability of .79, quite satisfactory for the purpose of this study.

A total of three visits were made to each of the high schools. The subjects were brought together on the third visit, asked to read the instructions carefully and to complete the Student Human/Civil Rights Instrument, which is shown in Appendix A of this study.

### Findings

The One-Way Analysis of Variance indicated that there was a difference between schools significant at the .01 level. Schools F, I, D, and E were rated significantly higher than Schools G, A, B, H, and C. A Three-Way Analysis of Variance on the four schools rated highest by the respondents indicated no significant differences between the variables of sex, race and socio-economic levels nor were there any significant interaction effects.

As a result of the Three-Way Analysis of Variance used on the five schools with lower scores, significant differences were found to exist at the .01 level in the ratings of schools by race. There was also a significant

interaction at the .01 level between the variables of sex and race. The Analysis of Variance test further indicated a significant interaction between the variables of race and socio-economic levels.

In the group of schools with the lower scores the black students at the lower (I) socio-economic level rated their schools significantly lower in the area of human and civil rights, while the white students placed in the same socio-economic level rated their schools higher. In the same five schools black students in the higher socio-economic level (II) rated their schools higher in the area of human and civil rights and white students at that same level rated their schools low.

In the interaction between sex and race, black students rated their schools lower than white students and black males rated schools the lowest of all students. Females rated schools higher than males in both races.

On the basis of the information revealed in the statistical analysis, the following hypotheses were accepted:

- H<sub>0</sub> 2: There is no significant differences between ratings made by males and females.
- H<sub>0</sub> 4: There is no significant differences among the ratings made by respondents classified high, middle or low socio-economic levels.
- H<sub>0</sub> 6: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex and socio-economic levels.



H<sub>0</sub>8: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex, race, and socio-economic levels.

The following hypotheses were rejected:

H<sub>0</sub>1: There is no significant difference between the ratings of schools by respondents.

H<sub>0</sub>3: There is no significant difference between the ratings made by blacks and whites.

H<sub>0</sub>5: There is no significant interaction between the variables of sex and race.

H<sub>0</sub>7: There is no significant interaction between the variables of race and socio-economic levels.

Responses to specific items were interesting and somewhat revealing. For example: seventy-one percent of the subjects were of the opinion that their schools sponsored exercises or activities that promoted a particular religious belief.

Seventy-six percent of the subjects did not think that school officials provided students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.

Seventy-five percent of the respondents did not think that the schools provided an equal educational opportunity for all students regardless of academic ability, race, socio-economic or religious background.

Only fifteen percent of the subjects agreed that an atmosphere is promoted and maintained wherein students

feel free to associate at school with other students of their choice without pressures from teachers, counselors, or administrators.

Sixty-nine percent of the respondents were of the opinion that their schools were not attempting to increase participation by racial minority students in all of its programs and activities.

Over half the subjects in the sample indicated that they were not allowed to participate meaningfully in the development of school rules and regulations relating to student behavior and conduct.

On the question of dress and appearance, forty-five percent of the subjects were of the opinion that their schools had regulations which infringed on their manner of dress and appearance.

Forty percent of the subjects were of the opinion that many students did not feel safe while at school. Another fifteen percent were not sure.

Over a third of the subjects felt that their schools did not provide opportunities in some phase of the regular classwork for students to learn what their rights were in relation to the Bill of Rights.

### Conclusions

It was concluded from the findings of the study that some school officials have been reluctant to adjust their behavior from a straight-laced authoritarian style

of leader behavior to one which is characterized by meaningful student involvement and democratic processes.

The other major findings of the study warrant the following conclusions within limitations of this investigation:

It was concluded that the nine high schools in this study did not place a high priority on the human and civil rights of their students.

It was concluded that opportunities are available in some schools more than others for students to exercise certain basic human and civil rights.

It was further concluded that minimal opportunities existed in all nine high schools for students to gain deeper insights, understandings and appreciations for the values and human rights which form the basis for American democracy.

It was further concluded that there are practices in some of the schools which are in direct opposition to Supreme Court rulings regarding religion in the schools.

It was concluded that administrative behavior in each of the nine schools contributed in large part to the manner in which the students perceived the schools' behaviors in the area of human rights.

The fact that the subjects in the study indicated by a large majority that Equal Education Opportunity was not present in their schools coupled with the results which showed that black respondents rated their schools lower

than whites led to the conclusion that these conditions provide yet another basis for potential racial conflict, unrest and disruption in many of the high schools.

It was concluded that high school students are not only willing but eager to present their views and welcome the opportunity to respond to those who respect them as intelligent beings.

It was further concluded that the administrators in these schools were genuinely interested in the findings of this study, that they were concerned about the students who attended their schools, and that they were interested in making their schools better.

It was also concluded that the evidence of commitment to or violations of human and civil rights was not all positive or negative since the opportunities for the exercise of many of these human and civil rights appeared to be present in varying degrees in each school.

It was finally concluded that much careful planning and groundwork needs to be done if the high schools included in this study are to adequately reflect a deep concern for protecting the basic human rights of all students.

This study also strongly indicated that much work remains to be done before high school programs are perceived by black students as approaching adequacy.

Recommendations

As a result of this study, the following recommendations are presented:

1. It is recommended that organized efforts and planned in-service programs be carried out for the purpose of developing faculty attitudes and behaviors aimed at the elimination of those policies and practices in high schools which violate fundamental human rights and civil liberties in the Bill of Rights as described in Phi Delta Kappa's A Guide for Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights.
2. It is recommended that school rules and regulations regarding student behavior and conduct be developed with the meaningful participation and involvement of those who are to be affected by them.
3. It is recommended that high schools provide opportunities for students to publicly express or hear opinions or views on any subject which they believe is important even if the subject is one of a controversial nature. The only restriction being when there is clear indication present that the safety or health of the school community is threatened or the educational process is likely to be disrupted.
4. It is recommended that the atmosphere of all high school classes encourage free discussion, inquiry and expression.

5. It is recommended that public high schools assume neutrality regarding religion; that it be recognized as an area of intellectual inquiry and human knowledge and be treated as a part of the regular academic portions of the curriculum.
6. It is recommended that physical punishment be abolished.
7. It is recommended that Teacher Education Institutions offer courses and/or seminars which deal directly with human rights, the values which form their basis and the attitudes and behaviors which indicate a commitment to or a violation of these rights in the communities in general and the public schools in particular.
8. Finally, it is recommended that further research be conducted to compare the policies and practices of high schools in smaller communities with those located in middle and large urban areas regarding opportunities provided students in the exercise of human and civil rights.

## EPILOGUE

Perhaps the results of this study will be dismissed lightly with the rationale that students are not knowledgeable or responsible subjects for this type of investigation. Perhaps school officials will assuage any guilt they might incur with the idea that these data have no implications for them or their particular school. Yet, if the current trend holds, there may continue to be sporadic instances of student disruptions and conflict as a result of overriding frustrations. Also, as more students learn about their rights, the same rights which adults take for granted, their demands may eventually end up in the courts. With an increasing number of cases being decided in their favor, school officials will be placed in an embarrassing position to say the least.

It would seem appropriate to provide students opportunities to learn about their rights, develop skills in their exercise, and stress the responsibilities which are concomitant with each right. What other institution is better suited to do this than the public school which has the responsibility for the perpetuation of our basic values and way of life. Finally, the leadership of the schools and the professional staff should assume greater

responsibility in developing community understanding of the school's role in achieving this objective.



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## APPENDIXES

**APPENDIX A**

**STUDENT HUMAN/CIVIL RIGHTS INSTRUMENT**

The attached instrument provides an opportunity for high school students to analyze the human rights behaviors in their schools. The instrument identifies practices and policies which, in the opinion of many educators, contribute to the effective observance of human rights by a public high school and those who participate in its programs and activities.

It seems very worthwhile to attempt to get data on your opinions concerning this topic. Your identity will remain unknown but some information about you is needed for grouping the data in various ways. Therefore it will be necessary that you fill in and check all the blanks that apply to you.



The following are some statements concerning policies and behaviors found in public high schools. Please indicate your own opinion regarding the extent to which you agree or disagree that the policy or practice is present in your school by circling number 1 through 5 in the appropriate column following each statement.

## USE THIS CODE

1--Strongly disagree	(SD)					
2--Generally disagree	(GD)					
3--Undecided	(U)					
4--Generally agree	(GA)					
5--Strongly agree	(SA)					
		Strongly agree	Generally agree	Undecided	Generally disagree	Strongly disagree
		(SA)	(GA)	(U)	(GD)	(SD)
		5	4	3	2	1

Example: Most of the teachers  
at this school appear  
to enjoy their work.

## INSTRUCTIONS

Please respond to all of the items frankly. DO NOT sign your name on this paper, no one need know who marked these sheets. Please follow directions.

## FILL IN THE BLANKS

School \_\_\_\_\_ City \_\_\_\_\_

## CIRCLE THE CORRECT ITEM

Race: Black                      White                      Other  
Sex: Male                      Female

## COMPLETE THE BLANKS

Occupation of parents or guardian: Father \_\_\_\_\_  
Mother \_\_\_\_\_ or Guardian \_\_\_\_\_

## CHECK THE FOLLOWING

Which of the following is your best estimate of the approximate combined income category for your parents or guardians.

- (1) Less than \$5,000 \_\_\_\_\_ Above \$10,000 \_\_\_\_\_  
(2) \$5,000 - \$10,000 \_\_\_\_\_

## CIRCLE THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER IN EACH COLUMN

Indicate the highest educational attainment by your parents or guardians.

	<u>Father</u>	<u>Mother</u>
8th grade or less	1	1
Some high school, technical school or business school	2	2
Graduated from high school, techni- cal school or business school	3	3
Some college work	4	4
College graduate	5	5
Degree beyond bachelors	6	6

	Strongly Agree (SA)	Generally Agree (GA)	Undecided (U)	Generally Disagree (GD)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
1. This school provides an equal educational opportunity for all students regardless of academic ability, race, social, economic, or religious background.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Most teachers do <u>not</u> allow students to express disagreement with answers given or ideas expressed by the teacher or classmates.	5	4	3	2	1
3. The principal develops and maintains a school environment where student opinions and suggestions are welcome.	5	4	3	2	1
4. No opportunities are provided wherein a student in trouble may be judged by other students rather than by teachers or administrators.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Student representatives are encouraged by school officials to participate freely and express different opinions in the committees and student government bodies in the school.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Students do <u>not</u> have an opportunity to select a wide variety of elective courses.	5	4	3	2	1
7. At this school the religious beliefs of students and faculty are strictly a private matter.	5	4	3	2	1
8. If requested by students, student-counselor discussions are kept confidential.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree (SA)	Generally Agree (GA)	Undecided (U)	Generally Disagree (GD)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
9. The atmosphere in most classes is <u>not</u> friendly.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Most teachers make a special effort to involve all students in class activities.	5	4	3	2	1
11. This school does <u>not</u> provide students the opportunity to explore and freely discuss important controversial problems and issues in their classes.	5	4	3	2	1
12. An atmosphere is promoted and maintained wherein students feel free to associate at school with other students of their choice without pressures from teachers, counselors, or administrators.	5	4	3	2	1
13. This school does <u>not</u> sponsor exercises or activities that promote a particular religious belief.	5	4	3	2	1
14. Students are <u>not</u> free to disagree openly and responsibly with the administration.	5	4	3	2	1
15. All races, economic levels, and grades included in the school are represented on the student council.	5	4	3	2	1
16. No opportunities have been provided in your classwork to learn of the contributions made by racial minorities (with emphasis on the Black man, Indian, and Mexican-American) to American Civilization.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree (SA)	Generally Agree (GA)	Undecided (U)	Generally Disagree (GD)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
17. School officials provide students opportunities to mix and interact in all school activities with students of different races.	5	4	3	2	1
18. Most teachers do <u>not</u> treat students as responsible individuals with individual needs.	5	4	3	2	1
19. Married students are allowed to participate in all extra-curricular activities.	5	4	3	2	1
20. Most teachers occasionally use ridicule or sarcasm to humiliate students.	5	4	3	2	1
21. Students are <u>not</u> subjected to punishment of any kind for signing a petition addressed to the administration--assuming that the petition is free of obscenities, libelous statements, personal attack and is within bounds of reasonable conduct.	5	4	3	2	1
22. Most teachers post graded papers or lists of grades with associated names of students without student permission.	5	4	3	2	1
23. The school newspaper is viewed as a learning opportunity and students are encouraged to express their views in the school paper within a framework of responsibility for what is published.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree (SA)	Generally Agree (GA)	Undecided (U)	Generally Disagree (GD)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
24. This school takes disciplinary action against a student for his out-of-school participation in such things as public demonstration, picketing and protest marches.	5	4	3	2	1
25. Students are <u>not</u> allowed to participate meaningfully in the development of school rules and regulations relating to student behavior and conduct.	5	4	3	2	1
26. Students are <u>not</u> provided opportunities for formal hearings and the right of appeal when suspended or expelled from school.	5	4	3	2	1
27. When questioned about some rule violation which may involve them, students may remain silent if they choose.	5	4	3	2	1
28. Students are <u>not</u> encouraged by teachers and administrators to think about developing their own personal values.	5	4	3	2	1
29. In some of your classes opportunities have been present for students to discuss the nature and effects of racism in the American society.	5	4	3	2	1
30. Most teachers use grades as threats and punishment.	5	4	3	2	1
31. Students are assumed to be innocent until proven guilty with regard to rule infractions.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree (SA)	Generally Agree (GA)	Undecided (U)	Generally Disagree (GD)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
32. Many students do <u>not</u> feel that they are physically safe while at school.	5	4	3	2	1
33. Some students have protested to the administrators about what they regard as inappropriate or poor instruction.	5	4	3	2	1
34. Areas are <u>not</u> provided where students may assemble peaceably, outside regular class time, to discuss and consider issues of concern to them.	5	4	3	2	1
35. This school provides opportunities in some phase of the regular classwork for students to learn what their rights and responsibilities are as citizens in relation to the Bill of Rights.	5	4	3	2	1
36. Most of the teachers don't care to use students' suggestions.	5	4	3	2	1
37. This school is attempting to increase participation by racial minority students in all of its programs and activities.	5	4	3	2	1
38. This school has regulations which infringe on the students' manner of dress and appearance.	5	4	3	2	1
39. Lockers are <u>not</u> searched, except under extreme circumstances, unless permission to do so has been given by the student.	5	4	3	2	1

	Strongly Agree (SA)	Generally Agree (GA)	Undecided (U)	Generally Disagree (GD)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
40. Teachers and administrators physically punish students.	5	4	3	2	1
41. When discussing controversial issues teachers require pupils to state the sources of their statements of "facts."	5	4	3	2	1
42. Consideration is <u>not</u> given to student grievances by the administration.	5	4	3	2	1
43. Neither the administration nor teachers "bargain" with students to get them to disclose information which might implicate them.	5	4	3	2	1
44. Opportunities are <u>not</u> provided in regular classwork for understanding the need for self and group controls necessary for the protection of individual rights.	5	4	3	2	1
45. Most teachers provide students with additional help on an individual basis when needed.	5	4	3	2	1
46. Most Black students feel "left out" of certain clubs, activities, and courses because of their race.	5	4	3	2	1
47. Most white students feel "left out" of certain clubs, activities, and courses because of their race.	5	4	3	2	1
48. The administration has successfully recruited faculty of both sexes, and with varied racial and cultural backgrounds.	5	4	3	2	1



	Strongly Agree (SA)	Generally Agree (GA)	Undecided (U)	Generally Disagree (GD)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
49. Most students whose parents do <u>not</u> have high incomes feel discriminated against in this school.	5	4	3	2	1

**APPENDIX B**

**LIST OF JUDGES**

Panel of Judges who Assisted in the Validation of Student  
Human and Civil Rights Instrument

1. Dr. Joe Lawter  
Associate Professor of Education  
Northwestern State College  
Alva, Oklahoma
2. Dr. James Mosley  
Associate Professor of Education  
Langston University  
Langston, Oklahoma
3. Dr. Dan DeLoache  
Professor of Education  
Northeastern State College  
Tahlequah, Oklahoma
4. Mr. Donald Edwards  
Assistant Principal  
Oklahoma City Public Schools  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma
5. Dr. David Guilliams  
Assistant Principal  
Oklahoma City Public Schools  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma
6. Mr. Richard Burton  
Classroom Teacher  
Oklahoma City Public Schools  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma
7. Mr. Millard House  
Director, Human Relations Department  
Tulsa Public Schools  
Tulsa, Oklahoma
8. Dr. Donald Hall  
Director, Southwest Center for Human Relations  
University of Oklahoma  
Norman, Oklahoma
9. Dr. Ira Eyster  
Director, Southwest Center for Human Relations  
University of Oklahoma  
Norman, Oklahoma
10. Mrs. Patrisha Nicholson  
Activities Director  
Oklahoma City Public Schools  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

11. Mr. James Hamilton  
Classroom Teacher  
Oklahoma City Public Schools  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma
12. Dr. Joe Garrison  
Director, Consultative Center for Equal Education  
Opportunity  
University of Oklahoma  
Norman, Oklahoma

## APPENDIX C

### CORRESPONDENCE RELATING TO STUDY

October 3, 1972

555 Constitution Avenue  
Norman, Oklahoma 73069

This is to request that you consent to serve as a judge in validating the enclosed proposed questionnaire for an investigation I am proposing to conduct as my doctoral thesis problem. The study will gather and analyze the responses of twelfth grade pupils in a large urban area regarding its high schools' commitment to human and civil rights as delineated in the Phi Delta Kappa's A Guide to Improving Teacher Education in Human Rights.

More specifically, the instrument attempts to identify behaviors and policies which, in the opinion of many educators, contribute to or negate the effective observance of human rights by a public high school.

The literature pertaining to human rights and public education does not provide an adequate instrument to determine and analyze school behaviors and policies as perceived by twelfth grade students. Therefore, with the approval of my doctoral committee, an instrument has been developed which must be validated. A group of authorities in Secondary Education and Human Relations has, therefore, been identified to assist in such validation, you are one of those selected for this panel.

Your personal agreement or disagreement with the statement is not requested. What is desired is your judgment of the applicability of the statements in assessing twelfth grade students' responses regarding policies and behaviors in their respective schools in this important area.

Instructions are given at the beginning of the list of statements. Kindly return the instrument and any suggestions as soon as possible. Please accept my warmest thanks and sincerest appreciation for your valuable assistance.

Gratefully yours,

Melvin R. Todd

MRT:jb

Date \_\_\_\_\_

Dear Parent(s):

Please complete the permission form below:

\_\_\_\_\_ has my permission to  
(student)  
participate in a study designed to analyze school policies  
and behaviors. I understand that only a few minutes of my  
son or daughter's time will be required.

The study is designed to identify areas where improvement  
may be needed and the results will be used by school offi-  
cials for that purpose.

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Parent(s))

## **APPENDIX D**

**EDUCATION AND HUMAN RIGHTS: A STATEMENT OF THE PHI DELTA  
KAPPA COMMISSION ON EDUCATION AND HUMAN RIGHTS**



## SECTION 1

## EDUCATION AND HUMAN RIGHTS

A STATEMENT OF THE PHI DELTA KAPPA COMMISSION  
ON EDUCATION AND HUMAN RIGHTSINTRODUCTION

The concept of human rights is as old as man and goes to the very core of relationships among men. It is a dynamic force rooted in basic moral and ethical values.

If human potentialities are to be realized, society must be concerned not only with theoretical and philosophical concepts of human rights, but equally with translating these concepts into realities expressed in the behavior of free man. It is imperative that human beings live together in ways which accord each person, irrespective of biological and cultural differences, full dignity, respect and value, simply because he or she is human. This objective cannot be achieved unless each human being has the opportunity, through education, to develop his abilities and talents.

A commitment to human rights requires that no person be denied opportunity to engage in any kind of activity which is valued and rewarded by his society. While national origin, racial identity, religious preference, economic status and other factors which differentiate human beings must be accepted as realities, none of these conditions should add or detract from the worth of an individual as he is perceived by other human beings. Education's goals must include reducing the more mischievous differences and bolstering the concept of equal worth.

Some of the most disturbing and far-reaching problems of our society center in the area of human relationships and responsible citizenship. They will be resolved only as the capacity of individuals to deal with them is improved. This capacity is likely to be improved in a democratic society only as more people understand and become committed to the values and human rights delineated in the basic documents which constitute the legal foundation for organized government.

The purpose of this statement is to define human rights and identify the values which support them, describe the role of education in achieving basic human rights, and illustrate school policies consistent with that role.

## VALUES

The values a people hold are beliefs giving direction and meaning to their behavior. Among the beliefs basic to realization of the rights of free men in our society are: that each individual is equal in dignity and worth to every other individual; that freedom must be granted to pursue individual goals which do not infringe upon the rights of others; that the application of reason is the best means of resolving man's problems; that institutions are established by men and should contribute to the welfare of the individual and society; that the concepts of truth and moral responsibility are crucial and fundamental.

## HUMAN RIGHTS

The human rights most prized by our society grew out of struggles celebrated in the history of Western civilization. Man's unending search for human rights produced the tenets of Judaism and Christianity; the principles of Graeco-Roman philosophy and law; the Magna Carta; the Petition of Right; the Declaration of Independence; the Constitution of the United States; The Declaration of the Rights of Man; the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of the United Nations; and a long list of other declarations, documents, proclamations, legislative enactments, and judicial decisions, the proud product of democracy.

Among the rights these landmark statements seek to secure are life; liberty; security of person; equality of opportunity for every individual in every facet of life; freedom of speech; freedom of press; freedom of (or from) religious belief; the right of due process; freedom of assembly, petition, and redress of grievances; protection against unreasonable search and seizure; freedom from self-incrimination; the right to trial by a jury of peers; the right to privacy; the right to fair and equal representation in government; the right to own property and enter into contracts; the right to select leaders through the exercise of the franchise; and the right to dissent.

## EDUCATION

Formal education is a powerful and effective means by which our society can realize the promise of our human rights heritage. It is important that educational programs emphasize not only the rights but the responsibilities inherent in each of them. A major challenge for education

at all levels is to teach and practice these rights and responsibilities faithfully and well in every classroom.

It is impossible to teach and practice democratic values and human rights and responsibilities in a school in which the worth of the individual is not prized; consequently, every person engaged in the formal education process, including members of governing boards, should in his behavior exemplify commitment to these human rights and responsibilities and the values which support them. It is, of course, extremely difficult to achieve the goals identified here in a school which is racially segregated, whether the segregation results from consciously adopted policy or from historical forces more difficult to reverse.

### BEHAVIOR

A democratic society is attaining its goals when the thoughts, attitudes, and overt behaviors of the people exemplify the values and human rights and responsibilities identified.

Illustrative of behaviors which demonstrate a commitment to some basic human rights are the following examples:

1. Freedom of Speech--All persons have the basic right to express opinions and ideas on any subject or issue. All students should have access to truth in relevant published materials and must be free to discuss controversial issues, with responsible direction, in the classroom or on the school campus.

2. Due process of law--All persons are presumed innocent until proven guilty. Students suspected of violating schools' rules or regulations should be presumed innocent until guilt is established; no situation or condition, however, relieves the individual student from the necessity of exercising good judgment and responsibility.

3. The right to privacy--Every individual has the right to privacy of person and action, as he develops his personality and tastes, so long as he does not infringe upon the rights of others. The school should not impose undue restrictions on patterns of dress and personal grooming on the mere assumption that they unfavorably influence the learning situation.

4. The right of dissent--All persons should have the right to take a responsible point of view on any issue without fear of recrimination or reprisal. A student

should be able to take issue with the teacher's views on a given issue without being labeled a "trouble-maker" or suffering a lowering of his grades, just as a teacher should be able to take issue with administrators, at proper times and places, without penalty.

5. The right to equal opportunity--No person shall be denied equal opportunity for education. Schools should not require students to take courses or educational experiences at inappropriate levels of interest, ability, and comprehension, nor should the school establish arbitrary and capricious restrictions on students as a condition for participation in programs of the school.

The values and the human rights identified in this statement apply to society as a whole. Because education is a major vehicle for the achievement of these rights, the school should make them central to its philosophy and practice.

## **APPENDIX E**

### **HUMAN RIGHTS CREED IN EDUCATION**

## THE HUMAN RIGHTS CREED IN EDUCATION

### Preamble

As an educator in a democratic society, concerned with the human rights of people everywhere, I will exemplify in my behavior a commitment to these rights. Educators and the educative process must have a more significant impact in ensuring these rights for all people. Thus, I will translate my belief in basic human rights into daily practice. I believe in the right and its concomitant responsibility . . .

1. To Equal Opportunity for All in:
  - education
  - housing
  - employment
  - the exercise of the franchise and representation in government
2. Of Due Process and Equal Protection Under the Law
3. Of Freedom of Speech and of the Press
4. To Dissent
5. To Freedom of or From Religion
6. To Privacy
7. To Be Different
8. Of Freedom from Self-Incrimination
9. To a Trial by a Jury of Actual Peers
10. To Security of Person and Property
11. To Petition and Redress of Grievances
12. To Freedom of Assembly

Developed by  
 Phi Delta Kappa  
 Commission on Education and Human Rights