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RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN TEACHERS AND STUDENTS
REGARDING THE FUNDAMENTAL ATTITUDES
AND VALUES OF DEMOCRACY

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Education
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Gwen Sherlin Lewis

August 1988

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Robert M. Lewis, Jr., for his constant encouragement and support.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Special appreciation is expressed to the individuals who assisted me in the completion of this study. To each of these people I am grateful. Appreciation is extended to Dr. Estill Alexander, Dr. Norma Mertz, and Dr. Lester Knight, members of the doctoral committee, for their expert guidance and council. I am especially indebted to Dr. Thomas N. Turner, chairman of the doctoral committee, for his time, patience, and support from the inception of this project to its culmination.

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to determine what, if any, relationship existed between the values and attitudes of teachers and students in the schools of McMinn County, Tennessee, in regard to two issues related to citizenship:

1. How they viewed the United States as a nation.
2. How they perceived their roles as citizens.

The study examined five (5) general areas of concern which the literature indicated were basic democratic values essential to the democratic way of life: 1) voting, 2) forming and expressing opinions, 3) taxes, 4) upholding laws and government, and 5) defense of country. Comparisons were drawn relative to teachers' gender, grade assignment, and years of teaching experience.

A survey instrument based on criteria identified in the literature was designed by the researcher. This survey was administered to McMinn County teachers and to seniors of the two county high schools.

Both groups saw voting as a privilege. A plurality of the teachers favored involvement in a political party, while students were mainly undecided about the need for party membership. Both groups felt strongly that teachers were obligated to teach the principles of democracy and American history at every grade level. Both groups were unsure about teachers presenting alternative philosophies of government. Both students and teachers were either undecided or disapproved extending appropriations for the disadvantaged. Both

groups were undecided about the value of the nuclear arms race but endorsed the space program. A majority of students and a plurality of teachers were undecided about taxes being too high. Both teachers and students exhibited trust in government and felt that all laws should be obeyed. Teachers were against United States involvement in war, while students were undecided. The gender of the teacher was found to be directly related to views concerning war and aggression, males favoring aggression more than females.

In addition to item analysis, a total score on the survey instrument was also compiled so that teacher responses and student responses could be compared holistically. Mean cumulative scores of both groups suggested a moderately high level of agreement with traditional American attitudes, beliefs, and values as measured by the survey.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

I. INTRODUCTION

Though details are debated, it is generally concluded by social studies experts that the most important goal of citizenship education is the development of competent citizens. Political scientists call this "political education," which involves "the training of people in the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which are prerequisite for active and effective participation in civic life" (Remy, 1980). This definition infers that not only knowledge and skills can be taught, but also that attitudes can be taught and learned as well.

One of the most authoritative and accepted publications of the National Council for the Social Studies in recent years was Defining the Social Studies by Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977). In this book the authors made a strong case for citizenship as the central defining purpose of the social studies. In large measure, Barr, Barth, and Shermis only synthesize the major message of leaders in social studies education for half a century. Implicit within citizenship education is the preservation of the values of a society by transferring these from one generation to the next. The underlying message of such treatises as that of Barr, Barth, and Shermis is that if social studies teachers are unable to affect the transferral, they are in large measure

ineffective. If, on the other hand, they are able to do so, they have accomplished their purpose of citizenship education.

Brody (1972) and Raths (1962, 1972) agreed that one of the school's basic tasks is to transmit values and attitudes in such a way that the mature populace is loyal to them. While it is difficult to determine the extent of the contribution of the schools to citizenship education, as opposed to that of the home, peers, television, and the like, it has been generally acknowledged by experts in the field of social studies, and emphasized by Remy (1980), that schools and teachers, regardless of their subject-matter competencies "can affect their students' development of basic citizenship competencies by the way in which they carry out their teaching." In that sense, citizenship competencies and their related capacities transcend content areas.

Teachers are agents of society, according to Farquhar and Dawson (1979:74), with the responsibility of presenting to students whatever society thinks is important. Among the ideas and values that society holds important are respect and loyalty to country, respect for authority, and the gamut of attitudes and viewpoints needed for successful citizenship. Society takes measures to insure that teachers fulfill this responsibility both in hiring and evaluation of teachers. The teacher is expected to embody what the good citizen is as well as expose, teach, and model societal values. According to numerous studies, including those by Hepburn (1983), White (1980), and Wallace (1980), teachers provide explicit and implicit instruction in values, ethics, and morals in their teaching, as well as in the way they

conduct their classes. They also provide role models of those values. They are themselves the values.

II. THE PROBLEM

The central focus of this study was on how teachers define and teach about citizenship and democracy. In 1980, "The Essentials of the Social Studies," a statement of central purpose for the social studies was adopted by the general assembly of the National Council for the Social Studies. This document supported the earlier contention by Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977), that teachers have obligations and responsibilities as agents of society to carry out certain educational functions for society. One of these responsibilities is citizenship education.

Definitions of citizenship education and of good citizenship itself vary, of course. There is vast difference between teaching national patriotism with emotive commitment to country and teaching personal and individual responsibility with commitment to democratic values. "The NCSS Position Statement on Democratization of Schools" (1979) stated that good citizenship is "a way of life." It further stated that schools must do more than preach democracy. They must practice democracy and instruct through modeling. They must "provide young people with an immediate example of a democratic system so that they can feel the effects of democracy."

Whatever the definition of good citizenship or the method of teaching, the question of effectiveness of that teaching remains. Perhaps this question might best be approached by longitudinal studies

using yet undeveloped instrumentation and research. Such research would be difficult and costly, however, and it would require many years to complete. A less time demanding method is needed. After some search for alternatives, the approach chosen for this study was to look for similarities in the democratic values of students and their teachers. Although direct transfer of values from a teacher to a student could not be assumed if their values were similar, high correlations between the democratic values of students and their teachers as a whole would imply that the schools as a whole had provided effective models.

III. THE PURPOSE

The main purpose of this study was to determine what, if any, relationship existed between the values and attitudes of teachers and students in the schools of McMinn County, Tennessee, in regard to two issues related to citizenship:

1. How they viewed the United States as a nation
2. How they perceived their roles as citizens

In order to achieve that purpose it was first necessary to determine in some measurable way what these values and attitudes were in order to make statistical comparisons.

IV. QUESTIONS TO GUIDE THE STUDY

Four authorities were used in the development of the survey used for this study. The authorities were chosen because of their pervasiveness in the literature.

Richard C. Remy was the project director of the Basic Citizenship Competencies Project (1975) aimed at examining research, theory, and practice related to basic citizenship competencies. He was also the director of "Project Span" (1978), a major study conducted by the Social Science Education Consortium (SSEC) funded by the National Science Foundation to help the field of social studies regain a sense of identity and direction for the eighties. Currently, Remy is an associate professor at The Ohio State University, where he holds appointments in the Political Science and Humanities Education Departments. He is also the director of the Citizenship Development Program at Ohio State University's Mershon Center.

Elizabeth C. Farquhar and Karen S. Dawson are noted educational theorists who have been associated with projects related to citizenship education. In 1975 they were appointed to the Citizen Education Staff Office in the United States Office of Education (USDE). Their work there resulted in Citizen Education Today, a report prepared in 1977 which probed the meaning of citizen education and explored major issues in the field.

R. Freeman Butts is a noted historian on citizenship education in the United States. He was a consultant to the Citizenship Education Project in the 1950's at Teachers College, Columbia University. He has also been identified with numerous other civic education projects for the past fifty years, among them the National Task Force on Citizenship Education.

In their writings, all four identified five areas of concern in which teachers should clearly understand, demonstrate, and model

appropriate behavior in their daily associations with young people. These five areas were seen by the authorities to involve basic democratic values essential to the democratic way of life. From the five areas of concern identified by Remy (1980), Farquhar and Dawson (1979), and Butts (1980), the researcher formulated five questions, one from each of the areas, to guide the research. These areas and the related questions were:

Area 1: Voting

Question 1: How do students and teachers feel about voting, election campaigns, and political party affiliation?

Area 2: Forming and Expressing Opinions

Question 2: What are teachers' and students' opinions about their country, democracy, in comparison to other forms of government, and the responsibility of educators to impart democratic attitudes and values and teach history?

Area 3: Taxes

Question 3: How do teachers and students feel about how the government uses tax money?

Area 4: Upholding laws and government

Question 4: How do teachers and students feel about laws and government?

Area 5: Defense of Country

Question 5: How do teachers and students feel about war and aggression?

V. NEED FOR THE STUDY

Little research exists concerning the area of teacher values and attitudes relative to the roles of citizens. There may be several reasons for this. One is the controversial quality of citizenship. Because of the difficulty of measurement and the philosophical values-loaded nature of the issues, who is to say what democratic values should be? At best we can only synthesize these by looking for agreement in the literature.

A second reason may be the lack of objective methods of evaluation. This, in part, is due to the very subjective and personal nature of citizenship itself. This study was undertaken as a step in dealing with this problem.

There are several areas in which this study has implications. Taken together, these implications suggest the need for the study. Among these are the following:

The study has implications for future decisions related to the training and hiring of new teachers. Whether or not students assume values similar to those of teachers is a crucial question in defining the extent to which society should examine the values of teachers coming into the profession.

The study has implications for the way schools monitor and respond to teachers' actions in and out of the classroom. If students actually take on the values of their teachers, the public needs to be more concerned about these actions than if they do not.

The study has implications related to the nature and types of classroom materials available and the freedom teachers have in using them. If there is fear that the teachers' values may not be those children should learn, these materials need to be more structured to be proof against teacher influence.

If teachers' and students' political attitudes and values are drastically different, it may indicate a need for changes in the curriculum. More emphasis on student questioning, decision-making, cooperating as a group, and problem-solving may be appropriate.

Traditionally schools have taught citizenship by teaching American history and government and by emphasizing the salute to the flag, participation in student government, and perhaps student elections. Today's youth, however, face a far more complex world than that of their predecessors. Technological innovations have accelerated changes in values and attitudes. The Vietnam War, Watergate, and the Iran-Contra Affair have created mistrust of government. To further complicate matters, there is evidence that American youth are lacking in basic political knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Education Commission of the States, National Assessment of Educational Progress (1978). In such a changing society, there seems to be a clear need for scholarly attention to the issues of citizen development. One of the requisites of citizenship in a democracy is that citizens should have a minimal understanding of our system of laws and government. Thomas Jefferson expressed it this way:

If a nation expects to be ignorant and free, in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be. The functionaries of every government have propensities to

command at will the liberty and property of their constituents. There is no safe deposit for these but with the people themselves; nor can they be safe with them without information. Where the press is free, and every man able to read, all is safe (Jefferson, 1816, Letter to Col. Charles Yancey - compiled by Seldes, 1967).

The researcher reviewed studies relative to the attitudes and values concerning democracy. Very few studies were found which dealt with students' political attitudes. Neither were any studies identified which dealt directly with the relation between the democratic attitudes of students and teachers. Considering the lack of research in the area, and the assumption that the values and attitudes of teachers do directly influence those of students, the present study seemed important.

VI. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Certain terms were used with specific meanings in this study. These terms are defined below. None of these definitions was derived from any single source. Each is, rather, a composite, constructed from apparent consensus of the literature.

Attitude. A predisposition to experience, to be motivated by, and to act in a predictable way.

Belief. Commitment to values; acceptance as true.

Citizenship. The relationship between the individual and the state.

Citizenship education. The development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes requisite to responsible and effective participation in civic life.

Citizenship competence. Citizens producing consequences which do not violate human rights and which are congruent with principles of liberty and justice in a democratic society.

Civic literacy. An understanding of the basic values of democratic society, knowledge of the operation of informal political processes and formal political institutions, and a continuing awareness of contemporary social issues, problems, and conditions.

Democracy. Freedom to participate in and to influence the decision-making procedures affecting one's life.

Democratic values. Justice, fairness, the rule of the law, freedom and responsibility, majority rule, compromise, the rights of the minority, orderly dissent, and the worth of all people.

Ethics. Standards of right and wrong; moral principles by which a person is guided.

Freedom of expression. The right to speak and the right to hear diverse information and ideas essential to the attainment of political and moral truth.

"Hidden" curriculum. The experiences which are not planned and which result in unintended and often undesired student learnings.

Morals. Guides to what is right and just.

Supportive participation. When citizens take part in their political system, thereby legitimizing the decisions of government.

Values. Standards of conduct, beauty, efficiency, or worth that people endorse and that they try to maintain.

Values conflict. A situation in which an individual is faced with a choice between two or more conflicting alternatives, both of which are valued to some degree.

Values indicators. What people say and do, their actions and statements.

VII. ASSUMPTIONS

Several basic assumptions were important in this study. These included the following:

1. Effective citizenship can be taught and learned.
2. Citizenship competency involving human relations and social skills can be reliably and validly measured.
3. Paper and pencil tests are one of the most effective means available for determining attitudes and values related to democracy.
4. While students' attitudes and values were influenced from many sources, including the home, the peer group, the media, and the community, one important influence was their teachers.
5. Since this study was done in a rural county with a stable student population, it was assumed that a large majority of students in twelfth grade have spent most of their previous school years in the same system.

VIII. LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations

1. This study was based on a paper and pencil attitudes inventory. Paper and pencil tests may not accurately

determine the validity and reliability of individuals with regard to concepts, values, skills, citizenship, and democracy.

2. One graduating class of high school seniors may not be representative of high school seniors in the system across a period of time.
3. One graduating class of high school seniors in one geographic area may not be representative of high school seniors in other geographical areas.

Delimitations

1. Reasoning that high school seniors have been exposed for at least twelve years to the values of their classroom teachers, the study was limited to high school seniors and classroom teachers.
2. The study was confined to McMinn County Schools.
3. The researcher was able to personally administer the survey to teachers in all seven of the elementary schools. In both high schools, however, the researcher had no personal contact with the respondents, but was asked to leave the survey.

Administration of the instrument was left entirely in the hands of the individual teachers, creating an unavoidable variable.

IX. PROCEDURE

The researcher identified five areas of concern in the literature which noted authorities in the field of social studies education saw to involve basic democratic values essential to the democratic way of life. A search of the literature, however, produced no instrument which measured all five of these areas of concern. Because of this problem, the researcher found it necessary to develop an instrument which was called the Citizenship Education Survey (Citizenship Education Survey). For each of the five areas, the researcher formulated a research question. These five questions were the basis for the survey, which consisted of twenty value statements. These value statements were derived from the literature. A listing of references utilized in the formation of the Citizenship Education Survey is found in Appendix B.

As a pilot study, the Citizenship Education Survey was administered to the teachers of three schools of a small city school system during the winter of 1985. After minor modifications based on input from these teachers and university professors, the survey in its final form was administered to all teachers in McMinn County, Tennessee, and to seniors from the two high schools in that county.

Prior to the administration of the Citizenship Education Survey, the researcher sent consent forms (Appendix E) to the parents of all high school seniors asked to participate in the study. Parents and seniors also received a letter explaining the study (Appendix D). A

cover letter (Appendix C) advised teachers of the purpose of the study and their right to withdraw from participation at any time.

Of the 330 county teachers asked to participate in the study, 276 actually did participate. There were 400 high school seniors in the two high schools asked to participate in the study, and of this number, 277 participated. Participants were asked to respond to the twenty values statements using a Likert scale. The Likert technique made it possible to derive a composite score which could be used as an indicator of attitudes and values toward democracy.

X. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter I contained an introduction to the study of student-teacher attitudes and specifically dealt with how teachers defined and taught the concept of democracy and the effectiveness of that teaching. It introduced the problem of whether students nearing completion of their public school experience share similar democratic attitudes and values as those of their teachers. Specifically, the purpose of the study was to determine:

1. How they viewed the United States as a nation.
2. How they perceived their roles as citizens.

It also contained questions to guide the study, the need for the study, definition of terms, assumptions, limitations and delimitations, the procedure used, and the organization of the study.

Chapter II contained a review of selected and related literature related to the nature and learning of attitudes. It also reviewed studies concerning teacher-student attitudes in general, as well as

teacher-student political attitudes. Final sections dealt with attitude change and specific research related to the development of the Citizenship Education Survey instrument.

Chapter III presented the methodology of the study.

Chapter IV presented and analyzed the data collected for this study.

Chapter V contained the findings, the summary, discussion, conclusion, and recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED AND RELATED LITERATURE

I. INTRODUCTION

Many noted social studies scholars (Butts, 1980; Remy, 1980; Frankel, 1977; and Shaver, 1981) agree that the ultimate goal of citizenship education is the transferral of political attitudes and values from one generation to the next. Teachers, of course, cannot instill values and attitudes of personal responsibility alone. The home, church, and peer group are of paramount importance in this respect. The basic ideas and values of citizenship make up the core of knowledge and concepts that form the basis of American education, however. These include political values and attitudes, political knowledge, and the skills of political participation.

Recognizing the fact that students come to school with many preconceived values and attitudes and different backgrounds, interests, and capabilities, the main purpose of this study was to determine what, if any, relationship existed between the values and attitudes of teachers and students in the schools of McMinn County, Tennessee, in regard to two issues related to citizenship:

1. How they viewed the United States as a nation.
2. How they perceived their roles as citizens.

Although direct transfer of democratic values and attitudes from teachers to students could not be assumed if their values were similar,

it might support the theory that teachers had been effective role models.

Several key concepts were addressed in the following sections of this literature review. Since the learning of attitudes and values is a major component of citizenship education, and the major focus of this study was to determine if teachers' political attitudes are related to those of students, it is of the utmost importance that we understand the nature of attitudes and how they are learned. The following section deals with that subject matter. Subsequent sections investigated what research had to say about teacher-student attitudes in general and teacher-student political attitudes, research related to specific areas of citizenship concern, and attitude change.

II. THE NATURE AND LEARNING OF ATTITUDES

An attitude has been defined as "a predisposition to act in a positive or negative way toward persons, objects, ideas, and events (McDonald, 1965). Attitudes are learned in essentially the same way that all other learning takes place. The acquisition of an attitude involves a behavioral change, and motivation precedes all behavioral changes. When a need arises, one is motivated to find responses which will reduce that need. According to Hankins (1973), attitudes are formed in the process of finding responses which will satisfy that need.

Hankins (1973) further stated that some attitudes are by-products of experience. It was his observation that experiences people have create attitudes associated with that experience. Since different

people experience same or similar situations in different ways, exposing students to information about an attitude object does not guarantee the development of an appropriate attitude toward that object. Hankins (1973) further concluded that attitudes cannot be directly taught or directly observed, but are inferred from observations of behavior.

Staats and Staats (1958) have demonstrated that attitudes can also be learned by classical conditioning. Words with neutral meanings can be made to seem either positive or negative when paired with other words which evoke a positive or negative response. Kerpelman and Himmelfarb (1971) found a similar relationship between the consistency of reinforcement and the intensity of the attitude. They concluded from their research that the greater the consistency of reinforcement the greater the likelihood that the subject would say a positive trait was associated with the attitude object.

Several popular theories suggest other ways in which attitudes are formed: According to psychoanalytic theory (Freud, 1955, 1957; Erikson, 1950), attitudes are formed as a result of the establishment of the superego or conscience, a constellation of moral and ideal standards within the individual. The function of the superego is to suppress or divert instincts which violate moral rules of society. This theory attributed the origin of the superego or conscience to parent identification, whereby the child incorporates the values of the parents into themselves. This internalization of attitudes is established during early childhood and is not affected by later identifications or influences.

Social-learning theory is based on the concept that attitudes are learned by direct positive or negative reinforcement of behavior. Bandura (1963), Miller and Dollard (1941), Sears, Rau, and Alpert (1965) and Aronfreed (1968) agreed that the process of social learning is the shaping of an individual's behavior in a desired direction, and parents play a crucial role in the process. Basically, parents shape their children's attitudes in three ways: by punishing them, by rewarding them, and by setting an example for them (Wright, 1971). This theory also recognized that attitudes can be acquired through observation of models. By identifying with a model which reflects given values, the child may model a parent, a teacher, a popular hero, or a peer-group member.

Another approach to the determination of how attitudes are formed is cognitive-developmental theory which originated in the work of Piaget (1965) and received considerable attention in the research of Kohlberg (1964, 1972, 1975). According to this theory, moral development occurs in a sequence of stages. Moral rules are internalized when the child has the ability to reason about moral problems and feels some control over the rules. Kohlberg (1972) argued that moral maturity in judgment and action are closely related and the higher the stage at which a person reasons, the more likely he or she is to behave morally. According to Kohlberg (1972), fifty percent of most people's thinking is at a single stage. True stages come one at a time and always in the same order. All movement is forward and does not skip steps. At each stage the same basic moral concept is defined, but at each higher stage the definition is more general or universal.

There is also a better cognitive organization than the one before it. Children comprehend all stages up to their own, but not more than one stage beyond their own. If indeed teachers' political attitudes do influence those of students, instructional implications for teachers would be the need to ask questions designed to draw out more mature attitudes.

While all of the above theories are interesting and applicable in certain instances, no single theory can explain all of the ways in which attitudes are formed (Katz, Sarnoff, and McClintock, 1969:40). The major focus of this study concerned how teacher political beliefs and attitudes were related to those of students and if there was indeed a relationship. Most of the research that has been done, however, dealt with the general relationship of teacher-student attitudes.

III. TEACHER-STUDENT ATTITUDES IN GENERAL

In the limited amount of research that has been done on the relationship between teachers' and students' attitudes, the results are inconsistent, but most studies conclude that teachers' attitudes do influence those of students (Mager, 1968; Bandura, 1965). Several writers have stressed the importance of favorable teachers' attitudes in the promotion of such attitudes in their students. There appears, however, to be conflict about how this desired outcome may be achieved. Rivera (1987:63) spoke optimistically:

One must take caution not to underestimate the power of a teacher in affecting the minds of youngsters. Most students view teachers as models and look up to them with respect, and being teachers, as well as adults, it is felt that they know best and their opinions bear validity.

Rivera reached the conclusion that there is a significant relationship between teacher attitude and student attitude at all grade levels. He went on to say that since teachers do not simply teach subject matter, but also project some of their attitudes to their students, it could follow that negative attitudes of students toward mathematics have been influenced in a detrimental way by the poor math attitude of one or many of their teachers during their school careers.

Positive verification of the assumption of teacher attitude and its influence on student attitudes was confirmed by a similar study by Aiken and Dreger (1961). They found that college students who had a negative math attitude tended to blame their poor attitude on their teachers. They often saw their previous math teachers as "grim, dull, apathetic, lacking knowledge and understanding of the subject, and having poor teaching ability." The weight of expert opinion seemed to imply that the teachers' attitude toward mathematics did influence the students' attitudes in math at all ages, levels, and environments.

The assumption of teachers' attitudes toward math influencing those of students' attitudes was widespread throughout the literature. Caezza (1970), however, claimed there was no clear-cut evidence to support it. Caezza studied the math attitude of 104 teachers and 2,765 pupils in grades two through six in a New York state school district and found that pupil attitude toward math did not align with teacher attitude over the year covered by the study. Van der Walle (1973) reached a similar conclusion after he administered Aiken's Revised Mathematics Attitude Scale to 63 third and 56 sixth grade teachers as

well as to the teachers' classes. He found no significant relationship between the teachers' attitudes and the attitudes of those of their pupils. Poffenberger and Norton (1965) pointed out that attitudes toward mathematics are a result of many factors including home background and previous experiences. They felt that children's attitudes toward math were formed in their early school experiences, and consequently, their first teachers were the most influential.

An extensive study was done by Schofield (1980) in the area of reading to determine if teachers' attitudes and achievement affect students' attitudes and achievement. Reading attitude and achievement tests were administered to 48 teachers and approximately 900 grade 4 through 6 pupils of those teachers. Findings indicated that high achievement and high attitude in teachers were positively associated with high achievement and high attitudes in pupils.

Mager (1968:83) did research on the effects of modeling and agreed that teachers, along with peers, parents, and relatives, and the mass media do influence student attitudes. Mager suggested also that students learned more by imitation if the model had prestige for the student. Similar research by Bandura (1965) concerning the effects of modeling indicated that if teachers want students to have similar attitudes and beliefs as their own, they must exhibit those behaviors themselves. Although a display of interest and enthusiasm was not thought enough to guarantee that the student would display similar feelings, it was felt that the probability was certainly greater that this would happen than if the teacher displayed apathy and disinterest. Research by Aiken (1961) confirmed that when teachers taught one thing

and modeled something else, the teaching was less effective than if the teacher practiced what he taught.

In studies by Mitchell (1971), Soar (1968), Torrance and Phillips (1969), and Clark and Trowbridge (1971), as reported by Mitchell and Wilkins (1981), creativity in teaching and the positive attitudes of the teacher were given credit for student creative thinking performance and positive attitudes in elementary school students. The same favorable relationships also occurred with students of junior high school age (Clark and Trowbridge, 1971). The consensus of opinion in all of these studies was that teachers' attitudes toward creative thinking in the classroom definitely influenced those of students.

IV. TEACHER-STUDENT POLITICAL ATTITUDES

A limited amount of research has been done on the assessment of teacher influence on student political attitudes. The following studies, however, were representative of the conflicting conclusions which have been reached. Jennings, Ehman, and Niemi (1974) found little congruence between teacher and student political attitudes and came to the conclusion that "direct impact of teacher political beliefs and attitudes on students is nil." In related studies, however, Ehman (1977) reported that Marker (1970) and Silvis (1972) both studied the influence of teachers' attitudes on students' attitudes toward economics and civil liberties and concluded that teacher attitudes had influenced those of students.

Probably the most positive relationship between the political attitudes and values of students and teachers came from the research of

Hess and Torney (1967:101) who determined that the school is "the most important and effective instrument of political socialization in the United States." Hess and Torney did a major study in eight cities and four regions of the United States. They concluded that schools reinforce national attachment as well as the belief in the necessity for citizen participation. They further concluded that "while the family shaped basic loyalties, the school apparently played the largest part in teaching attitudes, conceptions, and beliefs about the operation of the political system." Hepburn (1983:24) supported the conclusions of Hess and Torney and further stated that teachers were seen as individuals who have daily contact and communication with students. Because of this, teachers had the opportunity to develop "lasting impressions" on the political attitudes of their students.

In related research, Elam (1984) replicated the much earlier, but highly significant Anti-democratic Attitudes in American Schools (Remmers, 1963) which was administered in 1952, and compared it with the class of 1984 in 53 school districts, located in 26 states and representing all regions of the United States. The fifteen statements he used for comparison purposes paraphrased basic civil liberties and freedoms guaranteed by the first 10 amendments to the United States Constitution.

Regarding the class of 1952, Elam found little grounds for optimism about young people's understanding of the American heritage and political system or of their personal freedoms. He did find it reassuring that a higher proportion of the class of 1984 believed in freedom of public speech and assembly.

The class of 1984 was, however, also more willing to allow a police search without a warrant, to deny legal council to criminals, and to accept restrictions on religious freedoms. More responses also fell into the "uncertain" category in the class of 1984 than they did in 1952. Elam concluded that young people have a better understanding and appreciation for constitutional freedom than they did in 1952, but they are still reluctant to extend that understanding impartially to all citizens in all situations.

Both surveys concluded that the better the student's knowledge of history and government, the more likely he/she was to hold pro-democratic attitudes. Elam recommended that civics or government courses concentrate more on the "mechanics" of government, rather than on the "values" of democracy, and that teachers place a greater emphasis on the "basic values of freedom upon which democracy rests."

A similar and related study was done in Pennsylvania in 1974 by Sigel (1979). One thousand high school seniors participated in a study conducted by the Survey Research Institute of Temple University. The purpose of the study was to determine if students understood the concept of democracy and could apply democratic principles. Results showed that students had a simplistic, narrow view of what democracy means. The conclusion drawn was that there is a need for more thorough study of the principles of democracy in our schools.

Although most research saw a need for more in-depth study of the principles of democracy, teachers, as reported by Unks (1970), felt that "controversial issues such as sex, courtship/marriage, religion and morality, social class, race and minority-group relations,

economics, and power and the law" were areas which they did not feel free to include in their classroom content. Ehman (1970, 1972), on the other hand, reported that in those classrooms in which a great deal of time was spent in discussion of controversial issues, student political attitudes of cynicism and efficacy were likely to change. This conclusion was also supported by Vaillancourt (1972), Marker (1970), and Silvis (1972).

Teacher-student political attitudes were also addressed by Chiodo (1984). He stated that it was the obligation of the schools, and particularly programs of social studies, to present knowledge of the basic principles of democracy and show modern-day application of them, not blindly indoctrinate students. Chiodo also felt that teachers should serve as models, and democracy should be reflected in the daily operation of the school. By encouraging inquiry into social issues, Chiodo felt that teachers could build support for democratic values at the same time students were learning skills needed for good citizenship.

Participation in public life was mentioned by many authors as a primary responsibility of every citizen (Salisbury, 1978:57-59; Remy, 1980). According to Salisbury, citizenship in a democracy entailed the obligation to be actively involved and to seek fulfillment of personal potential through active participation in the political community. Salisbury stated that support of democracy comes from a commitment to the system and its values and contributes to social stability. He saw the political attitudes of teachers as of the utmost importance in shaping those of students.

According to Hepburn (1983), regardless of the amount of political knowledge and interest shown by youth, a student's interactions with his teachers influences his attitudes and opinions. Hess and Torney (1967) likewise contended that the school provides "content, information, and concepts adding to early attitudes learned at home." Further research by Torney (1970) supported the contention that in the early grades, schooling effectively interacts with family training to mold opinions and attitudes of students. From interviews with both elementary and secondary students, Torney concluded that student formation and expression of opinions and attitudes was influenced by the school "authority system" and transferred to other institutions. She further recognized cognitive development, "which broadens students' perspectives" as a factor in the formation and expression of opinions. Torney saw the years immediately preceding high school as crucial in this regard.

A study using nationwide samples from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (Mullis, 1978) compared the effects of the home, school, and community on the formation of students' political opinions and attitudes. This study produced strong support for the argument that teachers and other school influences play "a major role" in shaping political opinions. Mullis reported that the direct effect of the school on political knowledge and on sociopolitical attitudes was greater than the direct effects of the home. When both direct and indirect effects were considered, the total influence of the home on political knowledge, opinions, and attitudes "was only slightly greater than the influence of the school." This comparative study suggested

the importance of the teacher's role in the sociopolitical education of students in the United States.

Greenstein (1967) observed, in a study of elementary students in New Haven, Connecticut, that many political opinions are learned by American children without deliberate instruction from teachers. In addition to conscious, deliberate efforts of teachers to teach democratic attitudes and opinions, many subtle unintentional processes are at work in the schools which also transmit political concepts and attitudes. School and classroom climate, according to Greenstein, have considerable influence on student formation and expression of opinions. This view was also expressed by Soar (1972).

Conflicting information was reported by Torney, Oppenheim, and Farnen (1975). In an international study of civic education in high schools in ten democratic countries, including the United States, these researchers found that in countries where the classroom climate was one of nationalistic and patriotic ritual, students exhibited less support for democratic values. On the other hand, students demonstrated a higher interest in political participation. Further criticism of high school teachers came from a study done by Langton and Jennings (1968). Theirs was a large national study, and they concluded that high school teachers had only a very weak influence on students' political knowledge and the forming and expressing of political opinions.

V. SPECIFIC AREAS OF CITIZENSHIP CONCERN

A limited amount of research exists concerning teacher-student political attitudes. Much of what has been done is general in nature.

This study was based on five areas of concern identified by Remy (1980), Farquhar and Dawson (1979), and Butts (1980) as basic democratic values essential to the democratic way of life. These areas were 1) voting, 2) forming and expressing opinions, 3) taxes, 4) upholding laws and government, and 5) defense of country. Specific studies related to these areas as well as the theoretical literature for the most part dealt with public opinion and attitudes. There were very few studies which dealt with teacher-student attitudes toward the areas, with the exception of one area, forming and expressing opinions.

Since studies in the area of forming and expressing opinions were also those important to Section IV, Teacher-Student Political Attitudes, they were included in Section IV. Survey statements which dealt with the other four areas were derived in part from other attitudinal measures, as reported in Chapter III or were based on general research and theoretical literature (Appendix B). The following subsections are a summary of that research.

Voting

During the past few years much survey research has dealt with the behavior and opinion of American voters. It was concluded by Flanigan (1968) that social group membership or identification often influences an individual's political beliefs and attitudes. For example, close friends and family members (primary groups) tend to have the same political party preferences and to express similar political attitudes because the same general social forces are influencing them. Also,

according to Patrick and Glenn (1972), primary group members tend mutually to reinforce attitudes and values.

Secondary groups, those which have an indirect and less pervasive influence on individual values, attitudes, and behavior, include teachers, and often serve as reference groups for individuals. Social cross-pressure accounts for the tendency of many voters to switch their party or candidate preferences from one election to the next. When different groups with which a person identifies present two opposing influences, a cross-pressure situation will exist and the individual often will resolve the conflict by not voting, or by splitting his vote between the two parties (Patrick and Glenn, 1972). These ticket splitters, according to De Vries and Tarrance (1972) "offer the best hope for the revitalization of our unique American democracy."

Certain factors influence an individual's decision as to whether or not to vote. First, the significance of an election or whether or not the outcome is personally important to the individual may affect an attitude about voting. Voters who believe they can have an impact on government programs favorable to them are very likely to participate in elections. In contrast, voters who believe government is not likely to be responsive to them are not likely to participate in elections (Mitchell, 1971).

Economics strongly affects the attitudes of voters. Young people, compared to older voters, do not have high incomes. Many college students receive subsidies from the federal government; therefore, they have a special interest in the economic policies of the government.

Taxes on income and sales taxes on consumer goods affect the attitudes of almost all voters (Mitchell, 1971).

A society's political attitudes and values determine who is unfit to vote. This is the main purpose of legal qualifications for voting (Lane, 1959). Attitudes about who should not vote have in the past denied the vote to men without property, black people, Indians, poor people, women, and illiterates.

The President's Commission of Registration and Voting Participation (1963) established by President John F. Kennedy, investigated inequitable voter registration laws, and some of the commission's recommendations have become national law. As a result of the recommendations of the "Commission," in 1970 a federal law banned the use of literacy tests to establish voter eligibility. Attitudes and opinions about the minimum voting age brought about the Twenty-Sixth Amendment to the Constitution, which extended the vote to eighteen-year-olds, another recommendation of the "Commission."

Patrick and Glenn (1972) emphasized that the public should examine these basic generalizations about voting in the United States:

1. Voter eligibility laws reflect a society's beliefs about who is fit, or unfit, to participate in the affairs of government.
2. Our history is marked by the gradual lowering of barriers to voting.
3. Changes in voter eligibility laws have been achieved primarily through legal means.
4. Voter eligibility laws are an important indicator of the extent to which democratic ideals are practiced in our country.

It appears that while youth support the right to vote in general, according to Jones (1980), who did a national analysis of 1800 nine-, thirteen-, and seventeen-year olds (National Assessment of Educational

Progress, 1978), only 41 percent of the nine-year olds felt that a white middle-aged atheist should be allowed to vote. In the same sample, however, 87 percent of the seventeen-year olds would allow the atheist to vote. It was concluded that generally, as youth mature, their willingness to extend the franchise increases.

In spite of the fact that large groups of people have been denied the ballot in the past because of the beliefs and attitudes of others, Mehlinger and Patrick (1972) pointed out that a belief in "government by the people" has been and continues to be an important element of the American political culture. Compared to most other countries of the world, the United States was a leader in granting the vote to more and more people.

The Voting Rights Act of 1965 reflected the intention of Congress to rid the country of racial discrimination in voting. However, in the past, various tests and devices relevant to voting discrimination have been instituted for the purpose of disenfranchising Negroes (Tresolini, 1968). Property qualifications and poll taxes have also been a traditional part of our political structure. Current attitudes, however, have changed since the Twenty-Fourth Amendment to the Constitution eliminated property or poll-tax qualifications for voting. It is the general attitude now that "to the extent that a citizen's right to vote is debased, he is that much less a citizen" (Tresolini, 1968).

Taxes

Surveys of the American public have consistently shown that younger people favor an increase in taxes for increased government services (Katona, 1975). On the other hand, those over age 55 are more fiscally conservative, favoring both tax and expenditure cuts (Mueller, 1963). The rationale for this was that while older people receive considerable benefits in the form of health care and retirement pensions, many view increased state provisions as promoting dependence on hand-outs. Because of this, older people often fail to claim benefits to which they are entitled (National Consumer Council, 1976). Young people simply tend to support what they have always known: large government expenditures are omnipresent (Katona, 1975).

Katona also found that 65 percent of those with a college education felt that government programs should be increased in some areas even if taxes had to be raised, as compared to 39 percent of taxpayers who agreed, but whose education had not progressed beyond grade school. Lewis (1982) felt that more highly educated taxpayers were more aware of the purpose of taxation. The least educated were among the lowest paid and viewed taxation as burdensome. They saw government services as having no relation to taxes paid.

The Gallop Poll administered in 1972 gave the following results (Erskine, 1975) when respondents were asked about tax support for welfare programs: 37 percent thought that state and local governments should continue their present systems of welfare payments; 42 percent thought the federal government should guarantee every family a certain minimum income with shortages made up out of federal tax money; 9

percent thought that welfare payments to needy families should be stopped, leaving the program to private charities; 12 percent had no opinion.

The view that a tax system reflects the dominant attitudes, values, and ideals of government, and conversely, that citizens' views of government are affected by their perceptions of the tax system was brought out in a study by Evans (1978). Evans' findings concerning tax attitudes reflected a dissatisfaction with government. Most people, according to her study, felt that all was not right with the system, even though America's is probably the most effective tax system in the world, with by far the greatest degree of voluntary compliance by taxpayers.

The prevailing attitude of the literature concerning the payment of taxes seemed to be that it was everyone's right to keep their taxes as low as possible. Nobody was expected to pay more than the law demanded. Taxes were seen as enforced exactions, not voluntary contributions (Stern, 1973).

According to Minarik (1985), public dissatisfaction with the income tax was seen as a factor in the growing noncompliance with the tax law. (The IRS estimated that it lost seventy-five billion dollars in 1981 through noncompliance. The IRS also found a trend toward understatement of income and overstatement of exemptions and deductions.) Opinion polls gave our income tax low marks for fairness. Typical taxpayers complained that tax forms and instructions were too complex (Minarik, 1985). Polls also showed that the more "visible"

taxes were rated to be the least fair and were the least popular (Lewis, 1982).

In a survey of taxpayers in the United States (Mueller, 1963), respondents were asked whether the government should spend more, less, or the same on government programs. The two most popular government programs were more help for old people and needy people. Support for both of these programs was reduced by over half, however, when the respondents were asked whether they were prepared to see more spending on these items even if taxes had to be raised.

In related research, Lewis (1981) described a small study in which fifty students were asked about their attitudes concerning the government programs of social security and defense. He found that students were more likely to favor tax cuts in social security than tax cuts in defense spending.

Upholding Laws and Government

The following observations were made by Boydell and Grindstaff (1972) and Vaz (1965) concurred: In a democratic society, laws and government should mirror the attitudes of the public. Certain crimes are widely condemned by society while others are condoned. If sanctions imposed by the law are not consistent with the feelings of the general public, a disrespect for the law may develop.

Disrespect for the law, however, was not evident in a Weekly Reader survey conducted by Johnson, Lynell, and Hess (1984) of 143,750 elementary and high school students across the nation. This study indicated that students have a positive, but realistic view of

government. In the primary grades, about 70 percent of the students thought government could be trusted and that people in government care about what citizens think. In the higher grades, students viewed government with a more skeptical attitudes, interpreting citizenship as primarily a personal responsibility (helping others) and conventional obligation (obeying the law), rather than political activity. Students were enthusiastic in their support of the United States as a great country, with freedom its most positive characteristic.

Polls clarify which issues are the concern of most Americans. They are used as a tool with which to study political attitudes of the masses (Erskine, 1973). Erskine (1973) reported on the results of the Harris Poll: In 1967 the 46 percent who agreed that "most politicians are in politics to make money for themselves" had expanded to 63 percent by 1973. Until the Watergate scandal, corruption in government was never mentioned by more than 3 percent of the respondents as a major concern.

An interesting observation concerning attitudes toward law and order was that Democrats are usually on the same side of a crime issue as more educated groups. This happening occurred in spite of the fact that the average educational level of Republicans is much higher than that of Democrats. The most outstanding political characteristic of youth today is, however, nonpartisanship (Erskine, 1973).

Torney et al. (1975) reported on a very important study. Over 30,000 students in 1300 schools and ten countries, including the United States, responded to questionnaires concerning their support of laws and government. Three age groups were sampled: ages 10, 14, and "pre-

university." One overall conclusion was that there was below average support for democratic values in all ten countries.

Torney found the following attitudes toward upholding laws and government in an interview of 12,000 elementary school children in this country:

1. Faith in police declined with age.
2. Older children saw the law and police in a less personalized way than do younger children.
3. Younger children saw the law as prevention of individual misfortune, rather than of society in general.
4. As children grew older, they declined in their belief that all laws are fair.

One overall conclusion reached by Torney was that the objective of developing "loyal, informed, critical, and active participating democratic citizens" was not successfully attained in any of the countries of this study. In some, there was a nationalistic pattern of strong support for the central government but below average support for the legal system.

A study done by Travers (1982) documented the shift that has taken place in the political attitudes of youth since the late 1960's. She collected data in 1970 and again in 1979 from a middle-class urban New England high school. Her sample consisted of 250 juniors both years, and she addressed student attitudes toward school, socio-political attitudes, and level of political participation. On socio-moral measures, Travers' impression was that both sets of students were similar on matters such as trust and political efficacy. The 1979 students were consistently more satisfied with the school, but the 1970 sample held political events to be of more importance, and their level of participation was significantly greater.

Jones (1979) compared two sets of data (1969, 1975) concerning the political knowledge and orientations of youth and found nationwide that political knowledge as well as participation decreased from 1969 to 1975. It was concluded that political trust and interest in government were adversely affected by experiencing this era.

A recent survey, "Mood of American Youth" (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1984), found that today's youth are a fairly contented, conservative lot. Over 75 percent agreed with their parents' political views. They also reported, in comparison with the youth of 1974, that they read more and were very interested in politics. Another recent study by Sigel and Hoskin (1981) reached similar conclusions. They sampled 1,000 high school seniors and found that 89 percent expressed positive attitudes toward the U.S. Only 23 percent expressed more than a moderate trust in government, however, and low levels of political knowledge and participation were noted, with students only willing to get involved if their own values were threatened.

Defense of Country

According to Durbin and Bowlby (1964), if war is due to the fundamental aggressiveness of human beings, then human beings must be changed or their aggressiveness must be restrained. Durbin and Bowlby (1964) went on to say that people's attitudes toward war and aggression are what they are mainly because of the form of environment in which their inherited natures have developed. Hence it may be possible to change the character of adult behavior and ensure peace by raising our

children in peace-loving homes. Durbin and Bowlby (1964) saw the kind of people who can support the responsibility, freedom, and toleration required by democracy as having a good attitude toward peace, not because they are democratic, but because of the kind of people they are. They further stated that attitudes about defense of country are formed as a result of what people think they ought to do and be -- their sense of duty. The total of what a man feels to be his duty is made up partly of objective moral judgments and partly of compulsions arising from the teaching and discipline of childhood. The expression of aggression becomes respectable through the corporate will of the group, and, in fact, positive moral obligation becomes attached to it. The mutual approval of the members of the group, then, makes conscienceless aggression possible.

May (1964) theorized that most of the attitudes, skills, and knowledge which are used in war were learned for peaceful purposes. Systematic education for aggressive warfare includes the inculcation of certain attitudes, prejudices, beliefs, and devotion to ideals. It is quite possible, then, for individuals to acquire habits of peaceful living with each other, and at the same time to be very warlike with outsiders.

When a group is threatened, the component individuals rush to its defense. Group loyalties appear to be something to which human beings are tremendously prone. The child tends to identify with the group. These loyalties or attitudes toward the group are very difficult to diminish and according to Tolman (1964) should be redirected from expression in war into campaigns against hostile nature.

Allport (1964) made a convincing case for childhood security as an important factor contributing to strong attitudes of trust and relaxation in dealing with others. He pointed out that psychologists were inclined to believe that people are less likely to be swayed into national antagonisms if they have spent reasonably secure childhood years in an atmosphere where affection prevailed and high ideals were taught and practiced both in home and school. Parental attitudes are always adopted, according to Allport, at least to some degree, and schools modify the parental influence.

Allport further stated that whereas national aggressiveness is total in time of war, relatively few citizens feel personally hostile toward the enemy. That is, few citizens in an aggressive nation actually feel aggressive. Their warlike activity cannot be due solely to their personal motivations, but is the result of accepting a designated enemy as a menace.

A study by Sumner (1964) showed an important relationship between one's philosophy of life, his attitudes, and the possession of hostility. People who are afraid of life, who think of men as basically evil and dangerous are people with much race and religious prejudice. They are usually superpatriotic and find their security in national strength and sovereignty. This pattern of rigidity marks the aggressor personality. He lives his life holding fast to ingroup security and hating outsiders.

Seward and Seward (1980) reported findings from their research: women and men differed both in their use of violence and in their approval of violence across a wide range of social conditions,

including foreign affairs, as well as interpersonal relations. Men were also found to be more in favor of the use of the military in international relations and support for America's involvement in wars than women. Differences were somewhat smaller when dealing indirectly with military matters, such as support for defense spending. Existing research indicated a greater inherent predisposition to the use of force among men than women (Seward and Seward, 1980; Davidson and Gordon, 1979; and Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974).

A survey by Blumenthal, Kahn, Andrews, and Head (1972) also assessed attitudes toward violence or aggressive behavior. This study found that a majority of American men believed that the state alone has a legitimate right to exercise major force within the law to solve problems. This was called "legitimate violence." Studies by Mueller (1973) and Converse (1980) suggested that the principle of retributive justice also had wide-spread support among American men; moreover, they held it as a value. Hankins (1973) suggested that some students may come to school with attitudes not conducive to learning and in conflict with basic democratic values. He saw the modification or change of attitudes occupying a large part of the educational process. The following section dealt with the change of attitudes.

V. ATTITUDE CHANGE

According to Lunsford (1979), exposure to information can serve to change attitudes under the following conditions:

. . . when the source of the information is respected, when the initial attitude is not firmly entrenched, when the communication reflects attitudes that are consistent to the

needs of the receiver, and when the communication is acceptable to important reference groups of the receiver.

Research done by Kelman and Hovland (1953) indicated that the communicator's personality, his status, his expertise on the subject, and his stake in the issue all can affect attitude change. They divided high school seniors into three groups and asked them to listen to a recording in which the speaker advocated extreme leniency in the treatment of juvenile delinquency. To the first group the speaker was introduced as a supreme court judge, to the second group he was presented as a member of a studio audience chosen at random. (No other information was given about him.) To the third group he was also described as selected from a studio audience, but he was further described as a former juvenile delinquent out on bail on a charge of drug peddling. A high percentage of the first group considered the judge to be fair in his treatment of juvenile delinquents, while only a few thought the former delinquent was fair and impartial in his presentation. This study demonstrated the fact that characteristics of the communicator have a pronounced effect upon the degree to which the message is accepted. Three weeks later these researchers found that the differences in attitudes among the groups had largely disappeared, and the students' attitudes had reverted to their original position. Apparently, for long-term effects, the communicator and his message must continually be associated. Implications for teachers are that the teacher must be fair and consistent in his/her dealings with students if the teacher is to have credibility with those students.

A teacher stating a conclusion was found to be much more effective in changing attitudes than teachers allowing students to draw their own conclusions. This problem was investigated by Mitchell and Wilkens (1981), and further research by Wagner (1969) indicated that a statement of conclusions by a teacher proved to be more effective in influencing attitudes of less intelligent students than it did those more intelligent.

Two studies which concluded that teacher-led group discussion is an effective way to modify the attitudes of students were undertaken by Kelley and Woodruff (1956) and Asch (1951). Asch further concluded that teacher-led group discussion may make changes in attitudes more permanent. A related study by Kerpelman and Himmelfarb (1971) reached similar conclusions, that the teacher who can get the group to identify with him/her and adopt similar goals is more likely to achieve permanent changes in students' attitudes. Another related study by Flanders, Morrison, and Brode (1968) found that if a teacher was enthusiastic toward teaching and the subject matter, students tended to exhibit a positive attitude toward that class also. The study also found that a well-liked teacher was more likely to be associated with a well-liked subject and vice versa. When a student rejected the teacher, he was also more likely to reject the ideas which the teacher promoted.

Attitude change was investigated from another related aspect by Sensenig and Brehm (1968). They studied the effect on students' attitudes when some position was forced on the students with no consideration for their personal feelings. Sensenig and Brehm

inquired, will forced compliance produce a change of attitude in the desired direction? They concluded that when freedom of choice was reestablished, it was likely that the students would change their position away from the position that was implied or forced on them. The implication of this investigation for teachers was that favorable changes in attitudes cannot be accomplished by threat or through forced compliance.

Many studies in the literature supported moral education as a method to influence the attitudes of students. Rath, Harmin, and Simon (1966), however, emphasized that teachers should not moralize. They suggested that moralizing has little effect except to encourage students not to think for themselves and to accept uncritically what the teacher happens to be telling them at the time.

Considerable evidence does exist, however, that facilitating moral development within a social studies content-oriented curricula is possible. Research by Schneiberg (1979) and Lambert (1981) indicated increase of moral development as a result of moral discussions within social studies classes.

Another study that suggested that children and early adolescents do respond to moral education curricula was done by Rundle (1977). She developed and tested a fifth grade moral education curriculum designed to offer students an opportunity to discuss moral dilemmas, to take the role of others, to make classroom decisions, and to modify classroom rules and conditions.

Rundle's main treatment using the events of the classroom as the content for moral education led to improved moral reasoning. This

study showed significant growth in moral reasoning within the context of a regular classroom. These findings also seemed to support the development of an educational environment in which youngsters are empowered to participate in the making of important decisions.

Two contrary reports of no significant moral development, however, were reported by Kenvin (1981) and Tinkler (1981). Both of these latter studies, however, reported problems with limited classroom involvement and teacher implementation. Details of the studies were not given.

Traditionally, democratic values, beliefs, and attitudes have been taught directly through a logically contrived sequence of social studies content. Some concepts were designed to be established at certain levels, while others were considered more emergent in nature (Linton, 1945:93). Attitudinal changing or shaping was attempted by the association of new situations with sets of circumstances toward which the student had already developed beliefs (Foshay, 1954:28).

Sarnoff and Katz (1954:122) saw the great bulk of the teaching of democratic attitudes and values as being direct methods of argumentation and persuasion and not as successful as generally assumed. Somit (1955:319-322), in his study of the degree to which attitudes toward certain political values were favorably changed as a result of instruction in American government, concurred. He further concluded that while the direct teaching of social studies content does result in greater political knowledge, it cannot be taken for granted that more favorable attitudes are produced.

Engle (1965:12-17) contrasted the divergence of opinion among leading scholars as to the precise nature of the attitudes and values which society expects to be inculcated in students during the educative process. His conclusion was that a consensus of what attitudes and values are to be taught or how they are to be taught does not exist. While it was generally recognized that adherence to certain values and attitudes must be an important outcome of education, according to Kneller (1965:503-506), the means of implementation has been neither implicitly nor explicitly set forth.

Such a strong condemnation of the teaching of attitudes and values through social studies content makes the examination of existent methods and procedures imperative. This is especially true when one considers an examination of related research by Parsons (1964:343-346) which concluded that changing or reshaping values and attitudes is extremely difficult, regardless of the technique employed. The appraisal of values and attitudes and the impact of the educative processes were seen as parts of one of the most complex areas of research and a further reason, according to Robinson (1963:232) why investigations in this area of research should continue.

VI. SUMMARY

This literature review is a summary of research evidence. The chapter explores the nature and learning of attitudes, teacher-student attitudes in general, teacher-student political attitudes, specific areas of citizenship concern, and attitude change. The chapter divisions were determined by the focus of the literature and were not

meant to imply a clear separation. Schools and the teachers who teach in them do not operate independently of one another; they are inextricably interrelated. Various studies reported do not provide a clear-cut case that teachers' attitudes and values do influence those of students. Nevertheless, there is much evidence to support that contention. Chapter III describes the development of the survey instrument and methods used to analyze the data.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

I. INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study was to determine what, if any, relationship existed between the values and attitudes of teachers and students in the schools of McMinn County, Tennessee, in regard to two issues related to citizenship:

1. How they viewed the United States as a nation.
2. How they perceived their roles as citizens.

The study also investigated the teacher variables of gender, years of teaching experience, and job assignment since the emphasis of the study was on the teacher and his/her possible influence on students. A summary of these investigations is in Appendix G.

This chapter discussed the methods used to accomplish the purpose and complete the study. The remainder of the chapter was designed around three major sections: 1) Procedure and Instrument Development (Validity, Reliability, Field Testing, and Revisions, and Scoring; 2) Procedures Used in Selection of Subjects and Administration of the Survey, and 3) Statistical Design and Procedures of the Study.

II. PROCEDURE AND INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

Based on a current review of the literature dealing with citizenship attitudes, five areas of concern were identified by the

researcher. These were areas which individuals identified for this study as basic democratic values essential to the democratic way of life. The areas identified were: 1) voting, 2) forming and expressing opinions, 3) taxes, 4) upholding laws and government, and 5) defense of country. Authorities from whom these areas were derived were Farquhar and Dawson (1979), Remy (1980), and Butts (1980).

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, it was necessary to find some way of measuring values and attitudes related to each of these five areas. A search of the literature identified many questionnaires and survey instruments which dealt with some aspects of citizenship. However, those questionnaires and surveys dealt only partially with the five areas. None addressed all five. Consequently, the researcher deemed it necessary to develop the Citizenship Education Survey. This survey (Appendix A) was a paper/pencil self-report organized around these five areas of concern. It consisted of twenty statements or assertions. Respondents were asked to indicate the response which best indicated their attitude.

In framing the statements for the Citizenship Education Survey, the researcher attempted to use clear, unambiguous language so that the statements would mean the same thing to every respondent. The content and wording of statements were intended to be well within the vocabulary, concept level, and frame of experience of all to whom it would be administered. Careful attention was given to wording in order to reduce the likelihood that the measure reflected characteristics other than those intended. For detailed guidance, these basic sources on interviewing and statement wording were consulted: The Handbook of

Social Psychology (Cannell and Kahn, 1968); Attitudes and Their Measurement (Lemon, 1973); Issues in American Social Work (Kahn, 1959); "Attitudes Can Be Measured," Attitude Measurement (L. L. Thurstone; ed. Gene F. Summers, 1970:134-136); and Anti-Democratic Attitudes in American Schools (Remmers, 1963).

Value statements used in the Citizenship Education Survey were derived from those authorities in the literature who dealt with the social importance of the five areas of concern and in most cases were determined by the findings of previous research in these areas. While no statement was directly quoted, multiple sources were consulted. The statements which dealt with war and aggression were derived from the writing of Durbin and Bowlby (1964), Remy (1980), and Fraenkel (1976). The Scale of Attitude Toward Social Discrimination, The Scale of Authoritarianism, and the Scale of Ethnocentrism, all devised by the Purdue Opinion Panel and reported by Remmers and Kirk (1953) to determine how best to combat anti-democratic attitudes in high school students, were all sources of value statements. To this basic group the researcher added statements relevant to voting and political party affiliation, many of which were derived from the report by the President's Commission on Registration and Voting Participation (1963) which investigated inequitable voter registration laws and attitudes toward voting in general. Allen (1972) was also a general source for those statements which dealt with attitudes toward political parties. The statements which dealt with taxation (4, 15, and 16) were those which concerned the research of Mueller (1963) and Katona (1975), specifically spending on government programs. Research done by Lewis

(1981, 1982), The National Consumer Council (1976), Evans (1978), and Stern (1973) reflected the attitudes toward taxes of the young versus the elderly and the educational level of the taxpayer and its consequential relationship toward tax attitudes. Statements on laws and government came from theoretical comments of Boydell and Grindstaff (1972) and Vaz (1965), and the research of Erskine (1973, 1974, 1975), who reported on public attitudes toward government as reflected by the Harris and Gallop Polls. (See Appendix B for a complete listing of sources used in the development of the Citizenship Education Survey.)

Based on the literature, twenty statements were chosen by the researcher which dealt with the five areas of citizenship previously described. Varying emphasis was placed on each of the five areas in the literature. For this reason, the researcher did not consider the areas as co-equals but endeavored to represent each of the areas with a corresponding number of statements indicative of that emphasis. Also based on the literature, ten statements were constructed to present a negative attitude toward democracy and/or American government. Similarly, ten statements presented positive attitudes. Positive democratic values statements selected related to those basic freedoms guaranteed citizens in the United States Constitution. These freedoms included the right to vote in elections, the right to hold and express opinions concerning the government and the election of public officials, the right to expect government services from the payment of taxes, the right to equality before the law, and the right and responsibility to defend the country from all enemies.

Statement design for this study was important to the establishment of validity. The consideration of validity was, therefore, addressed in the following section.

Validity

In studies dealing with the determination of attitudes and values, researchers often find it difficult, if not impossible, to use quantitative scores in the validation of a survey instrument. According to Borg and Gall (1983), this difficulty is because attitudes and values are of such a nature that they are inaccessible to observation. There is, therefore, no behavior with which a survey or questionnaire can be correlated.

Nevertheless, the validity of the Citizenship Education Survey, which attempted to measure attitudes and values, was an important consideration. In order to establish validity for this particular study, the researcher searched the literature to determine what methods were appropriate and best suited. The American Psychological Association, in its Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests (1974), listed three types of validity: 1) content validity; 2) criterion-related validity; and 3) construct validity. Borg and Gall (1983) added predictive validity to the above three types and stated a commonly used definition of validity, that it is "the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure." They gave the following definitions of the four identified types of validity: 1) Content validity is the extent to which statements or items of a survey or questionnaire represent the content that the instrument was designed to

measure. Content validity is determined by defining the content to be sampled and then describing how that content will be used to develop survey items. 2) Construct validity is the extent to which a survey instrument measures a hypothetical construct not directly observable, but rather inferred from observation of behavior. 3) Criterion-related validity, often referred to as concurrent validity, is determined by comparing test scores of a group of subjects to a criterion measure administered at the same time. 4) Predictive validity is the degree to which predictions made by a survey or questionnaire are later confirmed by behavior of the subjects (Borg and Gall, 1983:276-81).

For this study, the researcher focused on content validity for several reasons. According to Borg and Gall (1983:288), content validity could be established by an objective comparison of the survey items with the total area or concept of which each item was a part. Other experts in test construction, notably Remmers (1954, 1963), Guttman (1947), Edwards and Kilpatrick (1948), Cannon (1973), Struening (1963), Vermillion, Leftwich, and Remmers (1963), and Bohrnstedt (1970), also endorsed this procedure for establishing validity.

The method of construction of the Citizenship Education Survey had in effect been related to establishing validity. Using the procedure described by Borg (1981:95) and Bohrnstedt (1970:91-93), the researcher searched the literature to determine how several widely used textbooks used the five areas or concepts identified by Remy (1980), Farquhar and Dawson (1979), and Butts (1980) as basic democratic values essential to the democratic way of life. A series of statements were then constructed in an attempt to represent all the ways the various authors

used the five concepts. According to Bohrnstedt (1970:92), to the degree that sampling from the content is representative of all the shades of meaning of a given area or concept, the researcher's measuring instrument shows content validity.

This researcher extracted the content of items related to each of the five areas of concern in precisely the manner described by Bohrnstedt (1970:91-93). Each statement was designed to capture one of the various meanings which could logically be associated with that area or concept. Realizing, however, the futility of capturing every single shade of meaning of a particular concept or area, and the need to limit items or statements to a reasonable number which would not discourage teachers and students from completing the survey, the researcher selected those items which were most often mentioned by the various authors consulted. From these items, the researcher constructed twenty statements which became the Citizenship Education Survey. While recognizing the subjective nature of the decision making process, the researcher would maintain that the criterion based nature of the selection process contributed to the validity of the instrument.

Although no expert consulted recognized that content validity could be demonstrated with a single coefficient, they all recognized that statistical procedures can be applied to help insure that items or statements are content valid. The researcher proceeded to use the procedure for determining content validity as described by Remmers (1963). First, the researcher carefully examined the items to determine if the statements chosen as representative of an area appeared to be dealing with the same concept. Next, the researcher

computed product-moment item-total correlations between each statement score and its total area score by computing the mean of the intercorrelations within an area and comparing it with the mean correlation of these statements with statements in other areas. The following formula was used in the tests:

$$r = \frac{(x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y})}{\sum(x - \bar{x})^2 \sum(y - \bar{y})^2}$$

where x represented the individual statement score and y represented the total area score (Ferguson, 1981:113). This procedure was for the purpose of determining whether the items or statements representing a given area correlate higher with each other than they do with items representing other areas. According to Bohrnstedt (1970:93), "If a set of items is really measuring some underlying trait or attitude, then the underlying trait causes the covariation among the items. The higher the correlations, the better the items are measuring the same underlying construct."

In other words, the within-area mean correlation should be higher than the between area mean correlations. According to Remmers (1963), if the mean correlates somewhat higher within its own area than it correlates with other areas, then the statement probably belongs where it is. If the statement does not correlate higher within the area to which it was thought to belong, it is advisable to move that statement to the area with which it most highly correlates statistically. At this point, however, Remmers (1963) makes the point that the statement must also fit into its new area semantically.

Obviously, this is a complicated procedure for establishing validity, and one which is not easy to achieve, since the researcher cannot easily enumerate all of the elements in a given area and then sample from every single one of them. Nevertheless, it is an accepted technique, and one which according to Bohrnstedt (1970), is commonly used with newly developed instruments such as the Citizenship Education Survey, for which validity has not been already established.

The researcher cannot state unconditionally that content validity for this survey instrument was established. However, all correlation coefficients were positive for all five areas (r 's of .195 and .254 are significant at the .05 and .01 levels, respectively (Ferguson, 1981:523). Each statement clearly belongs to one of the five areas, and statement placement in all given areas corresponds with the original area designation of the statements. Referring again to Borg's and Gall's definition (1983:276), "Content validity is the degree to which the sample of test items represents the content that the test is designed to measure," the researcher submits that the Citizenship Education Survey is content valid according to this definition. The following section deals with another important consideration, that of reliability.

Reliability

Reliability may be defined as "the level of internal consistency or stability of the measuring device over time" (Borg and Gall, 1983:281). According to Ferguson (1981:437), four different methods for establishing reliability are commonly used. They are:

1. Test-retest method. The same measuring instrument is applied on two occasions to the same sample of individuals. When the instrument is a psychological test, the test is administered twice to a sample of individuals and the scores correlated.
2. Parallel-forms method. Parallel or equivalent forms of a test may be administered to the same group of subjects, and the paired observations correlated. Criteria of parallelism are required.
3. Split-half method. This method is appropriate where the testing procedure may in some fashion be divided into two halves and two scores obtained. These may be correlated. With psychological tests a common procedure is to obtain scores on the odd and even items.
4. Internal-consistency methods. These are used with psychological tests comprised of a series of items, usually dichotomously scored, a 1 being assigned for a pass and a 0 for a failure. These methods require a knowledge of certain test-item statistics.

The method of determining reliability for the Citizenship Education Survey was through the split-half correlation and involved two procedures. First, a Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation (Ferguson, 1981:112) was computed between teacher scores on the odd versus even numbered items. The same test was then used on student scores. This correlation takes values ranging from -1 to +1. A value of -1 describes a perfect negative relation. A value of +1 describes a perfect positive relation. A value of zero indicates that scores are independent of each other or bear a random relation to each other. The formula used for computation was:

(1) Pearson-Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation

$$r_{hh} = \frac{(xy) - nxy}{(n-1) s_x s_y}$$

r_{hh} = reliability of a half test

n = total number of students/teachers

x = scores on odd items or statements

y = scores on even items or statements

s = standard deviations.

The method described above is equivalent to establishing correlation coefficients between two survey instruments, each with only one-half as many items or statements as the Citizenship Education Survey. A second procedure was used with the Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation to estimate the correlation coefficient for the whole survey. This second procedure involved application of the Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula (Ferguson, 1981:438; Isaac and Michael, 1971:32), and provided an estimate of the reliability of the whole survey instrument. This particular technique was especially valuable to this study since it estimated what the reliability would be if each survey half were made twice as long (Ferguson, 1981:438). From a theoretical point of view, a survey instrument may be made as reliable as one wishes by increasing its length. For this particular study, however, the researcher considered it necessary to restrict the survey length, since teachers and students responded at a very busy time of the school year, the last week of classes. According to Bohrnstedt (1970:91), "reliability is increased only slightly by adding items indefinitely," and it is "more important that selected items have a good item-to-total correlation." The formula used to estimate the reliability of the whole survey was: (2) Spearman Brown Prophecy formula:

$$r_{xx} = \frac{2 r_{hh}}{1 + r_{hh}}$$

r_{xx} = reliability coefficient of whole test

r_{hh} = reliability of a half test (Ferguson, 1981:438).

A reliability coefficient of less than .50 is of little value in making inferences concerning attitudes; a reliability coefficient of between .50 and .75 is considered high enough to allow for such inferences. According to Kretch and Crutchfield (1948:260), with the Citizenship Education Survey, the reliability coefficients for both teachers and students were sufficiently high to meet the minimum levels considered adequate for group measurement. Table 1 summarizes the reliability coefficients of the Citizenship Education Survey for Teachers and Students.

Table 1. Reliability Coefficients for the Citizenship Education Survey for Teachers and Students, McMinn County, 1985

Scores	Split-half Coefficient	Reliability Coefficient of Whole Scale
Teachers	.615	.762
Students	.763	.866

The three remaining types of reliability were not used for this study for various reasons. The test-retest method was impractical since the same students could not be administered the same survey twice

and the scores correlated. Seniors were graduating the following week and administrators would not have been agreeable to the administration of any more surveys at that time. It should be mentioned that with many surveys or questionnaires, according to Ferguson (1981:437), the value of the test-retest method is questionable, since results tend to show a systematic decrease with increase in the time interval separating the two administrations. On the other hand, when the time interval is short between the administration of tests, memory effects may operate. The subject or respondent may recall many of his/her previous responses and proceed to reproduce them. A false high correspondence between the two measurements may result. Variances in environmental conditions, such as noise, temperature, fatigue, or in the case of this study, excitement over practice for graduation exercise, may exert an influence.

If one wishes to establish reliability by the administration of parallel or equivalent forms of a survey instrument, criteria of parallelism are required (Ferguson, 1981:437). Ferguson went on to say that the two equivalent forms should have approximately equal means and standard deviations. In the case of a newly developed survey instrument such as the Citizenship Education Survey, those means and standard deviations were not available since the survey had never before been administered. Ferguson (1981:437) further stated that instructions for administering the two forms should also be the same. Since the researcher was advised by both high school principals to leave the surveys and return for the completed forms later, the researcher was not allowed to give instructions. This problem also

caused an unavoidable variable, since the researcher had been allowed to personally administer the survey to teachers at the elementary schools.

Internal consistency methods, according to Ferguson (1981:437), are primarily used with psychological tests in which respondents' answers are usually scored pass-fail. Since there are no correct or incorrect answers when one is assessing attitudes and values, internal-consistency methods were not practical for the establishment of reliability in this study.

Prior to the administration of the Citizenship Education Survey to the respondents involved in this study, the researcher field tested the survey instrument. The next section deals with that field test experience.

Field Testing and Revisions

Realizing that the Citizenship Education Survey could not be validated by correlation with another survey or questionnaire, the researcher attempted to make it as valid as possible through the use of certain procedures in the field testing process. The survey was administered as a field test to the teachers of three Athens City Schools in Athens, Tennessee, during the winter of 1985. A total of fifty-seven teachers were surveyed and represented grades K-9. (There are no Athens City high schools, but they do have a ninth grade; therefore, some of the respondents were high school teachers.) These teachers were instructed to call attention to any difficulties in understanding the survey's directions or items. Based on input from

these teachers and university professors, two modifications in the survey were made before final distribution to the McMinn County teachers and high school seniors who actually participated in the study: Questions were all aligned in order that all responses were made to the extreme left-hand side of the paper, which facilitated scoring. Wording of one of the statements was also changed. Specifically, item 4, "Our government needs to do more for the disadvantaged," originally read, "Our government needs to do more for the poor, the aged, and the helpless." It was felt that the use of two or more referents left it open for interpretation. Also, item 15 originally read, "Our space program is a total waste of the taxpayers' money." In the refined version, the word "total" was excluded. The following section is concerned with how surveys were scored.

Scoring

After analyzing the subject of attitudes, the researcher selected the Likert technique of scoring for the following reasons: First, beliefs concerning certain attitudes and values in a democratic society are rarely so clear cut as to allow for a simple accept or reject approach. A scale which purports to measure democratic attitudes and values must allow for responses which reflect varying degrees of feeling. Second, the Likert-type scale yields a higher degree of reliability than other types of scales (Kretch and Crutchfield, 1948:219). Third, the scale produces cumulative scores (Table 11) which may be used in making inferences about the full attitudes dimension.

Scores were obtained for each teacher and student participating in the study by weighing the five Likert-type responses for each of the twenty items on the Citizenship Education Survey as follows: A choice of "1" (one), Strongly Agree, was given a score of "5" (five) for a statement reflecting a positive democratic value. A choice of "5" (five), Strong Disagree, was given a score of "1" (one). Conversely, negative statements were scored in an opposite manner; the Strongly Disagree response was given a score of "5" (five) and the Strongly Agree response was given a score of "1" (one). A choice of "3" (three) was taken to be neutral and was given a score of "3" (three). Individual item scores were summed and each survey was given a composite score. The highest possible score was 100 (one hundred) and the lowest 20 (twenty).

The next section is concerned with the selection of subjects. It is also concerned with the procedure used in the administration of the survey instrument.

III. PROCEDURES USED IN SELECTION OF SUBJECTS AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE SURVEY

All McMinn County teachers, a total of 330, were invited to participate in the study. All McMinn County seniors from the two high schools, a total of 400, were also invited to participate. A letter of explanation and request for participation, using the human subjects procedure for conducting a research study of the University of Tennessee, was sent to each teacher and student's parents (Appendixes C and D). In addition, each student received a parental permission slip

for permission to participate in the study (Appendix E), and each teacher received a demographic data sheet (Appendix F). A summary of teacher demographic data is found in Appendix G.

At each of the seven elementary schools the researcher was able to personally deliver and administer the survey to teachers. At both high schools the researcher was asked to leave both students' and teachers' surveys in teachers' mailboxes and return later for their responses. The researcher returned twice to the two high schools and netted a few more responses each time from those who had been absent when the survey was administered.

At the suggestion of the respective high school principals, parental permission slips were given out in homeroom classes on a Friday, and the survey was administered the following Monday. Each homeroom teacher, again respecting the wishes of the principals, was responsible for collecting the signed permission slips, passing out the surveys, and returning both to the respective school offices. The researcher had no personal contact with either the high school teachers or the students, causing an unavoidable variable, since the researcher did have personal contact with the elementary school teachers. Many student permission slips were not returned to the homeroom teachers, and consequently, those students could not participate.

Of the 330 teachers who were asked to participate in the study, 276 completed the survey. From the 400 seniors eligible to participate, there were 277 responses. Total responses were used for analysis. Tables 2 and 3 show a summary of McMinn County teacher and senior responses to the Citizenship Education Survey by schools.

Table 2. Summary of McMinn County Teacher Response to the Citizenship Education Survey

School	Type	Total Teachers	No Teachers Responding	Percent
1	H.S.	55	41	75
2	H.S.	70	54	77
3	E.	38	35	92
4	E.	31	31	100
5	E.	30	24	80
6	E.	10	10	100
7	E.	21	21	100
8	E.	39	32	82
9	E.	36	28	78
Totals		330	276	84

Table 3. Summary of McMinn County Senior Student Response to the Citizenship Education Survey

School	Total Senior Students	No. Students Responding	Percent
1	123	81	66
2	277	196	77
Totals	400	277	69

The response rate was quite positive in view of the fact that teachers and students received their surveys at one of the busiest times of the school year, the last week of classes. The schools which reflected the highest rate of return for teachers were those in which the researcher was able to personally deliver and administer the surveys at faculty meetings. The two lowest return rates came from the high school teachers with whom the researcher had no personal contact.

Participation by students and teachers was voluntary. The letters which accompanied the surveys encouraged participation in the project. Complete anonymity of both teachers and students was maintained.

The high school senior was made the focus of the research since he/she represents the final product of the high schools. Since it was assumed that all teachers with whom the high school senior had come in contact had influenced the students, all K-12 teachers became the focus of the second group. The following section deals with the advantages and disadvantages of descriptive research and the data and questions.

IV. STATISTICAL DESIGN, TREATMENT OF DATA AND PROCEDURES

Design

This study was a piece of descriptive research designed to study attitudes toward democracy. It was concerned with the political attitudes and values of high school seniors and the influence of their teachers.

There are several advantages to this type of design. One advantage of descriptive research is that it provides basic data

necessary for prediction. In relation to this study, students' political attitudes and values may have predicted one value relating to how well the schools are preparing young people to be the responsible citizens of tomorrow. Observations of similar political attitudes and values in teachers and students may cause other researchers to collect additional data in an effort to further assess the teacher-student relationship.

Another advantage of descriptive research is that it helps to determine the current status of educational phenomena. Relationship studies, in particular, are aimed at getting a better understanding of behaviors, or in the case of this study, the attitudes of the groups being investigated, and therefore, low correlation coefficients are as meaningful as high coefficients.

A third important advantage of descriptive research is that it lends itself well to the use of surveys to investigate educational problems. With regard to this study, descriptions of teachers' and students' attitudes and values may provide important leads in identifying needed changes in the school curriculum.

A final advantage to this type of design is the fact that anonymity of the respondent can be assured. Since respondents are anonymous, they can afford to be candid with their replies.

There are some disadvantages to descriptive research, however. One disadvantage is that the investigator tries to determine the nature of the variable he/she seeks to measure. In most cases determination comes down to his/her own judgment. Placing subjects into groups does not insure that they possess only that quality being studied as a

variable. It is quite possible that the subjects may possess characteristics extraneous to the research problem that may possibly influence the variables of the research problem (Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum, 1970:228).

Another disadvantage of this type of research is that "it is relatively rarely that one can correlate his measure with some 'real' criterion variable to assess its validity" (Bohrnstedt, 1970:95). Instead, more indirect validation procedures are necessary and this points up the need for the concepts of construct and content validity.

A final disadvantage of this type of research lies in its reliance on paper/pencil tests (Horton, 1963:24). Paper and pencil tests may or may not be an effective means of determining attitudes and values.

Treatment of Data

One of the objectives of this study was to determine the values and attitudes of high school seniors with regard to democracy, since these young people will be responsible for carrying on the business of life tomorrow. The values and attitudes of youth should serve as a guide for evaluating the process of education so that ends and means can be more effectively geared to each other. It was of concern to determine if teachers' attitudes and values were related to students' in the hope that it would serve as a vantage point from which to explore the needs of youth.

The "t" test was especially useful in this study because it lent itself well to comparisons of the two groups. This particular computation was used to determine if there was a significant difference

between mean scores of teachers and students. The value of "t" in this study, then, was a measure of agreement. The following formula was used in computation:

$$t = \frac{x_1 \text{ (mean of 1st group)} - x_2 \text{ (mean of 2nd group)}}{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}$$

Most data in this study were of an ordinal nature with non-parametric tests applied to the analyses. For example, "t" distributions, chi square distributions, the Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation, and the Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula have the qualities of equality or inequality and/or permit ranking.

In some instances, however, data are considered of an interval nature, such as the various scores possible on the Citizenship Education Survey instrument, frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations. In these few instances, parametric tests for analyzing data were applied. Similarity of results of non-parametric and parametric analyses suggested that the combining of these procedures was permissible.

Procedures

The primary objective of this study was to seek answers to questions concerning the relationship between the attitudes and values of teachers and high school seniors with regard to citizenship and democracy. Five areas of concern were derived from a review of the

literature and identified by the researchers. From these five areas, five related questions, one from each of the areas, was derived. The following questions composed the content of the investigation, followed by the methods used to analyze these questions.

Area 1. Voting

Question 1. How do students and teachers feel about voting, election campaigns, and political party affiliation?

Area 2. Forming and Expressing Opinions

Question 2. What are teachers' and students' opinions about their country, democracy, in comparison to other forms of government, and the responsibility of educators to impart democratic attitudes and values and teach history?

Area 3. Taxes

Question 3. How do teachers and students feel about how the government uses tax money?

Area 4. Upholding Laws and Government

Question 4. How do teachers and students feel about laws and government?

Area 5. Defense of Country

Question 5. How do teachers and students feel about war and aggression?

Each of the twenty statements on the survey were analyzed first with frequency distributions to determine the actual spread of opinion. The frequencies were then converted to percentages to give a clearer view of how the two groups responded to each statement. Finally, in order to assess the relationship of teachers' responses to students'

responses, mean scores for each statement for both groups were computed. The means of each statement for both groups were correlated with a "t" correlation procedure to determine if there was a relationship between the attitudes of the two groups. The magnitude of "t" was an indicator of the strength of the relationship.

The data was analyzed in Chapter IV. That chapter deals with the assignment of statements to areas. Additionally, research questions were answered from the findings of the survey instrument.

V. SUMMARY

This study looked at the democratic attitudes and values of teachers and high school seniors as determined by their responses to a survey instrument, the Citizenship Education Survey. This chapter also dealt with the development and the administration of that instrument, as well as the statistical design of the study and treatment of the data. In Chapter IV the data is presented and analyzed.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND DATA ANALYSIS

I. INTRODUCTION

This study dealt with values, attitudes, and beliefs related to citizenship and democracy. The main purpose of this study was to determine what if any relationship existed between the values and attitudes of teachers and students in McMinn County, Tennessee, in regard to two issues related to citizenship: 1) How they viewed the United States as a nation, and 2) how they perceived their roles as citizens.

A review of the literature indicated that educators have a responsibility to see to it that the principles of democracy are defined and taught within the curriculum. Traditionally, the purpose of the sequence of social studies content has been to impart American democratic values to students. The great bulk of the teaching of democratic values has been through argumentation and persuasion, according to Katz, Sarnoff, and McClintock (1969:122). Their research indicated that such techniques have not been as successful as education assumed. Related research by Soar (1972:28-40) indicated that while direct teaching of social studies content does result in greater knowledge and understanding, it cannot be taken for granted that formation of special attitudes have been produced. Farquhar and Dawson (1979:65-66) agreed that little is known about how experiences in

school are related to future citizen development, and especially how teachers' values influence the political development of American youth. It was concern for the values, attitudes, and beliefs which young people develop related to democracy that prompted this researcher to evaluate teacher beliefs about citizenship education.

In order to determine the precise nature of values related to democracy which teachers felt society expected them to inculcate, as well as to assess the relationship between teachers' and students' attitudes and values, both groups completed a researcher-designed instrument entitled the Citizenship Education Survey (Appendix A). Specifically, the purpose of this instrument was to assess the democratic philosophy of the respondents in five areas of citizenship which noted authorities in the field of social studies education, Farquhar and Dawson (1979), Remy (1980), and Butts (1980), deemed basic democratic values essential to the democratic way of life. All McMinn County teachers, a total of 330, were asked to complete this instrument. In addition, all seniors from the two county high schools, a total of 400, were asked to participate. The total return rate for teachers was 276 or 84%, and for students was 277 or 69% of the total student population.

II. ASSIGNMENT OF STATEMENTS TO AREAS OF CONCERN

For the purpose of analysis, it was necessary that each of the statements on the Citizenship Education Survey be considered in relation to a single area of concern. Prior to collection of the data, the researcher assigned each of the twenty statements on the survey

instrument to a category or area. This was done arbitrarily on the basis of the literature. Final assignment to areas, however, was established after the data had been collected. The researcher computed correlations, each statement with its assigned area and then with other areas. Tables 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 provide a correlation matrix showing product moment total correlation of each statement with each area. These correlations were done to determine the area of "best fit" or the area of which the statement was a part. This procedure was also an item-analysis measure to check on the independence of the areas and to determine if inter-area correlations indicated all statements were measuring some facet of that area.

Inspection of these tables indicates that all correlation coefficients are positive for all statements in all five areas or categories (r 's of .195 and .254 are significant at the .05 and .01 levels, respectively (Ferguson, 1981:523). This means that each statement clearly belongs to one of the five areas, and statement placement in all given areas corresponds with the original area designations of the items.

For example, the researcher attempted to move statement 13, "Americans should be willing to support our country whether it is in the right or in the wrong" and statement 14, "Our country should maintain a considerable margin over our nearest competitor in the nuclear arms race" from their original area, Defense of Country. This was done to determine if perhaps they had been misplaced and better fit another area. Upon movement, however, the r values dropped sharply.

Table 4. Correlation Matrix Showing Statement Total Correlation with Voting Ranked According to (r Value) and Statement Total Correlation with the Other Areas for Both Teachers and Students (Arranged in Descending Order)

	Area I	Area II	Area III	Area IV	Area V
Statement 17. Voting is a privilege of which every qualified citizen should take advantage.	$r = .808$	$r = .213$	$r = -0.18$	$r = -0.1$	$r = .311$
Statement 18. Voting should be restricted to those people who have at least an eighth grade education.	$r = .614$	$r = .159$	$r = -.036$	$r = -.336$	$r = .040$
Statement 19. Voting is a waste of time; all politicians are crooks.	$r = .593$	$r = .118$	$r = -.074$	$r = -.324$	$r = .072$
Statement 5. Everyone should become involved in a political party.	$r = .396$	$r = .109$	$r = .116$	$r = -.071$	$r = .189$
Statement 6. Election campaigns are designed to benefit the wealthy at the expense of the middle class.	$r = .382$	$r = -.102$	$r = -.002$	$r = -.015$	$r = -.026$

Table 5. Correlation Matrix Showing Statement Total Correlation With Forming and Expressing Opinions Ranked According to (r Value) and Statement Total Correlation with the Other Areas for Both Teachers and Students (Arranged in Descending Order)

	Area II	Area I	Area III	Area IV	Area V
Statement 7. Teachers have an obligation to teach the principles of democracy.	$r = .843$	$r = .034$	$r = .119$	$r = .034$	$r = -.218$
Statement 1. The United States is the greatest nation in the world.	$r = .772$	$r = .265$	$r = -.114$	$r = .166$	$r = -.226$
Statement 2. Common sense keeps me from being too enthusiastic about the United States.	$r = .615$	$r = .280$	$r = .120$	$r = .072$	$r = .291$
Statement 9. More people would probably favor Communism if they only knew something about it.	$r = .462$	$r = .179$	$r = .057$	$r = .091$	$r = .123$
Statement 8. Teachers should present alternate philosophies of government, i.e. Socialism, Communism.	$r = .362$	$r = -.072$	$r = -.002$	$r = .018$	$r = .076$
Statement 20. The study of American history should be required at every grade level.	$r = .273$	$R = .042$	$R = .089$	$R = .075$	$R = .161$

Table 6. Correlation Matrix Showing Statement Total Correlation With Taxes Ranked According to (r Value) and Statement Total Correlation with the Other Areas for Both Teachers and Students (Arranged in Descending Order)

	Area III	Area I	Area II	Area IV	Area V
Statement 16. Taxes are too high.	r = .714	r = .096	r = .123	r = -.086	r = -.013
Statement 15. Our space program is a waste of the taxpayers' money.	r = .492	r = .154	r = .116	r = .169	r = -.63
Statement 4. Our government needs to do more for the disadvantaged.	r = .328	r = -.173	r = .084	r = .138	r = .111

Table 7. Correlation Matrix Showing Statement Total Correlation With Upholding Laws and Government Ranked According to (r Value) and Statement Total Correlation with the Other Areas for Both Teachers and Students (Arranged in Descending Order)

	Area IV	Area I	Area II	Area III	Area V
Statement 10. All laws should be obeyed.	r = .715	r = .159	r = .112	r = .186	r = -.063
Statement 11. We have too many laws.	r = .436	r = .116	r = .201	r = -.163	r = -.134
Statement 3. American citizens can trust the political system as a responsive trustworthy institution.	r = .382	r = .316	r = .047	r = .121	r = .183

Table 8. Correlation Matrix Showing Statement Total Correlation With Defense of Country Ranked According to (r Value) and Statement Total Correlation with the Other Areas for Both Teachers and Students (Arranged in Descending Order)

	Area V	Area I	Area II	Area III	Area IV
Statement 13. Americans should be willing to support our country whether it is in the right or in the wrong.	$r = .802$	$r = .306$	$r = .218$	$r = -.034$	$r = .306$
Statement 14. Our country should maintain a considerable margin over our nearest competitor in the nuclear arms race.	$r = .504$	$r = .103$	$r = .074$	$r = .415$	$r = .415$
Statement 12. The United States should never declare war again under any circumstances.	$r = .315$	$r = .172$	$r = .123$	$r = -.143$	$r = .217$

This indicated that even though there was a positive correlation with another area, the "best fit" was still the area to which each was originally assigned. That is, even though statement 13 did have a definite tie to area 4, Upholding Laws and Government ($r = .306$), it had a much stronger link with the area to which it was originally assigned, area 5, Defense of Country. The same was true of statement 14. This statement had a positive correlation with area 3, Taxes ($r = .415$), but it also had an even stronger correlation ($r = .504$) with area 5, Defense of Country.

This positive correlation between areas was also an example of how the areas are interrelated. Some respondents to statement 13 apparently saw "support for the country" as being support for laws and government, while others saw it as military support. Some saw maintaining a considerable margin over our nearest competitor in the nuclear arms race in terms of payment of taxes to support the program. Most, however, saw it related to military support.

Remmers (1954, 1963), Guttman (1947), Edwards and Kilpatrick (1948), Cannon (1963), Struening (1963), Vermillion, Leftwich, and Remmers (1963), and Bohrnstedt (1970) as previously mentioned, recognized this technique as a reliable method of establishing validity. According to Bohrnstedt (1970), "If a set of items is really measuring some underlying trait or attitude, then the underlying trait causes the covariation among the items. The higher the correlations, the better the items are measuring the same underlying construct."

Several findings emerged from the investigation of the five areas of citizenship involved in this study and the five questions, one from

each of the areas, used to guide the study. The remainder of this chapter deals with the analysis of the survey data related to these five areas and questions.

III. QUESTIONS AND FINDINGS

Area 1. Voting

Question 1. How do students and teachers feel about voting, election campaigns, and political party affiliation?

The relationship between teachers' and students' attitudes with regard to voting and party membership was especially interesting. One hundred and nineteen or forty-three percent of the teachers involved in the study either agreed or strongly agreed with statement 5, "Everyone should become involved in a political party." Only seventy-five students or twenty-nine percent of the total felt the same. Many students were undecided (one hundred twenty-three or forty-four percent), as were some of the teachers (seventy-seven or twenty-eight percent). Substantial numbers in both groups disagreed, eighty teachers (twenty-nine percent) and seventy-five students (twenty-seven percent). There was a high standard deviation (S.D.) in both groups, indicating that opinions widely differed. Because the scores were fairly consistent as far as actual numbers of students and teachers who agreed, disagreed, or were undecided, however, there was a significant "t" correlation of 5.013, significant at the .01 confidence level.

Statement 6 was "Election campaigns are designed to benefit the wealthy at the expense of the middle class." Teachers (one hundred thirty-eight or fifty percent) and students (one hundred sixteen or

forty-two percent) agreed that this statement was not true. In both groups, however, there were ninety-six individuals (thirty-five percent) who were not sure or were undecided. More students (sixty-five or twenty-three percent) than teachers (forty-two or fifteen percent) felt that this was a true statement. Nevertheless, the agreement of both groups was substantial, as evidenced by a "t" value of 3.118, significant at the .01 confidence level.

Regarding statement 17, "Voting is a privilege of which every qualified citizen should take advantage," there was a majority of both teachers and students who agreed (one hundred seventy-eight teachers or sixty-four percent). There was a substantial number in both groups who were undecided, sixty-three teachers or twenty-three percent and seventy-four students or twenty-seven percent. Only small numbers, thirty-five teachers or thirteen percent and twenty-two students or eight percent, disagreed with the statement. General agreement was indicated by a significant "t" value at the .01 confidence level of 3.220.

Both groups had a high number of individuals (teachers, one hundred twenty-seven or forty-six percent and students, one hundred forty-three or fifty-two percent) who were undecided about statement 18, "Voting should be restricted to those people who have at least an eighth grade education." On the other hand, one hundred seven teachers or thirty-nine percent and eighty-seven students or thirty-one percent disagreed with the statement. Only thirty-five teachers (thirteen percent) and twenty-two students (eight percent) agreed with the statement. Large numbers in both groups marked "undecided" or

"disagree." The agreement of the groups was indicated by a "t" value of 2.873, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

The last statement concerned with voting was statement 19, "Voting is a waste of time; all politicians are crooks." Both groups disagreed (one hundred forty-three or fifty-two percent of teachers and one hundred twenty-seven or forty-six percent of students). Forty-seven teachers or seventeen percent agreed with the statement, as did fifty-five students or twenty percent. A large number in both groups was undecided (eighty-six teachers or thirty-one percent and ninety-five students or thirty-four percent). The "t" value was 3.684, significant at the .01 level of confidence, reflecting agreement between the groups.

Area 2. Forming and Expressing Opinions

Question 2. What are the teachers' and students' opinions about their country, democracy, in comparison to other forms of government and the responsibility of educators to impart democratic attitudes and values and teach history?

Findings indicated strong teacher agreement (two hundred sixty-three or ninety-five percent) with statement 1, "The United States is the greatest nation in the world." There was higher agreement with this statement among both teachers and students (two hundred sixty-nine or ninety-seven percent) than with any other statement on the survey. The correlation between teachers' and students' responses was also the highest of any statement on the survey with a "t" value of 10.168, significant at the .01 level.

Both groups disagreed strongly with statement 2, "Common sense keeps me from being too enthusiastic about the United States" (seventy-nine percent of the teachers and eighty percent of the students). Twenty-six teachers (nine percent) and thirty-two students (twelve percent) were undecided, while thirty-two teachers (twelve percent) and twenty-two students (eight percent) agreed. The "t" value for this statement was 6.738, significant at the .01 level, and indicated similarity of opinion.

Regarding statement 7, "Teachers have an obligation to teach the principles of democracy," groups agreed that teachers do have that obligation (teachers: two hundred forty-three or eighty-eight percent and students: two hundred twenty-six or eighty-two percent). The agreement was strong enough for a "t" correlation of 3.306, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Statement 8 was "Teachers should present alternate philosophies of government, i.e. Socialism, Communism." The largest numbers of both teachers and students were undecided with regard to this statement (forty-three percent of the teachers and thirty-nine percent of the students). The remainder of both students and teachers was divided almost evenly between those who agreed and those who disagreed. (Seventy-four teachers, twenty-seven percent, agreed or strongly agreed, while eighty-four, thirty percent, voiced disagreement.) In like manner, ninety-one students (thirty-three percent) agreed that teachers should present alternate philosophies of government, while seventy-nine (twenty-nine percent) of students thought they should not. The "t" value for this statement was 4.321, significant at the .01

level, in this case reflecting that choices of answers in both groups were equally spread and attitudes were generally the same.

Regarding statement 9, "More people would probably favor Communism if they only knew something about it," the majority of both groups agreed (sixty-four percent of teachers and sixty percent of students). Again, however, there were substantial numbers of both teachers and students who were undecided (fifty-six or twenty percent of teachers and sixty-six or twenty-four percent of students). Forty-two teachers (fifteen percent) disagreed, as did forty-five students (sixteen percent). This diversity of opinion was spread across both groups equally. This led to a "t" value of 4.067, significant at the .01 level.

Fifty percent (one hundred thirty-nine) teachers agreed with statement 20, "The study of American history should be required at every grade level." Fifty-three percent (one hundred forty-six) students also agreed. One hundred sixteen teachers (forty-two percent) and ninety-nine students (thirty-six percent) were undecided, while twenty-one teachers (eight percent) and thirty-two students (twelve percent) disagreed with the statement. This statement had one of the lowest correlations on the survey, a "t" value of 2.781. The correlation was still significant at the .01 level of confidence, however. The lower correlation was probably a reflection of the large numbers in both groups who were undecided.

Area 3. Taxes

Question 3. How do teachers and students feel about how the government uses tax money?

Regarding statement 4, "Our government needs to do more for the disadvantaged," both groups showed a high degree of indecision (one hundred fifty-one teachers or fifty-five percent and one hundred nineteen students or forty-three percent). Eighty-seven teachers (thirty-two percent) disagreed, as did ninety-nine students (thirty-six percent). On the other hand, thirty-eight teachers (fourteen percent) thought we should do more for the disadvantaged, as did fifty-nine students (twenty-one percent). The "t" value for statement 4 was 6.276, significant at the .01 level of confidence, indicating the general agreement of the two groups.

A plurality of teachers (one hundred twenty-four or forty-five percent) and a plurality of students (one hundred fourteen or forty-one percent) disagreed with statement 15, "Our space program is a waste of the taxpayers' money." Seventy-seven teachers (twenty-eight percent) were undecided, as were one hundred students (thirty-six percent). The remainder, seventy-five teachers (twenty-seven percent), and sixty-three students (twenty-three percent) agreed with the statement. Again, the similarity of responses was responsible for the high correlation, a "t" value of 7.946, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

"Taxes are too high," statement 16, was one on which both groups chose response three, "undecided (one hundred twenty-four or forty-five percent of the teachers, and one hundred eighty-eight or sixty-eight percent of the students). Only eighty-six or thirty-one percent of the teachers and thirty-nine or fourteen percent of the students agreed with the statement, while sixty-six or twenty-four percent of the

teachers and fifty, or eighteen percent, of the students disagreed. This statement had a "t" correlation of 3.329, significant at the .01 level of confidence, indicating general agreement between the groups.

Area 4. Upholding Laws and Government

Question 4. How do teachers and students feel about laws and government?

Of the two hundred seventy-six teachers surveyed, one hundred eighty-seven or sixty-eight percent agreed with statement 3, "American citizens can trust the political system as a responsive, trust-worthy institution." One hundred ninety-eight or seventy-two percent of the two hundred seventy-seven students surveyed also agreed. Sixty-two or twenty-two percent of the teachers were undecided, however, as were thirty-one or eleven percent of the students. More students (forty-eight or seventeen percent) disagreed with this statement than did teachers (twenty-seven or ten percent). The "t" value was 5.499, significant at the .01 level of confidence, indicating agreement between the groups.

Seventy-one percent (one hundred ninety-six) of the teachers and sixty-three percent (one hundred seventy-five) of the students agreed with statement 10, "All laws should be obeyed." Only twenty-three teachers (eight percent) were undecided, compared to forty-eight students (seventeen percent). The numbers who disagreed were also very close, fifty seven-teachers (twenty-one percent) and fifty-four students (nineteen percent). Because of this agreement, the statement had a "t" value of 3.654, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

The last statement of this area was statement 11, "We have too many laws." Fifty-four percent of the teachers (one hundred forty-nine) and fifty-one percent of the students (one hundred forty-one) were undecided about the number of laws we have. Eighty teachers (twenty-nine percent) and sixty-three students (twenty-three percent) disagreed with the statement, while forty-seven teachers (seventeen percent) and seventy-three students (twenty-six percent) agreed. This statement had a "t" value of 6.276, significant at the .01 level of confidence. This strong correlation was because both groups had a majority of individuals who were undecided about the statement, as well as close numbers who disagreed.

Area 5. Defense of Country

Question 5. How do teachers and students feel about war and aggression?

A high percentage of teachers (two hundred three or seventy-four percent) agreed with statement 12, "The United States should never declare war again under any circumstances." Students were closely divided between one hundred forty-eight (fifty-three percent) who agreed, and one hundred twenty-five (forty-five percent) who were undecided. Sixty-one teachers (twenty-two percent) were undecided. Only twelve teachers (four percent) disagreed with this statement, and even fewer students disagreed, four (one percent). Because teachers were so much more in agreement with this statement than were students, the "t" value was 2.879, not as strong as some other relationships, but significant, nevertheless, at the .01 confidence level.

A majority of both groups were undecided about statement 13, "Americans should be willing to support our country whether it is in the right or in the wrong." Sixty-one teachers (twenty-one percent) agreed with this statement, as did sixty-four students (twenty-three percent). On the other hand, fifty teachers (eighteen percent) disagreed, as did sixty-six students (twenty-four percent). The largest support, however, was for the "undecided" choice, one hundred sixty-five teachers (sixty percent) and one hundred forty-seven students (fifty-three percent). This statement had the lowest "t" value of any on the survey, 2.253, but still significant at the .05 confidence level. The lower correlation was probably a result of the large numbers in both groups who were undecided.

A similar pattern emerged with statement 14, "Our country should maintain a considerable margin over our nearest competitor in the nuclear arms race." Like statement 13, both groups were undecided. (One hundred thirty-one teachers, forty-eight percent, and one hundred twenty-six students, forty-six percent, were undecided.) Slightly more students (one hundred fourteen or forty-one percent) agreed with the statement than did teachers (ninety-seven or thirty-five percent). Forty-eight teachers (seventeen percent) disagreed, as did thirty-seven students (thirteen percent). Relative agreement, even though the agreement was toward indecision, produced a "t" value of 3.220, significant at the .01 confidence level.

Table 9 shows responses by numbers and by percentages for both teachers and students to each of the twenty statements on the Citizenship Education Survey. For example, on statement 1, a response

Table 9. Responses to the Citizenship Education Survey by Numbers and Percentages for Teachers (N = 276) and Students (N = 277) in the Schools of McMinn County, Tennessee, 1985

Statement	Responses					
	4-5	%	3	%	1-2	%
<u>Teachers</u>						
1	263	95	1	.5	12	4.5
2	218	79	26	9	32	12
3	187	68	62	22	27	10
4	38	14	151	55	87	32
5	119	43	77	28	80	29
6	138	50	96	35	42	15
7	243	88	26	9	7	3
8	74	27	118	43	84	30
9	178	65	56	20	42	15
10	196	71	23	8	57	21
11	80	29	149	54	47	17
12	203	74	61	22	12	4
13	61	22	165	60	50	18
14	48	17	131	48	97	35
15	124	45	77	28	75	27
16	66	24	124	45	86	31
17	178	64	63	23	35	13
18	107	39	126	46	42	15
19	143	52	86	31	47	17
20	139	50	116	42	21	8
<u>Students</u>						
1	269	97	4	1.5	4	1.5
2	223	80	32	12	22	8
3	198	72	31	11	48	17
4	59	21	119	43	99	36
5	79	29	123	44	75	27
6	116	42	96	35	65	23
7	226	82	42	15	9	3
8	91	33	107	39	79	28
9	166	60	66	24	45	16
10	175	63	48	17	54	20
11	63	23	141	51	73	26
12	148	53	125	45	4	2
13	64	23	147	53	66	24
14	37	13	126	46	114	41
15	114	41	100	36	63	23

Table 9. (Continued)

Statement	Responses					
	4-5	%	3	%	1-2	%
16	50	18	188	68	39	14
17	181	65	74	27	22	8
18	87	31	143	52	47	17
19	127	46	95	34	55	20
20	146	53	99	35	32	12

of four (4) or 5 (5) equals agree or strongly agree. Two hundred sixty-three teachers (ninety-five percent) chose either response four (4) or five (5); one teacher (.5 percent) chose response three (3); and twelve teachers (4.5 percent) chose response one (1) or two (2). By counting the numbers of teachers and students who answered a certain way in each of these three divisions, an arrangement of the data as shown in Table 9 is obtained. Usually, according to Ferguson (1981:18), it is advisable to reduce the number of divisions by arranging the data into arbitrarily defined groupings. To simplify, those individuals who chose either response four (4) or five (5) were grouped together; those who chose either response one (1) or two (2) were grouped together; and those who chose response three (3) made the third group.

Table 10 shows how each of the twenty statements on the Citizenship Education Survey ranked. They are arranged in descending order, based on the magnitude of the "t" value of each statement. The

Table 10. Discriminatory Power of Items on the Citizenship Education Survey, Ranked According to the "t" Value

Rank	Statement No.	5 Equals	Teachers		Students		"t" Value
			Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
1	1	S.A.	4.500	.180	4.825	.096	10.168**
2	15	S.D.	3.767	1.526	3.697	1.789	7.946**
3	2	S.D.	4.093	.985	4.209	1.085	6.738**
4	11	S.D.	3.570	1.135	2.744	.658	6.276**
5	3	S.A.	4.063	1.031	4.105	.906	5.499**
6	5	S.A.	3.825	1.365	2.988	1.641	5.013**
7	14	S.D.	3.790	.554	3.825	.612	4.701**
8	4	S.A.	2.380	1.513	2.740	1.318	4.321**
9	8	S.D.	4.136	.615	4.002	.801	4.067**
10	19	S.D.	3.837	1.076	4.081	1.183	3.684**
11	10	S.A.	3.942	.641	4.104	1.313	3.654**
12	16	S.D.	3.069	1.459	3.208	1.128	3.329**
13	7	S.A.	4.614	.509	4.465	.395	3.306**
14	17	S.D.	4.244	.542	4.442	.592	3.220**
15	6	S.D.	3.651	1.480	3.337	1.345	3.118**
16	12	S.A.	4.295	.085	4.062	1.967	2.879**
17	9	S.A.	4.430	.449	4.163	.592	2.873**
18	18	S.D.	4.122	1.446	3.848	1.365	2.863**
19	20	S.A.	3.337	1.378	3.697	1.263	2.781**
20	13	S.A.	3.523	.970	3.267	1.102	2.253*

1.960 = .05 confidence level.

2.576 = .01 confidence level.

*Significant at the .05 confidence level.

**Significant at the .01 confidence level.

"t" value was an index of the degree of agreement between the two groups. There was a significant correlation at the .01 confidence level between the two groups on every statement, with the exception of statement 13, "Americans should be willing to support our country

whether it is in the right or in the wrong." This relationship was significant at the .05 confidence level.

The standard deviation (S.D.) reported for the two groups was a measure of dispersion of the scores around the mean. The smaller the standard deviation, the greater the concentration of scores around the mean; the larger the standard deviation, the greater the deviation of scores from the mean.

The entries in the third column of Table 10 designate the way in which each item of the survey was weighted, that is, whether the value of five (5), the highest statement score, equals strongly agree (S.A.) or strongly disagree (S.D.). This weighting was an arbitrary decision based on the literature.

Cumulative Analysis of Responses

Other comparisons between the student responses and the teacher responses were focused on cumulative item score results as well as particular item results. Cumulative scores provided a relative attitudinal measure toward the American democratic philosophy. The total scores became more usable when they were compared with individual item scores.

Translating from single item weighting procedures, where five equaled the highest possible item score, to composite weighting yielded one hundred as the highest possible cumulative score. The mean cumulative score for teachers of 77.343 with a standard deviation of 9.831 was equivalent to a 3.867 item score. The mean cumulative score for students of 73.478 with a standard deviation of 7.260 was

equivalent to a 3.673 item score. The "t" value between these means was 4.256, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

The actual range of scores among teachers was from 47 to 94. For students, the range was from 47 to 94. The further distribution of scores is found in Appendixes H and I. Table 11 shows cumulative means, standard deviations, and range of scores on the Citizenship Education Survey for teachers and students.

Table 11. Cumulative Means, Standard Deviations, and Range of Scores on the Citizenship Education Survey of Teachers and High School Seniors in McMinn County, Tennessee, Schools, 1985

Group	Number	Cumulative Mean Scores	Cumulative St. Deviation	Score Range	
				Minimum	Maximum
Teachers	276	77.343*	9.831	47	94
High School Seniors	277	73.478*	7.260	47	87

*"t" value = 4.256, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Of the five areas on which this study was based, 1) voting, 2) forming and expressing opinions, 3) taxes, 4) upholding laws and government, and 5) defense of country, gender was found to be related to only one area, defense of country. Males were found much more

aggressive than females. The calculated chi square for being male and aggressive was 89.3, which far exceeded the level of significance needed at the .01 level with two degrees of freedom, 9.21. The chi square distribution for aggressive attitude is found in Appendix J.

IV. SUMMARY

Chapter IV described the methods of collecting data for the study, the procedure used in the selection of subjects, development of the survey instrument, a discussion of statement assignment to areas of concern, the findings and answers to the questions which guided the research, and an analysis of cumulative scores.

Tables summarized the following: teacher and student response to the Citizenship Education Survey, item mean scores, standard deviations, and "t" values of each of the questions for the two groups, and cumulative means, standard deviations and range of scores for both groups. Chapter V will include a summary of the findings of the study, conclusions, and recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

I. INTRODUCTION

If the most important goal of citizenship education is the development of competent citizens, as is generally concluded by social studies experts, Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977) and Remy (1980), it becomes apparent that the values of society must be transmitted from one generation to the next. Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977) have also acknowledged, and Remy (1980) in particular has emphasized, that schools and teachers, regardless of their subject-matter competencies, "can affect their students' development of basic citizenship competencies by the way in which they carry out their teaching." As agents of society, teachers are expected to embody and model those ideas which society holds important (Farquhar and Dawson, 1979:74). According to Remy (1980), Farquhar and Dawson (1979), and Butts (1980), society holds the following to be important: loyalty to country, respect for government and laws, the right to voice one's opinion and vote according to one's own conscience, the right to bear arms in defense of country, and the right, as well as the obligation, to pay taxes to support the government. The school must practice democracy so that young people have an opportunity to observe and value the ideas that have traditionally been those of a democratic society.

The problem of this study was concerned with how teachers define and teach about citizenship and democracy and the question of effectiveness of that teaching. The approach chosen to determine that effectiveness was to look for similarities in the democratic values and attitudes of teachers and students. While direct transfer of values and attitudes from a teacher to a student cannot be assumed, high correlations might imply that the schools as a whole have provided effective models.

The main purpose of this study was to determine what, if any, relationship existed between the values and attitudes of teachers and students in the schools of McMinn County, Tennessee, in regard to two issues related to citizenship:

1. How they viewed the United States as a nation
2. How they perceived their roles as citizens.

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the researcher identified elements upon which there was a consensus of opinion in the literature. The ideas of four notable authorities in the field of social studies education, Richard C. Remy, Elizabeth C. Farquhar, Karen S. Dawson, and R. Freeman Butts, were used. All of these social studies authorities identified five areas of citizenship competency they considered basic democratic values essential to the democratic way of life. A search of the literature produced no existing instrument which measured all five of these identified areas of concern. (Some instruments measured one or two, but none measured all five.) Because of this problem, the researcher developed the Citizenship Education Survey, based on these five areas, along with five questions to guide

the research. The questions are considered along with the findings of the study in the next section.

The study used as subjects two hundred seventy-six teachers representing K-12 and two hundred seventy-seven high school seniors. Total returns were used for analysis.

Chapter I introduced the study and stated the purpose. A review of recent literature (Chapter II) related to the nature and learning of attitudes, particularly teacher-student political attitudes, was conducted as a basis for the research. Chapter III discussed the development of the survey instrument and methods used to analyze the data. Chapter IV presented the findings of the study as a result of an analysis of the data related to five important areas of attitude. This chapter contains a summary of the findings from the study, conclusions, discussion, and recommendations for future studies.

II. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

In Chapter IV it was determined that there was a definite relationship between the attitudes and values of teachers and students in relation to their democratic philosophy. This summary of findings attempted to show the degree or strength of that relationship. Five specific research questions were formulated to guide the study. These questions are considered below with findings from the study.

Question 1. How do teachers and students feel about voting, election campaigns, and party affiliation?

Finding 1 (a). Both groups valued the right to vote.

The closeness of attitudes between the groups toward voting is reflected by the percentages of both groups (64 percent of the teachers and 65 percent of the students) who agreed to the statement, "Voting is a privilege of which every qualified citizen should take advantage." This close relationship was again apparent in both groups' responses to the statement, "Voting is a waste of time; all politicians are crooks." Fifty-two percent of the teachers and forty-six percent of the students agreed that this statement was not a true estimate of their attitudes about voting. It must be recognized that this latter statement dealt with two referents, namely, voting as a waste of time, as well as the idea that all politicians are crooks. While not as close a relationship was exhibited on this statement as on some others which dealt with voting attitudes, this relationship was strong in view of the fact that the statement may be measuring two concepts. A t test for the first statement showed agreement significant at the .01 level of confidence ("t" = 2.873). For the second statement, the "t" value was 2.781, also significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Finding 1 (b). Both groups saw the positive aspects of election campaigns.

Again, the relationship between the groups was very close in regard to the statement, "election campaigns are designed for the wealthy at the expense of the middle class. The groups (fifty percent of the teachers and forty-two percent of the students) agreed that this was not a true approximation of their attitudes toward election campaigns, even though the statement does not specifically address in

what manner election campaigns are designed for the wealthy or how the middle class pays for them. The "t" value for this statement was 3.118, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Finding 1 (c). The groups were in agreement in their views regarding requirements for voting.

A majority of both groups (46 percent of the teachers and 52 percent of the students) marked "undecided" in their rating of "Voting should be restricted to those people who have at least an eighth grade education." The "t" value for this statement was 2.863, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Finding 1 (d). While teachers endorsed political party affiliation, students were undecided about its importance.

The relationship between the groups' responses to the statement, "Everyone should become involved in a political party" was probably the weakest of any of the statements considered. Though there was some relationship, there was no solid basis of agreement (forty-three percent of the teachers and twenty-nine percent of the students agreed to the statement; twenty-eight percent of the teachers and forty-four percent of the students were undecided; and twenty-nine percent of the teachers and twenty-seven percent of the students disagreed with the statement). There was an almost equal relationship between teachers who were undecided with teachers who agreed. The "t" value for this statement was 5.499, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Question 2. What are teachers' and students' opinions about their country, democracy, in comparison to other forms of government, and the

responsibility of educators to impart democratic attitudes and values and teach history?

Finding 2 (a). Both groups were enthusiastic toward the United States as a country.

There was a strong relationship between how both groups felt about the country. Ninety-five percent of the teachers and ninety-seven percent of the students agreed with the statement, "The United States is the greatest nation in the world." The "t" value for this statement was 10.168, significant at the .01 level of confidence. The same sentiment was expressed when seventy-nine percent of the teachers and eighty percent of the students said that common sense did not keep them from being too enthusiastic about the United States. The wording of the second statement may have been open to interpretation, causing the weaker agreement, comparatively speaking, between groups. The "t" value for this statement was 7.940, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Finding 2 (b). Both groups supported the democratic form of government and agreed that teachers are obligated to teach about democracy.

Again, a majority of both groups (eighty-eight percent of the teachers and eighty-two percent of the students) agreed to the statement, "Teachers have an obligation to teach the principles of democracy." This very strong relationship reflected the groups' mutual favorable attitudes toward democracy. The "t" value for this statement was 4.701, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Finding 2 (c). Both groups supported the study of American history at every grade level.

In keeping with the attitude that teachers should teach about democracy, the groups were closely related in support of the statement, "The study of American history should be required at every grade level." (Fifty percent of the teachers and fifty-three percent of the students agreed with this statement.) This close relationship shows the feeling of both groups that students should know more about the principles on which democracy is based. The "t" value of this statement was 2.253, significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Question 3. How do teachers and students feel about how the government uses tax money?

Finding 3 (a). Both groups were undecided whether taxes are too high.

A plurality of teachers (45 percent) and a majority of students (68 percent) were unsure about the statement "Taxes are too high." While this relationship was strong, it was not as strong as some of the others. Thirty-one percent of the teachers and fourteen percent of the students agreed to the statement, and twenty-four percent of the teachers and eighteen percent of the students disagreed. There was also a moderate relationship between the groups with regard to agreement and disagreement. The "t" value of this statement was 3.329, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Finding 3 (b). Both groups supported the space program.

Similarity of response to the statement, "Our space program is a waste of the taxpayers' money" indicated strong agreement. A plurality of both groups (forty-five percent of the teachers and forty-one percent of the students) supported the program. The "t" value of this statement was 3.118, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Finding 3 (c). Both groups were undecided about further appropriations for the disadvantaged.

With regard to the statement, "Our government needs to do more for the disadvantaged," fifty-five percent of the teachers and forty-three percent of the students were undecided. Also, thirty-two percent of the teachers and thirty-six percent of the students disagreed, both very strong relationships. The "t" value of this statement was 6.276, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Question 4. How do teachers and students feel about laws and government?

Finding 4 (a). Both groups exhibited trust in the political system.

There was significant agreement between the groups regarding the statement, "American citizens can trust the political system as a responsive, trust-worthy institution." A majority of both groups, sixty-eight percent of the teachers and seventy-two percent of the students agreed with the statement. This strong relationship was another indication that the groups felt the government is truly representative, and that the people take part in the process of government. The "t" value of this statement was 6.738, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Finding 4 (b). While both groups supported the law, they were unsure if we have too many laws.

Both groups agreed strongly (71 percent of the teachers and 63 percent of the students) with the statement, "All laws should be obeyed." This close relationship was an indication that both groups saw laws as guaranteeing many rights to the people. The "t" value of

this statement was 3.654, significant at the .01 level of confidence. However, there was also a strong relationship between the groups on the statement, "We have too many laws." A majority of both groups (54 percent of the teachers and 51 percent of the students) were undecided if we have too many laws, an indication that some laws may not be good ones and some (tax laws) only apply to certain groups. The "t" value of this statement was 3.654, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Question 5. How do teachers and students feel about war and aggression?

Finding 5 (a). Both groups valued peace and wanted to avoid war at all cost.

The relationship between the groups again was strong. A substantial majority of teachers (seventy-four percent) and a majority of students (fifty-three percent) agreed to the statement, "The U.S. should never declare war again under any circumstances." This finding may have indicated a desire by both groups to work out our problems with other nations in a peaceful manner. The "t" value of this statement was 3.329, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Finding 5 (b). Both groups were unsure about unconditional support for the country.

The degree of relationship between the groups was again very strong to the statement, "Americans should be willing to support our country whether it is in the right or in the wrong." A majority of teachers (60%) as well as a majority of students (53%) were undecided about unconditional support of the country. This strong relationship

may have indicated a tendency of both groups to question more the position the United States takes in world affairs. The "t" value of this statement was 3.306, significant at the .01 level of confidence. Finding 5 (c). Both groups were undecided about the extent of the country's involvement in the nuclear arms race.

The groups' strong relationship on the statement, "Our country should maintain a considerable margin over our nearest competitor in the nuclear arms race" was evident. While there was some close agreement to the statement by the group (thirty-five percent of the teachers and forty-one percent of the students), a close plurality of both groups were undecided (forty-eight percent of the teachers and forty-six percent of the students). Also, seventeen percent of the teachers disagreed with the statement, and thirteen percent disagreed, another close relationship. This division in attitude, although equally dispersed, shows the extent of the indecision about this issue. The "t" value of this statement was 3.220, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Perhaps even more important than the degree of agreement on individual statements was the overall agreement between teachers and students regarding their political attitudes. Comparisons between teacher responses and student responses was made with cumulative statement scores as well as particular statement scores. Cumulative scores provided a relative measure of attitude toward the American democratic philosophy. Where one hundred equaled the highest possible cumulative score, the mean cumulative score for teachers was 77.343. The mean cumulative score for students was 73.478. The overall "t"

value of 4.256 indicated a correlation at the .01 level of significance.

III. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

Three conclusions were drawn from this study. These conclusions were reached through an analysis of the data.

Conclusion 1. Teachers and students are in substantial agreement with regard to their values and attitudes toward democracy and toward their country.

Through each of the questions addressed by the students and on the instrument as a whole, there appeared to be a marked similarity of response. In the area of voting, teachers and students agreed that voting is a privilege of which every qualified voter should take advantage. In the same vein, both groups also said that voting was not a waste of time, and all politicians are not crooks. Both groups also agreed that election campaigns are not designed for the wealthy at the expense of the middle class. These are values in keeping with the traditional American viewpoint that in a democracy every citizen's vote is important and those people elected to public office truly represent the will of the people.

Teachers and students also agreed that the United States is the greatest nation in the world, and that their enthusiasm for the country was not hampered by their common sense. Both groups felt that teachers have an obligation to teach the principles of democracy and American history at every grade level. They were receptive to the idea, however, that more people would probably favor Communism if they only

knew something about it. These viewpoints reflected strong love of country and a desire to perpetuate the democratic philosophy.

Favorable attitudes toward Communism indicated a willingness at the same time to understand other forms of government.

Teachers and students exhibited trust in the political system, seeing government as responsive to the needs and desires of the public. Again, this trust in government reflected attitudes upon which the country was founded, that government in a democracy guarantees individual rights and freedoms. Trust in the political system was also evident in the groups' agreement that all laws should be obeyed. Both groups saw obeying the law as necessary to the continuance of democratic society.

The feeling that the country should avoid war at all costs was strongly agreed upon. This attitude, while probably not realistic, especially in view of the possibility that our country could be the victim of foreign attack, does show a desire to maintain a peaceful coexistence with other countries.

Conclusion 2. Where any substantive disagreement or lack of agreement existed between the political attitudes of teachers and students, this difference might be attributed in part to such factors as age and inexperience. The teacher sample was older and considerably more experienced, compared to the relatively little experience in the political and economic areas that students had.

This may be reasoned, for example, with regard to the voting question. Teachers and students as groups were both undecided about educational requirements as a prerequisite for voting. While roughly

one-third of both groups disagreed (thirty-nine percent of the teachers and thirty-one percent of the students) that an eighth grade education should be required for voting, most respondents (forty-six percent of the teachers and fifty-two percent of the students) were not sure if this requirement was a good idea. Students involved in this study were just graduating from high school. An eighth grade educational voting requirement meant that high school graduates were assured of their right to vote. Teachers, by contrast, were college graduates. By virtue of the nature of teachers' work, they have probably been exposed to students who have not completed the eighth grade. They probably saw those students who had not attained an eighth grade education as lacking in the skills necessary for successful citizenship.

Another area in which the groups were undecided, and in which economic expertise or the lack of it may have proven a factor, was in the decision whether taxes are too high and in appropriations of tax money for the disadvantaged. Since high school students either have never had a job, or if they have, the job was on a part-time basis, students have had limited experience with paying taxes. Teachers, on the other hand, are older, and in the case of this study, fifty-four percent (Summary of Teacher Demographic Data, Appendix G) had been teaching for twelve or more years. Teachers have seen the effects of an ever-increasing tax burden on their paychecks and their resulting lifestyles. Students may be seeing the effect of increased government spending for the disadvantaged on their parents' pocketbooks and anticipating that it will soon be their burden.

Conclusion 3. When teachers and students were in disagreement, or were in lack of agreement, it might be attributed in part to the eras in which each had lived.

Teachers, for example, endorsed a belief in political party affiliation, whereas, students were undecided about its importance. Teachers involved in this study (Summary of Teacher Demographic Data, Appendix G) had probably experienced corruption in government in both political parties, but because adults tend to have the same political party preferences as those of their parents (Patrick and Glenn, 1972), they tend to stay in the same political party. Students, on the other hand, are probably receiving cross pressure: 1) their families are encouraging them to affiliate themselves with a particular party; 2) teachers, while probably not directly trying to influence students toward political party affiliation are modeling what they consider appropriate behavior, belonging to a political party; and 3) their friends have contradictory ideas.

Both groups were unsure about unconditional support for the country, right or wrong. This attitude is reminiscent of the Vietnam War era when Americans were called upon to physically serve their country in a war which they could not morally support. This indecision whether to support the country if it is in the wrong could be a healthy sign that both students' and teachers' attitudes are changing. Both groups may be recognizing that our country is not always in the right. This attitude is considerably different from the time when draft dodgers ran to Canada to avoid serving in the war and were called traitors to their country.

Even though both groups expressed a positive attitude toward learning more about Communism, both groups were unsure whether teachers should teach alternate philosophies of government. This seemed a contradiction of attitudes. Teachers may feel uncomfortable, however, teaching about Communism and Socialism when they have limited experience with these forms of government. Both groups may also have an underlying fear that democracy is not perfect, and that Americans might even enjoy some aspects of another way of life. On the other hand, the indecision about teaching alternate philosophies may be an indication that times are changing in another way. Americans may be more receptive to new ideas and not blindly accepting democracy as the only way to live.

IV. DISCUSSION

An important finding in this study was that there was a definite relationship between the political attitudes and values of teachers and students involved in this study. This does not imply a causal relationship and does not mean that students were influenced only by their teachers. It indicates only that similar attitudes and values did exist. One approach to the development of opinions and attitudes related to our democratic way of life is that of teachers setting examples for children to respect and emulate. The idea of establishing a relationship between teachers' and students' political attitudes and values allows teachers to assess their influence as role models. This does not mean, however, that the teacher should try to impose his values on his students. If the teacher is concerned about student

ethics, it is the responsibility of that teacher in a democratic society, according to Ezer (1972), "to inform the student of the alternatives and to teach him the skills that are necessary to evaluate those alternatives."

Another way for students to learn political values and attitudes is through the inquiry approach. Rather than teach the content of the fundamental documents, teachers should help students develop problem-solving ability or inquiry skills consisting of the ability to hypothesize, to see all possibilities in a situation, and to relate evidence to inference. To facilitate the development of formal operational thought, teachers should teach participatory skills consisting of data-gathering and communication, basic skills for negotiation, and how to work out problems.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Additional research of two types is needed in the area of student-teacher relationships and political attitudes and values. First, more research needs to be done relative to the measurement of citizen values and attitudes. Second, additional research is needed with regard to the relation between teachers' values and attitudes toward citizenship and those of students.

1. The Citizenship Education Survey developed for this study needs to have some basis for comparison. Other instruments that measure all of the five areas identified from literature need to be developed.

2. Further validation and improvements of the Citizenship Education Survey need to be done. For example, expert rater agreement with items on the Citizenship Education Survey could be one method of validation.
3. The Citizenship Education Survey should be extended in length. Increased length would give greater assuredness that the instrument was free of error variance or factors that might distort results. These factors might include wording of the survey, the ordering of the statements, or the content that was used.
4. Data should be collected and analyzed on the basis of male/female responses for students as well as teachers. The gender of the students involved quite possibly affected some responses, as it did with teachers. Future researchers might consider this possibility.
5. This study and similar studies which have attempted to determine relationships between teacher and student activities, values, and beliefs may contribute to pre-service and in-service education of teachers. As was mentioned in the discussion section, there are many ways for students to inculcate values. Teachers may profit from a closer examination of these educational processes.
6. Knowledge of the classroom climate (open or closed) can be used to select and place teachers for greatest benefit to the students. Students should have some opportunity to become

involved in a learning situation where democracy is practiced.

7. Fragmentation of the curriculum in social studies is a real problem warranting careful selection of topics and examples from history and the contemporary world. These topics should be arranged in a scope and sequence which allows for a continuous building of concepts. Civic education in high school should select from masses of information those examples of world study that illuminate the basic values of justice, freedom, equality, diversity, authority, privacy, due process, and participation as outlined by Butts (1980:132-150).
8. Several studies have generally concurred with the results of the present study. More studies are needed in other geographic areas to confirm further the findings. Now that the relationship between teacher and student attitudes and values has been examined, the actual modeling and teaching methods used in the social studies classroom should be studied. Discrepancies found between what is needed and what exists could pinpoint specific areas of curriculum concentration for educational administration.
9. Studies repeated over a period of time should be done to determine if students' and teachers' attitudes toward various aspects of citizenship change in relation to changes taking place in society. For example, would attitudes toward a

declaration of war by the U.S. change if the United States were invaded by a foreign power?

10. Studies could also be done to determine if age of teachers might be a factor related to citizenship attitudes or attitudes and values.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

SA SD
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

- | | |
|---------------------|--|
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 1. The United States is the greatest nation in the world. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 2. Common sense keeps me from being too enthusiastic about the United States. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 3. American citizens can trust the political system as a responsive, trust-worthy institution. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 4. Our government needs to do more for the disadvantaged. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 5. Everyone should become involved in a political party. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 6. Election campaigns are designed to benefit the wealthy at the expense of the middle class. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 7. Teachers have an obligation to teach the principles of democracy. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 8. Teachers should present alternate philosophies of government, i.e., Socialism, Communism. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 9. More people would probably favor Communism if they only knew something about it. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 10. All laws should be obeyed. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 11. We have too many laws. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 12. The United States should never declare war again under any circumstances. |
| (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) | 13. Americans should be willing to support our country whether it is in the right or in the wrong. |

SA SD
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

14. Our country should maintain a considerable margin over our nearest competitor in the nuclear arms race.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

15. Our space program is a waste of the taxpayers' money.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

16. Taxes are too high.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

17. Voting is a privilege of which every qualified citizen should take advantage.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

18. Voting should be restricted to those people who have at least an eighth grade education.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

19. Voting is a waste of time; all politicians are crooks.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

20. The study of American history should be required at every grade level.

Thank you!

APPENDIX B

References Used in the Development of the
Citizenship Education Survey

Statement 1, Area 2: Forming and Expressing Opinions

Farquhar and Dawson (1979); Morrissett (1980); Patrick (1972); Wheeler and Ryan (1973); Remy (1980).

Statement 2, Area 2:: Forming and Expressing Opinions

Bandman (1969); Dewey (1931); Butts and Cremin (1953); Butts (1955, 1980); Remy (1980); Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1977, 1978).

Statement 3, Area 4: Upholding Laws and Government

D. Allen (1974); Boydell and Grindstaff (1972); Vaz (1965); Erskine (1973, 1974, 1975); Jarolimek (1977, 1981); Wunder (1976).

Statement 4, Area 3: Paying Taxes

Mueller (1963); Katona (1975); Lewis (1981, 1982); The National Consumer Council (1976); Evans (1978); Stern (1973).

Statement 5, Area 1: Voting

R. Allen (1974); Butts and Cremin (1973); Butts (1955, 1980); Farquhar and Dawson (1979); Brogan (1960); Pranger (1968).

Statement 6, Area 1: Voting

R. Allen (1974); The President's Commission of Registration and Voting Participation (1963); Patrick and Glenn (1972).

Statement 7, Area 2: Forming and Expressing Opinions

D. Allen (1974); Hepburn (1983); Dewey (1931); Butts (1955); Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1978).

Statement 8, Area 2: Forming and Expressing Opinions

Broudy (1972); Hepburn (1983); Butts (1977); Pranger (1968).

Statement 9, Area 2: Forming and Expressing Opinions

D. Allen (1974); Jarolimek (1977, 1981); Broudy (1964, 1972); Barr, Barth, and Shermis (1978).

Statement 10, Area 4: Upholding Laws and Government

D. Allen (1974); Remy (1978); Jarolimek (1977, 1981); Morrissett (1980); Maust and Knight (1978); Farquhar and Dawson (1979).

Statement 11, Area 4: Upholding Laws and Government

Heslep (1969); Jarolimek (1977, 1981); Morrissett (1980); R. Allen (1974); Farquhar and Dawson (1979).

Statement 12, Area 5: Defense of Country

Durbin and Bowlby (1964); Remy (1980); Fraenkel (1976); Remmers and Kirk (1953); Bresler (1975).

Statement 13, Area 5: Defense of Country

Bandman (1969); Frymier (1974); Durbin and Bowlby (1964); Remmers and Kirk (1953); Bresler (1975).

Statement 14, Area 5: Defense of Country

Broudy (1964, 1972); Jarolimek (1977, 1981); Fraenkel (1976); Pranger (1968); Frymier (1974).

Statement 15, Area 3: Paying Taxes

Mueller (1963); Katona (1975); Lewis (1981, 1982); The National Consumer Council (1976); Evans (1978); Stern (1973).

Statement 16, Area 3: Paying Taxes

Butts and Cremin (1953); Butts (1955, 1980); Farquhar and Dawson (1979); Brogan (1960); Rafferty (1974); Wunder (1976).

Statement 17, Area 1: Voting

R. Allen (1974); The President's Commission of Registration and Voting Participation (1963); Patrick and Glenn (1972).

Statement 18, Area 1: Voting

R. Allen (1974); The President's Commission of Registration and Voting Participation (1963); Patrick and Glenn (1972).

Statement 19, Area 1: Voting

R. Allen (1974); The President's Commission of Registration and Voting Participation (1963); Patrick and Glenn (1972).

Statement 20, Area 2: Forming and Expressing Opinions

Dewey (1931); Remy (1980); Morrissett (1980); Butts and Cremin (1953); Butts (1955, 1980); Patrick (1972).

Additional Sources of Value Statements: B. J. Allen (1972); Remmers and Kirk (The Purdue Opinion Panel) (1953).

General Sources on Interviewing and Statement Wording:

Cannell and Kahn (1968); Lemon (1973); Kahn (1959); Thurstone (1970); Remmers (1963).

APPENDIX C

Route 4, Shoemaker Road
Athens, Tennessee 37303

Dear Teacher,

For some time I have been concerned about the values which we as teachers convey to our students. I have designed a questionnaire to assess the attitudes of teachers regarding citizenship education. I need your cooperation in responding to this questionnaire. Since I know your time is valuable, the questionnaire has been designed for completion in approximately five minutes.

The purpose of my study is to determine what we as teachers value and to what degree our high school seniors espouse the same ideals. Specifically, the data will be used for developing guidelines for teaching citizenship education.

All replies will be received in confidence and no information will be associated with a particular school or teacher. Return of the completed questionnaire will constitute informed consent for your answers to be used strictly for my research. You may, however, withdraw from participation, without penalty, at any time.

I will be glad to answer any questions you may have concerning the subject and its outcome. My home phone number is 745-5738. The results of the survey will be mailed to each school principal to be posted.

Yours truly,

Gwen Lewis

APPENDIX D

Route 4, Shoemaker Rd.
Athens, Tennessee 37303

Dear Parents of Seniors,

I am a graduate student at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville and a teacher in the McMinn County School System. I have designed a questionnaire to assess the attitudes of high school seniors toward our political system, specifically to determine if students have the same ideals as those of their teachers. The teachers have been administered the same questionnaire. All data will be used for developing guidelines for teaching citizenship education.

All replies will be received in confidence and no information will be associated with a particular school or teacher. Return of the completed questionnaire will constitute informed consent for answers to be used strictly for my research. Any student may, however, withdraw from participation, without penalty, at any time.

I will be happy to answer any questions you may have concerning the project and its outcome. My home phone number is 745-5738. The results of the survey will be mailed to each school principal to be posted.

Yours truly,

Gwen Lewis

APPENDIX E

PARENTAL PERMISSION SLIP

As a concerned citizen and parent I give my permission for my son/daughter to participate in a survey which will soon be administered to seniors at McMinn County High School and Central High School. The survey is for the purpose of developing guidelines for teaching citizenship education. The survey instrument to be used will be available for parental inspection in the offices of the respective school principals. Participation is entirely optional and any student may withdraw from participation without penalty at any time.

(Signed:) _____

APPENDIX F

TEACHER DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

This survey requests your response to some areas of concern to your local school system. Please darken the appropriate response circle for each of the status questions listed below.

* How many total years of full-time, K-12 teaching experience have you had? (Mark One)

- (1) 0-3 years
- (2) 4-7 years
- (3) 8-11 years
- (4) 12 or more years

* What is your sex? (Mark One)

- (1) Male
- (2) Female

* What is your major (50% or more) work assignment? (Mark One)

- (1) Grades K-3
- (2) Grades 4-8
- (3) Grades 9-12

APPENDIX G

Table 12. Summary of Teacher Demographic Data for McMinn County, Tennessee, Teachers (N=276), 1985

	Number Sampled	Percentage
Gender:		
Male	63	23
Female	213	77
Total	276	100%
Teaching Assignment:		
K-3	63	23
4-8	119	43
9-12	94	34
	276	100%
Teaching Experience of Teachers:		
0-3 years	22	08
4-7 years	47	17
8-11 years	58	21
12+ years	149	54
	276	100%

APPENDIX H

Table 13. Frequency Distribution of Cumulative Scores on the
Citizenship Education Survey of Teachers (n=276) in McMinn
 County, Tennessee, Schools, 1985

Score	Freq.	Score	Freq.	Score	Freq.	Score	Freq.
<u>Teachers</u>							
94	1	82	14	70	7	58	--
93	2	81	18	69	4	57	--
92	11	80	12	68	2	56	1
91	3	79	3	67	7	55	2
90	15	78	12	66	4	54	--
89	3	77	5	65	--	53	2
88	12	76	11	64	1	52	4
87	13	75	6	63	2	51	--
86	7	74	18	62	3	50	2
85	13	73	7	61	4	49	--
84	15	72	8	60	1	48	--
83	15	71	5	59	--	47	1
<u>Seniors</u>							
87	13	76	16	65	5	54	--
86	11	75	16	64	5	53	3
85	12	74	13	63	--	52	--
84	15	73	3	62	15	51	1
83	4	72	16	61	2	50	--
82	5	71	5	60	2	49	--
81	12	70	14	59	4	48	--
80	18	69	9	58	1	47	1
79	14	68	8	57	--		
78	16	67	6	56	--		
77	5	66	7	55	--		

APPENDIX I

Table 14. Cumulative Frequencies and Cumulative Percentage Frequencies for Distribution of McMinn County, Tennessee, Teachers' (n=276) and Students' (n=277) Scores on the Citizenship Education Survey, 1985

1 Class Interval (Scores)	2 Frequency	3 Cumulative Frequency	4 Cumulative Percentage Frequency
<u>Teachers</u>			
92-96	14	276	100.0
87-91	46	262	94.9
82-86	64	216	78.3
77-81	50	152	55.0
72-76	50	102	43.5
67-71	25	52	18.8
62-66	10	27	9.7
57-61	5	17	6.1
52-56	9	12	4.3
47-51	3	3	1.0
<u>Students</u>			
87-91	11	277	100.0
82-86	43	266	96.0
77-81	46	223	80.5
72-76	82	177	63.9
67-71	38	95	34.3
62-66	27	57	20.6
57-61	15	30	10.8
52-56	8	15	5.4
47-51	7	7	2.5

APPENDIX J

Table 15. Chi Square Analysis for Gender/Aggressiveness Attitude Toward Defense of Country for Teachers (n=276) in McMinn County, Tennessee, 1985*

	Aggressive Attitude			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
Male	20	8	35	63
Female	141	45	27	213
Totals	161	53	62	276

Chi Square = 89.3.

*Significant ($P < .01$).

VITA

Gwen Sherlin Lewis, daughter of Bryant and Thelma Sherlin, was born on July 20, 1940, in Mattoon, Illinois. She attended Niota Elementary School and McMinn County High School where she graduated in 1958. She attended Tennessee Technological University in Cookeville, Tennessee, where she graduated in 1962 with a Bachelor of Science degree in secondary education - English.

She has taught in the schools of McMinn County for a period of fourteen years. In August 1976, she received the Master of Science degree in elementary education from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

In 1984 the author entered the doctoral program in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She served an internship in the winter of 1984 with the McMinn County School System where she studied the roles of various supervisors. This experience served to reinforce a collateral in the Department of Educational Leadership. She received the Doctor of Education degree with a major in elementary education in August 1988.

The author is a member of the McMinn County Education Association, the Tennessee Education Association, the National Education Association, the Tennessee Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and Pi Lambda Theta, national honor and professional association in education.

She is married to Robert M. Lewis, Jr. of Athens, Tennessee, and has three children.