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The Relationship Between Teacher Pupil Control Ideology and Elementary Student Attitudes in Navajo Schools

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by

John W. Tippeconnic III

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Date of Approval:

April 18, 1975

Donald J. Willower
Donald J. Willower
Professor of Education
Co-Chairman of Committee
Thesis Co-Advisor

April 18, 1975

Patrick D. Lynch
Patrick D. Lynch
Professor of Education
Co-Chairman of Committee
Thesis Co-Advisor

April 18, 1975

Edwin L. Herr
Edwin L. Herr
Acting Director, Division of
Education Policy Studies

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Purpose of the Study

This study viewed the school as a social system with emphasis on the teacher-student relationship. In particular the purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between the pupil control ideology of teachers and student attitudes toward school, classmates and teachers in selected federal boarding schools and state public schools in the southwestern United States. These relationships were examined within each of the school type categories and a comparative analysis was made between the school types.

Background and Rationale

Control is a concept that can be applied to all organizations. It is especially important in service organizations that deal directly with people. Carlson indicated that schools, mental hospitals, reform schools and prisons are service organizations that have no choice in the selection of clients and where clients have no choice concerning their participation.[1] Such organizations must work with clientele who may see little or no value in the services offered by the organization. As a result, control of unselected clients becomes of prime importance to these organizations.

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[1]Richard O. Carlson, "Environmental Constraints and Organizational Consequences: The Public School and Its Clients," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, ed. Daniel E. Griffiths (Chicago: Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society For The Study of Education, Part II, The University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 266.

Waller stated that schools are organized on the authority principle and authority is constantly threatened by members of the school community, including students.[1] The dominance-subordination relationship between teachers and students results in hostility and conflicts that can never be removed.[2]

Coleman, in studying schools as social systems, found that conflicts between the student subculture and teacher subculture exist because of differing norms, values, sanctions and mores.[3] In schools, authority is on the side of the teacher who may employ discipline and control measures that constrain students.

Evidence that supported the contention that client control is of utmost importance in schools was found by Willower and Jones in their field study of a junior high school. They concluded that pupil control served as an "integrative theme" that could be utilized to understand social behavior in public school organizations.[4]

Willower hypothesized that "the employment of external controls by teachers will be inversely related to the extent to which

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[1]Willard Waller, The Sociology of Teaching, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1932), pp. 10-11.

[2]Ibid., pp. 195-196.

[3]James S. Coleman, The Adolescent Society (New York: The Free Press, 1961), pp. 285-287.

[4]Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones, "Control in an Educational Organization," Studying Teaching, ed. James D. Raths, et al. (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), p. 425.

school is preceived as attractive by pupils." External control was defined as the use of sanctions that are punitive in nature and utilize such devices as coercion, ridicule and withholding of rewards.[1]

External controls may create a "snowball effect," which means that the school experience is made less attractive for students by teachers, which increases student dissatisfaction with school, which leads to greater emphasis on external controls, and so on.[2]

The consequences of such a situation can be substantial. Willower contended that the replacement of instructional goals with classroom discipline might be one result, thus, making control an end in itself.[3] Dewey noted that a good disciplinarian may gain attention by coercion, but does so at the expense of undesirable after effects as far as the student is concerned.[4]

Attitudes are not innate, they are learned and imply a relationship between a person and object or situation. Sorenson[5] and Havighurst[6] agree that attitudes are learned as a result of a satisfying or frustrating experience associated with a given object or situation. This pleasant or unpleasant experience can take place in the student-

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[1]Donald J. Willower, "Hypotheses on the School as a Social System," Educational Administration Quarterly, I (Autumn, 1965), pp. 42-43.

[2]Ibid., p. 43.

[3]Ibid. pp. 43-44.

[4]John Dewey, Interest and Effort in Education (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913), p. 9.

[5]Herbert Sorenson, Psychology in Education (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1964), p. 351.

[6]Robert J. Havighurst, Developmental Task and Education (New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1965), p. 27.

teacher relationship, resulting in a dissatisfying attitude toward the school experience. Tenenbaum, in his study of elementary schools, concludes that the teacher is an important determinant of childrens' attitudes toward school. Children who disliked school mentioned the teacher as the cause of dislike more frequently than any other factor.[1]

Definition of Terms

Pupil Control - refers to the process utilized by teachers to establish and maintain order in the teacher-student relationship.

Pupil Control Ideology (PCI) - refers to educator orientations toward pupil control. PCI is conceptualized as a continuum of control ideology ranging from "custodialism" to "humanism," and is operationally defined in terms of scores on the Pupil Control Ideology Form.

> The rigidly traditional school serves as a model for the custodial orientation. This kind of organization provides a highly controlled setting concerned primarily with the maintenance of order. Students are stereotyped in terms of their appearance, behavior, and parents' social status. They are perceived as irresponsible and undisciplined persons who must be controlled through punitive sanctions. Teachers do not attempt to understand student behavior, but, instead, view it in moralistic terms. Misbehavior is taken as a personal affront. Relationships with students are maintained on as impersonal a basis as possible. Pessimism and watchful mistrust imbue the custodial viewpoint. Teachers holding a custodial orientation conceive of the school as an autocratic organization with rigidly maintained distinctions between the status of teachers and that of pupils: Both are expected to accept the decisions of teachers without question. Teachers and students alike feel responsible for their actions only to the extent that orders are carried out to the letter.

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[1] Samuel Tenenbaum, "Attitudes of Elementary School Children to School, Teachers and Classmates," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXVIII (April, 1944), p. 137.

> The model of the humanistic orientation is the school conceived of as an educational community in which members learn through interaction and experience. Students' learning and behavior is viewed in psychological and sociological terms rather than moralistic terms. Learning is looked upon as an engagement in worthwhile activity rather than the passive absorption of facts. The withdrawn student is seen as a problem equal to that of the overactive, troublesome one. The humanistic teacher is optimistic that, through close personal relationships with pupils and the positive aspects of friendship and respect, students will be self-disciplining rather than disciplined. A humanistic orientation leads teachers to desire a democratic classroom climate with its attendant flexibility in status and rules, open channels of two-way communication, and increased student self-determination. Teachers and pupils alike are willing to act upon their own volition and to accept responsibility for their actions.[1]

Student Attitude - that score obtained by students after administration of the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test. A high score indicates the student has a favorable attitude toward his school, his teachers, and his classmates. A low score represents an unfavorable attitude.[2]

Elementary School - refers to a school that includes grades kindergarten through eight.

Public School - a school that is part of the state system, controlled and operated by a local district.

Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) - the Federal agency, within the Department of the Interior, responsible for the education of approximately 56,000 Indian children.

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[1]Donald J. Willower, Terry L. Eidell, and Wayne K. Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology (University Park, Pa.: Penn State Studies No. 24, 1973) pp. 5-6.

[2]Samuel Tenenbaum, "A Test to Measure a Child's Attitude Toward School, Teachers, and Classmates," Educational Administration and Supervision, XXVI (March, 1940), pp. 176-188.

Federal Boarding School - a school, with grades kindergarten through eighth, controlled, operated and funded by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Students are on campus 24 hours a day.

Nature and Setting of the Study

The sample in this study was primarily Native American students and their teachers in public and federal boarding schools located on the Navajo Indian Reservation in the southwestern United States. A brief history of Indian education is presented below to provide the reader a greater appreciation of its problems.

Brief History of Indian Education

Formal Indian education began in the sixteenth century when missionaries accompanied early explorers and colonists to the New World. Education was used as a venicle to spread Christianity and to transmit the European culture and civilization.[1]

Mission School System

In 1568, the first Indian school, to educate Florida Indians, was established by the Jesuits in Havana, Cuba.[2] From this early

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[1]Lehman L. Brightman, "An Historical Overview of Indian Education with Evaluations and Recommendations," History and Background of Indian Education, ed. Vine Deloria (Tsaile, Arizona: Navajo Community College, 1974), p. 20.

[2]U. S., Department of Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Office of Education Programs, Statistics Concerning Indian Education, ending fiscal year 1973 (Lawrence, Kansas: Haskell Indian Junior College Publication Service, 1973), p. 1.

beginning, mission schools dominated formal Indian education for the next 300 years.[1]

The Federal Government became involved in Indian education during the treaty period (1778-1870) when approximately 400 treaties were signed with Indian nations. Many treaties contained provisions for the education of Indians.[2] Modest financial support for Indian education began in 1819 when Congress appropriated $10,000 for the education of Indians. The funds were granted to mission schools, allowing them to expand their educational programs.[3] Federal subsidies to religious groups ended in 1917.[4]

Two important concepts developed out of the mission system. First, education was viewed as a mechanism for "civilizing" the Indian. Second, the boarding school concept was developed.[5]

The relationship between the Federal Government and the Indian Tribes deteriorated during the Civil War. Following the war, humanitarian groups and a Congressional Report in 1868 were instrumental in the call to reform the deplorable conditions faced by the Indian. A great

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[1]U. S., Congress, Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, Indian Education: A National Tragedy - A National Challenge, S. Rept. 1969, 91st Cong., 1st sess., 1969, Special Subcommittee on Indian Education, p. 10.

[2]Ibid., p. 11.

[3]Brewton Berry, The Education of American Indians: A Survey of the Literature, prepared for the Special Subcommittee on Indian Education, U. S. Senate (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1969), p. 10.

[4]Ibid., p. 11.

[5]Robert A. Roessel, Jr., Handbook for Indian Education, (Los Angeles: Amerindian Publishing Co., 1960), p. 5.

concern for the welfare of Indian people arose. The result was twofold: (1) increased Federal Government responsibility for Indian education, and (2) the development of the off-reservation boarding school.[1]

Federal Government School System

In 1870 Congress appropriated $100,000 for the operation of Federal industrial schools.[2] The Bureau of Indian Affairs began to organize its own educational system, which was exemplified by the establishment in 1879 of Carlisle Indian School, Carlisle, Pennsylvania. Carlisle, the first off-reservation boarding school exclusively for Indians, was based on the philosophy of removing students from their home environment and placing them in a work and study industrial arts program in a strict militaristic setting.[3] The off-reservation boarding school was to dominate the approaches to Indian education for the next fifty years.[4]

In 1928 the Meriam Report, a comprehensive survey of the social and economic condition of the American Indian, called for changes in Indian education.[5] The report emphasized Indian involvement in their own affairs, proposed upgrading the quality of education, and stressed the importance of Indian home and family structure. The survey was

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[1]Berry, The Education of American Indians: A Survey of the Literature, pp. 10-11.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Ibid.

[5]Lewis Meriam, et al., Problems of Indian Administration, (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1928), p. 32.

critical of boarding schools and recommended that Indian students stay home with their families and attend Federal day schools or public schools.[1]

The impact of the Meriam Report was substantial. Congress passed the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934, which provided the impetus for the Federal Government to institute programs in bilingual education, adult basic education, and Indian culture, and to recruit and train Indian teachers. From 1933 to 1943 there was an increase of 84 day schools and a decrease of 16 boarding schools. The student enrollment shifted from three-fourths in boarding schools in 1933 to two-thirds in day schools in 1943.[2]

Public School System

Prior to the Citizenship Act of 1924 the Federal Government was responsible for the education of Indians. Most Indians were not citizens and did not have the right to attend state supported public schools.[3] Soon after passage of the act the policy of the Bureau of Indian Affairs became one of encouraging Indian children to attend public schools.

In 1934 the Johnson-O'Malley Act was passed to induce states to accept Indian students in public school systems. The act, as amended,

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[1] U. S., Congress, Indian Education: A National Tragedy - A National Challenge, pp. 153-154.

[2] Ibid., p. 13.

[3] Daniel M. Rosenfelt, "Indian Schools and Community Control," Stanford Law Review, XXV (April, 1973), p. 496.

authorized the Bureau of Indian Affairs to contract with states, thus, providing federal money to educate Indian children in public schools.[1]

Additional federal subsidy to public schools was provided in 1950 when two "Impact Aid" laws furnished funds for (1) general operating expenses, and (2) school construction.[2] Today, over two-thirds of all Indian students are enrolled in public schools.[3]

Termination

Innovative programs in Indian education came to a halt during World War II when Congress decreased appropriations for Indian programs. In 1944, a House Committee on Indian Affairs recommended a return to pre-Meriam policies.[4] Federal day schools were criticized for adapting education to the Indian and reservation way of life.[5]

Termination of Federal services, including education, to the Indian tribes became the government policy during the 1950's. Indian children were placed in public schools as rapidly as possible and the forced assimilation approach was reestablished in Federal schools. Off-reservation boarding schools became a "dumping ground" for many Indian students who had failed or had been failed by public schools.[6]

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[1]U. S., Congress, Indian Education: A National Tragedy - A National Challenge, pp. 38-39.

[2]Rosenfelt, Stanford Law Review, pp. 497-499.

[3]U. S., Congress, Indian Education: A National Tragedy - A National Challenge, p. 39.

[4]Ibid., p. 13.

[5]Estelle Fuchs and Robert J. Havighurst, To Live on This Earth: American Indian Education (New York: Anchor Press, 1973), p. 13.

[6]U. S., Congress, Indian Education: A National Tragedy - A National Challenge, p. 161.

Federal schools were closed in Idaho, Michigan, Washington and Wisconsin.[1] The termination period was brought to a partial halt in 1958 when the Secretary of Interior announced that termination would not be applied to any Indian tribe without its consent.[2] However, the issue of termination carried over into the 1960's.

The 1960's and 1970's

Indian tribes were suspicious of the motives behind new government policies and programs during this period. During 1961 three documents appeared which tried to formulate a new course of action that would reverse and reject the termination policy. A Fund for the Republic Report was publsihed in January, 1961 by the Commission on Rights, Liberties and Responsibilities of the American Indians. It dealt primarily with the injustices of termination and the paternalistic attitudes and practices of the Bureau of Indian Affairs.[3]

The second document, a "Declaration of Indian Purpose" was formulated in June, 1961 by 420 Indian leaders representing 67 different Indian tribes. Again, rejection of the termination policy was a major issue. In addition, a reorganization of the Bureau of Indian Affairs and greater Indian participation in their own affairs were recommended.[4]

The final 1961 report was a study conducted on the status of Indian Affairs by the Kennedy Administration. The Task Force, headed

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[1] Ibid., p. 163.

[2] Ibid., p. 14.

[3] Ibid., pp. 166-168.

[4] Ibid., pp. 168-170.

by Secretary of the Interior Udall, recommended that the Bureau of Indian Affairs shift its emphasis from termination to economic development on Indian reservations. The report called for a wide range of new activities and practices in Indian education, e.g., increased funds for scholarships and Indian parent participation in the formation of school programs.[1]

The three reports were relatively ineffective in their effort to establish a future direction in Indian education because they were too preoccupied with the rejection of the termination policy.[2]

In 1965 Congress passed two important pieces of legislation which had implications for Indian affairs; the Economic Opportunity Act (EOA) and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). The EOA gave Indians an opportunity to participate in and control their own affairs. Upward Bound, Job Corps, Head Start, VISTA and Community Action Programs all had significant Indian involvement. The Office of Economic Opportunity was instrumental in the establishment of Rough Rock Demonstration School on the Navajo Reservation in 1966. The school, controlled and operated by the Navajos, has become a symbol of Indian participation in an innovation that has shaped a new policy in Indian education.[3]

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[1] Ibid., pp. 170-172.

[2] Ibid., p. 173.

[3] Ibid., pp. 177-178.

The ESEA, through Title I, provided Federal funds for supplemental educational services to poor and educationally deprived Indian students.[1]

A comprehensive report on Indian education was released in 1969 by the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare. The committee was critical of the Federal and public school educational programs and policies. The major recommendation called for maximum Indian participation and control by Indians in establishing Indian education programs.[2]

Presidents Johnson (1968) and Nixon (1970) delivered key administrative Indian policy statements which emphasized Indian self-determination, making it possible for Indian tribes to contract with the Federal Government for funds to operate their own schools.[3] One such effort, Navajo Community College, opened its doors in 1969 to over 300 Indian students. Navajo Community College, totally operated and controlled by the Navajo people, has been a model in the development of an Indian Community College system which brings higher educational opportunities to Indian communities.

The call for greater authority and responsibility for Indian education by Indians was reiterated in 1970 by a National

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[1]NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund, Inc., An Even Chance (Annandale, Virginia: Graphics 4, 1971), p. 27.

[2]U. S., Congress, Indian Education: A National Tragedy - A National Challenge, p. 106.

[3]Fuchs and Havighurst, To Live on This Earth: American Indian Education, pp. 17-22.

Study of American Indian Education. The report recommended that Federal and state governments establish policies and practices that provide for Indian control.[1]

The Indian Education Act of 1972 provided Federal assistance to local educational agencies that enroll Indian children. Funds were provided (1) to finance programs that meet special educational needs of Indian children, (2) to encourage innovative programs, and (3) to establish adult education programs. The act required Indian participation in the planning, development, operation and evaluation of programs.[2]

A dominant theme throughout the history of Indian education has been the failure of formal education for American Indians. The vacillating policies of civilization, assimilation and Indian participation have been complex and confusing, and Indian tribes have been watchful and wary of Federal and state government actions.[3]

Current Status of Indian Education

During the 1972-73 school year there were 187,613 Indian children, ages 5 to 18 years, enrolled in public, Federal, mission

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[1]Robert J. Havighurst, "The Education of Indian Children and Youth," National Study of American Indian Education, Series IV, No. 6 (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1970), p. 30.

[2]National Advisory Council on Indian Education. First Annual Report to the Congress of the United States from the National Advisory Council on Indian Education, Part II (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1974), pp. 443-454.

[3]Fuchs and Havighurst, To Live on This Earth: American Indian Education, p. 22.

or private schools. Table 1 indicates the number of students in each school system.[1]

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF INDIAN STUDENTS, AGES 5-18, IN EACH TYPE OF SCHOOL SYSTEM 1972-73

Type of School	Number Enrolled	Per Cent of Total
Federal	48,010	25.6
Public	128,545	68.5
Mission/Private	11,058	5.9
Total	187,613	100.0

Mission schools continue to decline in number and enrollment. The National Study of American Indian Education found that 68 mission schools, operated by nine Christian denominations enrolled approximately 9,000 students in 1968.[2]

In recent years contract schools have appeared in the field of Indian education. These schools are contracted to tribal organizations and controlled by local Indian community groups or tribes. Financial assistance comes from the Bureau of Indian Affairs, U. S.

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[1] U. S., Department of Interior, Statistics Concerning Indian Education, p. 6.

[2] Herbert A. Aurbach, Estelle Fuchs and Gordon McGregor, The Status of American Indian Education, an Interim Report for the National Study of American Indian Education (University Park, Pa.: The Pennsylvania State University, 1970), p. 41.

Office of Education and private foundations.[1] In 1973, the Bureau of Indian Affairs reported that 2,299 students were enrolled in 12 contract schools.[2]

As previously indicated, the public schools now assume a great deal of responsibility for educating Indian children. Over two-thirds of all Indian children are attending public schools today.[3]

In 1973 the Bureau of Indian Affairs operated 195 Federal schools with an enrollment of 51,180 students. An additional 3,871 students were housed in Federal dormitories while attending public schools. Of the 195 schools, 76 were boarding schools and 119 were day schools.[4]

The schools included in this study are all within the confines of the Navajo Reservation located in northeastern Arizona, northwestern New Mexico and southeastern Utah. A map of the reservation can be found in Appendix A.

The Navajo School System

In 1973, 30 public schools, 21 mission schools, 4 contract schools[5] and 67 Federal schools were involved in the education of

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[1]Aurbach, Fuchs and McGregor, The Status of American Indian Education, p. 45.

[2]U. S., Department of Interior, Statistics Concerning Indian Education, p. 40.

[3]Ibid., p. 1.

[4]Ibid.

[5]The Navajo Division of Education, Strengthening Navajo Education, (Albuquerque, New Mexico: Modern Printing Co., 1973), pp. 46-48.

51,227 Navajo students, ages 5 to 18, living on or near the Navajo Reservation.[1]

An overview of the student enrollment in the different school systems on the Navajo Reservation is provided in Table 2.[2]

TABLE 2

STUDENT ENROLLMENT IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS
ON THE NAVAJO RESERVATION
1972-73

Type of School	Number Enrolled	Per Cent of Total
Federal	19,546	38.2
Public	28,569	55.7
Mission/Contract	3,112	6.1
Total	51,227	100.0

The 67 Federal schools included 48 boarding schools, 10 day schools and 9 dormitories for children who attend public schools.[3]

The official policy of the Bureau of Indian Affairs in the Navajo Area is that, if possible, school age children should stay home with their parents and attend a public school or Federal school on a day basis.[4]

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[1] U. S., Department of Interior, Statistics Concerning Indian Education, pp. 8-24.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] U. S., Department of Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Navajo Area Office, School Enrollment Guidelines, 1970-71 School Year (Window Rock, Arizona: Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1971), p. 2.

Public Schools

The six public schools included in this study are located in larger communities on the Navajo Reservation where employment opportunities are available in Federal, state and Tribal enterprises. The schools are operated by either the state of New Mexico or the state of Arizona and are subsidized by Federal funds to provide educational programs for Indian children.

Local Indian involvement in school affairs is often minimal. However, this is rapidly changing as more Indians are employed in administrative positions in the schools and as more local Indians are elected to school boards. The curriculum rarely includes courses that recognize Indian culture, history or language. The standard coursework emphasizes the American way of life.

The student body is predominately Navajo. It is not uncommon to find a class of students that is 95 percent Navajo. Bureau of Indian Affairs policy states that a child can attend a day (public) school if he lives within one and one-half miles of a school bus route and the bus ride to school is no more than one hour each way.[1] As a result, many children find it impossible to participate in after school activities. Teachers and administrators are for the most part non-Indians who have little understanding of the Navajo way of life.

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[1]U. S., Congress, Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, Field Investigation and Research Reports, S. Rept. 1969, 91st Cong., 1st sess. Vol. II, 1969, Special Subcommittee on Indian Education, p. 58.

Federal Boarding Schools

Seven elementary boarding schools were sampled in this survey. Three of the schools are located in the same communities as three of the public schools included in the sample. The four other boarding schools are located in remote areas of the reservation.

The schools are entirely financed and administered by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Grades kindergarten through eight are found in the schools; the seventh and eighth grades are departmentalized. There is little parental or community participation in school activities. An advisory board exists for each school, however, they appear to be dominated by the school administration. Havighurst found that most Navajo parents knew very little about the schools.[1]

The curriculum is often irrelevant and does not allow for the students lack of language skills in English.[2] The teachers are young and lack training in working with Navajos. Only 11.6 percent of 771 teachers are of Indian descent.[3] Teachers enjoy civil service status, which makes it virtually impossible to deal with incompetent job performance. Instead, many teachers abuse civil service security and exert a minimum effort to become interested and involved in the concerns of the student, school and community.[4]

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[1]Havighurst, National Study of American Indian Education, Series IV, No. 6, p. 16.

[2]U. S., Congress, Field Investigation and Research Reports, pp. 89-90.

[3]Ibid., pp. 85-86.

[4]U. S., Congress, Indian Education: A National Tragedy - A National Challenge, p. 66.

Boarding schools are what Goffman calls "total institutions."[1] Students, starting at age five, are on campus twenty four hours a day, seven days a week, nine months a year. The schools emphasize discipline and punishment in a sterile, impersonal and rigid environment.[2] Individuals are treated alike and daily activities are tightly scheduled. Parents are allowed to check out children if the student's conduct warrants it.[3]

Dormitory Living

Students spend a great deal of time in the dormitories where there is little or no privacy and regimentation is severe. Small children have no adult to whom they can relate and with whom they can share problems or accomplishments.[4]

Most of the students attending boarding schools come from a radius of 25 miles from the school,[5] although it is common to find students over 70 miles from home.

The following description of the students at one Navajo boarding school is representative of the students in this study:

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[1]Erving Goffman, "The Characteristics of Total Institutions," Complex Organizations, A Sociological Reader, ed. Amitai Etzioni (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1962), pp. 312-313.

[2]U. S., Congress, Indian Education: A National Tragedy - A National Challenge, p. 64.

[3]Ibid., p. 68.

[4]Havighurst, National Study of American Indian Education, Series IV, No. 6, p. 12.

[5]U. S., Congress, Field Investigation and Research Reports, p. 55.

> In both cultural and socioeconomic terms the students represent a fairly homogenuous traditional group. Students differ most from those in other schools in that practically all use Navajo as their home language and many know little or no English when first attending. Few have been off the reservation for exposure to non-Indian ways. Most students have had more formal education than their parents, are more conversant than their parents with non-Indian ways and are increasingly independent in that their elders often depend upon them for reading letters and translating in most contacts with the non-Indian world.[1]

The Hypothesis

The following hypothesis will be tested to determine the relationship between the pupil control ideology of teachers and student attitudes toward school:

> There will be a positive relationship between the degree of teacher humanism in pupil control ideology and the degree of favorable student attitude toward school, classmates and teachers.

In addition, the design of the study allows for the analyses listed below:

1. Separate tests of the major hypothesis for public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools.

2. Analysis of the significance of the difference of this relationship for the two types of schools.

3. Comparison of the pupil control ideology of teachers in public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools and comparison of the pupil control ideology of Indian and non-Indian teachers.

4. Comparison of the attitudes of public school students and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students.

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[1]Fuchs and Havighurst, To Live on This Earth: American Indian Education, p. 46.

Limitations

This study was concerned with the relationship between the pupil control ideology of teachers and student attitudes toward school. It was not the intent of the study to determine a cause-and-effect relationship. The sample in this study was limited to students and teachers in selected schools on the Navajo Reservation; thus, the findings should not be generalized to other populations.

Summary

Chapter I included the purpose of the study and a brief history of Indian education as background information. The hypothesis guiding the investigation, definition of terms, and limitations of the study were also presented. Chapter II will review related literature and present a theoretical framework.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature related to pupil control and student attitudes. First, the two concepts are treated separately, then the conceptualization, development and use of the Pupil Control Ideology Form is presented, followed by a review of student attitude studies. Finally, the conceptual framework relating the two concepts and the hypothesis is presented.

Pupil Control

Viewing the school as a service organization implies a social relationship between the clients and the organization. Carlson, in developing a typology of service organizations, suggested a way to conceptualize the relationship of clients to an organization. Schools are termed "domesticated" organizations, domesticated in that schools are protected by society, assuring their existence. In such organizations the client has no choice regarding participation in the activities of the organization and the organization has no control in the selection of the clients.[1]

State mental hospitals, reform schools, and prisons, like schools, are classified as domesticated organizations. However, caution should be used when comparing schools with other organizations within this group because state mental hospitals, reform schools, and

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[1]Carlson, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, p. 266.

prisons are total institutions and schools are not.[1] Greater emphasis is placed on coercive controls in total institutions than in schools.[2]

Bidwell, when discussing the organizational character of schools, made three basic assumptions concerning the school as a formal organization:

1. School systems are client-serving organizations vested with the moral and technical socialization of the young.

2. School systems are to some degree bureaucratic. They display at least in rudimentary form a functional division of labor, definition of staff roles, heirarchic ordering of offices and an operation according to rules of procedure.

3. The role structure of a school system contains a fundamental dichotomy between student and staff roles.[3]

The inability of the school to be selective in student recruitment creates problems in the client-organization relationship. Adaptive measures are developed by the organization to minimize and control disruptive factors.[4] Pupil Control[5] becomes of foremost importance and is influential in the adaptive mechanisms utilized.

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[1]Erving Goffman, Asylums (Garden City, N. J.: Doubleday and Co., 1961), pp. 3-124.

[2]Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: The Free Press, 1961), pp. 3-66.

[3]Charles E. Bidwell, "The School as A Formal Organization," Handbook of Organizations, ed. James G. March (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1965), pp. 973-974.

[4]Carlson, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, pp. 268-273.

[5]Pupil control is a form of social control adapted to schools. Social control refers to the process by which social order is established and maintained. See Paul H. Landis, Social Control (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1956), p. 4.

In fact, pupil control can become such a central theme in schools that normative educational goals can become displaced.[1] Blau and Scott state that when organizations are threatened by a hostile environment, organizational goals will be displaced by efforts to establish and maintain defense mechanisms.[2]

Pupil control has been described as an "institutional theme," a "dominant motif" in schools.[3] Silberman concluded that the preoccupation with order and control is the most important characteristic schools have in common.[4] The importance of pupil control is exemplified by a recent poll on education which concluded that discipline was the major problem confronting schools in 1974.[5] According to Gordon, the duty of a teacher is to maintain order both as a condition for learning and because it symbolizes competence. Disorder is associated with incompetence.[6] In studies of other service organizations it was

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[1]Goal displacement is a process whereby adherence to rules, originally conceived as means, becomes converted into an end-in-itself. See Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1968), p. 253.

[2]Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1962), p. 231.

[3]Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones, "When Pupil Control Becomes an Institutional Theme," Phi Delta Kappan, XLV (November, 1963), pp. 107-109. Also see Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones, "Control in an Educational Organization," Studying Teaching, ed. James D. Raths, et al. (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall Inc., 1967), pp. 424-428.

[4]Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 122.

[5]George H. Gallup, "Sixth Annual Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education," Phi Delta Kappan, LVI (September, 1974), pp. 20-32.

[6]C. Wayne Gordon, "The Role of the Teacher in the Social Structure of the High School," The Journal of Educational Sociology, XXIX (September, 1955), p. 24.

determined that control problems are a central feature in prisons[1] and mental hospitals.[2]

As Bidwell suggested, the role structure of a school contains a fundamental division between student roles and staff roles.[3] The autocratic nature of the school results in a dominant-subordinate relationship between the teacher and student.[4] Discipline and order becomes a major concern because:

> Teacher and pupil confront each other in the school with an original conflict of desires, and however much that conflict may be reduced in amount, or however much it may be hidden, it still remains.[5]

Waller studied the school as a social system and observed that teachers and students entered into periods of confrontation. As a result, distinct student and teacher subcultures become apparent in the schools.[6] Gordon presented evidence that conflict was a result of differences in teacher and student expectations in the classroom.[7]

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[1]Donald R. Cressey, "Prison Organizations," Handbook of Organizations, ed. James G. March (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1965), pp. 1023-1070.

[2]Charles Perrow, "Hospitals: Technology, Structure and Goals," Handbook of Organizations, ed. James G. March (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1965), pp. 910-971.

[3]Bidwell, Handbook of Organizations, pp. 973-974.

[4]Waller, The Sociology of Teaching, pp. 195-196.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Ibid.

[7]C. Wayne Gordon, The Social System of the High School, (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957).

Coleman found that the student subculture placed emphasis on extra-curricula activities, thus, deflecting students from academic goals.[1]

Becker indicates that conflict is always present in the teacher-student relationship because teachers attempt to maintain control against the students' efforts to break control measures.[2] Gordon[3] and Eddy[4] pointed out that the grading of students is an important control mechanism employed by teachers.

Pupil Control Ideology

Willower and Jones, in an observational and interview study of a junior high school, found that pupil control was the dominant theme in the school culture.[5] This generated a number of researchable hypotheses concerned with the problem of pupil control in schools.[6]

To operationalize pupil control ideology, a 20 item instrument called the Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI Form) was developed.[7]

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[1]James S. Coleman, The Adolescent Society, pp. 11-57.

[2]Howard S. Becker, "Social-Class Variations in the Teacher-Pupil Relationship," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXV (April, 1952), pp. 451-465.

[3]Gordon, The Social System of the High School.

[4]Elizabeth M. Eddy, Walk the White Line: A Profile of Urban Education (New York: Praeger, 1967).

[5]Willower and Jones, Phi Delta Kappan, p. 107.

[6]Donald J. Willower, Educational Administration Quarterly, pp. 40-51.

[7]Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, pp. 10-14. Also see Terry L. Eidell, "The Development and Test of a Measure of the Pupil Control Ideology of Public School Professional Staff Members," Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1965.

Prototypes of humanistic and custodial orientations toward pupil control were adapted from a study conducted by Gilbert and Levinson of control ideology of mental hospital staff members concerning patients.[1] The model for custodial orientation is the rigidly traditional school. The humanistic orientation is found in an educational community in which members learn through interaction and experience.[2]

Since the development of the PCI Form numerous studies have been conducted that examine the relationship of pupil control orientation to social system phenomena occurring in schools. Willower, Eidell and Hoy related pupil control ideology and organizational role position in schools. The results indicated principals are more humanistic than teachers, while counselors are more humanistic than either teachers or principals.[3] Further comparisons showed elementary teachers and principals were more humanistic than secondary ones; and more experienced teachers were less humanistic than teachers with five or less years of experience.[4] Female teachers had a more humanistic pupil control orientation than their male counterparts.[5] Later

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[1]Doris C. Gilbert and Daniel J. Levinson, "'Custodialism' and 'Humanism' in Mental Hospital Structure and in Staff Ideology," The Patient and the Mental Hospital, ed. Milton Greenblatt, et al. (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957), pp. 20-34.

[2]Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, pp. 5-6.

[3]Ibid., p. 19. Also see Donald J. Willower, Wayne K. Hoy and Terry L. Eidell, "The Counselor and the School as a Social Organization," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XXXXVI (November, 1967), pp. 228-233.

[4]Ibid., pp. 20-21.

[5]Ibid., pp. 30-31.

studies by Warrell,[1] Budzik,[2] Williams[3] and Appleberry and Hoy[4] support the findings of Willower, Eidell and Hoy.

The relationship between pupil control ideology and dogmatism was also investigated by Willower, Eidell and Hoy. Closed minded teachers and principals were found to be more custodial than their open minded counterparts.[5] Williams[6] and Heinman[7] also found that dogmatism and custodialism in pupil control ideology were significantly related.

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) was utilized by Appleberry and Hoy to determine that humanistic

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[1]Christopher J. Warrell, "The Relationship of Organizational Patterns and Pupil Control Ideology of Teachers in Selected Junior and Senior High Schools." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1969.

[2]Jerome M. Budzik, "The Relationship Between Teachers' Ideology of Pupil Control and Their Perception of Administrative Control Style." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1971.

[3]Melvin Williams, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Public School Personnel and its Relationship to Specified Personal and Situational Variables." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, 1972.

[4]James B. Appleberry and Wayne K. Hoy, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Professional Personnel in 'Open' and 'Closed' Elementary Schools," Educational Administration Quarterly, V (Fall, 1969), pp. 74-85.

[5]Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, pp. 21-23.

[6]Williams, "The Pupil Control Ideology of Public School Personnel and its Relationship to Specified Personal and Situational Variables."

[7]Ralph J. Heinman, "Relationships Among Selected Values, Levels of Dogmatism, and Pupil Control Ideologies of High School Principals." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University, 1971.

elementary schools were significantly more "open" than custodial schools.[1] Keefe[2] and Waldman[3] found the same relationship existed in junior high and secondary schools respectively.

Jones reported that secondary teachers in schools characterized by high dimensions of authority and punishment centered bureaucratic style were more custodial in pupil control ideology than teachers in schools with low authority and representative style.[4]

Gossen investigated the relationship between socio-economic status of elementary schools and pupil control ideology of teachers. Teachers in low socio-economic status schools were more custodial in pupil control ideology than teachers in middle or high socio-economic status schools.[5] Andrews measured the socio-economic status of the community in terms of census information on education, occupation and housing. It was found that the lower the socio-economic status of the

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[1]Wayne K. Hoy and James B. Appleberry, "Teacher-Principal Relationships in 'Humanistic' and 'Custodial' Elementary Schools," Journal of Experimental Education, XXXIX (Winter, 1970), pp. 27-31.

[2]Joseph A. Keefe, "The Relationship of the Pupil Control Ideology of Teachers to Key Personal and Organizational Variables." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston University, 1969.

[3]Bruce Waldman, "Organizational Climate and Pupil Control Orientation of Secondary Schools." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, 1971.

[4]Theador E. Jones, "The Relationship Between Bureaucracy and the Pupil Control Ideology of Secondary Schools and Teachers." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1969.

[5]Harvey A. Gossen, "An Investigation of the Relationship Between Socio-economic Status of Elementary Schools and the Pupil Control Ideology of Teachers." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1969.

community the more custodial the pupil control orientation of the secondary school.[1] Brown used the Pupil Control Behavior Form, a companion of the Pupil Control Ideology Form, and found no significant relationship between pupil control behavior and the socio-economic status of public secondary schools.[2]

Pluralistic ignorance or the shared misperceptions of pupil control ideology of school personnel was explored by Packard and Willower. The major finding was a substantial pluralistic ignorance in a custodial direction. Teachers, principals and counselors perceived teachers and principals to be more custodial than self-reported pupil control ideology scores indicated they actually were. Teachers perceived counselors quite accurately, however, principals and counselors perceived counselors as being more humanistic than self scores showed.[3] McAndrews also found that teachers perceived other teachers to be more custodial in pupil control ideology than they actually were.[4]

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[1]Bernard J. Andrews, "Relationships Between Selected Community Variables and School Atmosphere." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, 1973.

[2]Lorraine H. Brown, "Student Socio-economic Status and Teacher Pupil Control Behavior." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1973.

[3]John S. Packard and Donald J. Willower, "Pluralistic Ignorance and Pupil Control Ideology," The Journal of Educational Administration, X (May, 1972), pp. 78-87. For a discussion on counselors pluralistic ignorance see, Donald J. Willower and John S. Packard, "School Counselors, Pupil Control Ideology and Pluralistic Ignorance," Journal of the Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education, X (June, 1972), pp. 100-110.

[4]J. Briggs McAndrews, "Teachers' Self-Esteem, Pupil Control Ideology and Attitudinal Conformity to a Perceived Teacher Peer Group Norm." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1971.

Gipp studied the relationship between teachers' perceptions of community educational viewpoints and their pupil control ideology in public, Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) boarding schools and cooperative schools operated jointly by the BIA and a local public school district. The General Education Problems Scale by Bullock was adapted and revealed a significant relationship between the degree of traditionalism in teacher perception of community educational viewpoint and the degree of custodialism in pupil control ideology.[1]

A number of researchers have investigated the relationship between pupil control ideology and the socialization process that occurs during student teaching and after entrance into the teaching profession. Hoy hypothesized that teacher socialization results in the adoption of a more custodial pupil control orientation. The sample of 282 student teachers at Oklahoma State University were significantly more custodial after student teaching than before.[2] Related studies by Hamil,[3]

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[1]Gerald E. Gipp, "The Relationship of Perceived Community Educational Viewpoints and Pupil Control Ideology Among Teachers." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1974.

[2]Wayne K. Hoy, "Organizational Socialization: The Student Teacher and Pupil Control Ideology," Journal of Educational Research, LXI (December, 1967), pp. 153-155.

[3]Patricia A. Hamil, "An Analysis of the Observed Change in the Student Teacher's Pupil Control Ideology as Compared to the Pupil Control Ideology of the Cooperating Teacher." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1971.

Roberts,[1] and Glasnapp and Guenther[2] support Hoy's findings. It was also found that beginning teachers were significantly more custodial after the first year of teaching.[3,4] Those who did not teach remained relatively constant in pupil control ideology.[5] No significant change occurred during the second year of teaching.[6]

Rexford, Willower and Lynch, in examining the verbal behavior of secondary teachers in the classroom and teacher pupil control ideology, reported that teachers having a custodial ideology were more direct in their classroom verbal behavior than teachers with a humanistic orientation.[7] Dodson, Goldenberg and Elsom pointed out that humanistic elementary teachers used a significantly greater number of verbal

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[1]Richard A. Roberts and Jacob W. Blankenship, "The Relationship Between the Change in Pupil Control Ideology of Student Teachers and the Student Teacher's Perception of the Cooperating Teacher's Pupil Control Ideology," Journal of Research in Science Teaching, VII (1970), pp. 315-320.

[2]Douglas R. Glasnapp and John E. Guenther, "Humanistic and Skills Orientation Change During Student Teaching," College Student Journal, VII (September-October, 1973), pp. 43-47.

[3]Wayne K. Hoy, "The Influence of Experience on the Beginning Teacher," The School Review, LXXVI (September, 1968), pp. 312-323.

[4]Donald G. Drozda, "The Impact of Organizational Socialization on the Pupil Control Ideology of Elementary School Teachers as a Result of the First Year's Teaching Experience," Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1972.

[5]Hoy, The School Review, p. 318.

[6]Wayne K. Hoy, "Pupil Control Ideology and Organizational Socialization: A Further Examination of the Influence of Experience on the Beginning Teacher," The School Review, LXXVII (September, 1969), pp. 257-265.

[7]Gene E. Rexford, Donald J. Willower and Patrick D. Lynch, "Teachers' Pupil Control Ideology and Classroom Verbal Behavior," The Journal of Experimental Education, XXXX (Summer, 1972), pp. 78-81.

behaviors categorized as accepting and developing student ideas; custodial teachers utilized a greater number of verbal behaviors categorized as lecture and giving facts or opinions about content or procedure. Student initiated talk was greater for humanistic teachers.[1]

Secondary teachers who possessed a humanistic pupil control orientation exhibited classroom practices recommended by the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study Program to a greater degree than custodial teachers when the teacher was in a position to play a major role in the teacher-student interaction.[2] According to Bean, custodial male secondary teachers exhibit less stress on higher cognitive levels, less discussion, less enthusiasm, less independence, less tolerance for divergent thinking and greater emphasis on lecturing than female secondary teachers.[3]

Helsel investigated pupil control ideology and the value orientation of public school educators as measured by the Differential Values Inventory. A positive relationship between traditionalism in teacher, principal and counselors' value orientation and custodialism was found.[4] A later study by Helsel revealed a direct relationship

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[1]Russell Dobson, Ronald Goldenberg and Bill Elsom, "Pupil Control Ideology and Teacher Influence in the Classroom," Journal of Educational Research, LXVI (October, 1972), pp. 76-80.

[2]Paul L. Jones and Jacob W. Blankenship, "A Correlation of Biology Teachers' Pupil Control Ideology and Their Classroom Teaching Practices," Science Education, LIV (July-September, 1970), pp. 263-265.

[3]James S. Bean, "Pupil Control Ideologies of Teachers and Certain Aspects of Their Classroom Behavior as Perceived by Pupils." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, 1972.

[4]A. Ray Helsel, "Value Orientation and Pupil Control Ideology of Public School Educators," Education Administration Quarterly, VII (Winter, 1971), pp. 24-33.

between custodialism and teachers' status obeisance, i.e., stress on social distance and domination of subordinates.[1] Willower and Landis found a weak relationship between professional orientation and a humanistic ideology of school faculty.[2]

Jury demonstrated that teachers who are more self-actualizing are more humanistic in pupil control orientation than teachers who are less self-actualizing. A self-actualizing teacher is one who is more fully functioning, living a more enriched life, has developed unique potentialities and is relatively free of the inhibitions and emotional turmoil of the less self-actualizing teacher.[3]

Teacher job satisfaction and pupil control ideology was investigated by Yuskiewicz and Willower. Job satisfaction was directly related to the congruence between teacher pupil control ideology and teacher preceived pupil control ideology of the principal and fellow teachers. Teachers were perceived to be more custodial than their self scores indicated.[4] A study by Hoy and Leppert found no relationship

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[1]A. Ray Helsel, "Status Obeisance and Pupil Control Ideology," Journal of Education Administration, IX (May, 1971), pp. 38-47.

[2]Donald J. Willower and Charles A. Landis III, "Pupil Control Ideology and Professional Orientation of School Faculty," Journal of Secondary Education, XXXXV (March, 1970), pp. 118-123.

[3]Lewis E. Jury, "Teacher Self-Actualization and Pupil Control Ideology." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1973.

[4]Vincent D. Yuskiewicz and Donald J. Willower, "Perceived Pupil Control Ideology Consensus and Teacher Job Satisfaction," Urban Education, III (October, 1973), pp. 231-238.

between teacher pupil control ideology and teacher personality dimensions as measured by the Activities Index.[1]

Various aspects of the student subculture and pupil control ideology have been investigated in a number of studies. Hoy hypothesized that custodialism would be directly associated with dimensions of student sense of alienation.[2] The Pupil Attitude Questionnaire was used to confirm the hypothesis that custodialism is significantly related to student normlessness, powerlessness, isolation and total alienation.[3]

Duggal found that student unrest was related to custodialism in high schools. The sample included schools that experienced student unrest and schools that had no student unrest.[4] Pupil control ideology of middle and junior high schools and selected pupil behaviors was examined by McBride. Schools with a custodial orientation had significantly greater student absentee and suspension rates than humanistic schools.[5]

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[1]Edward Leppert and Wayne K. Hoy, "Teacher Personality and Pupil Control Ideology," Journal of Experimental Education, XXXX (Spring, 1972), pp. 57-59.

[2]Wayne K. Hoy, "Dimensions of Student Alienation and Characteristics of Public High Schools," Interchange, III (1972), pp. 38-52.

[3]Madeline Rafalides and Wayne K. Hoy, "Student Sense of Alienation and Pupil Control Orientation of High Schools," High School Journal, LV (December, 1971), pp. 101-111.

[4]Satya Pal Duggal, "Relationship Between Student Unrest, Student Participation in School Management, and Dogmatism and Pupil Control Ideology of Staff in the High School." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1969.

[5]Alexander P. McBride, "A Comparative Study of a Group of New Jersey Middle Schools and Junior High Schools in Relation to Their Pupil Control Ideology and Selected Pupil Behaviors." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University, 1972.

In a recent study, Pritchett explored the relationship between teacher pupil control behavior and secondary student attitudes toward school. The Pupil Control Behavior Form, a companion of the Pupil Control Ideology Form, allows focus on educators' pupil control behavior as perceived by students. Custodial teacher behavior was significantly related to negative student attitudes toward school.[1] Sweeting found a direct relationship between the congruence of pupils' perceptions of and preferences for teacher pupil control behavior and pupils' positive attitudes toward teacher and school among 834 fourth grade students.[2]

Attitude

An immense amount of literature is available on the concept and nature of attitudes. This is evident in the treatment of attitude definition. McGuire,[3] Greenwald[4] and Kiesler, Collins and Miller[5]

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[1]Wendell Pritchett, "The Relationship Between Teacher Pupil Control Behavior and Student Attitudes Toward School." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1974.

[2]Lurlene M. Sweeting, "Black Students' Perceptions of Ideal and Actual Teacher Pupil Control Behavior and Attitudes Regarding Their Teacher and School." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1975.

[3]William J. McGuire, "The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude Change," The Handbook of Social Psychology, ed. Gradner Lindzey and Elliot Aronson, Vol. III, (New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1969), pp. 141-171.

[4]Anthony G. Greenwald, "On Defining Attitude and Attitude Theory," Psychological Foundations of Attitudes, ed. Anthony G. Greenwald, Timonthy C. Brock and Thomas M. Ostrom (New York: Academic Press, Inc., 1968), pp. 361-369.

[5]Charles A. Kiesler, Barry E. Collins and Norman Miller, Attitude Change: A Critical Analysis of Theoretical Approaches (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1968), pp. 1-5.

discuss the difficulty in arriving at a consensus for a common definition. Khan and Weiss attempt to summarize the communality of various definitions by stating:

> Attitudes are selectively acquired and integrated through learning and experience; that they are enduring dispositions indicating response consistency; and that positive or negative affect toward a social or psychological object represents the salient characteristic of an attitude.[1]

Attitudes are the result of the impact of an environment acting upon the individual's personality. During early childhood the home environment, through the parent-child relationship, is the major source of attitude development.[2] Imitation, along with approach and avoidance tendencies are employed early in childhood to develop the child's affective responses toward various objects.

However, the process of attitude development becomes highly complex as children grow, experiences increase, and their environment expands beyond the immediate family. Rosenberg and Hovland suggest that attitudes include several components, each representing predispositions to respond to certain stimuli. The components classify responses as cognitive, affective and behavioral.[3]

The cognitive component refers to how the attitude object is perceived, its conceptual connotation, a person's beliefs or factual

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[1]S. B. Kahn and Joel Weiss, "The Teaching of Affective Responses," Second Handbook of Research on Teaching, ed. Robert M. W. Travers (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1973), p. 761.

[2]Glenn M. Blair, R. Steward Jones, and Ray H. Simpson, Educational Psychology (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1962), p. 122.

[3]Milton J. Rosenberg, et al., Attitude Organization and Change (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1960), pp. 1-14.

knowledge. The affective component consists of a person's feelings of liking or disliking, an evaluation to some object. The behavioral component involves the person's overt behavior directed toward an object.[1]

When a child reaches school age, the school experience becomes a major source in developing attitudes. Havighurst indicates that during middle childhood, ages 6-12, basic social attitudes are learned.[2] Kilpatrick agrees by concluding children are learning attitudes all the time in the school situation.[3] The importance of the school in attitude development is expressed by Khan and Weiss when they state:

> By the time the child enters school, he has already acquired both desirable and undesirable attitudes. It therefore becomes one of the major tasks of the school to change undesirable attitudes, to strengthen existing desirable ones, and to work toward the development of new attitudes by providing appropriate learning experiences.[4]

Figure 1[5] represents a schematic view of important factors that effect school-related attitudes. Influential characteristics and background factors of the student include age, sex, socio-economic status, personality characteristics and school achievement. School environment influences on the students' school-related attitudes

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[1]McGuire, The Handbook of Social Psychology, pp. 155-157.

[2]Havighurst, Developmental Task and Education, p. 27.

[3]W. H. Kilpatrick, Foundations of Method (New York: Macmillan Co., 1925), pp. 5, 10, 123, 190.

[4]Khan and Weiss, Second Handbook of Research on Teaching, p. 761.

[5]Ibid., pp. 767-770.

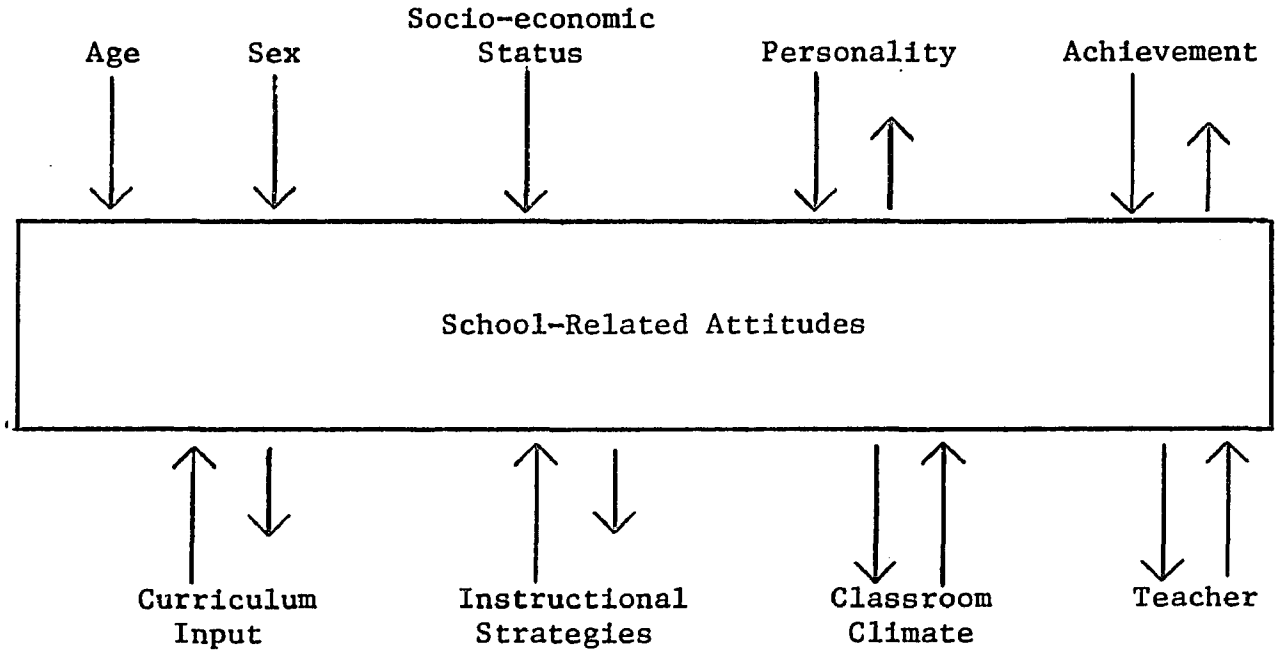

FIGURE 1. A SCHEMATIC VIEW OF FACTORS THAT AFFECT SCHOOL-RELATED ATTITUDES.

include curriculum input, instructional strategies, classroom climate and the teacher. The arrows indicate the directionality of influence. For example, the influence of age, sex and socio-economic status is in the direction of school-related attitudes only. Reciprocal relationships with school-related attitudes exist for the teacher and classroom climate. However, a student's personality and school achievement, along with instructional strategies and curriculum input may influence student's attitudes which in turn may partially have a reciprocal relationship. The factors, presented in Figure 1, that affect school-related attitudes are by no means all inclusive or final. However, a schematic view of factors which have been found to influence school-related attitudes is presented.

School-Related Attitudes

A review of the literature reveals little about how elementary school students feel about their school experience. A possible explanation is presented by Jackson when he stated that we become mildly interested in student attitude by the time students reach high school and become increasingly interested when they reach the college campus. However, the attitudes of elementary students remain relatively unexplored.[1]

In this section, a review of studies that contain normative data with respect to the elementary student's attitude toward the school experience will be discussed. Then studies that correlate various aspects of the school situation with student attitudes will be explored.

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[1]Philip W. Jackson, Life in Classrooms (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968), p. 46.

Student Attitudes Toward School

Tenenbaum, realizing the importance of attitudes in elementary school learning, constructed a twenty item instrument called the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test. The questionnaire is an attempt to determine the attitudes of elementary school students toward the school, teachers and classmates. A score for each subtest, plus a composite score, can be obtained. In addition, students respond, in essay form, to the open-ended question, "Do you like school?"[1] A detailed description of the questionnaire, including its reliability and validity, can be found in Chapter III.

Tenenbaum administered the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test to 639 sixth and seventh grade students located in low, middle, and high income areas of New York City. Each student responded to the open-ended question, "Do you like school?" in essay form. The students answered anonymously, teachers and supervisors were not present. Each essay was judged and placed in one of three categories: (1) like school, (2) dislike school, or (3) having mixed emotions. Table 3 presents the findings.[2]

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[1]Tenenbaum, Educational Administration and Supervision, pp. 181-188.

[2]Samuel Tenenbaum, "Uncontrolled Expressions of Children's Attitudes Toward School," Elementary School Journal, XXXX (May, 1940), pp. 670-678.

TABLE 3

STUDENT RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION, "DO YOU LIKE SCHOOL?"

Response	Boys Percentage	Girls Percentage	Total Percentage
Like School	48.6	69.0	58.8
Dislike School	23.8	10.3	17.1
Mixed Emotions	27.6	20.7	24.1
			100.0

In analyzing the essay data, Tenenbaum concluded that girls have more favorable attitudes toward school than boys; girls appear more serious in their approach to school; and the teacher appears to be important in the creation of student attitudes. The latter conclusion is supported by the finding that of the students who disliked school, the teacher was mentioned as the cause of dislike more frequently than any other factor. Tenenbaum also stated that the students think in adult terms, are serious and not critical of the school. School is not looked upon as a place of joy or pleasure, but is viewed with consciousness that "it will help them out in later life."[1]

Items concerning the three subtests of the questionnaire, attitudes toward school, teachers and classmates, reveal interesting findings. Tenenbaum concluded that at least 20 percent of the students are unhappy towards the school, expressing intense dislike, even hatred. This means that approximately six students in a class of

[1] Ibid.

thirty have negative feelings towards school. The subtest that measured attitude toward school revealed the frequency of negative responses by students was around 20 percent. For example, 22.2 percent of the 639 students say they "do not like school;" 21 percent indicate they are "sad at the thought of going to school;" and 23.2 percent of the students "would rather work than go to school."[1]

The 20 percent margin of dissatisfaction with the school experience is reduced when the teacher subtest and classmate subtest are examined. Students expressed a favorable attitude toward their teacher. A little over 8 percent of the students expressed dislike for their present teachers. In the classmate subtest, slightly more than 92 percent of the students expressed favorable attitudes toward their classmates.[2] The findings suggest that students are more critical of the school as an institution, rather than of the people in the school.

As with the essay results, the data from the subtests showed girls express more favorable attitudes toward school and their teachers than boys. Sixth grade students were also found to have more favorable attitudes toward school than seventh grade students.[3]

Sister Josephina administered Tenenbaum's Student Attitude Questionnaire Test to 900 students in grades five through eight. The results, Table 4, of the single item, "I like school, I do not like

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[1]Tenenbaum, Journal of Applied Psychology, pp. 134-136.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

TABLE 4

PERCENTAGE OF REPLIES TO ITEMS: "I LIKE SCHOOL" AND "I DO NOT LIKE SCHOOL" BY GRADE AND SEX

Grade Level[a]	5		6		7		8	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Like School	82.0%	88.0%	70.0%	80.0%	82.0%	94.6%	65.0%	83.0%
Do Not Like School	15.0	11.0	29.0	19.0	17.7	5.3	33.3	16.9
No Reply	2.0	.9	.9	1.0	0.0	0.0	.9	0.0

[a]Sister Josephina does not report the number of students in each grade level.

school," point out that students are generally satisfied with their school experience.[1]

The percentage of students expressing discontent is approximately the same as reported by Tenenbaum. Sister Josephina also found that girls have more positive attitudes toward school than boys.[2]

In an additional study, Leipold asked 273 junior high school students to write a short answer to one of the questions: "Do you like school? Why? or Do you dislike school? Why?" Table 5 indicates the results are similar to the two studies cited above.[3]

TABLE 5

STUDENT RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION: "DO YOU LIKE SCHOOL?"

Response	Boys Percentage[a]	Girls Percentage	Total Percentage
Like School	70.0	81.0	75.5
Dislike School	23.4	14.0	18.6
No Reply	6.6	5.0	5.9
			100.0

[a]The percentages for boys were not given, but were calculated from data given for girls and the total group. The assumption that the sex division was approximately equal in the sample was employed.

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[1]Sister Josephina, "Study of Attitudes in the Elementary Grades," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXXIII (October, 1959), pp. 56-60.

[2]Ibid.

[3]L. Edmond Leipold, "Children Do Like School," Clearing House, XXXI (February, 1957), pp. 332-334.

Two hundred and six or 18.6 percent of the junior high school students show dissatisfaction with school. Again, girls express more favorable attitudes than boys.[1]

Fuchs and Havighurst conducted an inquiry of particular importance to this study because of the sample used. Native American students from the fifth grade through high school, in both public and Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, were asked to give their opinion of the school they attended. The findings are summarized in the following table.[2]

TABLE 6

STUDENT'S OPINION OF THEIR SCHOOL

Response	Percentage	
Negative	11	
Slightly Negative	11	
		22
Slightly Positive	29	
Positive	49	
		78
		100.0

Once more, approximately 20 percent of the students express negative attitudes toward the school experience. Fuchs and Havighurst concluded that, in general, Native American students do not become enthusiastic about their school experience. The more critical students

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[1] Ibid., p. 332.

[2] Fuchs and Havighurst, To Live on This Earth: American Indian Education, p. 159.

are found in communities that have more contact with the non-Indian world and where schools have a majority of white students. The more positive attitudes toward school come from students attending the more isolated, all Indian schools.[1]

The Student Opinion Poll was used by Jackson to determine how sixth grade students from nine public schools felt toward school. The results are found in the table below.[2]

TABLE 7

STUDENT RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION: "IN GENERAL, MY FEELINGS TOWARD SCHOOL ARE VERY FAVORABLE, SOMEWHAT FAVORABLE, SOMEWHAT UNFAVORABLE, OR VERY UNFAVORABLE."

Response	Boys (148) Percentage		Girls (145) Percentage		Total (293) Percentage	
Very Favorable	35.1		47.6		41.3	
Somewhat Favorable	44.6		40.0		42.3	
		79.7		87.6		83.6
Somewhat Unfavorable	12.2		9.0		10.6	
Very Unfavorable	8.1		3.4		5.8	
		20.3		12.4		16.4
						100.0

The data presented by Jackson tell about the same story as the investigations already cited. Again, a vast majority of the students (83.6 percent) report favorable feelings toward the school, while a minority (16.4 percent) express negative feelings. As before, girls responded more favorably than boys.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 157-158.

[2] Jackson, Life in Classrooms, pp. 52-53.

In summary, the five studies demonstrate that elementary students are generally satisfied with their school experience. Jackson concluded that:

> Although the proportions differ markedly for boys and for girls, it looks as if about 80 percent of the students in our upper elementary grades would place themselves in the "like" category if asked to describe themselves as either liking or disliking school.[1]

However, he goes on to warn, even though a majority of students express positive attitudes, the percentage of negative responses is too large to ignore.[2]

Attitudes and Aspects of the School Experience

This section reviews a number of studies that correlate students' attitudes toward school and various aspects of the school experience, including student characteristics and background and school environment factors. The schematic view of the factors that affect school-related attitudes, presented earlier, serves as the framework for this review.

The most consistent finding in the student attitude studies has already been mentioned in the studies by Tenenbaum, Sister Josephina, Leipold, Fuchs and Havighurst and Jackson. That is, girls have more favorable attitudes toward school than boys. Further evidence

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[1] Ibid., pp. 53-54.

[2] Ibid.

by Wisenthal[1] and Sharples[2] supports the sex difference and also indicates that younger students hold more favorable attitudes toward school than their older counterparts. Thus, it follows that attitudes toward school become increasingly negative as students progress upward in grade level.[3,4]

Flanders, Morrison and Brode concluded that a loss in positive attitude toward school by sixth grade students was not related to intelligence, socio-economic status or grade assignment but was the result of the externability-internability dimension of personality. External children are those who believe that successes and failures are caused by forces beyond their control. They experienced a greater negative shift in attitude toward the teacher and school than internal children. Internal children are defined as those who believe their successes and failures are self-determined and products of one's own behavior.[5]

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[1]Miles Wisenthal, "Sex Differences in Attitudes and Attainment in Junior Schools," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXV (February, 1965), pp. 79-85.

[2]Derek Sharples, "Children's Attitudes Towards Junior School Activities," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXIX (February, 1969), pp. 72-77.

[3]Fred Snyder and Frank Sibrel, "The Thornton Elementary School Project - An Investigation of Pupil Attitude Toward School and Perceived Influence of Parental and Teacher Roles," Contemporary Education, XLII, (February, 1971), p. 167.

[4]Daniel C. Neale and John M. Proshek, "School-Related Attitudes of Culturally Disadvantaged Elementary School Children," Journal of Educational Psychology, LVIII (August, 1967), p. 243.

[5]Ned A. Flanders, Betty M. Morrison and E. Leland Brode, "Changes in Pupil Attitudes During the School Year," Journal of Educational Psychology, L (October, 1968), pp. 334-338.

A number of studies have been conducted that explore the relationship between socio-economic status and student attitudes toward school. Fitt, studying in New Zealand, compared children's attitude toward school in "high" and "low" socio-economic status areas. Findings point out the tendency that children from "high" socio-economic status areas have more favorable attitudes toward school than children from "low" socio-economic status areas.[1]

Lunn, in relating attitudes to social class, found that positive attitudes tended to be associated with boys from middle class homes and negative attitudes were expressed by boys from working class homes.[2] Neale and Proshek compared the responses of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students attending a school that registered "low" and a school near the "median" on socio-economic indicators. The results show that middle socio-economic children regard the teacher more favorably than lower socio-economic children. However, lower socio-economic children made significantly more positive evaluations of "my school building," "my school bus," and "talking in front of class."[3]

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[1]A. B. Fitt, "An Experimental Study of Children's Attitude to School in Auckland, New Zealand," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXVI (February, 1956), p. 29.

[2]Joan C. Barker Lunn, "The Influence of Sex, Achievement Level and Social Class on Junior School Children's Attitudes," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXXII (February, 1972), pp. 70-74.

[3] Neale and Proshek, Journal of Educational Psychology, pp. 240-241.

An inquiry by Berk, Rose, and Stewart concluded that there was no significant difference between students' socio-economic status and attitudes toward school.[1]

Logically, it would appear that students who are doing well academically in school would express favorable attitudes toward the school experience, while students who are doing poorly might express negative attitudes. However, this is not the case in a majority of the studies comparing the relationship between student attitudes and academic achievement at the elementary school level. An investigation by Tenenbaum found no relationship between student attitude toward school, teachers, classmates and intelligence, achievement in school subjects, conduct marks and proficiency marks.[2]

Studies by Jackson and Lahaderne[3] and Lahaderne[4] utilized two different instruments to measure student attitude. Both studies found no significant relationship between attitudes toward school and

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[1]Laura E. Berk, Marion H. Rose and Diana Stewart, "Attitudes of English and American Children Toward Their School Experience," Journal of Educational Psychology, LXI (February, 1970), pp. 33-40.

[2]Samuel Tenenbaum, "A School Attitude Questionnaire Test Correlated with such Variables as IQ, EQ, Past and Present Grade Marks, Absence and Grade Progress," Educational Administration and Supervision, XXVII (February, 1941), pp. 116-124.

[3]Philip W. Jackson and Henriette M. Lahaderne, "Scholastic Success and Attitude Toward School in A Population of Sixth Graders," Journal of Educational Psychology, LVIII (February, 1967), pp. 15-18.

[4]Henriette M. Lahaderne, "Attitudinal and Intellectual Correlates of Attention: A Study of Four Sixth Grade Classrooms," Journal of Educational Psychology, LIX (October, 1968), pp. 320-324.

scholastic achievement. The same conclusion was reached by Glick[1] and Tschechtelin, Hipskind, and Remmers[2] in their comparisons of the two variables.

While Malpass found no relationship between standardized achievement measures and eighth grade students' perceptions of school, it was concluded that there was a significant positive relationship between students' perceptions of school and the teacher grades they received in school.[3] Lunn correlated scores on an English test with student attitudes. Students with above average achievement had more positive attitudes toward school than less able students.[4] To summarize, Jackson states that "the relationship between attitudes and scholastic achievement, if it exists at all, is not nearly as easy to demonstrate as common sense would lead us to believe it might be."[5]

When a child enters school, the teacher becomes an important influence in the personal, social and emotional development of the child. The teacher-student relationship and the teacher's attitudes toward the student are two important factors in the development of

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[1]Oren Glick, The Interdependence of Sixth Graders' School Attitudes and Academic Achievement, A report to the Western Psychological Association Convention, Vancouver, British Columbia, June 18 to June 21, 1969.

[2]Sister M. Amatora Tschechtelin, Sister M. John Frances Hipskind, and H. H. Remmers, "Measuring the Attitudes of Elementary School Children Toward Their Teachers," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXI (March, 1940), pp. 195-203.

[3]L. F. Malpass, "Some Relationships Between Students' Perceptions of School and their Achievement," Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXXIV (December, 1953), pp. 475-482.

[4]Lunn, British Journal of Educational Psychology, pp. 70-74.

[5]Jackson, Life in Classrooms, p. 80.

student attitudes toward the teacher.[1] Tenenbaum, as previously mentioned, agreed that the teacher is an important determinant of students' attitudes toward school. He concluded that the students who disliked school mentioned the teacher as the cause of dislike more frequently than any other factor.[2]

Flanders, Morrison, and Brode reported a greater loss of positive attitudes by students was associated with classrooms where teachers provided less praise and encouragement than in classrooms where teachers provided more praise and encouragement.[3]

In a study of the student's concept of the teacher, Gregersen and Travers indicated that boys have a more negative concept of the classroom and are more rejecting of the teacher than girls.[4] Powers gives supporting evidence by stating girls are more accepting of the teacher as an authority figure than boys. Powers also found brighter students tend to be more accepting of the teacher than less bright students.[5]

Another indication of the influence the teacher has in student attitude development was found by Phillips. In a study of 306 seventh

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[1]Khan and Weiss, Second Handbook of Research on Teaching, p. 774.

[2]Tenenbaum, Journal of Applied Psychology, p. 137.

[3]Flanders, Morrison and Brode, Journal of Educational Psychology, p. 338.

[4]G. F. Gregersen and R. M. W. Travers, "A Study of the Child's Concept of the Teacher," Journal of Educational Research, LXI (March, 1968), pp. 324-327.

[5]F. Powers, "Pupil Acceptance of Teacher Authority," School and Society, XC (Summer, 1962), pp. 249-250.

grade students, he demonstrated that student attitude toward arithmetic was significantly related to the type of arithmetic attitude held by the teacher.[1]

Yee concluded that pupil attitudes toward the teacher were related to the student's social class background. Lower class students were less favorable toward the teacher than middle class students. Also, teachers influenced students more in schools located in lower class neighborhoods than in middle class schools.[2] In a study of 1,448 Native American students, Fuchs and Havighurst stated that, in general, students respond favorably toward their teachers. Only 15 percent expressed negative complaints about their teachers.[3]

Studies that explore the relationship between student attitudes and selected school environment factors are presented below. Sharples, in studying children nine to ten years old, found more creative and expressive activities in school were viewed more favorably by students than symbolic and reproductive activities. Art and physical education were viewed more positively than writing or mathematics.[4] Kurtzman,

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[1]R. B. Phillips, "Teachers Attitudes and Student Attitude and Achievement in Elementary School Math," School Science and Math, LXXIII (June, 1973), pp. 501-507.

[2]Albert H. Yee, "Factors involved in Determining the Relationship between Teachers' and Pupils' Attitudes," A report to the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education (Austin: The University of Texas, 1966), p. 112.

[3]Fuchs and Havighurst, To Live on This Earth: American Indian Education, p. 161.

[4]Sharples, British Journal of Educational Psychology, pp. 74-76.

in comparing attitudes and different levels of student creativity, found the more creative a student was, the less he liked school.[1]

The relationship between junior high school student attitudes and arithmetic was investigated by Dutton. Results show a significant student dislike for arithmetic, with girls expressing a greater dislike than boys.[2] Aiken found that negative attitudes toward mathematics increases as students ascend the academic ladder.[3]

Lowery, in a study to ascertain the attitudes of fifth grade students toward new science material, found students who experienced the new material changed their attitudes toward science in a positive direction. The change was more significant than the change made by similar students who were not exposed to the new material.[4] According to Perrodin, students at the fourth grade level possessed very favorable attitudes toward science. Positive attitudes reached a peak at the sixth grade level and declined at grade eight.[5]

Schorer investigated the attitudes toward school of emotionally disturbed children. Results indicated these children view the school with mixed emotions, with a mixture of pleasure and displeasure.

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[1]Kenneth A. Kurtzman, "A Study of School Activities, Peer Acceptance, and Personality of Creative Adolescents," Exceptional Children, XXXIV (November, 1967), pp. 157-162.

[2]Wilbur H. Dutton, "Attitudes of Junior High School Pupils Toward Arithmetic," School Review, LXIV (January, 1956), p. 22.

[3]L. R. Aiken, Jr., "Attitudes Toward Mathematics," Review of Educational Research, XXXX (October, 1970), p. 556.

[4]Lawrence F. Lowery, "An Experimental Investigation into the Attitudes of Fifth Grade Students Toward Science," School Science and Mathematics, LXVII (June, 1967), pp. 569-579.

[5]Alex F. Perrodin, "Children's Attitudes Toward Elementary School Science," Science Education, L (April, 1966), pp. 214-218.

Ten of 52 children between the ages of 5 and 14 expressed pure dislike for the school.[1] In contrast, Dye studied the attitudes of gifted elementary school children. Students who scored in the top 10 percent on the Lorge Thorndike Intelligence Test were classified as "gifted." Those who scored in the middle 10 percent were considered "average." Dye concluded that the majority of both groups approved of the teacher; more gifted children are unhappy in school; both groups approved of the school curriculum; and in general, the gifted group was consistently more critical of the school experience than the average group.[2]

Conceptualization of the Problem

The literature indicates acceptance of the assumption that attitudes are acquired through learning and experience. Sorenson states that attitudes are learned as a result of a satisfying or frustrating experience associated with a given object or situation.[3]

Thorndike supports the satisfying-frustrating association in his studies on learning. He maintained that in order to strengthen a response, it should be associated with some agreeable experience and to inhibit or discourage a response it should be associated with some disagreeable experience.[4] Jackson, applying Thorndike's theory to schools, states:

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[1]C. E. Schorer, "How Emotionally Distrubed Children View the School," Exceptional Children, XXVII (December, 1960), pp. 191-195.

[2]Myrtle G. Dye, "Attitudes of Gifted Children Toward School," Educational Administration and Supervision, XXXXII (1956), pp. 301-308.

[3]Sorenson, Psychology in Education, p. 351.

[4]Edward L. Thorndike, Elementary Principles of Education, (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1931), pp. 84-106.

> Obviously, schools are places in which rewards and punishments are administered in abundance. Smiles, compliments, special privileges, good grades, and high scores on tests are occasioned by certain kinds of classroom behavior. Frowns, scoldings, deprivation, poor grades, and low scores on tests are occasioned by other kinds. Further, these satisfying and annoying experiences are not evenly distributed among the students but, instead, tend to be concentrated in both kind and number. Some students become accustomed to receiving the classroom rewards; other to receiving the classroom punishments. Paralleling what was said about human behavior in general we would expect rewarded students to develop, overtime, a genuine liking for schools and the process of schooling. Similarly, we would expect students who typically are not rewarded and who frequently may even be punished, to become more or less dissatisfied with life in the classroom.[1]

The importance of attitudes in the educational process is recognized throughout the literature. In a study by Gaier and Jones, teachers stated they were most concerned about the existence of negative attitudes, indifferent attitudes and lack of interest in school by students.[2]

Wilson, Robeck and Michael, in discussing the importance of attitudes toward school in the learning process, indicated:

> The attitude of determination to learn, coupled with the attitude that this learning is going to be pleasurable and valuable, leads to almost automatic success in learning.[3]

The importance of student attitudes toward the learning process is further exemplified by the recent passage of legislation by

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[1]Jackson, Life in Classrooms, p. 73.

[2]E. L. Gaier and Steward Jones, "Do Teachers Understand Classroom Behaviors?" Understanding the Child, XX (1951), pp. 104-109.

[3]John A. R. Wilson, Mildred C. Robeck and William B. Michael, Psychological Foundations of Learning and Teaching (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1969), p. 335.

the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, which led to the adoption of Ten Goals of Quality Education for the State. Goal IV states quality education should "help every child acquire a positive attitude toward the learning process."[1]

As previously mentioned, the teacher is an important factor in the development of students' attitudes toward the school experience. Tenenbaum agrees,[2] as do Khan and Weiss when they indicate whatever else may take place in the school, the teacher has the most influential role in the development of the students' affective responses.[3]

The teacher-pupil relationship is a complex situation with many interacting factors. Jackson stated that the relationship is characterized by an unequal division of power. The teacher represents authority, is dominant and quite impersonal.[4] Student values are often in conflict with teacher values and are likely to have a significant impact on student behavior.[5] Conflict is often the result in such a teacher-pupil relationship.

This dominant-subordinate relationship between teacher and pupil in the school is termed "discipline" or "order." The teacher represents the established social order in a school and is interested

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[1]Pennsylvania Department of Education, Educational Quality Assessment in Pennsylvania: The First Six Years (Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1973), p. 5.

[2]Tenenbaum, Journal of Applied Psychology, p. 137.

[3]Khan and Weiss, Second Handbook of Research on Teaching, p. 786.

[4]Jackson, Life in Classrooms, pp. 28-33.

[5]Willower, Hoy, and Eidell, Personnel and Guidance Journal, p. 229.

in maintaining that order.[1] The maintenance of order is especially significant in schools because the teacher must deal with students who are forced to attend, yet may see little or no value in the school experience. This led Willower to hypothesize: "the employment of external controls by teachers will be inversely related to the extent to which school is perceived as attractive by pupils."[2]

External control, corresponding to the pupil control ideology "custodial" typology, means employing sanctions that are punitive in nature, utilizing such devices as coercion, ridicule, and withholding of rewards. Internal control is based on self-discipline rather than imposed discipline, and sanctions which are more personal and appeal to the individual's sense of right and wrong.[3] As noted earlier, external controls may create a "snowball effect," which leads to even greater emphasis on this kind of control.[4]

The influence of punitive and nonpunitive teachers upon childrens' concepts of school misconduct was studied by Kounin and Gump. Children with punitive teachers, compared with children of nonpunitive teachers, manifest more aggression, are more unsettled and and conflicted about misconduct in school, and are less concerned with learning and school-unique values.[5]

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[1]Waller, Sociology of Teaching, pp. 195-197.

[2]Willower, Educational Administration Quarterly, p. 42.

[3]Ibid., pp. 41-42.

[4]Ibid., p. 43. Also see Chapter I, pp. 2-3.

[5]Jacob S. Kounin and Paul V. Gump, "The Comparative Influence of Punitive and Nonpunitive Teachers Upon Childrens' Concepts of School Misconduct," Journal of Educational Psychology, LII (February, 1961), pp. 44-50.

The preoccupation with order and control by teachers in the teacher-pupil relationship can be disastrous. In this connection, Dewey has called attention to the longer range effects of rigid discipline.[1]

Bush concluded that a personal liking of a student for his teacher is a powerful factor in bringing about an effective learning relationship between the teacher and the student. Learning is enhanced when teachers make themselves personally acceptable to students.[2] Khan and Weiss state:

> A warm sympathetic and understanding teacher is more likely to have a positive influence on the students compared to one who is cold, unfriendly and autocractic. . . .democratic and student-centered classroom practices are more effective than authoritarian and teacher-centered practices in promoting positive affective behaviors.[3]

It seems reasonable to theorize that teachers or schools characterized by a humanistic pupil control orientation would provide a learning environment which promotes meaningful and satisfying experiences that would foster a positive commitment of students to their teachers and schools. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

> There will be a positive relationship between the degree of teacher humanism in pupil control ideology and the degree of favorable student attitude toward school, classmates and teachers.

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[1]Dewey, Interest and Effort in Education, p. 9.

[2]Robert N. Bush, The Teacher Pupil Relationship (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1954), p. 189.

[3]Khan and Weiss, Second Handbook of Research on Teaching, p. 787.

Summary

This chapter dealt with the pertinent literature concerning the two variables: pupil control and student attitudes. The conceptualization of the problem relating the two variables was presented along with the statement of the hypothesis.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

Introduction

The major purpose of this study was to test the hypothesis relating teacher pupil control ideology and student attitude toward school, classmates, and teachers as stated in Chapter I. This chapter reviews the instruments used to measure the two major variables, the sample, the administration and collection of the data, and the statistical method employed to test the relationship between the two variables.

The Instruments

Pupil Control Ideology Form (PCI Form)

In constructing the Pupil Control Ideology Form, Willower, Eidell, and Hoy adapted to schools the descriptions of control typologies used by Gilbert and Levinson in a study of the control ideology of mental hospital staff members concerning patients. The typologies ranged from "custodialism" at one extreme to "humanism" at the other.[1] The complete Pupil Control Ideology Form can be found in Appendix B.

The Pupil Control Ideology Form is a twenty item Likert Scale instrument with five response categories for each item. Items were scored 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 for the respective responses of "strongly agree," "agree," "undecided," "disagree," and "strongly disagree." Items five and thirteen require reverse scoring because they are positive to the humanistic orientation. Item scores are summed to provide a range of

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[1] Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, p. 5.

test scores from 20 to 100. The higher the score, the more custodial the individual's pupil control ideology.[1]

The split-half reliability coefficient calculations resulted in a Pearson product-moment coefficient of .91 (N=170). The Spearman-Brown formula yielded a corrected coefficient of .95.[2]

Principal's judgements concerning the pupil control ideology of certain of their teachers were used to validate the Pupil Control Ideology Form. Principals were asked to read descriptions of the custodial and humanistic viewpoints then identify a specific number of teachers whose ideology was most like each description. A one-tailed t test of the difference of the means between principal-judged custodial and humanistic teacher samples was significant at the .01 level.[3]

In addition, a cross-validation was employed using principals' judgements of teacher pupil control ideology in another seven schools. A one-tailed test revealed that the difference in mean Pupil Control Ideology Form scores for teachers judged to be custodial and teachers judged to be humanistic was significant at the .001 level.[4]

Student Attitude Questionnaire Test

Tenenbaum developed the instrument to obtain students' attitudes toward school, teachers, and classmates at the elementary

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[1] Ibid., p. 12.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid., p. 13.

[4] Ibid., pp. 13-14.

school level.[1] The Student Attitude Questionnaire Test consists of twenty closed-type items and one independent question to be answered in essay form. The twenty items do not have the same gradation of values. Six of the items are stated on a five point scale, one on a four point scale, two on a three point scale, and eleven on a two point scale. All items are scored on a uniform midpoint of 1.5. The theoretical range of the composite score is from 10.9 to 49.1, the greater the score the more favorable the attitude.[2] The Student Attitude Questionnaire Test can be found in Appendix C.

In addition to the composite score, the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test contains three subscales; one measuring attitude toward school, another measuring attitude toward teachers, and the third measuring attitude toward classmates. As with the composite score, the higher the score for each subscale the more favorable the attitude.[3]

Tenenbaum utilized the coefficient of internal consistency to test the reliability of the instrument. The twenty items were divided into two groups of ten items each and a coefficient of correlation was obtained between the scores for the two halves. The Pearson product-moment yielded an r of .74. The Spearman-Brown correction formula resulted in an r of .85. In addition, Tenenbaum used the same procedure to test the reliability of the subscale that measures attitude toward school. A correlation of .83 was obtained for this subscale. The

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[1]Tenenbaum, Educational Administration and Supervision, XXVI, p. 181.

[2]Ibid., pp. 185-186.

[3]Ibid.

Spearman-Brown correction formula yielded a reliability coefficient of .91. Reliability coefficients for the other two subscales were not reported because of the limited number of items in each subscale.[1]

The validity was established by testing for the congruence of interview responses with item responses to see if a sample of elementary school students understood the items and whether the items tested for what they were designed to test for. If the wording was difficult to comprehend or worded in such a way as to elicit a response different from what the child meant to convey, the item was discarded.[2]

The Sample

The sample consisted of teachers and students from six public schools and seven Bureau of Indian Affairs Federal boarding schools located within the boundaries of the Navajo Reservation. A description of the school types and relevant characteristics of the teachers and students is found in Chapter I.

A majority of the public schools on the Navajo Reservation that contain grades seven and eight are included in the sample. Fourteen boarding schools with seventh and eighth grade students are located on the Navajo Reservation.[3] A table of random numbers was used to select the seven boarding schools that participated in this study.

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[1] Ibid., p. 187.

[2] Ibid., pp. 178-188.

[3] U. S., Department of Interior, Statistics Concerning Indian Education, pp. 12-18.

Administration of the Instruments

The researcher contacted the chief administrator for each public school district and Bureau of Indian Affairs agency office to secure permission to approach building principals to request the schools participation in the study. An explanation of the study was made to each principal.

All the data were collected in group sessions arranged by the building principals. The sessions were held during the mornings of regular school days. Three individuals, including the researcher, administered the instruments to the subjects at the thirteen schools.

The procedures for the administration of the instruments were standarized. Identical instructions were read aloud to the students. The following sample question was completed as part of the instructions:

I am happy in school
_____1. All the time
_____2. Most of the time
_____3. Pretty often
_____4. Hardly ever
_____5. Never

It was emphasized to the students that the instrument was not a test and that there were no right or wrong answers. Students were not required to put their names on the instruments. The terms "teacher" and "school" were defined as part of the instructions. Teacher referred to the students' first period teacher. This was also indicated on the instrument itself in a question that measured a student's attitude toward his teacher. Teacher was defined as the first period teacher for two reasons: (1) to allow students to think of one teacher while answering the questionnaire, and (2) to identify Indian teachers. School was defined as the academic day, this was especially important

at the Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools where students spend a majority of their time in a dormitory situation.

The teachers completed the Pupil Control Ideology Form at the same time, but not in the presence of the students who were completing the attitude questionnaire. Upon completion, the raw data from the students and teachers were collected and identified by school.

The Pupil Control Ideology Form and the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test were administered over a four week period in April and May of 1973. Usable forms were obtained from 91 teachers and 1,714 students.

Statistical Method

The raw data contained in the instruments and information sheets were hand scored, coded, keypunched on computer cards and verified. Total scores for each individual, as well as the scores for the three subscales were entered on the cards. The data from the information sheets were also punched on the cards. The STPAC program at the Computation Center, The Pennsylvania State University was used to analyze the data.

Spearman's rho correlation coefficient, as outlined by Blalock,[1] was employed to test the major hypothesis by correlating the mean pupil control ideology scores and student attitude scores for each of the thirteen schools. In addition, Spearman's rho correlation coefficient was used to test the major hypothesis separately for public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools. The Z test for the difference

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[1] Hubert M. Blalock, Social Statistics (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960), pp. 317-319.

between two correlations was then computed to determine if the difference in correlations for the two kinds of schools was significant.

The t test for differences between means was used to test the significance for the:

1. Comparison of pupil control ideology of teachers in public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools.
2. Comparison of pupil control ideology of Indian and non-Indian teachers.
3. Comparison of the attitudes of public school students and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students.

Summary

This chapter presented a description of the instruments used, the sample, the administration of the instruments, and the statistical method used to test the hypothesis. Chapter IV is concerned with the presentation and analysis of the findings.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The central purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between teachers' pupil control ideology and elementary school students' attitudes toward school, teachers, and classmates. This chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section presents the findings and the appropriate statistical method employed in testing for the significance of certain relationships. The second section of the chapter presents a speculative discussion of the findings.

Table 8 shows the number of teacher respondents from the thirteen schools included in the study. A total of ninety-three teachers were sampled; 97.8 percent of the completed Pupil Control Ideology Forms were usable.

TABLE 8

NUMBER OF TEACHERS BY SCHOOL TYPE

School Type	Number of Teachers Sampled	Usable Returns	Percent Usable Returns
BIA boarding school	31	29	94
Public School	62	62	100
Totals	93	91	97.8

A sample of 1,758 students, 734 from Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools, and 1,024 from public schools, was included in the

study. Table 9 reports the number of students sampled and the number of usable attitude questionnaires by school type.

TABLE 9

NUMBER OF STUDENTS BY SCHOOL TYPE

School Type	Number of Students Sampled	Usable Returns	Percent Usable Returns
BIA boarding school	734	714	97.2
Public school	1,024	1,000	97.6
Totals	1,758	1,714	97.5

Test of the Hypothesis

The statistical method used in testing the major hypothesis was Spearman's coefficient of rank-order correlation, symbolized by the Greek letter rho. The principles and use of Spearman's rho is discussed by Blalock.[1] The hypothesis stated:

> There will be a positive relationship between the degree of teacher humanism in pupil control ideology and the degree of favorable student attitude toward school, classmates and teachers.

For this hypothesis the computation of rho yielded a value of -.093. With thirteen degrees of freedom, required critical rho values are .480 at the .05 probability level and .673 at the .01 probability level. This indicated the calculated value of rho is not significant. Thus the hypothesis is rejected. Although the relationship was not significant, the negative rho value indicates the direction was towards a possible relationship between humanistic pupil control ideology

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[1] Ibid.

and favorable attitudes toward school. Table 10 indicates the findings. The relevant data needed to compute the rho, including the teacher pupil control ideology and student attitude means for each school are found in Appendix D.

TABLE 10

PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY OF ALL TEACHERS AND STUDENT ATTITUDES OF ALL STUDENTS

Variables	Number of Schools	rho	Level of Significance
Teacher PCI Student Attitude	13	-.093	NS

d. f. = 13

Four Attendant Analyses

No other hypothesis was tested in this study. However, the design of the study allowed for the attendant analyses presented below.

1. Separate tests of the major hypothesis for public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools.

For the six public schools included in the sample, Spearman's coefficient of rank-order correlation computation of rho yielded a value of .314. A rho value of -.178 was computed for the seven Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools. Using six and seven degrees of freedom, neither rho value was significant at the .05 level. Table 11 summarizes the results.

TABLE 11

PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY OF TEACHERS AND STUDENT ATTITUDES OF STUDENTS BY SCHOOL TYPE

School Type	Number of Schools	d.f.	rho	Level of Significance
BIA boarding school	7	7	-.178	NS
Public school	6	6	.314	NS

2. Analysis of the significance of the difference of this relationship for the two types of schools.

For this analysis, the Z test for the difference between two correlations was employed. The use of the Z test with two independant samples is discussed by Blalock.[1] The calculated Z value was -.659. Since the calculated value was less than 1.96, the difference between the rho's was not significant at the .05 level. Table 12 presents the results from testing this analysis.

TABLE 12

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN CORRELATIONS AMONG TEACHERS AND STUDENTS BY SCHOOL TYPE

School Type	N	rho	Z Value	Level of Significance
BIA boarding school	7	-.178	-.659	NS
Public school	6	.314		

3. Comparison of the pupil control ideology of teachers in public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools and comparison of the pupil control ideology of Indian and non-Indian teachers.

[1] Ibid., pp. 309-311.

A t test was used to test the significance of the difference between the means of public school and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school teachers on pupil control ideology. The calculated t value of 2.207 was significant at the .05 level. Hence, the findings indicate that public school elementary school teachers as a group are more custodial in their pupil control ideology than their Bureau of Indian Affairs counterparts. Table 13 presents the pertinent data.

TABLE 13

COMPARISON OF PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY OF TEACHERS BY SCHOOL TYPE

School Type	N	mean	variance	t value	Level of Significance
BIA boarding school	29	47.90	86.81	2.207	.05
Public school	62	52.39	79.49		

d.f. = 89

The comparison of the pupil control ideology of Indian and non-Indian teachers was not computed because of the small number of Indian teachers included in the sample. Four teachers or 4.4 percent of the 91 teachers were Indian. Clearly non-significant, the pupil control ideology means were 50.75 for the 4 Indian teachers and 50.96 for the non-Indians. The small number of Indian teachers is consistent with a report from the Navajo Tribe which concluded that out of 3,000 teachers working on the Navajo Reservation, 6.7 percent or 200 are Navajos.[1]

[1]The Navajo Division of Education, "Navajo Professionals (Indian Preference)." Paper presented at the Conference on Federal Policy and Navajo Education, Albuquerque, New Mexico, April 2, 3, 1974.

4. Comparison of the attitudes of public school students and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students.

Table 14 provides the findings related to the testing of student attitudes by school type. The mean for the 714 boarding school students was 36.75; while the mean for the 1,000 public school students was 32.81. The t value of 12.819 is significant at the .001 level. Thus, public school students reported a greater dissatisfaction with school than Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students.

TABLE 14

COMPARISON OF STUDENT ATTITUDES BY SCHOOL TYPE

School Type	N	mean	variance	t value	Level of Significance
BIA boarding school	714	36.75	31.04	12.819	.001
Public school	1,000	32.81	45.01		

d.f. = 1,712

Pupil Control Ideology

The information sheet attached to the Pupil Control Ideology Form provided demographic data by which teacher characteristics could be compared to pupil control ideology. The information sheet is found in Appendix E. Analysis of Variance was used to test the differences among pupil control ideology means for various teacher characteristics. Teacher characteristics included: (1) sex, (2) Indian - non-Indian, (3) martial status, (4) age, (5) position, (6) type of school in which employed, (7) experience as an educator, (8) amount of education, (9) undergraduate preparation, and (10) graduate preparation.

The F test was employed to determine if there was a significant difference between two variance estimates. The F ratio results indicate no statistically significant differences between any of the ten teacher characteristics mentioned above and pupil control ideology. Thus, no further analyses were made.

Student Attitudes

The information sheet found in Appendix F was used to gather demographic data from each student who completed the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test. The selected comparisons used in analyzing student attitude were: (1) male - female, (2) actual age, (3) seventh - eighth grade, (4) Indian - non-Indian students, (5) boarding school - public school, and (6) whether the students' first period teacher was Indian or non-Indian.

Attitudes of Male - Female Students

Table 15 reports the relevant data necessary to utilize the t test to determine the significance of the difference between two means. The computed t value of 8.361 was significant at the .001 level. Thus, the female seventh and eighth grade students included in the sample have a more favorable attitude toward school than the male students. This finding supports the most consistent finding in student attitude studies; namely, females have a more favorable attitude toward school than males.[1]

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[1]See Chapter II, pp. 49-50 of this study.

TABLE 15

COMPARISON OF SEX AND STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL

Sex	N	mean	variance	t value	Level of Significance
Male	819	33.10	44.51	8.361	.001
Female	895	35.69	38.30		

d.f. = 1,712

Actual Student Age and Student Attitudes

Analysis of variance was used to determine whether any of the five age groups differ significantly from any other. Table 16 shows that the F ratio is 4.562 and is statistically significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 16

COMPARISON OF STUDENT AGE LEVELS AND STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL

Age level	N	mean	variance	F ratio	Level of Significance
12	107	32.80	43.45		
13	456	33.72	45.71		
14	678	34.97	40.89		
15	368	34.82	45.06		
16 and over	105	34.69	30.11		
				4.562	.001

d.f. = 1,709

Since the F ratio was significant, a t test was used to determine which age group means differ significantly from one another. The Tukey whole significant difference test of all possible pairs of means, using a critical t value of 2.77, was employed. Table 17 reports the findings of the Tukey t test. The following age levels differ significantly from one another: 14 and 12, 14 and 13, and 15 and 12. Older students tend to have the more positive attitudes toward school.

TABLE 17

COMPARISON OF STUDENT AGE CONTRAST AND STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL[a]

Age Contrast	mean Difference	df	Critical t-value	t-value	Level of Significance
14 - 12	2.17	1,709	2.77	3.197	.05
14 - 13	1.25	1,709	2.77	3.163	.05
15 - 12	2.02	1,709	2.77	2.819	.05

[a]Using Tukey's whole significant difference test of all possible pairs of means.

Student Grade Level and Student Attitudes

Table 18 reports the findings obtained by a t test for the difference between means for student grade level and student attitudes toward school. The calculated t value of 3.035 is significant at the .01 level. Thus, the eighth grade students were more favorable toward the school experience than the seventh grade students.

TABLE 18

COMPARISON OF STUDENTS GRADE LEVEL AND STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD SCHOOL

Grade	N	mean	variance	t-value	Level of Significance
7	925	34.01	46.99	3.035	.01
8	789	34.97	37.71		

d.f. = 1,712

Attitudes of Indian and non-Indian Students

Of the 1,714 students included in the sample, 92.5 percent were American Indian students. Table 19 indicates that the Indian students have a more favorable attitude toward school than the non-Indian students. The t value of 2.286 is significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 19

COMPARISON OF ATTITUDES OF INDIAN AND NON-INDIAN STUDENTS TOWARD SCHOOL

Students	N	mean	variance	t-value	Level of Significance
Indian	1,586	34.55	43.46	2.286	.05
Non-Indian	128	33.18	34.83		

d.f. = 1,712

Indian and non-Indian Teachers as Reported by Students and Student Attitudes

The information sheet attached to each Student Attitude Questionnaire Test allowed each student to indicate whether his/her

first period teacher was Indian. On this basis, attitude toward school was compared between those students who indicated they had an Indian for their first peroid teacher and those students who indicated they had a non-Indian for their first period teacher. Table 20 shows that students who had non-Indian teachers possessed more favorable attitudes toward school than students who had Indian teachers. The t value of 3.272 was significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 20

COMPARISON OF INDIAN AND NON-INDIAN TEACHERS AS REPORTED BY STUDENTS AND STUDENT ATTITUDES

Teacher	N	mean	variance	t-value	Level of Significance
Indian	98	32.36	55.97	3.272	.01
Non-Indian	1,616	34.58	41.89		

d.f. = 1,712

Single Item Analysis

As reported in Chapter II, pages 44-46, Sister Josephina administered the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test to 900 students in grades five through eight. The response to the single item, "I like school, I do not like school" for Josephina's study was reported in Table 4, page 45. For comparison purposes, results from the same single item for the current study are tabulated in Table 21. A total of 18.96 percent of the students indicated they do not like school. Specific comparisons are made on pages 90-91 of this chapter.

TABLE 21

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENT REPLIES TO ITEMS: "I LIKE SCHOOL" AND "I DO NOT LIKE SCHOOL" BY GRADE AND SEX

Grade level	7 Boys	7 Girls	8 Boys	8 Girls	Total Boys	Total Girls	Total Combined
Don't like school	25.2	17.7	19.3	13.5	22.5	15.8	18.96
Like School	74.8	82.3	80.7	86.5	77.5	84.2	81.04

The chi square test was employed to determine whether the differences in frequencies from one category to another were significant. Blalock discusses the assmuptions and use of the chi square test in detail.[1] In each case a 2 x 2 contingency table with one degree of freedom was utilized. The findings between student attitude and school type, grade level, and sex are presented below.

School Type and Student Attitude

The computation of chi square yielded a value of 66.817. With one degree of freedom, the Table of Critical Values for chi square reports a critical chi square value of 10.827 at the .001 probability level. Hence, there is a significant difference between student attitude and school type. Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students have a more favorable attitude toward school than public school students. Table 22 summarizes the relevant data.

[1]Blalock, Social Statistics, pp. 212-221.

TABLE 22

STUDENT RESPONSE TO "I LIKE SCHOOL" AND "I DO NOT LIKE SCHOOL" BY SCHOOL TYPE

School Type	Observed Frequency Like	Dislike	X^2	Level of Significance
BIA boarding school	644	70	66.817	.001
Public school	745	255		

d.f. = 1

Grade Level and Student Attitude

Table 23 indicated that eighth grade students have more favorable attitudes toward school than their seventh grade counterparts. The critical chi square values, with one degree of freedom, were 6.635 at the .01 probability level and 10.827 at the .001 probability level. This indicated that the calculated chi square value of 7.131 was significant at the .01 level.

TABLE 23

STUDENT RESPONSE TO "I LIKE SCHOOL" AND "I DO NOT LIKE SCHOOL" BY GRADE LEVEL

Grade level	Observed Frequency Like	Dislike	X^2	Level of Significance
7	728	397	7.131	.01
8	661	128		

d.f. = 1

Sex and Student Attitude

Table 24 reports the findings obtained by using the chi square test for independence between student attitude and sex. The calculated chi square value of 12.534 is significant at the .001 probability level. Thus, female students were more favorable toward school than male students.

TABLE 24

STUDENT RESPONSE TO "I LIKE SCHOOL" AND "I DO NOT LIKE SCHOOL" BY SEX

Sex	Observed Frequency Like	Dislike	X^2	Level of Significance
Male	635	184	12.534	.001
Female	754	141		

d.f. = 1

Discussion

The Hypothesis

The hypothesis that there will be a positive relationship between the degree of teacher humanism in pupil control ideology and the degree of favorable student attitude toward school, classmates, and teachers was not supported by the data. The major reason the finding was not significant appeared to be inherent in the sample size given the unit of analysis. A total of thirteen elementary schools, seven Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools and six public schools, participated in the study. The unit of analysis was the school. If the classroom has been the unit of analysis the findings might have been significant. The same

reasoning can explain why the separate tests of the hypothesis for public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools proved non-significant.

Pupil Control Ideology

The findings show that teachers in public schools were significantly more custodial in their pupil control ideology than Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school teachers. Gipp found the opposite; that Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school teachers were more custodial than public school teachers.[1] The conflict in these findings is not as surprising as might first be suspected. The Gipp study included three Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools located off Indian reservations, adjacent to non-Indian communities, and serving students from widely dispersed geographic areas including Indian populations from several states.[2] The seven Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools included in this study are vastly different. All are located within the confines of the Navajo Reservation; three are located in larger Indian reservation communities, the remaining four are found in remote areas of the reservation. All the students in the Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools are Navajos who come from a local geographic region.

Moreover, one might speculate that public school teachers in this sample are more concerned with order and control of students than

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[1]Gipp, "The Relationship of Perceived Community Educational Viewpoints and Pupil Control Ideology Among Teachers," pp. 63-64, 66.

[2]Ibid., p. 12.

Bureau of Indian Affairs teachers. The public schools utilized corporal punishment, while the Bureau of Indian Affairs schools had official policies forbidding its use. The public school teachers must deal with students who are more aware of what is happening in Indian affairs. For example, the data for this study were collected after members of the American Indian Movement (AIM) occupied the headquarters of the Bureau of Indian Affairs in Washington, D. C. and during the seizure of Wounded Knee, South Dakota. Many Indian public school students identified with this movement, while Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students were sheltered from AIM activities. The public school students also interacted with older high school students whom they could emulate; on the other hand, Bureau of Indian Affairs students had no high school students as part of their systems. Thus, one could theorize that the degree of student militancy influenced student criticism toward school and this could have influenced teacher pupil control ideology.

Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school teachers may be less concerned with pupil control in the classroom. Students tend to become institutionalized in a boarding school situation. They are on campus twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week. Daily schedules with little variety and little exposure to the outside hinder critical responses by students. Under such conditions, students are reluctant to openly express their feelings.

The boarding school is made up of two major divisions, each with its own function and personnel. The first is commonly referred to as "academic." This concerns the instructional portion of the day with the teacher as the adult who works with the student. The second

division of a boarding school deals with the dormitory situation. Dormitory personnel or "dorm aides" are the main adult contact for the students during this period of the day, which may be up to eighteen hours long. The dorm aides are often the disciplinarians in a boarding school. A previous study by the author of student opinions of Navajo eighth grade students concluded:

> The students responsed (on a questionnaire) to more negative statements concerning dorm aides than they did for the principal, teachers, or guidance counselors. This is understandable because of the role the dorm aide plays in a boarding school situation. Students spend a great deal of time with the aides, often this contact is negative in nature. The aide must enforce rules, punish students, give them work details, and employ undersirable methods of student accountability. It may seem the aides are ordering students around most of the time. Thus, it is not surprising to find that the students have more complaints about dorm aides.[1]

Hence, in a Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school, discipline may be seen as the function of the dormitory personnel and not the teachers.

Student Attitude

The comparison of student attitudes by school type indicated that Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students have significantly more favorable attitudes toward school than public school students. This proved true in two separate analysis; the t test for the difference between means for the whole test and the chi square test of a single instrument item.

The location of the schools and the type of student attending each school system offers a possible explanation for this finding. Public school students are from the local Indian community and attend

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[1]John W. Tippeconnic III, "The Opinions of Navajo Area Eighth Grade Students Toward the Boarding School." Unpublished master's paper, The Pennsylvania State University, 1971.

only during the school day. Out of class activities are not controlled by the school. As stated above, public school students are more aware of what is happening locally and nationally. They are more aware of militant groups like the American Indian Movement. Hence, they are more apt to be critical of the school situation. Because of limited exposure, boarding school students may not be able to compare the boarding school experience with anything else. The description of Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students found in Chapter I, pages 20-21, is representative of the student found in this study. The majority of the students come from isolated areas where the lack of modern conveniences such as running water and electricity make the boarding school an attractive place by comparison. Four of the seven boarding schools included in the sample are located in romote areas where there is virtually no community surrounding the school. Despite the fact students were told to complete the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test in terms of their academic day, the influence of dormitory living that featured many previously unavailable conveniences may have had an impact on their responses. Perhaps the boarding school situation is conducive to a special kind of student who has a need for the nurturant atmosphere of the boarding school.

One might also speculate that Bureau of Indian Affairs students like school because the student body is totally Navajo. Students come from a common background and may enjoy talking Navajo and developing friendships as they take part in activities at school that may be non-existent at home. The student subculture is closely knit around members of the extended family or students from the same geographic area which probably influences attitude toward school. The public schools are

integrated, with Indians representing 50 to 90 percent of the student body. In such schools, animosity between Indian and non-Indian students also may contribute to unfavorable attitudes toward school. Fuchs and Havighurst concluded that Indian students who are critical of the school are found in communities that have more contact with the non-Indian world. The more positive attitudes come from students attending the more isolated, all Indian schools.[1]

Female students were found to have more favorable attitudes toward school than males. This is the most consistent finding in attitude studies and is in agreement with the conclusions reached by Tenenbaum, Sister Josephina, Leipold, Fuchs and Havighurst, and Jackson.[2]

Most student attitude studies show that student attitudes toward school become increasingly negative as students progress through the school experience. Thus, younger students in lower grades would be expected to have more favorable attitudes toward school than older students in upper grades. However, the findings in this study indicated that eighth grade students like school more than seventh grade students. Table 16, page 77, points out that the student attitude mean score peaks at age 14; the average age for eighth grade students was found to be 14.5. Significant differences were found between ages: 14 and 12, 14 and 13, and 15 and 12.

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[1]Fuchs and Havighurst, To Live on This Earth: American Indian Education, pp. 157-158.

[2]See Chapter II, pp. 49-50 for a review of studies that relate sex and student attitude toward school.

One might surmise that eighth grade students are equivalent to seniors in high school. They are the oldest on campus, the leaders, and they are able to influence the nature of school activities and control lower grade classmates. Seventh grade students may resent this relationship and express more dissatisfaction with school. This is especially true in Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools. It is possible that seventh grade students, faced with a comprehensive departmental structure for the first time felt insecure in such a setting and hence were less positive in their attitudes. Eighth grade students, in the second year of experience in a departmentalized setting, could have been more positive as a result. Further speculation may be that eighth grade students realize they are in their last year, will graduate, and leave the elementary school for an unfamiliar high school. Again, this is particularly true in Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools where many students are uncertain where they will continue their education.

Various investigations have indicated that the drop-out rate among Indians was higher than for non-Indian students. Perhaps as students advance upward in grade levels, the militant, unsatisfied students leave school, leaving the satisfied students in school.

This study found that Indian and non-Indian students differ significantly in their attitude toward school; Indian students are more favorable than non-Indians. As previously mentioned, one explanation for this finding is that the student groups are predominantly Indian; the Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools are totally Indian, while the public schools are 80 to 90 percent Indian. Indian

students may feel a sense of unity and control in such situations. Non-Indians may have an uneasy feeling that influences their attitude toward school.

As mentioned before, this study analyzed a single item from the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test. This was done to compare the findings with the data of Sister Josephina.[1] Table 25 presents the comparison. Sister Josephina's percentages are found in parentheses.

The data of both studies indicate females like school more than males. However, the results of this study show a higher percentage of dislike among seventh grade students, while Sister Josephina reports a higher percentage of dislike among eighth grade students. Possible reasons for this conflict have already been presented. The total percentage of students who responded to "I don't like school" was 18.96. In general, this is in agreement with studies by Tenenbaum, who found 17.1 percent, Leipold, 18.6 percent, Fuchs and Havighurst, 22.0 percent, and Jackson, 16.4 percent. The studies by Leipold, Fuchs and Havighurst, and Jackson utilized different instruments to measure student attitude.

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[1]See Chapter II, pp.44-46 for a discussion of Sister Josephina's findings. Also note this chapter, pp.80-83 for the findings of the single item analysis.

TABLE 25

COMPARISON WITH SISTER JOSEPHINA'S PERCENTAGE OF STUDENT REPLIES TO ITEMS: "I LIKE SCHOOL" AND "I DON'T LIKE SCHOOL" BY SEX AND GRADE LEVEL[a]

Grade Level	7 Boys		7 Girls		8 Boys		8 Girls		Total
Like School	(82.0)	74.8	(94.6)	82.3	(65.0)	80.7	(83.0)	86.5	81.04
Don't Like School	(17.7)	25.2	(5.3)	17.7	(33.3)	19.3	(16.9)	13.5	18.96
No Reply	(0.0)	0.0	(0.0)	0.0	(.9)	0.0	(0.0)	0.0	.00
									100.00

[a]Adapted from Sister Josephina, Journal of Educational Sociology, pp. 56-60. Sister Josephina's percentages are found in parentheses.

Summary

The first section of this chapter presented the findings and the appropriate statistical methods employed in testing the significance of certain relationships within and between teachers' pupil control ideology and elementary students' attitudes toward school, teachers, and classmates. The second section of the chapter presented a discussion of the major findings.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between teachers' pupil control ideology and elementary students' attitudes toward school, teachers, and classmates in selected federal boarding schools and public schools in the southwestern United States.

The study grew out of earlier work on the place of pupil control in schools. Willower found that pupil control was a dominant theme in schools;[1] organizations where teachers must deal with unselected students who may see little or no value in the school experience.[2] The dominant-subordinate relationship between teacher and student may lead to conflict, which results in teacher preoccupation with discipline and order. This in turn can create frustrating experiences for the student.

Willower hypothesized that the use of external controls by teachers will be inversely related to the extent to which school is perceived as attractive by students.[3] Custodial pupil control ideology which corresponds to external control, is characterized by the use of devices like ccercion, ridicule and withholding of rewards. "Humanistic" control conceptualized at the other extreme on a continuum from

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[1]Willower and Jones, Phi Delta Kappan, p. 107.

[2]Carlson, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, p. 266.

[3]Willower, Educational Administration Quarterly, p. 42.

"custodialism," is characterized by student learning through interaction and experience, student self discipline, a democratic classroom climate, open two-way communication and increased student self determination.[1]

Thus, it was theorized that teachers or schools characterized by a humanistic pupil control orientation would provide a learning environment which promotes meaningful and satisfying experiences that would develop a positive commitment of students to their teachers and schools. This led to the following hypothesis:

> There will be a positive relationship between the degree of teacher humanism in pupil control ideology and the degree of favorable student attitude toward school, classmates and teachers.

In addition to the hypothesis, the design of the study allowed for the analyses listed below:

1. Separate tests of the major hypothesis for public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools.
2. Analysis of the significance of the difference of this relationship for the two types of schools.
3. Comparison of the pupil control ideology of teachers in public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools and comparison of the pupil control ideology of Indian and non-Indian teachers.
4. Comparison of the attitudes of public school students and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students.

The sample included 91 teachers and 1,714 seventh and eighth grade students from six public schools and seven Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools located within the bourdaries of the Navajo Reservation. The Pupil Control Ideology Form developed by Willower, Eidell and Hoy was administered to the teachers, while Tenenbaum's

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[1]Willower, Eidell, and Hoy, The School and Pupil Control Ideology, pp. 5-6.

Student Attitude Questionnaire Test was utilized to determine student attitude toward school, teachers, and classmates.

After the raw data were transferred to computer cards, the STPAC program at The Pennsylvania State University Computation Center was used to analyze the data. Spearman's rho correlation coefficient was used to test the hypothesis by correlating the mean pupil control ideology scores and student attitude scores for each school. Spearman's rho was also used to test the hypothesis separately for public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools. The Z test for the difference between two correlations was computed to see if the difference in correlations for the two school types was significant. The t test for the difference between two means was utilized to test the significance for the comparisons of:

1. Pupil control ideology of teachers in public schools and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools.
2. Pupil control ideology of Indian and non-Indian teachers.
3. Attitudes of public school students and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students.

In addition, a single item from the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test was analyzed to compare current findings with a previous study conducted by Sister Josephina. The chi square statistical test was employed to test whether the distribution of frequencies differ significantly from the single item and school type, grade level, and sex.

The results showed that the hypothesis was not supported by the data. The calculated rho yielded a value of -.093, while the critical rho value at the .05 probability level is .480. Thus, the -.093 rho value was not significant and the hypothesis was rejected.

The separate test of the hypothesis for the two school types and the Z test for the difference between two correlations were also non-significant.

The teachers in public schools were found to be significantly more custodial in their pupil control orientation than Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school teachers. The comparison of the pupil control ideology of Indian and non-Indian teachers was not reported since only four Indian teachers were included in the sample. The findings relating student attitude toward school and school type indicated that Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students had a more favorable attitude toward school than public school students. This was significant at the .001 level. Additional significant findings concerning student attitude were:

1. Female students have more favorable attitudes toward school than males.
2. Fourteen year old students have more favorable attitudes toward school than either twelve or thirteen year old students, and fifteen year old students have more favorable attitudes than twelve year old students.
3. Eighth grade students have more favorable attitudes toward school than seventh grade students.
4. Indian students have more favorable attitudes toward school than non-Indian students.

The analysis of the single item from the Student Attitude Questionnaire Test supported the attitude findings related to school type, grade level, and sex mentioned above. The total percentage of students who responded to the single item, "I don't like school" was 18.96. A comparison of the findings of this study and Sister Josephina's is found in Chapter IV, pages 90-91.

Conclusions

The test of the hypothesis led to the conclusion that there is no relationship between the degree of teacher humanism in pupil control ideology and the degree of favorable student attitude toward school, classmates and teachers for the sample utilized. However, teachers from the Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools were found to be significantly more humanistic than public school teachers and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school students had significantly more favorable attitudes toward school than public school students.

Implications

The findings of this study cannot be generalized beyond the public and Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools located on the Navajo Reservation. Indian education at the national level is very complex; schools on the Navajo Reservation are not necessarily comparable to schools elsewhere because of the nature of the students, location of the schools, and the social, economic, and political conditions on the Navajo Reservation. This is especially apparent in comparing the elementary boarding school experience on the Navajo Reservation with other Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools located in other areas.

Any finding from this study that may be employed to shape educational policy for Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding schools should be used after reading the description of the boarding school and the type of student included in this study, Chapter I, pages 19-21 and the speculative discussion of the findings of this study, Chapter IV, pages 83-91.

Suggestions for Future Research

The findings suggest future study in the areas of pupil control ideology, student attitude toward school, and Indian education.

1. Is there a difference between the pupil control ideology of teachers and the pupil control ideology of dormitory personnel in boarding schools?

Etzioni indicated that emphasis on coercive controls is evident in total institutions.[1] The boarding school is a total institution and the control of students is often seen as the function of the dormitory personnel and not necessarily of the teacher. It is predicted that dormitory personnel will be more custodial in pupil control ideology than teachers.

2. Is there a difference between the pupil control ideology of Indian and non-Indian teachers?

Will Indian teachers be more humanistic than non-Indian teachers when instructing Indian students? Four Indian teachers out of a total of 91 were included in this study. The mean pupil control ideology score for the four Indian teachers was 50.75 and 50.96 for the non-Indian teachers. Although not significant in this study, the results of a future study could have implications for the staffing of Indian schools.

3. Is there a relationship between the pupil control ideology of teachers and the amount of local community involvement in schools?

Gipp found that Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school teachers held a relatively custodial pupil control ideology. A possible explanation was attributed to the high degree of staff autonomy

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[1] Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations, pp. 3-66.

in boarding schools.[1] Teachers are isolated and often geographically removed from the influence and pressure of parental and community pressure groups.

4. Is there a relationship between student attitude toward school and the degree of student awareness of militant activities?

It was speculated in this study that as students become more aware of militant activities, they became more critical of the school experience. Unfavorable student attitudes towards school may be the result of increased student criticism.

5. In a boarding school situation, what is the relationship between student attitude towards its two subsystems: dormitory living and academic activities?

What is the major reason why students appear to like school? Do students equally like dormitory living and attending classes? Does one subsystem account for a greater portion of favorable attitudes toward school? What are the student attitudes toward the teacher compared to the dormitory aide? In this study it has been suggested that student attitudes would be more favorable toward the teacher than the dormitory aides.

6. Why do students have favorable attitudes toward school in an all Indian boarding school?

Fuchs and Havighurst found that Indian students have more favorable attitudes in an all Indian school. Students feel more comfortable, less anxious about discrimination and more accepted by peers.[2] How important are peer groups and extended family relationships

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[1]Gipp, "The Relationship of Perceived Community Educational Viewpoints and Pupil Control Ideology Among Teachers," p. 72.

[2]Fuchs and Havighurst, To Live on This Earth: American Indian Education, p. 158.

in a boarding school? Are these relationships fuctional in terms of cognitive and affective student development? An extensive field study of the Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school is suggested to identify, among other things, the peer system and how it supports the student who may need the nurturant features of a boarding school.

7. Is there a relationship between student drop out rates and student attitudes toward school?

Do students who dislike school drop out? Leaving those who reflect a positive or indifferent attitude toward school. What happens to student attitude toward school when students go from one school system to another?

8. Are there differences in student attitudes toward school and toward Indian and non-Indian teachers?

Would Indian teachers create a learning environment conducive to positive attitude development. Would Indian teachers be more demanding of Indian students? In what way? What would be the result in terms of attitudinal development?

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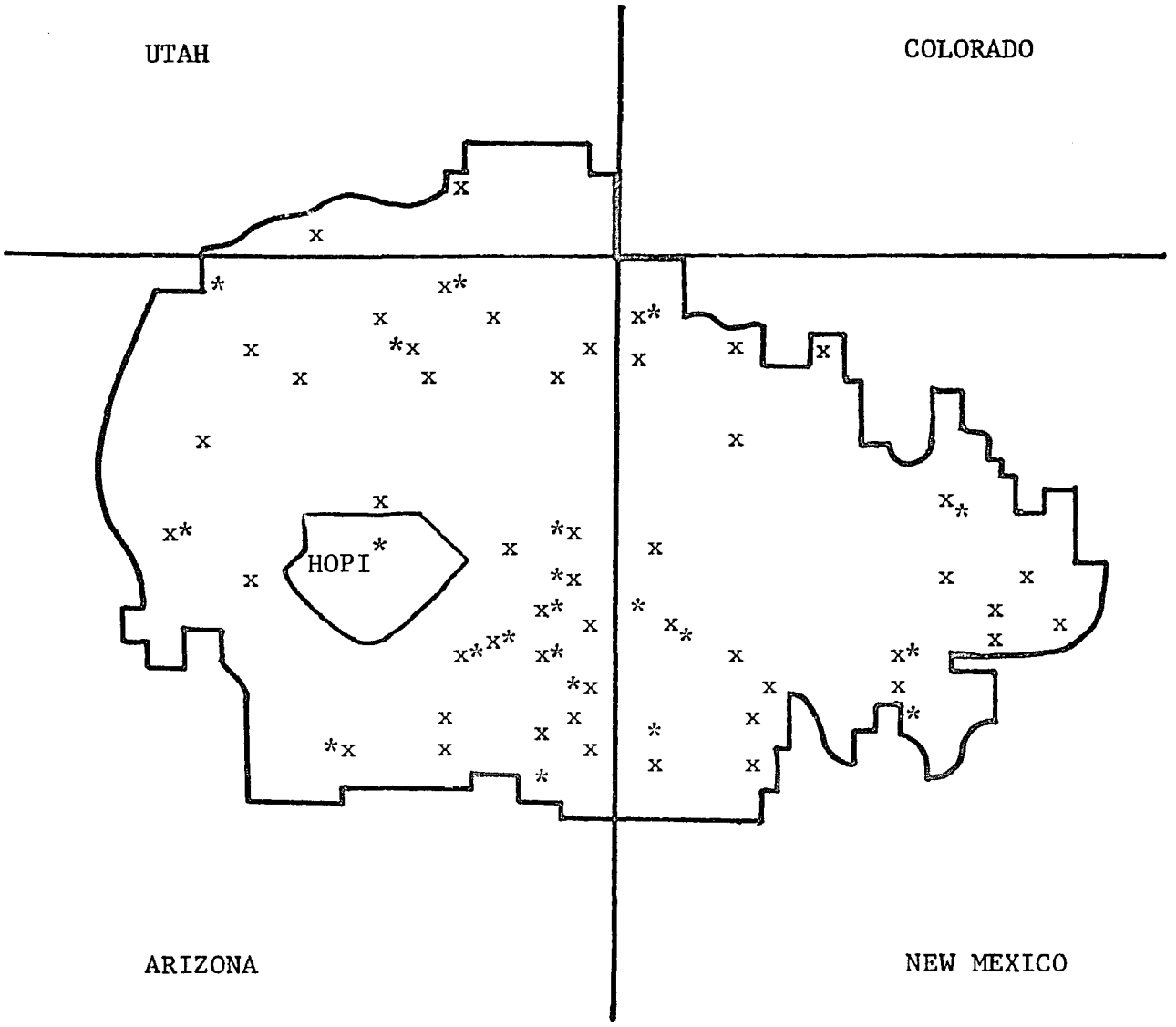
APPENDIX A

MAP OF THE NAVAJO RESERVATION



NAVAJO RESERVATION

Legend
* Public Schools
x Bureau of Indian Affairs Schools

APPENDIX B

THE PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY FORM

Form PCI

I N F O R M A T I O N

On the following pages, a number of statements about teaching are presented. Our purpose is to gather information regarding the actual attitudes of educators concerning these statements.

You will recognize that the statements are of such a nature that there are no correct or incorrect answers. We are interested only in your frank opinion of them.

Your responses will remain confidential and no individual or school will be named in the report of this study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

FORM PCI

INSTRUCTIONS:

Following are twenty statements about schools, teachers and pupils. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by circling the appropriate response on the right of the statement.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	It is desirable to require pupils to sit in assigned seats during assemblies.	SA	A	U	D	SD
2.	Pupils are usually not capable of solving their problems through logical reasoning.	SA	A	U	D	SD
3.	Directing sarcastic remarks toward a defiant pupil is a good disciplinary technique.	SA	A	U	D	SD
4.	Beginning teachers are not likely to maintain strict enough control over their pupils.	SA	A	U	D	SD
5.	Teachers should consider revision of their teaching methods if these are criticized by their pupils.	SA	A	U	D	SD
6.	The best principals give unquestioning support to teachers in disciplining pupils.	SA	A	U	D	SD
7.	Pupils should not be permitted to contradict the statements of a teacher in class.	SA	A	U	D	SD
8.	It is justifiable to have pupils learn many facts about a subject even if they have no immediate application.	SA	A	U	D	SD
9.	Too much pupil time is spent on guidance and activities and too little on academic preparation.	SA	A	U	D	SD
10.	Being friendly with pupils often leads them to become too familiar.	SA	A	U	D	SD

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
11. It is more important for pupils to learn to obey rules than that they make their own decisions.	SA	A	U	D	SD
12. Student governments are a good "safety valve" but should not have much influence on school policy.	SA	A	U	D	SD
13. Pupils can be trusted to work together without supervision.	SA	A	U	D	SD
14. If a pupil uses obscene or profane language in school, it must be considered a moral offense.	SA	A	U	D	SD
15. If pupils are allowed to use the lavatory without getting permission, this privilege will be abused.	SA	A	U	D	SD
16. A few pupils are just young hoodlums and should be treated accordingly.	SA	A	U	D	SD
17. It is often necessary to remind pupils that their status in school differs from that of teachers.	SA	A	U	D	SD
18. A pupil who destroys school material or property should be severely punished.	SA	A	U	D	SD
19. Pupils cannot perceive the difference between democracy and anarchy in the classroom.	SA	A	U	D	SD
20. Pupils often misbehave in order to make the teacher look bad.	SA	A	U	D	SD

APPENDIX C

THE STUDENT ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE TEST

This is not a test. We are simply trying to find out how you feel about school. We want to find out so that we can change things to make school better. That's why it's so important that you say just exactly what you think. Don't be afraid that what you think doesn't sound right. Do not spend too much time thinking out your answers. Remember there are no right or wrong answers. Put down what you think. Your principal and teachers will not see this. No one will see this whom you know. You do not have to put your name down on this paper. But if you are not absolutely honest and say exactly what you think, the whole experiment will be spoiled. Once you understand this, I am sure you will help us.

Here is a sample question:

I am happy in school
_____1. All the time.
_____2. Most of the time.
_____3. Pretty often.
_____4. Hardly ever.
_____5. Never.

I want you to forget all about school being a place where you learn things. Think of it for a moment as a place where you like or do not like to be. If you never have a sad moment in school where would you place your check? Of course, next to No. 1, "All the time." If you are always sad in school, where would you then place your check? Yes, next to No. 5, "Never." If you hardly ever have sad moments in school where would you place your check? Yes, next to No. 2, "Most of the time." If you have sad moments, but still you are pretty happy in school where would you place your check? Of course, next to No. 3, "Pretty often." But if you are sad most of the time, where would you put your check? Of course, next to No. 4, "Hardly ever."

You will find many questions like this one. Please try to answer them in the same way. You will find other questions that may be answered by either "Yes" or "No." Place a check next to either "Yes" or "No," for each question.

Remember, your answers cannot be wrong, since there is no right or wrong answer. Try to answer each of the questions. Once the signal is given to write, you will not be permitted to ask questions. We are sure that you will say just what you think. In that way you will help us.

I. I am happy in school
_____1. All the time.
_____2. Most of the time.
_____3. Pretty often.
_____4. Hardly ever.
_____5. Never.

II. When I get up in the morning and think of going to school
_____1. I am happy.
_____2. It doesn't make any difference whether I go to school or some other place.
_____3. I am sad and wish I didn't have to go.

III. If I had my way, I would like to go to school
_____1. No more.
_____2. A year more.
_____3. Two years more.
_____4. Five years more.
_____5. Ten years more.

IV. I like
_____1. All the students in my class.
_____2. Most of the students in my class.
_____3. A great many students in my class.
_____4. Hardly any students in my class.
_____5. None of the students in my class.

V. If I had all the money in the world and never had to worry about money, I would like to
_____1. Stop school right away and have a good time.
_____2. I would go to school until graduation from the 8th grade.
_____3. I would go to school until graduation from high school.
_____4. I would go to school until graduation from college.

VI. I like the teacher I have now
_____1. Very, very much.
_____2. A lot.
_____3. Pretty much.
_____4. I don't like her.
_____5. I hate her.

VII. I wish school were
_____1. From 9:00 until 10:00.
_____2. From 9:00 until 12:00.
_____3. From 9:00 until 3:00.
_____4. From 9:00 until 4:00.
_____5. From 9:00 until 5:00.

VIII. I like

_____1. All the teachers I have.
_____2. Nearly all the teachers I have.
_____3. Most of the teachers I have.
_____4. Hardly any of the teachers I have.
_____5. None of the teachers I have.

IX. I learn

_____1. More in school than I do in any other place.
_____2. More in school than I do in most places.
_____3. Less in school than I do in any other place.

X. When I leave school and start working, I wish that the place where I work is

_____1. Exactly like school.
_____2. Altogether different from school.

XI. I wish that the man I work for when I get a job is

_____1. Exactly like my teachers.
_____2. Altogether different from my teachers.

XII. Check one

_____1. I like school.
_____2. I don't like school.

XIII. If I had my way, I would keep school

_____1. Exactly the way it is now.
_____2. I would make it different.

XIV. You hear students say, "I have a good teacher." "I have a strict teacher." Think of the first teacher you have each day. Is he or she "strict," "mean," "good," "bad?" Put a check by the words that describe your first teacher each day. Say just what you think. Your teachers, nor any one else you know, will see this. In each group choose one and place a check next to the one you have chosen. Make a total of seven check marks.

_____1. Kind
_____2. Mean

_____1. Good teacher
_____2. Bad teacher

_____1. Fair
_____2. Unfair

_____1. Strict
_____2. Just right

_____1. Easy
_____2. Hard

_____1. Smart
_____2. Stupid

_____1. Friendly
_____2. Unfriendly

XV. The students I meet in school are my friends and I like to play with them.
_____1. Yes
_____2. No

XVI. I would rather work than go to school even if I didn't need the money.
_____1. Yes
_____2. No

XVII. I think work is more fun than going to school.
_____1. Yes
_____2. No

XVIII. The things I learn in school are a lot of junk and will not help me when I get out.
_____1. Yes
_____2. No

XIX. If I could get my working papers right away, I would get them right away and start working.
_____1. Yes
_____2. No

XX. I wish I could go to school the rest of my life.
_____1. Yes
_____2. No

XXI. The last item of the Questionnaire reads as follows:

Imagine your best friend asked you, "Do you like school?" What would you answer? Write it down just as you would say it to him. Don't worry about spelling, English or anything else. Write it down, just as if you were speaking. Say just what you think about school. If you like school, say why. If you don't like school, say why. If you do not have enough room, use the back of this paper.

APPENDIX D

SPEARMAN'S RHO CORRELATION COEFFICIENT DATA

SPEARMAN'S RHO CORRELATION COEFFICIENT DATA

	School	Mean PCI	PCI Rank	Mean Attitude	Attitude Rank	D	D^2
BIA	1	48.00	8	36.72	5	-3	9
	2	44.75	12	39.28	1	11	121
	3	50.00	6	38.22	2	-4	16
	4	53.00	3	36.66	6	3	9
	5	38.50	13	36.88	4	-9	81
	6	46.40	9	36.32	7	-2	4
	7	45.00	11	30.62	13	2	4
Public	8	52.57	4	30.65	12	8	64
	9	59.67	1	36.95	3	2	4
	10	51.83	5	31.77	11	6	36
	11	55.60	2	32.63	9	7	49
	12	49.00	7	34.98	8	1	1
	13	45.89	10	32.15	10	0	0

APPENDIX E

PUPIL CONTROL IDEOLOGY FORM INFORMATION SHEET

INFORMATION SHEET

INSTRUCTIONS: Please complete this form by checking the appropriate boxes and filling in blanks where indicated.

1. Sex: ( ) Male ( ) Female

2. ( ) Indian ( ) Non-Indian

3. Marital Status: ( ) Single ( ) Married ( ) Widow(er)
   ( ) Separated or Divorced

4. Age: ( ) 20-29 years ( ) 30-39 years ( ) 40-49 years
   ( ) 50-59 years ( ) 60-69 years

5. Present position (specify as indicated)
   ( ) Elementary teacher (please specify grade _____)
   ( ) Secondary teacher (subject(s)_____)
   ( ) Other (please specify position _____)

6. Type of school employed in
   ( ) Public school
   ( ) BIA boarding school

7. Experience as an educator (as of the end of this academic year)
   _____years as a teacher
   _____years as a principal, supervising principal, or superintendent
   _____years as a guidance counselor
   _____years, other (please specify position _____)

8. Amount of education
   ( ) Less than bachelor's degree
   ( ) Bachelor's degree
   ( ) Bachelor's degree plus additional credits
   ( ) Master's degree
   ( ) Master's degree plus additional credits
   ( ) Doctor's degree

9. Undergraduate preparation
   ( ) Major within the field of education
   ( ) Major in area outside the field of education

10. Graduate preparation
    ( ) Major within the field of education
    ( ) Major in area outside the field of education

APPENDIX F

THE STUDENT ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE
TEST INFORMATION SHEET

INFORMATION SHEET

Please complete this form by checking (✓) the appropriate spaces and filling in blanks where indicated.

1. Male_____ Female_____

2. Age_____

3. Grade_____

4. Indian_____ If Indian, what tribe_____

   Non-Indian_____

5. Boarding School_____

   Public School_____

6. My first period teacher is:

   Indian_____

   Non-Indian_____

VITA

John William Tippeconnic III was born on April 25, 1943, in Lawton, Oklahoma. He was graduated from the Navajo Methodist Mission High School, Farmington, New Mexico. He received the Bachelor of Science degree in education, with a major in social studies, from Oklahoma State University in 1966. In 1971 he received the Master of Education degree, with a major in educational administration, from The Pennsylvania State University.

From 1966 to 1968 he taught in the Albuquerque Public Schools, Albuquerque, New Mexico. He taught at the Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school in Tuba City, Arizona from 1968 to 1970. In January 1973 he became Assistant to the President at Navajo Community College, Tsaile, Arizona, and in June 1973 became Vice President of the same institution. In 1974 he was employed as an instructor at The Pennsylvania State University.