

AN ANALYSIS OF TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS AND JOB SATISFACTION
IN DESEGREGATED SCHOOLS

A Dissertation
Presented to
The Faculty of the College of Education
University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Joe Dean Holland
August 1971

592592

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was supported by the National Institute of Mental Health, Grant No. MH-14622, and the Common Research Computer Facility of Texas Medical Center, Houston, Texas, United States Public Health Service, Grant No. FR-00254. The writer is appreciative of statistical and clerical assistance provided by the Houston Baptist College Research Center Staff, especially Mrs. Robert Henderson. Special thanks is given to Dr. Jerry W. Robinson, Jr., Project Director, for not only making this study possible, but for his guidance and many suggestions.

The writer is particularly grateful to Dr. Stewart D. North and Dr. Guy D. Cutting, Co-Chairmen of my doctoral committee for their many comments and encouragement. To Dr. Hobart Osburn, the writer expresses special thanks for the expert statistical advice, and especially helpful were the comments, interest and support offered by Dr. James Boyer.

Sincere appreciation is expressed to my wife, Mary, and our daughters, Laurie and Cindy, for their sacrifices, encouragement and assistance in all the ways that really count. To them these pages are lovingly dedicated.

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ABSTRACT

Holland, Joe D. "An Analysis of Teacher Attitudes Toward Interpersonal Relationships and Job Satisfaction in Desegregated Schools." Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Houston, 1971.

Committee Co-Chairmen: Dr. Stewart D. North
Dr. Guy D. Cutting

Purpose. The major purpose of this study was to determine if there is a significant relationship between participation in an "Inservice Training Institute on Problems of School Desegregation" and the race of "cross-over" teachers with their attitudes toward desegregated interpersonal role relationships, experiences and job satisfaction during the 1968-69 school year. A second purpose was to examine the 1967-69 school policy of assigning only volunteers to "cross-over" teaching positions in the Houston school system.

Procedures. The design of this study provided for the comparison of two groups of Houston public school "cross-over" teachers. The experimental group of 75 was randomly selected from a population who had volunteered to participate in a desegregation training institute. The control group of 67 was randomly selected from a population who had not participated in any desegregation training institutes, but had volunteered for "cross-over" teaching assignments. Both samples were stratified by race and grade level taught.

The "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers" was used to assess the attitudes and experiences of teachers who had taught in the faculty of a desegregated school. Sixteen scales from this research instrument were analyzed to determine whether significant differences in group means exist among the subsamples when comparing institute and non-institute trained black and white "cross-over" teachers.

The analysis of variance procedure permitted the examination of mean scale scores among the subsamples. Differences between two specific subsample means were tested for significance using the t-test. The chi-square statistical technique was used to test the differences in teacher characteristics among the subsamples analyzed. The hypotheses of no difference among the subsamples were tested at the .05 level.

Analysis of the Data. The research hypothesis investigated was that teachers who had voluntarily attended institute training would have more favorable attitudes toward their interpersonal relationships on and off the job, and that these attitudes would result in greater job satisfaction for the teacher in a desegregated school.

Significant differences were found among the subsample mean scale scores on four of the six on-the-job and four of the six off-the-job interpersonal relationship scales.

Differences were found in attitudes toward on-the-job interpersonal relationships with Negro teachers, white teachers, the principal and non-certificated personnel. No differences were found in the attitudes toward teachers as a group or toward the parents of pupils. Differences were found in the teachers' attitudes toward off-the-job interpersonal relationships with their fathers, mothers, other relatives and friends. No differences were found in the teachers' attitudes toward their spouses or offsprings.

The subsample mean scale scores were significantly different on only one of the four job satisfaction scales. Differences were found in the teachers' perception of the community's attitudes toward his job. No differences were found in the teachers' attitudes toward teaching as a career, job satisfaction or the job anxiety associated with their desegregated teaching positions.

Findings and Conclusions. The teacher characteristics analyzed in this study were generally found to be proportionately distributed among the subsamples. The following differences were found to be significant and especially relevant to this research. Black teachers were more likely to have been born in Texas or a Southern state, lived in the community longer and have more years of college than the white teachers. Due to the institute training selection process, black institute participants were more likely to have

had more years of teaching experience than the other subsamples and have more earned Masters degrees. A significantly greater proportion of the institute participants were found to have voted in the last school board election than the non-institute participants.

The findings related to the analysis of teacher attitudes indicate that generally the teachers who volunteered for "cross-over" assignments without institute training were more likely to have favorable attitudes toward desegregated teaching than those who participated in the training institutes. The most obvious trend was that the white institute participants had the most unfavorable attitudes toward on-the-job interpersonal relationships. The black institute participants were more nearly representative of the black "cross-over" teacher population than were the white institute participants of the white "cross-over" teacher population. The race of the teacher was found to be the most discriminating variable, which was most evident in the off-the-job interpersonal relationships. The black teachers perceived greater support in their desegregated teaching roles from "significant others" than did the white teachers. Black teachers were also found to have a more favorable perception of the community's attitude toward their jobs.

On the basis of these findings, it was concluded: (1) that the attitudes of the black "cross-over" teachers in this study were generally more congruent with the purposes

of desegregation than those of the white "cross-over" teacher; (2) that the procedure of admitting only participants who volunteer for desegregation training should be further evaluated; and, (3) that findings from earlier phases of the research project, indicating that the institute participants were more critical of their experiences in desegregated schools, were substantiated.

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CHAPTER I

THE NATURE OF THE INVESTIGATION

This dissertation is concerned with teacher interpersonal relations and job satisfaction in a desegregated setting. The impetus for the study was derived from the need to better understand the mental health problems of teachers as they interacted in a new environment brought on by the desegregation of public schools. The study was designed to collect and compare data from four groups of personnel in a large urban school system. Data were collected regarding their perceptions of the interpersonal relationships on and off the job, and expressed job satisfaction.

This chapter introduces the problem, outlines the objectives of the study, defines the terms used, states the hypotheses to be tested, and presents an overview of the procedures followed in this investigation.

THE PROBLEM

Recent concern for quality education for all children of Houston, has provided the South's largest metropolitan area and sixth largest school district in the nation, with a challenge for the seventies. Efforts to further desegregate the public schools are being met with decreasing resistance.

However, the history of school desegregation in Houston, as well as throughout the South, reflects a slow and difficult process. As a public institution, the typical Southern school reflected the discrimination practices of the community. Most of the Houston teachers were reared in a racially isolated society. The social class perspective of the teachers, their expectations of the disadvantaged minority group children, and the historical drag of the education system have had an impact in hindering the education of blacks.

Many school administrators were caught between opposing forces. The national goal of desegregated public schools was in conflict with the maintenance of a dual school system. School administrators, knowing that the Southwest has had a history of strong individualism, states' rights, provincialism, and emphasis on local control, seemed ambivalent as they confronted the demands growing out of this conflict. Some felt limited in what they could creatively do until they had additional legal and moral support.

Background of the Problem

The Supreme Court in the historic Brown decision of 1954 called the American public's attention to the fact that segregated educational facilities were inherently unequal. Growing public concern in support of the rights of Negroes lead to the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. This

legislation provided the basis on which the United States Office of Education issued its first desegregation guidelines. It soon became evident that if the public schools were to be desegregated, changing the racial composition of a school's faculty was an essential first step.

In December of 1966, the United States Commissioner of Education released a revised statement of policies on school desegregation. This document provided the guidelines for faculty desegregation and placed the responsibility for correcting the effects of all past discriminatory practices in the selection, retention, promotion and assignment of teachers and other professional staff on the local school district.

During 1968, while still in the midst of resolving some of its student desegregation problems, the emphasis in Houston shifted to faculty desegregation. A federal judge had required that each school have at least two "cross-over" teachers for the 1968-69 school year. In July of 1969, the federal court ordered the Houston School District to make a minimum of 2500 "cross-over" assignments prior to September 1, 1969. The federal judge also instructed the school district to develop a plan for total student, faculty, and administration desegregation by January 1, 1970. The plan for desegregation was developed by a school-community task force and called for the assignment of principals and

teachers to the district's schools in proportion to the racial population of the district.

For a review of the historical background of desegregation on the national, state, and local levels and a cronology of important desegregation events as they relate to the Houston School District and the Houston Baptist College Research Center Mental Health Project, see Appendix A of this study.

Reacting to the circumstances surrounding the desegregation process in Houston, and hoping to facilitate the transition from segregation to desegregation, the local colleges and universities proposed a series of training institutes on desegregation for teachers in the Houston Independent School District. These institutes were funded by the United States Office of Education under Title IV, Section 404 of the Public Law 88-352 of the Civil Rights Act. Of concern to those responsible for providing the first series of institutes on desegregation, was the fact that local teachers would face their new teaching situations without being prepared for the possible cultural shock. Without some special training, it was conceivable that each "cross-over" teacher would enter the new setting with his own particular attitudes and prejudices toward race and desegregation which could have undesirable effects on the quality of local education.

The first series of five institutes were held in Houston between 1966 and 1968. It was hoped that the volunteer participants would serve the community in making a smooth transition from "token" to complete desegregation, while at the same time help to promote an atmosphere more conducive to learning and good interpersonal relations.

The institute's faculty concluded during its first training program that comprehensive research was needed. The faculty wanted to identify areas of stress and to ascertain the extent to which emotional insecurity, anxiety, role strain and other psycho-social problems of the teachers affect their classroom performance and behavior in community activities. Through the financial assistance of the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health, a research proposal entitled, "Mental Health of Teachers and School Desegregation" was prepared and later funded by the Center for the Study of Social Problems of the National Institute of Mental Health.

The research project, funded for a three-year period beginning in January of 1968, was divided into four basic phases. Stated briefly, they are as follows: (1) Compiling background data on local institutes; (2) A before-after evaluation of 150 teachers who graduated from a twelve-week institute on problems of school desegregation; (3) A follow-up and comparison study--differences in attitudes and behavior of participants were compared with a sample of non-institute participants, sixteen to eighteen months after training; and,

(4) An in-depth study to include comparative research in the areas of: (a) institute participant and "cross-over" teacher study, (b) the pupil study, and (c) the administrator study.

This investigation is but a part of the research which is being conducted under phase four of the larger research project. The interest of the researcher in teacher interpersonal relations and job satisfaction in desegregated schools led to this particular study.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this investigation was to determine if participation in an "Inservice Training Institute on Problems of School Desegregation" and the race of the teacher are significantly related to the following factors: (1) Attitudes toward a multiplicity of interpersonal role relationships and experiences as related to a desegregated teaching situation during the previous school year. This factor being concerned with the perceived problems and stress encountered by the "cross-over" teacher in his on the job personal interaction with school personnel and the parents of students. (2) The problem was to assess the perceived interpersonal relationship difficulties experienced off the job as a result of having taught in a desegregated setting during the previous school year. (3) The assumption that the perceived interpersonal relationships experienced by the teacher, on or off the job would lead to either satisfaction or

dissatisfaction with his desegregated teaching was the final factor with which the major purpose of this study was concerned.

A second purpose of this investigation was to assess the 1967-1969 Houston school policy of assigning only volunteers to "cross-over" teaching positions. Though this policy was discontinued for the fall of 1970, there is need for information which would make possible a more objective evaluation of the voluntary procedure. This study will include an interpretive analysis, based on the characteristics of the "cross-over" teacher and the results obtained from the tests and comparisons made in conjunction with the primary purpose of this investigation.

Significance of the Problem

The problem under investigation takes on even greater importance when viewed as part of the history of Houston school desegregation. However, today, there is increasing evidence in Houston and throughout the country of a growing concern for quality education for all youth in the community school. The decreasing influence of the family emphasizes the significance of the educational system in the socialization and development of the community's young people.

The teacher is the key figure in the educational system. The quality and effectiveness of the school's program is dependent upon the performance of its teachers. The

personal interaction and job satisfaction experienced by teachers will contribute to his effectiveness in the classroom. This research is needed in order to assess the significance of these variables as they relate to the teacher's performance in a desegregated setting. If the teacher is in harmony with the demands of his desegregated teaching assignment, then perhaps he will experience less conflict and ambivalence and be able to relate more warmly and genuinely to students and peers than one whose attitudes are not in fidelity with what the role requires.

As an employee in a desegregated school, the teacher is helping the school system and the community comply with the demands for desegregation. An important dimension of this study is the interpersonal relationship problems encountered by the teacher as a result of her role in the desegregation process. This study is concerned with the influence of these perceived interpersonal relationship and role conflict problems, on and off the job, as they relate to the teacher's attitude toward her desegregated teaching position. The attitudes of teachers, as community leaders, takes on greater significance when one considers that a large proportion of the population interacts with public school teachers on a daily basis. For example, in Houston there are 234 schools with over 240,000 pupils. To serve these students the district employs approximately 16,000 persons with over 10,500 teachers.

This investigation is significant because it will provide additional evaluation on the value of several U. S. Office of Education Title IV in-service training institutes which were held in Houston. The Office of Education has been spending approximately 20 million dollars annually to assist in the desegregation of the public schools. During the current year the Houston school district has received an additional federal grant of \$980,000 for desegregation training alone.

There is need for evaluative research on federally funded teacher training programs (Suchman, 1967). As the targets of all public service programs, the taxpayer is the ultimate determiner of the degree and type of support to be given to the various government activities. There is increased pressure on all social institutions to provide "proof" of their legitimacy and effectiveness in order to justify society's continued support. As a result of greater community interest and competition for public support there is increasing emphasis being placed on accountability. A better educated and more sophisticated public is less willing than ever to support the need for community service on faith alone. Evaluation has come to be accepted, even sought, as an accompaniment to rational action. No previous indepth evaluation of the effectiveness of these desegregation institutes has been made since Title IV funds can not be used for research.

This investigation is of importance to educators as it is designed to provide new insight into the identification of those teacher characteristics which relate positively to teacher attitudes considered more favorable for teaching in the desegregated situation. This data should assist school administrators in the selection and assignment of classroom teachers. There is also need for an assessment of the 1969 school district policy of assigning only volunteers to "cross-over" teaching positions. This evaluation is in accord with one of the purposes of this study and should provide valuable information for educational policy-makers.

This research investigates the teacher's attitudes toward interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction as a result of having taught in a desegregated situation. The institute training programs in Houston have sought to facilitate the participant's adopting effective patterns of behavior which would aid the local school system in the desegregation process. This research will provide documentation of the training programs effectiveness and also help to bridge the gaps in the body of knowledge on interracial relations.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives identified for this study are included within the purpose on which this investigation was designed. They are as follows:

1. to gain new knowledge on teacher personnel problems that occur as a result of total school desegregation;
2. to help teachers and other school personnel better understand themselves and their relationships with one another;
3. to further evaluate the differences between those teachers who have and those who have not participated in a special training institute on problems of school desegregation sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education;
4. to provide educational decision-makers with new information on the value of in-service desegregation training, as a means of contributing positively to teacher mental health and to his performance in the desegregated setting;
5. to gain a better understanding of the interpersonal role relationships and the resulting conflict, stress and job satisfaction associated with teaching in a desegregated situation;
6. to assist educators in the identification of selected teacher characteristics which influence their interpersonal relations and job satisfaction in a desegregated teaching assignment;
7. to gain a better understanding of teacher attitudes and behavior in the school and community resulting from school desegregation;

8. to assess the 1967-1969 school policy of assigning only volunteers to the "cross-over" teaching positions; and,
9. to evaluate the difference in attitudes toward interpersonal relations and job satisfaction between black and white teachers in the desegregated setting.

DEFINITION OF TERMS USED

The terms used in this study are defined below.

"Cross-over" Teacher: A teacher employed in a school where his race doesn't predominate in the student body or a Negro teacher in a formerly all white school. This definition is the one used by the Houston school system during 1968-1969.

Desegregated School: A bi-racial school in which at least six percent of the student body is either black or white.

Institute Training: (Used synonymously with desegregation training, in-service training and desegregation institute training). An educational program designed to provide information and experiences to reduce prejudice and role conflict among teacher participants of both races.

Role Relationships: A social matrix including interactions between the teacher and other school personnel, including the parents of pupils; and with relatives and

friends off the job. A role is defined as a set of evaluative standards applied to an actor in a particular position (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958:60).

Job Satisfaction: The gratification teachers derive from the occupancy of their position. Role conflict or perceived role conflict and negative sanctions will lead to less gratification; positive sanctions and pleasant interpersonal relations will lead to more gratification (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958:275).

STATEMENT OF THE HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses tested were in accord with the primary purposes of this investigation. All comparisons made were measured by the scales included in the "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers" (see Appendix B). The basic research hypothesis of this study was: Teachers who have attended institute training will have a more favorable attitude toward their interpersonal relationships on and off the job, and that these attitudes will result in greater job satisfaction for the teacher in the desegregated school setting.

The following null hypotheses were postulated to permit a scientific evaluation and conclusions on the questions posed in the basic research hypothesis. Each null hypothesis was tested and the results reported in Chapter V.

1. There will be no significant difference in attitudes of teachers toward desegregated interpersonal relations on the job, when comparing:
 - a. Black teachers and white teachers who have had desegregation institute training;
 - b. Black teachers and white teachers who have not had desegregation institute training;
 - c. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not;
 - d. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and white teachers who have not;
 - e. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and those white teachers who have not; and,
 - f. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not.

2. There will be no significant difference in attitudes of teachers toward desegregated interpersonal relations off the job, when comparing:
 - a. Black teachers and white teachers who have had desegregation institute training;

- b. Black teachers and white teachers who have not had desegregation institute training;
 - c. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not;
 - d. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and white teachers who have not;
 - e. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and those white teachers who have not; and,
 - f. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not.
3. There will be no significant difference in the expressed job satisfaction, as related to on- or off-the-job experiences, when comparing:
- a. Black teachers and white teachers who have had desegregation institute training;
 - b. Black teachers and white teachers who have not had desegregation institute training;
 - c. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not;
 - d. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and white teachers who have not;

- e. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and those white teachers who have not; and,
- f. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not.

OVERVIEW OF PROCEDURES

This study was designed to investigate the effects of desegregation training on the interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction of teachers in desegregated schools. In order to accomplish the purposes of this research, a random sample (stratified by race and grade taught) was selected from a population of approximately 400 teachers who had completed desegregation training during 1966-1967 and a sample of "cross-over" teachers drawn randomly (stratified by race and grade taught) from a population of 342 teachers who had not experienced institute training. The experimental group was comprised of 75 teachers--36 blacks and 39 whites--who had volunteered for institute training. The control group was comprised of 67 teachers--35 blacks and 32 whites--who had volunteered for a "cross-over" teaching assignment. Both samples were teaching in the same desegregated schools.

During the summer of 1969 the respondents in this study were administered the "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers." Sixteen scales from this

instrument were selected for use in measuring the teachers' attitudes toward interpersonal relations, on and off the job, and job satisfaction in a desegregated setting. The mean scale scores were treated in testing the null hypotheses of no difference in the attitudes and perceptions among the subclasses of teachers which constitute the sample for this study. Analysis of variance procedures were used in assessing the data collected from the research instrument. The chi-square statistic was employed to assess the differences in teacher characteristics among the subsamples being investigated.

SUMMARY

In this first chapter the problem is introduced; with its background and setting discussed. The significance and the purpose of the study was explained. The objectives of the research and the definition of terms are stated. The research and null hypotheses investigated are outlined and an overview of the procedures used in the study are presented. The second chapter is a review of related literature. The research design, the sample, the research instrument, procedures followed, data analysis, and the limitations of the study are delineated in Chapter III. Chapter IV treats the characteristics of the sample and Chapter V presents the findings of the statistical analysis. Chapter

VI is devoted to an interpretive statement on the findings, and Chapter VII presents a summary of the investigation and the research implications and conclusions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The area of interpersonal relations and job satisfaction has been of growing concern to the behavioral scientist. Since the mid thirties, considerable attention has been given to human behavior. Current research and theoretical writings emphasize the importance of individual perceptions and attitudes in human relations. The desegregation of public schools has introduced new complications which have demanded changes in the patterns of behavior on the part of all those directly involved.

A literature review shows that there has been only limited comprehensive research on the subjects of interpersonal role relationships and job satisfaction associated with teaching in a desegregated setting. The teacher, as the single most important person in the school system, has the critical task of bridging the cultural gap that presently exists between ethnic groups which comprise the community. Bash (1966:44), in the following comment, calls attention to the important role performed by the desegregated classroom teacher:

. . . the teacher's greatest influence is exerted through the children he teaches. In the long run, school desegregation will be judged by its effects on

learning, and on the behavior of adults who attended desegregated schools.

The nature of this investigation warranted a review of literature concerning the research and theory surrounding interpersonal relations and desegregation training for "cross-over" teachers. The literature reviewed is presented in the following categories: (1) human behavior--including role theory, personality theory, social attitude and behavior change and situational and psychological determinants of behavior; (2) interpersonal relations and job satisfaction in desegregated schools; (3) institute training for "cross-over" teachers; and, (4) a theoretical orientation used in the evaluation of teacher behavior.

HUMAN BEHAVIOR THEORY

Individuals act and react in environmental settings; cultural and organizational. Behavior patterns are the result of many complex factors and represent an integral and important part of the psycho-social system (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1970:209). This section will discuss some of these human behavior factors under the following topics: (1) role theory, (2) personality theory, (3) social attitudes and behavior change, and (4) situational and psychological determinants of behavior.

Role Theory

Individuals in social relationships constitute the psycho-social system. This system is made up of the actions of individuals, organized to carry out one or more essential tasks of society. The problems with which an organization deals is how to effectively integrate the individual and the system. While the organization must achieve its goal, the purpose for its existence, we must recognize that this can only be accomplished through people.

Role theory provides a framework for analysis of various positions in an organization, as well as the relations between these positions and relations with other segments of the society. During the past decade there has been an increasing tendency to consider role consensus an important variable for the study of individual social behavior, the functioning of social systems, and cultural organization. There are many definitions of role, but most of the conceptualizations include three basic ideas. They are that individuals: (1) in social locations, (2) behave, (3) with reference to expectations. Understanding of the expectations held for teachers, administrators and other positions in the school system is an important foundation for the effective functioning of the school (Brookover and Gottlieb, 1964:353; Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958:16-17).

According to role theory, organizations are social systems made up of people who occupy various "positions"

(or social locations) in vertical and horizontal relationship to each other. For example, "classroom teacher" would be a position in the school system, with the principal and other teachers being in vertical and horizontal relationship, respectively. Any given position is the location of one individual or class of individuals within the organization or social system. The term position is used to refer to the location of an actor or class of actor in a system of social relationships. Whatever, the implications of the label, a position cannot be completely described until all other positions to which it is related have been specified. Role systems are integrally related with status systems. The higher the position in the vertical organization, the more status associated with that position.

Behavior is a manner of acting; it refers to a person's conduct or overt action patterns. Behavioral patterns are modes of conduct used by an individual in carrying out his activities. People do not behave in a random manner; the way they behave in their designated positions depends partly on how they think they are expected to behave and how others actually expect them to behave. These expectations are called "roles" (Griffiths, 1964:149-150; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1970:170; Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958: 16-17, 48-51).

Regardless of their derivation, expectations are presumed by most role theorists to be an essential

ingredient in any formula for predicting social behavior. Human conduct is in part a function of expectations. Whether a particular expectation is assigned to an individual depends upon his identity, such as: male or female, teacher or policeman, etc. It is necessary to specify an individual's location or position in social relationship systems in order to determine what expectations are held for him. Involved in many, but not all, formulations of the role concept in the social science literature is the assumption that consensus exists on the expectations applied to the incumbents of particular social positions (Gross, Mason and MeEachern, 1958:18-21).

Yinger (1965:99) defines role as a unit of culture; and indicates that it refers to an incumbent's rights and duties, the normatively approved patterns of behavior for the occupants of a given position. The culture construct "role" can only be inferred from how various persons behave in particular positions, how others behave toward them, and how they all describe the rights and duties in verbal behavior. We can say that a role is the list of what most members of a social group believe a position occupant should and should not, may or may not, do. It is not a list of what most occupants of a position in fact do.

If a person has accepted a position and has internalized the appropriate role that fits the role expectations of others in a position network, and these others agree among

themselves, behavior tends to follow the role specifications. Yinger (1965:108) indicates that this limits the flexibility of individual behavior, which may create problems for a mobile and changing society. More commonly, a person has the task of balancing the claims of one network member against those of another, of negotiating among differing and perhaps even contradictory expectations. The term position network, refers to all the positions linked to a focal position in a system of social relationships.

Role theory has particular utility in clarifying the nature of some of the conflicts within organizations. Role conflict may stem from a number of sources. One of these is the possible conflict between cultural values and institutional expectations. However, this review is concerned with those conflicts which are within roles and between roles and are the most common of role conflicts. The within role (intrarole) conflicts occur when the manner in which a person thinks he is expected to behave (role perception) is different from the manner others really expect him to behave (role expectations). The between role (interrole) conflict occurs when two reference groups have conflicting expectations of a role incumbent, or dispute among members within a particular group concerning their expectations for a role (Griffiths, 1964:153).

Knowing the position a person is occupying at a given moment, knowing the culturally prescribed obligations and privileges of that position, and knowing how a person has internalized the role, one still cannot expect to predict individual behavior. The actual process of carrying out the particular role is influenced not only by the internalized role, but by the self and the total personality of which it is a part. Individual behavior will also be affected by the situation within which the activity occurs, including the actions of persons occupying reciprocal positions, and by the larger setting within which the interaction takes place (Yinger, 1965:99).

Gross, Mason and McEachern (1958:212-215) conducted research on what they termed, "The Satisfaction Hypothesis." Evidence presented in this research provided support for the proposition that satisfaction is related to consensus within a group of incumbents of the same position. This proposition was based on the reasoning that if two or more actors (of the same position) agree with one another about what is expected of themselves and others as incumbents of their positions in a social system, then they will use common standards to evaluate each other's behavior. If they do not agree on expectations, then they will tend to evaluate one another's behavior on the basis of different standards. Also, that if an actor tends to behave in conformity with the expectations he applies to his own position, then insofar as

these are common standards, other actors will approve of his behavior and apply position sanctions; and conversely, negative sanctions if they disapprove of his behavior. In addition, the gratification an actor derives from the incumbency of his position is dependent upon the type of sanctions to which he is exposed; positive sanctions lead to more and negative sanctions to less gratification.

Social roles permit patterned behavior and the maintenance of social order since the expectations for behavior promote predictability in human interaction. However, the assumption that knowledge of roles yields direct prediction of behavior is clearly inadequate. It is also inadequate to ignore the extent to which we count on and adopt certain patterns of behavior from others, many of whom we know only as position occupants. For example, one need not look too closely to see the influence that popular performers, such as Elvis Presley, can have on teenage dress and behavior; or the influence that the traditionally accepted role of "teacher" has had on current teacher behavior.

The examination of role-related behavior in social research is particularly relevant within the field of race relations because of conflicting demands of cultural and situational roles in behavior. Expectations of the community and reference groups may conflict within the individual to produce a state of anxiety and stress. This tendency of the individual to vacillate among expected

alternatives for behavior was examined by Campbell and Pettigrew (1959:509-516) in the study of role behavior of Little Rock, Arkansas, ministers during school desegregation disputes in 1957. Role conflicts and strains resulted because of the segregationist stance of congregations and the more integrationist views of many clergymen. The ministers generally chose to act in favor of the social norms of the reference group comprised of their congregation members, rather than toward personal or professional norms. Individual attitudes and values did not direct the ministers' role behaviors, but rather, behavior was determined by certain cultural and situational constraints on the individual.

Gross, Mason, and McEachern (1958:245-246) proposed a theoretical model for the problem of how an actor will behave when exposed to incompatible expectations. This model was based on the assumption that the actor perceives the expectations as incompatible; assuming that if there were no perception of role conflict, there would be no need to choose among alternatives. However, Yinger (1965:115-116) offers a broader definition, which proposes that the incompatibility may or may not be perceived. Yinger suggests that unperceived role conflicts in the expectations of others affect their behavior and thus the whole interaction. He further suggests that an individual may be motivated not to perceive contradictory expectations from others just as he seeks to avoid recognition of internal conflict; and this

motivation affects his role behavior. In some formulations of role conflict it is specified that the actor must occupy two or more positions simultaneously. Others ignore this requirement and simply specify that an actor be exposed to incompatible expectations (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958: 245-246).

Role conflict does not mean overt antagonism or violence, but results from the fact that role systems are not clear-cut. The concept of multiple roles is one such phenomenon. Individuals play many roles simultaneously. Usually, however, only one role is active at a particular time while others are in relative degrees of latency. Multiple roles relate to multiple positions which an individual holds often in various institutional settings, such as: the home, church, work, etc. Within each organization or institution of which he is a member, he occupies a particular position and performs certain activities associated with that role. These various orientations which a specific position may require are referred to as role sets (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1970:261-262).

In discussing the social roles of teachers, we are talking about the various roles occupied by persons when they are teaching. The role of teacher is made up of a cluster of sub-roles, some that refer primarily to the teacher's behavior in relation to other school personnel, and others that refer primarily to the teacher's behavior in relation to pupils

(Havighurst and Neugarten, 1967:431). Within the school system the teacher occupies the role of employee to the school board, subordinate to the principal, advisee to the supervisor, colleague to the other teachers, and teacher and counselor to the students; to name only a few (Havighurst, 1957:389). When one adds to this list the many roles necessary in association with parents of pupils, the community, and the family, it is not difficult to imagine that a teacher might experience role conflicts as he attempts to comply with the varying expectations associated with his profession and personal life. Probably no teacher performs all roles successfully or equally well. Conflicting role expectations in desegregated schools are potential sources of personal conflict or maladjustment. Teachers experiencing role conflict and frustration in the desegregated teaching situation are not likely to contribute much to the adjustment of pupils (Havighurst and Neugarten, 1967:442).

The problem under study is especially concerned with the influence of desegregation upon the teachers' role behaviors and resulting job satisfaction. Some teachers can cope with stress in such a manner as to be consistent with the demands of desegregation and do so without incurring stress and role conflict. Ideally, a teacher should have attitudes, values, and skills which enable her to cope with stress, or any situation, in such a manner as to be free from internal or external role conflicts and he should

function with all children, peers, administrators or parents in such a way as to foster the development of strong interpersonal relationships. When the teacher's attitudes, values, and behavior agree with the purposes of school desegregation, quality education for his pupils is enhanced; role stress anxiety and role conflicts can be reduced or expressed in constructive, socially acceptable forms.

The social changes occurring in urban and metropolitan areas, especially as they relate to the desegregation of the schools, are causing many of the social roles of the teacher to become even more complex and contradictory. The conflicting expectations of community, school, and student were discussed by Havighurst and Neugarten (1957:378-389) as potential sources of personal conflict or maladjustment. Behavioral patterns which were appropriate in the past, now must be modified to meet changing role expectations. The teacher was expected to be a socializing agent, authority figure in the classroom, employee or colleague, disciplinarian or confidante. Conflicts between the sub-roles and any occupation, or between ideal or actual roles, were seen to be potential sources of personal maladjustment in Berlin's work (1964:232). He has discussed psychological stress, as presented by the process of desegregation, as threatening not only the mental health of school teachers, but the adjustment, achievement, and self image on the students. The promotion of role related behaviors functional to the goals

of quality education in the multi-ethnic classroom was discussed by several authors as related to the development of the student.

Teachers are in a particularly sensitive relation to the community because they are dealing with the community's children. However, the constant public scrutiny and the presence of contradictory demands (especially prevalent during the desegregation process) does not necessarily produce personal conflict. The teacher, like any other person, fills a variety of roles at different periods of the day or at different periods in his life. Such teacher characteristics as age, sex, race, marital status, social-class background, and personality configurations all have their influence upon the ways in which role conflict is produced and resolved. Most teachers, like most other people, not only work out a successful integration of their various role expectations, but make the necessary adjustments in attitudes and behavior to minimize or displace the role conflicts confronted (Havighurst and Neugarten, 1967:443 & 452).

Perhaps nothing has emerged more clearly from the research of the past decade than the evidence that relationships between social factors and mental health is vastly more complex than had been assumed (Bettlehiem and Janowitz, 1964). This generalization especially applies to the schools since they are among society's major social

institutions and are the focus of controversial social and cultural change (Grossack, 1963). Changes in occupational role definitions through formal or informal means have been discussed as contributing to adjustment or maladjustment depending upon the adequacy of matching role demands and abilities (Roman and Trice, 1963).

Havighurst and Neugarten (1967:286-291) indicate that the demands of desegregation are bound to produce tension and conflict over school policies and practices, because solutions to new problems must be worked out by people who have different attitudes and different conceptions of their roles. The manner in which the individual teacher performs his various roles reflects both his personality and the incompatible and conflicting demands and expectations of other people. The way in which the individual resolves role incompatibility is influenced by the relative importance which he attaches to the legitimacy of the expectations of others, the punishment for noncompliance, and the rewards for conforming. Because societal norms become internalized as we mature, the arena for most conflict and frustration takes place "inside" the individual (the psycho-system). Consequently, it is best to look there if we are to understand more fully the effects of conflict and frustration, and the psychological processes that are developed to cope with them (Krech, Crutchfield and Livson, 1969:756).

Personality Theory

A dynamic conception of roles leads naturally to an examination of the influence of the self on role performance. This requires that one view the situation not only from the point of view of a position network (social system), but also from what might be called the personality network (psycho-system) in which the internalized role is embedded. Virtually no one disagrees with the observation that role performance is affected by personality (Yinger, 1965:109-111). Psychologists have approached the study of individual behavior through the concept of personality; a combination of inherited characteristics and acquired behavior patterns. The integration of sociological concepts, such as those discussed in conjunction with role theory, and psychology, the study of individual personalities, are important for a more complete understanding of human behavior.

There is evidence both that position occupancy affects personality and that personality affects role performance. Yinger (1965:112-113) suggests that the interaction between personality and role performance depends on consensus, degree of specificity, and significance of the position to those involved. Positions occupied or filled on grounds quite irrelevant to the role requirements, increases the possibility of personality-role conflicts (intrarole conflict) or the chance for personality change. To say that a person who takes a new position acquires certain attitudes,

skills, and values related to it is simply to say that he learns the role. But to say that certain unintended personality changes occur as well, changes that are not intrinsic to the role performance, is something else. There is a need to distinguish between differences in behavior which occur when one enters a new position and the possible effects of a position which becomes embedded in the personality system (psycho-system) and thus influences all role performances.

Kast and Rosenzweig (1970:211-213) indicate that status and role systems, along with group dynamics, provides the setting in which motivation operates to affect individual behavior. The process of behavior is similar for all individuals. That is, while behavior patterns may vary significantly, the process by which they occur is fundamental to all individuals. Three interrelated assumptions can be made about human behavior: (1) behavior is caused, (2) behavior is motivated, and (3) behavior is goal-directed. If these three assumptions are valid, then behavior cannot be spontaneous and aimless. There must be a goal, whether explicit or implicit. Behavior toward goals is generated in reaction to a stimulus--all behavior is caused. A stimulus is filtered through a system of wants or needs which take many forms. If the goal is achieved, the current behavior is terminated, and the individual's attention turns to some other activity. While this basic model of the behavior process is the same

for all individuals, it is easy to see that actual behavior can vary significantly. Though there are many factors which account for individual differences in behavior, Kast and Rosenzweig (1970:216) indicate that potential influences filter through personal attitudes via perception, cognition, and motivation.

In regard to perception and behavior, Combs and Snygg state: "All behavior, without exception, is completely determined by, and pertinent to, the perceptual field of the behaving organism" (Loree, 1970). By perceptual field they mean the entire universe; including the individual, as it is experienced by him at the moment of action. The assumption is made that a person behaves in terms of what his experiences mean to him at the moment of behavior. The perceptual field may or may not correspond to physical reality, and in any given instance may even exclude much of one's physical surroundings. In short, the perceptual field is an individual's personal and unique field of awareness. An individual will take into his perceptual field those things that are consistent with his set of unique meanings. The perceptual field strives to maintain itself, not to be destroyed. The individual tends to structure the world in terms of how it is necessary for him to structure the world. The person acts in a way that is consistent with his self-concept and with the demands of the situation as he sees it at the moment of behavior.

The concept of selective perception is important because individuals receive and process voluminous information. Only that information which is supportive and satisfying or that is consistent with his set of unique meanings will be taken into his perceptual field. People tend to ignore information which might be disturbing. Numerous external forces, such as the stress of the situation, group pressure, and reward systems, also assist the individual in the selective process. A stimulus that is not received has no effect on behavior. Another key is that people behave on the basis of "what is perceived" rather than "what is." A direct line to "truth" or "reality" is often assumed, but each person has only one point of view based on individualistic perceptions of the real world (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1970:217-218).

Cognition and behavior concerns that which an individual knows about himself and the world about him that leads to behavior. The cognitive systems are developed through cognitive processes which include perceiving, imagining, thinking, reasoning, and decision making. The more we understand about an individual's cognitive system, the better we are able to predict his behavior. Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962:17) point out the importance of an individual's cognitive process in the following comment: "If we understand how man comes by the ideas about things and people which make up his world image, if we understand the

principles which govern the growth and development and interaction of these ideas, we will have taken the first step toward understanding man's behavior in this world of his own making." The cognitive or personal value system is affected by an individual's physical and social environment, his physiological structure, his physiological processes, his wants and goals, and his past experiences (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1970:219). Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962:17) in the following statement suggest that man, through "cognitive work," constructs his own rational world: "However bizarre the behavior of men, tribes, or nations may appear to an outsider, to the men, to the tribes, to the nations their behavior makes sense in terms of their own world views."

Motivation and behavior relates to those motives which prompt a person to act in a certain way or at least develop a propensity for specific responses. This urge to action can be touched off by an external stimulus, or it can be internally generated in individual thought processes. Differences in motivation are undoubtedly the most important consideration in understanding and predicting individual differences in behavior. Motivation involves needs, wants, tensions, and discomfort. Underlying behavior, there is a push or a drive toward action. This implies that there is some imbalance or dissatisfaction in the individual's relationship to his environment. He identifies goals and feels obligated to engage in some behavior which will lead toward

achieving those goals (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1970:219-220).

The following statement by Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962:68) points out the relationship between motivation and the cognitive system:

Man's actions are guided by his cognitions--by what he thinks, believes, and anticipates. But when we ask why he acts at all, we are asking the question of motivation. And the motivational answer is given in terms of active, driving forces represented by such words as "wanting" and "fearing": the individual wants power, he wants status, he fears social ostracism, he fears threats to his self-esteem. In addition, a motivational analysis specifies a goal for the achievement of which man spends his energies.

Another of the several theories on motivation is advanced by Combs and Snygg. They have postulated one basic need, the need for adequacy. Each individual develops a self-concept that includes perceptions of what one is like physically, morally, socially (in terms of his acceptance), and how one is able to perform in numerous situations. To meet this need for self-adequacy, the individual must be able to maintain and enhance his self-concept. From this phenomenological point of view, people are never unmotivated. In applying this theory, the problem of motivating an individual is a problem of changing his perception of himself so that he sees the accomplishment of a specific task as necessary to meeting his needs for adequacy (Loree, 1970). Arthur W. Combs (1962), a perceptual psychologist, describes the truly adequate, self-actualizing person in terms of his

characteristic ways of seeing himself and the world. These characteristics which seem to underlie the behavior of truly adequate persons are: (1) a positive view of self, (2) identification with others, (3) openness to experience and acceptance, and (4) a rich and available perceptual field.

Social Attitudes and Behavior Change

Additional insight into the nature of human behavior is possible with an understanding of the contribution made by individual attitudes. While the individual's goals may be responsible for motivating behavior, it is his attitudes which come into play in the decision of what the goal will be. Recognizing the function of attitudes, we are able to see the importance of desirable social attitudes. Knowledge of attitude formation and change, permit greater influence of individual behavior.

Social attitudes. Attitudes are formed in relation to situations, persons, or groups with which the individual comes into contact in the course of his development. The feature that makes certain attitudes social is that they are formed in relation to social stimulus situations. These stimuli result from contact with other persons, groups, or the products of human interaction--material and nonmaterial. Forming an attitude toward a group, an institution, a social issue, according to Sherif and Sherif (1956:488) is not an idle matter. It means one is no longer neutral to them;

they are value laden for him in a positive or negative way. The end product of the socialization process is embodied in social attitudes of the individual and in his words and deeds reflecting these attitudes.

Attitudes, beliefs, and values are recognized as the primary factors for guiding individual decision making. Included in these concepts are an individual's predispositions to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, ideal or situation. Scofield and Domm (1970) indicate that a person's beliefs are the sum total of information, true and false, about a unit of reality. Values and attitudes are frequently combined to form the term "value-attitude"; where attitude denotes the positive or negative preference and value denotes the emotional strength of the attitude. Value-attitudes are supported by internalized sanctions and function as imperatives in judging how one's social world ought to be structured and operated, and standards for evaluating and rationalizing the propriety of individual and social choices. An individual's value-attitudes develop bit by bit over a lifetime and hence are intricately interwoven with instinctual and habitual behavior as well as more cognitive decision-making activity. This approach emphasizes that value-attitudes are normative standards by which human beings are influenced in their choice of action or behavior. Many value-attitudes that a person holds will be implicit to him. He will rarely, if

ever, consciously introspect enough to identify his own value-attitude system and its impact on his judgments or decision-making process (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1970).

Social attitudes important in the person's scheme has the essential earmark of a motive. Such an attitude sets the person for or against things; defines what is preferred, expected, and desired; marks off what is undesirable, what is to be avoided. In terms of its consequences in the person's behavior, an attitude is goal directed. We can, therefore, legitimately refer to social attitudes as socio-genic motives; those derived by the individual from his socio-cultural setting (Sherif and Sherif, 1956:488-490).

Behavior change. Because behavior is the result of individual attitudes or sociogenic motives, we must change a person's attitudes if we are to affect change in human behavior. Sherif and Sherif (1956:538) declare attitude change means change of the individual's stand on a given issue. A change in attitude is assessed through significant changes in his characteristic mode of behavior. Since an attitude denotes an existing stand or partiality toward its referent, a change in attitude denotes a change in the direction and/or degree of this stand or partiality. Attitude change seldom implies a reduction to a state of neutrality. It usually means a change from one stand to another on an issue. Outside influences alone are not

sufficient to account for the formation or change of an attitude. A person's perception and appraisal of external stimulus situations are always affected by his existing attitudes and other motives which are operative at the time.

There are at least two basic techniques which are used in changing attitudes. The first is a one-way exposure; where the individual is exposed to an external influence embodying the stand being advocated. This strategy is typically in some form of communication. The second is the group dynamics or group interaction approach; where the individual is placed in a social setting and is given opportunity to participate in give-and-take relations with others. The modern trend in attempts to produce attitudes and to change attitudes in given directions is toward increased emphasis on interaction techniques (Sherif and Sherif, 1956: 538).

Sherif and Sherif (1956:545) propose that man's directive attitudes are derived from standards or norms of a group to which the individual relates himself. They are formed by the individual as a result of his active participation in a group setting. It stands to reason, therefore, that a person's social attitudes will be resistant to change attempted by merely exposing him in a passive role to a lecture or exhortations contrary to the position held by the individual and his reference group. These socially derived stands become very much a part of the person and

consequently, any change amounts to changing a bit of himself.

One of the main reasons for the ineffectiveness of attempts to change attitudes through information or logical argument alone is that the change often implies to the individual a break from the security of cherished group ties. A group norm is the property of the group as a whole. If one is to change this norm and thus the behavior of the individuals, it can best be done by having the entire group participate in the decision to make the change. A crucial step in attempting to bring about an effective change in attitudes is getting the individual personally involved in the issue at hand. This involvement means arousing related ego-attitudes (Sherif and Sherif, 1956:545).

When an individual with a definite attitude is presented with some stimulus situation or communication, both his own attitude and the stand represented may function as anchorage in structuring his perception and evaluation. An individual has a latitude of acceptance for positions or stands near his own. The magnitude or range of his latitude of acceptance is likely to be related to the intensity with which he upholds his own stand on the issue. The narrower his latitude of acceptance, the less his tolerance for other positions on the issue and the more intensely he rejects them. The closer the presented stand is to the individual's, the greater is the likelihood of an assimilation effect. To

accept the stand presented, the individual may have to extend his latitude of acceptance; this implies a shift in his attitude on the issue (Scofield and Domm, 1970:11-8; Sherif and Sherif, 1956:573).

The purpose of the desegregation training programs was to effect a favorable change in attitudes toward inter-racial relations. The teacher's attitude anchorage and latitude of acceptance on the desegregation issue are important variables in the attitude change process. Scofield and Domm (1970) indicate that the following forms of stimuli would arouse positive affect and lead to the development of the desired attitudes: (1) an acceptable communicator, (2) a content favorably perceived, (3) a setting or group situation viewed as acceptable, and (4) personally enhancing to the individual. If these stimuli were present for the institute participant, more favorable attitudes toward ethnic relations would result.

Situational and Psychological Determinants of Behavior

The behavioral literature reviewed in the previous sections clearly shows that there are many variables involved in human behavior. This part presents a review of some of the research done on situational and psychological determinants of behavior. The research discussed was selected because of its relevance to this investigation.

Robert K. Merton (MacIver, 1949:99-126) proposed that behavior was a function of cultural creed, beliefs and attitudes, and the interaction of these variables in the individual. In an attempt to clarify the complexity of the cultural and individual determinants of attitudes and behavior, Merton developed a typology of individuals. Whether the nonprejudiced individual acted in a discriminatory manner or the prejudiced person in a nondiscriminatory manner was discussed as being dependent upon the situational variables of conventional interracial behavior within the social structure and psychological variables of the beliefs, values, and motivations of the individual. Implications for social action policies to alleviate discriminatory behavior were discussed within the framework of the typology.

Yinger (1965) advanced the idea that knowledge of the individual alone is incomplete when used as a basis for predicting behavior. Behavior never takes place in an environmental vacuum. Yinger has postulated that situational factors such as social norms, roles, group memberships, reference groups, sub-cultures--all contingent conditions--modify the relationship between attitudes and behavior.

A number of studies both prior to and subsequent to Yinger's postulation of a field theory of behavior have demonstrated the existence of situational factors. LaPiere (1934:230-237), in a classic study, demonstrated that what hotel managers said they would do with regard to accepting

reservations for an interracial group (deny them accommodations) contradicted in most cases what they had actually done (accepted the group). In a similar study done by Kutner, Wilkins and Yarrow (1952:649-652), dealing with restaurant and tavern managers, confirmed that discriminatory behavior tended to be minimal in face-to-face contact but maximal when suggestions to violate group norms were made. Lawrence Linn (1965:353-364) concluded that the relationship between racial attitudes and overt behavior is a function of the stability of the attitude anchorage and of the degree of social involvement, between the individual and the object with which the attitude is held, as well as the amount of prior experience with it.

Robin Williams (1964:18-26), in the Cornell Studies in Intergroup Relations traced the development of prejudice and discrimination toward outgroups through the concept "ethnocentrism" and the examination of certain conditions within the culture, social structure, and individual personality system which contributed to conflict among groups. According to Williams, all groups based on a common identity were characterized by ethnocentric feelings of the unique value and rightness of the group. Ethnocentrism might lead to prejudice if relations among groups were defined by historical cleavages, a threat of competition, a degree of misunderstanding and lack of knowledge of the other group's values. Other situational determinants of prejudice were

judged highly important by these investigators--the influence of geographic area, socioeconomic status, education, organizational membership, and roles played by the individual relative to others (Williams, 1964:48-64). A variety of personality traits such as learned predispositions, rigidity, and consistency were discussed in the relationship of the individual to social interaction with out-group members (Williams, 1964:78-82). Williams thus theorized the determinants of interracial attitudes and behavior to be interacting and complex.

Milton Rokeach (1966-67:529-550) has found that how a person will behave toward an object-within-a-situation will depend, on the one hand, on the particular beliefs or predispositions activated by the attitude-object and, on the other hand, on the particular beliefs or predispositions activated by the situation. Thus it follows that a person's social behavior must always be a function of at least two attitudes--one activated by the attitude-object, the other activated by the situation. It was further reported that attitudes toward object and situation affected behavior in direct proportion to the perception of importance of each.

The relationship between inner conviction and overt behavior has frequently been discussed in connection with the validity of measures of verbal attitudes. An investigation of the effects of situational variables on the congruence or incongruence of expressed attitudes and overt behavior was

further advanced by the research on the influence of reference group support--conditions placed on behavior by social norms of groups which were important to the individual. DeFleur and Westie (1958:667-673), in an attempt to develop an instrument for measurement of a person's attitude orientation (readiness to translate verbal attitude into overt behavior) found that one-third of their sample showed behavior patterns in opposition to verbally elicited attitudes, and that three-fourths of these stated the peer group as the restraining factor. On the basis of this finding the authors suggested that in analyses of attitude and behavior relationships, the factors of social constraint and individual psychological orientations be investigated.

Fendrick (1967:347-355) found situational variables in interracial interaction to interfere with the expression of attitudes to action. Verbal attitudes were consistent, but inconsistent with overt behavior depending on the structure of the experimental situation and how the respondents defined the situation. In a later report, Fendrick (1967b: 960-970), examined the relationship between racial attitudes, overt behavior, and perceived reference group support in several theoretical models. He found that perceived reference group support determines racial attitudes and overt behavior, but that racial attitudes were themselves partially independent determinants of overt behavior.

Warner and DeFleur (1969:153-169), in experimental action situations tested the degree to which interracial behavior situations were likely to become known by significant others and the degree to which status positions of the individual and outgroup members were influential in the relationship between attitudes and their enactment. Research supported the "postulate of contingent consistency," that situational factors such as group membership or reference groups, social norms or role expectations modified the relationship between attitudes and behavior. Lohman and Reitzes (1954:342-344) investigated the influence of social norms on intergroup behavior. In examining the relationship of the behavior of union members, in an organization with clear policies of Negro equality, and the behavior of the union members toward racial minorities within the neighborhood. Significant associations were found between involvement in the neighborhood property owners' organization and rejection of Negroes in the neighborhood and between identification with the union and acceptance of Negroes on the job. No association was found between rejection of Negroes in the neighborhood and acceptance of Negroes on the job. Behavior in interracial situations was determined by the relevant group norms. In view of these findings, it would appear that behavior is not determined by attitude alone, but is modified by situational determinants such as peer groups, roles, reference groups, voluntary organizations,

subcultures, significant others, need for approval, alienation, and many other social and psychological factors.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS AND JOB SATISFACTION IN DESEGREGATED SCHOOLS

The role of the teacher in the school desegregation process has been defined as complex and contradictory. The resolution of these conflicts are essential for effective interpersonal relations, teacher job satisfaction, and the efficient accomplishment of quality education for all youth. This section will review selected literature related to interpersonal relations and job satisfaction.

Interpersonal Relations

The term interpersonal relations is more widely known as "human relations." Davis (1962:4) defines human relations as:

. . . human relations is the integration of people into a work situation in this case the public school that motivates them to work together productively, cooperatively, and with economic, psychological, and social satisfaction.

When a teacher comes to school he brings elements of himself, his goals, and his needs, and these may or may not be congruent with the goals of the organization. Griffiths (Savage, 1968:6) indicates that when there is a lack of mutual respect, good will, and faith in the dignity and worth of human beings as individual personalities, whether

they be colleague or pupil, teachers cannot be as effective as they would be otherwise.

The following quotation by Savage (1968), emphasizes the importance of good school interpersonal relations:

". . . while a breakdown in interpersonal relations may hurt some individuals, its greatest damage is to the education of children." Students can be affected by the quality of the relationships among faculty members and the atmosphere of mutual respect and cooperation (or lack of it) that exists in the school and in school activities (Winecoff and Kelly, 1971:3-10). The following comments by Bash (1966:39-45) lend additional support for good human relations in the desegregated school:

. . . the soundness and integrity of teaching will be determined in large measure by the success which white and Negro teachers have in establishing mutual professional and personal respect. Teachers' attitudes toward their colleagues are highly important in day-to-day school routine.

When schools desegregate, the attention of the country is naturally focused on the children, both Negro and white, who are the principal actors in the drama of historic change. As revealed in the above quotation by Bash, the teachers who carry on their professional duties in these desegregated classrooms, often in spite of strong personal feelings, also play a vital role (Cole, 1964:72). Teachers are culturally conditioned by the environments in which they grow up. Consequently, we must recognize the teacher's

social values, attitudes, and personal feelings as important factors in his professional behavior.

Desegregation has been conceptualized by Yarrow and Yarrow (1958:8) as a social psychological problem involving a conflict between external forces and internalized norms-- a situation requiring performance at variance with existing norms of interpersonal relationships. Desegregation requires the adoption of new norms of behavior patterns to which are attached very strong attitudes, beliefs, and values. Developing cohesiveness and working out satisfactory relationships among group members may pose special problems (Yarrow and Yarrow, 1958:47). Kaplan (1959:407-426) has stressed the role of the school administrator in lessening the emotional pressure on the teacher, thereby contributing to teacher mental health and a more favorable emotional climate in the classroom. Kaplan also discusses the role of the administrator in reducing friction between teachers and parents, and the importance of wholesome school interpersonal relations.

Research on the effects that minority group status has on influencing role expectations and probable behavior of individuals has indicated that Negroes in newly desegregated situations may be uncertain or confused regarding what is expected of them, or the extent of their activities in certain aspects of the new situation. It has been implied that Negroes may be much more confused or uncertain

concerning what they can do or ought to do than their white counterparts. Previous studies seem also to suggest that Negroes may restrain themselves, or be overly reluctant to participate in certain activities in newly desegregated situations. It is quite possible that as Negro teachers move into schools with recently desegregated teaching staffs they will carry with them intense minority sensitivities and behaviors appropriate to past experiences. This carryover may also affect the expectations of the Negro teacher regarding his behavior in his role as a teacher in this new setting. This may especially be true in activities considered controversial and in social activities with white teachers and community members (Mays, 1963:218-226).

The implications of these findings is that the sensations of being uncomfortable, oversensitive, or overaggressive, may possibly result in uncommon reticence or even general restraint from taking part in the total teaching program. Such feelings if present, it is opinioned, may well influence the Negro teacher's expectations for his behavior in certain school and community activities, and, as an end result, may affect his behavior in his performance as a teacher. If relative harmony does not exist among the staff members of the school certain aspects of the educational setting may be impaired (Mays, 1963:218-226).

In research conducted by Nebraska Mays (1963:218-226), the question of Negro and white teacher expectations was

investigated. The findings indicate that those fearful of Negro reticence or over-aggressiveness, of Negro-white social distance in faculty relationships, or even of the general disruption of the educational scene, appear to be offering tenuous grounds for concern. The validity of such concern, Mays argues, is open to serious question. The Negro and white teacher-expectations studied--which were concerned primarily with actual behavior in activities where disruption was anticipated--failed to indicate undue disturbance.

In an earlier exploratory study, Robert J. Amos (1955:470-476), investigated the dominant attitudes of Southern Negro teachers toward school desegregation. Intellectual inadequacy, rejection, social inadequacy, stereotyped beliefs, acceptance, resentment and ambivalent attitudes were the major concerns established. In light of May's research, these findings might simply be interpreted as "fear of the unknown." Robert M. Coles (1964:201-213) points out that since 1954 the schools of the South, their teachers and students, have lived under conflicting pressure and special conditions of uncertainty and public notice. In an investigation of the rather problematic transition and adjustment of students and teachers to desegregation in elementary and high schools in two Southern cities, Coles reports a correlation between successful adjustment and personality characteristics. The fact that desegregation did not mean integration is frequently mentioned in the

literature. Physical desegregation of the school facilities for student and teachers does not necessarily contribute to the true goal of integration socially within the school (Lipton, 1965:8-19). However, Lipton indicates that desegregation is an important first step. Once you desegregate, then you can begin to work on involving your children, teachers, and other staff members with one another.

In a survey of black and white "cross-over" elementary teachers, conducted in Texas by Clifton Claye (1970: 4-16), teachers were asked to identify the problem areas associated with their desegregated assignment. The most pressing or serious problems indicated by the respondents are, in rank order: discipline and classroom control; unfamiliarity with students' backgrounds, race, and/or language; working with students who have less parental support, resources, and enrichment experiences than those of previous classes; social isolation of cross-over teachers; negative parental reaction as reflected in attitudes and behavior toward the teachers; gaps in communication between teacher and student; fear of loss in social and professional status; parental and community rejection as reflected in attitudes and behavior toward the teacher; working with teachers of the opposite race; and inadequate preparation for the experience. Claye suggests: ". . . that the problems of isolation and rejection, in combination, are, or at

least appear to be, blocks to a productive staff of Negro and white teachers."

Though the empirical evidence is both contradictory and limited, there seems to be general agreement that Southern school teachers have experienced tension, fear, and marked uncertainty in the face of spreading school desegregation. Cole (1964:73&90) indicates that their roles as teachers have clashed with their private views on racial matters. Their capacities as teachers are constantly being challenged by the special demands of desegregated classrooms: how to manage white hostility, Negro anxiety, their own prejudices and fears as they come up against their sense of fairness or their ethical principles not only as teachers but as human beings.

Winecoff and Kelly (1971:3-10) suggest that a blend of realism, optimism, determination, skill, and a genuine desire to achieve just, harmonious, and constructive human relations in the school, educators can contribute significantly to ending the uncertainty that has crept into the process of school desegregation. Beyond that, they are in an excellent position to help reverse the racial polarization threatening our society and to facilitate a move toward understanding, cooperation, and more effective interpersonal relations. Berlin (1964:234) proposes that civic groups as well as educators should be made aware that efforts at racial desegregation require continued vigil,

cooperation, and continued education of all concerned may make educational desegregation and equal opportunity to learn more of a reality.

Job Satisfaction

Teachers, as well as other school personnel, have many different needs. While the school's major responsibility is not to fulfill the needs of its employees, these individuals must be able to find at least some satisfaction in their work or else they will be discontent and ineffective (Savage, 1968). Scofield and Domm (1970:8-15) indicate that a person's job is one major source of enhancement of his feelings of adequacy and acceptability. It is through his work and the social environment in which he works that he finds ego-involving enhancement of his self-feelings. If ego-involved with his work, with those he works with, and with the goals of the organization, the individual will have a sense of well-being and will be self-actualized. He will want to come to work, to do a good job, and to avoid behaviors which would interfere with his work. Having a feeling of self-worth on the job, the employee is little affected by the numerous small problems that arise, is not upset by disagreements, and is able to withstand even threatening job situations with success.

As used in this study, job satisfaction is based on the following assumptions: First, teachers who perceive

that they are exposed to role conflict will feel less satisfied with their job; second, they will feel less satisfied with their careers; third, they will worry more than teachers who do not perceive their exposure to incompatible expectations (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958:275). These predictions assume that "job satisfaction," "career satisfaction," and "worry," as measured by the research instrument of this study, are adequate indices of the "gratification" teachers derive from the occupancy of their position. Job satisfaction, as used in this context, relates to perceived role conflict by the teacher whether that conflict is produced on or off the job.

In research conducted by Neal Gross, Mason and McEachern (1958) it was found that superintendent's responses to the role conflict instruments indicated that exposure to perceived conflict has consequences for the way in which they experience their jobs. Additionally, it was demonstrated that for some situations, the presence of anxiety as a result of the conflict leads to more pronounced consequences than the absence of anxiety. Although it is true that these "conflicts" are perceptions of the superintendents themselves, they are nevertheless perceptions of relatively objective conditions under which they carry out their jobs, and we might reasonably expect them to have some consequences for the way in which they do experience their jobs.

If the constructive effects of frustration and conflict fail to bring about goal attainment, the tension continues to increase. Eventually it will reach levels at which its effects are no longer facilitative but are disruptive of the goal-directed activity. Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962) indicate that there is a kind of threshold level beyond which the tension results in qualitatively different kinds of effect on behavior. With increasing tension, the individual may become overly agitated, emotionally upset, and no longer able to cope in constructive ways with the problem situation. An individual's psychological make-up and the particular situation will determine his tolerance for frustration, and the manner in which he resolves perceived conflict.

The relationship of teachers to fellow workers and to the community are important factors in determining enthusiasm for the job and teacher morale. Francis Chase (1951:127) in a study of "Factors for Satisfaction in Teaching" reports: "It appears to be of the utmost importance to teachers to feel that the people of the community believe in and support education and value the work of the teacher." Recognition by the community of the professional status and competence of the teacher adds greatly to teachers' pride in their work, and hence to greater job satisfaction.

INSTITUTE TRAINING

Experience has shown that the mere mixing of ethnic groups does not automatically produce harmonious relationships between the races (Amir, 1969). In fact, desegregation of a previously segregated school often presents complex coping problems for every member of the school and community. It is essential that the teacher understand his "new" pupils, their backgrounds, and their special needs. Bash (1966:7), proposes that provisions should be made to insure that the teacher is comfortable among the new and different situational factors which may be present in the desegregated setting. This section discusses the purpose and research related to desegregation institute training, the contact hypothesis, and the preliminary research completed under the broader research project.

Purpose and Related Research

With the desegregation of Southern school populations, and especially with faculty desegregation, the emphasis on and concern for quality teaching has not lessened but has increased. Bash and Morris (1967-68:6) suggest that quality teaching now is expected to occur in an intercultural context--a context that demands new attitudes, concepts, understandings, generalizations, experiences, and training for both white and Negro teachers. One of the most effective and often utilized approaches has

been the in-service training program for school personnel. In-service training programs, with many and varied activities focusing mainly on teaching in desegregated schools, may be found in most of the Southern states (Bash and Morris, 1967-68:11).

The goals of most institute or in-service training programs are to lessen racial and ethnic tensions and to improve the capacity of individuals to relate to each other in an objective and fair manner, regardless of race. Goldin (1970:62) concludes that it is particularly important for the teachers to function without prejudice if the students are to benefit educationally from the desegregated experience. Bash and Morris (1967-68:10) suggest that the educational objectives in a desegregated school are no different from that in a segregated school--good teaching for effective learning to take place. However, he proposes that teachers need some new techniques--new approaches to make certain that the desegregated school develops an educational climate conducive to good teaching and effective learning. The teacher's role in a school desegregation plan is crucial. He helps or hinders the adjustment of each child to the new experiences of the classroom. He also helps parents to form their opinions and shape their attitudes toward school desegregation and its resulting effect on the education of their children. The teacher's greatest influence is exerted through the children he teaches.

Although many social scientists and educators agree upon the value of human relations training, in-service training, or "sensitivity training," especially for teachers in a desegregated setting, there have been few extensive long term or follow-up studies on changes in teacher's attitudes and behavior after participation in these programs (Arnez, 1966:151). Desirable teacher attitudes are a necessary ingredient to the American goal of providing quality and realistic education to all its youth. Human relations training for teachers has been discussed by Arnez, as being highly influential and successful in changing attitudes, in reducing teacher turnover, and in providing greater understanding of the needs and problems of the culturally deprived child.

Matthew B. Miles (1960:301-306), in a comparison study of sensitivity group participants with two samples of nonparticipants, found that 73% of the experimental group of school principals showed change, while only 17% and 29% of the two control groups showed change. Learning a new behavioral skill was enhanced by a desire to change old behavior patterns, active involvement in the training group, and feedback from other participants. Bunker (1965:131-148), in a modification of Miles' study, reported that institute participants showed a greater insight into group processes and increased understanding of self and others. The increase in understanding of the self, bringing about possible changes

in behavior, was reinforced by the research of Gordon (1950: 220-226). Interaction on relevant topics within the individual's reference group has also been discussed as being conducive to attitude change; consensus of an individual's reference group produces a commitment for the person to change in the direction of the group discussion (Kahn, 1968: 68-70).

Carlson (1956:256-261) found the direction and degree of attitude change was dependent upon the individual's initial anchorage. These findings indicate the importance of considering the possible interaction of initial attitudes on effects of attitude change techniques. Various studies have indicated that attitudes cannot be forcibly changed (Rokeach, 1966:529-550). A person might express an opinion in the presence of a force, which suggests an attitude change, but the attitude does not necessarily remain changed in the absence of the force.

Despite the well-documented effectiveness of exposure to information in modifying attitudes, Katz, Sarnoff, and McClintock (1956:27-46) found the self insight approach of sensitivity training to be more promotive of change. A series of researchers have supported this method as highly effective in inducing attitude change, especially in the area of racial prejudice. It is proposed that the process of looking within the self and examining motives and conditions of behavior, the sensitivity group member may

experience deep personality, attitude, or behavioral change. Wilson Record (1964:26-43) argues that changes in prejudiced attitudes may be brought about by social scientific information. Through a nondirective study, calling attention to the local historical experience on race relations, school personnel will be able to identify those occurrences in the past which bear on present issues and provide them with new perspectives.

Barbara Arnstine (1966:77) suggests that institute planners abandon the notion of a desegregation institute as a place where learned and sometimes famous researchers tell the practitioners in the field what to do, and consider instead that an institute may be a process whereby teachers and researchers mutually inquire into school problems, then many of the difficulties about content will disappear. The author proposes that institute participants be involved in both defining and solving the problems under investigation. The writer further indicates that if the institutes are to have any value at all, then the conditions under which they promote learning become as crucial as what the institute staff hopes to have the participants learn. Unless in-service education, whether at an institute or elsewhere, can provide the grounds for mutual inquiry into education, then the teachers and researcher will continue to go their separate ways.

Benjamin Solomon (1969:164-167) lends some support for Arnstine's position when he argues that government agencies sponsor studies and many social scientists make studies and talk to each other learnedly about them but they ignore the educators. He suggests that any program to eliminate racism must necessarily depend on the understanding and initiative of school people.

The Contact Hypothesis

One of the more controversial propositions in the literature concerning race and ethnic relations is the "contact hypothesis"--the notion that the effects of inter-group contact on racial and ethnic relations is positive with regard to reducing prejudice, tension and improving relations. The assumption is widespread that prejudice will be reduced and stereotypes destroyed if you merely assemble people of different races or ethnic origins. It is hypothesized that friendly and compatible attitudes are developed simply by contact. Policy makers in our society appear to be planning and implementing changes in the educational system which are based on at least a partial acceptance of the contact hypothesis. Two examples of such changes are the mixing of school children of different racial backgrounds into one classroom and the desegregation of public school faculties. Needless to say, the intent is for such attitude change to be in a favorable direction.

Research on the effects of intergroup contact on ethnic relations was reviewed by Yehuda Amir (1969:319-342). The major generalizations derived from this review was that changes in ethnic relations do occur following intergroup contact, but the nature of this change is not necessarily in the anticipated direction. While "favorable" contact conditions do tend to reduce prejudice, "unfavorable" conditions may increase intergroup tension and prejudice. It was further concluded that ethnic attitudes may change in their intensity, and that they may be limited to specific areas of the ethnic attitude and not be generalized to other aspects of the intergroup relationships.

Although most of the investigations on the effects of contact on the reduction of prejudice report "favorable" findings, Amir (1969), suggests that this outcome might be attributed to the selection of favorable experimental situations. He indicates that some of these favorable conditions are: (1) when there is equal status contact between the members, (2) when the contact is between members of a majority group and higher status members of a minority group, (3) when an "authority" and/or the social climate are in favor of and promote the intergroup contact, (4) when the contact is of an intimate rather than a casual nature, (5) when the contact is rewarding, and (6) when there is a superordinate goal which takes precedence over the individual group goals.

The desegregation training institutes on which this study is being made, attempted to induce favorable change through an attack on both the cognitive and affective components of the teacher's attitude. The individual was exposed to relevant information (cognitive) in a satisfying and intimate interracial contact (affective). These, plus the other desirable conditions outlined by Amir (1969), all of which are supported by the research literature, suggest that the institutes would prove highly efficient in accomplishing its goals.

Preliminary Research

The National Institute of Mental Health funded a three-year research project designed to evaluate the Houston desegregation institute training programs. Phase two of this research project involved a before-after study and phase three a follow-up and comparison study. (A discussion of the research project is presented in Chapter I.) This section reviews some of the findings from both of these preliminary investigations.

The Before-After Study. This research was an assessment of the success of the spring institute of 1967 (Robinson and Crittenden, 1970). Questionnaires were given to the institute participants on the first and last day of the twelve-week training program.

The analysis of the data (tested at the .05 level) indicated that many changes did occur in the teachers' attitudes. Desegregation became more acceptable to institute participants, especially the whites. Indices measuring attitudes toward prejudice, discrimination, interracial contact, and attitudes toward social and school desegregation indicated significant differences for whites after participation in the institute. Young, white female teachers seemed to benefit most from the experience; with a reduction in general prejudice being greater for younger whites than for older whites or blacks.

The participants, especially whites, indicated more acceptance of persons of another race after the institute. The researchers regarded this difference as notable since participants were selected only from volunteers. In fact, responses were highly skewed in a favorable direction before and after the institute for most blacks and whites. It was concluded that the development of behavior skills or an increased understanding of role expectations could have led to the more favorable attitude toward contact. It was hypothesized that institute participants would experience more successful role performance because of knowledge and skills learned in the institute.

Of the 188 enrollees in the spring institute, thirty-eight withdrew from the program during the course of the training. However, it was reported that there were very

few significant differences between dropouts and graduates. Comparisons of graduates by race indicated that black teachers more nearly approached the stereotypical classification of the middle class teacher. White participants appeared to be atypical on some status characteristics. Only fifty-one percent of the whites were married and twenty percent were divorced or separated. Significantly fewer whites owned homes; participated actively in community, social or fraternal organizations; or had Master's Degrees. The median length of residence in Houston was almost three times longer for blacks; they were on the average five years older than whites; and, their income averaged almost \$800 per year above that of the white participants. Among the married teachers, blacks were more likely to have a working spouse. Only fifty-one percent of the whites were married compared with eighty-five percent of the blacks. Whites were more likely to have fathers with professional or skilled training.

The Follow-up and Comparison Study. In order to evaluate the long-term effects of participation in an institute, phase four involved a comparison between a sample who had and a sample who had not experienced institute training. This investigation was designed to analyze the similarities and dissimilarities between 152 institute participants and a stratified random sample of 198 teachers selected from the same schools in which the institute participants were

teaching (Robinson, 1970; Grauke, 1970). The experimental group had received institute training during 1966-67 and had responded to an invitation to take part in the follow-up study. The research was conducted from twelve to eighteen months after the institute participants had completed training.

A questionnaire was utilized in the analysis. The instrument included 172 brief-answer or choice-of-alternative responses, as well as thirty-nine open-ended questions and statements. Types of data collected included demographic variables, organizational participation, pleasant and unpleasant school experiences with persons of the other race, and scales to measure attitudes toward the community, the school district, segregation, the other race and prejudice.

Tests for significant differences between the scale scores of the institute participants and the random sample revealed that in ten of the eleven tests, differences were significant at the .001 level. On all scales related to prejudice and integration, where differences were significant, the scores for the institute participants were more favorable. Institute trained whites were found to be significantly more likely to have: (1) previously experienced favorable behavior with blacks; (2) a disposition to react positively in an integrated social situation; (3) a more critical attitude toward community and school district activities to promote social change; and, (4) less prejudice

and stereotypical attitudes. White teachers in the random sample always scored significantly more unfavorable on race related and prejudice scales than did their white counterparts who had had institute training or either group in the black sample.

Black groups did not possess as much contrast in attitudes as whites. On all scales black institute participants had scores more favorable toward whites than did the random sample of blacks. Significant differences were found for all tests between the blacks and whites in the random sample. Blacks tended to look with more disfavor on previous behavior patterns between the races but presently were highly disposed to interact favorably with whites. Blacks were much more in favor of integration, more critical of community and school leadership, and possessed higher commitment to traditional American ideals with less incongruent behavior tendencies.

Differences between the black and white institute participants were not of such sharp contrast. Black institute participant teachers' attitudes were not significantly different from the white institute participant teachers on five of the tests: (1) attitudes toward integration; (2) stereotyping; (3) attitudes toward people of another race in hypothetical situations; (4) attitudes toward the community; and, (5) attitudes toward interracial social

interaction. Other test findings were similar to those for the random sample.

It was concluded that teachers appear to benefit from institute training with a reduction in prejudice, stereotyping, and resistance to desegregation. Also, the attitudes of the institute participants remained more congruent with desegregation and that institute participants were significantly less prejudiced than the random sample of teachers. It was assumed that these results affect the classroom and the accompanying occupational and personal role relationships of these teachers. Institute participant teachers are expected to get along better with pupils, parents, principals and other teachers in a multi-racial setting.

THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

The literature reviewed above clearly indicates that many variables are related to teacher attitudes and interpersonal relationships in a desegregated setting. Drawing from the research findings, the Research Center staff of the major research project developed a theoretical model which provides a framework for analyzing teacher mental health. It is recognized that there are physiological and other factors beyond the scope of analysis which are not included in the theoretical framework. An explanation of the theoretical orientation follows.

Behavior is the overt action of a person in response to events and expectations in a social situation. Influential factors upon role behavior are the understandings and the knowledge that a person has of his role and his social skills in acting the part. Understanding and knowledge may be defined as cognitions of the role. From this perspective role cognitions lead to overt behavior sets which are covertly rational to the individual. The person acts (behaves) according to his social skills and according to what he thinks he wants to do in the given situation. How he thinks he wants to act, and how he acts are influenced by the accuracy of his social perception, his tolerance level for social disapproval, the strength of his emotional needs, and his behavioral or acting skills.

Teachers and students vary widely in the accuracy of their perception of cultural and social expectations and of group sanctions in given social situations. The institute training programs on problems of desegregation were designed to assist teachers in the improvement of their perceptual skills.

Tolerance for disapproval is probably one of the most neglected determinants role behavior. Tolerance for disapproval may be difficult to measure, but it means the ability of a person to withstand exclusion--criticism, rejection, alienation, and perhaps punishment. Tolerance for disapproval will enable the individual to engage in.

risk-taking behavior which could result in social punishment. Lack of tolerance may beget role sublimation and adaptation. Stress may result from fear of rejection. Strength of emotional needs is related to tolerance for disapproval. These may be regarded as conscious, accepted, and rational needs of an emotional system. In a particular social situation, a person may know his role, he may accurately perceive the demands and be willing and desirous of withstanding disapproval; yet he may still act in a manner determined primarily by emotional needs, rather than other factors. Even though such an event may be rare, the strength of emotional needs usually influences behavior with respect to social perception and tolerance for disapproval.

"Behavior skills" refers to the ability or capacity of a person to act in a given situation. Behavior skills are determined by individual capacity, training, and knowledge (socialization). Some persons possess a variety of skills which enables them to be good "actors" in social situations, while others have a very limited range of behavior skills. Due to social and cultural isolation, black and white teachers may possess a limited range of behavior skills applicable to interpersonal relationships in desegregated situations.

Two other factors influence role behavior and, in some instances, may dominate or control role cognition. First, there are some life situations where a person knows

his role and how he wants to act, but because of force or social pressure he must adopt different behavior. In some instances when one assumes and acts out the role he desires or prefers, severe punishment and rejection may occur. A second factor influencing role behavior, and possibly controls behavior in some instances, is at the unconscious level. People who sometimes prefer to act a particular way react quite differently when under stress. Resulting behavior may not be what they anticipated. The desire for approval, sadistic tendencies, biological factors, and perhaps other underlying stimuli may be so strong that the person does not act according to his predetermined behavior set. He is the victim of his unconscious demands.

Role cognitions lead to the development of attitude and behavior sets (predispositions). Some behavior is almost habitual. One behaves in the proper manner because he feels comfortable and can do so without much thought. Persons with a wide range of social experience will likely develop a number of appropriate behavior skills. The amount of information and acculturation determine our rationale or value system for behavior. In social situations where the unknown or unfamiliar is faced, routine cannot be followed; the actor must then "think out" every action. The dilemma of judging the situation (considering all the related personal and environmental factors) and deciding how to act or what to say may create stress. Within this framework

and through the process of time, a continuum of successful and unsuccessful attitudes and behavior sets may be developed. Successful sets result in and may be labeled as motivation, cooperation, achievement, and unsuccessful or failing sets result in withdrawal, aggression, and hostility. Figure 1 is a diagram of the theoretical model.

SUMMARY

This chapter presents an overview of the concepts and research related to human behavior, interpersonal relations and job satisfaction, and institute training; concluding with a theoretical model for understanding teacher behavior. This background is essential for an understanding of the interpersonal and mental health problems which may be present in the desegregated setting.

It might be concluded from the literature reviewed that the social scientists have made significant contributions toward the understanding of human behavior. However, there is still need for additional empirical evidence on the methods, content and results of attempts to modify behavior. This would be especially true in relation to the desegregation institute training programs.

FIGURE 1

THEORETICAL MODEL OF STUDENT AND TEACHER BEHAVIOR IN DESEGREGATED SCHOOLS

DETERMINANTS OF ATTITUDES & BEHAVIOR

I. Situational:

1. Social Demands - Known
2. Social Expectations - Learned
3. Accuracy of Social Perception - Individual Capability
4. Tolerance for Disapproval Learned
5. Behavioral Skills - Individual Capability & Knowledge

II. Psychological:

1. Strength of Emotional Needs
2. Psychological Expectations
3. Unconscious Demands

ROLE COGNITIONS

Teachers and Students make decisions for behavior at an awareness, conscious level that they are going to respond--feel and act in a particular way to a given stimulus

ATTITUDES & BEHAVIOR SETS

1. Motivation
2. Cooperation
3. Achievement
4. SUCCESS
-
1. Withdrawal
2. Aggression
3. Hostility
4. FAILURE

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

This chapter describes the research design, the sample and sampling technique, the research instrument, the statistical treatments used in the data analysis, the study limitations and the order of presentation for the findings.

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The experimental design for this study is referred to by Campbell and Stanley (Gage, 1963:182) as "The Static-Group Comparison" design. It permitted the comparison of a group which had received some treatment (institute training) with another group which had not, for the purpose of determining the effect of treatment. This investigation was concerned with not only analyzing the differences between the experimental and the control group, but also differences which existed between the subclasses of the two samples. The four basic subclasses of teachers studied were: (1) black teachers who had institute training; (2) white teachers who had institute training; (3) black teachers who had no institute training; and, (4) white teachers who had no institute training. In addition, some comparisons were made controlling for race; blacks with whites, pooled, without regard to

institute training. These subsamples were compared in testing the three null hypotheses of this investigation.

The dependent variables in this study are the attitudes and opinions of the respondents, as measured by the several scales which are included in the "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers" (see Appendix B). The independent variables analyzed in this investigation consist of the institute and non-institute trained teachers and their race (blacks and whites).

SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

The samples for this study were drawn from two populations of Houston public school teachers. The experimental group was randomly selected from a population of teachers who had volunteered to participate in a desegregation training institute. The control group was randomly selected from a population of teachers who had not participated in any desegregation training institutes, but had volunteered for "cross-over" teaching assignments.

In the spring of 1969 a sample of 164 teachers, 82 institute participants and 82 "cross-over" teachers who had not attended a desegregation institute, was selected. A random procedure was employed in selecting the sample which was stratified by race and grade level taught. Blalock (1960: 401-405) refers to this technique as a disproportionate stratified random sampling method, in which mathematical

formulas are used in drawing the sample to assure an equal proportion of the desired participants. The steps used in selecting the experimental and control groups follow.

The 82 institute participants were drawn randomly (stratified by race and grade taught) from a population of 152 teachers who had participated in the spring of 1967 desegregation institute. The 82 non-institute participants were drawn randomly (stratified by race and grade taught) from a list of teachers who had volunteered for "cross-over" teaching assignments. "Cross-over" teachers who had had institute training were eliminated from this list, leaving a population of 342. See Table I for a description of the Sample which was stratified by institute participation, race and teaching level.

TABLE I
SELECTED SAMPLE BY TYPE, CONTROLLED
FOR RACE AND TEACHING LEVEL

Teaching Level	Institute Participants			Non-Institute Parti- cipants			Totals
	Race		Total	Race		Total	
	Black	White			Black		White
Elementary	23	23	46	23	23	46	92
Secondary	<u>18</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>36</u>	<u>72</u>
Totals	41	41	82	41	41	82	164

The 164 (82 institute participants and 82 non-institute participants) teachers selected for the experimental and control groups were invited by mail to participate in the in-depth study phase (phase four) of the research project. The 142 teachers accepting the invitation are the respondents which comprise the sample for this study. Of the 142 participants in this study, 75 were from the experimental group and 67 were from the control group. The 75 institute participant teachers included 36 blacks and 39 whites. The 67 non-institute participant teachers included 35 blacks and 32 whites. See Table II for a description of the teacher respondents by sample type, race and grade level taught.

TABLE II
RESPONDENTS BY SAMPLE TYPE, CONTROLLED
FOR RACE AND TEACHING LEVEL

Teaching Level	Institute Participants			Non-Institute Participants			Totals
	Race			Race			
	Black	White	Total	Black	White	Total	
Elementary	20	22	42	19	18	37	79
Secondary	<u>16</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>33</u>	<u>16</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>63</u>
Totals	36	39	75	35	32	67	142

THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers" was developed to measure problems arising from

teaching in the desegregated situation (see Appendix B). The instrument was designed by J. Don Boney, Jerry Robinson and Dorothy Smith, for use in the indepth study phase (phase four) of the mental health research project (discussed in Chapter I).

Description of the Instrument

The instrument was designed to assess attitudes and experiences of teachers who have taught in the faculty and/or pupil desegregated situation. The inventory aims to locate problem areas and then to pinpoint causes and resulting stresses where problems exist. The major objectives of the inventory are to assess: (1) prejudice, (2) philosophy of education, (3) role satisfaction and teacher's perception of his own role adequacy, (4) attitude toward certain community factors, (5) stress-producing areas of conflict in the desegregated teaching setting.

The objectives of the inventory are accomplished through the twenty-seven scales on teacher attitudes and opinions, and a section on general demographic data. The sixteen scales selected for analysis in this investigation relate specifically to the teacher's attitudes toward desegregated interpersonal relationships, on and off the job, and to job satisfaction. The inventory items were related to the teacher's experience during the school year just prior to completing the research instrument.

Twelve of the scales used in this study were designed to assess stress-producing areas of conflict in the desegregated teaching setting. Of these, six were concerned with the teacher's perceived relationships with associates (on the job) in his role as teacher in a desegregated school. The other six scales were designed to measure the teacher's perception of the implications his desegregated teaching position has on his interpersonal relationships outside of the job setting (off the job) with certain "significant others."

The last four scales were each designed for a specific purpose. The Teaching as a Career Scale was designed to measure the teacher's attitude toward teaching as a career. The Job Satisfaction Scale was designed to measure the overall satisfaction of the teacher in his position during a specified period of time. The Worry - Job Anxiety Scale was designed to measure the teacher's anxiety about his job during a specified time period. These last three scales were adapted from the research conducted by Neal Gross, Ward Mason, and Alexander McEachern (1958). The last scale, Teacher's View of Community Attitudes Toward His Job, was designed to measure the teacher's perception of his status in the community as a result of his taking a teaching position in a desegregated setting.

Scaling Procedures

The sixteen scales used in this analysis consisted of 113 items. Scale items were positive or negative statements relative to the attitude or opinion being measured. Responses to each statement were made by selecting one of the following four choices: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) disagree, and (4) strongly disagree. Where the particular scale was not applicable to a teacher's life situation, he was asked not to respond to those scales.

Numerical values were assigned each response alternative. High numerical values were assigned to the desired response; whether the response was to a positive or a negative statement. Response alternatives for positive statements or items were weighted from four (strongly agree) to one (strongly disagree). Weights were reversed for response alternatives to negative statements--one point (strongly agree) to four (strongly disagree). The sum of the weighted alternatives endorsed by the respondent comprised the scale score. High scores reflect a positive attitude.

Instrument Validity and Reliability

The validity and reliability of the research instrument is based primarily upon an item analysis and a test for internal consistency. See Appendix C for an explanation of the procedures used in measuring the instruments validity and reliability. The difficulty level for each item was calculated;

the scale variance ranged from a mean of approximately 0.26 to a mean of 0.50. The item variability is at a maximum when the item difficulty is at 50 percent (Helmstadter, 1964:165). Because the instrument was developed for the indepth study phase of the major research project, the only measure of content validity is the inventories face validity.

The reliability is supported by the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 test which was used in determining the coefficient of internal consistency for the scales. The sixteen scales used in this study have coefficients of internal consistency measures ranging from .72 to .97. Individual scale coefficients are reported along with the presentation of each scale in the following section. The success in developing the scales may be partially attributed to the assumption of face validity of the items, as supported by related literature, and the experience and insight of the scale-builders.

Presentation of Scales Used

For purposes of this study, the sixteen scales used are divided into three areas, each area representing one of the three major null hypotheses to be investigated. The three areas, the selected scales and the items used are as follows:

- I. Interpersonal Relationships On the Job
 - A. Teacher-Teacher Interpersonal Relationships
(teachers as a group).

1. Teachers of my school last spring got along well with each other.
2. I felt warmly accepted by my fellow teachers.
3. My relationships with teachers caused me undue worry.
4. Race relations among teachers were strained.
5. My relationship with teachers caused me frustration to the point of anger.
6. When hard feelings arose between teachers, race relations were involved.
7. In my personal relationships with teachers, race was a factor in problems that developed.
8. Because of the teachers, I considered requesting a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.89.

B. Teacher-Negro Teacher: Teacher's View of Interpersonal Relations.

1. Negro teachers in my school rejected white people.
2. The Negro teachers were people I liked.
3. When problems between teachers involved race relations the trouble was caused by Negro teachers.

4. The Negro teachers were willing to help me when I needed help.

5. Negro teachers rejected me.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.83.

C. Teacher-White Teacher: Teacher's View of Interpersonal Relations.

1. White teachers in my school rejected Negro people.

2. The white teachers were people I liked.

3. When problems between teachers involved race relations, the trouble was caused by white teachers.

4. The white teachers were willing to help me when I needed help.

5. White teachers rejected me.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.77.

D. Teacher - Principal Interpersonal Relationships.

1. The overall job the principal did last spring was satisfactory.

2. The principal treated teachers fairly.

3. The principal was unfair toward students.

4. The principal treated non-certificated staff members unjustly.

5. I personally felt warmly accepted by the principal.

6. The relationship between the principal and me caused me undue worry.
7. The principal is opposed to desegregation in schools.
8. The relationship between the principal and me caused me frustration to the point of anger.
9. The principal has it "in for" people different from his race.
10. I personally liked the principal.
11. Because of the principal, I thought of requesting a transfer.
12. My Negro students were treated justly by the principal.
13. My white students were treated justly by the principal.
14. Negro teachers were treated fairly by the principal.
15. White teachers were treated fairly by the principal.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.93.

E. Teacher - Non Certificated Personnel Interpersonal Relationships.

1. The non-certificated personnel were people I disliked.

2. My relationships with these staff members caused me undue worry.
3. I felt accepted by the non-certificated personnel.
4. My relationships with non-certificated personnel caused me frustration to the point of anger.
5. The non-certificated personnel caused me frustration to the point of anger.
6. Because of the non-certificated personnel, I thought of requesting a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.92.

F. Teacher - Parents of Pupils Interpersonal Relationships.

1. Parents of my students were people I disliked.
2. "Hostility toward my race" described the attitude of the parents of my students last spring.
3. My relationships with these parents caused me undue worry.
4. My relationships with parents often caused me frustration to the point of anger.
5. Because of the parents, I considered requesting a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.88.

II. Interpersonal Relationships Off the Job

A. Teacher - Spouse Interpersonal Relationships.

1. My spouse does not think that teaching is a good career for me.
2. My spouse regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.
3. My teaching assignment last spring caused friction between my spouse and me.
4. My spouse's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me worry.
5. Race relations were involved in our disagreements.
6. My spouse's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.
7. My spouse is prejudiced against the other race.
8. Because of my spouse's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.93.

B. Teacher - Father Interpersonal Relationships.

1. My father regards teaching as an excellent career for me.

2. My father regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.
3. My teaching assignment last semester caused friction between my father and me.
4. Race relations were involved in disagreements with my father.
5. My father's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.
6. My father is prejudice against the other race.
7. My father's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.
8. Because of my father's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.94.

C. Teacher - Mother Interpersonal Relationships.

1. My mother regards teaching as an excellent career for me.
2. My mother regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.
3. My teaching assignment last semester caused friction between my mother and me.

4. Race relations were involved in disagreements with my mother.
5. My mother's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.
6. My mother is prejudiced against the other race.
7. My mother's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.
8. Because of my mother's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.94.

D. Teacher - Offspring Interpersonal Relationships.

1. These children (or child) regard teaching as an excellent career for me.
2. These children regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.
3. My teaching assignment last spring caused friction between these children and me.
4. Race relations were involved in disagreements with these children.

5. These childrens' attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.
6. These children are prejudiced against the other race.
7. These childrens' attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.
8. Because of these childrens' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation I considered requesting a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.97.

E. Teacher - Relative Interpersonal Relationships.

1. These relatives regard teaching as an excellent career for me.
2. These relatives regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.
3. My teaching assignment last semester caused friction between these relatives and me.
4. Race relations were involved in disagreements with these relatives.

5. These relatives' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.
6. These relatives are prejudiced against the other race.
7. These relatives' attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.
8. Because of these relatives' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.93.

F. Teacher - Friends Interpersonal Relationships.

1. My friends regard teaching as an excellent career for me.
2. My friends regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.
3. My teaching assignment last semester caused friction between my friends and me.
4. Race relations were involved in disagreements with my friends.
5. My friends' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.

6. Most of my friends are prejudiced against the other race.
7. The attitudes of my friends toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.
8. Because of my friends' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.91.

III. Attitudes Toward Teaching and Job Satisfaction

A. Teaching as a Career Scale.

1. Teaching gives me a chance to do the things at which I am best.
2. I am making progress toward the goals I had set for myself in my teaching career.
3. Teaching has not lived up to the expectancy I had before I entered it.
4. If a young friend of mine asked me, I would advise him to enter the teaching field.
5. To me the work I do as a teacher is dissatisfying.
6. Teaching has many features that I dislike.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.72.

B. Job Satisfaction Scale.

1. I was satisfied with my job last spring when I compared it with other teaching jobs.
2. I was happy with the progress I made toward the goals which I set for myself in this job.
3. I was satisfied that the people of my community gave proper recognition to my work as a teacher.
4. I was satisfied with my salary.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.78.

C. Worry - Job Anxiety Scale.

1. Problems associated with my job kept me awake at night.
2. Once I had made a decision, I found myself worrying whether I had made the right decision.
3. I was nervous about many parts of my teaching job.
4. I "took my job home with me" in the sense that I thought about my job when I was doing other things.
5. I breathed a sigh of relief when I traveled away from my school.

6. I worried about what an individual or group would do if I made a decision contrary to their wishes.

D. Teacher's View of Community Attitudes Toward His Job.

1. My status in my community is high because I am a teacher.
2. The attitude of my community toward desegregated teaching caused me undue worry.
3. My status in my community was lowered when I took an assignment in a desegregated situation.
4. My community's attitude toward desegregated teaching caused me frustration to the point of anger.
5. Because of the attitude of my community toward desegregated teaching, I thought of asking for a transfer.

Coefficient of internal consistency = 0.83.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Each of the 164 teachers selected for this study received two letters explaining that she or he had been selected in a scientific sample for an important research project in education. One letter was from the Project Director

at Houston Baptist College, and the other from the Superintendent for Administration and Instruction of the Houston Independent School District. The letters explained that teachers would be paid a stipend of ten dollars for participating in the scientific study and that all personal data would be held confidential.

Ninety teachers responded to the first two letters. A second letter from the Project Director brought an additional 36 responses. A final group of letters were mailed to those who had not as yet responded. This group of three letters were sent from the Project Director, the Superintendent of Administration and Instruction and the President of the Houston Teachers Association. Sixteen teachers responded for the final interviewing session. There were 22 teachers who did not respond to the invitations to take part in this research. Copies of all letters are in the project files.

A total of 142 teachers completed the "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers." On the average, it took almost one hour to complete this instrument. After a brief break, the teachers completed the "Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory" (MMPI). Only data obtained from the "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers" are being analyzed in this investigation.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The individual mean scores obtained on the sixteen scales used in this study were analyzed to determine whether significant differences exist among the subsamples being treated in this study. The analysis of variance procedure permitted an overall test of the hypotheses of no differences among the four subsample means.

The computer program for completing computations was based on the procedures by Fortran IV Programming and the Biomedical Computer Programs (BMD). BMD is a program developed primarily for the purpose of providing the researcher a maximum of flexibility in designing a sequence of analyses to be carried out on research data (Dixon, 1967). The International Business Machine (IBM) 7094 at the Common Research Computer Facility, University of Texas Medical Center, in Houston, was used to process a BMD Program using the Fortran language. The "Analysis of Variance for a One-Way Design" program was used to compute an analysis-of-variance table for one variable of classification, with unequal group sample sizes (Dixon, 1967:486-494).

The output for this program includes a listing of the number in each group, treatment means and standard deviations. The analysis-of-variance table includes the following data: (1) the total sum of squares for within groups and for between groups; (2) degrees of freedom for within groups and

for between groups; (3) mean squares for within groups and between groups; and, (4) the F ratio.

Differences between two specific subsamples, as outlined in the hypotheses, were tested using the t-statistic. The hypotheses of no difference between subsample means was tested using the .05 level of significance. The chi-square statistical technique was employed to test the differences in teacher characteristics which existed between the subclasses of teachers being treated.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Regardless of the care in designing a scientific study, few if any are ever free from biases or limitations. It is a recognized responsibility of the researcher to take into account every possible source of bias in the analysis of data and in the interpretation of research findings. A model provided by Campbell and Stanley (Gage, 1963), for examining the limitations of experimental designs in educational research, was utilized in assessing the limitations of this study. These authors refer to the design employed in this study as that of, "The Static-Group Comparison."

The effects of desegregation training on interpersonal relations and job satisfaction in this study were limited to those which were measurable by the "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers." There is no formal means of

certifying that the groups being compared in this study would have been equivalent had it not been for desegregation training. Random sampling techniques were used to offset this limitation. Also, the fact that an interval of approximately two years provided for a maturation effect resulting from exposure to change-producing events other than the training program, provides a further limitation.

Another limiting factor in this investigation is the possible bias resulting from the selection of respondents. The participants comprising the experimental group were drawn from a population of Houston teachers who had volunteered for institute training. Most volunteers may have been "biased" in favor of desegregation before volunteering, and were more than likely fully cognizant of the purpose and objectives of the institute training program. Moderates and desegregationists could have constituted the majority of the institute trained population. Highly prejudiced teachers probably would not have volunteered for desegregation training. Also, some participants could have enrolled because of the participation stipend. Selection procedures for institute participants were established so that an approximately equal number of blacks and whites were admitted. Consequently, there was a greater proportion of black participants represented in the institutes (1-1), than the proportion of black teachers in the school system (1-3).

Because all respondents were teaching in desegregated schools, it is assumed that the sample differed because of the fact that the control group had not experienced desegregation training. Many of the characteristics of this sample, especially as they relate to attitudes toward desegregation, are assumed to be similar. In order to further offset the effect of the selection bias, all respondents were drawn by a stratified random sampling technique which controlled for both race and grade level taught.

The reactive arrangement or response bias, commonly referred to as the "Halo" effect, is another limiting factor in this study. This is a prominent source of unrepresentativeness which comes into play as a result of the participant's knowledge that he is involved in an experiment. This type of bias may be reflected in the respondent's attempt to be more rational, to reduce the effects of treatment, or present a more socially desirable response. This may be more applicable to the experimental group; and would lead to their reacting to the inventory items not only for their simple stimulus value, but also for their role as clues in divining the researcher's intent.

The experimental mortality or loss of members from the selected sample, provides a limiting factor for this investigation. Of the 164 teachers invited to participate in this study, 142 responded for interviewing. Seven of the 22 which elected not to take part in the study were from the

randomly selected experimental group. Even if the two populations had once been identical, they might now differ because of the selected dropout (for unknown reasons) of some members of the randomly selected sample.

External validity refers to the generalizability of the observed effects of experimental treatment to other populations and settings. While further insight into the problems of desegregating school faculties may be possible from the information gained in this analysis, the inferences will be limited to the two groups of Houston public school teachers who comprise the populations under study.

PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

The results of the statistical analysis of those data being treated in this investigation have been presented in textual and tabular form. Frequencies, chi squares, and significance of differences have been provided in the tables. The characteristics of the sample are reported in Chapter IV. Chapter V presents the results of the statistical analysis. Chapter VI is devoted to an interpretive discussion based on the findings from the data analyzed. The discussion of the findings are related to the preliminary research, the literature reviewed, the theoretical model and the social policy of accepting volunteers for institute training and "cross-over" teaching assignments. The final chapter (seven) provides the summary, implications and conclusions.

SUMMARY

In this chapter the design of the study was presented; the sample and method of selection were discussed; the research instrument introduced; and the procedures used in collecting and analyzing the data were outlined. The chapter was concluded with sections on the limitations of the study and a brief outline of the data presented in the remaining chapters of this dissertation.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS

The data presented in this chapter were taken from the demographic section of the "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers" (see Appendix B). Selected teacher characteristics were analyzed for the purpose of providing additional information about the respondents in this study.

The chi-square statistic was employed to test for differences in the distribution of selected teacher characteristics among the following subsamples: (1) black institute participants, (2) white institute participants, (3) black non-institute participants, and (4) white non-institute participants. In order to permit a conclusion on the assumption of no difference in the proportions of the variable being treated among the subsamples, a significant statistical relationship beyond the .05 level was established. The comparisons made on each characteristic analyzed included: (1) institute participants: blacks vs. whites, (2) non-institute participants: blacks vs. whites, (3) blacks: institute participants vs. non-institute participants, (4) whites: institute participants vs. non-institute participants, (5) black institute participants vs. white non-institute

participants, and (5) white institute participants vs. black non-institute participants.

The balance of this chapter presents the findings of the chi-square tests. Tables are included to provide a more complete review of some of the characteristics examined.

SEX, AGE AND MARITAL STATUS

In examining the differences in the sex of the respondents among the four subsamples, only one of the comparisons was found to be significant. Inspection of Table III shows that the black institute participant subsample has a significantly larger proportion of males than do the other three subsamples. The related chi-square test was significant at the .025 level. While the ratio of males to females was approximately one to three in three of the subsamples, the ratio was approximately one to one for the black institute participants.

The chi-square test failed to indicate a statistically significant difference in either the age or marital status distribution among the subsamples compared. The results of the analysis on the respondent's age may be seen in Table IV. On the basis of this finding it is concluded that the proportion of teachers under 29 and over 30 was similar in each of the subsamples. The analysis on the marital status of the respondents is reported in Table V. These findings

TABLE III
SEX OF RESPONDENTS

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants				
	Black		White		Black		White		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Sex									
Male	17	47	8	21	10	29	8	25	
Female	19	53	31	79	25	71	24	75	
Total	36	100	39	100	35	100	32	100	
Subsamples Compared					X^2	p			
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					6.0096	.025			
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					0.1086	NS			
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					2.6192	NS			
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					0.2027	NS			
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants					3.5983	NS			
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants					0.6506	NS			

TABLE IV
AGE OF RESPONDENTS

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants				
	Black		White		Black		White		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Age	20 - 29	7	19	14	36	12	34	11	34
	30 - 39	11	31	9	23	10	29	9	28
	40 - 49	13	36	7	18	10	29	6	19
	50 - 59	5	14	8	21	1	3	5	16
	60 +	0	0	1	3	2	6	1	3
	Total	36	100	39	100	35	100	32	100
	Collapsed for X ²								

Subsamples Compared	X ²	p
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites	2.5132	NS
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites	0.00	NS
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants	1.9939	NS
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants	0.0177	NS
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants	1.9402	NS
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants	0.0208	NS

TABLE V
MARITAL STATUS

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants			
	Black		White		Black		White	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Marital Status								
Married	28	78	29	74	28	80	26	81
Widow or Widower	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	3
Divorced	4	11	5	13	4	11	1	3
Single	4	11	4	10	3	9	4	12
Total	36	100	39	100	35	100	32	100
Collapsed for X^2								
Subsamples Compared					X^2		p	
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					0.1193		NS	
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					0.0168		NS	
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					0.0524		NS	
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					0.4782		NS	
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants					0.1248		NS	
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants					0.3313		NS	

indicate that the number of teachers married and the number single were distributed in about the same proportion throughout the four subsamples being analyzed.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

In order to determine whether the number of years of teaching experience was distributed in approximately the same proportion among the subsamples, tests for differences were made. The results of the statistical analysis are reported in Table VI. Three comparisons were found to be statistically significant; each indicated a greater proportion of the black institute participants had taught school six or more years. Those comparisons which were significant include: (1) institute participants: blacks vs. whites, (2) blacks: institute participants vs. non-institute participants, and (3) black institute participants vs. white non-institute participants.

Institute participants were found to have taught in the Houston school system significantly longer than the non-institute participants. Sixty-two percent of the institute participants compared with 26 percent of the non-institute participants had taught in the school district six or more years. The chi-square test showed this difference to be significant at the .001 level. Of the institute participants with six or more years of teaching experience in the school district, a significantly greater proportion were black

TABLE VI
TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants			
	Black		White		Black		White	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
How many years have you taught?								
Less than 1 year	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1 - 5 years	6	17	15	38	14	41	14	44
6 - 9 years	9	25	8	21	5	15	10	31
10 - 19 years	12	33	11	28	10	29	4	12
20 - 29 years	8	22	5	13	4	12	3	9
30 or more years	1	3	0	0	1	3	1	3
Total	36	100	39	100	34	100	32	100
Collapsed for X^2								
Subsamples Compared	X^2		p					
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites	4.4102		.05					
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites	0.0446		NS					
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants	5.1473		.05					
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants	0.2031		NS					
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants	5.9855		.02					
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants	0.0558		NS					

teachers. This difference is supported by the chi-square test, which was significant at the .05 level.

A greater proportion of the institute participants were also found to have had more years of teaching experience in desegregated schools. Fifty-four percent of the institute participants compared with 34 percent of the non-institute participants indicated that they had taught three or more years in a desegregated school. This finding is supported by the chi-square test, which was significant at the .05 level. The differences in teaching experience among the subsamples will be further discussed in Chapter VI of this dissertation.

LENGTH OF RESIDENCE

In examining the differences in the participants' length of residence in the Houston school district among the subsamples, three comparisons were found to be significant. The results of the statistical analysis are reported in Table VII. The significant comparisons include: (1) when comparing black institute participants with white institute participants, a significantly greater number of the black teachers were found to have lived in the district longer than ten years; (2) when comparing black institute participants with black non-institute participants, a greater proportion of the institute participants were found to have lived in the district longer than ten years; (3) when comparing black institute participants with white non-institute participants,

TABLE VII
LENGTH OF RESIDENCE

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants			
	Black		White		Black		White	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
How many years have you lived in this school district?								
Less than 1 year	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	6
1 - 5 years	3	8	11	28	10	29	15	47
6 - 9 years	3	8	6	15	4	12	2	6
10 - 19 years	9	25	13	33	6	18	4	12
20 - 29 years	8	22	6	15	8	24	7	22
30 or more years	13	36	3	8	6	18	2	6
Total	36	100	39	100	34	100	32	100
Collapsed for X^2								
Subsamples Compared					X^2	p		
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					6.3813	.025		
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					3.1835	NS		
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					5.1473	.025		
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants								
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants					13.2912	.001		
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants					0.0430	NS		

the black institute participants were found to have lived in the district longer than ten years. These conclusions are supported by chi-square tests, which were significant at the .025 level or beyond.

Additional support for this conclusion was found when controlling for race (blacks vs. whites). A larger proportion of the black sample were found to have lived in the district longer than ten years. This difference was found to be significant at the .01 level.

On the basis of these findings, it would appear that the black teachers may be less geographically mobile than their white peers. Having lived in one community for more than ten years might result in a more "local" orientation, stronger ties in the community and a deeper commitment to the goal of desegregated schools for the black teachers. This commitment may have been expressed in the number of applications received from black teachers for admission to the desegregation institutes. While the number of white volunteers met the quota established, more black teachers volunteered than could be admitted.

PLACE OF BIRTH

An analysis of the place of birth of the respondents reveals that all of the black teachers were born in Texas or a Southern state. In contrast, 36 percent of the white institute participants and 34 percent of the white non-institute

participants were born in a region of the United States outside of the South. The results of the statistical analysis are reported in Table VIII. In all comparisons between black and white teachers, there were statistically significant differences on the place of birth. These findings were supported by the chi-square tests, which were all significant at the .001 level.

When controlling for race (blacks vs. whites), additional support was found for the conclusion that a significantly greater proportion of the black teachers were born in Texas or a Southern state. This comparison was also significant at the .001 level. This finding provides further support for the conclusion that black teachers have lived in the community and the school district longer than the white teachers. The writer suggests that these conclusions may have implications for the differences which were observed in the respondents' attitudes toward interpersonal relationships in a desegregated setting. These differences are discussed in Chapter VI.

COLLEGE EDUCATION

An examination of the data concerning the participants' college education, included the following items: The number of years of college completed, the highest degree earned, and whether the teacher's undergraduate degree was received from a segregated or integrated institution. While the institute participants did not differ statistically from the

TABLE VIII
PLACE OF BIRTH

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants			
	Black		White		Black		White	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Place of birth								
Texas	39	94	18	46	25	71	18	56
State in South or Southwestern U.S., not Texas	2	6	7	18	10	29	3	9
Northern, Midwest- ern, Western State	0	0	13	33	0	0	11	34
Foreign Born	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0
Total Collapsed for X^2	41	100	39	100	35	100	32	100
Subsamples Compared					X^2	p		
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					15.8889	.001		
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					14.3947	.001		
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non- institute Participants					--	--		
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non- institute Participants					0.0177	NS		
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants					14.7631	.001		
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants					15.4957	.001		

non-institute participants in the number of years of college completed, a greater proportion of the institute participants had earned Masters degrees. This difference was significant at the .05 level. Table IX presents the statistical data on the number of years of college completed, and Table X presents the results on the analysis of the highest degree earned by the respondents.

A significantly greater number of the black institute participants than white institute participants were found to have attended college seven or more years and have more earned Masters degrees. These differences were significant at the .025 and .001 levels, respectively. The data also shows that black institute participants had a larger proportion of earned Masters degrees than the black non-institute participants.

When controlling for race (blacks vs. whites), a greater percentage of the black teachers were found to have completed seven or more years of college. This difference was significant at the .01 level. There were no statistically significant differences between the white institute participants and the black non-institute participants in either the number of years of college attended or the number of Masters degrees earned. However, a greater proportion of the black institute participants had completed more years of college and earned more Masters degrees than white non-institute

TABLE IX
YEARS OF COLLEGE

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants			
	Black		White		Black		White	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Number of years of college education:								
2 - 4 years	4	11	14	36	6	17	13	41
5 - 6 years	23	64	22	56	22	63	16	50
7 - 8 years	8	22	3	8	4	11	3	9
9 - 10 years	1	3	0	0	3	9	0	0
Total	36	100	39	100	35	100	32	100
Collapsed for X^2								
Subsamples Compared					X^2	p		
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					8.4707	.025		
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					5.0019	NS		
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					0.6581	NS		
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					0.2968	NS		
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants					8.8159	.02		
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants					4.5974	NS		

TABLE X
HIGHEST DEGREE EARNED

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants				
	Black		White		Black		White		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Highest degree earned:									
B.S., B.A.	12	34	30	77	25	71	23	72	
M.A., M.S., M.Ed.	24	66	9	23	10	29	9	28	
Total	36	100	39	100	35	100	32	100	
Subsamples Compared					X^2	p			
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					14.4350	.001			
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					0.0016	NS			
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					10.3194	.005			
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					0.2366	NS			
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants					10.0742	.01			
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants					0.2916	NS			

participants. These differences were significant at the .02 and .01 levels, respectively.

It would be of interest to know why there is such a marked difference in the college education between black and white teachers. It might be hypothesized that these differences in the number of years of college attended and the number of earned Masters degrees are related to the school desegregation effort. Some black teachers have lost their teaching positions because of insufficient college preparation for an assignment in a desegregated school. It could be that the black teachers felt the additional education would provide them with greater job security in a school district which was in the process of desegregating its schools.

It was also noted in this analysis, that at the time the institute participants received their undergraduate degrees, 78 percent of the black teachers indicated they had attended segregated colleges or universities. This was in sharp contrast to the 38 percent of the white institute participants which indicated they had attended a segregated college or university. The chi-square test found this difference to be significant at the .001 level.

POLITICAL PREFERENCE

In all comparisons between blacks and whites there were statistically significant differences, each at the .001

level, with regard to political preference of the respondents. As shown in Table XI, approximately 92 percent of the black sample cases indicated a preference for the Democratic party. Only one black teacher in this sample indicated a preference for the Republican party. As a result of this one-sided preference, each comparison between subsamples involving both black and white teachers were found to be significant. Each comparison indicated a significantly greater proportion of the black respondents favored the Democratic party over the Republican. These findings were supported by chi-square tests, which were all significant at the .001 level. When comparing institute participants with non-institute participants or within race differences, the political preferences of the respondents were found to be distributed proportionately among the four subsamples.

Related to the political interests of the respondents, and revealed in this analysis, were two items on the teacher's political activity. While there were no statistically significant differences among the subsamples in the number of respondents that were registered voters, there was a significant difference in the number of teachers who voted in the last school board election. Ninety-one percent of the institute participants compared to 70 percent of the non-institute participants indicated that they had voted in the election. A significantly greater proportion of the institute participants were found to have voted in the school

TABLE XI
POLITICAL PREFERENCE

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants			
	Black		White		Black		White	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
What is your political preference?								
Liberal Democrat	28	78	16	43	32	91	13	42
Conservative Democrat	2	6	2	5	3	9	3	10
Liberal Republican	1	3	9	24	0	0	4	13
Conservative Republican	0	0	6	16	0	0	7	23
Independent	1	3	2	5	0	0	2	6
Other	4	11	2	5	0	0	2	6
Total	36	100	37	100	35	100	31	100
Collapsed for X^2								
Subsamples Compared					X^2	p		
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					15.2024	.001		
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					17.3349	.001		
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					0.0035	NS		
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					0.1341	NS		
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants					12.3772	.001		
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants					20.4113	.001		

board election. This conclusion is supported by the chi-square test, which was significant at the .001 level.

One of the conclusions reached in the Before-After Study (discussed in Chapter II) was that both black and white institute participants became significantly more critical of the school system, community leadership, services and institutions during the desegregation institutes. The significant difference in political activity noted in this analysis may be explained by these more critical attitudes possessed by the institute participants. Additional support for this conclusion was found in the Follow-up and Comparison Study (discussed in Chapter II). When comparing institute participants with a random sample of Houston teachers, institute participants were found to be more critical of community and school leadership.

On the basis of the preliminary research and the support provided from this analysis, it may be concluded that the institute participants were not only significantly more active politically, but were probably less complacent about the need for social change. This might be especially true in regard to the school desegregation issue and may in part explain the institute participants' reason for volunteering for desegregation training. This could well be one of the most important characteristics analyzed in this investigation.

FATHERS SCHOOLING

In examining the differences in the number of years of schooling which the teachers' fathers had completed, one comparison was found to be statistically significant. As reported in Table XII, and when comparing the black institute participants with the white non-institute participants, a greater percentage of the white teachers' fathers were found to have completed 13 or more years of schooling. This conclusion is supported by the chi-square test, which was significant at the .02 level. While this finding might be expected, it does provide additional evidence that the black adult may have had less opportunity for formal education beyond high school.

SUMMARY

Selected teacher characteristics were analyzed and the results of the analysis discussed in this chapter. While the majority of the comparisons tested among the four subsamples were not statistically significant, several of the chi-square tests proved to be significant at the established .05 level or beyond. The following differences in teacher characteristics were statistically significant: (1) there was a significantly greater proportion of black males than white males represented in the institute participant sample; (2) black institute participants were found to have a

TABLE XII
FATHERS SCHOOLING

Characteristic	Institute Participants				Non-institute Participants				
	Black		White		Black		White		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
How many years of schooling did your father have?									
1 - 6 years	10	29	6	15	9	27	4	12	
7 - 11 years	12	35	15	38	11	33	10	31	
12 years - H.S. Diploma	7	21	7	18	4	12	5	16	
13 - 15 years	2	6	7	18	1	3	4	12	
16 years - College Degree	3	9	3	8	7	21	7	22	
17 years or more	0	0	1	3	1	3	2	6	
Total Collapsed for X ²	34	100	39	100	33	100	32	100	
Subsamples Compared					X ²	p			
Institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					1.9338	NS			
Non-institute Participants: Blacks vs. Whites					1.2934	NS			
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					1.5999	NS			
Whites: Institute Participants vs. Non-institute Participants					1.2113	NS			
Black Institute Participants vs. White Non-institute Participants					5.5830	.02			
White Institute Participants vs. Black Non-institute Participants					0.0076	NS			

significantly greater number of years of teaching experience; (3) a significantly larger number of black teachers in the experimental group and in the total sample were found to have been born in Texas, or a Southern state; (4) a significantly greater number of black teachers in the experimental group and in the total sample were found to have lived in the school district longer than ten years; (5) a significantly larger number of the institute trained teachers were found to have lived in the school district longer than non-institute participants; (6) a significantly greater number of black institute participants were found to have completed more years of college and have more earned Masters degrees than white institute participants; (7) a significantly greater number of black teachers than white teachers were found to have completed seven or more years of college; (8) a significantly greater number of black teachers than white teachers indicated a preference for the Democratic party; and, (9) a significantly greater number of white non-institute participants than black institute participants' fathers were found to have completed 13 or more years of schooling.

More briefly, it might be concluded that the black teachers in this study were more likely to have been born in Texas or a Southern state, lived in the community longer, had more years of college, and had a preference for the Democratic party than the white teachers. In addition, the black institute participants were more likely to have had

more years of teaching experience than the other three subsamples, have earned more Masters degrees than the white institute participants, and have fathers who had completed less formal education than the white non-institute participants.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF TEACHER INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS AND JOB SATISFACTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present the analysis of data obtained from the administration of the research instrument. The sixteen scales of the research instrument selected for use in this study were designed to measure the teachers' attitude toward interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction in a desegregated setting. The null hypotheses of no difference in group means among the subsamples treated on each of the scales provide the statistical framework for this analysis.

Analysis of variance techniques were utilized to examine variance due to independent factors or subsamples. The independent factors analyzed in this investigation include institute and non-institute participants, each further divided into subsamples of black and white teachers. Where F ratios were found to be significant, the data were analyzed for simple effects using the t-statistic. The .05 level of significance was established for rejection of null hypotheses.

This chapter is divided into three sections, one each for presenting the findings of the statistical analysis employed in testing the three null hypotheses of this study,

and include: (1) Interpersonal Relationships On the Job, (2) Interpersonal Relationships Off the Job, and (3) Job Satisfaction.

TEACHER INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS ON THE JOB

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis utilized in examining the differences in group means on the six on-the-job interpersonal relationship scales. The group means on the scales treated in this section are shown in Table XIII. The on-the-job interpersonal relationship scales measure the respondent's perceived relationships with associates in his role as teacher in a desegregated school. The scale items relate to the teacher's experiences during the last school year, his attitudes toward desegregation and his school contact with others of a different race.

This section is divided into six sub-sections, one each for presenting the findings on the following on-the-job interpersonal relationship scales: (1) Teacher - Teachers as a Group, (2) Teacher - Negro Teacher, (3) Teacher - White Teacher, (4) Teacher - Principal, (5) Teacher - Non-Certificated Personnel, and (6) Teacher - Parents of Pupils. The subsamples to be compared in this analysis are outlined in the following hypothesis to be tested in this section.

Hypothesis Tested: There will be no significant difference in the attitudes of teachers toward

desegregated interpersonal relations on the job,
when comparing:

1. Black teachers and white teachers who have had desegregation institute training;
2. Black teachers and white teachers who have not had desegregation institute training;
3. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not;
4. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and those white teachers who have not;
5. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and those white teachers who have not; and,
6. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not.

TABLE XIII
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS ON THE JOB
MEAN SCALE SCORES

Scale	Institute Participants		Non-institute Participants	
	White	Black	White	Black
Teacher-Teachers as a Group	27.02	27.80	28.90	27.76
Teacher-Negro Teacher	17.18	16.85	18.12	18.21
Teacher-White Teacher	15.98	16.00	17.55	16.16
Teacher-Principal	48.38	54.66	56.00	53.86
Teacher-Non-Certificated Personnel	20.18	21.68	21.93	21.58
Teacher-Parents of Pupils	16.85	17.94	17.93	17.79

Teacher - Teachers as a Group Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis reported in Table XIV, indicate that there were no significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 1.6268 did not exceed the critical value 2.68 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding, the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Teacher Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was accepted.

TABLE XIV

TEACHERS - TEACHERS AS A GROUP
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	59.7302	3	19.9101	1.6268	NS
Within Groups	1566.5349	128	12.2386		
Total	1626.2650				

Teacher - Negro Teacher Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis, reported in Table XV, indicate that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 3.3019 exceeded the critical value 2.70 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Negro Teacher Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was rejected.

TABLE XV
TEACHER - NEGRO TEACHER INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	38.3380	3	12.7793	3.3019	.05
Within Groups	425.7322	110	3.8703		
Total	464.0702				

Since the F ratio was significant, t-tests were performed to determine the specific differences among the subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples compared may be seen in Table XIII. Significant differences were found in the following three comparisons: (1) black non-institute participants were found to have significantly more favorable attitudes toward Negro teachers than black institute participants; (2) white non-institute participants were found to have significantly more favorable attitudes toward Negro teachers than black institute participants; and, (3) black non-institute participants were found to have significantly more favorable attitudes toward Negro teachers than white institute participants. Table XVI presents the results of the significant t-tests.

On the basis of these findings, it would appear that the non-institute participants had more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with Negro teachers than did institute participants. Further support for this

conclusion was found when the combined mean scores were analyzed by sample type (institute participants vs. non-institute participants). The t value of 3.10 exceeded the critical value 2.617 for significance at the .01 level.

TABLE XVI

TEACHER - NEGRO TEACHER SCALE
Significant t-tests

Subsamples Compared	t	df	p
Blacks: <u>Institute Participants</u> vs. <u>Non-institute Participants</u>	2.96	54	.005
<u>White Non-institute Participants</u> vs. <u>Black Institute Participants</u>	2.16	45	.05
<u>Black Non-institute Participants</u> vs. <u>White Institute Participants</u>	2.65	62	.05

Note: Group with the higher mean score underlined.

Teacher - White Teacher Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis, reported in Table XVII indicate that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 3.0354 exceeded the critical value 2.70 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding, the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - White Teacher Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was rejected.

Since the F ratio was significant, t-tests were performed to determine the specific differences among the

TABLE XVII
TEACHER - WHITE TEACHER INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	37.6482	3	12.5494	3.0354	.05
Within Groups	434.1132	105	4.1344		
Total	471.7615				

subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples compared may be seen in Table XIII. Significant differences were found in the following three comparisons: (1) white non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward white teachers than black non-institute participants; (2) white non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward white teachers than white institute participants; and, (3) white non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward white teachers than black institute participants. Table XVIII presents the results of the significant t-tests. On the basis of these findings, it would appear that white non-institute participants have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with white teachers than do institute participants or black non-institute participants.

TABLE XVIII
TEACHER - WHITE TEACHER SCALE
Significant t-tests

Subsamples Compared	t	df	p
Non-institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. <u>Whites</u>	2.26	42	.05
Whites: Institute Participants vs. <u>Non-institute Participants</u>	2.59	42	.02
<u>White Non-institute Participants</u> vs. Black Institute Participants	2.64	37	.05

Note: Group with the higher mean score underlined.

Teacher - Principal Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis, reported in Table XIX, indicate that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 3.2476 exceeded the critical value 2.78 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Principal Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was rejected.

TABLE XIX
TEACHER - PRINCIPAL INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	494.0356	3	164.6785	3.2476	.05
Within Groups	2687.5432	53	50.7084		
Total	3181.5787				

Since the F ratio was significant, t-tests were performed to determine the specific differences among the subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples compared may be seen in Table XIII. Significant differences were found in only two of the comparisons. Black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with the principal than white institute participants. Black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with the principal than white institute participants. Table XX presents the results of the significant t-test.

On the basis of these findings, it would appear that white institute participants have significantly less favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with the principal than Negro teachers. In examining the mean scores, it would appear that the low mean score for white institute participants resulted in the combined mean score for institute participants being significantly less than that of the non-institute participants. When testing for significant difference, the t value of 2.00 was considered to have met the critical value 2.02 for significance at the .05 level.

TABLE XX
TEACHER - PRINCIPAL SCALE
Significant t-tests

Subsamples Compared	t	df	p
Institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. Whites	2.40	30	.02
Black Non-institute Participants vs. <u>White Institute Participants</u>	2.29	28	.05

Note: Group with the higher mean score underlined.

Teacher - Non-Certificated Personnel Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis, reported in Table XXI, indicate that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 3.3690 exceeded the critical value 2.68 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding, the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Non-Certificated Personnel Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was rejected.

TABLE XXI
TEACHER - NON-CERTIFICATED PERSONNEL
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	68.7815	3	22.9272	3.3690	.05
Within Groups	905.1162	133	6.8054		
Total	973.8977				

Since the F ratio was significant, t-tests were performed to determine the specific differences among the subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples compared may be seen in Table XIII. Significant differences were found in the following comparisons: (1) black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with non-certificated personnel than do white institute participants; (2) white non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with non-certificated personnel than do white institute participants; and, (3) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward non-certificated personnel than do white institute participants. Table XXII presents the results of the significant t-tests.

On the basis of these findings, it appears that white institute participants have a less favorable attitude

TABLE XXII

TEACHER - NON-CERTIFICATED PERSONNEL SCALE
Significant t-tests

Subsamples Compared	t	df	p
Institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. Whites	2.40	71	.02
Whites: Institute Participants vs. <u>Non-institute Participants</u>	2.38	66	.02
<u>Black Non-institute Participants</u> vs. White Institute Participants	2.42	63	.05

Note: Group with the higher mean score underlined.

toward interpersonal relationships with non-certificated personnel than do any of the other subsamples compared. The mean scores of the black teachers, institute and non-institute participants, and the white non-institute participants scores are very similar.

Teacher - Parent of Pupils Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis, reported in Table XXIII, indicate that there were no significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 1.9689 did not exceed the critical value 2.68 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding, the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Parent of Pupils Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was accepted.

TABLE XXIII

TEACHER - PARENT OF PUPILS INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	29.9173	3	9.9724	1.9689	NS
Within Groups	648.3251	128	5.0650		
Total	678.2424				

TEACHER INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS
OFF THE JOB

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis utilized in examining the differences in group means on the six off-the-job interpersonal relationship scales. The group means on the scales treated in this section are shown in Table XXIV. The off-the-job interpersonal relationship scales measure the teacher's perception of the impact of his desegregated teaching position on his interpersonal relationships outside the job setting. The scale items relate to the attitudes which certain "significant others" hold toward the respondent's desegregated teaching assignment.

This section is divided into six sub-sections, one each for presenting the findings on the following off-the-job interpersonal relationship scales: (1) Teacher - Spouse, (2) Teacher - Father, (3) Teacher - Mother, (4) Teacher - Offspring, (5) Teacher - Relative, and (6) Teacher - Friends. The subsamples to be compared in this analysis are outlined in the following hypothesis to be tested in this section.

Hypothesis Tested: There will be no significant difference in the attitudes of teachers toward desegregated interpersonal relations off the job, when comparing:

1. Black teachers and white teachers who have had desegregation institute training;

2. Black teachers and white teachers who have not had desegregation institute training;
3. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not;
4. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and those white teachers who have not;
5. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and those white teachers who have not; and,
6. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not.

TABLE XXIV

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS OFF THE JOB
MEAN SCALE SCORES

Scale	Institute Participants		Non-institute Participants	
	White	Black	White	Black
Teacher - Spouse	28.10	28.95	28.17	30.36
Teacher - Father	25.28	28.36	25.00	29.80
Teacher - Mother	26.71	28.64	28.64	29.89
Teacher - Offspring	29.50	30.22	27.00	30.50
Teacher - Relatives	26.97	29.07	26.77	29.42
Teacher - Friends	26.74	28.43	27.31	28.59

Teacher - Spouse Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis reported in Table XXV indicate that there were no significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 2.4292 did not exceed the critical value 2.72 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding, the null

hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Spouse Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was accepted.

TABLE XXV
TEACHER - SPOUSE INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	78.0035	3	26.0012	2.4292	NS
Within Groups	909.8167	85	10.7037		
Total	987.8202				

Teacher - Father Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis, reported in Table XXVI, indicate that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 6.6247 exceeded the critical value 2.75 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Father Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was rejected.

TABLE XXVI
TEACHER - FATHER INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	311.4675	3	103.8225	6.6247	.01
Within Groups	1050.0254	67	15.6720		
Total	1361.4929				

Since the F ratio was significant, t-tests were performed to determine the specific differences among the subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples compared may be seen in Table XXIV. Significant differences were found in the following comparisons: (1) black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their fathers than do white institute participants; (2) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their fathers than do white non-institute participants; (3) black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their fathers than do white non-institute participants; and, (4) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their fathers than do white institute participants. Table XXVII presents the results of the significant t-tests.

On the basis of these findings, it would appear that the black teachers (institute and non-institute participants) have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their fathers than do white teachers (institute and non-institute participants). Additional support for this conclusion was found when the combined mean scores were analyzed by race (blacks vs. whites). The t value of 4.44 exceeded the critical value 3.460 for significance at the .001 level.

TABLE XXVII

TEACHER - FATHER SCALE
Significant t-tests

Subsamples Compared	t	df	p
Institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. Whites	2.62	32	.02
Non-institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. Whites	3.40	28	.005
<u>Black Institute Participants</u> vs. White Non-institute Participants	2.29	29	.05
<u>Black Non-institute Participants</u> vs. White Institute Participants	4.53	33	.001

Note: Group with the higher mean score underlined.

Teacher - Mother Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis, reported in Table XXVIII, indicate that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 5.2730 exceeded the critical value 2.72 for significance at the .01

level. On the basis of this finding the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Mother Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was rejected.

TABLE XXVIII
TEACHER - MOTHER INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	150.3432	3	50.1144	5.2730	.01
Within Groups	855.3589	90	9.5040		
Total	1005.7021				

Since the F ratio was significant, t-tests were performed to determine the specific differences among the subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples compared are presented in Table XXIV. Significant differences were found in the following comparisons: (1) black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their mothers than do white institute participants; and, (2) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their mothers than do white institute participants. Table XXIX presents the results of the significant t-tests.

On the basis of these findings, it would appear that black teachers (institute and non-institute participants) have

more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their mothers than do white institute participants. In examining the group means, it is clearly the white institute participant's mean score which is the most different of the subsamples being compared. While the white institute participants have the least favorable attitudes toward their mothers, the black non-institute participants have the most favorable. The variance between these two subsamples resulted in there being significant differences between the combined mean scores when controlling for sample type and race.

When comparing the institute participants with non-institute participants (sample type), the non-institute participants have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their mothers than do institute participants. The t value of 3.12 for this comparison, exceeded the critical value 2.66 for significance at the .01 level. In comparing black teachers with white teachers, the black teachers were found to have significantly more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their mothers than do white teachers. This t value of 3.06 exceeded the critical value 2.617 for significance at the .01 level.

TABLE XXIX
TEACHER - MOTHER SCALE
Significant t-tests

Subsamples Compared	t	df	p
Institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. Whites	2.11	29	.05
<u>Black Non-institute Participants</u> vs. White Institute Participants	4.96	58	.001

Note: Group with the higher mean score underlined.

Teacher - Offspring Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis reported in Table XXX indicate that there were no significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 1.5073 did not exceed the critical value 2.88 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding, the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Offspring Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was accepted.

TABLE XXX
TEACHER - OFFSPRING INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	52.1368	3	17.3789	1.5073	NS
Within Groups	403.5556	35	11.5302		
Total	455.6923				

Teacher - Relative Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis, reported in Table XXXI, indicate that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 4.9639 exceeded the critical value 2.68 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Relative Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was rejected.

TABLE XXXI

TEACHER - RELATIVE INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	176.1729	3	58.7243	4.9639	.01
Within Groups	1407.7944	119	11.8302		
Total	1583.9673				

Since the F ratio was significant, t-tests were performed to determine the specific differences among the subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples compared are presented in Table XXIV. Significant differences were found in the following comparisons: (1) black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their relatives than do white institute participants; (2) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward inter-

personal relationships with their relatives than do white non-institute participants; and, (4) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their relatives than do white institute participants. Table XXXII presents the results of the significant t-tests.

On the basis of these findings, it would appear that the black teachers (institute and non-institute participants) have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their relatives than do white teachers (institute and non-institute participants). Further support for this conclusion was found when the combined mean scores were analyzed by race (blacks vs. whites). The t value of 3.92 exceeded the critical value 3.373 for significance at the .001 level.

TABLE XXXII
TEACHER - RELATIVE SCALE
Significant t-tests

Subsamples Compared	t	df	p
Institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. Whites	2.62	60	.015
Non-institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. Whites	2.84	53	.01
<u>Black Institute Participants</u> vs. <u>White Non-institute Participants</u>	2.46	52	.05
<u>Black Non-institute Participants</u> vs. <u>White Institute Participants</u>	3.53	62	.001

Note: Group with the higher mean score underlined.

Teacher - Friends Interpersonal Relationships

The results of analysis, reported in Table XXXIII, indicate that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 3.4223 exceeded the critical value 2.68 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher - Friends Interpersonal Relationships Scale, was rejected.

TABLE XXXIII
TEACHER - FRIENDS INTERPERSONAL
RELATIONSHIPS
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	100.2031	3	33.4010	3.4223	.05
Within Groups	1249.2740	128	9.7600		
Total	1349.4771				

Since the F ratio was significant, t-tests were performed to determine the specific differences among the subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples compared are presented in Table XXIV. Significant differences were found in the following comparisons: (1) black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their friends than do white institute participants; and, (2) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward

interpersonal relationships with their friends than do white institute participants. Table XXXIV presents the results of the significant t-tests.

On the basis of these findings, it would appear that black teachers (institute and non-institute participants) have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with friends than do white institute participants. In examining the mean scores, it is evident that the black teachers' group means are higher than those of the white teachers; suggesting more favorable attitudes by the black teachers toward interpersonal relationships with their friends. Empirical support was found for this conclusion when the t-test was performed on the combined mean scores, blacks compared with whites. The t value of 3.10 exceeded the critical value 2.617 for significance at the .01 level.

TABLE XXXIV
TEACHER - FRIENDS SCALE
Significant t-tests

Subsamples Compared	t	df	p
Institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. Whites	2.32	64	.02
<u>Black Non-institute Participants</u> vs. White Institute Participants	3.13	72	.01

Note: Group with the higher mean score underlined.

TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis utilized in examining the differences in group means on the four job satisfaction scales. The group means on the scales treated in this section are shown in Table XXXV. The four scales and their purposes are: (1) Teaching as a Career, measures the teacher's attitude toward teaching; (2) Job Satisfaction, measures the overall satisfaction of the teacher in his position during the past school year; (3) Worry - Job Anxiety, measures the teacher's anxiety about his job during the past school year; and, (4) Teacher's View of Community Attitudes Toward His Job, measures the teacher's perception of his status in the community as a result of his taking a teaching position in a desegregated setting.

This section is divided into four sub-sections, one each for presenting the findings on the teacher job satisfaction scales. The subsamples to be compared in this analysis are outlined in the following hypothesis to be tested in this section.

Hypothesis Tested: There will be no significant difference in the expressed job satisfaction, as related to on or off the job experiences, when comparing:

1. Black teachers and white teachers who have had desegregation institute training;

2. Black teachers and white teachers who have not had desegregation institute training;
3. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not;
4. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and those white teachers who have not;
5. Black teachers who have had desegregation institute training and those white teachers who have not; and,
6. White teachers who have had desegregation institute training and black teachers who have not.

TABLE XXXV
TEACHER JOB SATISFACTION
MEAN SCALE SCORES

Scale	Institute Participants		Non-institute Participants	
	White	Black	White	Black
Teaching as a Career	19.08	18.44	19.90	19.00
Job Satisfaction	11.22	11.24	11.16	11.97
Worry - Job Anxiety	17.38	18.47	17.12	18.97
Teacher's View of Community Attitudes Toward His Job	16.21	16.72	16.40	17.80

Teaching as a Career

The results of analysis reported in Table XXXVI indicate that there were no significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 1.6491 did not exceed the critical value 2.68 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding, the null

hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teaching as a Career Scale, was accepted.

TABLE XXXVI
TEACHING AS A CAREER
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	35.1028	3	11.7009	1.6491	NS
Within Groups	957.8612	135	7.0953		
Total	992.9640				

Job Satisfaction

The results of analysis reported in Table XXXVII indicate that there were no significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 0.8983 did not exceed the critical value 2.68 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding, the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Job Satisfaction Scale, was accepted.

TABLE XXXVII
JOB SATISFACTION
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	15.2615	3	5.0872	0.8983	NS
Within Groups	747.4958	132	5.6628		
Total	762.7573				

Worry - Job Anxiety

The results of analysis reported in Table XXXVIII, indicate that there were no significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 1.9831 did not exceed the critical value 2.68 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding, the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Worry - Job Anxiety Scale, was accepted.

TABLE XXXVIII

WORRY - JOB ANXIETY
Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	77.1470	3	25.7157	1.9831	NS
Within Groups	1711.6691	132	12.9672		
Total	1788.8161				

Teacher's View of Community Attitudes Toward His Job

The results of analysis, reported in Table XXXIX, indicate that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the subsamples tested. The F value of 4.5636 exceeded the critical value 2.68 for significance at the .05 level. On the basis of this finding the null hypothesis of no difference among the subsample means, as measured by the Teacher's View of Community Attitudes Toward His Job Scale, was rejected.

TABLE XXXIX
 TEACHER'S VIEW OF COMMUNITY ATTITUDES
 TOWARD HIS JOB
 Sample Type and Race Controlled

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	p
Between Groups	51.9560	3	17.3187	4.5636	.01
Within Groups	455.3988	120	3.7950		
Total	507.3548				

Since the F ratio was significant, t-tests were performed to determine the specific differences among the subsamples. The mean scores of the subsamples compared may be seen in Table XXXV. Significant differences were found in the following comparisons: (1) black institute participants were found to perceive the community attitude toward his job in a desegregated setting more favorably than white institute participants; (2) black non-institute participants were found to perceive the community attitude toward his job in a desegregated setting more favorably than black institute participants; and, (3) black non-institute participants were found to perceive the community attitude toward his job in a desegregated setting more favorably than white institute participants. Table XL presents the results of the significant t-tests. On the basis of these findings, it would appear that the black non-institute participants perceive the community attitude toward their jobs more favorable than do the white teachers (institute and non-institute trained) or the black institute participants.

TABLE XL
TEACHER'S VIEW OF THE COMMUNITY ATTITUDE
TOWARD HIS JOB SCALE
Significant t-tests

Subsamples Compared	t	df	p
Non-institute Participants: <u>Blacks</u> vs. Whites	2.76	54	.01
Blacks: Institute Participants vs. <u>Non-institute Participants</u>	2.24	49	.05
<u>Black Non-institute Participants</u> vs. White Institute Participants	3.72	68	.001

Note: Group with the higher mean score underlined.

SUMMARY

In the foregoing section of this chapter, the null hypotheses were tested and the results reported. Significant differences were found among the subsample means in the following on-the-job interpersonal relationship scales:

(1) Teacher - Negro Teacher, (2) Teacher - White Teacher, (3) Teacher - Principal, and (4) Teacher - Non-Certificated Personnel. No significant differences were found among the subsample means on the Teacher - Teachers as a Group or Teacher - Parent of Pupils Interpersonal Relationship Scales.

On the basis of these findings, it would appear that non-institute participants have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships on the job than do institute trained teachers. It was also observed that the greatest variance among the subsample means was between the white

institute participants and the white non-institute participants. The most obvious trend that emerged in the analysis of the on-the-job role relationships was that the white institute trained teachers have more unfavorable attitudes toward school associates than do any of the other three subsamples analyzed.

The off-the-job interpersonal relationship analysis revealed significant differences in the mean scores among the subsamples on the following scales: (1) Teacher - Father, Teacher - Mother, (3) Teacher - Relative, and (4) Teacher - Friends. No significant differences were found among the subsample means on the Teacher - Spouse or the Teacher - Offspring Scales. Based on these findings, it would appear that attitudes toward interpersonal relationships within the immediate family may not be associated with institute participation or race of the teacher. This phase of the investigation also revealed that institute participation may not be associated with interpersonal relationships with "significant others." The differences which received statistical support, resulted when comparisons were made controlling for race. When comparing blacks with whites, the black teachers were found to have more favorable attitudes toward off-the-job interpersonal relationships.

In the teacher job satisfaction analysis, significant differences among the subsamples were found on only one scale. Differences in group means were found on the Teacher's

View of the Community Attitude Toward His Job Scale. No significant differences were found in the subsample means on the following job satisfaction scales: (1) Teaching as a Career, (2) Job Satisfaction, and (3) Worry - Job Anxiety. On the basis of these findings, it would appear that differences in the respondent's attitude toward his job satisfaction in a desegregated setting does not relate to the race of the teacher or institute participation.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss and interpret the findings of this research as they relate to earlier phases of the research project, to the literature reviewed and to the theoretical orientation. The relevance of the study to the 1967-1969 Houston School District policy of assigning only volunteers to "cross-over" teaching positions will be discussed. School Board action taken on May 25-26, 1967 established the policy and procedures to be followed in faculty and staff desegregation. A volunteer procedure was employed in accomplishing the initial "cross-over" requirements.

This discussion assumes that at least one basis for the volunteer procedure during 1967-1969 was for more effective teacher performance in the desegregation school. The district's administration thought that those teachers volunteering for "cross-over" teaching assignments would probably have social skills, attitudes and behavior more congruent with the purposes of desegregation. In this study it was hypothesized that volunteer "cross-over" teachers would have characteristics which would lead to favorable interpersonal relationships both on and off the job. If the assumptions of

the school system administration and the hypothesis were valid, one might logically expect that the volunteer "cross-over" teacher would relate more effectively in the classroom, in the school and in the community; and that these more favorable role relationships would lead to greater job satisfaction. This hypothesis is presented in the model shown in Figure 2.

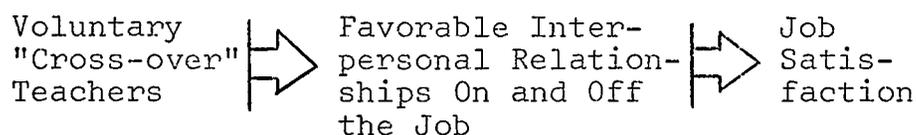


FIGURE 2

JOB SATISFACTION HYPOTHESIS

Not all of the above assumptions were tested in this study. However, it was noted in the Follow-up and Comparison Study (reviewed in Chapter II), that a random sample of Houston teachers were found to be more prejudiced--to have more unfavorable attitudes toward persons of another race, and to be more opposed to integration than did a sample of institute participants (Robinson, 1970b). If these unfavorable attitudes were present among the volunteer "cross-over" teachers, it might be hypothesized that they would be reflected in the teachers' interpersonal relationships on and off the job, and that there would be a significant difference between those teachers who did and those who did not participate in a desegregation institute. In addition, these unfavorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships could lead to reduced job satisfaction.

FINDINGS RELATED TO PRELIMINARY RESEARCH

As reported earlier, this dissertation is part of Phase Four of a larger research project. Prior investigations have reported on the following: (1) the effects of participation in a desegregation institute upon attitudes and behavior of black and white teachers, (2) a comparison study between the volunteer institute and a random sample of Houston teachers who did not volunteer for in-service institute training. This section relates the findings of this dissertation to these preliminary studies.

Interpersonal Relationships On the Job

This section is an interpretation of the findings reported, and concerns the attitudes of the "cross-over" teacher toward on-the-job interpersonal relationships in a desegregated school. This discussion relates the findings of this investigation to the earlier phases of the research project (Phases Two and Three).

In eight significant comparisons involving both institute participants and non-institute participants, non-institute participants were found to have the more favorable attitudes toward desegregated interpersonal relationships on the job. In all cases, the combined mean scores of the non-institute participants were higher than those of the institute participants. The reason that there were not more significant differences could be due to the fact that both groups were

volunteer "cross-over" teachers and may have had attitudes which were not only similar, but possibly more favorable than what might be expected from a general sample of Houston teachers. Support for this conclusion was found in the Follow-up Study, where it was reported that a random sample of Houston teachers were more prejudiced, had more unfavorable attitudes toward persons of another race, and were more opposed to integration than a sample of institute participants (Robinson, 1970b).

The greatest variance among the subsample means, among the on-the-job scales, was between the white institute participants and the white non-institute participants. The most obvious trend which emerged in this analysis was that the white institute participants have the least favorable attitudes toward interaction with associates in the desegregated school. One possible explanation for this phenomenon was revealed in both the Before-After Study (Robinson and Crittenden, 1970) and the Follow-up and Comparison Study (Robinson, 1970b); both studies were a part of the research project and preceded this investigation.

In the Before-After Study it was found that after having completed desegregation training the participants had become significantly more critical of the school system, community leadership, services and institutions. In relation to the "American Dilemma" (Westie, 1965), where individual behavior contradicts professed values, the institute

participants' value-attitudes were found to come closer to their behavior tendencies than they would for the non-institute participants. Findings from the Follow-up Study indicated that the institute participants were likely to be more critical, idealistic and liberal in their attitudes and behavior tendencies than the non-institute participants. It might be speculated that these attitude characteristics were congruent with the purposes of school desegregation. The Follow-up Study also showed that the institute participants are apt to be more active in the pursuit of those commitments for which they have strong valence. Black institute participants were found to be significantly more active in community and professional organizations (Robinson and Crittenden, 1970).

Additional support for the conclusion that institute participants were more active in community affairs, especially blacks, was found in the analysis of teacher characteristics reported in Chapter IV of this dissertation. A significantly greater number of institute participants were found to have voted in the last school board election. This indicated that the institute participants were less apathetic, and may in part explain their volunteering for desegregation training and a "cross-over" teaching assignment. Of the 320 teachers who had completed desegregation training and were employed in the Houston school system during the 1968-69 school year, 180 had accepted "cross-over" teaching assignments (Robinson, 1970: 50-51).

The fact that white institute participants were found to have more unfavorable attitudes toward contact with the principal than do black teachers, may be explained in part by the more critical attitudes of the white institute participants toward the school system. It is possible that the principal is viewed as a representative of the school system administration. The principal is the teachers' major contact with "management." Consequently, it is logical that the white institute participants were more apt to express critical attitudes toward the school system on the Teacher-Principal Interpersonal Relationship Scale. Support for this conclusion was found in Phase Three of the preliminary research, where white institute participants were reported to have significantly less favorable attitudes toward the school system than the black institute participants or the random sample of Houston teachers (Robinson, 1970b).

On the basis of earlier research findings, it was hypothesized that institute training should affect the teacher's classroom performance and the accompanying occupational role relationships. One of the objectives of this dissertation was to test the occupational role relationships of institute participants. Based on the analysis reported in Chapter V, the hypothesis that those teachers who have had institute training would have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships on the job is questioned. However,

the fact that all respondents in this study had volunteered for a "cross-over" assignment cannot be ignored.

It was found in the Follow-up Study that a sample of teachers representative of all whites who had not volunteered to participate in an in-service training institute had significantly more unfavorable attitudes on race relations and prejudice scales than did their white counterparts who had volunteered for institute training. No difference was found between the black samples. This investigation focused on two groups of volunteers. It was observed in the analysis of the attitudes toward on-the-job desegregated interpersonal relationships that the white institute participants had significantly more unfavorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships on three of the six on-the-job scales than did their white counterparts who had volunteered to be "cross-over" teachers, but who had not participated in a desegregation institute. Though not all of the comparisons were statistically significant, the mean scores of the white institute participants were the lowest of the four subsamples compared.

It was concluded from the Follow-up Study that teachers who are significantly more prejudiced do not volunteer for institute participation or to become "cross-over" teachers. Perhaps the admission procedure should be changed so that participants in an in-service institute on problems of school desegregation should be admitted on some other basis than volunteering. A random selection procedure, or admission

on the basis of the principal's recommendation are a couple of possible alternatives. In fact, it might be desirable for some school systems to require all teachers to attend desegregation training institutes.

The fact that both samples being compared in this study were voluntary "cross-over" teachers is considered a crucial factor and may account for the similarity in mean scale scores between institute and non-institute participants. Further study might compare a sample like the experimental group in this investigation (teachers who had volunteered for both institute training and a "cross-over" assignment) with a sample of teachers who had not participated in an institute and who were transferred to a desegregated teaching position.

Interpersonal Relationships Off the Job

This section is a discussion of the findings (reported in Chapter V) on "cross-over" teacher attitudes toward off-the-job interpersonal relationships with "significant others" and interprets these findings in relation to earlier phases of the research project.

On the basis of the data analyzed, there is no support for the hypothesis that volunteer institute participants have more favorable attitudes toward off-the-job interpersonal relationships with family members and friends than teachers who volunteer for "cross-over" assignments without desegregation training. Similar findings were reported in the Before-

After Study concerning the institute participants' attitudes toward interracial contact. In each of the comparisons in this analysis where the differences between blacks and whites were significant, the black teachers were found to have the more favorable attitudes toward interaction with their "significant others."

The results of analysis on the respondents' attitudes toward off-the-job interpersonal relationships with family and friends indicate that race was the most discriminating variable on all significant comparisons. Using the analysis of variance procedure, no significant differences were found among the subsample means on either the Teacher - Spouse or the Teacher - Offspring interpersonal relationship scales. Neither the race of the respondent nor institute participation had an effect on the teachers' attitudes toward interpersonal relationships within their immediate family. The differences which were significant involved attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with the teachers' fathers, mothers, other relatives and friends.

Of the four off-the-job scales in which there were significant variance among the four subsamples analyzed, the differences were found to be either between blacks and whites - by sample type (institute and non-institute participants), or within the sample type - between blacks and whites. In the 12 significant comparisons from 24 t-tests, race was found to be the most discriminating of the factors considered. No

significant differences were found when comparing within race differences, controlled by sample type. For example, there were no significant differences between white teachers who had institute training and those who had not.

In examining the mean scores of the subsamples on all six of the off-the-job scales, the black non-institute participants were found to have the highest mean scores. The two white teacher subsamples, institute and non-institute participants, were equally divided for the lowest mean scores. When combining the mean scores of the institute participants, blacks and whites, and comparing them with the combined scores of the non-institute participants, the non-institute participants were found to have the higher mean scores on five of the six off-the-job scales. The only scale on which the institute participants had the higher mean score was the Teacher - Offspring scale. The only comparison which was statistically significant (at the .005 level) was on the Teacher - Mother scale, with non-institute participants perceiving more favorable interpersonal relationships with their mothers. This significant t-test may be explained by the large variance between the mean scores of the white institute participants and the black non-institute participants.

The data analyzed indicate that there is a racial difference in the attitudes toward interpersonal relationships outside the job. One exception to this conclusion may be in the attitudes which the "cross-over" teacher, without regard

to race, holds toward interpersonal relationships with their immediate families; the teacher's spouse and children. While attitudes toward interaction within the immediate family may not be related to race, it appears that other relationships with relatives and friends do differ significantly between the two racial groups being analyzed. This difference could relate to the fact that Negroes may maintain stronger relationships with their parents, relatives and friends. Why these stronger ties are maintained may be explained by the fact that as a minority group there are social and economic forces which restrict the Negroes' mobility. Consequently, the black teacher may live geographically closer to their relatives, which could result in stronger personal ties.

Support for this conclusion was found when examining the teacher characteristics in Chapter IV of this dissertation. The black teachers were found to be less mobile. The black teachers were more likely to have been born in Texas or a Southern state, and to have lived in the community and the school district significantly longer than the white teachers. The white teachers were not only found to have lived in the community a shorter time, but approximately one-third were born outside of Texas or a Southern state. Because of the apparent mobility of the white teachers in this study, interpersonal relationships with parents, relatives and friends may not be as closely maintained.

It was hypothesized that the more favorable attitudes of the institute participants toward integration, reported in the Follow-up Study, would result in the institute participants having more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with "significant others." The data analyzed in this investigation failed to confirm this hypothesis. However, the reason that there were not more significant differences between the institute and non-institute participants may have been due to the fact that both groups were volunteer "cross-over" teachers. It might be speculated that the volunteer "cross-over" teacher would perceive favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their families and friends over their role in the faculty desegregation process.

It might be hypothesized that had there been a conflict in attitudes between the "cross-over" teacher and his family or friends on the desegregation issue, the teacher would probably not have volunteered for a leadership role in the faculty desegregation of the Houston schools. One might speculate that if a teacher were forced to accept a "cross-over" position under the 1970 mandatory assignment policy, and this new role was in conflict with the attitudes of the teacher's "significant others" off the job, that the resulting social pressure and role conflict would lead to undesirable behavior. Unfavorable interpersonal relationships off the job would probably lead to conflict on the job with associates

and pupils. If the teacher were unable to resolve the conflict in some socially acceptable manner, he might ultimately leave his teaching position.

The fact that there were 12 comparisons which were significant on the off-the-job scales, all involving differences between black and white "cross-over" teachers and each favoring the black teacher, would indicate that the black teachers' relatives and friends had more favorable attitudes toward their role in the desegregation process. The black teachers perceived their "significant others" as having more favorable attitudes toward their role as a "cross-over" teacher than did the white teachers.

Job Satisfaction

This section is a discussion of the findings (reported in Chapter V) on the "cross-over" teacher's attitude toward his job in a desegregated school, and interprets these findings in relation to the preliminary research.

The most obvious conclusions which can be drawn from the analysis of the data on job satisfaction is that the two groups of volunteer "cross-over" teachers in this study, have similar attitudes toward teaching as a career and teaching in desegregated schools. In examining the mean scores on the one job satisfaction scale in which there was significant differences among the subsamples, it is noted that approximately one and one-half points separate the high and the low

mean scores. Again, it might be hypothesized that the reason there were not more significant differences among the subsamples was that all groups compared had attitudes which were homogeneous; and, according to the findings of the Follow-up Study, attitudes which were more favorable than what might be expected from a random sample of Houston teachers.

The mean scores on the three job satisfaction scales (Teaching as a Career, Worry-Job Anxiety and Job Satisfaction) in which there were no statistically significant differences among the subsamples indicate that the non-institute participants had slightly higher mean scores. Though the differences are small, the white non-institute participants had the lowest mean scores on both the Job Satisfaction and Worry-Job Anxiety scales, and the black institute participants the lowest mean score on the Teaching as a Career scale.

The data analyzed indicate that generally those subsamples of "cross-over" teachers who had the highest mean scores on the interpersonal relationship scales, also had the highest mean scores on the job satisfaction scales. These more favorable attitudes toward teaching and job satisfaction may indicate that these "cross-over" teachers experienced less role conflict and stress in their desegregated setting. In addition, these favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction would indicate that some

of the "cross-over" teachers possessed attitudes which were not only congruent with the purposes of desegregation, but with the attitudes held by the teachers' families and friends.

One external measure of the "cross-over" teacher's actual job satisfaction would be to find out how many of the teachers in this study remain in their desegregated teaching positions. If the actual job satisfaction is unfavorable, it might be hypothesized that a greater percentage of the "cross-over" teachers would have requested transfers or resigned their teaching position in the school system than what might be considered normal "turn-over" for the segregated school teachers.

It was concluded in the Before-After Study that teachers became significantly more critical of the school system, community leadership, services and institutions. These findings were confirmed in the Follow-up Study (Robinson, 1970). The more negative attitudes of the institute participants toward the community may account for the significant differences found among the subsample means on the Teacher's View of the Community Attitude Toward His Job scale. Non-institute participants were found to have significantly more favorable attitudes than the institute participants. The fact that there was a significant difference between the black and white non-institute participants may be explained by the stronger ties which the black teachers have in the community. Additional support for this contention

was found in both the Before-After Study, where the black teachers were reported to be more active in community organizations, and in the analysis of teacher characteristics presented in Chapter IV of this dissertation. Black "cross-over" teachers were more likely to have been born in Texas or a Southern state and have lived in the community and school district longer than the white "cross-over" teachers.

When comparing the combined mean scores by the race of the "cross-over" teachers in this study, the black teachers were found to have significantly more favorable perceptions of the community's attitude toward his job than do the white teachers and to be more active in community activities. Findings from Phase Two and Three studies are confirmed.

FINDINGS RELATED TO LITERATURE REVIEW

The hypotheses tested in this study indicate that the volunteer "cross-over" teachers who had not participated in institute training, generally had more favorable attitudes toward desegregated teaching. The F ratio was significant on nine of the 16 scales analyzed. Fifty-four t-tests were completed and 26 were found to be significant. The literature reviewed provides additional insight into the differences observed among the mean scores of the subsamples analyzed.

Even though the "cross-over" teacher may have known his role and how he wanted to act in the desegregated setting,

social pressures may cause the teacher to adopt different behavior. If the attitudes and behavior of the "cross-over" teacher are not congruent with the attitudes and expectations of the teacher's family and friends, pressure would be exerted on the teacher to modify his behavior. The teacher's refusal to modify his behavior could produce stress and role conflict in his desegregated teaching role (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958; Scofield and Domm, 1970; Havighurst and Neugarten, 1967; Berlin, 1964).

It was hypothesized that role stress and conflicting demands would produce unfavorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships both on the job and with "significant others" off the job, and that these unfavorable attitudes would lead to the teacher's dissatisfaction with his role in the desegregated school. The data analyzed support the conclusion that generally the attitudes and expectations of the teacher's family and friends were not affected by his participation in a desegregation training institute. Both institute and non-institute trained teachers were found to have similar attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their "significant others" off the job. This may be explained by the fact that both groups had volunteered for "cross-over" teaching positions. It seems unlikely that a "cross-over" teacher would have volunteered for a desegregated teaching assignment if the new role would have been too strongly in contradiction with the attitudes held by the

teacher's family and friends. However, it was evident from the data analyzed that black teachers perceived the attitudes of their families and friends as being significantly more supportive of their role in the desegregated school than did the white teachers.

The fact that the physical desegregation of the school facilities does not necessarily contribute to the goal of integration socially within the school presents yet another explanation for the attitudes observed in this analysis (Lip-ton, 1965). Interracial contact within the school may not be perceived as any different than the contact the teacher might normally experience outside the school. Whether institute trained or not, most adults would probably not experience difficulty in conducting business or interacting personally with a member of another race. When one adds to this the fact that these individuals are highly educated, it is even less likely that interracial contact would present an inter-personal relationship problem. This may in part explain the similarity in mean scores observed among the subsamples compared.

Havighurst and Neugarten (1967) provide still another explanation for the similarity in attitudes toward interpersonal relationships in a desegregated setting. These authors suggest that the presence of contradictory demands, prevalent during the desegregation process, do not necessarily produce personal conflict. Most teachers, like most other

people, not only work out a successful integration of their various role expectations, but make the necessary adjustments in attitudes and behavior to minimize or displace the role conflicts confronted.

The data analyzed in this study support the findings of Nebraska Mays (1963). Mays studied Negro and white teacher expectations and found that the teachers' actual behavior was not only different but more favorable than what they had expected. He concluded that there is an over emphasis on teacher conflict and the likelihood of unfavorable faculty relationships in desegregated schools. Both the Phase Three study and the findings from the data analyzed in this research confirm Mays' findings.

Somewhat different results were reported in Clifton Claye's (1970) survey of black and white "cross-over" teachers in Texas. Claye found that five of the ten most serious problems identified by the respondents in his survey concerned interpersonal relationships on and off the job. The problems related to teacher-pupil interactions are not included in these five, but those problems associated with students were generally ranked higher on the teachers' problem priority list. The participants in Claye's study listed numerous problems related to teaching in a desegregated faculty in Southern schools. The role expectations of the "cross-over" teachers which Claye surveyed may provide an

explanation for the lack of agreement on the nature of interpersonal relationships.

Claye's findings and those of this investigation might be explained by the fact that the "cross-over" teachers in this study were volunteers in a large metropolitan school system. It is unlikely that the teachers responding to the survey questionnaire had volunteered for their "cross-over" teaching positions. There is also a strong possibility that the survey respondents were from small rural school systems. One might speculate that the size of the community would affect the extent to which the teacher is influenced by the expectations of the community. The smaller community would probably be more homogeneous and conservative in their attitudes toward desegregation than the residents of a large urban center. The reason that there were not more significant differences among the "cross-over" teachers in this study might be that each teacher in a large urban center identifies with a different community. It would seem logical that it would be more difficult to identify or reflect the expectations of a metropolitan community. This would permit the teacher to reflect the attitudes of whatever community reference groups with which he might choose to identify. Consequently, it might be expected that the "cross-over" teacher would reflect the attitudes of those reference groups which were supportive of their desegregated teaching role.

In a smaller community, there is apt to be fewer publics and reference groups, and the "cross-over" teachers would probably be well acquainted with the community's attitude toward an issue. The survey participants were probably very much aware of the community attitudes and expectations. These expectations would account for the role cognitions of the "cross-over" teacher. Consequently, it might be expected that the teachers surveyed could identify the expected problems when they were confronted on the survey questionnaire. This contention might be viewed as a sort of self-fulfilling prophecy--the problems identified are congruent with the teachers' expectations. Both Mays' (1963) and the results of this analysis would seem to support argument. However, the data analyzed in this study fail to substantiate the findings reported in Claye's 1970 survey of "cross-over" teachers.

Another possible explanation for the discrepancy between Claye's findings and those of this study might have to do with the valence of the survey participants. Selecting the three most important problems from a prepared list of potential problems, and ranking them in priority, may not indicate the teacher's valence or combined attitudes toward his desegregated teaching experience. The scales used in this study were designed to measure the "cross-over" teacher's attitude valence toward desegregated teaching, not to identify specific problems.

FINDINGS RELATED TO THEORETICAL MODEL

Role theory suggests that the teacher in his social or status position behaves with reference to expectations. Whatever the implications of the Court's label "cross-over" teacher, the teacher's behavior in a desegregated position cannot be completely described until all other positions to which it is related have been specified. The teacher's behavior in a position is his conduct or overt action patterns used in carrying out his activities. People do not behave in a random manner; the way they behave in their positions depends partly on how they are expected to behave and how others actually expect them to behave. These are normative expectations and are called "roles" (Griffiths, 1964; Kast and Rosenweig, 1970; Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958).

Regardless of their derivation, expectations are presumed by more role theorists to be an essential ingredient in any formula for predicting social behavior (Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958). Yinger (1965) suggests that once a person has accepted a position and has internalized the appropriate role that fits the role expectations of others in a position network, and these others agree among themselves, behavior tends to follow the role specifications. These role expectations are commonly referred to as "norms," which are prescribed by society.

Traditionally, the norms prescribed for the teacher in a segregated school were well established and were derived from the folkways, mores and laws of our society. The role of the teacher is learned from early childhood. Knowledge of the role continues to develop from the experiences an individual has with teachers in elementary and secondary school. By the time a person graduates from a teacher education program and has had teaching experience, knowledge of the role should have become well established. Once the teacher has internalized his role, behavior tends to follow the role specifications. The teaching experience and years of college revealed in the analysis of teacher characteristics provide support for the contention that role behavior was well established before the respondents in this study became voluntary "cross-over" teachers.

Whether the teacher's expectations, attitudes and established role behavior were appropriate in the newly desegregated school is of basic concern in this investigation. The conceptual model, presented in Chapter II, provides a theoretical framework on which to evaluate the social and psychological adjustment of the "cross-over" teacher. The model indicates that the two major determinants of individual attitudes and behavior are situational and psychological variables. This study did not investigate all the psychological factors included in the model. However, a study of the psychological data obtained from the administration of the

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) would provide greater understanding of the strength of the emotional needs and unconscious demands of the "cross-over" teacher which determine his attitudes and behavior. An analysis of the MMPI data is currently being examined as part of the research being conducted under Phase Four of the research project.

Situational determinants of behavior were found to be important considerations in the research of Robin Williams (1964), Milton Rokeach (1966-67) and Yinger (1965). The situational determinants discussed in the theoretical model (Chapter II), which would influence the attitudes and behavior of the "cross-over" teacher include: (1) social demands, (2) social expectations, (3) accuracy of social perception, (4) tolerance for disapproval, and (5) behavioral skills.

Understanding and knowledge of the role may be defined as role cognition. Role cognitions lead to the development of attitudes and behavior sets. Interaction with the social, cultural and physical environment leads to the development of attitudes and behavior (Yinger, 1965; Gross, Mason and McEachern, 1958). Each person has a configuration of attitudes which are utilized in definition of social situations which occur frequently. When behavior becomes routine and comfortable a pattern or set develops. These behavior sets or predispositions to respond in a particular way to a given stimulus, comprise the "normal" or "typical" behavior for an individual teacher.

As described in the theoretical model, role cognitions determine action in a variety of social situations. In social situations where the unknown or unfamiliar is faced, routine cannot be followed. One must "think out" every action. It is in these situations that the individual must draw on the situational determinants of behavior outlined above and in Chapter II. The dilemma of judging the situation and deciding how to act or what to say may create stress. Within this framework and through the process of time, a continuum of successful and unsuccessful attitudes and behavior sets may be developed. Successful sets result in and may be labelled as motivation, cooperation, achievement, and unsuccessful or failing sets result in withdrawal, aggression, and hostility.

The attitudes toward interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction in a desegregated school are explained within the framework of this theoretical model. The teacher role was probably well established among the "cross-over" teachers. The research hypothesized that they had developed a set of attitudes and behaviors which they found suitable for their needs in the segregated school. Whether these behavior sets were appropriate in the desegregated situation would depend upon the variety of experience and behavior skills of the individual teacher. If the desegregated situation was unfamiliar to the "cross-over" teacher, his routine behavior sets would not have been adequate in the new setting. This being the case, every action would have had to have been thought out, and the situational determinants outlined in the

conceptual model would influence the teacher's actions. Limited behavioral skills and conflicting attitudes would lead to stress and role conflict.

Based on the findings from the Follow-up Study, it might be concluded that most of the volunteer "cross-over" teachers had attitudes and behavior sets which were appropriate for the desegregated setting. It is concluded from the data analyzed in this investigation that institute trained "cross-over" teachers had less favorable on the job attitudes and behavior sets than did those "cross-over" teachers who had not experienced desegregation training. The fact that the non-institute participants generally had more favorable attitudes toward their desegregated teaching experience would indicate that the role cognitions of the non-institute trained "cross-over" teachers were usually adequate for the new social situation.

It might be speculated that had the institute participants not had attitude and behavior sets which were generally appropriate for the desegregated setting, there would have been greater differences between the institute and non-institute trained "cross-over" teachers. Had the institute participants not had similar attitudes their mean scores would have been lower, reflecting more stress and higher degrees of uncomfortable feelings associated with their desegregated teaching experience.

For the teachers who did not possess adequate role cognitions, the new assignment involved modifying existing attitudes and learning the new role. Role cognitions are based on the expectations which the teacher and others have for the role of a teacher in a desegregated setting. The accuracy of the teacher's perception of these expectations is a crucial factor in his learning the new attitude and behavior sets. Favorable perceptions would lead to positive attitude and behavior sets and negative perceptions in unfavorable attitude and behavior sets (Loree, 1970; Kast and Rosenweig, 1970; Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey, 1962).

One possible explanation for the more unfavorable attitudes of the institute participants might be that institute participation may have resulted in the teachers becoming more perceptive, increased their social expectations and tolerance for disapproval. In-service training was provided on the assumption that more effective behavior skills would be learned. While the analysis of data in this study does not explain this phenomenon, it is possible that insight into this question may be found in the analysis of the data obtained from the MMPI.

The desegregation institutes were designed to assist teachers in the improvement of their understanding of perceptual skills. After institute training, teachers were supposed to have acquired increased social and behavioral skills which would enable them to adjust more easily to their

new roles and relate more effectively with others. Based on the conceptual model, the fact that the white institute participants were found to have significantly less favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships may be explained by new role cognitions gained from the institutes, but for which associates on the job and "significant others" off the job were not ready to accept.

Based on the preliminary research and the analysis of data from this study, it might be speculated that the attitudes of the institute participants, especially the white teachers, may be related to more liberal value-attitudes, idealism--with a strong valence for the rights of the individual and a positive self-concept. They might be considered social activists, who want change now.

It may be hypothesized that the program content of the desegregation institutes was responsible for the polarization of value-attitudes which produced more negative overt behavior on the part of institute participants. This question would make an important topic for future research. The research might compare the various types of institute training activities to determine which are the most effective for accomplishing the desired goals. It might be concluded that the institute participants in this study received reinforcement from the desegregation institutes which lead to their becoming more active and open in their behavior or to express their feelings more accurately. Some support for this

conclusion was found in the analysis of teacher characteristics discussed earlier. The data indicated that a significantly greater number of the institute participants had voted in the last school board election.

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND SOCIAL POLICY

One of the purposes of this research was to evaluate the Houston school district policy of assigning only volunteers to "cross-over" teaching positions in light of the findings from this investigation. The respondents in this study were among the early volunteers to accept "cross-over" teaching positions. The volunteer "cross-over" policy was used from the first "cross-over" teacher assignments in 1967 until 1970. For the fall of 1970, the faculty desegregation effort called for the racial composition in each of the district's schools to be one-third black and two-thirds white. The volunteer procedure proved to be inadequate to meet the increasing demands of the federal courts for faculty racial composition in each school building. This requirement results in the change of policy in September of 1970 from a volunteer procedure to a mandatory "cross-over" assignment with few exceptions. This procedure, which is currently being used, provides for the assignment of "cross-over" teachers and other staff on a seniority basis.

Based on the findings from the preliminary research and the support for these findings derived from this investigation, it is concluded that the volunteer "cross-over" policy was effective in attracting teachers who had social skills, attitudes and behavior congruent with the purposes of school desegregation. However, the data analyzed indicates that the white "cross-over" teachers who had participated in an in-service training institute, generally had more unfavorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships on and off the job than the other subsamples compared. There was little difference among the "cross-over" teachers on their attitudes toward teaching as a career or the job satisfaction experienced in their desegregated teaching position. The black "cross-over" teachers perceived their interpersonal relationships with "significant others" off the job more favorably than the white teachers. A more complete discussion of the findings related to the "cross-over" teacher are presented in the previous sections of this chapter.

The "cross-over" teachers who had participated in a desegregation institute were generally not found to have as favorable an attitude toward their experiences in the desegregated setting as those teachers who volunteered for "cross-over" assignments without having had in-service institute training. It might be speculated that there were other factors than the desegregation institute which are related to the institute participants' unfavorable attitudes. The

personality characteristics of these institute participants may provide insight into their attitudes and behavior. It might be that the volunteer institute training policy attracted teachers whose mental health was not as favorable as that of the "cross-over" teachers who had not participated in an institute. Additional research is needed in order to determine the basis for these differences in attitudes between the institute and non-institute participants.

Since this dissertation was begun, further research has been completed under Phase Four of the larger research project. The "Pupil Study" was concerned with how the child in a desegregated classroom perceived his teacher's acceptance, motivation, and emotional support of him as an individual (Robinson and Henderson, 1970). Questionnaires were administered in small groups to 781 fifth and sixth grade children, 392 children from the classrooms of 14 volunteer "cross-over" teachers who had institute training, and 389 children from the classrooms of 14 non-institute trained volunteer "cross-over" teachers from the same schools. The findings from the "Pupil Study" strongly support those of this investigation. The institute trained teachers were perceived by their pupils as being significantly less effective socially, emotionally and cognitively than the matched sample teachers. They were also rated more unfavorably on a teacher evaluation scale.

Further analysis on other scales from the "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers," but not

included in this study, has also provided additional agreement with the findings of this investigation. When comparing institute participants with non-institute participants on their reaction to white children in the classroom, the institute participants were found to have significantly more unfavorable mean scores. The institute participants were more critical of the white pupils than the non-institute participants. No significant difference was found between institute and non-institute participants on their reactions to Negro children in the classroom.

The reaction of black teachers to children of both races in the classroom were significantly more favorable than the white teachers. The black non-institute participants were found to have significantly more favorable attitudes toward Negro children in the classroom than the white non-institute participants or the institute participants. The black institute participants had significantly more favorable reactions to white children in the classroom than did the white institute participants. No significant difference was found between the black and white institute participants on their reaction to Negro children in the classroom.

On the basis of the findings from this investigation and the agreement of data analyzed in other phases of the larger study, the policy of accepting volunteers for institute training, especially the white teachers, is open to continuous evaluation and modification. In order for the institute

training program to accomplish its goals, it would appear that the participants should come from the population of Houston teachers who did not volunteer for "cross-over" teaching assignments.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented a discussion of the findings reported in Chapter V of this dissertation. The results were discussed in relation to the preliminary research, the literature review, the theoretical model and the policies concerning "cross-over" teacher assignment and admission to institute training.

In conjunction with the interpretive discussion of the findings, conclusions were drawn and reference made to the need for future research. It may be concluded from this analysis that the most crucial variables revealed in the investigation were the race of the teacher and the fact that the respondents had volunteered for a desegregated teaching assignment.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter contains a summary of the investigation, the implications of this research, and the conclusions derived from this study of 142 "cross-over" teachers and their attitudes toward interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction in a desegregated setting. This research is a part of a larger research project funded by the National Institute of Mental Health. The research project is under the direction of the Research Center staff of the Houston Baptist College.

SUMMARY

This section presents the summary of this research in the following sub-sections: (1) the problem and procedures, (2) the findings from the analysis of data.

Summary of the Problem and Procedures

This study was concerned with the interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction of teachers in desegregated schools. The major purpose of the study was to determine if there was a significant relationship between teacher participation in an "In-service Training Institute on Problems of School Desegregation" and the race of the teacher with their attitudes toward desegregated interpersonal role relationships and job satisfaction during the last school year. A second

purpose was to assess the 1967-1969 school policy of assigning only volunteers to "cross-over" teaching positions in the Houston school system. The research hypothesis investigated was that: teachers who have attended institute training will have more favorable attitudes toward their interpersonal relationships on and off the job, and that these attitudes will result in greater job satisfaction for the teacher in the desegregated school setting.

A review of the literature included the theory of human behavior and its components; role theory, personality theory, social attitudes and behavior change, and situational and psychological determinants of behavior. Selected references and related research were also reviewed on the topics of interpersonal relations, job satisfaction and institute training. In addition, the findings from the preliminary research conducted under the major research project were outlined and the chapter concluded with the review of a theoretical model used in evaluating teacher role performance in the desegregated school.

During the summer of 1969, 142 teachers accepted an invitation to participate in the indepth study phase (Phase Four) of the research project and became the respondents for this investigation. The sample selected for this study was drawn from two populations of Houston public school teachers. The experimental group of 75 was randomly selected from a population who had volunteered to participate in a

desegregation training institute and the control group of 67 was randomly selected from a population of Houston teachers who had not participated in any desegregation training institutes, but had volunteered for "cross-over" teaching assignments. Both samples were stratified by race and grade level taught.

An "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences of School Teachers" (see Appendix B) was used to assess the attitudes and experiences of teachers who had taught in the faculty of a desegregated school. Sixteen scales were used from the research instrument and were analyzed to determine whether significant differences exist in the group means of the four subsamples analyzed. The analysis of variance procedure permitted the examination of differences among the institute and non-institute trained black and white "cross-over" teachers. Differences between two specific subsamples were tested using the t-test. The chi-square statistical technique was employed to test the differences in teacher characteristics among the subsamples. The hypotheses of no difference among the subsamples were tested at the .05 level of significance.

Summary of the Findings

The teacher characteristics analyzed in this study were generally found to be proportionately distributed among the subsamples. The following differences were found to be

significant. The black institute participant subsample was found to include a greater proportion of males, have more years of teaching experience and have lived in the school district longer than the other groups studied. Black institute participants were also found to have completed more years of college and have more earned Masters degrees than white institute participants; and have fathers who have attended school less than the fathers of the white non-institute participants. A greater percentage of the black teachers were born in Texas or a Southern state, indicated a preference for the Democratic party and had completed seven or more years of college. Institute participants were found to have lived in the school district longer than non-institute participants.

No support was found for the research hypothesis that teachers who have participated in desegregation training institutes would have more favorable attitudes toward their interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction than those "cross-over" teachers that had not participated in desegregation training institutes. In fact, institute participant mean scores were usually lower than those of the non-institute participant sample.

Interpersonal relationships on the job. The results of analysis on the respondents' attitudes toward on-the-job contact with associates are summarized by type of comparison.

Significant differences were observed among the subsample means on four of the six on-the-job scales analyzed. No significant differences were found among the mean scores of the subsamples on the Teacher - Teacher As a Group or the Teacher - Parents of Pupils interpersonal relationships scales. The differences which were significant involved attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with Negro teachers, white teachers, the principal, and non-certificated personnel. Only those subsample comparisons on which there were significant differences in the four on-the-job scales are included in this summary.

Three of the significant differences found among the subsample means were within a racial group and between institute and non-institute participants, including: (1) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with Negro teachers than do black institute participants; (2) white non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with white teachers than do white institute participants; and (3) white non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with non-certificated personnel than do white institute participants. In each of these comparisons the non-institute participants were found to have the more favorable attitudes.

When comparing subsample means controlling for both race and institute participation, the following were found to be significant: (1) white non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward other white teachers and Negro teachers than do black institute participants, and (2) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward contact with other Negro teachers, the principal, and non-certificated personnel than do white institute participants. In each of these comparisons the non-institute participants were also found to have the more favorable attitudes toward on-the-job interpersonal relationships.

The following mean score comparisons were found to be significant within the sample type, controlling by race of the respondent. Differences which were significant include: (1) black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward both the principal and non-certificated personnel than do white institute participants, and (2) white non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward other white teachers than do black non-institute participants. While the results of this last comparison might be expected, the first two comparisons would indicate that the black institute participants had attitudes toward on-the-job interpersonal relationships more nearly like those of the non-institute participants.

Interpersonal relationships off the job. The results of analysis on the respondents' attitudes toward off-the-job interpersonal relationships with family members and friends indicate that race was the most discriminating variable on all significant comparisons. Using the analysis of variance procedure, no significant differences were found among the subsample means on either the Teacher - Spouse or the Teacher - Offspring interpersonal relationship scales. The differences which were significant involved attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with the teachers' fathers, mothers, other relatives and friends. The following significant differences are summarized by type of comparison.

When comparing subsample means, controlling for both race and institute participation, the following were found to be significant: (1) black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their fathers and relatives than do white non-institute participants, and (2) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their fathers, mothers, relatives and friends than do white institute participants. In each of these comparisons the black teacher was found to have more favorable attitudes toward off-the-job interpersonal relationships.

Significant differences were found among the subsample means when comparing within the sample type, controlling by

race. Differences within the institute participant and non-institute participant samples include the following: (1) black institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their fathers, mothers, other relatives and friends than do white institute participants, and (2) black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships with their fathers and relatives than do white non-institute participants. In each of these comparisons the black teachers were also found to have more favorable attitudes toward off-the-job interpersonal relationships.

Job satisfaction. The results of analysis on the respondents' attitudes toward their job satisfaction revealed no significant differences among the subsample means on three of the four scales analyzed. Those scales on which there were no significant differences include: (1) Teaching as a Career, (2) Job Satisfaction, and (3) Worry - Job Anxiety. Significant differences were found among the mean scores of the subsamples analyzed on the Teacher's View of Community Attitudes Toward His Job Scale. Briefly, the significant comparisons include: black non-institute participants were found to have more favorable perceptions of the community's attitude toward his job than do white teachers or black institute participants. Also, black "cross-over"

teachers (institute and non-institute participants) were found to have significantly more favorable perceptions of the community's attitude toward his job than do white "cross-over" teachers.

IMPLICATIONS

This section presents the implications inferred from the findings of this investigation. The implications are discussed in relation to the volunteer policy for admission to institute training, theoretical implications and future research needs.

Volunteer Institute Training Policy

The fact that the teachers in this study were all volunteer "cross-over" teachers is considered to have been a crucial variable and may explain the similarity among the subsample mean scores compared in this investigation. Consequently, no support was found for the research hypothesis that teachers who volunteered for institute training would have more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relations and job satisfaction than those volunteer "cross-over" teachers who have not had institute training.

The findings from the data analyzed raise serious questions relative to the volunteer procedure for enrolling teachers in desegregation institute training. In light of the goals of the desegregation training program, it is

debatable as to whether the large expenditure of federal funds can be justified. If federal funds are to be used, it would appear that some other procedure for selecting participants might prove more effective in accomplishing the purposes of the training institutes.

Not all "cross-over" teachers were found to have equally favorable attitudes toward their desegregated teaching experience. Those "cross-over" teachers who had participated in a desegregation training institute generally had lower group mean scores, especially the white teachers, than did those who had volunteered for "cross-over" assignments without having had institute training.

The unfavorable attitudes of the teachers who volunteered for institute participation were probably not all learned at the desegregation training institutes. The volunteer policy may have attracted teachers prone to social activism. Information on selected social and psychological characteristics could provide additional insight into not only why the teachers volunteered, but the reasons for the unfavorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships on and off the job.

The data analyzed indicated that the institute participants expressed more criticism and dissatisfaction with some of their interpersonal relationships and the community's attitude toward their jobs. These findings confirm those of the Follow-up Study, phase three of the research project.

One explanation for their more negative attitudes might be that the institutes made the teachers more aware of the racial prejudice surrounding the school desegregation issue. This may have resulted in a polarization of attitudes, a clearer understanding, or more interest in the teacher's role in the school desegregation process. It is conceivable that this new awareness may have led to overt behavior which was less tolerant of others' attitudes. New role cognitions might explain unfavorable attitudes revealed in this analysis.

Theoretical Implications

The influence of school desegregation upon the teachers' role behavior is an important consideration in understanding the differences which exist among the "cross-over" teachers. Some teachers cope with stress in such a manner as to be consistent with the demands of desegregation. They have favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relations and experience little role conflict. Thus, the theoretical model presented in Chapter II proves to be a valuable aid in the interpretation and evaluation of the "cross-over" teachers' attitudes and behavior.

Both the situational factors confronted in the desegregated setting and the psychological forces acting upon the "cross-over" teacher interact to determine his success or failure in a desegregated school. The fact that the non-institute participant "cross-over" teacher generally had

more favorable attitudes toward interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction would indicate that their role cognitions were more amenable to a desegregated situation than were those of the institute participants. If the role cognitions are congruent with the demands of the situation, the attitudes and behavior should lead to success in the "cross-over" teacher role. The role cognitions of the institute participants may also account for their more unfavorable attitudes toward teaching in a desegregated setting. If these more unfavorable attitudes and behavior lead to stress and role conflict, which is dysfunctional in the new setting, the "cross-over" teacher is likely to experience failure in his desegregated teaching role.

Future Research Needs

In order to further study the effects of institute training, the selection of teachers for training and the procedure used to desegregate a school district's faculty, it is recommended that additional research be conducted. Several implications for continued research in interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction in desegregated schools are suggested from the findings of this study. Most of these implications for future research were mentioned in Chapter VI, in conjunction with the interpretations of the research findings. Since this investigation is a part of a larger research project, some of the following research suggestions are being investigated or planned for the near future.

Applied research needs. It is recommended that a similar study be conducted comparing a sample of "cross-over" teachers who were forced to transfer to desegregated schools from segregated schools without having had institute training and a sample who were forced to transfer to desegregated schools from segregated schools but were required to attend in-service institute training. This would permit a more complete analysis of the differences among the samples and subsamples, and permit further evaluation of the questions posed in this dissertation.

Further research is needed on the nature of teacher-pupil interpersonal relationships in the desegregated classroom. Some of the scales included in the research instrument for this study were designed to assess these attitudes. Such an investigation will provide insight into the most important dimension of the desegregated school. A few of the early findings from this study were presented in Chapter VI of this dissertation.

An investigation of the teacher turnover in the desegregated school would provide an additional measure of the "cross-over" teachers' job satisfaction and role performance. Such a study would not only furnish an external measure of the "cross-over" teacher's adjustment to the desegregated setting, but would yield a valid check on the reliability of the research instrument.

Additional research is needed on teacher effectiveness in the desegregated classroom; assessing differences among "cross-over" teachers who volunteered without institute training, and those who were assigned to desegregated schools and required to have institute training. As indicated in Chapter VI, research is currently in process comparing student evaluations on a sample of volunteer "cross-over" teachers who had institute training with a sample of volunteers who had not had institute training. Comparisons of student evaluations on the other two groups of "cross-over" teachers would provide further insight into the most desirable combination of in-service desegregation training and procedure for making "cross-over" assignments.

While student evaluation is important, further evaluation of the "cross-over" teacher might be conducted using both peer and principal evaluation techniques. If the "cross-over" teacher is as well adjusted and has as favorable an attitude toward teaching in a desegregated school as these findings indicate, it would seem that the teacher's colleagues and supervisor would rate his performance higher. Again, the "cross-over" teacher ratings could be compared among the various types of "cross-over" teacher groups outlined in the previous paragraph.

Another measure of a school's effectiveness and the quality of interpersonal relations among the teachers and administration or principal would be to assess the climate or

atmosphere of the desegregated school. If the "cross-over" teacher or a racially mixed faculty is having difficulty with staff relationships, these difficulties should be reflected in the school's climate. Comparisons among a sample of both desegregated and segregated schools within the same district would provide a basis for evaluation. If the faculty and staff relationships are as favorable as the sample of "cross-over" teachers in this study indicate, the school's climate should reflect these attitudes and the desegregated schools should compare favorably with the segregated schools. This type of an investigation would also provide another measure of the faculty relationship problems confronted in the desegregated school as revealed in Claye's (1970) survey. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, developed by Halpin and Croft (1962), is one instrument that is currently available for this type of an investigation.

The "cross-over" teachers who had participated in a desegregation training institute were generally found to have more unfavorable attitudes toward their experiences in the desegregated setting. This has implications not only for the institute training program content and methods, but also with regard to the volunteer procedure used in selecting participants for the institutes. On the basis of the findings from phase three of the larger study, it would appear that the participants could best be selected from those teachers who did not volunteer for institute training or a

"cross-over" assignment. Some other criteria should be developed for selecting participants. A random selection or the required participation of all faculty members were discussed in Chapter VI as possible alternatives. Hopefully a better method than "volunteers only" can be developed and used.

In relation to the program content, it is apparent that additional research needs to be done not only on program content for a desegregation institute, but on the methods used in training the "cross-over" teacher. While the findings from this study indicated that volunteer participation was probably the crucial variable, the findings from preliminary research indicate a need for assessing the effectiveness of the institutes on the basis of the goals established.

Theoretical research needs. Both situational and psychological factors are responsible for individual attitudes and behavior. Research on some of the situational variables have been presented in the previous section of this chapter. Additional insight into interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction in the desegregated school may be possible from immediate research on such psychological determinants of attitudes and behavior as the "cross-over" teacher's tolerance for disapproval, strength of emotional needs, psychological expectations and unconscious demands. The success or failure of the "cross-over" teacher in his new role may depend upon these psychological factors.

The respondents have completed the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. The results from this instrument are currently being analyzed as part of phase four of the research project. Greater understanding of the differences observed among the subsamples in this study should be possible from the personality characteristics revealed in the MMPI analysis.

The data analyzed in this study indicate that there were significant differences among the subsamples on several of the interpersonal relationship and job satisfaction scales. Some of the group differences revealed in this study may be explained by the fact that the respondents were all volunteer "cross-over" teachers. Other differences, such as off the job interpersonal relationships with "significant others," may be explained by the race of the teacher. However, another dimension on which additional information is needed is in the area of human behavior. Research into the social and behavioral skills of the "cross-over" teacher could provide insight regarding job satisfaction and interpersonal relations.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions were derived from an examination of the analysis of data reported in Chapter V. The conclusions reached concern differences in the race of the respondents, between institute and non-institute participation and support for the preliminary research.

Of the 16 interpersonal relationship and job satisfaction scales used in this investigation, the F ratio was found to be significant on nine scales. The fact that there were no significant differences among the four subsamples analyzed on seven of the scales would indicate that the attitudes of the "cross-over" teachers in this study were generally similar. That each respondent in this sample was a volunteer "cross-over" teacher is considered to be a crucial variable.

The differences in subsample mean scores which were significant indicated that the race of the participant was the most discriminating factor analyzed. This was particularly evident on the off-the-job interpersonal relationship scales. The black "cross-over" teachers perceived greater support in their desegregated teaching roles from their families and friends than did the white "cross-over" teachers. The black teachers were also found to have a more favorable perception of the community's attitude toward their jobs in a desegregated school than the white teachers. In addition, the black institute participants were found to be more nearly representative of the black "cross-over" teacher sample than the white institute participants were of the white "cross-over" teacher sample. It is concluded from these findings, that the black "cross-over" teachers in this study had more favorable attitudes toward their desegregated teaching experience than the white "cross-over" teachers.

Institute participation was found to be an important variable in the remaining differences among the subsamples compared in this analysis. However, whether the effects of institute training were responsible for the differences in attitudes assessed by the research instrument was not within the scope of this investigation. The most obvious trend was that white institute participants had the most unfavorable attitudes toward their desegregated teaching experience. This was especially evident in the on-the-job interpersonal relationship scales. Generally, the institute participant "cross-over" teachers were found to have the more unfavorable attitudes toward their interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction in desegregated schools. On the basis of the data analyzed, it is concluded that the non-institute trained "cross-over" teachers had attitudes toward their desegregated teaching experience which were as favorable as those held by the institute trained "cross-over" teachers.

In general, the data analyzed in this study tended to confirm the findings from the earlier phases of the research project. This was particularly true in regard to the more critical attitudes held by the institute participants toward their experiences in desegregated schools.

APPENDIX A

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF DESEGREGATION

Reforms almost always come slow in America, and few have been slower than civil rights reforms. Power is not only fractionated within Congress, but also between national, state and local officials, among the many executive agencies with their various constituencies and bases of political support, and even within a judicial system in which most appointments are very heavily influenced by locally oriented politicians (Orfield, 1969:306).

In reviewing the history of the civil rights movement, as it relates to this study and the desegregation of the Houston public school faculty, the writer will discuss selected historical events of the courts, governing bodies and agencies, and individuals at the national, state and local levels that are relevant to this study.

THE NATIONAL SCENE

The desegregation movement began in the Supreme Court and gradually spread to the American public. Public concern lead to new legislation in support of the rights of Negroes. The governmental agencies charged with the implementation of these new laws have faced increasing opposition which resulted in a slowed pace for the desegregation movement.

The Federal Courts

"Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal" (Reuter and Hamilton, 1970:561). Until 1954, the doctrine of "separate but equal" was generally accepted. The Supreme Court (1896) first enunciated this decision in a case dealing with the separation of races in railroad coaches in Louisiana (Reuter and Hamilton, 1970:561).

In the 1954 Brown decision, the Court reversed its decision on the "separate but equal" doctrine and proclaimed a basic principle of Constitutional law; that "in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place" (Reuter and Hamilton, 1970:561). The Court in outlawing the dual school system, maintained that governmentally enforced school segregation violated the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. This historic decision called for a "prompt and reasonable start" to desegregate with all deliberate speed.

On the question of faculty integration, the courts took the position that it was a necessary element in a successful student desegregation program. The following statement by Orfield (1969:138) suggests the importance attached to the faculty integration issue:

Faculty integration was seen by most southern whites as a serious threat to the education system and was recognized as a crucially important change by Negro leaders. Teacher integration was widely perceived as even a more serious assault on the social order than the "mixing" of students.

As was often the case, on issues of desegregation, the courts' direct involvement with specific school districts permitted them to assume a position of greater influence. In several early decisions, the courts had required that the racial composition of the faculty and staff reflect the racial composition of the faculty and staff of the school district.

Congress and the Administration

Ten years after the 1954 Brown decision, the United States Congress expressed its support for the Supreme Court ruling with the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. Public commitment to the provisions of this Act produced a broad expansion of Federal power and administration authority in an attempt to protect the rights of black people. Title IV of the Civil Rights Act included the following provision, which has been the basis for significant change in American education.

No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance (U. S. Congress. Committee on Education and Labor, 1969:7).

By granting authority to withhold Federal funds from segregated schools, the new law placed the influence of the Federal bureaucracy on the side of change. The U. S. Office of Education's financial leverage over the local

schools was further increased in 1965 when Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Orfield, 1969:45).

The U. S. Office of Education published the formal guidelines for desegregation in 1965. Due to controversy on the provisions made for faculty integration in Title IV of the Civil Rights Act, the first guidelines were vague on the requirements. However, during the first year in which the provisions of the guidelines were being implemented, the Office of Education concluded that changing the racial composition of a school's faculty was an essential first step.

Recent Developments

By the fall of 1966 a majority of the southern school districts had begun desegregating their faculties. Student desegregation had also increased from six to sixteen percent in the eleven southern states where the opposition to integration was most pronounced. A decline in general public support for the civil rights movement began in 1967. The public seemed to hold the opinion that the progress was a little too fast. With this attitude being reflected in the Congress, it became increasingly more difficult for the responsible administrative agencies to accomplish the goals that had originally been established (Orfield, 1969:302).

The 1968 presidential campaign found the question of race to be the crucial domestic issue before the nation. The anti-integration efforts of former Governor George

Wallace, and his growing political support, played an important role in softening the attack on civil rights (Orfield, 1969:347). Current opinion would seem to support the contention that the present administration has tended to reflect that position advocated by President Nixon in his campaign; that desegregation efforts had gone too far and that he would use Title VI sparingly (Kraft, 1970:524).

THE STATE OF TEXAS

With a history of segregated public education, the state's initial response to the national civil rights movement and school desegregation was one of resistance. While legislative efforts to slow desegregation of public education were temporarily effective, the current political scene has shifted to a position of leadership in the South for support of desegregation and quality education for all the children of Texas.

A History of Segregation

Prior to the 1954 Brown decision, the doctrine of "separate but equal" schools was the official code of all southern and border states. For example, the Texas Constitution stated: "Separate school shall be made for both. . . . No colored children shall attend schools supported for white children" (Wright, 1964:1).

Separate school systems for members of white and Negro races, and in some districts for Mexican Americans,

had been maintained from the days of the Republic of Texas. In 1954 there were 919 bi-racial school districts in the state. There were a few districts who had eliminated their dual school systems in order to take advantage of the economies of operating a unitary system (Wright, 1964).

Resistance Legislation

In 1957 the Texas Legislature passed a referendum law and a pupil placement act. The first bill prohibited local school boards from abolishing segregation without prior approval of the electorate; the second provided for a transfer system so that ". . . no child would be compelled to attend any school in which the races were commingled" (Wright, 1964:13). From 1957 to 1962 only fifteen districts submitted the question to the voters. Ten districts approved integration. In Houston, the referendum vote failed by a two to one majority, but the outcome was of no consequence as the school system was already under court order to desegregate.

The constitutionality of the Referendum Law was not challenged until 1962. At which time the State Attorney General, drawing on the action of the U. S. Fifth Circuit Court which had declared that a person's constitutional rights are not contingent upon any election, declared the Referendum Law invalid. This ruling cleared the way for all school districts in Texas to desegregate. By 1963, schools

throughout the state had initiated movements to honor the rights of minorities (Wright, 1964:25).

Current Political Scene

By 1969, the legal fight to resist desegregation was weakening (Noland, Robinson and Martin, 1969b:43). The Governor and Lieutenant Governor, both elected in 1968, endorsed school integration. Lieutenant Governor Ben Barnes made the following statement to a group of school administrators from the Gulf Coast area of Texas on February 12, 1969:

. . . the government of the State of Texas accepts the policy of integrated schools as the policy of this nation and of this state. I urge the people of Texas to support local school officials in their efforts to meet federal standards and provide all our children with a quality education. This is 1969; state government must actively lead our people toward the goal of outstanding schools open to all (Noland, Robinson and Martin, 1969b:43).

While the attitudes of current leaders in state government toward integration is encouraging to many, the problem is now back in the hand of local school district leaders. It cannot be denied that there are still a large number of Texans that are anti-integration (Noland, Robinson and Martin, 1969b:43).

Summary

The following statement provides a brief sketch of the Texas public school desegregation story:

. . . desegregation of the public schools in Texas is one of initial voluntary action in the southern and western section, which was virtually halted by resistance legislation, then set in motion again by a combination of economic pressures in the small districts and Federal court decrees in the larger cities (Wright, 1964:2).

HOUSTON

Except for the intervention of the federal courts, the history of desegregation in Houston reflects that of the State. The federal courts played a significant role in forcing the desegregation of the Houston public schools and its faculties. Public resistance gradually gave way and new leadership emerged in support of quality education for all. This led to concern over teacher effectiveness and stress in the desegregated classroom; which resulted in the development of desegregation training programs.

Public School Desegregation

School desegregation in Houston, the South's largest metropolitan area, has followed the pattern of most large Southern cities. In 1963, less than 200 Negro students attended class with white pupils; although Negroes were thirty percent of the Houston enrollment (Noland, Robinson and Martin, 1969b:38).

A Houston School Board Citizens Advisory Committee recommended a grade-a-year desegregation plan in 1955. The suggestion offered led to integrated in-service workshops

for teachers and the appointment of a few Negro administrators. However, it was not until 1960 that the first Negro child was admitted to an all white Houston school. This action came as a result of a 1956 U. S. District Court decision (Noland, Robinson and Martin, 1969b:38).

The court order to desegregate one grade each year resulted in there not being a single student integrated in the city's junior or senior high schools in 1964-65. However, increased pressure for more rapid progress toward a totally desegregated system was responsible for a policy change requiring two grades to be integrated each year beginning with the 1965-66 school year. September 1, 1967, was the date given by the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals for the accomplishment of total integration in the Houston school system (Noland, Robinson and Martin, 1969b:39).

The "freedom of choice" plan was a widely used procedure for implementing integration throughout the South. Under the provisions of this plan the Houston School Board abolished individual school boundaries in 1967 and permitted any child to attend any school within the district. This policy increased the rate of integration in those schools which had been desegregated but it also increased residential transition. White families moved out of the transition neighborhoods, which tended to resegregate previously integrated schools (Noland, Robinson and Martin, 1969b:39).

While 1967-68 was the first year in which Houston operated a "totally integrated school district," enrollment figures showed only 37,493, or approximately fifty percent, of the district's 81,481 Negro students were actually attending desegregated schools (Noland, Robinson and Martin, 1969b:40).

In the fall of 1969, four new members were elected to the Houston School Board. At its second meeting, in January 1970, the new board majority voted to create a unitary school system and to organize a school-community task force to assist with the implementation. These developments reflect a changing community attitude toward integration. In addition to the Board's plans to further integrate the faculty and administration, the Fifth Circuit Court in August of 1970 ordered twenty-six elementary schools paired, and the implementation of a geographic capacity and equal distance zoning plan (Robinson, 1970:26).

Faculty Desegregation

In 1968 the emphasis had been on faculty desegregation. In addition to freedom of choice, a federal judge had required that each school have at least two "cross-over" teachers for the 1968-69 school year. On July 23, 1969, the federal court ordered the Houston School District to make a minimum of 2500 "cross-over" assignments prior to September 1, 1969. The federal judge also instructed the school district

to develop a plan for total student, faculty, and administration desegregation by January 1, 1970 (Robinson, 1970:26).

The court had defined a "cross-over" teacher as a black teacher who taught in a school where the student body was predominantly white, or a white teacher who taught in a school in which the student body was predominantly black. A desegregated school was defined by the court as one that is bi-racial and in which at least ten percent of the student body is either black or white (Robinson, 1970:26). In September of 1970 the policy of making "cross-over" assignments only to those teachers who volunteered was changed to mandatory "cross-over" assignment with few exceptions.

The school-community task force developed a desegregation plan which called for the assignment of principals and teachers to the district's schools in proportion to the racial population of the district. By September of 1970, one-third of the schools had black principals and two-thirds had white principals; and approximately two-thirds of the faculty in each school was white and one-third black (Robinson, 1970:26).

CHRONOLOGY OF DESEGREGATION

1954 - 1970

(As Related to the Houston Independent School District and the Houston Baptist College Research Center Mental Health Project.)

- 1954 BROWN VS. BOARD OF EDUCATION OF TOPEKA - U. S. Supreme Court decision outlawing a dual school system in the United States.
- CONSERVATIVE HISD SCHOOL BOARD ELECTED AGAIN - running on slate "We Kept Our School Segregated."
- 1955 U. S. SUPREME COURT DECLARED "A PROMPT AND REASONABLE START" should be made by all school districts to desegregate with all deliberate speed.
- BI-RACIAL COMMITTEE APPOINTED BY HISD SCHOOL BOARD - 25 members, 15 white, 10 Negroes. Committee recommended abolishing segregation at administrative level and one grade per year school desegregation, beginning with grade one. School board couldn't agree and no action was taken.
- HISD School Board authorized integrated staff meetings.
- 1956 FIRST INTEGRATED "NEW TEACHER" INSTITUTES OF HISD.
- INTEGRATION OF PRINCIPALS' MEETINGS.
- DOLORES ROSS, a Negro girl, attempted to enroll in an all white Jr. High School and was denied admittance. Suite filed in District Court.
- 1957 W. E. MORELAND RESIGNED AS SCHOOL SUPRINTENDENT. G. C. Scarborough, suspected of connections with conservative groups, replaced Moreland.
- INTEGRATED STAFF MEETINGS WERE STOPPED.
- U. S. DISTRICT COURT RULED RACIAL SEGREGATION IN HOUSTON UNLAWFUL and enjoined the district to admit children to schools on a racially non-segregated basis (November, 1957).

HISD SCHOOL BOARD SAID IT NEEDED TWO YEARS to prepare for integration and court granted a delay.

1958 ONE ELEMENT OF HISD PLAN DISCLOSED BY SUPT. SCARBOROUGH - In preparation for "desegregation with all deliberate speed," Negro principals and teachers would be allowed to secretly observe through one-way glass white supervisors teaching Negro children. Later, white supervisors were to demonstrate good techniques at two Negro "observation" schools.

JOHN McFARLAND BECAME SUPT. OF HISD SCHOOLS, and resumed integrated staff meetings.

SCHOOL BOARD APPROVED A NEGRO AS ADMINISTRATION ASSISTANT and appointed three Negroes as Supervisors.

FIRST NEGRO SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER ELECTED, Mrs. Charles E. White.

1960 SCHOOL BOARD SEEKS FURTHER DELAY IN INTEGRATING - Board authorized its attorney to confer with Federal Judge, Ben C. Connally in May seeking further delays in implementing a desegregation plan. Judge ruled that further delay would be bad faith.

SCHOOL BOARD APPROVED PLAN TO BE SUBMITTED TO COURT - on June 1, 1960 plan was approved and submitted to court. This was the date on which board had to file an approved plan or have the court designate a plan.

SCHOOL BOARD CALLED A REFERENDUM - in Spring of 1960 a referendum was called on the desegregation issue. Vote was 2 to 1 against desegregation.

AUGUST 12, 1960 - U. S. DISTRICT COURT DIRECTED HISD TO "BEGIN A PROGRAM OF DESEGREGATION WITH SEPTEMBER 1960, at which time the first grade would be desegregated with an additional grade to be desegregated each year thereafter."

SCHOOL BOARD APPEALED TO GOVERNOR - a Defiant school board met and proposed a resolution appealing to Governor Price Daniel "to interpose the sovereignty of the State of Texas under the 10th Amendment of the U. S. Constitution against such unwarranted acts on the part of the Federal Government." Governor replied that the state had no power to interpose. Attorney General gave his ruling that the referendum law did not apply.

SEPTEMBER 6 - BOARD MET TO TAKE ACTION COMPLYING WITH THE COURT ORDER.

SEPTEMBER 8 - FIRST NEGRO CHILD ATTENDED A FORMERLY ALL WHITE SCHOOL.

NEW CRITERIA FOR SCHOOL ADMISSION: Brother-Sister Rule required any two or more children in a family eligible to attend any of the seven elementary grades, had to attend the same elementary school unless a particular pupil attended special education classes. The result of this plan was to restrict integration since only the first grade was to be integrated.

1961-62 1961 FIRST YEAR OF DESEGREGATION - 23 Negroes in desegregated elementary schools.

1962-63 42 Negroes in desegregated elementary schools.

1963-64 196 Negroes in desegregated elementary schools.

1964-65 435 Negroes attending desegregated schools.

1965 6000 MARCH ON SCHOOL BOARD MEETING - May 10, 1965 - march was organized by Negro leaders. School board meeting was called off.

School board reported to Federal Judge that it would be willing to include grades 12 and 7 at the beginning of the 1965-66 school year. This plan resulted in the integration of Cullen Junior High School located on the edge of a Negro community.

SCHOOL BOARD ADDED GRADE 10 to its desegregation plan, and thus speeded up desegregation.

"FREEDOM OF CHOICE PLAN" - School Board abolished individual school boundaries and announced that any child could attend any school within the school district. "Freedom of Choice" resulted in an increased rate of integration in schools which had been desegregated, but it also increased residential transition. The mobility of white families out of transition neighborhoods was very high and this tended to resegregate previously integrated schools.

FALL, 1965 - INSTITUTE ON DESEGREGATION FOR ADMINISTRATORS - sponsored by local universities and colleges under grant from USOE.

1965-66 4207 Negroes in integrated schools.

1966 INJUNCTION SOUGHT TO HALT SCHOOL BUILDING CONSTRUCTION - Idea behind injunction was that School Board was perpetuating segregation by location of new schools.

FALL, 1966 - SECOND DESEGREGATION INSTITUTE - (180 teachers).

1966-67 7857 Negroes in previously all white schools.

1967 SPRING, 1967 - THIRD DESEGREGATION INSTITUTE FOR TEACHERS - (180 began, 150 graduated) BEFORE-AFTER QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED to 150 teachers.

HOGG FOUNDATION GRANT TO HBC RESEARCH CENTER - May, 1967 - Grant was to provide funds to prepare a proposal to the National Institute of Mental Health for a three-year study of teacher and school desegregation in Houston.

HISD INTEGRATED ALL ATHLETIC COMPETITION

SCHOOL BOARD MAJORITY REMAINED CONSERVATION IN ELECTION.

NIMH PROPOSAL APPROVED - HBC Research Center received a grant for the three-year study from NIMH, however, funds were frozen until April, 1968.

NAACP PETITIONED COURT TO REOPEN DOLORES ROSS CAUSE HOPING TO ELIMINATE "FREEDOM OF CHOICE." COURT REFUSED TO REOPEN CASE.

SUMMER - DESEGREGATION INSTITUTE

1967-68 12,302 Negroes enrolled in previously all white schools.

1968 37,493 of 81,481 Negro children were in previously all white schools.

Majority of schools had crossover teachers.

GLEN FLETCHER is School Superintendent.

\$85,000 AWARDED HISD TO HELP IMPLEMENT INTEGRATION. December 1968, from Title IV funds of the USOE, \$85,000 was awarded to help implement integration of teaching staff at six prototype schools. Faculty at prototype schools was 65% white - 35% Negro.

FALL - HBC FOLLOW UP STUDY - Questionnaire administered to 152 Institute Participants and a stratified random sample of 198 non-participants who were teaching in the same schools as the 152 institute participants.

1969 PRELIMINARY REPORT #1 - School Desegregation in the State of Texas and the City of Houston.

NAACP AGAIN WENT TO COURT - February 1969 - Court reopened the decade old (Delores Ross) Suite.

FEBRUARY 11, 1969 - JUSTICE DEPARTMENT FILED A MOTION claiming Houston still had a dual school system and asked the court to require the school district to formulate new provision for student assignment (pairing and geographic zoning) and assign white and Negro teachers proportionately.

LIBERAL MAJORITY OF SCHOOL BOARD VOTED INTO OFFICE - to go in office in January 1970.

\$25,000 FOR LEGAL FEES VOTED. New Liberal majority wasn't in office yet, and conservative board allocated \$25,000 for legal fees to fight integration cases in the court. (Boards had spent \$112,000 since 1957 fighting integration).

MAY 1969 - HBC-NIMH GRANT - CHILDREN'S STUDY - questionnaire administered to 781 children in 24 classrooms (12 institute participant classrooms, and 12 non-institute participant classrooms).

AUG.-SEPT. 1969 - HBC-NIMH GRANT-INTENSIVE ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE MMPI, AND TAPED INTERVIEWS. Questionnaires and MMPI to 75 institute participants, and 67 non-institute participants (random sample). Taped interviews (14 institute participants and 14 non-participants).

1970 JANUARY 1970 - NEW (LIBERAL) SCHOOL BOARD MAJORITY INAUGURATED - New desegregation policy.

JANUARY 1970 - SCHOOL BOARD RECEIVED \$200,000 GRANT FROM HEW FOR INSERVICE TRAINING OF 1000 TEACHERS.

FEBRUARY - MARCH 1970 - ADMINISTRATORS REASSIGNED to meet court requirements for cross-over assignments. Principals and assistant principals transferred.

MARCH 1970 - HEW GRANT MODIFIED to include training for all 540 HISD administrators. Administrators were

required to attend training sessions. "Inventory of Attitudes and Experiences" was administered at beginning session to each group of administrators.

JUNE - AUGUST 1970 - TEACHER ASSIGNMENTS 1970-71 MADE so that each school in HISD would have an integrated faculty. Approximately 66% white, 33% black.

AUGUST 1970 - DR. GEORGE GARVER employed as new Superintendent.

AUGUST 25, 1970 - FIFTH CIRCUIT COURT OF APPEALS rules geographic capacity and equal distance high schools, junior highs and some elementary schools. Twenty-five elementary schools are paired. Pairing appealed - other order implemented when school opened one week later.

SEPTEMBER 1970 - HISD RECEIVED EMERGENCY SCHOOL ASSISTANCE GRANT of \$2,040,000 from HEW to assist with school desegregation during 1970-1971. Funds provided inservice training for all teachers and administrators in HISD.

SEPTEMBER 1970 - MEXICAN AMERICAN PARENTS PROTEST pairing with predominantly black schools. School strike keeps 3000 children out of school for several weeks.

NOVEMBER 1970 - PEAT, MARRICK, AND MITCHELL REPORT for reorganization accepted and implemented.

1971 JANUARY 1971 - DR. J. DON BONEY, professor of Educational Psychology and Associate Dean for Research College of Education, University of Houston was employed as Chief Instructional Officer - Highest ranking black man in HISD history.

APPENDIX B

Number _____

INVENTORY OF ATTITUDES AND EXPERIENCES
OF SCHOOL TEACHERS

Research Center
Houston Baptist College

1969

This is strictly a scientific survey. All information will be held in the strictest of confidence. Data will be grouped and no one's name will be used in any report. This research is supported by a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health, project number MH14622-02. Your cooperation in answering all questions is vital to the project and greatly appreciated.

Date _____

PART I: GENERAL DATA

SECTION I

1. Sex:
_____(1) Male
_____(2) Female
2. Age:
_____(1) 20-29
_____(2) 30-39
_____(3) 40-49
_____(4) 50-59
_____(5) 60 or older
3. Present marital status:
_____(1) Married
_____(2) Widow or widower
_____(3) Divorced
_____(4) Single
4. How many years have you lived in this school district?
_____(1) Less than 1 year
_____(2) 1 year - 5 years
_____(3) 6-9 years
_____(4) 10-19 years
_____(5) 20-29 years
_____(6) 30 or more years
5. How many years have you lived in your present home?
_____(1) Less than 1 year
_____(2) 1 year - 5 years
_____(3) 6-9 years
_____(4) 10-19 years
_____(5) 20-29 years
_____(6) 30 or more years
6. Previous residences (check the appropriate category)
_____(1) Texas, southern state or southwestern state
_____(2) Northern state, midwestern state or western state
_____(3) Southern and northern, western and midwestern state
7. Number of years of college education:
_____(1) 2-4 years
_____(2) 5-6 years
_____(3) 7-8 years
_____(4) 9-10 years

8. Highest degree earned:
 _____ 1) B.S.
 _____ (2) B.A.
 _____ (3) M.A. or M.S.
 _____ (4) M.Ed.
 _____ (5) Ph.D.
 _____ (6) Ed.D.
 _____ (7) Other
9. Name of college at which you earned your undergraduate degree:

10. At the time you received your undergraduate degree, this college or university was classified as:
 _____ (1) Integrated college or university in Texas
 _____ (2) Segregated, all Negro college or university in Texas or elsewhere
 _____ (3) Segregated, all white college or university in Texas or elsewhere
 _____ (4) Integrated college or university not in Texas
11. Name of college at which you earned your graduate degree:

12. At the time you received your graduate degree, this college or university was classified as:
 _____ (1) Integrated college or university in Texas
 _____ (2) Segregated, all Negro college or university in Texas or elsewhere
 _____ (3) Segregated, all white college or university in Texas or elsewhere
 _____ (4) Integrated college or university not in Texas
13. Place of birth:
 _____ (1) Texas
 _____ (2) State which is in the South or Southwestern U. S. but not in Texas
 _____ (3) Northern, Midwestern or Western state
 _____ (4) Foreign born
14. Do you own your residence?
 _____ (1) Yes
 _____ (2) No
15. Your position or title in the spring of 1969:
 _____ (1) Classroom teacher, elementary
 _____ (2) Classroom teacher, secondary
 _____ (3) Counselor
 _____ (4) National Teacher Corps Intern
 _____ (5) Librarian
 _____ (6) Principal or Assistant Principal
 _____ (7) Coach or physical education
 _____ (8) Other (specify) _____

35. What year did you receive your bachelor's degree? _____
36. How many years have you taught?
_____(1) Less than 1 year
_____(2) 1 year - 5 years
_____(3) 6-9 years
_____(4) 10-19 years
_____(5) 20-29 years
_____(6) 30 or more years
37. How many years have you taught in the present district?
_____(1) Less than 1 year
_____(2) 1 year - 5 years
_____(3) 6-9 years
_____(4) 10-19 years
_____(5) 20-29 years
_____(6) 30 or more years
38. How many years have you taught in a desegregated school? _____
39. How many years have you taught in the school to which you were assigned last spring? _____
40. Are you planning to teach in the fall of 1969?
_____(1) Yes
_____(2) No
41. If answer to question 40 is "yes," do you expect to be in the same school you were in during the spring of 1969?
_____(1) Yes
_____(2) No
42. If answer to 41 is "no," what were the major reasons for the change?

43. Do you have long range plans to continue in the education profession?
_____(1) Yes
_____(2) No

44. If answer to question 43 is "yes," in which category?
(Check one)
- _____ (1) Continue in teaching in public school
 _____ (2) Enter administration
 _____ (3) Become a specialist (e.g., reading, counselor)
 _____ (4) Higher education
45. How many students were in your class room or classes
last spring? (Approximately)
- Total number _____
 Number Negro _____
 Number white _____
 Number Latin American _____
 Other _____
46. How do you estimate the socio-economic level of your
pupils last spring?
- _____ (1) Upper class
 _____ (2) Upper-middle class
 _____ (3) Lower-middle class
 _____ (4) Lower class
47. Which applies to your principal last spring?
- _____ (1) Negro male
 _____ (2) Negro female
 _____ (3) White male
 _____ (4) White female
48. Have you had any in-service training concerning desegre-
gation or race relations in the schools?
- _____ (1) Yes
 _____ (2) No
49. If answer to question 48 is "yes," when?
- _____ (1) 1969
 _____ (2) 1968
 _____ (3) 1967
 _____ (4) 1966
 _____ (5) Other (specify) _____
50. If answer to question 48 is "yes," what kind?
- _____ (1) Sensitivity training
 _____ (2) Workshops on school integration
 _____ (3) Institutes on problems of school desegregation
 _____ (4) Other (specify) _____
-
-

51. Where was this in-service training taken?

_____ (1) Local school district facility

_____ (2) College or university campus (specify) _____

_____ (3) Other (specify) _____

52. Briefly, what do you see as being three of the most important goals or objectives of education?

(1) _____

(2) _____

(3) _____

SECTION II

Please read the descriptions (numbers 1 through 7) of different degrees of "closeness" which people might be willing to permit in their relations with members of particular groups. Now consider the groups of people listed below. Place a check (✓) under the number which most nearly represents the degree of closeness (as described, numbers 1 through 7) to which you would be willing to admit members of each group. Give your reactions to each group as a whole. Do not give your reaction to the best or the worst members that you have known.

DEGREES OF CLOSENESS

	Would admit to close kinship by marriage 1	Would admit to my club as personal chums 2	Would admit to my street as a neigh- bor 3	Would admit to the fa- culty of my school 4	Would admit to citizen- ship in my country 5	Would admit as visitors only to my country 6	Would exclude from my country 7
American Indians							
Jews							
Latin Americans							
Negroes							
White East Texans							

PART II: ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS

To answer the questions, choose the answer below which corresponds most closely with your personal opinion or attitude toward the particular question, and place a check mark (✓) in the space provided on the right.

SA = Strongly Agree - you hold a strong opinion

A = Agree - you hold a mild or moderate opinion

D = Disagree - you hold a mild or moderate opinion

SD = Strongly Disagree - you hold a strong opinion

SECTION I

IN THIS SECTION CONSIDER TEACHING AS A CAREER.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. Teaching gives me a chance to do the things at which I am best.				
2. I am making progress toward the goals I had set for myself in my teaching career.				
3. Teaching has not lived up to the expectancy I had before I entered it.				
4. If a young friend of mine asked me, I would advise him to enter the teaching field.				
5. To me the work I do as a teacher is dissatisfying.				
6. Teaching has many features that I dislike.				
7. Teachers are given adequate recognition when compared with other professionals.				
8. Teaching gives me ample opportunity to follow my leisure time interests.				

SECTION II

ANSWER ALL ITEMS IN THIS SECTION. CONSIDER HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT EACH.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. Ambitious describes most white children.				
2. Talkative describes most white children.				
3. Cooperative describes most white children.				
4. Rebellious describes most white children.				
5. Fun loving describes most white children.				
6. High brow describes most white children.				
7. Impetuous describes most white children.				
8. Outgoing describes most white children.				
9. Sophisticated describes most white children.				
10. Energetic describes most white children.				
11. Middle brow describes most white children.				
12. White children have more learning disabilities than Negro children.				
13. White children have a bad attitude toward school.				
14. White students are hard to discipline.				
15. If white pupils must be punished, physical punishment is best.				

	SA	A	D	SD
16. If white pupils must be punished, punishment <u>other than physical</u> is best.				
17. Lazy describes most white children.				
18. Happy describes most white children.				
19. High strung describes most white children.				
20. Moody describes most white children.				
21. Intellectual describes most white children.				
22. Ambitious describes most Negro children.				
23. Talkative describes most Negro children.				
24. Cooperative describes most Negro children.				
25. Rebellious describes most Negro children.				
26. Fun loving describes most Negro children.				
27. High brow describes most Negro children.				
28. Impetuous describes most Negro children.				
29. Outgoing describes most Negro children.				
30. Sophisticated describes most Negro children.				
31. Energetic describes most Negro children.				
32. Middle brow describes most Negro children.				

	SA	A	D	SD
33. Negro children have more learning disabilities than white children.				
34. Negro children have a bad attitude toward school.				
35. Negro students are hard to discipline.				
36. If Negro pupils must be punished, physical punishment is best.				
37. If Negro pupils must be punished, punishment <u>other than physical</u> is best.				
38. Lazy describes most Negro children.				
39. Happy describes most Negro children.				
40. High strung describes most Negro children.				
41. Moody describes most Negro children.				
42. Intellectual describes most Negro children.				

SECTION III

READ CAREFULLY:

- A. If you were married last spring, check here ____ and answer all items in this section.
- B. If you were engaged last spring, check here ____ and answer all items in this section as if you were married.
- C. If you were NOT married last spring, check here ____ and omit this section.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. I never communicate with my spouse.				
2. The opinions of my spouse are important to me.				
3. My spouse does not think that teaching is a good career for me.				
4. My spouse regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.				
5. My teaching assignment last spring caused friction between my spouse and me.				
6. My spouse's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me worry.				
7. Race relations were involved in our disagreements.				
8. My spouse's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
9. My spouse is prejudiced against the other race.				
10. Because of my spouse's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.				

SECTION IV

IN THIS SECTION CONSIDER YOUR PARENTAL RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR OWN CHILDREN (CHILD) WHO ARE 12 YEARS OF AGE OR OLDER. IF YOU HAVE NO CHILDREN 12 OR OVER, CHECK HERE _____ AND OMIT THIS SECTION.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. I never communicate with my older children (or child) over 12 years of age.				
2. The opinions of my older children (or child) over 12 years of age are important to me.				
3. These children (or child) regard teaching as an excellent career for me.				
4. These children regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.				
5. My teaching assignment last spring caused friction between these children and me.				
6. Race relations were involved in disagreements with these children.				
7. These children's attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.				
8. These children are prejudiced against the other race.				
9. These children's attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
10. Because of these children's attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.				

SECTION V

THIS SECTION REFERS TO YOUR CLASS IN THE SPRING OF 1969.
 IF YOU HAD NO NEGRO CHILDREN IN YOUR CLASS, CHECK HERE _____
 AND GO TO THE NEXT SECTION.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. Learning problems of Negro children caused me undue worry.				
2. I was frustrated to the point of anger by learning problems of Negro children.				
3. My Negro students had excellent attitudes toward academic activities.				
4. The attitude of my Negro students toward academic activities caused me undue worry.				
5. I was frustrated to the point of anger by the attitude of my Negro students toward academic work.				
6. My Negro students had excellent attitudes toward extra-curricular activities.				
7. Disciplining Negro children caused me undue worry.				
8. It was harder for me to discipline Negro students than white students.				
9. Disciplining Negro children frustrated me to the point of anger.				
10. The Negro children had a hostile attitude toward me.				
11. The attitude of the Negro pupils toward me caused me undue worry.				
12. I was frustrated to the point of anger by the attitude of the Negro students toward me.				

	SA	A	D	SD
13. Overall, my Negro students were difficult to teach.				
14. Because of problems with Negro students, I considered requesting a transfer.				
15. My Negro students were treated justly by the principal.				

SECTION VI

THIS SECTION REFERS TO YOUR CLASS IN THE SPRING OF 1969.
 IF YOU HAD NO WHITE CHILDREN IN YOUR CLASS, CHECK HERE _____
 AND GO TO THE NEXT SECTION.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. Learning problems of white children caused me undue worry.				
2. I was frustrated to the point of anger by learning problems of white children.				
3. My white students had excellent attitudes toward academic activities.				
4. The attitude of my white students toward academic activities caused me undue worry.				
5. I was frustrated to the point of anger by the attitude of my white students toward academic work.				
6. My white students had excellent attitudes toward extra-curricular activities.				
7. Disciplining white children caused me undue worry.				
8. It was harder for me to discipline white students than Negro students.				
9. Disciplining white children frustrated me to the point of anger.				
10. The white children had a hostile attitude toward me.				
11. The attitude of the white pupils toward me caused me undue worry.				
12. I was frustrated to the point of anger by the attitude of the white students toward me.				
13. Overall, my white students were difficult to teach.				

	SA	A	D	SD
14. Because of problems with white students, I considered requesting a transfer.				
15. My white students were treated justly by the principal.				

SECTION VII

IF YOUR FATHER IS NOT LIVING, CHECK HERE _____ AND GO TO THE NEXT SECTION.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. I never communicate with my father.				
2. The opinions of my father are important to me.				
3. My father regards teaching as an excellent career for me.				
4. My father regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.				
5. My teaching assignment last semester caused friction between my father and me.				
6. Race relations were involved in disagreements with my father.				
7. My father's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.				
8. My father is prejudiced against the other race.				
9. My father's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
10. Because of my father's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.				

SECTION VIII

IF YOUR MOTHER IS NOT LIVING, CHECK HERE _____ AND GO ON TO THE NEXT SECTION.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. I never communicate with my mother.				
2. The opinions of my mother are important to me.				
3. My mother regards teaching as an excellent career for me.				
4. My mother regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.				
5. My teaching assignment last semester caused friction between my mother and me.				
6. Race relations were involved in disagreements with my mother.				
7. My mother's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.				
8. My mother is prejudiced against the other race.				
9. My mother's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
10. Because of my mother's attitude toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.				

SECTION IX

IN THIS SECTION CONSIDER THE NEGRO TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL IN THE SPRING OF 1969. IF THERE WERE NO NEGRO TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL, CHECK HERE _____ AND GO TO THE NEXT SECTION.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. Negro teachers in my school rejected white people.				
2. The Negro teachers were people I liked.				
3. When problems between teachers involved race relations, the trouble was caused by Negro teachers.				
4. In settling problems, the Negro teachers usually took the initiative.				
5. The Negro teachers were willing to help me when I needed help.				
6. Negro teachers rejected me.				
7. Negro teachers were treated fairly by the principal.				

SECTION X

IN THIS SECTION CONSIDER THE WHITE TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL IN THE SPRING OF 1969. IF THERE WERE NO WHITE TEACHERS IN YOUR SCHOOL, CHECK HERE _____ AND GO TO THE NEXT SECTION.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. White teachers in my school rejected Negro people.				
2. The white teachers were people I liked.				
3. When problems between teachers involved race relations, the trouble was caused by white teachers.				
4. In settling problems, the white teachers usually took the initiative.				
5. The white teachers were willing to help me when I needed help.				
6. White teachers rejected me.				
7. White teachers were treated fairly by the principal.				

SECTION XI

IN THIS SECTION CONSIDER YOUR BROTHERS, SISTERS AND OTHER RELATIVES WHO ARE IMPORTANT TO YOU BESIDES SPOUSE, PARENTS AND CHILDREN OVER 12 YEARS OF AGE. IF YOU HAVE NONE OF THESE RELATIVES, CHECK HERE _____ AND GO TO THE NEXT SECTION.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. I never communicate with these relatives.				
2. The opinions of these relatives are important to me.				
3. These relatives regard teaching as an excellent career for me.				
4. These relatives regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.				
5. My teaching assignment last semester caused friction between these relatives and me.				
6. Race relations were involved in disagreements with these relatives.				
7. These relatives' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.				
8. These relatives are prejudiced against the other race.				
9. These relatives' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
10. Because of these relatives' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.				

SECTION XII

IN THIS SECTION CONSIDER YOUR FRIENDS AS A GROUP.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. I never communicate with my friends.				
2. The opinions of my friends are important to me.				
3. My friends regard teaching as an excellent career for me.				
4. My friends regarded my teaching assignment last spring as satisfactory.				
5. My teaching assignment last semester caused friction between my friends and me.				
6. Race relations were involved in disagreements with my friends.				
7. My friends' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me undue worry.				
8. Most of my friends are prejudiced against the other race.				
9. The attitudes of my friends toward my teaching in a desegregated situation caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
10. Because of my friends' attitudes toward my teaching in a desegregated situation, I considered requesting a transfer.				

SECTION XIII

IN THIS SECTION CONSIDER YOUR TEACHING ASSIGNMENT DURING
THE SPRING, 1969

	SA	A	D	SD
1. Problems associated with my job kept me awake at night.				
2. Once I had made a decision, I found myself worrying whether I had made the right decision.				
3. Desegregated teaching caused me more worry than segregated teaching.				
4. I was nervous about many parts of my teaching job.				
5. I "took my job home with me" in the sense that I thought about my job when I was doing other things.				
6. Desegregated teaching caused me more frustration than segregated teaching.				
7. I breathed a sigh of relief when I traveled away from my school.				
8. I worried about what an individual or group would do if I made a decision contrary to their wishes.				
9. Desegregated teaching caused me to consider requesting a transfer.				
10. I was satisfied with my job last spring when I compared it with other teaching jobs.				
11. I was happy with the progress I made toward the goals which I set for myself in this job.				
12. I was satisfied that the people of my community gave proper recognition to my work as a teacher.				
13. I was satisfied with my salary.				

	SA	A	D	SD
14. Teachers of my school last spring got along well with each other.				
15. I felt warmly accepted by my fellow teachers.				
16. My relationships with teachers caused me undue worry.				
17. Away from the school I socialize with members of the faculty.				
18. Race relations among teachers were strained.				
19. My relationships with teachers caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
20. When hard feelings arose between teachers, race relations were involved.				
21. In my personal relationships with teachers, race was a factor in problems that developed.				
22. Because of the teachers, I considered requesting a transfer.				
23. The overall job the principal did last spring was satisfactory.				
24. The principal treated teachers fairly.				
25. The principal was unfair toward students.				
26. The principal treated non-certified staff members unjustly.				
27. I personally felt warmly accepted by the principal.				
28. The relationship between the principal and me caused me undue worry.				
29. The principal is opposed to desegregation in schools.				

	SA	A	D	SD
30. The relationship between the principal and me caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
31. The principal has it "in for" people different from his race.				
32. I personally liked the principal.				
33. Because of the principal, I thought of requesting a transfer.				
34. The non-certificated personnel were people I disliked.				
35. My relationships with these staff members caused me undue worry.				
36. I felt accepted by the non-certified personnel.				
37. My relationships with non-certificated personnel caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
38. The non-certificated personnel was hostile toward my race.				
39. Because of the non-certificated personnel, I thought of requesting a transfer.				
40. Parents of my students were people I disliked.				
41. The parents of my pupils last spring showed adequate interest in their children's school careers.				
42. Lack of parental interest in students caused me undue worry.				
43. I agreed with the moral values of the parents.				
44. Lack of parental interest caused me frustration to the point of anger.				

	SA	A	D	SD
45. "Hostility toward my race" described the attitude of the parents of my students last spring.				
46. The moral values of these parents were hard for me to understand.				
47. These parents were doing an excellent job of child rearing.				
48. My relationships with these parents caused me undue worry.				
49. The parents felt that school was important.				
50. My relationships with parents often caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
51. Because of the parents, I considered requesting a transfer.				
52. The learning abilities of my class last spring were excellent.				
53. Schools should use physical punishment to discipline students.				
54. My personal relationships with the pupils last spring were excellent.				
55. Methods of discipline used at my school last spring were harsh.				
56. Methods of discipline used at my school last spring were too harsh.				
57. I had to spend very little time in disciplining my class last spring.				
58. The curriculum followed by my school district was suitable for my students' abilities.				
59. Last spring my class as a whole had a poor attitude toward school.				
60. The text books provided last spring met the academic needs of my students.				

	SA	A	D	SD
61. My status in my community is high because I am a teacher.				
62. The attitude of my community toward desegregated teaching caused me undue worry.				
63. My status in my community was lowered when I took an assignment in a desegregated situation.				
64. My community's attitude toward desegregated teaching caused me frustration to the point of anger.				
65. Because of the attitude of my community toward desegregated teaching, I thought of asking for a transfer.				
66. Generally speaking, I find desegregated teaching satisfying.				

SECTION XIV

IF YOU ARE NEGRO, COMPLETE THIS SECTION. IF YOU ARE WHITE,
CHECK HERE _____ AND GO TO THE NEXT SECTION.

1. Do you think you would ever find it a little distasteful:
(Check your answer)
 - a. To eat at the same table with a white person?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - b. To dance with a white person?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - c. To go to a party and find that most of the people
are white?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - d. To have a white person marry someone in your family?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
2. a. As you see it, are whites today demanding more than
they have a right to or not?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - b. If yes, does this make you:
 _____(1) Pretty angry.
 _____(2) A little angry.
 _____(3) You don't feel strongly about it.
3. a. Do you think whites today are trying to push in
where they are not wanted?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - b. If yes, does this bother you:
 _____(1) A great deal.
 _____(2) A little.
 _____(3) Hardly at all.
4. a. On the whole, would you say that you like or
dislike white people?
 _____(1) Like
 _____(2) Dislike

b. Are your feelings about whites:

- (1) Very strong.
- (2) Pretty strong.
- (3) Not so strong.
- (4) Not strong at all.

SECTION XV

IF YOU ARE WHITE, COMPLETE THIS SECTION. IF YOU ARE NEGRO,
CHECK HERE _____ AND GO TO THE NEXT SECTION.

1. Do you think you would ever find it a little distasteful:
(Check your answer)
 - a. To eat at the same table with a Negro person?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - b. To dance with a Negro person?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - c. To go to a party and find that most of the people
are Negro?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - d. To have a Negro person marry someone in your family?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
2. a. As you see it, are Negroes today demanding more than
they have a right to or not?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - b. If yes, does this make you:
 _____(1) Pretty angry.
 _____(2) A little angry.
 _____(3) You don't feel strongly about it.
3. a. Do you think Negroes today are trying to push in
where they are not wanted?
 _____(1) Yes
 _____(2) No
 - b. If yes, does this bother you:
 _____(1) A great deal.
 _____(2) A little.
 _____(3) Hardly at all.
4. a. On the whole, would you say that you like or
dislike Negro people?
 _____(1) Like
 _____(2) Dislike

b. Are your feelings about Negroes:

- (1) Very strong.
- (2) Pretty strong.
- (3) Not so strong.
- (4) Not strong at all.

SECTION XVI

IN THIS SECTION CONSIDER HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT EACH ITEM, AND INDICATE YOUR ANSWER IN THE SPACE PROVIDED AT RIGHT. ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS.

	SA	A	D	SD
1. The school system in Houston is better than average in this state.				
2. Anyone who wishes may become involved in many community activities in Houston.				
3. The leadership of the Houston School System is forward looking.				
4. The people of Houston are usually quick to respond when problems arise requiring action concerning the schools.				
5. Generally speaking Negro teachers in Houston are inferior to white teachers.				
6. People in Houston don't care enough about this community to do something about it.				
7. People in Houston give too little time to religious activities.				
8. Groups and organizations with different interests work together in Houston rather than fighting among themselves.				
9. Most school integration activities in Houston are carried on by people who are paid to do just that.				
10. When Houston schools are totally desegregated, Negro teachers will have more difficulty securing good positions.				
11. Most of the major changes taking place in Houston are for the best.				

	SA	A	D	SD
12. In order to achieve racial balance, it is a good idea to bus children across neighborhood boundaries.				
13. The concept "Black Power" is a good solution to a pressing social need of our time.				
14. This country would be better off if there were not so many foreigners here.				
15. Generally speaking, Negroes are lazy and ignorant.				
16. Although some Jews are honest, in general Jews are dishonest in their business dealings.				
17. Americans must be on guard against the power of the Catholic Church.				
18. Everyone in Houston can benefit from programs of community development.				
19. This community offers me as good a chance as I would like to enjoy life.				
20. A person like myself has little chance to get ahead in Houston.				
21. The chance for children to advance themselves in Houston is better than average.				
22. Opportunities for advancement in Houston are better than average.				
23. Leadership in Houston is in the hands of very few people.				
24. The leadership in Houston is forward looking.				
25. The leadership in Houston is not interested enough in providing jobs for its residents.				

	SA	A	D	SD
26. The leadership of Houston tends to withdraw from the most critical issues facing us.				
27. The leaders of Houston place too much emphasis on tradition.				
28. The next few years in Houston will be a period of greater racial harmony than in the last few years.				

APPENDIX C

INSTRUMENT VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY FORMULAS

Difficulty Level (P): the percentage of respondents who responded to the item correctly (positive endorsement) P is found using the formula below:

$$P = \frac{R}{T} \times 100$$

where R = the no. of respondents who got the item right

T = total no. of respondents to the item.

Discriminating Power or Validity Coefficient (D): the degree to which the scale discriminates between respondents with high and low scores. Positive discrimination indicates that the item is discriminating in the same direction as the total scale score.
 $0.0 \leq D \leq 1.00$
D is found using the formula below:

$$D = \frac{R_u - R_l}{1/2 T}$$

where R_u = No. of respondents in the upper group who got the item right

R_l = No. of respondents in the lower group who got the item right.

$1/2T$ = 1/2 of the total No. of respondents included in the analysis.

Coefficient of Internal Consistency or Reliability Coefficient (R): The Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 based on the proportion of respondents passing each item and the standard deviation of the total scale score is used to estimate the reliability of the scale. R is found using the formula below:

$$R(KR-20) = \frac{K}{(K-1)} \left[1 - \frac{pq}{S^2} \right]$$

where K = No. of items in the scale

p = difficulty level

a = 1.0 - p

S = standard deviation of scale scores

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