AN EXAMINATION OF ATTITUDES OF PROSPECTIVE

TEACHERS TOWARD VARIOUS NATIONAL

AND CULTURAL GROUPS

By

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people inspired the writer to evaluate her own attitudes toward others. Such introspection lighted the path to follow in developing this document. If this research endeavor inspires even one person to be more accepting of other human beings, the ultimate goal of this document shall be achieved.

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NOMENCLATURE

B   sample regression weight (slope)

β population beta weight, regression weight in standard score

         form

F   F test of statistical significance

n   number of subjects

p   probability level

R   multiple correlation coefficient

r   simple correlation coefficient

R^2 coefficient of determination, expresses proportion of variance

         of Y determined by X'_j

X_j independent variable

Y'   predicted, dependent variable (in this study = predicted attitude

         toward various national and cultural groups)

CHAPTER I

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Introduction

Currently, few would argue the strength and dominance that the United States plays in world affairs. This preeminent position has been largely equated with technology and the technological advancements that have taken place within the United States. The importance of technology is obvious while the term technology itself is often ambiguous. Essentially, technology is the application of knowledge to the achievement of goals or to the solving of particular problems (Moore, 1972).

Technology, in its advanced form, presents a paradoxical situation. Great accomplishments for human welfare are being achieved while simultaneously, poverty, hunger, war, authoritarian governments, apartheid, illiteracy, international terror, and nuclear weapons abound (Branson & Torney-Purta, 1982). Technology, at best, seems to be a mixed blessing.

In the process of achieving world leadership, the United States has survived depressions, recessions, war, conflict, internal struggles, and external pressures. The logical explanation for such survival undoubtedly involves adaptability.

The adaptability of a country in changing times is a complex process. Sociologists have long studied the various aspects of rapid social change and have proposed various theories on this process. One

sociologist in particular, William F. Ogburn, introduced the term "cultural lag" in 1922 to describe the fact that technological changes are incorporated into a culture more rapidly than are accompanying ideas and values (Durbin, 1980; Weinstein, 1982). More precisely, the lag occurs when a society is not ready to accommodate the technological progress it has made.

Leaps in technology inevitably call for massive social transformations not only on a national level, but on an individual level as well. Innovation mandates specialization. Already people have learned that their skills and training can quickly become obsolete without continual training, retraining, and the development of new skills. As a matter of survival, when a country evolves into a new technological era, citizens of a country must make adjustments on an individual scale, otherwise, the evolution of the country, as a whole, could be threatened.

Perhaps one of the greatest areas of change that technology presents is the national shift from an independent position to an interdependent position. Advancing technology implicitly calls for such a transformation ("Building Self Concept," 1976). As a case in point, Ambrose (1984) traces the development of America's increasingly interdependent position as he examines the history of the United States from pre-World War II to the present. He indicates that the United States was extremely self-sufficient in terms of energy resources, steel production, and agriculture before World War II. With the complex economy and cheap sources of energy following the war, Americans (citizens of the United States) became increasingly dependent on international sources. As an example, prior to World War II, the United States was the biggest exporter of oil in the world but only forty years

later, was the biggest importer of oil in the world. With the Arab oil embargo, American foreign policy took on a new perspective. The shift of importance to international relations was further maneuvered as Americans discovered an abundance of raw materials in places such as Africa and South America. In conclusion, Ambrose (1984) states:

> This shift emphasized the fundamentally changed nature of the American economy, from self-sufficiency to increasing dependency on others for basic supplies. As America entered the 1980s she was richer and more powerful - and more vulnerable - than at any time in her history (p. 21).

Similarly, Americans are affected by international affairs simply by the large number of noncitizens working or visiting in the United States. Klassen and Leavitt (1982) cite statistics from the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Office of Public Information which verify that from October, 1978 to September, 1979, the United States allowed an excess of 460,000 legal immigrants to have work permits and 80,000 others to have temporary work permits. Further, the United States hosted over seven million international visitors within the same time period. Obviously, the United States is not suffering from either cultural or national isolation.

Kinghorn (1979) indicates other ways that Americans are affected by international affairs. He reports:

> The United States imports almost half of its petroleum.
>
> The United States cultivates every third acre for export.
>
> The United States' every sixth job depends on international trade.
>
> The United States has the world's fourth largest Spanish speaking population (p. vi 7).

These findings strongly suggest that interdependence of nations is no longer an idea of the future. Interdependence of nations seems to be an indisputable fact which the United States has just discovered, that accompanies advanced technology. Conceptually though, the United States is in a state of cultural lag. As was noted earlier, a cultural lag occurs when a society is not ready to accommodate the technological progress it has made. The United States could currently be considered to be in a state of cultural lag because Americans' values have not evolved to meet the needs of an interdependent role. Essentially, in order for the United States to become successfully and effectively interdependent with other nations, it is crucial that the United States become better educated about other nations and develop more accepting attitudes toward people outside of the United States ("Building Self Concept," 1976; Condon, 1973; Kagitcibasi, 1978; Kinghorn, 1979; Klassen & Leavitt, 1982). Without such modifications, the strength and survival of the country is at stake.

To reduce the cultural lag relative to the demands of the technological age, it is imperative to direct efforts toward educating Americans about other nations and their citizens. Similarly, efforts need to be directed toward developing enhanced attitudes toward different countries, different people, different cultures, and different ways of life.

Even though this endeavor is of critical significance, one can quickly realize that education and the altering of attitudes is not an easy task. As for attitudes, Davis and Fine (1975) point out that the United States has a bleak history of racial conflict. Katz and Ivey (1977) cite data which suggest that racism is the number one mental

health problem in the United States. As for education about other nations and other people, it seems that American schools are not stressing knowledge of such matters. As a case in point, Klassen and Leavitt (1982) indicate that even though Americans are in some manner affected by world events, their knowledge of global affairs and other people "is embarrassingly limited ..." (p. v-7). Likewise, Kinghorn (1979) reports the following:

> Barely five percent of the teachers preparing
> nationally for positions from kindergarten through
> twelfth grade levels have any exposure at all to
> international studies or training;

> American students come out next to last on inter-
> national surveys about international institutions
> and processes;

> Only three percent of all undergraduate students or
> less than one percent of all college age people in
> the United States enroll in any course dealing par-
> ticularly with world affairs (p. vi7).

These findings suggest that the education and the altering of attitudes is a massive task. It is a task that must be put into full motion, however, to rectify the cultural lag that exists in the United States. On a positive note, transition is seldom easy but is seldom impossible. This is certainly the case with education. Already multicultural concerns have started to receive growing attention in the educational setting. The cases of Diana v. the State Board of Education in California (1970), Larry P. v. Riles (1972), and Lau v. Nichols (1974) served to highlight multicultural concerns. The massive Public Law 94-142 (1975) reflected prior legal precedents of multiculturalism by incorporating a variety of components such as nondiscriminatory assessment and due process to ensure a free and

appropriate education for all handicapped students including the culturally-different students.

Education is but one aspect necessary for change. The attitudes of educators is another aspect. There is research which indicates that negative attitudes can be changed in a favorable manner (Katz & Ivey, 1977; Litcher, Johnson, & Ryan, 1973). Research also finds that discrimination and negative attitudes are common place in the classroom in regard to culturally different students (Austin, 1978; Sedlacek & Brooks, 1973; Shoop & Eads, 1977; Zucker & Prieto, 1977).

The Problem

Of the two issues, education about, and the altering of attitudes toward various national and cultural groups, it seems that the latter has received less emphasis. This may be because attitudes are a complex phenomenon. Attitudes are difficult to describe and perhaps more difficult to measure. Nonetheless, the enhancement of attitudes toward various national groups seems critical to reducing the cultural lag in the United States. Consequently, the problem of this investigation was to examine the attitudes that teachers in training hold of various national groups. This population was selected because teachers play a critical role in the United States. With compulsory education laws, teachers and schools have the opportunity to influence the entire future generation. The schools play a critical role in the development of attitudes as "all values and attitudes are learned through contact with other people who act as agents in the communication of these beliefs" (Condon, 1973, p. 10). The school and its teachers are, of course, one of the primary agents in this process.

The Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes of teachers in training. The study was designed to determine and evaluate the various components which constitute attitudes of national groups. As attitudes are highly complex, it was decided that instead of attempting to alter attitudes, it was first necessary to determine the factors that attitudes entail. This seems to be an oversight in the literature on attitudes at the current time. Chapter Two will illustrate that attitude altering investigations have yielded mixed findings. Given this situation, it seemed logical to discover what constitutes an attitude prior to attempting to alter it. This was precisely the intent of this investigation.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

Leaps in technology call for accompanying social transformations.
With advancing technology, nations are placed in an increasingly
interdependent role. To become effectively interdependent with other
nations, there is a need for enhanced attitudes of other nations and
other people. Chapter Two is designed to document the various processes
and factors involved in the history of attitude formation, maintenance,
and change.

More specifically, Chapter Two is divided into five major sections.
First, an historical overview is provided to illustrate America's
relations with, and treatment of, various national groups primarily from
an intracountry perspective. The second section begins by discussing the
difficulties that are associated with investigating attitudes. The
remainder of the section is devoted to documenting the attitudes that
Americans have held of various national and cultural groups. The third
section illustrates the various attitude-alteration strategies that have
been investigated. This section begins with information that research-
ers have utilized as justification to alter attitudes. In the fourth
section, emphasis is directed toward establishing the critical factors
which constitute attitudes toward various national and cultural groups.
The chapter is concluded with an overall summary and subsequent hypoth-
eses.

Historical Overview

As this study relates to the attitudes that Americans hold of different cultural and national groups, it was critical to briefly examine the role that these types of attitudes have played in the history of the United States. To begin, the United States has a distinguished foundation in that it was built on the premise of equality and freedom. People from all corners of the world came to America for the life and liberty that was promised. Everyone brought with them a way of life distinct and different. Through the process of time, differences became less pronounced and the United States established itself as a country united and strong. In a mere few centuries, the land of the immigrants was transformed into a world-leading nation.

The unity of the United States was inevitably lacking in its formative years. The struggle between various immigrants perhaps began when they arrived in America in that many of the immigrants came to America in order to exercise religious freedom as well as to become economically stable. Even though there was no established church, the early religious precedent was of the Protestant persuasion (Kleg, Rice, & Bailey, 1970). This set forth a situation where Catholics were barely tolerated and other non-Protestant groups fared even worse. For example, the "Mormons were hounded from one state to another, until they finally moved to the isolation of the Great Salt Valley where they could practice their own faith in peace" (Kleg et al., 1970, p. 122).

One common, perhaps binding factor that the immigrants had when they arrived in America was their views and treatment of the natives of the land. Levin (1975) cites data which reflects that American Indians

lost homes, property, and often life. Levin (1975) also considered the attitudes of the immigrants in regard to the American Indians. Essentially, the immigrants tended to regard the American Indians in a positive reference as long as their skills and assistance were needed. When campaigns were initiated to secure land from the Indians, attitudes changed in a negative manner resulting in bloodshed and discrimination.

Such discriminatory practices were not limited to the Indians. In the 1600s, the immigrants first brought slaves to the colonies (Davis & Fine, 1975). On the basis of skin color, notably Black, people became property and were bought and sold much the same as work horses. Even though the slaves were eventually freed by the Emancipation Proclamation, violence and bloodshed have accompanied the struggle for rights and liberties for Black Americans.

Other groups of people have also been subjected to discriminatory practices. For example, within the one state of California, Spanish-Mexicans, Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos, and Mexican Americans were victims of inequitable circumstances (Daniels and Kilano, 1970). The Spanish-Mexicans and Mexicans became second-class citizens as a result of discriminatory legislation. The Chinese became victims of robbery, physical abuse, and even murder when they became economically competitive. The Japanese were regarded as the greatest threat to white supremacy and were consequently treated as a threat. Similiarly, the Filipinos similarly were victims of exploitation and violence even though technically they should have received full rights in that the Philippines were controlled by the United States at that time.

As these few events illustrate, xenophobia (fear of foreigners) and discriminatory acts toward members of the non-dominant group have played

a dark role in the internal history of a country established on a framework of equality and freedom for all. To counterbalance the trend of discrimination on the homefront, one might look at the world at large and see that the United States and allies fought against one of the most reportedly fascist leaders of all time in World War II. Hitler came to power and taught the world the meaning of discrimination. Within a few years, millions of Jews and other "societal misfits" were systematically eliminated because they were not members of Hitler's superior Aryan race.

Ironically, the United States fought against such atrocities abroad while at home, relocation camps for 112,000 Japanese Americans were developed (Daniels & Kitano, 1970). In the land of the free, people were put into bondage on the basis of their national origin. Similarly, in 1946 the General Assembly of the United Nations passed a resolution declaring genocide a crime falling under international law. According to Daniels and Kitano (1970), twenty nations signed the resolution and it was ratified in 1951. The United States did not sign the resolution.

In conclusion, it is obvious that discriminatory acts toward various groups of people have occured in the United States; however, as the United States has grown and evolved, it has become clearer that discrimination and prejudice are detrimental to a society. In an advanced technological era where interdependence of nations is mandated, there is an even a greater need for mutual cooperation and respect among various national groups. As Levin (1975) indicated, the early immigrants tended to regard the Indians in a positive reference as long as their skills and assistance were needed. In a nationally inter-dependent position, Americans need similar assistance except on a larger scale from various other national groups. Such reliance necessitates

harmonious attitudes. In order to develop harmonious attitudes, how-
ever, it is first necessary to examine the attitudes that exist,
evaluate attempts to alter attitudes, and explore the various factors
which influence attitudes.

Attitudes That Americans Hold

Difficulties in Exploring Attitudes

What are the attitudes that Americans hold of various national
groups? The question does not lend itself to an easy answer. In
attempt to analyze and document a complex phenomenon such as attitudes,
researchers have encountered a variety of methodological difficulties.

Researchers have defined attitudes in various manners. Some
suggest that attitudes are three dimensional consisting of beliefs,
emotions, and behaviors (Cooke, 1978; Jackman, 1977). Others (e.g.,
Richards & Gamache, 1979) contend that attitudes exist on a viewpoint
continuum. Bank, Biddle, Keats, and Keats (1977) indicate that the
concept of attitudes often incorporates normative, preferential, and
belief components. The result of varied definitions often results in
confusion. As Bank et al. (1977) indicate the end result of such
ambiguity related to attitude research is often weakened research
endeavors.

Another problematic area lies in the selection of an attitude
assessment instrument. It seems that any scale attempting to measure
an abstract concept will inevitably face criticism and scrunity. As
a case in point, multidimensional scales are often regarded as confu-
sing while unidimensional scales are criticized for failing to provide

multidimensional information (Payne, 1976). Moreover, researchers often have difficulty in determining whether a scale is unidimensional or multidimensional. For example, Ames and Sakuma (1969) investigated the Bogardus Social Distance Scale which is a widely used, highly influential attitude scale. After a rigorous examination, they concluded that the scale was unidimensional within clusters. The declaration of unidimensionality has been met with mixed reactions. Payne (1976) criticizes the scale for being unidimensional while others such as Cooke (1978) indicate that the Bogardus Social Distance Scale measures the behavioral dimension of an attitude and is consequently more useful a tool than tests which measure different aspects of attitudes.

Another problem that frequently emerges in investigations of attitudes toward various groups is the question of race. Race presents itself as a confounding variable in studies where racial attitudes are not the primary focus. As an example, in studies which focus on cultural differences, the reader is often unsure whether the differences in attitudes are reflective of cultural differences or racial differences. A number of resolutions to this paradoxical situation are possible. In examining the attitudes of educators, for example, one notes that a bulk of the literature is devoted to the investigation of racial relations in the school system. Racial factors can obviously be the major focus. Researchers who do not choose to make racial factors the major focus are caught in a less easily resolved situation. In these conditions, it seems that the researchers tend to view race as a source of distinction among people. If the focus is to examine the

attitudes toward people who are viewed as distinct and different, race simply seems to be an ingredient of the overall distinction.

The Findings of Attitude Research

Despite difficulties inherent in the investigation on attitudes, continued studies have been made. In many instances, researchers have simply analyzed the trends of attitudes toward various groups through evaluating stereotypes portrayed in the media and by having people select adjectives to describe different groups from a prepared list. Relying on such methods to evaluate attitudes, Sue and Kitano (1973) report that attitudes of Americans toward both the Chinese and Japanese have gone from negative to extremely positive.

Using a similar method of investigation, Maykovich (1971) notes some interesting trends in attitudes that have occured in the United States. Maykovich reports that:

> . . . in the earlier years (1932) there was a greater stereotypy which tended to support white superiority and ethnocentrism. By 1950 the students' ideas about racial images had become much more diversified and less stereotypical, possibly because of the growing influence of social science and the changing ideology from white conformity to cultural pluralism. Since the mid-'60's civil rights movements began to take a different direction. The minority groups came to realize the importance of self-realization, rather than accommodate to the White society. Along with the emergence of Black Power and Yellow Power, there is a tendency toward reverse racism. Supporters of the 'black is beautiful' movements seem to re-emphasize racial distinctions which might have become blurred between 1932 and 1950 (p. 384).

One factor lacking in studies which rely on evaluating stereotypes through the media and other such means is methodological standardization. The lack of such standardization often results in confusion. A more

systematic overview of the attitudes that Americans hold of various racial, ethnic, and national groups comes from Bogardus' series of studies. As previously mentioned, Emory S. Bogardus developed a scale in 1925 to measure social distance relative to a large number of racial, ethnic, and national groups (Bogardus, 1925). Bogardus (1925) indicates that social distance refers to personal willingness to recognize, live near, or be associated with people from these different groups. The Bogardus Social Distance Scale was first validated in 1926 with 1,725 American participants. In 1946, 1,950 Americans participated in a second major study. In 1956, 2,053 Americans participated in a third major study. In 1966, 2,605 Americans participated in a fourth major study. All of these studies were conducted and discussed by Emory Bogardus (1967) using the original scale for the 1926 study and the revised scale (1933) for the later studies. The participants were primarily college students from schools throughout the United States and they were predominately from the middle class falling in an age range from 19-26 (Bogardus, 1967).

The death of Emory Bogardus in 1973 did not break the flow of investigations. Owen, Eisner, and McFaul (1981) continued the tradition of research that Bogardus began in 1926. Listed below in Table I are the findings of Bogardus and Owen et al. (Owen et al., 1981). It should be noted that the scores are mean scores with higher numbers indicating less willingness to associate with that group.

As the data in Table I illustrate, attitudes, as measured by social distance, are not reflective of a uniform pattern of attitude change. Attitudes toward some groups have changed very little over the years. Attitudes toward several groups have become less favorable while

TABLE I

SPREAD AND DECREASES IN SCORES OVER
FIVE DECADES

Ethnic Groups	1926	1946	1956	1966	1977
Armenians	2.06	2.29	2.33	2.18	2.20
Americans	1.10	1.04	2.33	1.07	1.25
Canadians	1.13	1.11	1.16	1.15	1.42
Chinese	3.36	2.50	2.68	2.34	2.29
Czechs	2.08	1.76	2.22	2.08	2.23
English	1.06	1.13	1.23	1.14	1.39
Filipinos	3.00	2.76	2.46	2.31	2.31
Finns	1.83	1.63	1.80	1.67	2.00
French	1.32	1.31	1.47	1.36	1.58
Germans	1.46	1.59	1.61	1.54	1.87
Greeks	2.47	2.29	2.09	1.82	2.02
Hollanders	1.56	1.37	1.63	1.54	1.82
Indians (American)	2.38	2.45	2.35	2.12	1.84
Indians (India)	3.91	3.43	2.80	2.62	2.55
Irish	1.30	1.24	1.56	1.40	1.69
Italians	1.94	2.28	1.89	1.51	1.65
Japanese	2.80	3.61	2.70	2.41	2.38
Japanese-Americans	----	2.90	2.34	2.14	2.18
Jews	2.39	2.32	2.15	1.97	2.01
Koreans	3.60	3.05	2.83	2.51	2.63
Mexicans	2.69	2.89	2.79	2.56	2.40

TABLE I (Continued)

Ethnic Groups	1926	1946	1956	1966	1977
Mexican-Americans	----	2.52	2.51	2.37	2.17
Negroes	3.28	3.60	2.74	2.56	2.03
Norwegians	1.59	1.35	1.66	1.50	1.93
Poles	2.01	1.84	2.07	1.98	2.11
Russians	1.88	1.83	2.56	2.38	2.57
Scots	1.13	1.26	1.06	1.53	1.83
Spanish	1.72	1.94	2.08	1.93	1.98
Swedish	1.54	1.40	1.57	1.42	1.68
Turks	3.30	2.89	2.52	2.48	2.55
Overall	2.14	2.12	2.08	1.92	1.93
Spread	2.85	2.57	1.75	1.55	1.38
Decrease in Spread	----	.28	.82	.20	.17

attitudes toward several other groups have become more favorable. For many of the groups, attitudes have varied considerably from one study to the next.

Bogardus (1958) suggested that such fluctuation may well be the result of various significant global events. As an example, the attitudes toward the Japanese were less accepting in 1946 than at any other time that the attitudes were evaluated. Bogardus (1958) suggested that the attitudes were considerably lower at that time because of the preceding attack on Pearl Harbor and the war. Following the defeat of Japan and the subsequent shift toward democracy, attitudes toward the Japanese improved as is evidenced by the 1956 study. Likewise, Bogardus (1958) discussed other major discrepancies of attitudes in a similar manner. Franco, Mussolini, Hitler, and the events of history associated with these men seemed to effect Americans' attitudes toward various national groups such as the Germans, Spanish, and Italians. On a different note, war-time friends became more accepted in terms of attitudes during certain critical times as was the case with the Filipinos and the Chinese. Bogardus (1958) further suggests that the decrease in acceptance in some groups, such as the Russians and the Czechs resulted from the tendency to view these groups more favorably when they were allies and less favorably after World War II because of their communist forms of government.

Perhaps what is most critical to note from these series of studies are the overall changes. From 1926 to 1977, the overall mean rating decreased from 2.14 to 1.93. Likewise, the spread went from 2.85 to 1.38. These changes indicate that attitudes, in terms of social distance, have changed over the years in an overall favorable manner

relative to the different groups. Likewise, the variation of responses in attitudes toward various groups has become less pronounced over the years.

It seems apparent that in investigating attitudes, researchers are faced with a number of obstacles beginning with the defining of the term "attitude". Selecting an instrument to measure attitudes is not an easy task. Often, selection of a scale or an investigatory technique tends to be somewhat dependent upon the type of attitude that is to be studied rather than the dimensions that the scale may reflect. However, as was noted in the second part of this section, the properties of a scale or the investigatory techniques are important considerations in that the consequent results are contingent upon them. As compared with other techniques, for example, Bogardus' series of studies reflected a systematic overview of attitudes which document that, in general, Americans' attitudes of various national and cultural groups have quantitatively improved over the years. His series of studies also provide a point of reference to examine further attitude change. It would seem that in order to adequately explore the effectiveness of attitude-change techniques and the components of attitudes that a systematic measurement technique is essential.

Attitude Alteration Strategies

Should Attitudes Be Changed?

In reviewing the literature on attitudes toward various racial, ethnic, and national groups, it is quickly realized that researchers are not always content with investigating patterns of attitudes. A great

deal of work has been done on the exploration of whether attitudes should be altered.

In the educational setting, researchers have found ample justification to favor the implementation of attitude alteration strategies. Such is the case with the work by Shoop and Ead (1977) who call for universities to instigate attitude training programs to assist teachers because they found that pre-service teachers tend to see Black Americans less favorably relative to other groups. Moreover, their results indicated that the holding of negative attitudes was more likely to result in differential treatment for the students. Similarly, Austin (1978) recommended that various assistance measures be implemented for teachers because it was found that teachers were predisposed toward cultural pluralism rather than cultural assimilation. It was further reported that teachers who had participated in programs related to multicultural needs increased their understanding and their ability to relate to the needs of ethnic minority students.

Descriptive statistics are frequently reported in attitude studies in the school systems as a means of justifying the attempt to alter attitudes. Zucker and Prieto (1977) report the following from a survey by Jackson and Cosca in 1974:

> . . . teachers praised or encouraged whites 35% more, and directed 21% more questions to whites than they did to Mexican-Americans (p. 2).

The results of this survey led Zucker and Prieto (1977) to investigate whether a student's sex or race biased recommendations for special educational placement. They found that regardless of sex, teachers

were more likely to see special educational placement appropriate for

Mexican-American children than for white children.

Sedlacek and Brooks (1973) gathered similar type of data which

provided documentation justifying attitude alteration strategies in

American schools. Included were the following:

A. Elementary and Secondary Level

  1. Segregated system with blacks in pockets, resulting
     in fewer facilities, fewer teachers, and less money
     spent per pupil on black students.

  2. Because supervisors are less prepared and perhaps
     less comfortable in dealing with teachers and
     problems in primarily black schools, fewer visits
     may be made to these schools.

  3. Few blacks in supervisor or central staff positions.

  4. Most parts of the school curricula are oriented
     toward white-middle-class children.

B. Higher Education

  1. Biased admissions standards resulting in fewer black
     students.

  2. Lower expectations of black student performance by
     faculty.

  3. Counselors not knowledgeable of minority student
     problems and concerns.

  4. Programs related to minorities tend to be under-
     staffed and underfunded (p. 5).

Sedlacek (1976) reports further data which lend credibility to attitude

alterations in the schools:

> Curriculum materials more relevant to blacks and
> other minorities are available, but are used
> relatively little by teachers.

> Most county teachers have little or no preparation
> for teaching black students or in presenting
> material more relevant to them.

Lack of funds and manpower committed by county
schools to work on race relations (p. 7).

Consequently, there are many reasons why researchers wish to alter
attitudes. Perhaps, the underlying reason simply rests of the basic
premise that attitudes often are manifested in overt acts. The effects
of such manifestations are quite critical. Hedman and Magoon (1977)
address the issue quite succinctly by indicating that the effects of
discrimination are a steady lessening of motivation, self-esteem, and
achievement as students continue through school.

It is also of importance to note that often the desire to alter
attitudes is for the sake of parents as well as students. Sperry (1972)
indicates that tensions can run high when parents and/or children from
a minority group feel that the teacher is neither understanding nor
concerned about them. Given these various finding, it seems apparent
that researchers are indeed justified in attempting to alter attitudes.
Simply, attitudes are often expressed in overt actions.

Can Attitudes Be Changed?

The forgoing discussion directs attention to an important consi-
deration -- What actually can be done to enhance the attitudes of
Americans toward various racial, ethnic, and national groups? Have
researchers been able to demonstrate that attitudes can actually be
altered? These questions, unfortunately, are not easily answered.
Various techniques have been employed by researchers exploring attitude
change and the results have been mixed. As was noted earlier, re-
searchers define attitudes in varying manners, and methodological
considerations can greatly affect the outcome of any study. These

issues inherently play a role in attitude studies investigating attitude change. Moreover, in attitude change studies, there are even more inherent difficulties. For example, what constitutes a significant change? Bogardus' series of studies (Bogardus, 1967) reflected one very important point -- attitudes change gradually. His studies were decades apart and even then, attitudes did not seem to change drastically.

Given all of the complexities and difficulties associated with attitude research, it is of little surprise that attitude alteration studies have yielded mixed findings. It also should not be surprising that most research on attitude change tends to focus on a particular group rather than incorporating a large array of groups. The inclusion of many groups in one study serves to further complicate an already complex task.

On a similar note, researchers have tended to be less interested in investigating children's attitudes than adult's attitudes. Katz and Zalk (1978) comment on the lack of such efforts and suggest a number of possible explanations for why researchers have not addressed the issue of reducing prejudice in children in a more comprehensive manner. They indicate that often theoretical orientation does not lend itself to change techniques in an experimental manner. Another explanation they provide reflects the problem of attitude assessment instruments. Methodological problems seem to be inherent in many instruments while other instruments have been regarded as offensive to both students and school officials.

Despite difficulties, researchers have attempted to devise intervention strategies to modify attitudes toward various groups. One

study (Scarboro, 1980) was conducted to examine attitudes toward a large number of groups. The researcher was interested in the effects that a sociology course in human relations had on college students' attitudes toward members of various groups. Utilizing control measures, a variation of the Bogardus Social Distance Scale was employed to measure attitude change. It was concluded that the course produced improved attitudes, in terms of social distance, toward the various groups.

Another effective approach by Hull (1972) involved a cross-cultural sensitivity group experience. It was found that American students developed a significant increase in world-mindedness after participating in a sensitivity group experience that included students from other cultures. To check for lasting effects of the experience, a follow-up procedure was employed, and it was found that attitude change was maintained five weeks following the weekend sensitivity experience. The study had a number of control procedures that yielded interesting findings. Attitude change was not found in either a control group or a group composed of only Americans.

Various training programs have also been shown to be effective in altering attitudes. Ijaz (1981) was interested in Canadian fifth and sixth-graders' attitudes toward the East Indian. By implementing a cultural program which focused on the folk dance, music, and crafts of East India, attitudes of white students toward East Indians significantly improved. The effects of this program were maintained when investigated after three months.

Similarly, Katz (1976) researched the impact of a systematic training program designed to alter racist attitudes and behaviors in

white people. The emphasis of the program was to help white people
develop an affective and cognitive understanding of racism. The re-
sults of the study found that the training program did change the
racist attitudes and behaviors of white people with the change being
maintained over time.

Effective attitude-alteration procedures have also been documented
by researchers employing a behavioristic orientation. Parish and
Fleetwood (1975) investigated whether associating the color black
with positively evaluated words would enhance attitudes toward Afro-
Americans by Euro-American kindergarten children. They found that
attitudes became increasingly more favorable as the number of condi-
tioning trials increased. Using a similar line of investigation,
Primac (1980) utilized a verbal operant conditioning procedure to
investigate the reduction of prejudice of white southern student
nurses toward Blacks. With the reinforcement of "good" for favorable
adjectives used to describe pictures of black persons, it was found
that there was a decrease in negative adjectives and an increase in
positive adjectives. Importantly, it was indicated that this process
could be accomplished in a short period of time.

As might be expected, not all researchers have found such clearly
effective strategies to alter attitudes. Many have had to report
mixed findings. Parish, Shirazi, and Lambert (1976) investigated
whether a conditioning technique where slides of Vietnamese and Afro-
Americans were paired with the presentation of positively evaluated
words would modify attitudes toward these two groups in a favorable
manner. They found a significant increase in favorable attitudes for
the Vietnamese but not for the Afro-Americans. It was suggested that

Euro-American children's attitudes toward Afro-Americans were too strong to be altered by a single sessions of conditioning trials.

Fauth (1973) also obtained mixed results in investigating the change in attitude and behavior of teachers during a human relations laboratory training experience. It was found that the laboratory experience was successful in developing a positive change in attitudes of racial prejudice, self-others acceptance, and self-perception of classroom teaching behavior. It was also found that the laboratory experience was not effective in producing a significant observed change in classroom teaching behavior.

Contrary to these results, still other researchers have reported attitude-intervention strategies which were not effective in altering attitudes. Such is the case with Amodeo and Martin (1982) when they examined the effects of a graduate multicultural education course of both elementary and secondary teachers. In this study, various techniques were utilized such as discussions, films, role-playing, and observation and analysis of non-verbal behavior. It was found that all groups increased in ethnic knowledge but there were no main effect differences in the performance on the cultural attitude test from pre-test to post-test. The results suggested that a six-week course was not long enough in duration to influence attitudes in a significant manner.

Renneker (1977) was also unable to report significant finding in his study on the effects to two types of simulation games as a means to modify attitudes. His insignificant results suggested that more than a single role-playing exercise may be required to significantly change attitudes.

Similarly, Litcher et al. (1973) explored the effects that pictures, portraying multiethnic interaction, had in changing attitudes of white children toward black children. Their results indicated that in terms of firmly held racial attitudes, multiethnic pictures alone seem inadequate to alter attitudes.

Researchers have addressed the ethical question of whether attitudes should be altered. In other words, do researchers have justification for altering attitudes? Investigations of this question have yielded documentation of equivocal circumstances with regards to attitudes. Consequently, researchers have seemingly been justified in their attempts to alter attitudes toward various groups in a favorable manner.

A wide array of attitude-altering techniques have been studied and the effectiveness of such techniques are varied. As was noted previously, this should not be surprising given the complexity of attitudes and attitude research in general. In an overview though, it seems that researchers who have implicitly noted the complexity of attitudes have met with greater success in yielding clearer, and often more defensable results in attempting to alter attitudes. Such researchers often study the effects of attitude modification in isolation. When multiple attitude-modification measures are employed, information on the interactive effects are ambiguous. When change occurs, the results are often unexplainable except in general terms. However, there is also a dilemma in investigating only main effects since attitudes are inevitably too complex to be accounted for by an isolated approach. Attitudes are inherently subject to influence from any number of variables. Obviously, the altering of attitudes may be

justifiable but as Litcher et al. (1973) suggest, when attitudes are strongly held, changing them is not an easy task.

Factors Related to Attitudes

It may seem that attitude change strategies are categorically independent of factors related to attitudes. Actually though, the two are closely intertwined. Quite often, attitude-alteration investigations provide more insight into the factors involved in the maintenance of attitudes than on the strategies designed to alter attitudes. Such is the case with the classical research by Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, and Sherif (1954). In this investigation, it was found that people in a group situation who desire to maintain group membership tend to be influenced by the attitudes of other members of the group.

Inevitably, there exists many theories and studies which provide insight into the factors and patterns of attitudes and attitude change. Unfortunately, many of the classical studies which provided so much information lacked scientific rigor. For example, Insko (1967) reviewed twelve major theories on attitude change. Included in his review alone were theories on reinforcement, assimilation-contrast, adaptation level, logical-affective consistency, congruity, belief congruence, balance, affective-cognitive consistency, dissonance, psychoanalytic, inoculation, and type theories. In the summative evaluation of all of these different theories listed above, it was noted that methodological rigor was a major problem area. In fact, Insko (1967) concluded that the theories he reviewed represented a primitive foundation from which more sophisticated analyses could be conducted.

Consequently, in reading the various presentations of theories, one must question whether the researcher is merely developing hypotheses from observational types of data. Obviously, observational research is the forerunner of more sophisticated types of research. Observational research is critical in that it provides a foundation indicating whether an issue or a condition merits further analysis. In examining the vast body of literature on attitudes and attitude change, one notes that it was perhaps not until the late 1960s that researchers began to do more sophisticated types of analyses in the field of attitude research.

Given this situation, it is methodologically more advantageous to examine the factors and trends that have been reported primarily within the years following observational hypothesizing. The remainder of this section is consequently devoted to reporting the factors that have been established largely through advanced research techniques. The factors found to be of most significance were: social class, gender, cognitive advancement, and beliefs of various natures.

Social Class: Landis, Datwyler, and Dorn (1966) tested a hypothesis proposed by Gordon in 1958 that social class is more important than ethnic group affiliation in determining cultural behavior. Using a modified version of the Bogardus Social Distance Scale, Landis, et al. (1966) statistically tested Gordon's hypothesis and found social class affiliation more important than ethnic group affiliation in determining cultural behavior. Similarly, Daly (1975) investigated whether there existed an attitude difference between middle and lower class pre-service teachers toward minority and national

groups. Using the <u>Bogardus Social Distance Scale,</u> it was found that upper-middle social class pre-service teachers tend to have a significantly more favorable attitude than either lower-middle or lower social class pre-service teachers toward minority and national groups. Brein and Ryback (1970) also noted that respondents of a higher social class tend to be more accepting of others in terms of social distance. All of these studies would support the notion that social class has a bearing on the attitudes that a person holds of various groups.

<u>Gender</u>: The factor of gender has also been investigated. Ames, Moriwaki, and Basu (1968) conducted an investigation aimed at determining the validity of earlier studies which indicated a tendency for women to make more rejecting social distance responses than men. They utilized Bogardus' 1966 data for the analysis and found, among other things, that females tend to be more rejecting overall than males. Landis et al. (1966) also reported data which supported the prior observation that males tend to show greater acceptance of various racial, national, and ethnic groups than females. Brein and Tyback (1970) cite various other studies which have reported the same finding; however there are studies which find women more accepting of various groups than men. Berger, Leibly, and Meunier, (1973), for example, found females somewhat more flexible in their attitudes than men. The hypothesized that this finding may have been related to the Viet Nam War which was in progress during the time of the study. One thing that is clear from all of these studies is that attitudes do seem to be influenced by gender.

<u>Educational and Cognitive Factors</u>: Educational attainment is an-

other factor that has been investigated relative to the holding of cer-

tain attitudes. Berger et al. (1973) evaluated differences in ratings of

seven nationalities between college freshman and college seniors. They

found that as the level of education increased (educational attainment),

flexibility of attitudes toward the nationalities also increased. Daly

(1975) in investigating the effects of social class also found support

for the idea that higher educational attainment and more favorable

attitudes are related based on his finding that social status positions

are defined by educational attainment. With increased social status,

acceptance of others also increases. Consequently, one can surmise that

as educational attainment increases, so does acceptance of various

groups.

The factor of educational attainment can be viewed as a function of

various cognitive abilities. Some studies have focused on such

cognitive abilities as they relate to the holding of various attitudes.

Chatterjea and Basu (1978) developed a study to investigate the relation-

ship between social distance and levels of conceptual integration among

women from various language groups. It was found that persons with low

conceptual integration exhibited greater rigidity in their attitudes

toward others. Conceptual integration, in this particular study, was

measured by the Paragraph Completion Test. Foley (1975) also looked

at cognitive variables in investigating changes in prejudice of inmates

at a state prison. The findings of this study were complex. Essential-

ly, the results indicated that low cognitive complexity of white inmates

was correlated with prejudice only in interaction with other factors.

The relationship between cognitive complexity and prejudice was re-

versed for blacks entering the prison. Apparently, the factor of

education and/or cognitive ability plays a role in the attitudes that people hold of various groups.

Beliefs: Various studies have investigated a multitude of belief factors which seemingly have an influence over the attitudes that people hold of various groups. Kirtley and Harkless (1969) found that dogmatism was positively associated to conservatism and to the rejection of minorities and groups representing unconventionality and social change. Kirtley (1968) found in investigation of authoritarian rightists', moderates', and leftists' judgments of disparate social groups, that essentially similar patterns of conformity and prejudice existed for judgments concerning ethnic-minority and anti-democratic groups. Richards and Gamache (1979) also obtained similar findings. In this study it was found that pre-to-posttest changes in belief polarity (which was used as an index of racial prejudice) was a function of pretest dogmatism.

Stereotypes, which can be viewed as beliefs about others, have also been investigated in their relationship to attitudes of various groups. Sinha (1971) found a significant positive correlation between ethnic stereotypes and social distance. Sue and Kitano (1973) similarly discuss stereotypes and the influence that the holding of stereotypes has on attitudes and behavior directed toward minority groups. After detaining the historical stereotypes of the Chinese and Japanese in America, it was concluded that the issue of stereotypes is complex and inconclusive; however, they strongly recommended that efforts be directed toward guarding against potential side effects and potential misuse of stereotypes. This warning perhaps came from their historical

observation that stereotypes tend to reflect rather than determine

national policy. Any change in national policy could easily revive

old stereotypes.

Religious beliefs have also been investigated and generally, it

seems that the holding of certain religious beliefs is associated with

attitudes toward various groups. For example, Zaidi (1967) conducted

a study of Karachi University in Pakistan, a predominately Islamic

country, and found that the participants in the study prefered Muslims

over non-Muslims. Similarly, Pirojnikoff, Hadar, and Hadar (1971)

compared the willingness of Jews living in cities and in Kibbutzin

in Isreal with a group of individuals in the United States on their

willingness to associate with various groups. They found that city

dwellers and the Kibbutzim members were less willing to associate

with other groups than were the subjects sampled in the United States.

However, Brein and Ryback (1970) reported that Jews have typically

responded with more accepting attitudes toward various groups than

have other religious groups.

Beliefs may also be reflective of the views that people have

acquired and such views, too, have been related to attitudes of others.

Summers, Hough, and O'Meara (1968) noted that student attitudes toward

minority groups were typically very similar to their parents' attitudes.

Research by Kirby and Gardner (1973) suggests that as children become

older, they tend to develop the stereotypes that adults in the commu-

nity hold. On a similar note, Fisher (1978) indicates that residents

between urban and rural communities differ in beliefs, opinions, and

behavior with mention made of urbanities being less conservative than

persons dwelling in a rural area. Zaidi's (1967) findings also reflected

the idea that acquired beliefs influence attitudes toward others based on his findings that Pakistanis preferred to associate with other Pakistanis relative to other groups.

In general, all of these studies reflect that beliefs are, in some manner, important in determining attitudes toward others. Overall, it seems that people tend to regard persons viewed as having similar beliefs, be they religious, national, political, or environmental, as more acceptable.

It has been found, by a wide array of studies, that there are many factors which can potentially influence a person's attitude toward various groups. In attempt to simplify and organize a host of studies, it was necessary to categorize interrelated factors. Evidence was presented which support that social class, gender, cognitive advancement, and beliefs of various natures can have an important impact on how a person views or regards various groups.

Since the focus of this section was to establish the factors which research reflects as having a clear link to attitudes, inclusion of unclear factors was avoided. Inevitably, these are bound to be other factors which can affect attitudes. Researchers have investigated a host of factors not included in this section; however, many, if not most, of the studies not included yielded ambiguous or mixed findings. For example, researchers have proposed that social changes and dramatic events can have a bearing on attitudes (Payne, York, and Fagan, 1974; Riley and Pettigrew, 1976). In investigating such phenomena, mixed findings stemming from differential reactions were noted. As attitudes are unique to every individual, circumstances, situations, and experiences are naturally interpreted and assimilated in an individual fashion.

Given this dynamic process, it is of little wonder that the literature
on attitudes yields few clear factors.

Summary of Chapter Two and Subsequent Hypotheses

In this chapter, a number of issues have been covered. The first
section highlighted the historical events that have occured in the
United States relative to a number of ethnic, religious, and national
groups. It was found that the United States has a dark past of discrimi-
natory acts and prejudicial beliefs. The second section focused on the
attitudes that Americans have held of various groups. In general, it
was found that differential attitudes have existed and continue to
exist in regard to various groups. Over time, however, data suggest
that attitudes have become generally more favorable. The third section
addressed whether attitudes should be changed, and it was shown that
researchers have found justification for attitude-alteration attempts.
In examining the various attitude-altering strategies that have been
investigated, it was found that the effectiveness of various strategies
are mixed. It was noted that the complex nature of attitudes may be,
in part, a contributing variable in the mixed results of attitude-
alteration strategies. The fourth section examined the literature
which reflected factors which may influence the development and main-
tenance of attitudes toward various groups. It was found that social
class, gender, educational attainment/cognitive ability, and beliefs
of various natures (political, stereotypic, religious, and background)
can potentially influence the attitudes that people hold of various
groups.

Since the purpose of this study was to examine the various compo-

nents of attitudes that prospective teachers hold of various national groups, the fourth section was of prime importance in that it delineated the various factors which prior research has designated as components influencing attitudes. Consequently, it was hypothesized that measures of social class, gender, educational attainment/cognitive ability, and beliefs would be significant predictors of the attitudes that prospective teachers hold of various national and cultural groups. The general null hypothesis of this study is listed below and is followed by the four main effects research hypotheses.

> HO: 1 <u>General hypothesis</u>: Prospective teachers'
> social class, gender, cognitive advancement,
> and beliefs shall not form a significant
> linear combination of predictors for atti-
> tudes toward various cultural and national
> groups.

<u>Social Class</u>: Research has indicated that social class can influence the attitudes that people hold of various groups (Brein & Ryback, 1970; Daly, 1975; Landis et al., 1966). This investigation was designed to examine whether prospective teachers' social class predicts attitudes toward various groups.

> H1: 2 Social class measures will significantly pre-
> dict prospective teachers' attitudes toward
> various national and cultural groups.

<u>Gender</u>: Research has indicated that gender can influence the attitudes that people hold of various groups (Ames et al, 1968; Berger et al, 1973; Brein & Ryback, 1970; Landis et al., 1966). This inves-
tigation was designed to examine whether prospective teachers' gender predicts attitudes toward various groups.

> H1: 2 Gender will significantly predict prospective
> teachers' attitudes toward various national
> and cultural groups.

Education and Cognition: Research has indicated that educational attainment and/or cognitive abilities can influence the attitudes that people hold of various groups (Anderson, 1974; Berger et al., 1973; Chatterjea & Basu, 1978; Daly, 1975). This investigation was designed to examine whether prospective teacher's educational attainment and/or cognitive factors defined as cognitive advancement predicts attitudes toward various groups.

>H1: 4 The level of cognitive advancement shall significantly predict prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups.

Beliefs: Research has indicated that beliefs of various natures can influence the attitudes that people hold of various groups (Brein & Ryback, 1970; Fisher, 1978; Kirtley, 1968; Kirtley & Harkless, 1969; Pirojnikoff et al., 1971; Richards & Gamache, 1979; Sinha, 1971; Sue & Kitano, 1973; Summers et al., 1968; Zaidi, 1967). This investigation was designed to examine whether the strength of prospective teachers' beliefs predict attitudes toward various groups.

>H1: 5 The strength of beliefs shall significantly predict prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups.

Following the main effects hypotheses are the interaction hypotheses for the variables in which interactive effects can be appropriately analyzed.

>HO: 6 There is no significant relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups and the interaction between their beliefs and gender.

>HO: 7 There is no significant relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups and the interaction between their beliefs and gender.

HO: 8   There is no significant relationship between pro-
        spective teachers' attitudes toward various national
        and cultural groups and the interaction between
        their cognitive advancement and gender.

Lastly, a hypothesis was proposed to test whether the four main

effect variables in combination with the gender interactive effects

will produce an equation which shall significantly predict attitudes.

HO: 9   Prospective teachers' social class, gender,
        cognitive advancement, beliefs, and the inter-
        active effects of gender, in all combinations,
        shall not form a significant linear combination
        of predictors for prospective teachers' attitudes
        toward various national and cultural groups.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter begins with a description of the participants in-
volved in this study. The instruments utilized are presented and
discussed. Procedures and the statistical design conclude the chapter.

Subjects

The participants in this study were selected from the population
of prospective teachers near completion of their training at Oklahoma
State University during the spring semester of 1985. The participants
utilized were all enrolled in an educational psychology course. Data
were collected from all of the students enrolled in the course who
were in attendance. Tables II - XI contain various demographic and
descriptive information about the participants.

The majority (89%) of the participants were seniors pursuing a
degree in secondary education (62% secondary education majors). Most
(47%) of the students were 22 - 23 years in age. The participants
primarily came from income levels ranging from $25,000 to over $50,000.
Data were collected from a total of 148 students. From this total, 141
sets of data were utilized in this study (81 females, 60 males). To
meet the statistical assumptions, it was necessary to delete outliers

TABLE II

RESPONDENT'S INCOME LEVEL

Income Level	Frequency	Percent
Under 5,000	1	.7
5,000 - 9,000	2	1.4
10,000 - 14,999	5	3.5
15,000 - 19,999	12	8.5
20,000 - 24,999	19	13.5
25,000 - 34,999	31	22.0
35,000 - 49,999	39	27.7
50,000 and over	32	22.7
NOT ANSWERING	0	0
Total	141	100.0

TABLE III

RESPONDENT'S AGE

Age	Frequency	Percent
20 - 21	44	31.2
22 - 23	66	46.8
24 - 25	14	9.9
26 - 27	5	3.5
28 - 29	2	1.4
30 and over	10	7.1
NOT ANSWERING	0	0
	141	100.0

TABLE IV

RESPONDENT'S GENDER

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	81	57.4
Male	60	42.6
NOT ANSWERING	0	0
	141	100.0

TABLE V

RESPONDENT'S ACADEMIC CLASSIFICATION

Classification	Frequency	Percent
Sophomore	1	.7
Junior	9	6.4
Senior	125	88.7
Graduate	6	4.3
NOT ANSWERING	0	0
	141	100.0

TABLE VI

RESPONDENT'S RESIDENCY

Oklahoma Resident	Frequency	Percent
No	6	4.3
Yes	135	95.7
NOT ANSWERING	0	0
	141	100.0

TABLE VII

RESPONDENT'S ACADEMIC MAJOR

Major	Frequency	Percent
Elementary Education	22	15.6
Secondary Education	88	62.4
Special Education	3	2.1
Other	28	19.9
NOT ANSWERING	0	0
	141	100.0

TABLE VIII

RESPONDENT'S CHURCH AFFILIATION

Church Affiliation	Frequency	Percent
Affiliated	120	85.1
Not Affiliated	21	14.9
NOT ANSWERING	0	0
	141	100.0

TABLE IX

RESPONDENT'S CHURCH ATTENDANCE

Church Attendance	Frequency	Percent
Weekly usually	70	49.6
Once a month usually	28	19.9
Holidays/Holy days only	10	7.1
Rarely	29	20.6
Never	4	2.8
NOT ANSWERING	0	0
	141	100.0

TABLE X

EDUCATION LEVEL OF RESPONDENT'S FATHER

Education of Father	Frequency	Percent
Elementary school or less	4	2.8
Some high school	11	7.8
High school graduate	31	22.0
Some college	29	20.6
College graduate	44	31.2
Post graduate degree	21	14.9
NOT ANSWERING	1	.7
	141	100.0

TABLE XI

EDUCATION LEVEL OF RESPONDENT'S MOTHER

Education of Mother	Frequency	Percent
Elementary school or less	0	0
Some high school	4	2.8
High school graduate	52	36.9
Some college	46	32.6
College graduate	32	22.7
Post graduate degree	7	5.0
NOT ANSWERING	0	0
	141	100.0

and excessively incomplete data sets.

The majority (96%) of the students were Oklahoma residents. Most (85%) of the participants indicated that they were affiliated with a church while the overall attendance of church generally ranged from weekly attendance to monthly attendance. The educational attainment of the participants' parents varied. In general, the participants' fathers were more highly educated than the participants' mothers. Of the participants' fathers, 31% had graduated from college while 15% had received more advanced degrees. Of the participants' mothers, 23% had graduated from college and 5% held more advanced degrees.

Table XII presents the participants' attitudes toward various cultural and national groups on the Bogardus Social Distance Scale. The scores are averaged ratings on a continuum from 1 to 7. Lower scores reflect more favorable attitudes. Specifics concerning this scale will be discussed in the following pages. This information is presented here to provide a general overview of prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups.

Since the sample was drawn from intact classes, the participants may not be completely representative of the population of prospective teachers at Oklahoma State University; however, all prospective teachers at Oklahoma State University must complete this course prior to student teaching.

Instruments

A number of scales and measurement techniques were utilized in this study as it was necessary to measure attitudes toward various cultural and national groups, beliefs, social status, and cognitive

TABLE XII

ATTITUDE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF
PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS TOWARD VARIOUS
CULTURAL AND NATIONAL GROUPS

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number Responding
Armenians	3.184	1.898	136
Americans (U.S. white)	1.035	.278	141
Black Americans	2.221	.922	140
Canadians	1.248	.550	141
Chinese	2.784	1.550	139
Czechs	2.290	1.567	138
English	1.199	.612	141
Filipinos	2.679	1.576	137
Finns	1.914	1.242	139
French	1.406	.925	138
Germans	1.721	1.235	140
Greeks	2.161	1.313	137
Hollanders	1.626	1.044	139
Indians (American)	1.691	.916	139
Indians (of India)	3.153	1.684	137
Irish	1.438	.898	137
Italians	1.702	1.107	141
Japanese	2.844	1.605	141
Japanese Americans	2.376	1.442	141
Jews	2.170	1.304	141
Koreans	2.857	1.562	140

TABLE XII (Continued)

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Number Responding
Mexicans	2.787	1.598	141
Mexican Americans	2.414	1.409	140
Norwegians	1.914	1.305	139
Poles	2.266	1.391	139
*Pyrevarians	3.068	1.684	133
Russians	3.293	2.167	140
Scots	1.655	1.027	139
Spanish	2.165	1.260	139
Swedish	1.532	1.018	141
Turks	2.837	1.611	141
Vietnamese Americans	2.837	1.663	141
TOTAL	2.2112	.9327	141

* non-existant group

advancement of the participants. In addition, gender was documented along with various other demographic types of information obtained from an information questionnaire (see Appendix A). The various scales are described in Table XII.

Attitudes: To measure attitudes toward various national and cultural groups, the revised Bogardus Social Distance Scale (Bogardus, 1933) was utilized. The Bogardus Social Distance Scale has a distinguished and extensive history establishing it as one of the most influential and widely used attitude assessment instruments in existence (Campbell, 1952; Owen et al., 1981; Scarboro, 1980). As discussed elsewhere, the scale was developed by Emory Bogardus in 1925 for the purpose of measuring social distance toward various racial, national, and ethnic groups and was modified in 1933 as a result of the development of the equal-appearing intervals (Bogardus, 1933).

The reliability of the Bogardus Social Distance Scale has been found to be adequate with split-half reliability figures of .90+ (Hartley, 1946; Murphy & Likert, 1938; Newcomb, 1950). Validity has been established on the basis of inter-judge agreement with items on the scale (Bogardus, 1933). In this, Bogardus had 100 persons judge a series of 60 statements regarding contact to establish a social distance continuum. This would evaluate content validity. In reviewing the Bogardus Social Distance Scale for Buros' Mental Measurements Yearbook, Campbell (1952) cited data indicating that various group scores have correlated as high as .80 with the composite scores for other groups being evaluated on the Bogardus Social Distance Scale.

The Bogardus Social Distance Scale was first validated in 1926

on 1,725 participants and has since been utilized to extensive sets of
data on social distance (Bogardus, 1967). The participants that Bo-
gardus (1967) utilized in his studies were primarily college students
from schools throughout the United States who were predominately from
the middle class falling in an age range from 19-26.

The Bogardus Social Distance Scale itself is easily administered
and easily scored. It has seven points as column headings which repre-
sent a response continuum from high degree of acceptance (1) to a low
degree of acceptance (7). Scores for individuals are derived from the
corresponding level of acceptance indicated. The scale was not copy-
written and no stipulations were made by Bogardus in reference to
groups that can be analyzed in terms of social distance.

In this study, two groups were added to the revised Bogardus Social
Distance Scale (Bogardus, 1933). Vietnamese-Americans were included
because of the great number of Vietnamese who imigrated to the United
States following the Vietnam War. Also included was a bogus group,
the Pyrevarians. This group was incorporated into the study essentially
to gain insight into the participants' awareness of various cultural and
national groups. Relative to the other groups, this group would
establish insight as to how lack of knowledge plays a role in attitudes
toward others. The revised Bogardus Social Distance Scale utilized in
this study is located in Appendix B.

Beliefs: The measurement of beliefs for purposes of this study was
complicated by the fact that the literature review indicated that there
are a number of primary beliefs which can influence attitudes; namely,
political, religious, background, and stereotypic beliefs. Attempts to

secure scales to measure isolated components of overlapping belief entities was virtually impossible. For example, a measurement of background beliefs would undoubtedly tap religious, stereotypic, and political beliefs.

As a compromise to a perplexing situation, it was decided to measure beliefs from a less specific perspective. Support for this decision was derived from sociology and the thoughts of Emile Durkheim (circa 1800s) as outlined by Cuzzort and King (1976). Perhaps one of the most important concepts that Durkheim proposed was "anomie". This term refers to situations in which an individual feels loosely united with the community or social order. It is a state of normlessness where rules are either not well established, contradictory, or missing. From this, one can easily infer that in a state of anomie, individuals lack a well defined external belief structure to direct their lives. That is perhaps why anomie is considered by most sociologists to be an unpleasant state. In fact, Durkheim linked anomie to a form of suicide known as "anomic suicide" (Cuzzort & King, 1967). This is a situation where disorientation is so stressful that it results in suicide.

A state of anomie seems to reflect a wide array of either broken or undeveloped external belief structures for individuals. Consequently, for purposes of this study, it was decided to measure beliefs from this perspective. To measure anomie in this investigation, Strole's Anomie Scale was utilized (See Appendix C). Strole (1956), in discussing the development of the Scale, indicated the theoretical dimensions utilized in its formation. The scale was designed to be a molecular representation of global entities. Specifically, the scale was intended to tap a perceived distance continuum between self-to-others belongingness' to

'self-to-others distance.' For semantic ease, the phrase eunomia-anomia was coined (Strole, 1956). Eunomia-anomia, it might be noted, is reflective of a socio-psychological continuum.

The scale consists of five items reflective of anomia. To each statement, the respondent simply indicates agreement or disagreement. Measures of anomia range from zero to five with higher scores reflecting greater anomia (Bonjean, Hill & McLemore, 1967).

Strole (1956) acknowledged the exploratory nature of the scale and in footnote, encouraged other researchers to investigate it more thoroughly. Apparently, the scale was not formally published as evidenced by its exclusion from Buros' Mental Measurements Yearbook. As Strole (1956) included the scale items in his research writings and encouraged research, it was apparent that he did not have the scale copywritten.

Since Strole presented his scale, a large number of studies have followed-up on his suggestion for further investigation. Strole's Anomia Scale was included for review in two major books on social measurement (Bonjean et al., 1967; Miller, 1970). Miller (1970) cited consistent reliability figures of .90 and discussed the validity of the scale in terms of its relationship with authoritarianism F (r = .47), attitudes toward minorities (r = .43), and socioeconomic status (r = .30). Both Miller (1970) and Bonjean et al. (1967) list an extensive number of studies which have utilized the scale and have lended support for its usage.

Social Status: To measure social status, information was obtained from the U.S. Bureau of the Census to determine the distribution of

income in the United States. The item on the information questionaire
(See Appendix A) that relates to income was devised in accordance with
the distribution reported in the Statistical Abstract of the United
States 1984.

It was decided to measure social status by income level to keep
this component pure. Social status may, of course, be viewed from a
less narrow perspective, but the consequence of a broader perspective
would be ambiguity.

Cognitive Advancement: To maximize clarity, it was decided to measure
cognitive abilities rather than educational attainment primarily because
of the population utilized in this study. With the population of pro-
spective teachers at Oklahoma State University near completion of their
training, it would be impossible to obtain heterogeneous levels of
educational attainment. It was assumed, however, that heterogeneity
could be found in the prospective teachers' levels of academic excel-
lence. Consequently, the participants in this study were requested to
indicate their grade point average as reflected in the questionaire
(See Appendix A).

The rationnale for utilizing grade point average as a measure of
cognitive ability seems obvious. Brody and Brody (1976) discuss the
relationship between intelligence and school success at some length.
They report that the correlation between scores on group intelligence
tests and grades is approximately .50. Lower correlations are found
between measures of intelligence and grades in college probably as a
result of the restricted range of test scores found in college popula-
tions. However, Brody and Brody (1976) also point out that such

correlations are perhaps reflective of intelligence tests representing something distinct from school learning. It might be of value to note that Brody and Brody (1976) also report substantial correlations (approximately .70) between intelligence test scores and number of years of education completed. Consequently, it can easily be surmised that as all of the participants in this study had reached a similar level of academic attainment, that the next most suitable measure of consistent academic performance would be grade point average.

Procedure

The participants were each given a packet which contained the revised Bogardus Social Distance Scale, Strole's Anomia Scale, and the information questionnaire. The packets were presented to the participants during class time by the author. Prior to handing out the packets, the students were informed that a study was being conducted and that their cooperation would be appreciated. Anonymity was assured to all participants.

The students were informed that the enclosed questionnaire should be self-explanatory. Other items contained instructions and should be read prior to responding (see Appendix B and C). The following instructions were read twice to all of the participants to clarify both the general procedures as well as to clarify how they were to respond to the Bogardus Social Distance Scale in particular:

> I am here today to ask for your participation in a study I am conducting. I have three short forms I would like you to complete. It should only take around ten minutes of your time. The forms should be self-explanatory. Please answer all questions. You will not be identified in any manner in this study. Again, please answer all questions.

I want to illustrate the first form. On the side of this form there are names of various groups. Across the top there are various responses. I want you to mark the response which corresponds to how you feel about each group. For example, say a girl with red hair was listed on the left. If you would be willing to marry her, you would mark column one. If you wouldn't marry a girl with red hair but would have a girl with red hair as a close friend, you would mark column two. Please read all the headings carefully and mark the response which best describes your feelings. Please work quickly.

Following the administration of the various data gathering instruments, brief, informal feedback was given to the students on the nature of the study. Essentially, the students were told that the research was aimed at examining prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups.

Design and Statistical Analyses

In this study, a causal-comparative approach was utilized to investigate the components of attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. Perhaps the greatest weakness of an ex post facto design is in its inability to demonstrate causality. Attitudes, however, are not easily analyzed by a procedure which can demonstrate causality. Attitudes represent an extremely complex phenomenon; consequently, attitudinal research is not easily conducted in a pure experimental manner simply because of diverse, uncontrollable factors such as prior learning, individual differences, social circumstances, etc. An ex post facto design, realistically speaking, is the most appropriate design to utilize in investigating attitudes.

From the framework of an ex post facto design, multiple regression analyses were performed to test the proposed hypotheses. The predictor variables consisted of scores on measures of beliefs, social class, and

cognitive advancement. Gender was a documented, as opposed to measured, predictor variable. The criterion variable was attitude toward various national and cultural groups as measured by the revised Bogardus Social Distance Scale (Bogardus, 1933). As previous research did not indicate a prioritization scheme among the predictor variables, a stepwise procedure was selected for entering the variables in the multiple regression equation. In stepwise multiple regression, the data, itself, controls the order in which the variables enter the equation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983). Accordingly, stepwise multiple regression can be viewed as a model-building procedure in which variables can be closely analyzed as to their utility. This allows for the building of a foundation in which future research can be based (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983).

The data for the analysis were coded by assigning the categories arbitrary numbers. This procedure was employed as a means to enter the data into the computer. In this procedure, qualitative and nominal categories are assigned numbers to compute frequency data. The numbers, in and of themselves, have no meaning for nominal categories. In qualitative categories, the numbers refer to various significance levels. In this study, income and beliefs were coded into qualitative categories, whereas age, gender, school classification, residence, academic major, church affiliation, church attendance, and educational attainment of parents were coded into nominative categories.

The following steps were taken in the analysis of the data: Multiple correlations between the predictor variables and the criterion variable were computed for the total sample; regression coefficients were used to determine the contributions of beliefs, cognitive advancement, gender, and social class to attitude variance; simple correlations

were computed for each predictive variable with the criterion variable

for the total sample; and means and standard deviations were calcu-

lated for the total sample. In order to meet the statistical assump-

tions, it was necessary to delete seven data sets. This deletion

reduced skewness, and the number of outliers, while improving the

normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals. The slight

reduction in $\underline{n}$ did not violate the requirement of cell size, which is

four to five more cases than independent variables, necessary for the

analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1983).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

Presented in this chapter are the results of the statistical ana-
lyses for the nine hypotheses formulated in this investigation. The
major focus of this study is to determine if gender and measures of
social class, beliefs, and cognitive advancement are significant pre-
dictors of the participants' attitudes toward various national and
cultural groups.

The results of this study provide information on both the com-
bined and the unique contributions of the independent variables in the
prediction of attitudes toward various national and cultural groups.
The relationship between the criterion variable and the four independent
variables: gender, beliefs; cognitive advancement; and social class
were obtained by performing multiple regression analyses for the total
sample. Also, interaction effects where appropriate, were performed in
a like manner. Computations were done using the Statistical Package for
the Social Sciences (SPSSX) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrewner, & Brant,
1983).

Test of Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses One

Hypothesis one states that prospective teachers' social class,

gender, cognitive advancement, and beliefs shall not form a significant linear combination of predictors for attitudes toward various cultural and national groups. A stepwise multiple regression analysis between attitudes and the four combined variables was performed to determine the predictive contributions of the four variables in combination (independent of the interactive effects). The findings related to this hypothesis are presented in Table XIII. A multiple correlation of .15503 was obtained between the criterion and predictive variables. When all four variables were added to the multiple regression equation, the F ratio was not significant at the .05 level (F = .83731, p > .05). Since a significant linear combination of predictors for attitudes was not obtained, hypothesis one is not rejected.

Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis two stated that the social class measures of the prospective teachers' shall significantly predict their attitudes toward various cultural and national groups. A simple regression analysis was performed to test hypothesis two. The F ratio was not found to to significant at the .05 level (F = .04562, p > .05); therefore, this research hypothesis was rejected. Table XIV presents the summary table for this analysis.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis three states that the gender of the prospective teachers' shall significantly predict their attitudes toward various cultural and national groups. A simple regression analysis was performed to test hypothesis three. The F ratio was not found to be

TABLE XIII

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS BETWEEN ATTITUDES TOWARD VARIOUS NATIONAL
AND CULTURAL GROUPS AND MAIN EFFECT VARIABLES (N = 141)

Variable	B	Beta	$\underline{r}$	Partial Cor$_a$	Individual $\underline{F}$*	Overall $\underline{F}$
Beliefs	2.65727	.11664	.11662	.11503	1.844 NS	.83731 NS
Gender	5.56602	.09718	.09671	.09494	1.256 NS	
Social Class	.85047	.04586	.01811	.04509	.283 NS	
Cognitive Advancement	-.40583	-5.967E-03	-.03403	-.00584	.005 NS	
(Constant)	58.18755					

* probability level set at .05   Multiple R = .15503

a = partial correlation whereby the contribution   R square = .02403
    of remaining independent variables is partialled
    out of only the ith independent variable.   R square change = .02403

TABLE XIV

SIMPLE REGRESSION BETWEEN ATTITUDES TOWARD VARIOUS NATIONAL AND CULTURAL
GROUPS AND EACH MAIN EFFECT VARIABLE (N = 141)

Variable	r	r^2	Individual $F*$
Gender	.09671	.00935	1.312 NS
Social Class	.01811	.00033	.046 NS
Beliefs	.11662	.01360	1.917 NS
Cognitive Advancement	.03403	.00116	.161 NS

* probability level set at .05

significant at the .05 level ($\underline{F}$ = 1.31242, $\underline{p}$ > .05); therefore, this research hypothesis is rejected. Table XIV presents the summary table for this analysis.

Hypothesis Four

Hypothesis four stated that the cognitive advancement of prospective teachers' shall significantly predict their attitudes toward various cultural and national groups. A simple regression analysis was performed to test hypothesis four. The $\underline{F}$ ratio was not found to be significant at the .05 level ($\underline{F}$ = .16117, $\underline{p}$ > .05); therefore, this research hypothesis was rejected. Table XIV presents the summary table for this analysis.

Hypothesis Five

Hypothesis five stated that the beliefs of prospective teachers' shall significantly predict their attitudes toward various cultural and national groups. A simple regression analysis was performed to test hypothesis five. The $\underline{F}$ ratio was not found to be significant at the .05 level ($\underline{F}$ = 1.91665, $\underline{p}$ > .05); therefore, this research hypothesis was rejected. Table XIV presents the summary table for this analysis.

Hypothesis Six

Hypothesis six stated that there is no significant relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups and the interaction between their beliefs and gender. A correlation coefficient of .052 was found between the criterion

variable and the interactive effect of the predictive variables. This correlation is not significant at the .05 level; therefore, this hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Seven

Hypothesis seven stated that there is no significant relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups and the interaction between their social class and gender. A correlation coefficient of .075 was found between the criterion variable and the interactive effect of the predictive variables. This correlation is not significant at the .05 level; therefore, this hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Eight

Hypothesis eight stated that there is no significant relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups and the interaction between their cognitive advancement and gender. A correlation coefficient of .112 was found between the criterion variable and the interactive effect of the predictive variables. This correlation is not significant at the .05 level; therefore, this hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Nine

Hypothesis nine stated that prospective teachers' social class, gender, cognitive advancement, beliefs, and the interactive effects of gender, in all combinations, shall not form a significant linear combination of predictors for attitudes toward various national and

cultural groups. A stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed

to determine the predictive contributions of the various variables

including the interactive effects of gender. Because of the stepwise

multiple regression procedure used, the computer excluded variables,

and combinations of variables which did not significantly increase

the magnitude of the regression coefficient for attitudes in construct-

ing a predictive equation. Consequently, the variables gender, gender

by social class by beliefs, gender by social class by cognitive

advancement, and gender by beliefs by cognitive advancement were

excluded from the equation. Of the variables which entered the equation,

as seen in Table XV, a multiple correlation of .27117 was obtained

between these variables and the criterion variable. The F ratio for

all of the variables in the equation was not significant at the .05

level (F = 1.50803, $p >$.05); therefore, this hypothesis was not

rejected. Table XV presents the summary table for this analysis.

TABLE XV

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS BETWEEN ATTITUDES TOWARD VARIOUS NATIONAL
AND CULTURAL GROUPS AND ALL PREDICTOR VARIABLES INCLUDING
GENDER INTERACTION EFFECTS (N = 141)

Variable	B	Beta	$Correl_e$	Part Cor_f	Individual $\underline{F}$*	Overall $\underline{F}$
$G \cdot SC \cdot B \cdot CA_a$	$-.05440$	$-.04701$	.04584	$-.01150$	.019 NS	1.50803 NS
Cognitive Advancement	-5.27511	$-.07756$	$-.03403$	$-.06036$	.523 NS	
Social Class	3.01435	.16253	.01811	.12466	2.229 NS	
Beliefs	5.69673	.25005	.11662	.18169	4.739 S	
$G \cdot CA_b$	15.39757	.82336	.11232	.20126	5.815 S	
$G \cdot B_c$	-6.08417	$-.27031$	.05164	$-.06801$	.664 NS	
$G \cdot SC_d$	-4.55586	$-.50019$	.07512	$-.12181$	2.130 NS	
(Constant)	54.10450					

*probability level set at .05

a = Gender by Social Class by Beliefs by Cognitive Advancement

b = Gender by Cognitive Advancement

Multiple R = .27117

R square = .07353

R square change = .07353

TABLE XV (Continued)

c = Gender by Beliefs

d = Gender by Social Class

e = Correlation

f = Partial correlation whereby the contribution of remaining independent variables is partialled out of only the ith independent variable.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS

AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present an overview of the
study and an interpretation of the statistical findings. General
conclusions of the research findings are discussed. Recommendations
for future research are proposed.

Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate whether
attitudes toward various national and cultural groups can be predicted
utilizing measures of social class, beliefs, cognitive advancement,
and gender.

The subjects in this study were selected from a population of
prospective teachers at Oklahoma State University. All of the subjects
were enrolled in an educational psychology class. Primarily they were
senior secondary education majors from the state of Oklahoma. There
was a total of 141 subjects (81 females, 60 males) who contributed data
which was utilized in this investigation.

Test data consisted of the subjects' attitude scores as measured by
the revised Bogardus Social Distance Scale (Appendix B), the subjects'

beliefs scores as measured by <u>Strole's Anomia Scale</u> (Appendix C), and additional demographic and descriptive data which was obtained from the subjects' responses to an information questionnaire which was designed specifically for purposes of this study (Appendix A). Nine hypotheses were tested using multiple regression analyses for combined variables hypotheses, simple regression analyses for the main effect hypotheses, and tests of the correlation coefficients for the relationship hypotheses.

The first hypothesis stated that prospective teachers' social class, gender, cognitive advancement, and beliefs shall not form a significant linear combination of predictors for attitudes toward various cultural and national groups. A stepwise multiple regression analysis between attitudes and the four predictor variables was performed to test hypothesis one. The interactive effects among the predictor variables were not entered into the multiple regression equation. The results of this analysis found that the proposed predictor variables did not significantly predict prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. This null hypotheses was not rejected.

The second hypothesis stated that prospective teachers' social class shall significantly predict their attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. A simple regression analysis found that measures of social class did not significantly predict prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. This research hypothesis was rejected.

The third hypothesis stated that prospective teachers' gender shall significantly predict their attitudes toward various cultural

and national groups. A simple regression analysis was performed to test hypothesis three. The results of this analysis found that gender did not significantly predict prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. This research hypothesis was rejected.

The fourth hypothesis stated that prospective teachers' cognitive advancement level shall significantly predict their attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. A simple regression analysis was performed to test hypothesis four. The results of this analysis found that measures of cognitive advancement did not significantly predict prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. This research hypothesis was rejected.

The fifth hypothesis stated that prospective teachers' beliefs shall significantly predict their attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. A simple regression analysis was performed to test hypothesis five. The results of this analysis found that measures of beliefs did not significantly predict prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. This research hypothesis was rejected.

The sixth hypothesis stated that there is no significant relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups and the interaction between their beliefs and gender. Since the correlation coefficient for this relationship was not significant at the .05 level, this null hypothesis was not rejected.

The seventh hypothesis stated that there is no significant relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups and the interaction between social class and gender.

Since the correlation coefficient for this relationship was not significant at the .05 level, this null hypothesis was not rejected.

The eighth hypothesis stated that there is no significant relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups and the interaction between their cognitive advancement and gender. Since the correlation coefficient for this relationship was not significant at the .05 level, this null hypothesis was not rejected.

The ninth hypothesis stated that prospective teachers' social class, gender, cognitive advancement, beliefs, and the interactive effects of gender, in all combinations, shall not form a significant linear combination of predictors for attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. A stepwise multiple regression analysis between attitudes and the various predictor variables was performed to test hypothesis nine. Because of the stepwise procedure utilized, variables which did not significantly increase the magnitude of the regression coefficient were excluded from the analysis by the computer. Of the variables which were included in the analysis, it was found that they did not significantly predict prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. This null hypothesis was not rejected.

Conclusions

Within the parameters and limitations of this study, the following conclusions are proposed:

1. Based on the statistical findings, it is concluded that the variables of gender, social class, beliefs, and cognitive advancement are not significant predictors of prospective teachers' attitudes toward

various national and cultural groups. Significance was not found for the four variables analyzed as isolated predictors, as combined predictors, or as combined predictors with the interactive effects of gender included.

2. When correlation coefficients were employed to analyze the relationship between prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups and the interactive effects of gender with beliefs, social class, and cognitive advancement, it was found that none of these relationships are statistically significant.

Discussion and Recommendations

Since none of the research hypotheses were supported and none of the null hypotheses were rejected, one might easily conclude that this study provided limited insight into the factors which attitudes toward various national and cultural groups entail. To a certain degree, this is perhaps true. This study did not reveal a clear set of factors which significantly predicted prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. The insight this study provided came from statistics verifying that certain variables are not significant predictors of prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups. Prior literature suggests that attitudes are related to social class (Brein & Ryback, 1970; Daly, 1975; Landis et al., 1966), gender (Anderson, 1974; Berger et al., 1973; Chatterjea & Basu, 1978; Daly, 1975), and beliefs (Brien & Ryback, 1970; Fisher, 1978; Kirtley, 1968; Kirtley & Harkless, 1969; Pirojnikoff et al., 1971; Richards & Gamache, 1979; Sinha, 1971; Sue & Kitano, 1973; Summers et al., 1968; Zaidi, 1967). In this investigation, statistically

significant relationships were not obtained in examing these variables
as independent predictors or as combined predictors.

The nonsignificant statistical findings do have significant meaning.
The findings may suggest a number of possibilities. Perhaps prospective
teachers at Oklahoma State University are a unique sample, or perhaps
prior literature reflects trends moreso than statistically significant
relationships. These post-analysis speculations may have merit but the
fact is that in this study, prior literature was not supported. The
variables of social class, gender, cognitive advancement, and beliefs
did not predict prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national
and cultural groups.

Undoubtedly, the sample used in this study formed an unusually
homogenious group. To a certain extent, homogeneity was expected, but
not to the degree as was evidenced by this study. Most participants
were: seniors, secondary education majors, church attenders; from
Oklahoma; from higher income brackets, holding similiar beliefs, and
having grade point averages generally over a 3.0 on a 4.0 scale. Such
similiarity among participants, without question, reduces the proba-
bility of finding meaningful variance needed to obtain statistically
significant results.

The homogeneity of participants in this study may have reduced
the probability of finding significant results but perhaps a more
valuable insight came from discovering the homogenious nature of the
sample in relation to the attitudes they hold. By this, it is meant
that prospective teachers are a like group in the attitudes they hold
toward various national and cultural groups. This finding does not
speak favorably of the sample of prospective teachers at Oklahoma State

University. Comparisons between the attitudes of the subjects in this study and the attitudes found in prior national studies suggest that the subjects in this sample generally hold less favorable attitudes. Table XVI presents the mean attitude ratings for this sample along with the mean attitude ratings for national samples starting in 1926 (Owen et al., 1981).

As seen from Table XVI, the participants' mean attitude ratings toward five of the groups are less accepting than any of the mean attitude ratings obtained in any of the prior national studies. These groups consisted of the: Armenians, Czechs, Poles, Russians, and Spanish. In relation to the 1977 national study, participants in this study rated eighteen groups as less acceptable. The groups included as being less acceptable relative to the 1977 study were: Armenians, Chinese, Czechs, Filipinos, Greeks, Indians (of India), Italians, Japanese, Japanese-Americans, Jews, Koreans, Mexicans, Mexican-Americans, Black Americans, Poles, Russiona, Spanish and Turks. Moreover, the overall mean attitude rating for all groups, by the participants in this study, is reflective of less accepting attitudes than any of the overall mean attitude ratings obtained in any of the prior national studies. Because of insufficient data from prior studies, to was not possible to determine whether these differences are statistically significant.

These findings are interpreted as having heavy implications as was noted in the problem of this study; schools and teachers have the opportunity to influence the entire future generation. Condon (1973) states that values and attitudes are learned through contact with other people. Teachers, obviously, are a critical source of contact

TABLE XVI

COMPARISON BETWEEN SPREAD AND DECREASES IN SCORES
OVER FIVE DECADES AND THIS SAMPLE

Ethnic Groups	1926	1946	1956	1966	1977	This Study
Armenians	2.06	2.29	2.33	2.18	2.20	3.18*+
Americans	1.10	1.04	1.08	1.07	1.25	1.04
Canadians	1.13	1.11	1.16	1.15	1.42	1.25
Chinese	3.36	2.50	2.68	2.34	2.29	2.78 +
Czechs	2.08	1.76	2.22	2.08	2.23	2.29*+
English	1.06	1.13	1.23	1.14	1.39	1.20
Filipinos	3.00	2.76	2.46	2.31	2.31	2.68 +
Finns	1.83	1.63	1.80	1.67	2.00	1.91
French	1.32	1.31	1.47	1.36	1.58	1.41
Germans	1.46	1.59	1.61	1.54	1.87	1.72
Greeks	2.47	2.29	2.09	1.82	2.02	2.16 +
Hollanders	1.56	1.37	1.63	1.54	1.82	1.63
Indians (American)	2.38	2.45	2.35	2.12	1,84	1.69
Indians (India)	3.91	3.43	2.80	2.62	2.55	3.15 +
Irish	1.30	1.24	1.56	1.40	1.69	1.44
Italians	1.94	2.28	1.89	1.51	1.65	1.70 +
Japanese	2.80	3.61	2.70	2.41	2.38	2.84 +
Japanese-Americans	----	2.90	2.34	2.14	2.18	2.38 +
Jews	2.39	2.32	2.15	1.97	2.01	2.17 +
Koreans	3.60	3.05	2.83	2.51	2.63	2.86 +
Mexicans	2.69	2.89	2.79	2.56	2.40	2.79 +

TABLE XVI (Continued)

Ethnic Groups	1926	1946	1956	1966	1977	This Study
Mexican-Americans	----	2.52	2.51	2.37	2.17	2.41 +
Black Americans	3.28	3.60	2.74	2.56	2.03	2.22 +
Norwegians	1.59	1.35	1.66	1.50	1.93	1.91
Poles	2.01	1.84	2.07	1.98	2.11	2.27*+
Pyrevarians (non-existant group)	----	----	----	----	----	3.07
Russians	1.88	1.83	2.56	2.38	2.57	3.29*+
Scots	1.13	1.26	1.06	1.53	1.83	1.65
Spanish	1.72	1.94	2.08	1.93	1.98	2.17*+
Swedish	1.54	1.40	1.57	1.42	1.68	1.53
Turks	3.30	2.89	2.52	2.48	2.55	2.84 +
Vietnames-Americans	----	----	----	----	----	2.84
Overall	2.14	2.12	2.08	1.92	1.93	2.21*+
Spread	2.85	2.57	1.75	1.55	1.38	____
Standard Deviation	----	----	----	----	----	.9327
Decrease in Spread	----	.28	.82	.20	.17	----

* Less accepting than in any of the previous studies

+ Less accepting than in the 1977 study

for students who are evolving both academically and affectively. If teachers are not accepting of various groups, chances are great that at some point, these prejudices shall be made evident to the students. In a similiar manner, chances are great that teachers shall, at some point, have students from different national and cultural groups in their classes. If teachers hold unfavorable attitudes toward a particular group, a student from that group may receive differential treatment (Shoop & Ead, 1977). If this is the case that differential treatment can stem from differential attitudes, then emphasis must be placed on enhancing prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups.

Another implication that this study provides is that the cultural lag does not seem to be decreasing in reference to the sample utilized in this investigation. Recall that leaps in technology are placing the United States into an increasingly interdependent position ("Building Self Concept," 1976). A cultural lag occurs when a society does not make accommodations for the technological progress it has made. To close the lag, it was noted earlier that Americans need to become better educated and more accepting of various national and cultural groups. First, in this study, the participants were overall less accepting than in any prior national study. Second, there is reason to doubt that the participants in this sample were well informed about various national and cultural groups. One nonexistent group, the "Pyrevarians", was included in the revised Bogardus Social Distance Scale. Logic dictates that one could not have either favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward a nonexistent group; however, 133 participants out of a total of 141 participants responded to this group as if

it actually did exist. Moreover, the expressed attitudes toward this
nonexistent group were generally less favorable. Out of thirty-two
groups, the "Pyrevarians" were ranked twenty-eighth on a continuum
from most accepted (1) to least accepted (32). This may also indirect-
ly suggest that perhaps lack of knowledge is related to less accepting
attitudes.

As a final discussion point, theorists in education could debate
the implications that this study provides on the political power play
between education and government. It could be argued, based on this
study, that schools are second-level institutions whereby they reflect
society rather than alter it. For example, perhaps teachers cannot be
expected to be accepting of various cultural and national groups until
the decision makers decide to make this more likely by imposing guide-
lines into the teacher-preparatory programs calling for the inclusion
of information related to various national and cultural groups. Such
decisions seem to stem from governing bodies in society. Note Public
Law 94-142 as an example. It was when this law mandated that all
handicapped children have a right to a free, appropriate education
that all handicapped children began to receive such services. The
enforced change came from outside the educational system. It may be
the case that changes in the teacher preparatory programs may have to
come from outside political pressure.

Given the various findings and implications of this study, the
following recommendations are proposed for both future research and
for utilizing the insight that this study provided:

1. It is strongly suggested that Oklahoma State University con-
sider including material related to various national and cultural groups

into its teacher preparatory program. The prospective teachers at Oklahoma State University are overall less accepting of various national and cultural groups than national samples have been beginning in 1926 (Owen et al., 1981).

2. It would be of great benefit to conduct another national study investigating attitudes toward various national and cultural groups using the revised Bogardus Social Distance Scale (Bogardus, 1933). In doing this, it may become clear whether peoples' attitudes, in general, have become less accepting of various national and cultural groups. This would determine whether the results of this study are atypical from the population at large.

3. It would be of benefit to conduct a national study on teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups using the Bogardus Social Distance Scale (Bogardus, 1933). In doing this, it would be clear how teachers in the United States view various national and cultural groups. It would provide a reference point whereby teacher training programs could monitor the attitudes of the teachers who are in training. It also would determine whether teachers hold attitudes which differ from the general population. Lastly, it would indicate how homogenious teachers are, as a group, in regard to the attitudes held toward various national and cultural groups.

4. It would be helpful to conduct further research on attitudes toward various national and cultural groups which redefines or refines the variables which were used in this study. Cognitive advancement was measured in a very simplistic manner in this study as it was an exploratory investigation. Cognitive advancement could be defined in a more precise manner than grade point average. With added precision, cognitive

advancement may become a stronger predictor variable. Likewise, in this study, beliefs were defined in a limited manner. Researchers might be advised to explore alternate belief scales and measures in attempting to predict attitudes. Lastly, social class could be examined differently. In this study, measures of income were used as measures of social class. If defined differently, perhaps by occupational standards, social class could potentially be a more effective predictor of prospective teachers' attitudes toward various national and cultural groups.

5. Inclusion of variables not utilized in this investigation are strongly recommended for related future research. Because this was an exploratory investigation, many of the variables utilized were simplistic in nature; however, as noted in Table XIII, the main effect predictor variables only accounted for 2% of the overall attitudes that prospective teachers' hold of various national and cultural groups (R Square = .02403). Obviously, the factors investigated in this study were not strong predictors.

6. Lastly, it would be useful to replicate this study utilizing a more diversified sample of prospective teachers. Perhaps prospective teachers do form a homogenious group, in general, but emphasis should be directed toward making sure that the sampling procedure is not the reason behind the homogeneity. A way to achieve maximum representativeness of the population is, of course, through random sampling procedures. Researchers are advised against using intact classes as was done in this study.

Overall Conclusions

In this study, it was noted that the United States is currently in a technological age which mandates a national policy shift from an independent position to an interdependent position. As the United States must cooperate with various cultures and national groups, it is imperative that attitudes toward various other groups be positive. Without accepting attitudes, mutual cooperation could be hindered.

The findings of this investigation are of great significance in that it was found that the future educators at Oklahoma State University have overall less accepting attitudes toward various national and cultural groups than did a national sample in 1926. This finding alone is alarming. Research is greatly needed to determine if this is a unique situation or a finding reflective of the overall population of the United States. Whether a unique situation or a reflection of a general situation, corrective measures are needed.

Prejudice, in short, is a danger signal of troubled times. The United States was founded on the premise of equality and freedom for all. As negative attitudes often go hand-in-hand with negative acts, actual equality and freedom can be questioned as long as negative attitudes prevail. Since its formative years, the United States has witnessed prejudicial acts and attitudes. Fortunately, there have been many positive changes over the years. This study, however, notes a backslide in attitudes among a critical segment of society: prospective teachers. Teachers carry a great deal of influence in attitude formation, maintenance, and change. If children are to develop accepting attitudes, it is imperative to have teachers who are accepting of others. Unless the American society acts intelligently on this very

important issue, the survival of the country may be at stake in that

mutual cooperation requires mutual respect.

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APPENDIX A

INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Please indicate the income level of your family of origin (your parents). Check appropriate space.

   _____ Under $5,000

   _____ $5,000 - 9,999

   _____ $10,000 - 14,999

   _____ $15,000 - 19,999

   _____ $20,000 - 24,999

   _____ $25,000 - 34,999

   _____ $35,000 - 49,999

   _____ $50,000 - and over

2. What is your age?

   _____ 18 - 19

   _____ 20 - 21

   _____ 22 - 23

   _____ 24 - 25

   _____ 26 - 27

   _____ 28 - 29

   _____ 30 and over

3. Gender:

   _____ Male

   _____ Female

4. What was your grade point average as of the end of last semester (overall GPA)?

   _____

5. What is your classification in school?

_____ Sophomore

_____ Junior

_____ Senior

_____ Graduate

_____ Other (specify _____)

6. Are you a legal resident of Oklahoma?

_____ Yes

_____ No

7. What is your major?

_____ Elementary Education

_____ Secondary Education

_____ Special Education

_____ Other (specify _____)

8. Are you affiliated with a church?

_____ Yes (If yes, specify name of church _____)

_____ No

9. Please check the best descriptor indicating the frequency of your attendance at a church(es).

_____ Weekly usually

_____ Once a month usually

_____ Holidays/Holy days only

_____ Rarely

_____ Never

10. Please indicate the highest level of education attained by your parents. (check appropriate levels for both).

	Father	Mother
Elementary School or less — — — — — —	_____	_____
Some high school — — — — — — — — — —	_____	_____
High school graduate — — — — — — — —	_____	_____
Some college — — — — — — — — — — —	_____	_____

	Father	Mother
College graduate – – – – – – – – – – –		
Post graduate degree – – – – – – – – –		

APPENDIX B

BOGARDUS SOCIAL DISTANCE SCALE

1 In order to keep scale anonymous, do not sign name, but give yourself as much freedom as possible, use only check marks

2. Please give your first feeling reactions in every case

3 Give your feeling reactions to each ethnic group in terms of the chief picture or stereotype you have of entire group Mark each group even if you do not know it

4 Check as many of seven columns in each case as your feelings dictate

5 Work as rapidly as possible

	1 Would marry into group	2 Would have as close friends	3 Would have as next door neigh-bors	4 Would work in same office	5 Have as speaking acquain-tances only	6 Have visi-tors only my nation	7 Would debar from my nation
Armenians							
Americans (U.S. White)							
Black Americans							
Canadians							
Chinese							
Czechs							
English							
Filipinos							
Finns							
French							
Germans							
Greeks							
Hollanders							
Indians (American)							
Indians (Of India)							
Irish							

1. Please remember to give your first feeling reactions for every group.

2. Remember to give feeling reactions to your chief picture of each group as a whole.

3. Also, to check as many columns for each group as you can, and to work rapidly.

	1 Would marry into group	2 Would have as close friends	3 Would have as next door neigh-bors	4 Would work in same office	5 Have as speaking acquain-tances only	6 Have visi-tors only my nation	7 Would debar from my nation
Italians							
Japanese							
Japanese Americans							
Jews							
Koreans							
Mexicans							
Mexican Americans							
Norwegians							
Poles							
Pyrevarians							
Russians							
Scots							
Spanish							
Swedish							
Turks							
Vietnamese Americans							

APPENDIX C

STROLE'S ANOMIA SCALE

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Listed below are several statements. With each statement, some people agree and some people disagree. Please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the appropriate choice.

1. Most public officials (people in public office) are not really interested in the problems of the average person. In general, would you agree with that statement or disagree?

    Agree   Disagree

2. These days people don't really know whom they can count on.

    Agree   Disagree

3. Nowadays, a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.

    Agree   Disagree

4. In spite of what some people say, the lot (situation) (condition) of the average person is getting worse, not better.

    Agree   Disagree

5. It's hardly fair to bring a child into the world with way things look for the future.

    Agree   Disagree

VITA ⅃

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Candidate for the Degree of

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