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DISCIPLINE PRACTICES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL
ADMINISTRATORS IN RELATION TO THEIR ATTITUDES
REGARDING RIGHTS OF STUDENTS.

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA, ED.D., 1977

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DISCIPLINE PRACTICES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL

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DISCIPLINE PRACTICES OF SECONDARY

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN RELATION

TO THEIR ATTITUDES REGARDING

RIGHTS OF STUDENTS

APPROVED BY

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Rev. and Mrs. Leon Edd Sr.. Their faith in God, and their eternal hope and concern for mankind has provided the foundation upon which I attempt to live.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Methods of student control and discipline practices continue

to be a prevailing debatable issue in the recurring reprehension of

public schools. In 1971, discipline and control practices in education

were a major concern of citizens across the United States according

to Gallup's Survey of Public Attitudes.[1]

Since the enactment of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, the apex of

the Civil Rights movement, increased attention and concern is being

given to human rights and the civil rights afforded by the constitution,

and the implication for public school students. For over more than a

decade after the 1964 Civil Rights Act became law, variance in court

interpretations, as well as procedures and attitudes for implementing

the law in public schools is apparent. Moreover, little congruency

exists among school officials, parents, and students concerning general

procedures for student control and discipline practices.

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[1]George Gallup, "Third Annual Survey of the Public's Attitude
Toward the Public Schools." Phi Delta Kappan, LIII, 1971, pp. 39-40.

Educator-humanitarians suggest that the Civil Rights Act or any other legal enforcement of human rights through judicial or administrative legal action is not prerequisite in order to exercise the concepts of humaness and democracy in our schools. They have strongly suggested that:

> The democratic 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 democratic citizen. They must teach about democracy without indoctrination. They must demonstrate a commitment to these values in their institutional practices.[1]

Opposite the contention of educator-humanitarians is the traditional attitudes and behaviors of educators. Historically, educators in general have assumed a quasi-paternalistic position when assessing the status of students -- responding primarily to the students' "needs" as opposed to the students' rights.[2] Educators as "in loco parentis" traditionally have subjectively defined student misbehavior and subsequent discipline. Discipline traditionally defined as firm and immediate punishment, often corporal, was viewed as the crucial way misbehavior was controlled.[3] Traditionally, the rights of students and the principles

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[1]A Guide for Improving Public School Practices in Human Rights, Phi Delta Kappa Teacher Education Project -- Human Rights and Southwest Center for Human Relations Studies, Oklahoma University, 1975, pp. 3-4.

[2]Harvard Educational Review, The Rights of Children, Massachusetts: Harvard College, 1974, p. 20.

[3]Daniel Weiner, Classroom Management and Discipline, Illinois: F. E. Peacock, Inc., 1972, p. 3.

underlying the democratic process were often subject to claims of being

mere idealistic concepts, unattainable and when attempted, characteris-

tic of educational permissiveness.

Contemporary proponents of children as equal citizens under

the law, recognize not only the needs of children, but synonymously, the

rights of children.[1] Increased legal emphasis and application of the

democratic principles in public schools tend to magnify the quasi-

paternalistic stance of many educators and the comcomitant indiscrimi-

nate behaviors. Advocates of students' rights suggest that the

indiscriminant discipline practices associated with the quasi-paternalis-

tic view are often punitive, many times corporal in nature, and

generally antiquated and ineffective as a means of discipline. They

further contend that the "standards to which students are held account-

able are often related to values and attitudes of educators in leadership

positions, associated not with democratic principles, but with control."[2]

From organizational theory, Etzioni described control by

stating that "the power of an organization to control its members rests

either in specific positions, a person, or a combination of both...."[3]

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[1]Harvard Educational Review, The Rights of Children, Massa-
chusetts: Hillary Rodham, Harvard College, 1974, p. 20.

[2]Othanel B. Smith, "Discipline," New York: Encyclopedia of
Educational Research, 1960, p. 266.

[3]Amitai Etzioni, Modern Organizations, New Jersey: Prentice
Hall, Inc., 1964, p. 61.

By virtue of the line and staff structure of the educational institution, school administrators are the officials who are ultimately responsible for control within the school organization. Etzioni further suggested that "positional power may be normative, coersive or utilitarian" implying that the manner in which control is established and maintained by school administrative officials is perhaps the fundamental issue to be addressed.

Some school administrators across the nation have begun to vary in attitudes and practices regarding the issues of control and discipline. Their respective communities with various norms and specific problems increase the variance of attitudes among their educational collegues. Administrators' behavior are often becoming symptomatic of the total conditions within the school/community. In some communities for example, crime in the most recent past, has become part of the normal experience in many high schools.[1] Control in instances of lawlessness and danger becomes paramount in order to insure safety and maintain an atmosphere conducive to learning.

Other school communities, disillusioned with the outgrowth of various innovative programs are demanding a return to the "basics." Concerned citizens often specify a renewed emphasis in the development of communicative skills, computational skills and discipline. The need

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[1]The Reform of Secondary Education -- A Report of the National Commission of the Reform of Secondary Education.

for more control and discipline was evident in the 1973 Gallup Poll, where "lack of discipline was rated by the general public as the number one problem in education at that time."[1] One contributing author of the Rights of Children, stated that "there are indeed signs that preoccupation with discipline is having a damaging effect on student rights."[2]

Conversly, however, in many school communities, preoccupation with discipline and control at the expense of human relations and student rights have become grounds for legal examination. Following a rash of court decisions relating to discipline and control practices, "a trend has developed in individual liability of school board members and school administrators."[3]

Under Section 1983 of the Civil Rights Act of 1871, school board members and school administrators who take actions or enforce regulations that result in statutory or constitutional violations may be held liable for monetary damages. In Ohio, the federal district court decided that a student expelled from school without the benefit of due process and a hearing could recover nominal damages from the school principal.[4]

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[1]George Gallup, Fifth Annual Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education, 1973.

[2]Harvard Educational Review, The Rights of Children (Massachusetts: Thomas Flycare, Harvard University, 1974), p. 383.

[3]Floyd G. Delon, Yearbook of School Law (Topeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1974), pp. 197-200.

[4]Cardona v. Chanko, 315 E Supp. 958 (N. D. Ohio, 1970).

To avoid being held for damages, many public school administrators modify their own behavior and recognize the student's right to due process before making decisions that might include expulsion or permanent exclusion from school.

Resultantly, it is the practice in most states to not expell or suspend students for long periods of time without notice of the charges and a hearing with representation to discern the truth of the charges.

Consequently, an assessment of public school administrators' attitudes and behaviors regarding the rights of students in expulsion situations, ascertains little differentiation between those administrators genuinely concerned with the rights of students and those administrators more concerned with control of student behavior.

Statement of Problem

The problem of this investigation was to determine if there are relationships between the discipline practices of secondary public school administrators and their attitudes toward civil and human rights of students. Discipline practices used when dealing with general school policy violations, which would not involve the permanent expulsion of the offending student, were of particular interest in this study. The students' offense, gender, and race were factors to be focused upon when determining the severity of the punishment assessed by the middle school junior high school, or high school administrators.

Hypotheses to be Tested

This investigation purported to ascertain attitudinal differences and relationships by testing the following hypotheses:

HO_1: There is no significant relationship between the attitudes of secondary administrators regarding civil and human rights as measured by the Rights of Students Inventory, and the punitiveness of the administrator as measured by the severity of punishment exerted relative to the severity of the student offense.

HO_2: There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

HO_3: There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

HO_4: There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators and the severity of the offense.

HO_5: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender and the race of the student involved.

HO_6: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of the student involved and the severity of the offense.

HO_7: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the student involved, and the severity of the offense.

HO_8: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender and the race of the student, and the severity of the offense.

Definition of Terms

1. Discipline. The imposed administrative behavior that attempts
   to correct, mold, or perfect the mental faculties or moral
   character of students through guidance and counseling, detention,
   corporal/punitive punishments, and exclusion.

2. Administrator. The secondary school principal, assistant princi-
   pal, and administrative assistant of public schools.

3. Suburban School Districts. The independent school districts in
   Oklahoma County in juxtaposition to the Oklahoma City Public
   School District.

4. Semi-rural School Districts. The independent school districts in
   Oklahoma County not in juxtaposition to the Oklahoma City Public
   School District.

5. Civil Rights. The human rights enforced through judicial or admin-
   istrative legal action as defined by the 1974 Tulsa Public Schools
   Policies and Student Affairs, and the Oklahoma City School Systems'
   Parent and Student Handbook 1976.

6. Student's Rights. The civil and human rights of students as measured
   by the Rights of Students Inventory.

7. Attitude. A mental position and/or feeling of emotion toward a
   fact or state--a readiness to react toward or against some situa-
   tion, person, or thing.

8. <u>Suspension.</u> A temporary exclusion for a short period of time, or until something is done by the student or parent, or some circumstance is adjusted.

9. <u>Expulsion.</u> The act of permanently excluding a student from active participation of learning activities of a school for a period of time no less than one semester.

<div align="center"><u>Delimitations of the Study</u></div>

The study was delimited to public school administrators and students on the secondary level in suburban and semi-rural school districts in Oklahoma County (with the exception of Oklahoma City Public Schools).

<div align="center"><u>Methods, Design, and Statistical Procedure</u></div>

The study was designed to investigate two specific areas: the relationship of secondary school administrators' attitudes toward the civil and human rights of their students, and the severity of discipline measures used by those administrators; and the relationship of punitive measures used on students as to the gender and race of the student, as well as to the severity of the offense.

<div align="center"><u>Procedure for Collecting Data</u></div>

An initial conference was held with each superintendent in Oklahoma County in order to secure permission to conduct research

for this investigation in their respective schools. A second conference was held with each building principal to explain procedures and specific factors relative to time schedules for the study. A referral listing form (Appendix B) was presented to each administrator associated with discipline to simplify collection of data. Each administrator was instructed to keep written record (if this procedure was not routine) of the race and gender of the students referred, the offense leading to the referral, and disciplinary action exerted. Each administrator was to keep record of such referrals for a period of four (4) weeks. The referral listing form provided data which was grouped according to offense and action taken. At the end of the designated four (4) week period, each administrator was administered the Rights of Students Inventory (RSI). A self addressed stamped envelope was provided for the respondents to return the inventory to the investigator. A letter of appreciation was sent to each superintendent and principal.

Statistical Treatment of Data

A classification of the types of administrative actions was based according to definitive penalties that may be assigned by an administrator, established by boards of educations for Tulsa Public Schools[1]

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[1]Tulsa Public Schools, Policies on Student Affairs (Tulsa, 1974), pp. 3-27.

and Oklahoma City Public Schools.[1] A team of twenty (20) judges consisting of secondary principals and assistant principals randomly selected from the Oklahoma City Public School System, and directors of secondary education, was used to rank and subsequently establish an order of severity for each disciplinary action (Appendix E). Respondents ranked each of the four (4) types of disciplinary actions in the order of their severity based on a one (1) (severe) to five (5) (less severe) millimeter scale. Each disciplinary action was assigned a score as follows:

1. Guidance and Counseling 20
2. Detention 15
3. Corporal/Punitive Punishments . . 10
4. Exclusion 5

The offense score was arrived at by assigning each offense a similar score as follows:

1. Violation of classroom norms 20
   (Cheating, unauthorized talking, tardiness, etc.)

2. Ethical violations 15
   (Stealing, forgery, lying, etc.)

3. Verbal abuse 10
   (Insubordination, cursing, slander, etc.)

4. Physical violence 5
   (Assult, fighting, distruction of property, etc.)

Offense scores were weighted by -5 if a violation was repeated as to not bias the discipline action score. A punishment score for each pupil was computed by totalling offense scores and discipline scores

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[1]Parents and Students Handbook for Middle Schools and High Schools of the Oklahoma City School System, adopted August 2, 1976, amended August 9, 1976.

received during the designated four (4) week period of time, and sub-tracting the totaled offense score from the totaled discipline score. A score of zero (0) was considered to be average, a positive score suggested "punitive" and a negative score was considered "lenient." The mean of pupil disciplinary action was subtracted from the mean of pupil offense to arrive at a punishment score for each administrator.

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation was computed to show the relationship between the administrator's attitude toward civil and human rights of students and the punitive score of that administrator. The product moment correlation is a preferred test to use to determine the variation (or similarity) of the members of sets of ordered pairs.[1]

A Kirk Test of simple main effects was used to identify specific sources of interaction.

The Multiple Analysis of Variance was used to determine if significant differences existed between administrators severity of punishment score and the gender, race, and the offense of the student involved. The Multiple Analysis of Variance was used as a result of its applicability when significant differences are to be determined by analyzing the contributions of two or more independent variables to one dependent variable.[2]

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[1]Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1964), p. 69.

[2]Ibid., p. 150.

Organization of the Study

The study is composed of five (5) chapters. Chapter I contains the statement of problem, hypotheses to be tested, theoretical and legal factors relative to the problem along with the general divisions describing the study and treatment of the data. Chapter II houses the review of literature pertinent to the investigation. The review of literature is centered around four important areas:

(1) The psychological aspect of discipline, moralization, and punishment as it involves children and adults.

(2) The sociological aspect of discipline, moralization, and punishment as it relates to the individual as a society or group member.

(3) The traditional educational attitudes and methods of discipline.

(4) The legalistic aspect of discipline as it relates to the school disciplinarian.

Chapter III includes the design of the study and the subsequent procedures used in the study. The analysis and presentation of the data is found in Chapter IV, while Chapter V reveals a summary of the study, conclusions based upon findings of the study, recommendations and implications for future investigation.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

Introduction

From the initiation of the simplest form of organized primitive

society in early Western civilization, to todays complex multi-social,

multi-racial societies, discipline has reflected the general attitude of

the particular group or society toward the conduct of its own members.

While no institution in society is a mirror image of another, various in-

stitutional efforts overlap in the task of disciplining or socializing the

American child. Initial efforts occur in the home environment where

many patterns for future behavior are set; tendencies of conformity/

non-conformity, security/insecurity, aggressiveness, and the like.

The school environment, like the home environment, represents perhaps

the most concentrated effort of any institution in the disciplining, i.e.,

socializing of children.

A review of selected literature exposes the existence of various

fields relative to a thorough examination of the concept of discipline.

The review of literature for this investigation is based upon several of

the various radial fields and their broad implications for the field of

education, more specifically, discipline, i.e., punishment in public

schools. Four pertinent areas of examination are as follows:

(1) Psychological theories of discipline, moralization, and punishment as it involves children and adults.

(2) Sociological theories of discipline, and punishment as it relates to the individual as a society (group) member.

(3) The traditional educational aspect of discipline, i.e., attitudes and methods of discipline.

(4) The legalistic aspect of discipline, i.e., punishment in public schools as it relates to the school disci-- plinarian.

Psychological Aspect of Discipline, Moralization, and Punishment Relative to Children and Adults

A search of literature relative to psychology and punishment leads primarily to the basic theoretical concepts of human behavior and human personality rather than the concept of discipline per se. Hall, for instance, described neurotic anxiety, in Freudian terms as being a triggering device for the individual's instincts which when un- controlled will cause the individual to do something for which he or she will be punished.[1]

Punishment, in the Skinnerian view, is designed to remove awkward, dangerous or otherwise unwanted behavior from a repertoire on the assumption that a person who has been punished is less likely to

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[1] Calvin Hall and Gardner Lindsay, Theories of Personality (New York: J. Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1957), p. 44.

repeat the same behavior again.[1] Behavior, therefore according to

Schwebel, is polarized into two categories of acceptable and unaccept-

able.[2] Adler recognized three conditions of childhood experiences

which perhaps accounts for unacceptable behavior and erroneous con-

ceptions of the world: (1) Organic infirmity, (2) pampering, and (3)

rejection. The Adlerian thesis holds that pampered children do not

develop social feeling and come to expect society to conform to their

self-centered desires; while neglected children mature as adults and

may become enemies of society.[3]

Unacceptable behavior represents an obstacle to the mainte-

nance of equilibrium within the system. Fromm referred to acceptable

and unacceptable behaviors as being degrees of conformity. Levine

specified two particular types of conformity, willing conformity and

coerced conformity. He identified willing conformity as a compromise

role behavior that serves vital functions simultaneously for the social

system and for the personality system. Coerced conformity is the oppo-

site form of psycho-social adaptation in which the individual submits to

the normative pressures in a role that effectively forbids expression of

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[1] B. F. Skinner, _Beyond, Freedom and Dignity_ (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1971), p. 21.

[2] Milton Schwebel and Jane Raph, _Piaget in the Classroom_ (1973), p. 182.

[3] Calvin Hall and Gardner Lindsay, _Theories of Personality_ (New York: J. Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1957), p. 129.

private motives in that role.[1] Fromm followed that "people in Western democracies want to conform to a much higher degree than they are forced to conform."[2] Hall, keeping with the Frommian theory, contended that from the standpoint of the proper functioning of a particular society, that it is absolutely essential that the child's character be shaped to fit the needs of society. The task of the parents and education is to make the child want to act as he has to act if a given economic, political, and social system is to be maintained.[3] Children are taught rather early in life that failing to resist temptation or failure to conform may create the inducement of punishment of a much greater degree than the actual act of resisting temptation. Gordon maintained that resistance to the temptation of behaving in an unacceptable manner becomes as a type of control within the individual, eliminating the necessity of an ever present authority figure.[4] Control, as many psychologists define it, becomes the ability to store tension internally or to discharge it in socially constructive action rather than in unwarranted hostile action.

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[1]Robert A. Levine, Cultural Behavior and Personality (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1973), pp. 138-139.

[2]Eric Fromm, The Art of Loving (Banton Books, Inc., 1956), p. 11.

[3]Calvin Hall and Gardner Lindsay, Theories of Personality (New York: J. Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1957), p. 132.

[4]Jesse E. Gordon, Personality and Behavior (New York: MacMillan Co., 1963), p. 292.

Bettelheim theorized that there are three sources from which such control may come: (1) external or social pressure, (2) the super ego or the unconscious "conscious" and (3) the ego or rational self-control.[1]

Skinner conversely held that "even though it is commonly believed that control becomes internalized, which is simply another way of saying that it passes from the environment to autonomous man, what happens is that control becomes less visible."[2] The issue according to Skinner is the visibility of control. "As environmental contingencies become harder to see, the goodness of autonomous man becomes more apparent." A simple way, says Skinner, to avoid punishment is to avoid punishers.[3]

In the Piagetian theory, the child is oriented to punishment only because punishment is a cue to what is disapproved by adults.

> In a child's mind, there is a sort of moral realism; good and bad are simply conceived of as being that which is or is not in conformity with adult rules. Since it is incapable of leading the child toward that autonomy of the personal conscious that constitutes the morality of the good as opposed to that of pure duty, it thus fails to prepare the child for an acceptance of the essential values of contemporary society.[4]

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[1] Bruno Bettelheim and Morris Janowitz, _Prejudice_ (San Francisco: Scientific American, W. H. Freeman and Company, 1950), p. 203.

[2] B. F. Skinner, _Beyond Freedom and Dignity_ (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1971), p. 68.

[3] _Ibid._, p. 67.

[4] Jean Piaget, _Science, Education, and Psychology of the Child_ (New York: Orion Press, 1970), p. 104.

In the Piagetian interpretation, the child's morality is oriented externally, not in a motivational sense, but in a cognitive sense. Cole reported, however, knowledge of right and wrong is by no means sufficient to produce moral behavior. Bertocci, in a similar fashion, cited that the child begins to have moral experiences when he or she can reflect upon experiences previously undergone, relate and compare them to each other, and arrive at some conclusion about better and worse.[1]

In 1963, from empirical data obtained from interviews conducted regarding hypothetical moral dilemmas with a core group of 72 boys representing three age groups (10, 13, and 16), Kohlberg constructed six types of developmental moral thought. Kohlberg theorized that a child's conception of "wrong" reflects a realistic hedonistic desire to avoid punishment, rather than a deep reverence for the adult world.[2] Kohlberg's developmental conception of moralization process is constructed as follows:

Level 1, Pre-Moral Level

    Type 1. Punishment and obedience orientation.
    Type 2. Naive instrumental hedonism.

Level 11, Morality of Conventional Role-Conformity

    Type 3. Good boy morality of maintaining good relations, approval of others.
    Type 4. Authority maintaining morality.

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[1]Peter A. Bertocci and Richard M. Millard, _Personality and the Good_ (New York: McKay Co., Inc., 1963), p. 217.

[2]Lawrence Kohlberg, _The Development of Children's Orientation Toward a Moral Order_ (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1963), p. 27.

Level III, Morality of Self-Accepted Moral Principles

Type 5. Morality of contract and of democratically
accepted law.

Type 6. Morality of individual principles of conscience.

Kohlberg concluded that "only as children reach a level of cognitive development at which the meaning of moral concepts can be differentiated from punishment, can they attain either a definite hedonism or a degree of disinterested respect for authority."[1] Piaget recognized adolescences as being the stage for the highest moral attainment.

During adolescence, children generally replace specific moral concepts learned in childhood with general moral principles, which allow him or her to exercise self discipline in personal behavior, rather than dependent upon parents or others in authority.

Baltes, however, disputed the Piagetian theory and supported other conclusions regarding structural development and stabilization of the moralization process. He theorized that due to the vulnerability to retrogression of thinking in high school students, the stage 5 thinking is not actually attained during the adolescence stage of human development. Instead, Baltes contended that a high level stage 4, authority maintaining morality, is generally achieved during adolescence.[2]

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[1]Ibid., p. 22.

[2]Paul B. Baltes and K. Warner Schaie, Life-Span Developmental Psychology Personality and Socialization (New York: Academic Press, 1963), p. 184.

Relative to the stabilization of the moralization process, Cole inferred that retrogression of thinking is common in adolescence because "most adolescents compromise by paying lip-service to whatever they think is expected of them and then solving the problems of daily life on other terms."[1]

The emphasis on moral training according to Wirth, should come through positive participation rather than through remonstrances. Punishment for wrongdoing should be viewed as incidents rather than representative of basic principles for building moral conduct.[2]

Allport described the stage of human development which parallels the moralization process as being "when the most consciousness precedes the ought consciousness." Allport maintained that during the course of transformation three important changes occur:

(1) External sanctions give way to internal sanctions.

(2) Experiences of prohibition, fear, and must, give way to experiences of preference, self-respect, and ought.

(3) Specific habits of obedience give way to generic self-guidance or to broad schemata of values that confer direction upon conduct.

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[1]Luella Cole, Ph.D., _Psychology of Adolescence_ (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 483.

[2]Arthur G. Wirth, _John Dewey As Educator_ (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 262.

Allport suggested further that to a large degree, cultural class membership and the respective prejudices, mold both conscious and conduct.[1]

Most theorists would perhaps agree that discipline may be considered desirable when it causes the individual to control his or her conduct for the betterment of society. Incongruency of theorists beliefs generally center around the basic issue of the worth of human individuals and the motives for individual behavior. Relative to control and the worth of the human individual, Skinner reflected that:

> In the old view, it was the student who failed, the child who went wrong, the citizen who broke the law, and the poor who were poor because they were idle, but it is now commonly said that there are no dull students but only bad parents, no delinquency except on the part of law enforcement agencies, and no indolent men but only poor incentive systems.[2]

Many of the issues concerning control of public school children rest mainly on the value and effectiveness of punitive controls. The punitive approach is not, as it is often thought to be, a haphazard uncontrolled impulsive discharge of aggression, according to Steele. It appears as a specifically organized unit of behavior designed to punish and correct specific bad conduct.[3] Wirth, in the tradition of Dewey,

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[1] Gordon W. Allport, _Becoming, Basic Considerations for a Psychology of Personality_ (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955), p. 99.

[2] B. F. Skinner, _Beyond Freedom and Dignity_ (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1971), p. 76.

[3] Brandt F. Steele, _Working With Abusive Parents_ (Denver: United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare), p. 6.

proposed that since the ends of education are set by democratic values, children must be educated for leadership as well as obedience.[1]

Cole, as well as other modern theorists, condemns the use of fear or intimidation in any form in relating to school children. She noted that the need for punishment, particularly through fear, is evident of someone's failure:

> Fear leads to rigidity, not relaxation, it introduces a
> destructive emotion into what ought to be a constructive
> relationship, it prevents learning, it does not lead to a
> healthy attitude of mind, it favors the growth of all
> manner of escape mechanisms.[2]

It was formerly believed that fear of punishment or social stigma was the best deterrent to wrongdoing; however, outer-controlled sources of motivation have generally been relied upon when relating with children in the stage of adolescence. The possibility that others would discover their misbehavior and consequently punish him provided the motivation for self-control. Regardless of whether children respect the authority of adults or whether their conformity represented a "hedonistic" desire to avoid punishment, Skinner contended that the literature of freedom and dignity have made the control of human behavior a punishable offense. This "accountability" is achieved largely by holding the controller responsible for aversive results. Skinner continued that:

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[1]Arthur G. Wirth, John Dewey as Educator (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 261.

[2]Luella Cole, Ph.D., Psychology of Adolescence (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 539.

The controller can escape responsibility if he or she can maintain the position that the individual himself is in control. The teacher who gives the student credit for learning can also blame him for not learning.[1]

Public school administrators, often considered to be the most visible and criticized control agent of student behavior, serve as a source of outer-controlled motivation. School administrators are subject to criticism partly because, as Skinner revealed, "punishment causes pain, and no one wholly escapes or remains untouched even when the pain is suffered by others. The punisher cannot, therefore, entirely escape criticism and he may 'justify' his action by pointing to consequences of punishment which offset its aversive features."[2]

Rogers proposed that even in those situations where the techniques themselves are not aversive, control is usually exercised for the selfish purposes of the controller, and therefore, has indirectly punishing affects upon others.[3]

Many theorists hold that the effect of punishment as a useful tool to produce good behavior has never been adequately documented, and there exists some indication that over a long period of time, punishment is not effective in stopping undesirable patterns, nor will it

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[1]B. F. Skinner, _Beyond Freedom and Dignity_ (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1971), p. 78.

[2]_Ibid._, p. 78.

[3]Carl Rogers and Richard I. Evans, _Carl Rogers--The Man and His Ideas_ (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1975), p. xiv.

actually create the better patterns of behavior which are desired. In

his description of controllers, Baughman distinguished under-controllers

as overly responsive persons who often appear to be at the mercy of

their environments. Over-controllers, in contrast, demand tight con-

trol on behavior to the point that they lack spontaniety, and are

relatively unresponsive to situational demands.[1]

While there is a pervasive cultural belief in the educational

value of punishment, Stagner believed that firm authority and a consis-

tent pattern of discipline suitably intermingled with manifestations of

affection, give maximum security to the child.[2]

Much of what adults find wrong in children's behavior are the

same things for which they themselves were criticized and punished for

as children; therefore, the punishment carries the approval of tradition

and an aura of righteousness.[3] Stagner projected that educators re-

semble conservative parents rather than child psychologists in their

views of behavior problems. Wickman theorized that there exists sig-

nificant differences in the attitudes of teachers and psychiatrists of

[1]Earl Baughman and George S. Welsh, Personality: A Behavior Science (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1962), p. 218.

[2]Ross Stagner, Psychology of Personality (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1948), p. 351.

[3]Brandt F. Steele, M.D., Working With Abusive Parents from a Psychiatric Point of View (Denver: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare), p. 6.

what constitutes the behavior problems of children. The teacher most often measures the behavior of children as a problem based on personal values and personal opinions. Their tolerance for certain "misbehavior" is determined to a great degree by the amount of inconvenience it causes them. Much of the conflict between student behavior according to Wickman and teacher tolerance rests with differences of the teacher's attitude, particularly those attitudes relative to moral issues, i.e., sex, disobedience, and dishonesty. Wickman further suggested that psychiatrists conversely place emphasis and significance on shyness, overaggressiveness, withdrawal, sensitiveness, and the like, rather than the general forms of misbehavior of children.[1]

Bonner generally agreed with the theory of Wickman when he related that teachers on the whole consider behavior problems and related attitudes as being attacks on their authority. He continued that:

> Accordingly, they respond to their frustration by counterattacks as means of securing release from the tensions and their discontent with the students. These counter attacks are various forms of punishment, overt or disguised.[2]

Bonner, Wickman, and others have shown that the teacher's attitude toward behavior problems can have an adverse effect on the

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[1]E. K. Wickman, Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1928).

[2]Hubert Bonner, Social Psychology - An Interdisciplinary Approach (New York: American Book Company, 1953), pp. 331-332.

child. Punishment for unsocial behavior increases the child's difficulty of adjusting to the authoritarian demand for obedience and conformity. The child either comes to hate authority even more, or he develops a sense of guilt or unworthiness which further impairs his adjustment.[1]

The most serious behavior problems are those which "upset the teacher" rather than those which psychiatrists consider prognostic of insanity.[2] Often, control and punishment induced by administrators and teachers who wish to influence students behavior are related to only the values and attitudes of the administrator and teacher.[3]

Sawin's study of the manner in which adult socializing disciplinary activities are modified by children's reactions to being disciplined offered some contradiction to the theories which present adults as selfish mechanistic manipulators of children behavior. Sawin found that:

> ....the child who reacted to the punishment by being defiant or by ignoring the socializing agent was most harshly dealt with by the adult subjects. The child who responded to the teacher's discipline by pleading for a lighter punishment was not disciplined so severely on the subsequent test trial, and the child who reacted to punishment by apologizing and promising to behave properly, was not punished at all on the next trial, but in fact, was rewarded for his behavior by the adult subjects.[4]

[1]Ibid., p. 332.

[2]Ross Stagner, Psychology of Personality (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1948), p. 396.

[3]Othanel B. Smith, Discipline (New York: Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 1960), p. 265.

[4]Douglass B. Sawin, and others, The Child's Role In Sparing The Rod (Ohio: Fels Research Institute, 1975), p. 7.

The author concluded from the study that in contexts where adult socializing agents are continuously monitoring children's behavior and are dispensing both rewards and punishments, the reactions of the children to the disciplinary behavior of the adult have predictable and consistent influences on the agents' subsequent disciplinary actions. Children's reactions to discipline serve as determinants of how severely they will be dealt with on future occasions. Sawin reported that not only do children's reactions serve to modify adult disciplinary behavior, but they may serve to maintain adult punitiveness.

Other studies strongly suggest that children's positive responsiveness to adult-initiated approach responses resulted in an increase of similar adult responses. Berberich experimentally researched controlled adult teaching strategies using a simulated child in an effort to study the effects of children as reinforcement determinants of adult behavior.[1]

Baltes cited that just as parent or adult characteristics and response tendencies are found to influence child behavior, child characteristics and response tendencies also seem to influence adult behavior.[2]

[1] J. P. Berberich, "Do The Child's Response Shape The Teaching Bheavior of Adults?" Journal of Experimental Research in Personality, (1971, S), pp. 92-97.

[2] Paul Baltes and K. Warner Schail, Life Span Developmental Psychology, Personality and Sociolization (New York: Academic Press, 1973), p. 280.

It is conceivable, according to Baltes, that children of in-creasing age exert influence on increasingly more and increasingly varied adult behaviors, while adults may control neither nor less the behaviors of children. Many studies have illustrated differential adult treatment as a result of or at least a function of the sex of the child, response tendencies such as dependence, independence, nurturance, etc.[1] The author further reported that adults will generally

> reinforce different behaviors in boys than in girls and in turn will be influenced by the degree to which child-ren exhibit appropriate sex-typed behaviors. This tendency to treat boys and girls differently seems to be so dominant that even when adults are trained to be-have uniformly, they deviate from the trained role behaviors.[2]

The Sociological Aspect of Punishment Discipline, and Moralization Relative to Individuals and Institutions

A review of sociological literature revealed a vast amount of knowledge in the form of theories drawn from experimental, empirical, and observational techniques. Sociologists frequently related to the structure, development, and associated phenomenons of the family, state, and society, while examining concepts of social norms and cul-tural behaviors. The concept of socialization as described by Young

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[1] Ibid., p. 278.

[2] Ibid., p. 280.

and Mack appear to relate synonomously to the educational and psychological concept of discipline. They suggested that:

> The development of the sense of self enables one to take a place in a social structure, to learn cultural behaviors, to expect positive sanctions when he conforms and negative ones when he deviates, to become a socialized, fully participating member of society.[1]

Deviation from social norms generate negative sanctions because deviation or nonconformity generally represents aggression. The unconscious response of many citizens in American society relative to the question of aggression or misbehavior is "punishment." The long-standing doctrine of an "eye for an eye" is deeply submerged into many aspects of society. The basic supposition of the doctrine rests with the notion that punishment is a means of teaching the offending individual a lesson. The more severe the punishment, it is generally thought, the better the lesson is learned.

Punishment and the fear of punishment, cited Groves, have been perceived as the most effective means of keeping people from over-aggression or crime.[2] Groves maintained that experience shows that the confidence of society concerning the effects of punishment has been misplaced:

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[1] Kimball Young and Raymond Mack, Sociology and Social Life (New York: American Book Company, 1962).

[2] Ernest R. Groves, Social Problems and Education (New York: Longman, Green, and Company, 1925), p. 40.

The belief in the efficacy of punishment persists in spite of evidence to the contrary, on account of the emotional attitude that most people take toward the problem. Even if punishment has not prevented crime, it has afforded the multitude an emotional satisfaction of the desire for vengeance that has had so large a part in the makeup of human nature in the past.[1]

Currently, various legislators and law enforcement individuals, at the insistence of their respective constituency, still demand the continuance of severe punishment as the deterrent of unacceptable social aggression.

Toby described the public's insistence upon the use of severe punishment as social vengeance. He asked the question, "Why is vengeance necessary?" He related that the need to deter the bulk of the population from committing similar acts of aggression is not founded. The socialization process prevents most deviant behavior according to Toby, and those who have introjected the moral norms of their society are not likely to commit aggressive acts or crime because of their self-concept.[2] Toby hypothesized that vengeance is necessary because conformists who identify with the victim are motivated to punish the offender out of some combination of rage and fear, while conformists

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[1]Ibid., p. 39.

[2]Jackson Toby, "Is Punishment Necessary?" in The Journal Of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science (September, 1964), 55, ed. by J. Alan Winter, Jerome Rabow, and Mark Chesler, Vital Problems for American Society (New York: Random House, Inc., 1968), p. 152.

who unconsciously identify with the offender fear their own ambivalence.[1] Toby finalized that in order to determine the necessity of punishment, the examination of several empirical questions are imperative: (1) the extent to which identification with the victim occurs; (2) the extent to which nonconformity is prevented by the anticipation of punishment; (3) what the consequences are for the morale of conformists of punishing the deviant or of treating his imputed pathology, and (4) the compatibility between punishment and rehabilitation.[2]

Sagarin theorized that a social cohesion takes place in society as a result of the condemnation of a transgressor. "As pariah, he becomes excluded through execution, confinement, excommunication, . . . The ties among the remaining population are strengthened. The people share a common indignation and reaffirm their own goodness, correctness, and morality."[3]

Functioning from a perhaps scaled down version of the social aggression/punishment theory, parents attempt to socialize their children in much the same manner. Today scores of parent-child and teacher-student relationships have at their foundation the basic ideals of this oversimplified solution to aggression.

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[1]Ibid., p. 152.

[2]Ibid., p. 159.

[3]Edward Sagarin, Deviants and Deviance, An Introduction to the Study of Disvalued People and Behavior (New York: Praeger Publisher, 1975), p. 372.

Bonner seemed to make clear the notion that the restrictive

or coercive techniques frequently employed in disciplining children

are "psychologically inadequate." With coercive techniques, adults

forcefully channel the impulses of children into preconceived patterns

and molds modes of behavior. Coercive techniques as a form of dis-

cipline, Bonner concluded, are harmful because they do not synchronize

or even parallel the child's ability and maturity.[1]

When a child is punished for aggression thwarted by parents

and teachers but still dependent to some degree upon them for affection

and security, he learns to repress his aggressive tendencies. He may,

however, demanded Katz, become a hostile individual and as an adult

exhibit his hostility toward society.[2]

One factor of great significance to the efficacy of punishment

is its severity or restrictiveness. Aronson revealed that a severe or

restrictive punishment can be extremely frustrating; because frustra-

tion is one of the primary causes of aggression, it would appear wise

to refrain from the usage of frustrating tactics when attempting to curb

aggression.[3]

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[1]Hubert Bonner, Social Psychology, An Interdisciplinary
Approach (New York: American Book Company, 1953), p. 107.

[2]Daniel Katz, Attitude Formation and Public Opinion, in
Political Attitudes and Public Opinion, ed. by David E. Nimmo and
Charles M. Bonjean (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1972),
pp. 15-16.

[3]Elliot Aronson, The Social Animal (San Francisco: W. H.
Freeman and Company, 1972), p. 163.

LeVine held that the early experience of children is influenced by two major indirect ways of the social reward system; (a) through family structure, which determines the nature of the child's earliest interpersonal experience but which in turn is affected by the wider social system with which it is integrated; and (b) through parental mediation.[1]

In earlier writings, LeVine noted that in parental mediation, the sanctions and values of the sociocultural order are translated by parents into rewards and punishments, or encouragement and discouragement for childhood behavior that has relevance to later adult role performance.[2]

Recent studies of politically radical adults and their early experiences in the processes of moralization and socialization, suggest that methods of discipline and family values are important. The subjects emphasized the subtle yet pervasive power of parental principle in their upbringing.[3] Keniston reported that they (radical adults) had been brought up in families with a moral atmosphere that was largely

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[1]Robert LeVine, Cultural Behavior and Personality (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1973), p. 66.

[2]Robert LeVine, Nancy Klein, and Constance Owens, "Father-Child Relationships and Changing Life-Styles in Ibadan, Nigeria," in The City of Modern Africa, ed. by H. Miner (New York: Praeger Company, 1967).

[3]Kenneth Keniston, "The Sources of Student Dissent," The Journal of Social Issues, 23 (July, 1967), pp. 108-137.

implicit but nontheless powerful. Non-punitive methods of discipline were generally employed in these families, allowing discipline to be achieved on a higher level. Reasoning and the transmission of high expectations were the control factors. Keniston concluded that parental expectations were communicated by the promotion of independence, by the assumption that the child would accept responsibility and control himself, and by the use of such indirect sanctions as the expression of disappointment in the child when he misbehaved.[1]

Socialization, whether coercive or noncoercive, in the view of many theorists, is often seen as an undirectional process in which the socializee's behavior is shaped by the socialization agent (e. g., parents and teachers). Baltes professed that psychological functioning involves a continuous reciprocal interaction between individual behavior and its controlling social conditions.[2]

Aronson described controlling social conditions as being social influences. One significant form of social influence, according to Durkheim, is public opinion. Durkheim stressed that it is idle to think that we socialize our students and children as we wish:

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[1]Kenneth Keniston, Youth and Dissent, The Rise of a New Opposition (New York: Harcourt-Brace-Javanovich, Inc., 1971), p. 275.

[2]Paul B. Baltes and K. Warner Shaie, Life Span Developmental Psychology, Personality, and Socialization (New York: Academic Press, 1973), p. 259.

> We are forced to follow the rules which prevail in
> the social milieu in which we live. Opinion imposes
> them on us and opinion is a moral force whose constrain-
> ing power is not less than that of physical forces. The
> practices to which it lends its authority are by that very
> fact beyond, to a great extent, the influence of individuals.
> All educational practices, whatever they may be, whatever
> difference there may be among them, have in common one
> essential characteristic: they all follow from the influence
> exercised by one generation on the following generation
> with an eye to adapting the latter to the social milieu in
> which it is called upon to live. [1]

Groves contended that public opinion settles into standards

which are not "the result of biological inheritance," but are frequently

out of sympathy with natural physical cravings. The author proclaimed

that the standards are not psychological, but however are "for the most

part, sociological in character, created by social experience and made

powerful because in them is the strength of group approval." [2]

Standards of behavior and punishment which are set, generally

by adults of previous generations, are perhaps in part, the result of

their inaccurate memory of firm, punitive policies and a romantasized

childhood past. Pettitt maintained that human societies suffer from

what might be termed sociocultural amnesia. "They have no conscious

memory of their birth and early development except for the fragments

of recorded history. Society, therefore, needs a background for its

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[1] Emile Durkheim, _Education and Sociology_ (New York: Free
Press, 1956), p. 94-95.

[2] Ernest Groves, _Social Problems and Education_ (New York:
Longman Green and Company, 1925), p. 2.

self-pride." It also needs, cited Pettitt, "to justify what it does in the eyes and minds of oncoming generations. So it fabricates a past out of myths and legends which can be woven into a tapestry large enough to account for everything of social concern in the observable universe and sufficiently intricate to explain new discoveries as they are made."[1]

American society through sociological components such as the family, schools, and public opinion, attempts to discipline children for the maintainance of society. White projected that children are increasingly socialized by agencies outside the home as they become involved in a wide range of organized activities.[2] The author maintained that while the socialization task is shared, the family itself provides the very foundation for the capacity to meet the demands on the personality, to understand the complexity of human relations and of personality problems.[3]

Cook conversely related that under modern conditions, the major acculturating influences are outside the home, notably so at the adolescence stage of life. He projected that socialization is a job for

[1]George A. Pettitt, Prisoners of Culture (New York: Charles Scribner's, Sons, 1970), p. 4.

[2]Winston White, Beyond Conformity (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc., 1961), p. 90.

[3]Ibid., p. 158.

professionals, the school teacher, occupational trainer, minister, etc. Cook further explained that in complex unstable societies, it becomes difficult to contemplate, for each individual must learn in a variety of roles, to participate in many groupings; yet, his allegiance to the common core values of the culture must transcend his special interest, else the social order itself is weakened.[1]

Mead further explained that each culture identifies particular periods of maturation of the growing child for emphasis on acculturation and socialization. Adolescence is cited in our society as the focal point where the concepts of conformity are stressed.[2]

Conformity has been described by various theorists as being the machinery through which public opinion, peer groups, etc., operates as anonymous authority. White depicted conformity as a broad scheme toward de-individualization. He suggested that:

> Larger than the issue of conformity itself is the de-
> piction of an all-pervasive leveling, a narrowing--if not
> the complete elimination of all differences in every aspect
> of American society. As part cause, partly consequence
> of conformity, the disappearance of distinctions among
> individuals applies as well to differences among age groups,
> classes, religions, even between the sexes. The hierarchi-
> cal differences between parent and child, teacher and pupil,

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[1]Lloyd A. Cook, A Sociological Approach to Education (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950), p. 244.

[2]Margaret Mead, Culture and Commitment, A Study of the Generation Gap (New York: Natural History Press, 1970), p. 43.

boss and employee dwindle as the authority of the
superior becomes transformed into the manipulation
of a pal.[1]

White summarized that conformity and the pressure associated
with it are seen as excessive because they stifle the development of the
uniqueness of the individual.[2]

Life can therefore become a succession of episodes of conform-
ity, says Rugg, and thereby create the sense of inferiority. In the home,
schools, and other institutions of socialization, repression very easily
replaces creative behavior. "The march of life came perilously near
being a regimented lockstep . . . The herd was being produced . . . and
the danger to America grew."[3]

While recognizing Rugg's cognition, it also becomes apparent
that not all theorists viewed conformity as being necessarily bad. The
concept of conformity for many individuals represents a "bitter sweet"
phenomenon where in some spheres it is imperative, necessary, and
good, while in other spheres of behavior, the opposite is so.

Walker and Heyns in a similar context, proposed that the prob-
lem of conformity lies in its appearance in areas where it is inimical to

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[1]Winston White, Beyond Conformity (New York: Free Press of
Glencoe, Inc., 1961), p. 18.

[2]Ibid., p. 18.

[3]Harold Rugg, Culture and Education in America (New York:
Harcourt, Brace, and Company, 1931), p. 79.

the common good. They subscribed to the formula, NEED ————

INSTRUMENTAL ACT ———— GOAL, in their description of the

manner in which behavior is usually manipulated.[1] Conformity and

non-conformity, according to Walker and Heyns, are instrumental

acts, or ways of achieving goals to satisfy needs. They interjected

that conformity is most certain to occur when there is a strong need

and the situation requires conformity behavior in order to satisfy that

need. In many situations, conformity behavior leads to the satisfac-

tion of one need, while non-conformity behavior leads to satisfaction

of quite a different need.[2]

This hypothesis of conformity and need conflict is perhaps

most evident during the stage of adolescence. "Adolescent cliques

manage to impose uniform dress, language, and manners of defiance

of the standards of the larger social group from which they emerge."[3]

Keniston added that more than most societies, we allow child-

ren a long period of freedom before demanding that they assume adult

responsibilities and self discipline. The non-conformity of children

can be easily exaggerated, especially in an age of "peer-group morality"

states the author. Keniston further suggested that perhaps the most

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[1]Edward L. Walker and Roger W. Heyns, An Anatomy for Con-
formity (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962),p.
2, 5.

[2]Ibid., p. 54.

[3]Ibid., p. 30.

important fact is that we tend to think of children as non-conformists in need of discipline.[1]

Ironically, the prophesy of self-fulfillment occurs as progressive adult socialization agents learn to expect and accept a certain amount of non-conformity from children. Riesman reflected that children often find themselves in the paradoxical position in which their "indifference" is simply evidence that they are conventional and up-to-date. Riesman continued with the implication that since some degree of non-conformity is the expected norm, children often feel compelled to display increased degrees of non-conformity in an effort to exceed adult subtle expectations.[2]

Conformity and non-conformity is also experienced in the area of religion. Religion represents another major institution of American socialization. The concepts of morality and of ethics have their origins in religious and philosophical movements. However, recently, personal religious devoutness has proven not to be prerequisite for the development and exercise of moral thought and practice. Benson believed that in spite of the great influence of organized religions, it has lost its grip on ethics and the philosophical bases of ethics and

[1]Kenneth Keniston, Youth and Dissent, The Rise of a New Opposition (New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., 1971), p. 35.

[2]David Riesman, Individualism Reconsidered and Other Essays (United States of America: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1954), p. 267.

morality has become more important to many educated Americans.[1]

Spock in a similar manner related that many parents, though they maintain personal codes of ethics, are quite uncertain about whether there is any general validity in religious teachings, i.e., morality and ethics.[2]

Benson, like White, proclaimed that the family today has almost complete responsibility for direct moral socialization of children. Benson, on the other hand, replied that, realistically, the family is incapable of assuming the entire task of moral instruction. The theorist cited several factors which contribute to the inability of the family: (1) increased divorce rates, (2) a general increase in the number of single parents, and (3) increased amount of time devoted to television and peer groups.[3] Benson noted that among the basic difficulties which face the family as moral instructor, is the lack of knowing what to instruct. "In some ways, the basic authority of the parent is a handicap to their role in ethical education. They are the source of many of the good things of life for

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[1]George C. S. Benson and Thomas S. Engeman, _A Moral America_ (Stanford, California: Hoover Institution Press, 1975), p. 11.

[2]Benjamin Spock, M.D., _Decent and Indecent, Our Personal and Political Behavior_ (New York: McCall Publishing Company, 1970), p. 207.

[3]George C. S. Benson and Thomas S. Engeman, _A Moral America_ (Stanford, California: Hoover Institution Press, 1975), p. 126.

the child but they are also a constant source of frustration."
Adult socializing agents who resort to constant verbal and physical
chastisement are not the most appreciated source of moral inspira-
tion.[1]

The chief moral habit, submitted Wirth, to be cultivated in
the child, whether by parents or other adult socialization agents,
should be interest in community welfare--an intellectual, practical,
emotional interest in perceiving the principles and behavior that
make for social order and progress, first,within the activities of
home (and school), and by extension,within the activities of the
larger society.[2]

Durkheim recognized two particular fundamental elements
of human morality. He described them as (1) the spirit of discip-
line, which is the feeling and the taste for regularity, the feeling
and taste for the limitation of desires, the respect for rules, which
imposes on the individual inhibition of impulses and effort, and (2)
the spirit of autonomy which is the attitude of a will that accepts
rules because it recognizes that they are rationally based. It pre-
supposes the free but methodical application of the intelligence to
the examination of the ready-made rules that the child first receives

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Arthur G. Wirth, John Dewey as Educator (New York:
John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 262.

. . . . but which far from accepting passively, he must gradually learn to. . . adapt them to the changing conditions of existence of the society of which he is becoming an active member.[1]

To be of any significance, moral and spiritual values, according to Bower, must grow out of the relations and functions of values to experience as understood by the biological, psychological, and social sciences.[2] Bower proposed that the moral and spiritual values should be as qualities of the responses which pupils make to actual life situations. A response, proclaimed Bower, is moral when it is made to a situation through a choice of possible outcomes in the light of the growing ethical insights of mankind through generations regarding what is good, and in the light of personal and social demands of the situation itself. It is amoral when it is made without reference to these standards and it is immoral when it is made in violation of these standards.[3]

Yankelovich implied that the standards for social behavior of today are in a state of change. He described the belief that guides the behavior of people on matters of individual and public

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[1]Emile Durkheim, Education and Sociology (New York: The Free Press, 1956), p. 45.

[2]William C. Bower, Moral and Spiritual Values in Education (Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1952), p. 76.

[3]Ibid., p. 76.

morality as being new moral norms. The author denoted the major

value changes in American society:

(1) changes in sexual morality in the direction of more
liberal sexual mores;

(2) changes relating to the authority of institutions, such
as the authority of the law, the police, the govern-
ment, the boss in a work situation, etc., in the
direction of what sociologists call "deauthorization,".
i.e., a lessening of automatic obedience to, and
respect for, established authority;

(3) changes in relation to the church and organized reli-
gion as a source of guidance for moral behavior; and

(4) changes associated with traditional concepts of
patriotism and automatic allegiance to the idea of
"my country right or wrong."[1]

In view of the rapid changes in the morality of young citizens,

particularly the youth of the seventies, some theorists maintained that

a legal return to moral education is necessitated. Bower sought a

similar solution as he suggested that the task of moralization be shared.

Bower believed that the responsibility of meeting the morali-

zation needs of children and of society should be shared by the family,

the school, and the church. He recognized that the fundamental prin-

ciples of the Movement do not permit the teaching of religion in public

schools but outlines specific guidelines that the school might follow:

(1) Provide the child with the actual experience of moral
and spiritual values as they arise and function in the
manifold experiences of the school community and in

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[1]Daniel Yankelovich, New Morality, A Profile of American Youth
(New York: McGraw Publishing Company, 1976), p. 22.

relation to the cultural heritage, but without theological interpretation.

(2) Give an understanding of the relation of religion as valuational experience to culture and of the influence of a changing culture upon the historical expressions of religion.

(3) Through an understanding of the differences of theological and ecclesiastical expressions of religion and the historical conditions under which they have arisen, develop respect for different religious beliefs and practices and tolerance toward those who hold and practice them.

(4) Through organized visitations, observe the forms of organized religion in the community, noting such items as architecture, budgets, membership, distinctive beliefs, forms of worship, organization, and the place of religion in the life of the community.

(5) Avoid as far as possible destructive conflicts between the scientific subjects and traditional theological beliefs by sympathetically helping the pupil to face them objectively in a constructive spirit of inquiry and by directing him to his pastor or parents for guidance concerning the problem involved. The school should seek to conserve essential religious convictions and not to destroy them.

(6) Formally or informally on the secondary level, take account of religion objectively as a phenomenon of culture as it manifests itself in literature, history, institutions, social behavior, and the development of ideas, but without theological interpretation. . . being on guard against identifying the religious beliefs and practices of his (the teacher) own communion with religion as a historical and cultural phenomenon or against comparing or contrasting his own beliefs with those of others.

(7) By dealing with religion in its functional and universal aspects as a phenomenon of culture, lay the basic foundation of understanding and appreciation upon which the churches may build what they deem necessary

or desirable in the further cultivation of religious beliefs and attitudes in terms of their several theological or ecclesiastical traditions.[1]

The role of moral education, through the major institutions of American socialization, the home, the church, the school, is to develop within the child a set of values to be subscribed. Durkheim pointed out, that the role of moral education is to initiate the child into various duties, to create in him, one by one, particular virtues. He also sees the role as developing in the child, dispositions that are the root of moral life, to constitute in him the moral agent, ready to exercise the initiative which is the condition of progress.[2]

A Historical Analysis of Methods, Attitudes and Theories Relative to Discipline

Of the various inequities, inconsistencies, and otherwise in-effective methods and practices found in public education, punishment and discipline undoubtedly lags behind all others. Educators, since the period of the colonies, have sought to exact from children, an un-questioned obedience to their adult authority. Even during today's enlightened period of human relations, adolescent psychology, pedago-gical science, guidance counselors, group dynamics, and the like;

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[1] William C. Bower, Moral and Spiritual Values in Education (Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1952), p. 205-6.

[2] Emile Durkheim, Education and Sociology (New York: The Free Press, 1956), p. 41.

educators more often than not, are guilty of generating only enough energy to provide lip service to the task of objectively disciplining the American child.

There is no profession, cited Row, that is entered with less preliminary training than that of the schoolmaster. The neophyte is consequently faced by many difficulties, and the greatest of them is generally that of discipline, "the art of controlling and managing boys and keeping order," both in and out of school.[1]

Harris related that in very early societies the conscious control of children consisted mainly in arbitrary methods of acculturation or the transmission of the system of beliefs, mores, and folkways which were prized by the adult group, but which contained very little relevance with the related skills and habits learned through participation by children.[2] Harris continues that:

> As all conduct, normal or capricious, that was sufficiently obvious for external determination was subject to the teacher's censorship, control was dominantly restrictive or negative. As children were supposed to know the right from the wrong and as school duties and rules were explicit, usually in the form of a code posted conspicuously, the practical emphasis was not upon positive conformity, but rather upon punishment for nonconformity.[3]

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[1]Ernest F. Row, Hints on School Discipline (London: Humphrey Milford Oxford University Press, 1920), p. 7.

[2]Pickens E. Harris, Changing Conceptions of School Discipline (New York: MacMillan Company, 1928), p. 13.

[3]Ibid., p. 24.

During the infant years of American education, the status of the child fared just above that of slave. Children owned or possessed nothing and were the recipients of that only of which the headmaster and parents sought to give. Colonial educators, maintained Espy, were not encumbered with an educational philosophy peculiarly their own or detached from the prevailing beliefs of their sponsors and patrons. The original depravity of children had to be transformed into piety through forthright and rigorous discipline. It was necessary to "break the child's will."[1] The author further stated that diligent subjection to established rule was a safe apprenticeship even for those who were to develop powers of leadership. Beliefs of this sort inevitably encouraged a tendency to which pedagogy is very susceptible.[2]

Good and Teller reflected that children were subject to the world of work just as any adult, and because of their value for the jobs they were capable of performing, they were sometimes exploited through overwork. The authors related that the stern religious views of their parents deprived many New England children of the opportunity for play and companionship.[3] Parents of many sections felt that

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[1]Herbert G. Espy, The Public Secondary School (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938), p. 26.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Harry G. Good and James D. Teller, A History of American Education (New York: MacMillan Company, 1973), p. 21.

children should be docile and quiet, speaking only when addressed. Many children, it is said, were frightened by the harsh Puritan the-ology.[1] Good and Teller further report that many children did not always have even harsh Puritanical parents to look after them. Some were brought to America in their teens without their parents. These, including bereaved children,were generally considered by law as orphans.

These and other factors collectively influenced the atmos-phere and the overall nature of the common school. Espy noted that perhaps more than its successors in later periods of American history, the character of the colonial secondary school was largely influenced by the kinds of persons who served as teachers.[2]

Espy revealed that little is known about the qualifications of colonial teachers, however, the precarious financial support, the un-stable character of the colonial community, along with a host of extraneous variables, established teaching as a position requiring piouty, discreetness and scholarship.[3]

However, based on the historical findings of Good and Teller, pious and discreet individuals were not always in abundance. "Colonial

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Herbert G. Espy, The Public Secondary School (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1939), p. 26.

[3]Ibid., p. 27.

teachers were of several kinds -- those who absconded, got drunk, were cruel or committed financial irregularities."[1] Due to the clergy's inability to properly judge the educational qualifications of the applicants, many times selection from a small number of candidates and the prerequisite of church membership, teachers who were selected were not always best suited for the positions.

Another factor thought to perhaps influence the character of the school was the casual respect received by the teacher from other adult citizens. Good and Teller related that the custom of "boarding round," where the teacher was lodged and boarded for a week at a time in the home of each patron, and other common chores did little to enhance the dignity of the profession or make it easier to secure good teachers.[2]

The tendency for educators to perpetuate the near slavish status of children became the established social norm in the common school and the power of absolute authority was the teacher's last stronghold to obtaining some measure of dignity and respect.

Katz quoted Horace Mann's denouncement of the doctrine of absolute authority. Mann professed that:

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[1]Harry G. Good and James D. Teller, A History of American Education (New York: MacMillan Company, 1973), p. 39-40.

[2]Ibid.

The most pitiless part of this doctrine of absolute
"authority" and unconditional "subordination" and of
force and fear and pain as the means of securing them,
is that it makes no exception of sex or age or disposi-
tion. Everyone knows that there are children, especi-
ally females, in all refined communities, who go to
school with hearts overflowing with respect and trust,
and a feeling that borders almost upon reverence for
their teacher. Their good will and obedience are sali-
ent, and they leap forth, unbidden, to meet the demands
even of a harsh and unsympathizing master as the early
spring flowers burst out from the warm vital energies
that reside beneath the surface to melt the snows that
would conceal them. But this spontaneous obedience is
not enough. . .[1]

The teacher's legitimated authority to punish and cause suffer-

ing to wrong doing children who violated the school code was described

by Mann as being "authority, force, fear, and pain -- not duty, affec-

tion, love of knowledge, and love of truth; but power, violence, terror,

and suffering."[2]

Moorehouse submitted that adults of early society generally

principled that no deviation from the moral law is without its just

penalty. They subscribed to the Puritanical belief that "every sin has

its punishment in the deterioration, or lack of development, in the

character of the sinner." Society consequently possessed the right to

punish as a means of protecting itself from the predatory individual...

It is the right to impress and illustrate the immutable law of compensation

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[1]Horace Mann, "Reply to the Remarks" (Boston, 1844), pp.
130-131, in School Reform: Past and Present, ed. by Michael B. Katz
(Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1971).

[2]Ibid.

which associates good with happiness and evil with suffering.[1] Moore-house followed that the right to punish resides in the state, because the state is the embodiment of the social will, an intelligence with keenly self-preservation instincts. The right to punish also resides in the teacher as the agent of the state and the trustees of specific functions in the training of children.[2]

Harris elaborated on the methods of punishment and the accompanying attitudes of traditional educators. He suggested that at the rise of our present system of education, control referred to authoritative and forceful methods of obtaining prompt and unquestioned obedience to requirements. He states:

> Whether to duty or right as conceived in the abstract, to the learning of concrete lesson assignments, or to any other detail of conduct, capricious or reasonable, exacted by the teacher or other 'superior' in order to effect control as thus conceived, varied ingenious and cruel systems of punishment were employed, the most generally used method being that of corporal punishment, with practically no effort to fit the severity of the pain to the deed or to discriminate between moral or intellectual capacities of children.[3]

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[1]Frances M. Moorehouse, The Discipline of the School (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1914), p. 170.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Pickens E. Harris, Changing Conceptions of School Discipline (New York: MacMillan Company, 1928), p. 18.

Inherently society's right to punish, Harris listed three historic functions of punishment which served as a bases for the severity of methods used even throughout the present.

(1) the function of protection to reduce the suffering caused by wanton injustice and thoughtlessness,

(2) the function of expulsion to further serve as a means of protection,

(3) the function of expiation which is an instinctive and universal concession to religious and ethical feelings.[1]

Logically, the functions of punishment corresponds to a set of motives, cited Harris, for school motives which follow the motives actuated in other spheres of society.

(1) Retaliation: the relationship between headmaster and student was nearly that of servant and master, and any infringement of rules was a personal affront to the dignity and authority of the Master. It was punishable in the same spirit in which parents upheld their authority by beating disobedient children not so much for the good of the child as for the good of the parents offended vanity.

(2) Expiation: with the substitution of court justice for personal vengeance in restraining the lawless, there grew a feeling that every offense had its expiation and punishment became the price of a misdeed.

(3) Prevention: one of the chief aims and justification for punishment.

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[1]Ibid.

(4) Reformation: the highest motive for which
punishment is given. Reformation is achieved
through (a) the restraining influence of pain or
suffering, (b) the enforced contemplation of
the nature of the deed and its consequences,
(c) the by products of punishment, i. e., social
obloquy, and other losses.[1]

Just as popular beliefs and opinions of the early Puritans in-
fluenced the type and methods used in educating their children, so too
did public opinion later affect educators to the point of modifying their
disciplinary procedures. There modification, according to Mann, was
milder in name only:

To imprison timid children in a dark and solitary
place; to brace open the jaw with a piece of wood, to
torture the muscles and bones, by the strain of an un-
natural position, or holding an enormous weight, to
inflict a wound upon the instructive feelings of modesty
and delicacy by making a girl sit with boys or go out
with them at recess; to bring a whole class around a
fellow pupil, to ridicule and shame him, to break
down the spirit of self-respect, by enforcing some
ignominious compliance; to give a nickname.[2]

Mann wrote that by 1845, the public had at least taken sides
and parties arrayed themselves to repudiate and also condemn
corporal punishment. He continued that the subject of corporal punish-
ment cannot be justly discussed on its own merits. He maintained that
"it is closely connected with intellectual progress; its influences

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Horace Mann, Lectures on Education (Boston: William B.
Fowle, 1848), p. 44.

pervade the whole moral nature; and it must be looked at, in its relation to them."[1]

Following Mann's logic, Row contended that a reasonable measure of common sense and a vast willingness to learn are the essential prerequisites for good discipline methods. Discipline is largely a personal and individual matter for which rules of universal application cannot well be laid down. The author further stated that different masters will constantly employ different methods. "One will be the strictest of martinets, ruling with a rod of iron held in a mailed fist. Another will succeed equally well by a free and easy use of a gift for banter and cajolery. His fist is concealed in a velvet glove."[2]

Moorehouse agreed with the Spencer principle, which holds that punishment should always be proportionate to the seriousness of the offense as well as inevitable and prompt.[3]

Contemporary authors and theorists espouse the general cognitions of Mann, Dewey, and Rouseau regarding punishment and the

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[1]Ibid., p. 45.

[2]Ernest F. Row, Hints on School Discipline (Amen Corner, London: Humphry Milford Oxford University Press, 1920), p. 9.

[3]Frances M. Moorehouse, The Discipline of the School (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1914), p. 15.

use of it with children. Cole maintained that good discipline for

children, namely adolescents, has certain outstanding characteristics.[1]

(1) Punishment must be the natural result of the mis-
behavior.

(2) Punishment must be certain.

(3) Punishment should be just.

(4) Punishment must be impersonal.

(5) Punishment must always be constructive and con-
ducive to better self-control.

(6) Punishment should be withheld until the student's
motives are understood.

(7) Punishment must avoid the deliberate arousal of
fear.

(8) Punishment must avoid the assignment of extra
lessons.

While there exists no known panacea for effective discipline,

Morse proposed that what we are attempting to do as discipline agents

is to help children and youth learn "essential social mores, to assist

in acculturalization, to develop a sense of person and identity related

to the social whole, and to work out a set of social values."[2] Morse

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[1]Luella Cole, Ph.D., _Psychology of Adolescence_ (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1965), pp. 540-41.

[2]William C. Morse, _The Fair Administration of Discipline, A Psychological Perspective_ (Michigan: Conference Proceedings, April, 1974), Ann Arbor, Michigan.

held that educators are endowed with a share of the responsibility once held exclusively by the family-teaching for citizenship.[1]

To enhance the practice of democratic ideals through public schools, it is necessary that positive sanctions are employed when there exists a choice between exerting a posititive sanction and exerting a negative sanction. According to Carter, the following are thoughts on dealing with the student in a positive manner:

(1) Use behavior modification techniques such as behavior contracts.

(2) Allow the student to "speak his piece" and air his gripes.

(3) Replace punishment with understanding.

(4) Work out with the student a reasonable discipline.

(5) Allow students more participation in school affairs.

(6) Seek professional help for the student as needed.

(7) Help teachers establish rapport with students.

(8) Be consistent in administering disciplinary action.

(9) Discipline rather than punish.

(10) Involve parents in disciplinary procedures.

(11) Conduct parental conferences and home visitations.[2]

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[1]Ibid.

[2]David Carter, "The School Principal and the Use of Detention, Suspension, and Expulsion as Disciplinary Measures" (A research paper for American Education Research Association, San Francisco, 1976).

Sheviakov and Redl maintained that in order to develop highly disciplined youth in the tradition of democracy, we must consistently want to exercise the following:

(1) discipline which recognizes the inherent dignity and rights of every human being, rather than discipline attained through humiliation of the undisciplined.

(2) discipline based on devotion to humanitarian principles and ideals.

(3) discipline to enhance self-direction, self-discipline, rather than discipline based upon unquestioning obedience to a leader.

(4) discipline based on understanding of the goal in view rather than discipline based on taking someone's word for specific appropriate behaviors.[1]

In a similar manner, Cutts contended that methods of discipline, preventative skills, discovery, and removal of the causes of misbehavior, promotes "the efficient functioning of the school and also the happiness and usefulness of the children in the school".[2] The author approached discipline from the standpoint of mental hygiene. She professed that the child should be disciplined when there is a need to put an immediate stop to misbehavior, however, the child should also be studied to see what underlies his misbehavior.

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[1] George V. Sheviakov and Fritz Redl, Discipline for Today's Children and Youth (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1956), p. 78.

[2] Norma E. Cutts, Practical School Discipline and Mental Hygiene (Cambridge, Massachusetts: 1941), p. 5.

Hymes suggested that stable children with basically good relationships at home and at school are better suited to withstand punishment as a form of discipline. However, for the troubled child, punishment can inflict pain in a much deeper level. Hymes further suggested that punishment is an acceptable method of discipline if "complete certainty of the child's trouble is known." Very few of us, maintains the author, are ever this certain.[1]

While most theorists would agree that the establishment and maintenance of good discipline is a skill and like other skills it requires practice, their source of disagreement is inherent in the matter of how discipline is established. Many theorists, like others in the past, hesitate to completely condemn fear or even the use of corporal punishment, reserving it for extenuating circumstances.

Katz in the spirit of Bettelheim, professed that what is wrong with old-fashioned authoritarian education was not that it was based on fear. That is what was right with it. What was wrong was that it disregarded the need to modify fear in a continuous process so that irrational anxiety would consistently give way to more rational motivation.[2]

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[1]James L. Hymes, Jr., Behavior and Misbehavior: A Teacher's Guide to Action (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1955), p. 62.

[2]Bruno Bettelheim, On Motivational Technique and Violence, 1969, in School Reform: Past and Present, ed. by Michael Katz, (Boston: Little Brown and Company, 1971), p. 135.

Wilson viewed the concepts of pain and punishment, not in the context of values which represent good and bad, but instead as a matter of application. He suggested that it is not the pain of punishment which makes it "punishment" any more than it is the pleasure of a reward which is sufficient to make it a "reward."[1]

> When we inflict pain on someone in a way which he regards as unjust or undeserved, he will see this not as punishment but as spite, retaliation or revenge. But even when he sees the pain as a just one, unless it is given for something which he regards as wrong, rather than just illegal or against the authorized rules, he will construe it as a penality and not a punishment.[2]

Colgrove is cited by Moorehouse when he lists the following legitimate negative incentives associated with classes of punishment: (1) reproof, public and private, (2) loss of privilege, (3) restitution in cases of injury to property, (4) detention to perform a neglected task, (5) suspensions, and (6) in extreme cases, corporal punishment and expulsion.[3]

Durkheim expressed that there is in each school a discipline, a system of rewards and punishments . . . . there is also a criminology

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[1] P. S. Wilson, Interest and Discipline in Education (Boston: Routledge, Kegan Paul, 1971), p. 99.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Colgrove, The Teacher and the School, p. 390, in The Discipline of the School, ed. by Frances M. Moorehouse (Boston: D. C. Heath Company, 1914), p. 187.

of the child, as there is a criminology of the adult.[1] Durkheim's implication is apparent and it perhaps reflects the opinion of a large proportion of public school administrators.

Public school administrators, though not comparable to the harsh colonial disciplinarians, are spending increased amounts of time in discipline situations. One study relates that the secondary principal currently spends more time with disciplinary activities than he did at the beginning of the decade of the sixties. In 1961, five percent of the principals in Georgia devoted from 6 to 50 percent of their time to discipline; in 1974, 68 percent of the principals reported that they devoted as much of their time to the same function.[2] Kingston and Gentry report from the same study that methods of discipline most commonly employed by secondary school principals changed noticeably from 1961 to 1974. There was a significant decrease in the employment of "extra lessons" as a disciplinary tool in 1961, however, usage increased greatly by 1974. The frequency of use of "restriction from co-curricular activities" dropped from 63.8 percent in the earlier period to a recent 18.8 percent.[3]

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[1]Emile Durkheim, Education and Sociology (New York: The Free Press, 1956), p. 98.

[2]Albert Kingston and Harold W. Gentry, Discipline Problems: Then and Now (University of Georgia, 1974).

[3]Ibid.

According to Kingston and Gentry, 60 percent of the respondents indicated that corporal punishment was a method of discipline currently employed and almost 25 percent of the respondents reported the use of "expulsion" as a method of discipline. A comparable number indicated the use of "within school suspensions." The researchers concluded that a sharp drop in the use of "notification of parents" as a disciplinary device was of particular interest along with the finding that with the exception of principals, the assistant principals were more frequently involved in the administration of corporal punishment than any other school personnel.[1]

Wattenberg suggested that the mere position of principal is associated with the task of discipline. He maintained that the problems of the administrator tend to revolve around three issues: (1) the development of policy, (2) implementation of that policy, and (3) stance toward violators of that policy.[2]

As a means of reducing the need for external discipline, Thompson et. al., proposed that the problems of discipline should be studied and confronted by all persons concerned, including the students themselves. The fact that one administrator (number may vary in

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[1]Ibid.

[2]William Wattenberg, "To Punish or Not to Punish: The Administrator's Dilemma" (a paper presented to American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C., April, 1975).

large schools) designated as assistant principal in charge of discipline can be responsible for such a complex issue is naive. The researchers hold that consistent, thoughtful, and integrated effort in this area is everyones responsibility.[1]

Finnegan, in a questionnaire, asked citizens, parents, students, teachers, counselors, and principals, to help define student discipline. They were also asked to state concerns regarding student discipline and to provide examples of the issues. The questionnaire asked respondents to list the most important, second most important, and third most important problems regarding discipline. Of the respondents, two hundred and seven administrators ranked and described behavior that seems to create student discipline problems in the following manner.[2]

(1) Attendance	(1) Students and parents do not feel school attendance is important.
(2) Student (poor) attitude	(2) Students fail to accept responsibility for their own education, i.e., failure to complete assignments, lack of self-control and self-direction, poor self-concepts, emotional handicaps, poor attitude demonstrated by truancy and thefts.

[1]Dean Thompson, et. al.,"Discipline and the Educational Rights of the Majority (Eugene, Oregon: OSSC Bulletin, Vol. 18, No. 9, May, 1975.

[2]Harry Finnegan, "Discipline Study of Spokane School District 81 (Washington: Unpublished, April, 1976).

(3) Lack of Respect	(3) Challenge, and defy authority, insubordination, lack of concern for others.
(4) Smoking, Drugs, Alcohol	(4) Parental apathy, parents allow smoking on campus and in lavatories.
(5) Lack of Guidance	(5) Lack of parental guidance, and supervision.
(6) Vandalism and Theft	(6) Defacing school and personal property, locker thefts.
(7) Discipline, Control Suspension	(7) Teachers refuse to handle problems in classrooms and halls, lack of central office support, inconsistent discipline.

Wilson argued that discipline is a kind of compulsion to which it is right that one should have to submit. Punishment, the author held, represents the infliction of a kind of pain which it is right that one should have to suffer, not for breaking the rules of a particular system of control, but for moral wrongdoing.[1] Wilson disclosed that in most theoretical works as well as in actual practice, "the matter of punishment and reward, like that of discipline, has commonly been treated as though it were part and parcel of the business of control." He suggested, however, in schools and other institutions in which there is some mutual agreement on the intrinsic value of attempting to exist in an orderly way, the form of order therein envisaged is a moral, not merely a social one, therefore, in such situations punishment and reward are educative, rather than mere inducements to toe the line.[2]

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[1] P. S. Wilson, Interest and Discipline in Education, (Boston: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1971), pp. 93-94.

[2] Ibid.

The Legalistic Aspects of Discipline
and Punishment Relative to the
School Disciplinarian

The legality of discipline methods used by educators in public schools has gained considerable interest and significance for professionals in the areas of education and law. Formerly, school policies and particularly, practices or methods of discipline, were generally accepted or at least unquestioned. Currently, however, many of the once accepted forms of disciplinarian behavior are the focus of litigation in various courts of law.

One issue under indirect examination is the traditional "in loco parentis" doctrine. One author traces "in loco parentis" as far back as the code of Hammurabi, in the Eighteenth Century B. C., where it was finally imported to this country as a part of the common law.[1] "In loco parentis" received prominence in American schools during the colonial period, where headmasters acted out the staunch Puritanical will of adult clientele upon school children.

Koenings and Ober noted that the first American juvenile court attempted to extend the doctrine of "in loco parentis" in dealing with the problems of juvenile justice. They cited, however, that with the schools of that era, all the good intentions and benevolent ideas soon tended to erode into rules and regulations designed not to benefit the

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[1]Richard Kleeman, _Students Rights and Responsibilities: Courts Force Schools to Change_ (National Schools Public Relations Association, 1972)

child but rather to serve societal demands for regimentation and ex-
pediency.[1] "Power fed on power, and soon the doctrine of 'in loco
parentis' had evolved into an elaborate system of laws that denied
youth even the basic rights guaranteed under our constitution."[2]

The authority employed by schools and other social agencies,
according to Haubrich and Apple, was clearly hierarchical in nature
and centered on the view that the experience and age of adults gave
them a privileged position vis-a-vis children and students.[3]

The doctrine of "in loco parentis" does not license educators
to willfully inflict upon children and youth, harsh and sever punishment.
Many, however, intimidated, frustrated, and over zealous agents of
education resort to these very methods as a means of correcting offend-
ing students. Morris noted District Court Judge William Taylor's
contention that the practice of corporal punishment has been "abused by
some seven thousand teachers in Dallas, Texas alone."[4]

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[1]Sharon L. Koenings and Steven L. Ober, _Legal Precedents in Student Rights Cases_ in _Schooling and the Rights of Children_, ed. by Vernon F. Haubrich and Michael W. Apple (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1975), pp. 132-156.

[2]_Ibid._

[3]Vernon F. Haubrich and Michael W. Apple, _Schooling and the Rights of Children_ (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1975), p. viii.

[3]William M. Taylor, District Judge, _Comment Wars v. Estes_ in _The Constitution and American Education_, ed. by Arval A. Manns (St. Paul, Minnesota: West Publishing Company, 1974), p. 640.

Wherein there exists no doubt regarding the notion that some administrators use immoderate punishment, it becomes questionable whether the concepts underlying the "in loco parentis" doctrine are consciously manipulated by educators. While there exists a tendency in society to affix blame for the shortcomings of education, it might well emphasize that the larger problems which occur in American society are mirrored in the public schools. "Education is warped by the tension between a rapidly changing society and a slowly changing school."[1]

Various proponents of student rights hold that the doctrine of "in loco parentis" and inherent authority are not useful concepts to support the expansion of students legal rights. Holmes further pointed out that by their general nature, such doctrines tend to buttress the authority of school officials and were in fact, designed to serve this function.[2] In the same manner, Kleeman contended that "in loco parentis" should not be abandoned but recognized for its narrowness and unapplicability to student rights.[3]

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[1]Richard D. Kleeman, Student Rights and Responsibilities: Courts Force Schools to Change, (National School Public Relations Association, 1972).

[2] Grace Holmes, Student Protest and the Law ed. by Vernon F. Haubrich and Michael W. Apple (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1975), p. 132.

[3] Kleeman, Op. Cit.

The doctrine of "in loco parentis" and inherent authority of educators received its major challenge in 1837, in the case of State v. Pendergrass. The Supreme Court ruled that:

> The line which separates moderate correction from immoderate punishment can only be ascertained by reference to general principles. The welfare of the child is the main purpose for which pain is permitted to be inflicted. Any punishment, therefore, which may seriously endanger life, limbs, or health, or shall disfigure the child, or cause any other permanent injury, may be pronounced in itself immoderate, as not only being unnecessary for, but inconsistent with, the purpose for which correction is authorized. But any correction, however severe, which produces temporary pain only, and no permanent ill, cannot be so pronounced, since it may have been necessary for the reformation of the child, and does not injuriously affect its future welfare. We hold, therefore, that it may be laid down as a general rule, that teachers exceed the limits of their authority when they cause lasting mischief; but act within the limits of it, when they inflict temporary pain.
>
> When the correction administered is not in itself immoderate, and therefore beyond the authority of the teacher, its legality or illegality must depend entirely, we think, on the quo animo with which it was administered. Within the sphere of his authority, the master is the judge when correction is required, and of the degree of correction necessary; and like all others intrusted with a discretion, he cannot be made penally responsible for error of judgment, but only for wickedness of purpose. . . .
>
> But the master may be punishable when he does not transcent the powers granted, if he grossly abuses them. If he uses his authority as a cover for malice, and under pretense of administering correction, gratifies his own bad passions, the mask of the judge shall be taken off, and he will stand amenable to justice, as an individual not invested with judicial power.[1]

The issues of "in loco parentis" and the associated factors of inherent authority and corporal punishment, received renewed impetus

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[1] State v. Pendergrass, 19 N. C. 365, 31, Am. Dec. 416.

during the middle years of 1960. Koenings cited the Berkeley's Free

Speech Movement as the initial momentum of interest.[1]

In 1890, the Supreme Court of Alabama decided that immod-

erate punishment may in itself constitute evidence of the behavior

being rendered with malice. Similarly, the Texas Supreme Court in

1920 rendered that where the punishment is cruel, with malice --

there can be no legal punishment of a student regardless of how moder-

ate.[2]

In 1969, the Appellate Court of Illinois in the spirit of the

Alabama decision and the Texas rendering, ruled in the plaintiffs favor

when it was decided that the defendant, a teacher, was found guilty of

violating a city ordinance prohibiting fighting.[3]

The case involved a teacher on supervision duty at a high

school football game, and a student who according to the teacher failed

to return to the stands after being ordered to do so. The defendant

admitted striking the student about the head, but denied any usage of

his fist. The court maintained that:

> Granting that a teacher may enforce discipline by
> punishing with a switch or a paddle, we would regard

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[1]Sharon L. Koenings and Steven L. Oper, _Legal Precedents in Student Rights Cases_ ed. by Vernon F. Haubrich and Michael W. Apple (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1975), p. 132.

[2]Boyd v. State, 88 Ala. 169, 750.268, 16 Am. St. Rep. 31.

[3]City of Macomb v. Gould, 104, Ill. App. 2d, 361.244 NG.2d 634.

clubbing over the head as malicious and unreasonable force, but between these two extremes, where is the line to be drawn between what is reasonable and what is malicious? We conclude that under the circumstances as attested by a number of witnesses, there was presented a question of fact to be resolved by the trier of fact, who would also have to consider the credibility of the various witnesses and to decide what facts were actually proved. . . .

While various cases have been served by the courts, showing in instances, support for school officials as well as students, Flowers cited legal principles derived from the court cases. She maintained that the disciplinary behavior of the school administrators should (1) be in conformance with statutory enactments; (2) be for the purpose of correction without malice; (3) not to be cruel or excessive so as to leave permanent marks or injuries; and (4) be suited to the age, sex, and weight of the pupil.[1]

Flowers' principles are general, as to possess applicability and significance for most school administrators. Freeman, however, made note that although nearly all states have statutes relating to discipline in public schools, during the period of 1958 and 1963, five states (California, Nevada, South Dakota, North Carolina, and Virginia) adopted laws "expressly permitting the use of corporal punishment in public schools."[2] Georgia, Michigan and Ohio are other states that

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[1]Ann Flowers and Edward C. Bolmeier, Law and Pupil Control (Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson Company, 1964), p. 9, Sec. 1.4.

[2]Bonnie Cook Freeman, Trends, Conflicts and Implications in Student Rights, ed. by Vernon F. Haubrich and Michael W. Apple (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Company, 1975), p. 169.

acted similarly in the following two years. New Jersey, on the other

hand, is one state by statute to forbid the use of corporal punishment

in all schools. Included with New Jersey is Maryland and Massachu-

setts.[1] The New Jersey Statute states:

> No person employed or engaged in a school or
> educational institution, whether public or private,
> shall inflict or cause to be inflicted, corporal punish-
> ment upon a pupil attending such school or institution.[2]

It is apparent that the initial movement toward student rights

regarding corporal punishment, in relation to state statutes, was

affirmative. The student rights movement received its largest legal

support during the massive civil rights movement. It was at this time

that the courts intervened into the policies of discipline and disciplinary

procedures, namely suspension, of school districts across the nation.

The encompassing ramifications of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 is

perhaps the mainstay of the student rights movement. One provision

of the Civil Rights Act stipulated that federal monetary funds could not

be expended in operations in which violations of the act were evident.

It is generally assumed that many of the disciplinary problems resulting

in corporal punishment or exclusion, are largely associated with social

desegregation. "As a consequence, a disproportionate number of lower

class white as well as minority children are affected."[3]

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[1]Ibid.

[2]New Jersey, Stat. 18 A: 6-1, 1967.

[3]Harvard Educational Review Series 9, "The Rights of Children"
Maria Wright Edelman, Interview, 1974, p. S7.

The issue of the disproportionality of minority students severely disciplined was presented before the U.S. District Court in Dallas, Texas.[1] The suit was brought by black students with the allegation that the student suspension policy (1) denied them equal protection of the law, (2) was enforced in a discriminatory manner, and (3) denied their due process. The court did not find a denial of due process, and did not discuss equal protection, but concluded that "institutional racism" as opposed to "personal racism" was the chief cause of the disproportionate number of black students receiving suspensions and corporal punishment.

Guilliams noted in his study of educators' attitudes concerning rights of students and their relationship to teachers' assessments of students' classroom behaviors, that significant differences in teacher assessment of students classroom behavior for grouping by variables of race, sex, and grade level existed. Guilliams concluded that:

(1) White students were rated significantly higher than black students.

(2) White high school female students rated higher than black high school male students, white junior high male students, and white high school male students.

(3) White junior high female students were rated higher than black junior high male students, white junior high male students, and white high school male students.

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[1]Hawkins v. Coleman, 376 F. Supp. 1330, June, 1974.

(4) Black high school female students were rated higher than black junior high male students.[1]

Similar findings support the notion of differentiation in severity of punishment according to race and gender. In a large urban school district in the Southwest region of the United States during the 1974-1975 school term, one hundred and fifty-eight students (158) received lengthy suspensions (defined as expulsions). Of the total number of students suspended, one hundred and twenty-four (124) were black, while the remaining thirty-four (34) were white. Of the total number of students who were suspended for the same school term, one hundred and twenty-seven (127) were males while the remaining thirty-one (31) were female.[2]

Another study concluded that at the secondary school level, black students were suspended more than three times as often as white students for mainly non-dangerous offenses.[3]

Many states have statutes or an established framework in which school administrators must operate in order to keep within the law relative to corporal punishment, suspension, and expulsion.

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[1]David Guilliams, "Educators Attitudes Concerning Rights of Students and their Relationship to Teacher Assessment of Students' Classroom Behavior" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, 1972).

[2]Oklahoma City Public Schools, High School Lengthy Suspension Summary, 1974-1975.

[3]Washington Research Project, School Suspensions: Are They Helping Children? A Report, Children's Defense Fund (Cambridge, Massachusetts: 1975).

Reutter and Hamilton cited the results of the expulsion in the Gault case of 1967 as the legal opinion established regarding the process of determining punishments, particularly those which may result in the determination of delinquency. The authors expressed that while such extreme penalties are not involved in school situations, "it is possible that certain valuable rights can be taken away in proceedings involving school authorities."[1]

Such was the issue in Ohio when a three judge panel from the United States District Court for the Southern District declared that the appellees were denied due process of law in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment. The court declared that the appellees were "suspended" without a hearing prior to suspension or within reasonable time thereafter.[2]

Edwards discussed the legal remedy for such wrongful exclusion from school by citing the following cases. Holman v. Trustees of School District No. 5, Hobbs v. Germany, Board of Education v. Purse, and Dritt v. Snodgrass.[3] Edwards related the words of the court:

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[1]E. Edmund Reutter, Jr., and Robert R. Hamilton, The Law of Public Education (New York: The Foundation Press, Inc., 1970), p. 617.

[2]Goss, Norval, et.al., v. Lopez, Eileen, et.a., 73-898, (January, 1975).

[3]Newton Edwards, The Courts and the Public Schools (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933), p. 608.

School directors are elected by the people, receive
no compensation for their services, are not always, or
frequently, men who are thoroughly informed as to the
best methods of conducting schools. They are authorized,
and it is their duty, to adopt reasonable rules for the
government and management of the schools, and it would
deter responsibility and suitable men from accepting the
position, if held liable for damages to a pupil expelled
under a rule adopted by them, under the impression that
the welfare of the school demand it, if the courts should
deem it improper. They are to determine what rules are
proper, and who shall say that the rule adopted in this
case was harsh and oppressive? I might think it was;
wiser men would maintain that it was proper and right
that pupils attending social parties are liable to have
their minds drawn off from their studies, and thus to be
retarded in their progress; but whether the rule was a
wise one or not, the directors and teachers are not liable
to an action for damages for enforcing it -- even to the
expulsion of a pupil who violated it.[1]

In a similar manner, Reutter and Hamilton discussed school

officials in Des Moines, Iowa, who seeking to avoid "controversy, "and

"disturbance" sought to prohibit students from wearing black arm

bands as a symbol of protest to the country's involvement in Vietnam.[2]

The Supreme Court, the authors stated, with two dissenting, reversed

and remanded an earlier District court decision on the bases that:

(1) The District Court concluded that the action of the school

authorities was reasonable because it was based upon their fear of a

disturbance from the wearing of the arm bands.

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[1]Dritt v. Snodgrass, 66 Mo. 286, 27 AM. Rep. 343.

[2]E. Edmund Reutter, Jr., and Robert R. Hamilton, The Law
of Public Education (New York: The Foundation Press, Inc., 1970),
p. 536-7.

The Supreme Court reversed the decision because in "our system, undifferentiated fear or apprehension of disturbance is not enough to overcome the right of freedom of expression."

(2) The District Court failed to indicate evidence that the school authorities had reason to anticipate that the wearing of the arm bands would substantially interfere with the work of the school or impinge upon the rights of the other students.

The Supreme Court rendered that,on the contrary, the action of the school authorities appears to have been based upon an urgent wish to avoid controversy.[1]

(3) No record was made in District Court as to the school authorities' lack of prohibition for the wearing of all symbols of political or controversial significance.

The Supreme Court decided that the prohibition of expression of one particular opinion, at least without evidence that it is necessary to avoid material and substantial interference with school work or discipline, is not constitutionally permissible.[2]

In the Wood v. Strickland suit, the Supreme Court handed down a decision concerning the liability of school officials. The Court maintained that it is possible to sustain a position of liability against a

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[1]Ibid.

[2]Ibid.

school official when that official has acted without due regard for the constitutional rights of an individual.[1] The Woods decision has obvious implications for public school administrators, and the execution of their duty as designees of the board of education.[2]

The National Association of Secondary School Principals interprets the decision to mean that school administrators are not charged with predicting the future course of constitutional law. A compensatory damage award will be appropriate only if the school board member has acted with such an inpermissible motivation or with such disregard of the student's clearly established constitutional rights that his action cannot be characterized as being in good faith.[3] The memorandum continued that the liability for damages assigned to board members has previously applied to principals and teachers. The organization concluded that to the extent that the "Woods "decision causes school boards to exercise more caution in the adoption of regulations which principals must administer -- they speculated that it may help keep principals out of court.[4]

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[1]Woods v. Strictland.

[2]Ibid.

[3]National Association of Secondary School Principals, "Student Discipline, Suspension, and Expulsion: A Legal Memorandum" (Washington, D.C.: June, 1975).

[4]Ibid.

Today, many public school administrators reveal a lack of faith in, and uncertainty regarding, their role as disciplinarian. Whiteside believed that on the one hand, proponents of discipline wanted more stringent measures of control, while other groups were urging for greater permissiveness and self-regulation.[1] Whiteside observed that educators, particularly administrators caught in the crossfire, tend to favor the former position, citing a survey conducted by the National Education Association as evidence. Seventy-two percent of the respondents advocate retaining corporal punishment, partly as a way of "self protection" and protection of innocent students from physical injury and property damage, and as a means of maintaining order.[2]

Whiteside further maintained that even though the schools inherit problems which generally originate at home, some remediation can however take place. . . . The chief deterrents are the educators' own cynicism and sense of hopelessness.[3]

Girod held that much of the problem in the administrators' dilemma occurs because the matter of discipline in the public schools

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[1]Marilyn Whiteside, School Discipline: The Ongoing Crises The Clearing House, Vol. 49, No. 4, December, 1975, p. 160.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid., p. 162.

is extremely subjective in nature. "It not only varies from district to district, but very often administrators within a particular building fail to agree with each other." These inconsistencies according to Girod create confusion among the staff, students, parents, and community.[1]

Seitz recognized the importance of community and society expectations, and stated that more important than the personal factors to be considered in a child to be disciplined are the mores of society in vogue.[2] Public school administrators often relate to their respective schools and communities as being unique and "with different problems," i.e., needs and expectations.

Wattenberg, however, cynical and concomitantly realistic, inferred that regardless of the needs and expectations of the community in general, corporal punishment in essence is an assault. "Regardless of whether or not verbal criticism or sarcasm may be psychologically more devastating, the fact is that speech is a protected freedom; assaults, except where specifically sanctioned, are prohibited."[3]

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[1]Daryl Girod, "Administrative Perspective," David Douglass Senior High School, p. 17.

[2]Reynolds C. Seitz, Law and the School Principal (Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson Company, 1961), p. 125.

[3]William W. Wattenberg, "To Punish or Not to Punish: The Administrators' Dilemma," (A paper presented to American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C., April, 1975).

In order to alleviate pressure of a legal nature from the job of administrator involved with discipline, many professional educators suggest that great consideration and re-evaluation be given the essential goals of the secondary public schools.

Holmes maintained that one function that should be dispensed is the function of the moral disciplinarian. Recognizing the essential need of some discipline, to enhance other functions of education, she related that "there has been a tradition which has caused many institutions to go further to pursue moral discipline as a goal in itself."[1]

Haubrich and Apple contended that it is now imperative that the relationships of educator's "new found" authority be reconstructed so that the tasks of education may go forward. They maintained that this reconstruction is mandatory in order to account various issues that must be joined before some resolution and accommodation can be made. The authors cited those issues as being:

(1) The definition of student rights and the classes into which they fall;

(2) The historical process by which the state and courts began to assert a larger interest in the welfare and rights of children;

(3) The sociology and psychology of child growth and development, and the issues related to questions of responsibility, control, and protection;

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[1]Grace W. Holmes, Student Protest and the Law (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The Institute of Continuing Legal Function, 1969), pp. 13-14.

(4) The legal development of children's rights, and the controlling cases that apply to school procedures;

(5) The implications of these movements for school policy, administrative behavior, and teaching procedures.[1]

Summary

Four areas of concentration were focused upon in the review of literature; (1) the psychological aspects of punishment, discipline, and moralization relative to youth and adults, (2) the sociological aspects of punishment, discipline, and moralization relative to the individual and the institution, (3) a historical analysis of methods, attitudes, and theories relative to discipline, and (4) the legalistic aspects of discipline and punishment relative to the public school disciplinarian.

Psychological theories examined in the review of literature appear to divide themselves into two broad, however, not exclusive categories. One category represents the theorem that punishment and discipline are natural consequences or stimuli for certain behavior or responses. Another category is representative of the general view that punishment and discipline are not natural consequences, but only

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[1]Vernon F. Haubrich and Michael W. Apple, Schooling and the Rights of Children (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1975), p. ix.

represent the type of behavior exercised by adults as a means of exhiting their disapproval. The worth of mankind and the motives of human behavior represent points of major differentiation between categories.

It was concluded that the effect of punishment as a useful tool to produce good behavior has never been adequately documented, and there exists some evidence that over an extended period of time, punishment is not effective in stopping undesirable patterns of behavior. Recent studies generally conclude that while punishment may reflect adult values, children's reaction to punishment serves to modify adult disciplinary behavior, and often serves to maintain adult punitiveness. Punishment and discipline were concluded to be desirable when they cause the individual to control his or her conduct for the betterment of society.

Sociological theories examined in the review of literature conclude that while there has existed a general trend in American society to condone punishment and the fear of punishment as a means of public control, the same general prescription has not appeared as applicable to youth. Coercive techniques, it is concluded, merely force children's impulses into preconceived molds of behavior. From the review of literature, it was concluded that severe punishment enhances frustration, and displaced hostility within children and youth. The appearance

of a societal double standard becomes evident in situations of norm violations with the only differentiating variable being that of age.

It was concluded that standards of punishment, discipline, and moralization are affected by several major influences which serve as socialization agencies. Among these are the family, school, public opinion, and the church.

The standards for social behavior, although influenced by various socialization agencies or institutions, are in a constant state of change. It was concluded in the review of literature that while a state of change was constant, the foundation for sound standards of social behavior was found in moral teaching and moralization. Inherent in moralization is the spirit of discipline and the spirit of automony. It was finally concluded that the responsibility of meeting the socialization needs of youth and society, particularly in areas of discipline and moralization, rests with a combined effort from the family, the school, public, and the church.

A historical analysis of methods, attitudes and theories relative to school discipline was examined in the review of literature. It was concluded that students' and educators' status in education has changed significantly since the infant years of American education.

Punishment of children in the initial period of public education reflected the general attitude of the public regarding the "worth" and expectation of youth. Punishment inflicted by adults, particularly

educators, for various reasons, most often was arbitrary and harsh.
It was concluded that the trichotomous relationship of family, school,
and the church was perhaps its strongest during the same period of
time.

Various proponents of children's rights emerged as crusaders
to challenge the near slavish status of children and students. The
literature reviewed gave heavy indication that punishment of children
and students in public education, currently, just as in the early periods
of education, reflects the general attitude of the public regarding the
worth and expectation of youth. Public opinion, however, due to com-
plexity of American society, is difficult to gauge and should not be
relied upon as the sole measurement for school discipline. It was
concluded that in general discipline practices and attitudes of school
administrators had improved significantly through the history of edu-
cation even though they were spending increased time with punishment
and discipline problems.

The legalities surrounding the policies and practices of disci-
pline in public schools were examined in the review of literature. It
was concluded that previously accepted patterns of disciplinarian be-
havior have recently become subject to legal litigation. One major
issue which the courts were involved was the issue of corporal punish-
ment. Many decisions have previously been rendered regarding corporal
punishment. It is concluded, however, that variation within the court

system itself allows for a large degree of uncertainty and insecurity among the active public school disciplinarians. It was concluded that in a manner to alleviate legal pressure as a school administrator functioning as a disciplinarian, a careful re-assessment and re-evaluation of the essential goals of the secondary public schools should be achieved.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

Design of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the relationship of

secondary public school administrators' attitudes toward the civil

and human rights of students and the severity of punishment used by

those administrators. A theoretical analysis was developed relative

to punishment and discipline as they affect individual behavior and as

they are perceived as socialization techniques.

The major concern relative to the design of this study involved

a decision to use a population of secondary school administrators from

suburban and semi-rural school districts. Several reasons were con-

sidered influential in making the decision: (1) Many Oklahoma County

suburban and semi-rural school districts are not presently experienc-

ing direct federal court mandates to change or modify existing school

policy regarding rights of students, discipline, or racial desegregation.

(2) Secondary school administrators of suburban, and semi-rural

schools are exposed to the concepts of student rights, i.e., desegrega-

tion, without the imposed legal compulsion to implement them. (3)

Secondary school administrators of suburban and semi-rural schools

are inclined to exhibit behavior in a manner, when dealing with punishment, which reflects their true attitude and beliefs regarding discipline, control, and students' rights. (4) Secondary school administrators, by virtue of the school's clientele, are deeply involved in areas of civil and human rights as well as directly related to the dispensing of disciplinary measures to students for offensive violations.

This study was designed as a descriptive study, employing an inventory which was administered to secondary school administrators. Data gathered prior to the administration of the inventory was used to measure the punitiveness of punishment of the administrators when dealing with disciplinary situations. The severity of punishment represented the dependent variable.

This study was an ex post facto, causal comparative study in which specific independent variable effects on administrators' severity of punishment were analyzed. The independent variables included in the design were the offense, gender, and race of the student. If significant differences were discovered between the independent variables, it was assumed that such differences were affected in part by the independent variables under examination.

Limitations were established on the population incorporated in the study. For the purposes of this study, the sample was limited to include twenty-nine (29) secondary suburban, and semi-rural schools containing thirty-three (33) administrators who work directly with

discipline. Since the secondary schools in this study were only used as a means of identifying the sample population of administrators in Oklahoma County, no individual analysis or comparison by schools was made a part of this study.

This study was limited further to include those administrators who personally consented to participate in the investigation. While only one school declined to participate, another was eliminated in the final data analysis, due to unpredicted complications.

The Population and Sample

Secondary school administrators associated with the execution of discipline were involved in this study. The sample was drawn from each high school, middle school, and junior high school in Oklahoma County. The student sample consisted of those students receiving disciplinary actions during the designated time for the target administrators.

A sample size of thirty-three (33) secondary administrators is representative of more than fifteen (15) per variable from the total population of sixty-seven (67) administrators in suburban and semi-rural Oklahoma County.

The Instrument

The "Rights of Students Inventory (RSI)" was used to ascertain the attitudes of secondary school administrators toward the civil and human rights of students (Appendix A). Various methods were used by

Guilliams to establish validation and reliability for the Rights of Students Inventory. Content validity was established by the investigator, with the assistance of judges who responded as to representativeness, content, and relevancy of each test item. Guilliams factor analyzed the Rights of Students Inventory to determine the extent to which item variance was related to a set of common factors. The Varimax procedures were used by the investigator to produce thirteen (13) factors or clusters for the forty-four (44) items in the Rights of Students Inventory. Guilliams reported that most items had reasonably high loadings on two or three factors which accounted for approximately sixty (60) percent of common or shared variance for each item.

In the reliability procedures for the Rights of Students Inventory, Guilliams used the "Varimax" computer printout to help determine which items were stronger discriminators among individuals. Those items which failed to account for seventy (70) percent of the maximum variance were rejected. Variances for the individual items and the total variance were obtained and substituted into the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR-20) to obtain an estimated reliability coefficient of $r_{tt} = 0.8414$. Guilliams applied from his study known variables of factor loadings (h^2) and reliability coefficients (r_{tt}) to the Kerlinger formula of total variance.[1]

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[1] David Guilliams, "Educators Attitudes Concerning Rights of Students and Their Relationship to Teacher Assessment of Student's Classroom Behavior" (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1972).

Scoring of the Rights of Students
Inventory

The RSI contained forty-four (44) items to be considered with a five (5) choice, Likert-type response scale. Guilliams compensated for an apparent positive suggestion factor in the statement content of thirteen (13) items which were identified by asterisks. Guilliams designed a computer program which inversed the values of the asterisked items in order to maintain an additive measurement value. The highest obtainable score for the RSI was two-hundred and twenty (220) which represented a high regard for student's rights. The lowest obtainable score was forty-four (44) which suggested a low regard for the rights of students.

Procedure of the Study

An ordered sequential procedure was followed in the process of executing the study. An initial conference was held with the Superintendent of each target school district in order to obtain permission to conduct the investigation. Once permission was obtained, a second conference was held with the building principals and assistant principals to obtain their personal participation, and to explain the details of their involvement. A third conference was held to distribute the data collection instrument (Appendix B), and to answer further questions regarding it. After the designated four-week period of time, a fourth conference was held in an effort to obtain the completed data.

Each administrator was issued the Rights of Students Inventory during the fourth conference along with a self-addressed stamped envelope for its return to the researcher. After the data collection and issuance of the Rights of Students Inventory, a letter of appreciation was mailed to each superintendent, principal, and assistant principal (Appendix F).

Statistical Procedures

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed to determine any existing relationship between the attitude of the secondary school administrators toward the students' civil and human rights as measured by the Rights of Students Inventory and the punitive score of the administrator.

A 2 (male, female) x 2 (minority, white) x 4 (violation of classroom norms, ethical violations, verbal abuse, physical violence) analysis of variance was used to test for relationships and interaction effects of gender, race, offense, to the punishment score of the students with the punishment score serving as the dependent variable.

A Kirk Test for simple main effects was used to identify sources of significance of interaction between independent variables of gender, race, and offense. The level of significance for all interpretations was at the Alpha level of $\alpha = .05$.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS
OF THE DATA

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate two specific areas: the relationship of administrators' attitudes toward the civil and human rights of their students to the severity of punitive measures used by those administrators; and the relationships of punishment used to the race, gender, and type of offense of the students. The following hypotheses were tested:

HO$_1$: There is no significant relationship between the attitudes of secondary administrators regarding civil and human rights as measured by the Rights of Students Inventory, and the punitiveness of the administrator as measured by the severity of punishment exerted relative to the severity of the student offense.

HO$_2$: There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators to the gender of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

HO$_3$: There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

HO$_4$: There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators and the severity of the offense.

HO_5: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender, and the race of the student involved.

HO_6: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of the student involved, and the severity of the offense.

HO_7: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the student involved, and the severity of the offense.

HO_8: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender and the race of the student, and the severity of the offense.

Analysis of the Data

HO_1: There is no significant relationship between the attitudes of secondary administrators regarding civil and human rights as measured by the Rights of Students Inventory, and the punitiveness of the administrator as measured by the severity of punishment exerted relative to the severity of the student offense.

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation was computed to show the relationship between the administrator's attitude toward civil and human rights of students and the punitive score of that administrator. Data used is shown in Appendix C. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 1, and a scatter plot of the data in Figure 1.

TABLE 1

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATION
OF ADMINISTRATORS' ATTITUDE SCORES
AND PUNITIVE SCORES

	Mean	Standard Deviation	r
Attitude	124.19	12.89	
Punitiveness	- .23	3.33	-.18

$\alpha = .05$ Critical value of r with 31 df = .339.
Fail to reject HO_1

HO_2: There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

HO_3: There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators and the race of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

HO_4: There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators and the severity of the offense.

HO_5: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender, and the race of the student involved.

HO_6: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of the student involved, and the severity of the offense.
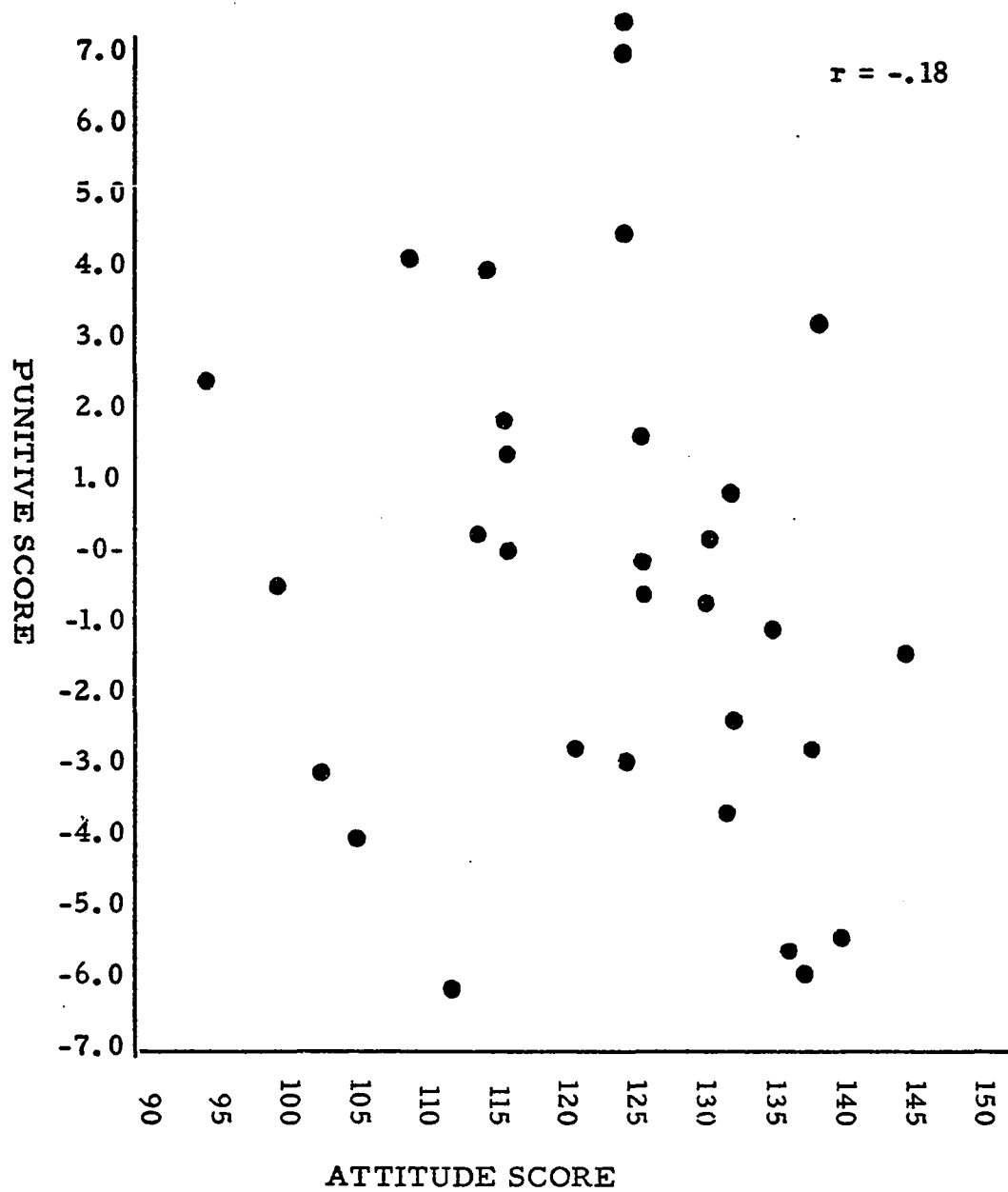
Figure 1. Scatter plot of punitive scores and
attitude scores of administrators.

HO$_7$: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the student involved, and the severity of the offense.

HO$_8$: There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender and the race of the student, and the severity of the offense.

Hypotheses 2 through 8 were tested by means of a 2 x 2 x 4 analysis of variance. Computation was done with a computer program, OU MANOVA, which is equipped to handle unequal cell sizes. The punishment administered to each student was the dependent variable. Attribute variables were gender, race, and type of offense. Data used for this analysis is shown in Appendix D. Means and standard deviations of pupil punishments by race, gender, and type of offense are shown in Table 2. The analysis of variance data with significant effects and interactions is shown in Table 3.

A Kirk test for simple main effects was used to identify sources of significance as shown in Table 4. A graph of the interaction is shown in Figure 2.

Since interaction effects were present, the significance of race, gender, and offense separately were of no importance. The interaction was significant between race and gender and between gender and offense.

TABLE 2

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS BY RACE,
GENDER, AND OFFENSE

Race	Gender	Offense	N	Mean	SD
Minority	Male	1	30	13.000	4.842
Minority	Male	2	10	11.500	5.297
Minority	Male	3	9	13.889	5.297
Minority	Male	4	14	11.071	6.257
Minority	Female	1	22	16.818	4.239
Minority	Female	2	3	20.000	0.000
Minority	Female	3	21	17.857	5.379
Minority	Female	4	1	10.000	0.000
Caucasian	Male	1	120	15.458	4.537
Caucasian	Male	2	124	13.185	5.074
Caucasian	Male	3	64	13.594	6.073
Caucasian	Male	4	135	10.444	5.581
Caucasian	Female	1	31	12.581	3.128
Caucasian	Female	2	62	14.919	4.388
Caucasian	Female	3	25	15.000	5.304
Caucasian	Female	4	24	11.458	5.985

TABLE 3

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE OF MAIN EFFECTS AND INTERACTION
EFFECTS OF PUPIL RACE, PUPIL GENDER, AND PUPIL
OFFENSES ON PUNISHMENT ADMINISTERED

Source	df	SS	MS	F	
Within Cells	679	17891.574	26.350		
Race	1	162.125	162.125	6.153	0.013*
Gender	1	356.094	356.094	13.514	0.001*
Offense	3	1637.680	545.893	20.717	0.001*
Race/Gender	1	288.224	288.224	10.938	0.001*
Race/Offense	3	70.241	23.414	0.889	0.447
Gender/Offense	3	331.139	110.380	4.189	0.006*
Race/Gender/Offense	3	103.429	34.476	1.308	0.271

Reject HO_2 Reject HO_5 α = .05
Reject HO_3 Reject HO_6
Reject HO_4 Fail to reject HO_7
Fail to reject HO_8

TABLE 4

KIRK TEST OF SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Race, Male, Offense 1	1	2.22	2.22	.08
Race, Male, Offense 2	1	10.08	10.08	.38
Race, Male, Offense 3	1	13.95	13.95	.53
Race, Male, Offense 4	1	6.45	6.45	.24
Race, Female, Offense 1	1	1.66	1.66	.06
Race, Female, Offense 2	1	118.16	118.16	4.48 *
Race, Female, Offense 3	1	.71	.71	.03
Race, Female, Offense 4	1	87.05	87.05	3.30
Gender, Minority, Offense 1	1	1.39	1.39	.05
Gender, Minority, Offense 2	1	70.24	70.24	2.67
Gender, Minority, Offense 3	1	3.02	3.02	.11
Gender, Minority, Offense 4	1	79.15	79.15	3.00
Gender, Caucasian, Offense 1	1	1.89	1.89	.07
Gender, Caucasian, Offense 2	1	.74	.74	.03
Gender, Caucasian, Offense 3	1	2.70	2.70	.10
Gender, Caucasian, Offense 4	1	3.26	3.26	.12
Offense, Minority, Male	3	10.21	3.40	.13
Offense, Minority, Female	3	172.99	57.66	2.19
Offense, Caucasian, Male	3	.83	.28	.01
Offense, Caucasian, Female	3	2.67	.89	.03

Offense 1 = 20 (least severe)　　　　　α = .05
Offense 2 = 15
Offense 3 = 10
Offense 4 = 5 (most severe)

Critical value of F

　　1/679 df = 3.85
　　3/679 df = 2.61
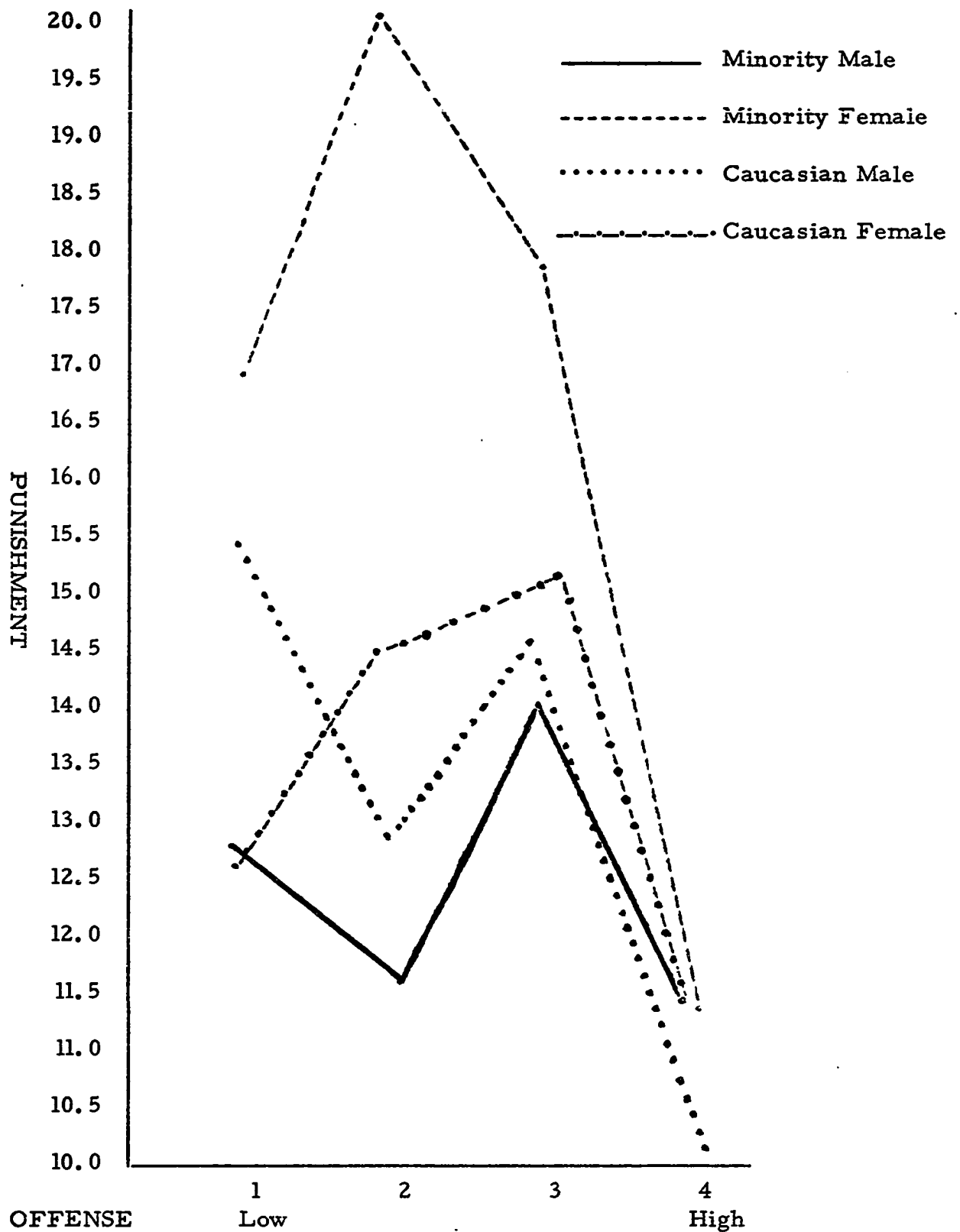
Figure 2. Graph of Interaction of Gender, Race, and
Type of Offense on Punishment Administered.

According to the Kirk test of simple main effects, the cell responsible for the interaction significance was race for females at offense 2 (ethical violations -- stealing, lying, forgery). Minority females were not as severely punished for offenses of this type as other groups, and were significantly different than Caucasian females. Four other cells, although not significant, approached significance. There was a difference in females at offense 4 with minority females being punished more severely than Caucasian females for offenses involving physical violence.

There was also a difference in minority males and females at offense 2 (ethical violations) with males being punished more severely than females. There was a difference in minority males and females at offense 4 also (physical violence) with females receiving the most severe punishment. The offense made a difference for minority females, but made no difference in other groups.

Although these latter four cells did not appear on the Kirk test to be significant, they were different enough from the other cells to warrant mention.

Table 5 shows more clearly the punitive measures of the various categories as percentages of lenient, fair, and punitive punishments administered to each group.

Caucasian females received the most fair treatment in relation to the offenses committed, while minority males received the most

punitive treatment. Minority females were treated "leniently" more than any other group. The treatment of Caucasian males was more equally divided between lenient, fair, and punitive treatment.

TABLE 5

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS RECEIVING
LENIENT, FAIR, AND PUNITIVE
DISCIPLINARY TREATMENT BY
RACE AND GENDER

	Minority		Caucasian	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
Lenient	24%	48%	36%	31%
Fair	22%	23%	30%	42%
Punitive	53%	29%	35%	27%

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The problem of the investigation was to determine relationships between the discipline practices of secondary public school administrators and their attitudes toward civil and human rights of students. Discipline practices used when dealing with general school policy violations, which would not involve the permanent expulsion of the offending student, were of particular interest in this investigation. The students' severity of offense, gender, and race were factors to be focused upon when determining the severity of punishment assessed by the middle school, junior high school, or high school administrators.

The investigation was designed to test the following hypotheses:

HO_1 There is no significant relationship between the attitudes of secondary administrators regarding civil and human rights as measured by the Rights of Students Inventory, and the punitiveness of the administrator as measured by the severity of punishment exerted relative to the severity of the student offense.

HO_2 There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

HO_3 There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

HO$_4$ There is no significant difference in the severity of punish-
ment exerted by administrators and the severity of the
offense.

HO$_5$ There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of
punishment exerted by administrators, the gender, and
the race of the student involved.

HO$_6$ There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of
punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of
the student involved, and the severity of offense.

HO$_7$ There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of
punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the
student involved, and the severity of the offense.

HO$_8$ There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of
punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender and
race of the student, and the severity of the offense.

In an effort to test the hypotheses, the following procedures

were employed in the investigation.

A review of related literature examined in Chapter II, revealed

several pertinent areas of previous research relating to discipline prac-

tices: (1) Psychological theories of discipline, moralization, and

punishment relative to children and adults; (2) Sociological theories of

punishment, discipline, and moralization relative to individuals and

institutions; (3) A historical analysis of methods, attitudes, and theories

relative to school discipline; and (4) The legalistic aspects of discipline

and punishment relative to the school disciplinarian. The review of

literature further revealed the Rights of Students Inventory as an effec-

tive instrument for the collection of appropriate statistical data.

The Rights of Students Inventory, developed by Guilliams, was adequate for this study in that it obtained an estimated reliability coefficient of 0.8414 when applied to the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR-20).[1]

Content validity was established by Guilliams with the assistance of judges who responded as to representativeness, content, and relevancy of each test item.[2]

The Referral Listing Form was also used as a data collection instrument developed by this researcher as a means for notation of relevant data regarding individual discipline situations and practices of school administrators.

Twenty-nine secondary suburban and semi-rural schools in Oklahoma County were included in the investigation. A sample was drawn for each school to include those administrators who personally consented to participate in the study. Thirty-one of forty administrators (91%), who worked directly with discipline, assisted in the investigation.

A total of ninety-seven visits were made to the respective schools and school district buildings. On the third visit to each school, the inventory was distributed to the administrator.

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[1]David Guilliams, "Educators Attitudes Concerning Rights of Students and their Relationship to Teacher Assessment of Students' Classroom Behavior," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1972).

[2]Ibid.

The subsequent data were tabulated and recorded for statistical use after the receipt of 99 percent of the distributed inventory forms.

Findings

The data analysis and statistical treatment revealed findings that are presented as follows:

> HO_1 There is no significant relationship between the attitudes of secondary administrators regarding civil and human rights as measured by the Rights of Students Inventory, and the punitiveness of the administrator as measured by the severity of punishment exerted relative to the severity of the student offense.

Findings support the hypothesis that there was no significant relationship between the attitudes of secondary administrators regarding civil and human rights as measured by the Rights of Students Inventory, and the punitiveness of the administrator as measured by the severity of punishment exerted. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to measure correlation between the variables of administrators attitudes, and administrators punitiveness. The results of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation showed that there was no significant difference at the .05 level, while reporting correlation to be -.18. Hypothesis 1, therefore, failed to be rejected.

> HO_2 There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

It was indicated that there was a significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of the student involved. A multiple analysis of variance revealed an F value of 13.514 for the variables of gender and administrators severity of punishment which was significant at the .05 level. Hypothesis 2 was therefore <u>rejected</u>.

HO$_3$ There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the student involved for offenses of equal severity.

Findings implied that there was a significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the student involved for offenses of equal severity. A multiple analysis of variance revealed an F value of 6.153 at .013 alpha which exceeds the significance at the .05 level. Hypothesis 3 was therefore <u>rejected.</u>

HO$_4$ There is no significant difference in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators and the severity of the offense.

It was indicated that significant differences in the severity of punishment exerted by administrators and the severity of offense do exist. A multiple analysis of variance revealed an F value of 20.717, .001 alpha which also exceeds the designated level of .05. Hypothesis 4 was <u>rejected.</u>

HO$_5$ There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender and the race of the student involved.

Statistical findings did not support hypothesis 5 as stated, that there is a significant interaction effect between independent variables of gender and race as to the severity of punishment exerted by administrators. The multiple analysis of variance revealed an F value of 10.938, alpha .001, which exceeds the predicted .05 level of significance. Hypothesis 5 was therefore <u>rejected.</u>

> HO_6 There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender of the student involved and the severity of the offense.

It was further indicated that there is a significant interaction effect between the independent variables of gender and offense as to the severity of punishment exerted by administrators. The multiple analysis of variance revealed an F value of 4.189 at p .006 which exceeds the designated .05 level of significance. Subsequently, hypothesis 6 was <u>rejected.</u>

> HO_7 There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the race of the student involved, and the severity of the offense.

It was also revealed that there is no significant interaction effect between the severity of punishment exerted by administrators, the race of the student and the severity of the offense. The multiple analysis of variance indicated an F value of 0.889. Hypothesis 7, therefore, <u>failed to be rejected</u> at the .05 level of significance.

HO_8 There is no significant interaction effect of the severity of punishment exerted by administrators as to the gender and race of the student, and the severity of the offense.

It was finally indicated that no significant interaction effect exists between variables of severity of punishment exerted by administrators and the gender, and race of the student involved and the severity of the offense. The multiple analysis of variance indicated an F value of 1.308 p = 271. Hypothesis 8 failed to be rejected at the .05 level of significance.

Other Findings

Tests revealed that the sources of interaction involving minority females at offense 2 was composed of a total cell size of 3 students, and minority females at offense 4 was composed of a total cell size of 1 (See Table 2). While the scores from these cells approached significance, the lack of more numbers in each cell hindered related interpretations.

Interpretations were also hindered in the target schools (1) where the administrator and a very large percentage of students were both of minority status. The large minority student population enhanced a large percentage of minority students to be disciplined.

Conclusions

Based upon the findings of this study, several conclusions were formed within the framework and limitations of this investigation. It was concluded that since secondary school administrators are not

consistent in matching the severity of punishment to the severity of the students' offense, personal scrutiny should be exercised by secondary administrators into their discipline practices and related attitudes. It was concluded that since gender is a significant determining factor in the severity of punishment exerted by secondary school administrators toward students who commit severe offenses, strong consideration and current legal interpretation should be given toward Title IX legislation relative to discipline practices.

It was concluded that since race is a significant determining factor in the severity of punishment exerted by secondary school administrators toward students who commit severe offenses, possible affirmative actions may need to be taken to eliminate discriminatory practices.

While no definite conclusion was drawn regarding the leniency exerted to minority females by secondary school administrators for the less severe offenses, inference was made; e.g., many secondary school administrators overcompensate in being "fair" when punishing minority females for less severe offenses.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are submitted based on the findings of this investigation, conclusions previously stated, and

related needs of the area of discipline and school administration.

(1) It is recommended that additional investigation be incorporated to more accurately assess the relationship and correlation between the t reatment of gender and race as to the severity score of the administration.

(2) It is recommended that further investigation be conducted where cell size of students is more controlled as not to bias interaction effects.

(3) It is recommended that further study be incorporated to control for the attribute variables of race, age, sex, and years of experience of the secondary administrators.

(4) It is recommended that secondary school administrators review individual discipline records of their respective schools in order to assess possible patterns of racial and sexual indifference and discrimination.

(5) It is recommended that conscious efforts be exerted by secondary administrators to become cognizant of personal attitudes of teachers and staff, specific school policy, etc., that might perpetuate a high percentage of minority student violations which result in severe punishment.

(6) It is recommended that if practices of corporal punishment exist, they should be consistent with state and district policies,

and non-prohibited to specific gender or races.

(7) It is recommended that extensive orientation training be experienced by neophyte administrators into the psychological and emotional aspects of punishment as well as those recommended or approved methods of discipline.

(8) It is finally recommended that present secondary administrators develop within their repertoire of discipline behaviors for policy offenses, a wider range of non-punitive forms of approach.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

RIGHTS OF STUDENTS INVENTORY

Current Issues Confronting Public Schools

During the past decade, students of public schools have repeatedly challenged many rules and regulations governing student conduct. The authority of teachers, principals, and other school officials has been tested in local, state, and federal courts. Court rulines have been inconsistent, and as a result, the conflict between the basic issues of authority and rights has not been resolved.

This instrument was designed to help survey educators' attitudes concerning these basic issues.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA
(Circle appropriate areas)

RACE:	Black	White	Other
SEX:	Male	Female	
POSITION:	Teacher-Principal	Assistant Principal	
	Administrative Assistant	Principal	
YEARS EXPERIENCE:	0 1 2 3-5 5-10 More than 10		
LEVEL:	Junior High	Middle School	High School
SIZE OF DISTRICT:	Under 500	500-1,000	1,000-5,000
	5,000-10,000	Over 10,000	
SIZE OF SCHOOL:	Under 250	250-500	500-1,500

INSTRUCTIONS

After reading each item, circle the number in each column which best describes your personal feeling concerning the statement. Please respond to each item.

Strongly Agree	5
Generally Agree	4
Undecided	3
Generally Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1

1. Public schools do not have strong enough discipline policies to control adequately student conduct.　　5 4 3 2 1

2. Students have the right to distribute newspapers and other literature on school property without prior approval from school officials.　　5 4 3 2 1

3. The degree to which individual rights are respected and protected in schools is an indicator of quality education.　　5 4 3 2 1

4. Students have a good understanding of the basic principles associated with the democratic process.　　5 4 3 2 1

5. Parents have the right to inspect their child's "full" school record at any time during school hours.　　5 4 3 2 1

6. Teachers and principals always consider students innocent of wrong doings until guilt is clearly established.　　5 4 3 2 1

7. The amount of student dissent in public schools is directly related to the denial of their basic human rights.　　5 4 3 2 1

8. School officials have the right to deny the operation of underground newspapers.　　5 4 3 2 1

9. Students should be given only those rights which they can handle responsibly.　　5 4 3 2 1

10. Students have a right to choose what is appropriate grooming for school.　　5 4 3 2 1

Strongly Agree 5
Generally Agree 4
Undecided 3
Generally Disagree 2
Strongly Disagree 1

11. Censorship of students' written materials (news-   5 4 3 2 1
    papers, pamphlets, etc.), is a right of school
    officials.

12. Students have a right to wear arm bands and symbols   5 4 3 2 1
    of protest in public schools.

13. Parents and other interested citizens have a right   5 4 3 2 1
    to inspect group statistical records.

14. Students have a right to abstain from testifying   5 4 3 2 1
    against themselves or other persons.

15. Students have the right to choose their teacher when   5 4 3 2 1
    more than one teacher is assigned to a specific class.

16. Public education provides an equal opportunity for   5 4 3 2 1
    all students, regardless of socioeconomic level,
    ethnic background, or academic ability.

17. Students have the right to conduct peaceable demon-   5 4 3 2 1
    strations on school property.

18. Students respect the rights and authority of teachers   5 4 3 2 1
    and school officials.

19. Married students have the right to participate in all   5 4 3 2 1
    organized classroom and school supported extra
    activities (sports, drama, etc.).

20. School officials have the right to inspect students'   5 4 3 2 1
    lockers without student consent.

21. Public education operates as a functional model of   5 4 3 2 1
    the democratic process.

22. Students are denied their rights when textbooks and   5 4 3 2 1
    other published materials are void of contributions
    made by members of the minority groups.

Strongly Agree   5
Generally Agree   4
Undecided   3
Generally Disagree   2
Strongly Disagree   1

23. Students respect the rights of other students.   5 4 3 2 1

24. Students must have the right to share in developing   5 4 3 2 1
    most governing policies of their schools.

25. Compulsory attendance may be a denial of students'   5 4 3 2 1
    rights.

26. Teachers have the right to lower students' academic   5 4 3 2 1
    grades for discipline reasons.

27. Public schools should abolish all dress codes.   5 4 3 2 1

28. Students have the right to petition against existing   5 4 3 2 1
    school policies or practices.

29. It is necessary to deny some individual rights to   5 4 3 2 1
    support the majority rule concept.

30. Students are denied many of their basic human rights   5 4 3 2 1
    and civil rights in most educational institutions.

31. Teachers support and defend the rights of all students.   5 4 3 2 1

32. Students have a right to actively campaign against   5 4 3 2 1
    school policies or other political issues.

33. Unwed pregnant female students have the right to   5 4 3 2 1
    attend their regular schools.

34. Students have the right to refrain from participating   5 4 3 2 1
    in the Flag Salute and the Pledge of Allegiance.

35. Dissent and violence in any institution or society is   5 4 3 2 1
    directly related to the denial of individual, civil,
    and basic human rights.

36. The denial of students' rights in public education   5 4 3 2 1
    can be attributed to the fact that the democratic pro-
    cess is often cumbersome, time consuming, and
    disruptive.

Strongly Agree
Generally Agree
Undecided
Generally Disagree
Strongly Disagree

37. Students have a right to share in many actual deci-   5 4 3 2 1
    sion making processes of public education (curricu-
    lum, selection of materials, and teachers).

38. The State Department of Education should require   5 4 3 2 1
    public school officials to develop needed regulations
    and policies which respect and protect basic student
    rights.

39. Students have a right to a formal hearing with their   5 4 3 2 1
    parents and/or legal counsel before expulsion from
    school.

40. Punishment of an entire class is permissable under   5 4 3 2 1
    certain circumstances.

41. Militant students should not be permitted to attend   5 4 3 2 1
    public schools.

42. Students have a right to know and to challenge the   5 4 3 2 1
    accuracy or retention of records kept in school
    files.

43. Students should have the right to be a member of any   5 4 3 2 1
    school sponsored extracurricular activity regardless
    of grades, regularity of attendance or marital status.

44. Student and student organizations should have the   5 4 3 2 1
    right to invite and hear any person to speak.

APPENDIX B

REFERRAL LISTING FORM

REFERRAL LISTING FORM

Student	Grade	Sex	Racial Origin					Offense	Administrative Action
Identification Number (If available)		M F	B	W	NA	SpA	O		

RACIAL ORIGIN: B - Black; W - White; NA - Native American; SpA - Spanish American; O - Other

APPENDIX C

DATA/ PEARSON PRODUCT
MOMENT CORRELATION

APPENDIX C

DATA USED IN COMPUTING PEARSON R
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

Punitive Score	Student Rights Score	Student Rights Coded Score (-90)
-6.11	112	22
-5.75	138	48
-5.55	137	47
-5.28	140	50
-4.00	107	17
-3.14	133	43
-3.00	102	12
-2.89	139	49
-2.60	124	34
-2.50	121	31
-1.93	134	44
-1.10	146	56
-0.63	98	8
-0.94	137	47
-0.56	131	41
-0.28	126	36
-0.19	126	36
0	132	42
.06	114	24
.94	113	23
1.19	134	44
1.28	117	27
1.67	127	37
1.94	116	26
2.75	96	6
3.05	138	48
4.00	115	25
4.17	109	19
4.23	133	43
6.39	124	34
6.67	123	33

APPENDIX D

DATA/ MULTIPLE ANALYSIS
OF VARIANCE

APPENDIX D

DATA USED IN COMPUTING OU MANOVA

Race	Gender	Offense	Punishment	N	Race	Gender	Offense	Punishment	N
Minority	Male	1	1	7	Caucasian	Male	1	1	52
Minority	Male	1	2	7	Caucasian	Male	1	2	30
Minority	Male	1	3	13	Caucasian	Male	1	3	35
Minority	Male	1	4	3	Caucasian	Male	1	4	3
Minority	Male	2	1	2	Caucasian	Male	2	1	34
Minority	Male	2	2	1	Caucasian	Male	2	2	26
Minority	Male	2	3	5	Caucasian	Male	2	3	49
Minority	Male	2	4	2	Caucasian	Male	2	4	15
Minority	Male	3	1	5	Caucasian	Male	3	1	27
Minority	Male	3	2	0	Caucasian	Male	3	2	5
Minority	Male	3	3	1	Caucasian	Male	3	3	19
Minority	Male	3	4	3	Caucasian	Male	3	4	13
Minority	Male	4	1	4	Caucasian	Male	4	1	26
Minority	Male	4	2	0	Caucasian	Male	4	2	12
Minority	Male	4	3	5	Caucasian	Male	4	3	45
Minority	Male	4	4	5	Caucasian	Male	4	4	23
Minority	Female	1	1	12	Caucasian	Female	1	1	30
Minority	Female	1	2	7	Caucasian	Female	1	2	18
Minority	Female	1	3	2	Caucasian	Female	1	3	11
Minority	Female	1	4	1	Caucasian	Female	1	4	2
Minority	Female	2	1	3	Caucasian	Female	2	1	18
Minority	Female	2	2	0	Caucasian	Female	2	2	30
Minority	Female	2	3	0	Caucasian	Female	2	3	9
Minority	Female	2	4	0	Caucasian	Female	2	4	5
Minority	Female	3	1	18	Caucasian	Female	3	1	11
Minority	Female	3	2	0	Caucasian	Female	3	2	5
Minority	Female	3	3	0	Caucasian	Female	3	3	7
Minority	Female	3	4	3	Caucasian	Female	3	4	2
Minority	Female	4	1	0	Caucasian	Female	4	1	6
Minority	Female	4	2	0	Caucasian	Female	4	2	3
Minority	Female	4	3	1	Caucasian	Female	4	3	7
Minority	Female	4	4	0	Caucasian	Female	4	4	8

APPENDIX E

LIST OF JUDGES

Mr. Kenneth Arinwine
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. Glenn Bowman
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Dr. Sally Cole
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. George Chapman
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Dr. Harold Crain
Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. Robin Gaston
Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. Washington Jones
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mrs. Peggy Kennedy
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. William Langwell
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. Ted Lewis
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. Joe Madlock
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. Harold Meridith
Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Dr. Betty Pate
Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. Ron Poole
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. John Sadberry
Director of High Schools
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. Jimmy Scales
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mr. Jim Tomlinson
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Mrs. Dorothy Tucker
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

Dr. Mack Wedel
Professor of Education
Central State University
Edmond, Oklahoma

Mr. Herman Williams
Assistant Principal
Oklahoma City Public Schools

APPENDIX F

CORRESPONDENCE RELATING TO STUDY

Route 2, Box 8211
Jones, Oklahoma 73049

March 7, 1977

Dear Superintendent:

     This letter is written as a means of conveying my greatest thanks to you for your assistance and understanding relative to my current doctoral research project.

     At the present, I have made personal contact with each building principal in your district and have found their interest and participation to be most valuable.

     Again, my appreciation is extended to you and your staff for the precious time and personal energy given to help complete this research study.

                        Respectfully,

                        LEON EDD

Route 2, Box 8211 .
Jones, Oklahoma 73049

March 14, 1977

Dear Principals:

I write this letter as a means of representing my gratitude
and appreciation for your willing assistance and involvement in my
current doctoral research project.

It was pleasurable to visit your building and to interact with
you and your administrative staff. Your assistance with the referral
forms and return of the survey has great value and enhances the
research project.

If an opportunity to complete the survey has not been had,
your immediate response will be sincerely appreciated.

Thanks again for both your time and interest.

Respectfully,

LEON EDD

DISCIPLINE PRACTICES OF SECONDARY
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN RELATION
TO THEIR ATTITUDES REGARDING
RIGHTS OF STUDENTS

BY

LEON EDD

MAJOR PROFESSOR GERALD KIDD Ed. D

The investigation was centered around the problem of determining if there were relationships between the discipline practices of secondary public school administrators and their attitudes toward civil and human rights of students. Discipline practices used when dealing with general school policy violations, which would not involve the permanent expulsion of the offending student, were of particular interest in this study.

Eight (8) hypotheses, concerned with the severity of discipline measures (dependent variable) used by secondary school administrators were posed for testing. Factors of student's gender, race, and offense, were related independent variables in the study. A sample size of thirty-three (33) secondary school administrators was used from a total population of sixty-seven (67) in suburban and semi-rural Oklahoma County. Each administrator recorded factors of gender, race, offense, and disciplinary action exerted for each referral over a designated period of time.

Data obtained were de-coded and scored to create a disciplinary action score for each administrator. The disciplinary action score was compared to a second score earned by the secondary school administrators which represented their attitudes regarding civil and human rights of students as measured by The Rights of Students Inventory (David Guilliams 1972). A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, Multiple Analysis of Variance, and Kirk Test of Simple Main Effects were employed in the statistical procedures.

Data analysis indicated that secondary school administrators were not consistent in matching punishment to the severity of the offense. It was indicated that race and gender were significant determining factors in the severity of punishment exerted by secondary school administrators. It becomes necessary to re-examine policies, attitudes, etc. that tend to enhance discriminatory inconsistencies.