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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TWO FORMS OF AN
EXPERIMENTAL TEACHING UNIT IN REDUCING
BLACK NINTH AND ELEVENTH GRADERS'
NEGATIVE INTERRACIAL ATTITUDES TOWARD
WHITE PEOPLE.

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TWO FORMS OF AN EXPERIMENTAL
TEACHING UNIT IN REDUCING BLACK NINTH AND
ELEVENTH GRADERS' NEGATIVE INTERRACIAL
ATTITUDES TOWARD WHITE PEOPLE

A DISSERTATION
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BY
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.....	vi
Chapter	
I. THE PROBLEM.....	1
Introduction	
Background and Need of the Study	
Purpose of the Study	
Statement of the Problem	
Hypotheses to Be Tested	
Major Assumptions	
The Population	
Definitions of Terms	
Method and Procedure of the Study	
The Pretest and Posttest Instrument	
Statistical Treatment and Organization of the Study	
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	28
III. DESIGN AND PROCEDURE.....	54
Design of the Experiment	
The Setting	
The Pretest and Posttest Instrument	
The Pilot Study	
Administering the Pretest	
The Study Units	
Administering the Posttest	
Statistical Procedure	
IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	88
V. SUMMARY, MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	105
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	113
APPENDICES.....	119

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Test of Significance Applied to the Difference between the Raw Score Gains of Experimental Group I A and Control Group I B.....	91
2. Test of Significance Applied to the Difference between the Raw Score Gains of Experimental Group II A and Control Group II B.....	93
3. Test of Significance between the Two Experimental Groups.....	94
4. Test of Significance between Males in Group I A and Group II A.....	95
5. Test of Significance between Females in Group I A and Group II A.....	96
6. Test of Significance between Corresponding Upper Achievement Levels of Group I A and Group II A.....	97
7. Test of Significance Corresponding Middle Levels of Group I A and Group II A.....	98
8. Test of Significance Corresponding Lower Levels of Group I A and Group II A.....	99

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Before the occurrence of widespread integration in the nation's public schools and the rise of black racist groups, many Americans viewed racial prejudice as a Caucasian attitude of hostility directed against certain minorities, especially blacks. Moreover, a large segment of the population, apparently unfamiliar with the dynamics of prejudice, regarded racial prejudice as an ethnic characteristic limited to whites. Many educated white liberals, as well as blacks, held this faulty notion. Consequently, human relations programs and activities designed to effect changes in attitudes toward race and prejudice were, for the most part, concerned with modifying the attitudes of white people who demonstrated through their behavior certain kinds of prejudices against minority groups.

Similarly, educators were either grossly uninformed

about or simply refused to admit the existence of Negro prejudices against whites. This reverse prejudice may have been overlooked primarily because the majority of Americans, including many Negroes, felt that once whites accepted Negroes socially and otherwise, the major racial problems would be solved automatically. However, recent developments in the racial situation have provided conclusive evidence that the foregoing assumption was erroneous. As Negro prejudices were consistently ignored, racial integration became a one-way process in which only white people were required to change their attitudes. That Negroes would accept most whites, unfortunately, was taken for granted.

However, in the 1960's, bitter and deeply rooted attitudes expressed by vocal Negro militants and to a lesser extent by other Negroes, but no less potent, suggested that Negroes have certain predilections about whites which often result in undesirable stereotypes, discrimination, and other forms of prejudices. These prejudices have been among the major deterrents to a swift and peaceful transition from a segregated to an integrated society. Additionally, these prejudices have helped to widen the gap between black and white. Unfortunately, what has resulted from Negro prejudices, has been black racism of a vicious variety which must be viewed in the same manner as white racism--undesirable.

Background and Need for the Study

Human relationships has generally been regarded as a neglected area of the American educational system. At the same time, human relations has been viewed as vital in the establishing of educational purposes but not important enough to be given appropriate emphasis in formal curriculum and lesson planning. Therefore, human relations education has far too often been provided in a slipshod fashion. A great deal of disagreement has occurred with regard to what constitutes effective human relations education, when human relations should be taught, and who is best qualified to teach such complex skills, attitudes, and understandings. Moreover, some educators, including Kilpatrick,¹ think that human relations comes under the heading of concomitant learnings and therefore must become a part of all teaching and learning. Likewise, all teachers at every level are responsible for human relations education.² Although knowledgeable educators consider human relations the business of the schools, there appears to be a lack of commitment on the part of curriculum builders to plan adequately for human relations programs.

¹William H. Kilpatrick, Modern Education and Better Human Relations (New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1957), 16-17.

²Sister Anglica Guinan, "Human Relations in the Classroom," Catholic School Journal (September, 1966), 53-55.

However, the Oklahoma Curriculum Improvement Commission made the following observation regarding human relations and the public schools:

Public education cannot evade the responsibility for effective instruction in the dynamics of human relationships and interaction and in the development of skills, understandings, attitudes, and values which lend support to the concept of human dignity and the significant importance of the individual personality. Many studies indicate that the schools have not discharged this responsibility effectively. Because of community pressures, educator lassitude, or other causes, public schools have not assumed adequate responsibility in the acceptance and promotion of changes long overdue in the social, economic and political fabric of our society.¹

According to the above statement, Oklahoma educators think that the responsibility for human relations education definitely rests with the public schools.

Likewise, Ashley Montague regarded human relations education as a legitimate function of the school.²

Montague further asserted that "The school, beyond all else, must be considered as a place of education in the art and science of being a human being, the practice of human relations."³

Additionally, Montague stated that

Without neglecting the important influence which the home constitutes, I believe that the science of

¹The Teacher and Improved Human Relations Education in the School (Oklahoma City: Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1966), p. 4.

²Ashley Montague, Education and Human Relations (New York: Grove Press, Inc., 1953), p. 17.

³Ibid., p. 21.

human relationships is best taught and learned in the schools. We must shift the emphasis from the three R's to the fourth R, human relations, and place it first, foremost, and always in that order of importance, as the principal reason for the existence of the school. It must be clearly understood, once and for all time, that human relations are the most important of all relations. Upon this understanding must be based all our educational policies. We must train for humanity, and training in reading, writing, and arithmetic must be given in a manner calculated to serve the ends of that humanity. For all the knowledge in the world is worse than useless if it is not humanely understood and humanely used. An intelligence that is not humane is the most dangerous thing in the world.¹

Montague considered human relations education as the fundamental objective of any school and that positive human relations skills are teachable. He avered further that curriculum planners should regard human relations as a guiding principle for decision making.

Throughout our history educators and politicians have been saying that the continuance of democracy depends upon an educated citizenry. Therefore, one of the logical goals of the American public schools should be to serve as laboratories in which democratic principles are interpreted and perpetuated.

Human interactions are crucial in American education, and the schools rightfully have a responsibility to develop desirable patterns of human relationships. Yet, judging by the poor condition of intergroup relations in America, the schools evidently have not discharged this

¹Ibid., p. 22.

function efficiently. In this regard, the North Central Association Committee on Human Relations recently conducted a survey of 1075 second year school teachers and it reported that

. . . There seems to be a lack of information about intergroup relations, a lack of sensitivity and even awareness that poor intergroup relations cause tensions and hostilities, and a lack of the skills required to handle the problems of minority, group, individual and intergroup relations.¹

The foregoing statement indicates clearly that most schools in the North Central Region lack teachers who understand adequately the nature of human relations. The absence of such teachers should therefore suggest that North Central Schools do not provide effective human relations education.

Perhaps, human relations education should be provided at all levels, but scientific knowledge about growth and development of children indicates that such instruction is particularly beneficial during the junior high or middle school years. Hilda Taba has conducted significant research pertaining to this level for the improvement of human relations education. In her book, With Perspective on Human Relations, Taba, in summarizing intensive social-psychological research, pointed out that adolescent children's personalities result from a rather involved process of social learning. Their conceptions of and disposition

¹North Central Association, Human Relations in the Classroom (Chicago: North Central Association, 1963), pp. 7-8.

toward the whole range of human relationships are determined by the immediate environment in which the family is situated. However, the sphere of the family is necessarily limited. Consequently, ethnocentricity often develops in the absence of an appropriate human relations education which, when provided, tends to broaden attitudes toward ethnic differences and increases the individual's capacity for tolerance. Taba avered that since the peer group within the school has great effect during adolescence, the school has a unique opportunity to influence the direction of social learning, and also alter undesirable social behavior and attitudes acquired outside the school including the home. This can be done through deliberate planning to include human relations oriented materials in the overall curriculum.¹

Taba also pointed out that human relations skills are important social learnings which the schools should teach. Additionally, Taba stated that because of peer groups and other factors, human relations education is likely to have the greatest impact during the early adolescent years.

Montague's position is comparable to Taba's with respect to the level at which a concentrated effort at improving human relations would be most useful. Montague

¹Hilda Taba, With Perspective on Human Relations (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1955), p. 1.

stated that "It is through the lower and upper-grade schools that the most significant work can be done in clarifying the minds of individuals concerning the facts of race, and in educating them in the proper attitudes of mind toward that subject."¹

Gertrude Noar, the most prolific writer and avid proponent of human relations education in the junior high school cautioned that a new separate course need not be added to the junior high school course of study. Instead, all teachers should be aware of, and respond to, human relationships in a positive manner. This kind of teaching, however, requires that teachers become familiar with not only knowledge of self, but also the emotions of adolescents which affect their disposition toward the human problems in the world. Such a program should inevitably result in a greater understanding of and appreciation for, not only the concept of democracy, but also a commitment to become concerned about human and civil rights. Additionally, junior high students should have a better chance than older students in acquiring the rudiments of a philosophy of life which can serve as a basis for answering for themselves the important questions of their generation.² According to Noar, human relations should be

¹Montague, op. cit., p. 14.

²Gertrude Noar, The Junior High School: Today and Tomorrow (2nd ed.; Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961), p. 72.

viewed as a part of the total junior high school program and must be integrated into all phases of the curriculum. Further, Noar suggested that human relations education is vital to the process of developing democratic ideals and practices.

As indicated above, a great deal of research has been done in the field of human relations. Likewise, significant investigation has been done in child growth and development. Thus, if the nation's public schools would use what is already known, much more effort would be made to place the emphasis on human relations education in the junior high school. However, human relations education is a continuous process and must not be restricted to nor terminated in the junior high school. Thus, curriculum planners and classroom teachers should make provisions for human relations education to be included in all areas of the curriculum at the senior high school level. The social sciences and the humanities courses are especially suitable for the inclusion of human relations.

In some instances school systems have given attention to human relations education in both the junior high school and the senior high school. However, in the area of prejudice, the major focus has been on reducing the prejudices of white children to the exclusion of efforts to reduce the prejudices of black children. Few, if any, textbooks have dealt squarely with the problems of

prejudices of all children served by the nation's schools. Many Negro children suffer as greatly as do white children from prejudice. Therefore, human relations education is urgently needed for Negro children. This need is particularly acute at this stage in our national history. Yet, any plan designed to reduce Negro children's prejudices is certain to become controversial, especially if the program is designed expressly for Negro students. Regardless of the protests which may be made, the schools are responsible for meeting the needs of all children. Thus, when the need is apparent, human relations education is just as relevant for blacks as such a program is for whites. Human relations education for all children should be linked to the concept of equal educational opportunity.

Purpose of the Study

The success of school and other forms of desegregation and integration depends, to a large extent, upon the mutual understanding between majority and minority races. In this connection, Coleman stated that "There is more to 'school' integration than mere putting Negroes and whites in the same building. . . ." ¹ Likewise, there is more to a free, open, and integrated society than mere physical mixing in schools, housing, jobs, and politics.

¹James S. Coleman, Equality of Educational Opportunity (Washington: U.S. Office of Education, 1966), p. 28.

Additionally, integration requires more than changing the attitudes of whites. To some extent Coleman's warning has been heeded in so far as efforts to change whites' attitudes are concerned, but very little has been done to effect changes in Negroes' attitudes toward whites. Both sets of attitudes are equal in intensity. Consequently, the purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of two forms of a human relations teaching unit designed to reduce black ninth and eleventh graders' negative attitudes toward whites in an effort to improve intergroup relations and to help make desegregation peaceful and orderly in metropolitan areas similar to Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was stated in the following question: Is there any significant difference between the interracial attitudes of black ninth and eleventh graders following their exposure to an experimental human relations teaching unit as opposed to conventional instruction?

More specifically, the study attempted to discover if the two teaching units (Unit I A and Unit II B) caused any statistically significant difference in black students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites for the following groups and subgroups: (1) between the two

experimental groups, (2) between corresponding sexes of the two experimental groups, (3) between three corresponding intelligence levels of the two experimental groups, and (4) within each of the two experimental groups.

Hypotheses to Be Tested

HO₁ There is no statistically significant difference in black ninth graders' negative interracial attitudes toward whites after being taught Unit I A.

HO₂ There is no statistically significant difference in black eleventh graders' negative interracial attitudes toward whites after being taught Unit II A.

HO₃ There is no statistically significant difference in the negative interracial attitudes toward whites between black ninth and eleventh graders after being taught Units I A and II A.

HO₄ There is no statistically significant difference in negative interracial attitudes toward whites between the two corresponding male groups whether taught Unit I A or Unit II A.

HO₅ There is no statistically significant difference in negative interracial attitudes toward whites between the two corresponding female groups whether taught Unit I A or Unit II A.

HO₆ There is no statistically significant difference in negative interracial attitudes toward whites between the two corresponding groups of students in the

upper intelligence level whether taught Unit I A or Unit II A.

HO₇ There is no statistically significant difference in black students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites between two corresponding groups of students in the middle intelligence level whether taught Unit I A or Unit II A.

HO₈ There is no statistically significant difference in black students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites between the two corresponding groups of students in the lower intelligence level whether taught Unit I A or Unit II A.

Major Assumptions

The following assumptions were made:

1. That the instrument, "A Survey of Attitudes Toward Whites," was appropriate to use as a pretest and posttest for Negro interracial negative attitudes.
2. That ninth and eleventh grade students represented appropriate groups for this study.
3. That Negro students' negative interracial attitudes could be changed to more positive ones.

The Population

Approximately 120 black students enrolled in the Oklahoma City Public School System during the Fall Semester of the 1969-70 academic year were the subjects of this

study. Two black ninth grade classes (60 students) enrolled in Negro History at Kennedy Junior High School and two black eleventh grade classes (60 students) enrolled in World History at Douglass Senior High School constituted the subjects of the experiment. There were two experimental groups and two control groups. One class of ninth graders and one class of eleventh graders were used as the two experimental groups. Likewise, one class of ninth graders and one class of eleventh graders constituted the two control groups. The study entailed the use of two teachers--one at each grade level.

The study was further limited to black ninth and eleventh graders in the two schools.

Negro History at Kennedy Junior High School is an elective course open primarily to ninth graders. There were two sections of Negro History. World History at Douglass Senior High School is an elective generally taken by eleventh graders. There were 4 sections of World History. Students at Kennedy were not rigidly grouped by academic ability. However, the top ranked students and the lowest ranked students were generally channeled into special sections. The two Negro History classes contained top ranked students. At Douglass, there was some measure of ability grouping in English which was called "phase English." Many students who leave "phase English" tend to enroll in the same classes for the next hour. Therefore,

two World History classes at Douglass that followed "phase English" were selected as the eleventh grade subjects of this investigation. In general, groups were more or less homogenous. Classes at both schools generally ranged in size from 30 to 35 students.

Each of the four groups comprising the investigation consisted of 30 students equally divided between male and female. Scores from achievement tests were used to divide each group into three groups. At Kennedy these tests were administered in the eighth grade. At Douglass the tests were administered in the tenth grade.

Definitions of Terms

Experimental Group I refers to those black ninth grade students who were enrolled in one section of Negro History during the first semester of the 1969-70 school year at Kennedy Junior High School in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. These students were taught Teaching Unit I A.

Experimental Group II refers to those black eleventh grade students who were enrolled in one section of World History during the 1969-70 school year at Douglass Senior High School in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. These students were taught Teaching Unit II A.

Control Group I refers to ninth grade black students who were enrolled in one section of Negro History during the first semester of the 1969-70 school year at Kennedy Junior High School in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

This group of students was not taught the experimental unit nor were they taught any other unit designed to change their negative interracial attitudes toward whites.

Control Group II refers to black eleventh grade students who were enrolled in one section of World History during the first semester of the 1969-70 school year at Douglass High School in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma. This group of students was not taught the experimental unit nor were they taught any other unit designed to change their negative interracial attitudes toward whites.

Unit I A refers to the experimental unit on human relations called "Understanding Our Prejudices," for the ninth grade. This unit was a modification of Noar's Resource Unit Prejudice and Discrimination¹ and Van Til's Prejudiced--How Do People Get That Way with a Teachers' Supplement by Noar.² This unit was designed to favorably change students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites. The unit included the following topics: (1) The Concept of Americanism: Principles and Values, (2) The Nature and Causes of Prejudice, (3) Discrimination in Reverse, (4) Stereotypes, (5) Racism and Ethnocentrism, and (6) Scapegoating.

¹Gertrude Noar, Prejudice and Discrimination (New York: Anti-Defamation League, 1967).

²William Van Til, Prejudiced--How Do People Get That Way? (New York: Anti-Defamation League, n.d.).

Unit I B refers to the unit in Negro History that was taught to the ninth grade control group. This unit did not contain any topics designed to change students' negative racial attitudes toward whites.

Unit II A refers to the experimental unit on human relations called "Understanding Our Prejudices" for the eleventh grade. The unit was adapted from several resource guides including Education for Human Relations--Intergroup Understanding, Grades Seven Through Twelve,¹ Out of Many: A Study Guide to Cultural Pluralism in the United States,² and Our Greatest Challenge--Human Relations: Guide to Intergroup Education in Schools.³ This unit was designed to favorably change students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites. This unit included the following topics: (1) Human Rights and the Importance of Diversity, (2) The Nature of Prejudice, (3) The Effects of Discrimination, (4) Stereotypes, (5) Racism and (6) Scapegoating.

Unit II B refers to the unit that was taught to the eleventh grade control group. This unit did not

¹Human Relations Intergroup Understanding Committee of the Madison Public Schools, Education for Human Relations--Intergroup Understanding, Grades Seven Through Twelve (Madison, Wisconsin: Madison Public Schools, 1964).

²Oscar Handlin, Out of Many: A Study Guide to Cultural Pluralism in the United States (New York: Anti-Defamation League, 1964).

³State Committee on Human Relations, Our Greatest Challenge--Human Relations Guide to Intergroup Education in Schools (Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Harrisburg Public Schools, 1962).

contain any topics designed to change students' negative racial attitudes toward whites.

Prejudice refers to an irrational attitude of hostility directed against an individual, a group, a race, or their supposed characteristics. Further, prejudice is the mental state corresponding to the practice of discrimination.

Human Relations refers to intergroup interactions and the ability of groups to live with and cooperate with other groups in a positive and mutually satisfying manner.

Human Relations Education is a process designed to develop understandings, attitudes and skills and to affect behavior in the areas of interpersonal and intergroup relations. This type of education includes accurate information and relevant experiences involving the whole range of human interactions, including the most controversial issues relating to race, prejudices, ethnic groups, religion, politics and social class.

Human Relations Program refers to planned efforts to develop desirable attitudes and skills and to effect behavioral changes.

Method and Procedure of the Study

A pretest-posttest control group design¹ was employed in this study. According to Good, "This

¹Carter V. Good, Essentials of Educational Research (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1966), p. 360.

experimental design seeks to control the main effects of history, maturation, testing, instrument decay, regression, selection, and mortality."¹ With regard to the experimental design, Monroe pointed out that such a plan "implies consideration in advance of all types of errors to be encountered in the experiment, including those which may be minimized or 'controlled' by proper choice of statistical method."²

Additionally, Monroe and Englehart pointed out that

. . . the general plan of experimental research may be illustrated by considering a problem in which an investigator is seeking the effect upon pupil achievement of a specified change in some factor contributing to this dependent variable. When a group of pupils is subjected to instruction, their average achievement increases with the passage of time. In order to secure a measure of the effect upon this growth in achievement of the specified change in an independent variable, it is necessary to determine the status that would have been attained if no change had been made. Hence, a controlled learning experiment requires the use of a minimum of two groups of pupils, one for each status of the experimental factor.³

Generally, in the experimental design, two equivalent groups are selected and "subjected to the same instructional influence except that defined by the experimental factor."⁴

¹Ibid., p. 360.

²Walter S. Monroe, ed., Encyclopedia of Educational Research (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950), p. 415.

³Walter S. Monroe and Max D. Englehart, The Scientific Study of Educational Problems (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936), pp. 274-275.

⁴Ibid., p. 275.

In the present study, subjects were selected from students enrolled in two ninth grade Negro History classes and two eleventh grade World History classes during the fall semester of the 1969-70 academic year in two Oklahoma City public schools. One hundred twenty students were used in the experiment. Sixty students formed the two experimental groups, thirty students at each grade level. The remaining 60 students formed the two control groups, 30 students at each grade level.

"A Survey of Attitudes Toward White People" was administered to all subjects as the pretest. Two versions of the experimental unit "Understanding Our Prejudices" were prepared in cooperation with the two teachers. The experimental units were taught to two experimental groups--ninth and eleventh grades. The same teachers who taught the experimental groups also taught the control groups. Six weeks were allocated to the teaching of these units. At the close of the two experimental units all four groups were administered the original instrument as a posttest.

The Pretest and Posttest Instrument

The instrument "A Survey of Attitudes Toward White People" was devised by the author. Carmichael's instrument, "A Survey of Attitudes Toward Minority Groups,"¹ was

¹Warren Carmichael, "A Scale to Measure Attitudes Toward Any Minority Group," Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1968.

used as a general guide in writing the original pool of 250 items. A number of items were selected from the instrument; however, many of them had to be rewritten to make them appropriate to test black students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites. Two research reports were also used in writing the pool of items. They were Cothran's "Negro Conceptions of White People"¹ and McDowell's "How Anti-White Are Negro Youth?"² Many of the items drawn from the above three sources were either rejected altogether or rewritten because they were outdated or were not attitudinal in nature. An intensive search for appropriate commercial scales and surveys indicated that few, if any, were suitable to test for black students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites.

On the basis of available research and after careful analysis of the current racial relationships in this country, the author selected 90 of the original 250 items which were then submitted to a panel of experts on human relations. The judges were selected on the basis of their established regional and national reputations as leaders in the field of human relations. The judges agreed 100 percent on 31 items as being either negative or

¹Tilman C. Cothran, "Negro Conceptions of White People," American Journal of Sociology, LVI (March, 1951), 459.

²Sophia McDowell, "How Anti-White Are Negro Youth?" American Education, IV (March, 1968), 4.

positive. Then, 20 items from this list were selected by the author--10 positive and 10 negative--which constituted the preliminary form of the instrument.

A pilot study¹ was run to determine whether or not the instrument would actually test for Negro students' negative attitudes toward white people. Two types of black students were selected as subjects of the pilot study: (1) those likely to be only moderately negative in their feelings toward whites and (2) those likely to have a high degree of negative feeling toward whites.

Recent black-white conflicts in large urban centers seem to suggest that blacks in these areas are more openly hostile toward whites or at least are more willing to admit their prejudices toward whites than are blacks in smaller cities, particularly southern ones. Since blacks' attitudes apparently differ from region to region, the

¹A pilot study ". . . is used, with special reference to field investigations, to denote an exploratory state of investigation.

In quantitative survey work, the pilot state (or stages) forms the final trial before a large-scale enquiry is begun. Such a stage comes between the stage of general planning and the more extensive application of the techniques of enquiry.

In this sense it has four principal objects: (a) to collect information on the availability, variability, and adequacy of the material; (b) to test different forms of the instruments to be used in the enquiry (e.g. the questionnaire) and to test the administration of the proposed study; (c) to obtain an estimate of time taken so that costs can be calculated; (d) to determine, in the light of these objects, the feasibility of the proposed study." Julius Gould and William Klob, eds., A Dictionary of the Social Sciences (New York: The Free Press, 1964), p. 503.

researcher found it necessary to survey the interracial attitudes of blacks in several cities in different parts of the nation in an effort to determine if the survey form was suitable to distinguish between degrees of prejudices --low prejudices and high prejudices--among black students.

Two black schools in Macon, Georgia, were chosen for the first category. One eighth grade class in Civics was tested at Ballard-Hudson Junior High School; one eleventh grade American History class was tested at Ballard-Hudson Senior High School. From all available evidence, race relations in Macon, Georgia, are harmonious, at least on the surface. Although there is overt segregation and discrimination, there are certain non-verbal kinds of compromises which are respected by blacks and whites. Difficult racial problems have been worked out without serious racial confrontation which generally affects immediately the attitudes of black students. The researcher hypothesized that students in the two schools in Macon would tend to be moderately negative in their attitudes toward whites because of a lack of recent serious racial polarization and limited social interaction.

Four schools were selected for the second category. The schools were: Roosevelt Senior High School and Stewart Junior High School in Washington, D.C.; University Heights Junior High School in Riverside, California; and P.S. 120

in New York, New York. In all three of these urban centers similar events have taken place recently. There have been serious black-white confrontations which tended to polarize the two groups. In all three cities, black hostility and prejudice toward whites have increased considerably within the past few months. The four schools in these cities are located in low-income sections which have shown alarmingly high negative feelings toward white people. Thus, it was reasonable to hypothesize that students in the four schools located in large urban centers would have a high degree of interracial attitudes toward white people.

The author concluded from the pilot study that the survey form was valid to use in this study. In the validation process content validity was the chief concern. Content validity refers to "the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content--the substance, the matter, the topic--of a measuring instrument."¹ Kerlinger also pointed out that content validity is mainly concerned with judgment. Judgment about the representativeness of items may be made alone by the author or with others.² Downie and

¹Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966), pp. 445-446.

²Ibid., p. 446. See also "Technical Recommendations for Psychological Tests and Diagnostic Techniques," Psychological Bulletin, LI (1954), Supplement, 201-208; R. Lennon, "Assumptions Underlying the Use of Content Validity," Educational and Psychological Measurement, XVI (1956), 269-282.

Heath stated when a test is "so constructed that it adequately covers both content and objective,"¹ it is valid. In simple terms validity is achieved when "a test measures what it was intended to measure."²

Statistical Treatment

A statistical analysis was run to check for the significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores for the ninth grade experimental group and control group. Also, the significance of the difference between the pretest and posttest scores was tested for the eleventh grade experimental and control groups. Additionally, the significance of the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the ninth and eleventh grades was tested. The "t" test was used to test the significance of the difference at the .01 and .05 levels of confidence. According to Weinberg and Schumaker, the "t" test is a "method of testing a hypothesis concerning an unknown population mean when the experimenter has no information other than that contained in his sample."³

¹N. M. Downie and R. W. Heath, Basic Statistical Methods. (2nd ed.; New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1965), p. 223.

²Vivian Gounevitich, Statistical Methods: A Problem-Solving Approach (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), p. 20.

³George H. Weinberg and John A. Schumaker, Statistics: An Intuitive Approach (Wadsack Publishing Company, Inc., 1962), p. 193; see also N. M. Downie and R. W. Heath, Basic Statistical Methods (2nd ed., New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1965), pp. 138-39.

Organization of the Study

The test-retest method was used to determine the reliability coefficient of the instrument "A Survey of Attitudes Toward White People." Under this method "a test is administered and then, at a later date, the same test is readministered to the same individuals."¹ The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed between the pretest and posttest scores for both the 9th grade and 11th grade subjects. The correlation coefficient for the 9th grade was .58 at the .001 level of confidence. The correlation coefficient for the 11th grade was .52 at the .01 level of confidence. According to Kerlinger

. . . in order to be statistically significant, a coefficient of correlation computed between 30 pairs of measures has to be approximately .36 to be significant at the .05 level and approximately .46 at the .01 level.²

The computed correlations for the two pairs of scores were considerably above the required level suggested by Kerlinger; therefore, the correlations for both groups should be regarded as significant. Consequently, it can be said that the instrument used in this study was reliable in testing black students' interracial attitudes toward whites.

This investigation follows the design outlined in this chapter. Research related to the problem is summarized

¹Downie and Heath, op. cit., p. 217.

²Kerlinger, op. cit., p. 171.

in Chapter II. The general procedure is presented in Chapter III. Presentation and analysis of data are presented in Chapter IV. The major findings, interpretation of data, conclusions and recommendations are presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

As the present investigation was concerned with the effectiveness of experimental teaching units in altering black students' negative interracial attitudes toward Caucasians, the review of related literature should have been, by definition, restricted to research studies that reported the results of experiments relating to attitude change in black students. However, after an intensive investigation aimed at discovering such studies, the author concluded that few pertinent research studies dealing specifically with methods of changing blacks' negative interracial attitudes have been done. And, if such research has been conducted, results have not been published. However, according to the recent Kerner Report, there is no doubt that negative interracial attitudes of blacks do exist and are alarmingly widespread.¹ Domintz recognized the problem of minority attitudes toward the majority in his 1964 report of an international meeting

¹Otto Kerner, ed., The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1968), p. 133.

on human relations and suggested further study of the problem.¹ Yet neither the immediacy of the problem nor the above two reports appear to have influenced significantly the development of human relations programs suitable for changing blacks' negative interracial attitudes.

In the absence of specific studies relating to experimental teaching units aimed at changing black students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites, the author concluded that the following types of racially based studies were relevant to the development of the study: (1) general studies relative to attitude change, (2) specific studies relating to white students' negative interracial attitude change toward minority groups, especially Negroes, (3) specific studies relating to Negro conceptions and opinions of whites, and (4) research reports which described change related to the effects of interracial contact with whites to induce favorable change.

In addition to reporting the results of these studies, the author also tried to evaluate them and account for the scarcity of research studies related to methodology and experiments designed to alter black students' negative interracial attitudes.

Both black and white scholars appear to have a

¹Myer Domnitz, ed., Educational Techniques for Combating Prejudice and Discrimination and for Promoting Better Inter-Group Understanding (Hamburg, Germany: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1964), p. 77.

lack of interest in conducting such studies. On the one hand, the lack of black experimental and interracial attitudinal studies written by reputable black scholars in recent years may be due, in part, to their tenacious belief that black children have been studied far too much; and, consequently, they think that further study would not be contributive, in a scholarly fashion, to the field of intergroup relations.

Many black educators held the notion that many studies conducted prior to the sixties reinforced stereotypes in addition to being shoddy.¹ However, in the sixties a whole new psychology of race and black awareness emerged on the part of a great many blacks in America. The concepts of "black power," "black is beautiful," "soul," "black pride," and "black militancy," have been for the most part, positive; they have helped to produce group cohesiveness and dignity among the masses of black people. Unfortunately, in many instances, this sudden discovery of ethnocentricity appears to have led to some rather undesirable attitudes including black racial supremacy and racism. Thus, this surge of blatant black

¹This statement is based on the author's personal knowledge of black professors' and black graduate students' attitudes toward research about blacks. Their reactions have been, however, more or less directed to racist type studies not directly related to inter-group relations, i.e., Audry M. Shuey, The Testing of Negro Intelligence (2nd ed.; New York: Social Science Press, 1966).

racism has forced serious black scholars to reconsider their opinion concerning the value of research relative to the more latent negative interracial attitudes of black students and practical techniques to change them.

On the other hand, Westie and Howard in their attempt to account for white researchers' failure to conduct studies of black interracial attitudes, pointed out that in the first place, the volume of research relating to the "attitudes of minority group members toward the majority makes a rather thin chapter in the annals of sociological research,"¹ whether written by black or white. They continued by stating that this is true "especially when compared to the volume of research on the other half of the inter-group relations picture."² In the second place, Westie and Howard attributed the lack of research in this area to the fact that

The inter-group relations area has been traditionally handled within a social pathology framework and this orientation has been conducive not only to the espousal of the values of the investigator but has also lent itself to the assignment of blame and responsibility to particular individuals and groups for the society's failure to realize the investigator's values.³

Thus, it is plainly clear that the nature and scope of

¹Frank R. Westie and David H. Howard, "Social Status Differentials and the Race Attitudes of Negroes," American Sociological Review, XIX (October, 1954), 585.

²Ibid.

³Ibid.

research on interracial attitudes has been adversely affected by restricted views and often by evanescent attitudes of whites. This has not been only applicable to sociological research, but also to research in education and other related disciplines. In other words, Westie and Howard suggested that, in general, human relationists have traditionally thought that the problem of inter-group relations lies in the majority rather than the minority and that "the cure lies in the changing of these attitudes."¹ These authors concluded that in majority-minority relationships, reciprocal aspects of minority-majority relationships must be studied.² They suggested also that the few studies focusing on the racial attitudes of blacks that have been done have largely concerned the attitudes of "Negroes in general toward whites in general."³ (It is interesting to note that Westie and Howard did not identify these studies.) The works of Marx⁴ and Cothran,⁵ however, fall into this category. Cothran's

¹Ibid.

²Ibid.

³Ibid.

⁴Gary Marx, Protest and Prejudice: A Study of Belief in the Black Community (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1967).

⁵Tillman C. Cothran, "Negro Conceptions of White People," American Journal of Sociology, LVI (March, 1951), 458-507.

works will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

The 1959 issue of The Review of Educational Research reported that

Research in many substantive fields has come to reflect the human relations view, notably in curriculum and supervision, in teacher personnel, in school-community relations, in school administration, and for a time in research methodology, through action research.¹

Yet, the bulletin's comprehensive listing² of studies related to methods of instructing youth in human relations lacks any specific references to methods of altering black students' attitudes.

Studies relating to the first two categories have been adequately researched by Ernest and Holland³ and need not be repeated in detail in the present study. What is important, however, is to note the occurrence or non-occurrence of change.

Stagner indicated that change in attitude will take place but after a period of time regression and then stabilized to a mid-point between before and after

¹W. W. Charters, Jr., "Foreword," The Review of Educational Research, XXIX (Washington, D.C.: N.E.A., 1959), 315.

²Ibid.

³Carol Wayne Ernest, "The Effects of Two Teaching Methods in Modifying Ninth-Grade Pupils' Attitudes Toward Minority Groups," unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1968. See also Robert F. Holland, "The Effects of Two Study Units on High School Students' Attitudes Toward Negroes," unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1969.

experiments.¹ In a study by Bateman and Remmers, attitudes toward divorce, labor unions, social insurance, and attitudes toward capital punishment were investigated with a group of high school students. Their results showed that there was no change with regard to divorce; there was change in attitudes toward social insurance; there was change in attitudes toward unions; and there was change in attitudes toward capital punishment. The most important conclusion reached was that individual teachers are the key factors in influencing positive attitudinal change.²

Young studied the effects of a course in American Race Problems at the University of Pennsylvania using 450 undergraduates as subjects.³ A questionnaire was devised to ascertain the opinions of students. Then the traditional lecture method was utilized to conduct the one

¹Ross Stagner, "Attitudes," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, ed. by Walter S. Monroe (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950), p. 79.

²Richard M. Bateman and H. H. Remmers, "The Relationship of Pupil Attitudes toward Social Topics Before and After Studying the Subjects," Further Studies in Attitudes. Purdue University Studies in Higher Education, XXXI (1936), 27-42.

³Donald Young, "Some Effects of a Course in American Race Problems on the Race Prejudice of 450 Undergraduates at the University of Pennsylvania," The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XXII (October-December, 1927), 235-242.

semester course.¹ No definite conclusions could be reached at the close of the experiment.² Young, however, stated that

The study does, however, raise the question of the efficiency of a teaching method which is essentially a logical presentation of facts and theories in as short a time as possible, and that is the method of most courses in race problems. Such a method cannot be effective, for the students' racial opinions and biases have been formed over a period of years beginning early in their childhood, by means which leave a more lasting impression than formal lectures and assignments.³

Young questioned the effectiveness of the method, namely the lecture, and considered it as perhaps the most unsuitable technique to alter attitudes. Although the results were inconclusive, Young pointed out that if students developed a willingness to argue about race issues and to consider that there are several points of view, the course may be regarded as somewhat successful.⁴ Young's conclusion suggested that attitudinal change must be attempted early in students' schooling. This study was somewhat dated. In recent years role playing, gaming, group discussion and other techniques have been used. However, many teachers still prefer to "talk" about changing attitudes.

¹Ibid., pp. 237-241.

²Ibid., p. 241.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid., p. 242.

Mann conducted a three-week experimental study with 78 students enrolled in a graduate course in education. The group approach with emphasis on interracial group contact was used. The course emphasized the "importance of democratic sharing of ideas, feelings, and experiences."¹ This study was designed to examine the differential nature of prejudice. It was concluded "that there is no functional dependence among the cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of racial prejudice."² However, after the experiment, it was found that "the cognitive measure of prejudice decreased significantly."³ The other two aspects were not shown to be affected.

Quite a number of experimental studies have been conducted to change whites' attitudes toward blacks and other minorities. In fact, the 70 studies listed by Van Til with regard to "Instructional Methods in Intercultural and Intergroup Education,"⁴ are primarily applicable to majority-minority relations. The same observation

¹John H. Mann, "The Differential Nature of Prejudice Reduction," The Journal of Social Psychology, LII (November, 1960), 340.

²Ibid., p. 341.

³Ibid., p. 343.

⁴William Van Til, Chapter V--"Instructional Methods in Intercultural and Intergroup Education," Review of Educational Research (1959), 367-377.

can be made with regard to Domintz's bibliography.¹

Peregrine,² Hayes and Conklin,³ Williams,⁴ and Remmers⁵ conducted studies to determine the extent to which whites' attitudes could be changed toward blacks and concluded that attitudes were more favorable after their experiments. Likewise, Ernest concluded after his experiment that white students' negative attitudes could be changed to more favorable ones by teaching a special unit on human relations.⁶

Billings⁷ and Russell and Robertson⁸ also found that experimental units could change white pupils

¹Domintz, op. cit.,

²Donald Peregrine, "The Effects of Printed Social Stimulus Material upon the Attitudes of High School Pupils toward the Negro," Further Studies in Attitudes. Purdue University Studies in Higher Education, XXXI (1936), 109-114.

³Margaret L. Hayes and Mary Conklin, "Intergroup Attitudes and Experimental Change," Journal of Experimental Education, XXII (1953), 19-36.

⁴Murray H. Williams, "Changes in Pupils' Attitudes toward West African Negroes Following the Use of Two Different Teaching Methods," British Journal of Educational Psychology, XXXI (November, 1961), 292-296.

⁵H. H. Remmers and C. L. Morgan, "Changing Attitudes Toward a Racial Group," Further Studies in Attitudes. Purdue University Studies in Higher Education, XXXI (1936), 55-69.

⁶Ernest, op. cit., pp. 101-102.

⁷Elizabeth L. Billings, "Influences of a Social Studies Experiment on Student Attitudes," School and Society, LVI (1942), 557-560.

⁸Russell and Robertson, op. cit.

attitudes toward minority groups, but that the change was limited, and in the case of Russell and Robertson, the attitudes toward blacks were found to be much less favorable than attitudes toward other minorities after their experiment.¹ Stephenson² concluded that college courses designed to change attitudes toward Negroes do not lead to very much positive change. His findings are somewhat inconclusive, however. In grappling with the question "Does a course or unit in minority group relations create more favorable attitudes toward minority groups?" Rose and Rose³ suggested that some prejudice is probably due to ignorance which requires information-correction type units.

Rose summarized a number of studies published prior to 1945 which were the results of college or high school courses, propaganda techniques, personal contact approaches, and the introduction of change techniques in general education in attempts to reduce prejudice. Out of a total of 66 studies, approximately 56 percent resulted in change; the others indicated either no change or were indefinite in their conclusions.⁴

¹Ibid.

²Stephenson, op. cit.

³Arnold Rose and Caroline Rose, America Divided: Minority Group Relations in the United States (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1948), p. 82.

⁴Arnold M. Rose, Studies in Reduction of Prejudice (Chicago: American Council on Race Relations, 1948), p. 18.

On the basis of the evidence examined thus far, it appears reasonable to state the junior high school students probably benefit more from teaching units which have as their primary intent the alteration of racial attitudes. (Russell and Robertson, Grice, Hayes and Conklin)¹

According to Noar, who has published a number of human relations teaching guides, there are many important variables that affect the teaching and learning of positive interracial attitudes, the most important of which is the ability to select and deal with immediate and relevant issues. She stated further in her book on the junior high school that perhaps the most effective time for human relations education is the junior high school years. Yet, she pointed out that the teaching of such skills should not necessarily be restricted to the junior high grades.²

Bernardi conducted a one-year study to ascertain what effect a secondary school course in a modern foreign language would have on ethnic attitudes. Two hundred and ninety-six ninth grade students in four Scranton, Pennsylvania public schools were used as subjects of the investigation. The experimental group was taught French while the control group was taught Latin. Using the Otis Beta Test the groups were paired on the basis of sex, age, grade level, and I.Q. Four tests were administered to

¹Supra, p. 37.

²Gertrude Noar, Interview, March, 1969.

both groups at the beginning of and at the end of the experiment. The tests were the Bogardus Social Distance Scale, the Stereotype-Values Scale, and the French and Japanese Knowledge Scales. The experimental group was also administered the Modern Language Attitude Test and asked to complete an Expectancy Scale.¹

Bernardi concluded that the study of French produced significant gains in knowledge about French and the Japanese and a reduction in social distance. Students who studied Latin did not show any significant gains in ethnic attitudes. The study also indicated that significant gains were associated with high ability students. The major finding was that attitudes toward ethnic groups in general can be changed favorably through the use of a modern foreign language.²

Fisher conducted a study to determine the effects of reading about American Indians would have on fifth graders' attitudes toward American Indians. I.Q., reading achievement, socio-economic status, race, sex, and information gained from reading were variables considered in relationship to attitude change in this study.³

¹Ralph E. Bernardi, "Social Distance, Stereotypes, and Knowledge as Affected by Modern Foreign Language Education," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1966), pp. 2-4.

²Ibid., pp. 123-129.

³Frank L. Fisher, "The Influences of Reading and Discussion on the Attitudes of Fifth Graders toward

Eighteen fifth grade classes representing three broad socio-economic groups in Berkeley, California were divided into three groups. Treatment Group A was tested for the effect on attitude change of reading six stories or articles about American Indians. Treatment Group B was tested for the effect on attitude change of reading and discussing the stories and articles. Treatment Group C neither read nor discussed the printed materials.¹

A special attitude information test was constructed by Fisher and administered to the 18 classes as a pre-test and post-test. The findings indicated that the attitude change in Group B was significantly greater than in Group A and the attitude change in Group A was significantly greater than in Group C. The major conclusion, however, was that reading followed by structured discussion does provide favorable attitude change in fifth graders toward American Indians.²

The third category of studies is more directly related to the major focus of the present study. As has already been documented, black people's conceptions and opinions of whites appear to be highly negative at the

American Indians" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of California at Berkeley, 1965), pp. 105-110.

¹Ibid.

²Ibid.

present time.¹ Cothran has, in the investigator's judgment, done the pioneer work in this area; two of his studies will be discussed in some detail.

Negro Conceptions and Opinions of Whites

In "The Dimensions of Negro Stereotyped Conceptions of White People," Cothran discussed the universality, uniformity, direction and intensity of Negroes' conceptions of whites. One of Cothran's major hypotheses was "middle-class Negroes are more favorable in their conceptions of white people than either upper or lower-class Negroes."² The author constructed a schedule consisting of 30 conceptions.³ These were drawn from more than 200 such conceptions secured from 341 Negroes through a modification of the Likert technique.⁴ A stratified random sample of 174 Negroes was used and the data was analyzed according to social class. The sample included lower class 57, middle 57, and upper 60.⁵

¹Noar, op. cit.

²Tillman C. Cothran, op. cit., p. 458.

³Ibid.

⁴For a full discussion of Likert technique see Frank R. Westie, "A Technique for the Measurement of Race Attitudes," American Sociological Review, XVIII (February, 1953), 73-78.

⁵Cothran, op. cit.

With regard to the universality of Negro conceptions of white people Cothran concluded that the thirty conceptions were familiar to the majority of Negroes of all classes; however, the middle class showed the lowest percentage of recognition of any single item.¹

Cothran had this to report concerning the uniformity of Negro conceptions of white people:

The lower class is more uniformly unfavorable (52.1%) in its stereotyped conceptions of white people than the upper and middle classes. There is little difference in the extent to which upper and middle class Negroes hold to unfavorable conceptions of white people--42.2 per cent for the upper class and 43.3 per cent for the middle class. However, the most interesting aspect of the agreement in responses is the fact that higher proportions of upper--and lower--class Negroes are strongly unfavorable in their conceptions of white people--13.5 and 13.6 per cent, respectively. Middle-class Negroes were less inclined to be strongly unfavorable in their conceptions.²

These findings are significant since the majority of Negroes can be placed within the low-class category.

With regard to the direction of Negro conceptions of white people--i.e., favorableness or unfavorableness, it was concluded in an item by item analysis that lower class persons appear to be most unfavorable in their conceptions of white people.³

Cothran's treatment of the item concerning white

¹Ibid., pp. 458-459.

²Ibid., p. 460.

³Ibid., pp. 460-65.

liberals sheds some light on the interracial attitudes of a large majority of blacks. Consider what he had to say in the following statement:

If, at any time, the southern white liberal has been puzzled by the lack of cooperation on the part of Negroes, Negro stereotyped conceptions of white liberals will offer a degree of explanation. Forty-seven percent of the upper class, 55 percent of the middle class, and 60 percent of the lower class said, "White liberals give largely lip service." Two reasons suggest themselves: first, Negroes generally are not convinced of the sincerity of the southern liberal when he is forced to 'emphasize strongly his local and regional patriotism;' second, southern liberals are condemned for their outspoken interest in the application of democracy at home. Thus, the white liberal gains the greatest support from the upper-class and the least support from the lower-class Negro.¹

This researcher considered this as one of the most important of Cothran's observations. Although, this was written in the 1950's, the statement is presently relevant because of a large number of whites' inaction and/or ambivalence toward the black struggle. What was suggested was an element of distrust of whites in general. Cothran's second point has merit when the country's record on recent wars and foreign aid are compared to the majority's reaction to black struggle for equal status within the American democratic system.

In analyzing the intensity of Negro stereotyped conceptions of white people, it was concluded that "the lower class was most unfavorable."² Cothran also reported

¹Ibid., p. 465.

²Ibid., p. 466.

that "these data support the hypothesis that middle-class Negroes are more favorable in their conceptions of white people than either the lower--or the upper-class Negro."¹ This study showed that by and large blacks are unfavorable in their attitude toward whites and further that the lower-class was more intensely unfavorable than other classes.²

A replication of Cothran's study of Negro conceptions of white people was done by McDaniel and Babchuk. The purpose of this study was to ". . . discover the extent to which the Northern Negroes differed from those in the Southern sample in the favorableness or unfavorableness of their conceptions of white people."³ Thus, it was hypothesized "that the Negro's conception of the white group would be significantly related to his social class."⁴ The procedures of this study were exactly the same as Cothran's except, of course, the sample--a Northeastern City.

McDaniel and Babchuk chose a sample of 100 Negroes who were selected from different social classes. The

¹Ibid.

²Ibid.

³Paul A. McDaniel and Nicholas Babchuk, "Negro Conceptions of White People in a Northeastern City," Phylon, XXI (Spring, 1960), 7-8.

⁴Ibid., p. 8.

breakdown was as follows: upper class 25 percent, middle class 45 percent, and lower class 30 percent. The sample was equally divided between the sexes and covered a rather wide age group.¹

The major findings of this study agreed significantly with those of Cothran's. For example, McDaniel and Babchuk concluded that

In this study, the lower-class Negro showed the greatest familiarity with the conceptions, the middle class the least familiarity. The upper class, however, showed the lowest percentage of recognition of any single item; only 40 percent were familiar with the conception that "white people are not very brave."²

On another representative item the authors found that 98 percent of the sample recognized the concept "White people feel superior to Negroes."³ It would appear in this respect that regional determinants are not unimportant.⁴

Although there were some minor differences between the Cothran study and McDaniel and Babchuk's study, the latter found that lower-class groups were generally uniformly more unfavorable toward white people.⁵ Also, it was found that on thirteen of the original stereotyped

¹Ibid.

²Ibid.

³Ibid., p. 10.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid., p. 16.

conceptions there was a consensus among those tested regardless of region or social class.¹

With regard to direction the McDaniel and Babchuk study showed "that the stereotyped conceptions of all types are found and strongly held by Negroes in the North."² This is in agreement with the previous study. It was also found that lower-class people in the Northeastern City were more hostile toward whites.³ With regard to intensity, using the self-rating technique suggested by Likert, it was found that all three classes in both cities held predominantly unfavorable conceptions.⁴ The authors concluded that "the upper and middle class groups in the North were somewhat less intensely unfavorable, but in general these results were similar to Cothran's."⁵

On the basis of this study, it should be concluded that Cothran's findings are characteristic of Northern Negroes. It should be inferred that these conceptions are more or less nationwide. Response to particular items differed somewhat on the scale, but in terms of attitudes toward whites, the evidence points toward blacks general

¹Ibid.

²Ibid.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid., pp. 16-17.

⁵Ibid., p. 17.

unfavorable attitudes toward whites.

Westie and Howard made a multi-phased study to investigate the relationship of social status to the race attitudes of Negroes. The basic purpose of the study was "to ascertain the attitudes of Negroes toward whites."¹ The basic data was gathered in 1952² using the Summated Differences Technique "which yields a prejudice score which is a function of the difference in response to persons of the same occupations but of different races."³

The instrument includes four social distance scales which measure

(1) Residential distance (degree of residential proximity permitted, (2) position Distance (degree of willingness to have the attitude object occupy positions of power and prestige, (3) Physical Distance (the degree to which respondents are averse to physical contact with attitude object, and (4) Interpersonal Distance (the degree of proximity permitted in interpersonal interaction.⁴

The sample included Negro males 21 years of age or over who were heads of households and who lived in blocks without whites. There was difficulty in getting a sufficient enough number of high status respondents. Therefore,

¹Frank R. Westie and David H. Howard, "Social Status Differentials and the Race Attitudes of Negroes," American Sociological Review, XIX (October, 1954), 584-591.

²Ibid., p. 584.

³Ibid., p. 586.

⁴Ibid., pp. 586-87.

such persons were drawn from lists of persons in the professions, higher status white collar and in business positions. The interviewers were Negro.¹

Westie and Howard set out to answer the following four questions:

(1) What is the relationship between variations in the socio-economic status of Negroes and the social distance they accord whites in general?

(2) What effect does the occupational status of the white person (as attitude-object) have upon the Negro's response to him?

(3) If the responses of Negroes are affected by the socio-economic levels of the Negro population?

(4) Are the responses of Negroes equally categorical (or non-categorical, as the case may be) in one kind of interaction as in another, or does the degree to which Negroes respond to "whites as a type" depend on the kind of interaction involved?²

In the authors' judgment these represented the critical questions which affect the attitudes of Negroes toward white people.

On the basis of a thorough analysis Westie and Howard found the following answers to the above four questions:

(1) There is an inverse relationship between the status of the Negro and the distance he would accord whites: the higher the status of the Negro, the less the distance expressed toward whites in general.

(2) Least distance is expressed toward whites of high status while greatest distance is accorded to the lowest status white.

(3) Upper status Negroes are less categorical in their responses to whites than are lower status Negroes.

¹Ibid., p. 587.

²Ibid.

(4) The responses of Negroes to whites vary according to the area of interaction in which responses are elicited.¹

What these findings suggest is that the attitudes of Negroes toward whites are primarily determined by their own class status in addition to the status of the whites against whom attitudes are directed. The findings of this study coincide with those of Cothran and McDaniel and Babchuk.

Webster conducted a study to determine if "inter-racial contact leads to improved social acceptance among participants."² He concluded that

Contact had a negative effect upon the white subjects; they became significantly less accepting of Negroes. The findings were inconclusive in the case of the Negro subjects, but did tend to indicate that change was greater in the direction of more acceptance of whites.³

Interracial contact is generally regarded as a rather dubious method to use in changing interracial attitudes, for it is the quality of the contact which produces desirable change. It should be noted though that as a technique contact may be valuable for changing Negroes negative interracial attitudes toward whites. In a study by Russell and Robertson, previously referred to in this paper, it

¹Ibid., pp. 587-88.

²Staten W. Webster, "The Influence of Interracial Contact on Social Acceptance in a Newly Integrated School," Journal of Educational Psychology, LII (1961), 292.

³Ibid., p. 296.

was concluded that blacks' attitudes were more easily changed than those of whites using specially planned activities.

One of the most recent studies done in the mid-60's regarding black attitudes toward whites was McDowell's "How Anti-White Are Negro Youth?"¹ McDowell's investigation dealt with the interracial attitudes of a sample of Negro youth living in Washington, D.C.

Findings are based principally on questionnaire data collected in the spring of 1966 from 582 male and female high school students and dropouts between the ages of 16 and 19.²

McDowell's study was similar to Westie and Howard's study which investigated the effects of social class. However, McDowell's study "sought to understand how particular situations affect interracial perspectives, and to account for variables in attitudes on the basis of various background attributes such as schooling."³

The particular form of prejudice investigated in the McDowell study was "social distance feelings." A group of 16 social distance situations in the interracial prejudice questionnaire. A scale ranging from a high of 4 to a low of 0 was used to represent the "various levels of willingness to associate with whites: 4 completely

¹Sophia McDowell, "How Anti-White Are Negro Youth," American Education, IV (March 1968), 2-4.

²Ibid., p. 2.

³Ibid., p. 3.

willing, 3--somewhat willing, 2--unsure, 1--somewhat unwilling, 0--completely unwilling. The average score of 582 young people for the entire list was 3.16, corresponding to a willingness between somewhat and completely willing."¹

The results of this study were surprising and quite contradictory to other major studies in several respects. Several factors, according to McDowell may account for her findings: (1) the artificiality of the questions, (2) special local condition in Washington (white collar Negroes, availability of jobs, de facto segregation, and interracial mixing).² It would appear that a major weakness was the absence of a militant political activist element which was visible in the Washington area.

Three important ideas should be noted in this study: (1) Negroes "rejected predominantly white situations, and preferred ones in which the racial composition was balanced or predominantly Negro, (2) the importance of desegregation could not be ascertained because it was too small, (3) "the amount of personal dealings these Negro youngsters had had with white school mates had a definite bearing on their general willingness to associate with whites," (4) Minority group disposition does depend on dominant group predisposition."³ If willingness to associate with whites can be

¹Ibid., p. 2.

²Ibid., p. 3.

³Ibid., p. 4.

interpreted as an interracial attitude, then McDowell's findings conflict somewhat with those of Webster. However, the presence of open conflict may account for the difference in findings.

The findings of the studies reported in this chapter are not only contradictory, but also conflicting. However, it can be concluded that blacks appear to have deeply rooted negative interracial feelings, but these attitudes can be changed.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

Design of the Experiment

The present investigation was designed to determine the effectiveness of two forms of a human relations teaching unit constructed to favorably alter the negative interracial attitudes of black ninth and eleventh graders at Kennedy Junior High and Douglass Senior High Schools in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, toward white people. Two experimental groups were formed; each group was given a pretest just prior to the commencement of the experiment. Two control groups were also formed and pretested. At the close of the experiment each of the four groups was administered the same instrument as a posttest to ascertain the degree to which attitudinal change had occurred. The ninth grade experimental group was taught Form I A of the Unit--"Understanding Our Prejudices." The eleventh grade experimental group was taught Form II A of the Unit--"Understanding Our Prejudices." The two control groups received no instruction or course content that was deliberately designed to alter their interracial attitudes toward white people.

Study Unit--Form I A was taught to a group of 30 ninth graders at Kennedy Junior High School who were enrolled in Negro History during the fall semester of the 1969 academic year. Negro History is a year's course which carries one unit of credit. Study Unit Form II A was taught to a group of 31 eleventh graders at Douglass who were enrolled in World History during the 1969-70 academic year. World History is a two semester course which carries a full unit of credit. The course is an elective usually taken by eleventh graders at Douglass. The following variables were controlled: class size, sex, academic achievement and teachers.

The control group for the ninth grade consisted of 30 students who were enrolled in Negro History at Kennedy. Likewise, the control group for the eleventh grade consisted of 34 students who were enrolled in World History at Douglass (30 were selected for the study). All of the students were black. Neither control group was taught any human relations oriented materials or units which were designed to alter attitudes toward white people.

Students at the Kennedy School were administered the Sequential Test of Educational Progress (STEP) during the fall semester of the eighth grade (1968-69). Likewise, Douglass students were administered the same test in the tenth grade at the same time. The STEP test is given on a city-wide basis in alternate years to all students. The

scores from the tests were used to divide each of the experimental groups into three comparable intelligence levels. Each of the groups consisted of 30 students; each group was further divided into groups of 15 males and 15 females. Each intelligence level consisted of five males and five females. The two control groups were treated in the same manner.

At Kennedy, the fourth hour Negro History class which met from 12:00 to 12:55 daily served as the experimental group. This group was taught Unit I A which dealt with the nature and causes of prejudices, as well as methods that can be used to combat prejudice. The fifth hour Negro History class which met from 1:30 to 2:30 daily was designated as the control group.

At Douglass, the first hour World History class which met from 8:50 to 9:50 daily served as the experimental group. This group was taught Unit II A which dealt with the nature and causes of black people's prejudices against other groups, especially whites. The fourth hour World History class was designated as the control group which met from 11:40 to 12:40.

The Setting

Kennedy Junior and Douglass Senior High Schools are racially identifiable as all black and are located in the southeast section of Oklahoma City proper which contains the major portion of the city's black population.

According to recent information published by the Oklahoma City Chamber of Commerce, the city had an estimated population of 414,100 in 1969. The racial composition was reported to be roughly 89.6% white, 9.0% Negro, and 1.4% other races¹ (chiefly Indian).

Oklahoma City has not been troubled by a devastating black and white crisis in recent years such as those experienced by Los Angeles and other large metropolitan areas. However, several events did occur which were considered potentially explosive in nature and had incipient, and in some instances, very definite racial overtones. First, the NAACP Freedom Center was bombed in 1968.² Secondly, the Black Muslims established a center which heightened racial fears and tension to a measurable degree.³ Thirdly, the city's sanitation workers, mostly black, went on strike for higher wages.⁴ Because of the strike, a great deal of unhealthy racial feeling was created in both black and white communities. Fourthly, the matter of school integration became a major area of community conflict during the spring and summer of 1969. The conflict was at its peak just prior to and during the beginning of

¹Oklahoma City Chamber of Commerce, "Your Introduction to Oklahoma City," 1969, p. 2.

²Daily Oklahoman, September 11, 1968.

³Ibid., September 2, 1968.

⁴Ibid., August 19, 1969.

the 1969-70 school year. Much of the conflict revolved around boundary changes, "forced bussing," and other measures designed to achieve integration in the city's public schools.

In accordance to a court order handed down in 1967, much of the student racial integration was concentrated in four high schools involved in a paired arrangement.

The desegregation plan is described below:

1. A combination of four secondary attendance zones which includes the pairing of Northeast Junior-Senior High School and Harding Junior-Senior High School, with Harding becoming a junior high school, and Northeast becoming a senior high school; and the pairing of Central Junior-Senior High School and Classen Junior-Senior High School, with Central a junior high school, and Classen becoming a senior high school.
2. A majority to minority transfer policy which allows a student attending school where his race is in the majority to transfer to a school where his race is in the minority.
3. Desegregation of faculty which provides for racial balance in all school plants in the Oklahoma City school district to be accomplished by the school year 1970.¹

This arrangement erupted in considerable confusion by the end of the 1968-69 school year. The controversy centered mainly around the ratio of blacks to whites, interracial conflicts within schools, and discipline problems. Harding and Northeast schools had heavy concentrations of blacks.

¹Oklahoma City Board of Education, "Proposal for School Board Grant Program on School Desegregation Problems," April 10, 1968, pp. 1-2.

Consequently, several Neighborhood School Associations throughout the city insisted on an arbitrary ratio of 70-30 (70% white and 30% black).

During the months from July to September, 1969, numerous plans were presented to the Oklahoma City Board of Education and the court. Conflicts among groups resulted in several court hearings. As plans seemed to vacillate on a daily basis, the integration plan was referred to as the "on again off again" integration plan. After holding a lengthy court hearing in late July, Judge Bohanon issued an order which put into effect several boundary changes suggested by an 18-point plan proposed by the School Board on May 30, 1969, in addition to supplementary boundary changes affecting several elementary districts. The plan also affected a number of tenth and eleventh graders in other attendance areas who were to be assigned to a fifth high school, Northwest Classen, which was not originally included in the 1967 order.¹

A Federal Appeals Court vacated the August 1, 1969, order on August 5.² Judge Bohanon again ordered on August 13 that the new plan become operative on September 2 as originally scheduled.³ The order was appealed; however, Judge Bohanon issued another order on September 11 which

¹Oklahoma City Times, August 1, 1969, pp. 1-2.

²Daily Oklahoman, August 6, p. 2.

³Ibid., August 14, 1969, p. 41.

required implementing the Board's plan and further that a comprehensive plan be presented by November 1, 1969.¹

Reactions to the final order were varied. Because some bussing was involved, many parents of the newly affected students began protests, meetings, marches, etc., which apparently led to several disturbances at Northwest High School. Also, several underground newspapers against the plan sprang up and were distributed widely. Details regarding the several incidents were difficult to ascertain; however, the consensus was that racial confrontations were apparently the cause of much of the difficulty.

The Pretest-Posttest Instrument

The instrument--"A Survey of Attitudes Toward White People" was constructed and validated by the researcher. The basic form of the instrument was adapted from Carmichael's attitude scale.² Also, many of his original items were used in the initial pool of 250 items (statements). Other instruments utilized in constructing this survey form were Tillman Cothran's List of Conceptions of White People³ and Sophia McDowell's Social Distance Scale.⁴ From an original pool of 250 items the author

¹Ibid., September 13, 1969, p. 1.

²Carmichael, op. cit.

³Cothran, op. cit.

⁴McDowell, op. cit.

selected 90 items to submit to a panel of 14 human relations experts.¹ These judges represented a cross section of agencies including college presidents, professors, human relations consultants, and directors of human relations organizations. They also came from a wide geographical distribution. Three of the judges were black. The panel was instructed to judge each item as either a negative or positive attitude. Of the 90 items, the 14 judges agreed on 31 as being either negative or positive. The remaining 69 items were rejected mostly on the grounds that they were factual rather than attitudinal in nature. Several of the judges wrote lengthy comments concerning the items which they rejected. Also, the author had the instrument scrutinized in detail by Gertrude Noar who helped with the wording of some of the questions. Eighteen of the items were listed as positive, while 13 were listed as negative. Since some items were similar in nature, the author decided to use 20 of the 31 items.

The Pilot Study

A pilot study was run in several schools to determine whether or not the instrument "A Survey Toward White People" would be suitable to test black high school students' interracial attitudes. Two groups of students were tested (1) those suspected of having highly negative

¹See Appendix I.

interracial attitudes and (2) those suspected of having only moderately negative interracial attitudes.

For the first group the following schools were chosen: (1) Roosevelt Senior and Steward Junior High Schools in Washington, D.C.--all black; (2) University Heights Junior High School in Riverside, California, about one-third black; (3) P.S. 120 in New York City, mostly black. It was hypothesized that these black students would have a high degree of negative interracial attitudes toward whites. Schools in this first group were chosen for the following reasons: (1) their location in cities where racial tension has been high and (2) the willingness of administrators and teachers to participate in the study.

In the second group, the author chose two southern schools located in Macon, Georgia. They were all black: Ballard-Hudson Senior High School and Ballard-Hudson Junior High School. The two schools are completely separate and are located on different campuses with different administrations. It was hypothesized that the students in these two schools would be only slightly prejudiced towards whites because of the racial calm in the city for many years and limited contact.

After the survey was administered to students in these two groups of schools, the responses were tabulated and compared. A random item analysis indicated the two hypotheses were true. Therefore, it was concluded that

the instrument was appropriate to use as a test of blacks' interracial attitudes for the purposes of this study.

Administering the Pretest

The pretest was administered to all four groups on September 8, 1969. At Kennedy the Negro History teacher administered the attitude survey to both the experimental and control groups for the ninth grade. At Douglass the World History teacher administered the instrument to the experimental and control groups for the eleventh grade.

Students were told that the survey was part of a study being done by the University of Oklahoma. However, they were not informed of the actual experiment. The administrators of the survey told students that the instructions should be read carefully, that questions would not be answered, that each question should be answered and that they were not required to write their names on the papers. The four groups required approximately 10-15 minutes to complete the pretest. Students who were absent were tested the following day and received the same set of instructions.

For the purpose of identification, each student was asked to place his IBM Card number on his paper. The IBM number automatically identified each student by name. The completed survey forms were marked to identify them as the pretest and further to indicate whether they were completed by students in Experimental Group I, Experimental Group II, Control Group I B or Control Group II B.

The Study Units

The special human relations unit for the ninth grade was taught by the Negro History teacher. The unit was prepared by the researcher in collaboration with the teacher. Study Unit I A was designed to alter black students' negative inter-racial attitudes toward whites through a study of race relations oriented problems and topics. In this unit of study, material dealing with the ethnic diversity of America, prejudices, discrimination, scapegoating and racism was used; group activities focused on the black-white conflict in America and the resulting prejudices of blacks against whites. Study Unit II A, written jointly by the researcher and the World History teacher, was also designed to alter black students' attitudes toward whites. Essentially the same topics and materials were used for Unit II A as were used in Unit I A. However, concepts about race and ethnocentricity were presented in greater depth and detail. The activities were more self-directed and the volume of required reading was greater than for Unit I A. Fewer movies and other audio-visual materials were used. Instead, more outside speakers were used.

The two experimental human relations units were designed to utilize teaching techniques which stressed individual student involvement; the formal teacher lecture was minimized. The major techniques are described below:

Formal Teacher Lecture. Although the units were designed to use teaching techniques other than the lecture, there were instances when a teacher lecture was necessary. For example, each lesson had to be introduced and background information which was either too difficult to obtain or required explanations which were not available in printed or other forms.

Audio-visual Materials. Materials such as movies and filmstrips were used a great deal, especially for the ninth grade experimental group. These materials were obtained on a rental basis from the Anti-Defamation League, the University of Oklahoma Audio-Visual Center, and the Oklahoma City Film Library, etc. After the showing of each visual aid, students were involved in group discussions, small group activity, individual assignments, etc. 16 mm projectors and film strip projectors were readily available on a scheduled basis from each school's Audio-Visual Center. Also, overhead and opaque projectors were available for use in showing single copies of materials.

Small Group Discussions. At various times during each unit, students were divided into small groups to pursue certain topics. Groups were generally formed on a voluntary basis; however, sometimes group members were assigned by the teacher. The groups were required to make composite reports to the entire class.

Individual Assignments and Reports. Since a great

deal of reading was required, especially in the 11th grade, individual written reports were required. Some of these reports were used as a basis for class discussions.

Resource Materials. In the absence of a basic textbook for both of the units, a large quantity of pamphlets, paperbacks, and reprints were made available to teachers and students. Most of the materials were provided by the researcher.

Simulation Gaming. Various situational problems gave rise to the use of gaming. These games afforded many students the opportunity to become personally involved in simulated interracial confrontations, and other racially oriented problems. Also, students were given the opportunity to examine the irrational thinking behind prejudiced behavior. Gaming was used because many of the variables, related to race, could be to a great extent controlled.

Role Playing. For several problems, the role playing technique was utilized to further get students actively involved in solving real life problems related to prejudice. Role playing is similar to simulation gaming, but role playing has fewer rules and restrictions governing roles, problem solving, and the problem solving process.

Study Unit I A

Experimental Group I (ninth grade) commenced studying Unit I A on September 8, 1969; the unit ended on

October 17, 1969. The class met daily for 50 minutes with only minor interruptions. All city schools, however, were closed on September 22 for the County Fair.

The unit for this group was entitled "Understanding Our Prejudices" Form I A. The unit dealt mainly with prejudice and discriminatory practices which blacks direct against whites as well as against members of their own group. The unit was divided into six major lessons. A detailed outline of Unit I A is included in Appendix J of this paper. However, a brief description of each lesson is provided in the following section.

Lesson Plan I--The Concept of Americanism: Principles and Values. The major objective of this lesson was two-fold (1) to give an overview of the entire unit and (2) to understand the basic principles and values of American democracy as they relate to individual and group rights. The unit was introduced briefly by the teacher. A free discussion on the general topic--Integration of Oklahoma City Public Schools. The problems of integration were explored in terms of the black community's attitudes. Also, the garbage strike was discussed in some detail. These discussions were followed by a planning session in which major areas of interest were identified. Also, approaches to studying about prejudices were considered. Small groups were formed and several topics for discussion were listed.

The film "One People" by Owen Dodson was viewed. Man's epic struggle for freedom and the vast wilderness he conquered in America was the focus of the film. The purpose of the film was to show not sameness, but diversity, makes life interesting and worthwhile.

Discussion before the showing of the filmstrip centered around such questions as, What do we know about the subject already? and What are our opinions regarding the issues? During and after the showing facts were added; new questions listed; sources of information were listed; and criticisms of the strip were made. Students then wrote individual comments about the strip. An effort was made to distinguish facts from opinions.

All students were required to read A Nation of Immigrants. Small groups were assigned sections of the book to report on. Each group was required to write a one-page essay explaining the "principles and values of American democracy." A large group discussion on the concept of Americanism was conducted. Each student was asked to list various sources of information on -isms and groups which threaten our way of life. In an effort to surface pertinent problems and discussion areas, students were also asked to make a list of personal grievances relating to intergroup, interracial, and interpersonal problems.

Lesson Plan II--The Nature and Causes of Prejudices.

The major objectives were to understand the nature and

effects of prejudice and to develop the ability to refrain from acting on the basis of prejudiced feelings. The informational input included several definitions of prejudice, the social problems which prejudice breeds, and the situational changes which affect prejudice. Special attention was given to the relationship between attitudes and behavior. After a brief introductory lecture by the teacher and a planning session, students were allowed to choose their own reading material and methods of classroom discussion and reporting. Students related personal experiences of prejudices and reacted to several open-ended statements. These activities were followed by discussion.

Two films were shown. The first one was JOSHUA _ which depicted the personal conflicts of a Negro boy about to enter white society. The film clearly reflected current tensions between blacks and whites in America.

Joshua lived his whole life in the Negro ghetto of Harlem. He had won an athletic scholarship to a college in Texas and perceived that his identification as a black American was threatened. His mother admonished him to follow the old ways--to accommodate to white society on terms set by whites. In this rapidly diminishing view, a Negro must accept the value system of the white establishment and measure his accomplishments by white standards.

Joshua bade good-bye to the friends of his childhood and embarked on a running spree through a park.

Running was his mode of self-assertion. He befriended a small boy in the park zoo who inadvertently called him "nigger." The epithet raised all of Joshua's buried conflicts and anxieties about his status in the white world. Unable to vent his anger against a small boy, he picked on an older white boy. The white boy and the black boy briefly engaged in a physical struggle. After the fight was over, they regarded one another, not as representatives or stereotypes of a group, but as individuals. The white boy had a kite which he had been unable to get aloft by himself. Joshua provided the ingredient of speed and together they were successful. They both contributed something unique to the venture--the white boy conceived an idea; the black boy helped get it off the ground. Consequently, each was satisfied. Confrontation, in this instance, led to an awakening and to a realization of the possibilities of a Negro-white partnership on terms of equality.

The process by which confrontations between blacks and whites are taking place on various levels in our society, can lead to constructive changes was a question that merited serious discussion which took place after the film. Joshua's athletic ability was explored in terms of what it meant to him personally, his social role and its historical implications for the Negro. Black people's concept of black power and certain kinds of aggressiveness

were discussed in detail. Also, a teacher led discussion centered around "finding common goals."

A second film "Picture in Your Mind" was shown and discussed. The film explained how man developed down through the various stages of man's history. In addition, it showed how various groups acquired their cultural characteristics. As cultures developed, conflicts began to arise. Each thought that his one way of doing things was the right way.

Reading materials included "What Is Prejudice," "Sense and Nonsense About Race," "Prejudiced--How Do People Get That Way?" and "The Roots of Prejudice."

Lesson Plan III--Discrimination in Reverse. This lesson was designed to help students to understand the nature, causes, and effects of discrimination, to develop the capacity to refrain from discriminating against groups different from their own, and to understand the relationship between prejudice and discrimination. The unit focused on the human and civil rights in addition to the Bill of Rights and the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Efforts were made to show that black racial separation is not a viable alternative and that blacks discriminate against members of their own group. The discussion brought out the fact that blacks often discriminate against whites for a multiplicity of reasons, but primarily because of racial prejudice. Students were given the opportunity to plan

discussions relating to several ways in which whites discriminate against blacks and blacks against whites.

Activities consisted of role playing and simulation gaming of situations which involved discrimination. Reading consisted of current newspaper accounts of discrimination.

Lesson Plan IV--Stereotypes. This lesson had three major objectives: (1) to understand the origin and development of racial stereotypes, (2) to develop the ability to judge individuals on the basis of their own characteristics, and (3) to develop the ability to distinguish between facts and stereotyped opinions.

A stereotype was described as a mental picture formed in the absence of adequate facts, which often results in uncritical judgments about things such as race. The lesson sought to establish the fact that hostility often flows from stereotypes, and that the expression of negative stereotypes creates bad feelings. Student activities included opportunities to examine common stereotypes about several ethnic groups. Also, students tested racial stereotypes against people whom they knew. In examining myths and stereotypes about whites, students were asked to write a short paper about whites using only stereotypes.

A simulation game involving Appalachian whites was played to demonstrate the effects of stereotyped opinions. Reading materials from Lesson II were reviewed for specific examples of stereotyped thinking.

Lesson Plan V--Racism and Ethnocentrism. This lesson was designed to develop understanding of the nature and causes of individual, group, and institutional racism and ethnocentrism. At the same time, the lesson sought to establish appreciation and respect for racial differences and to understand the ill-effects of racial hatred.

The unit stressed the notion that racism is an unhealthy attitude which creates frustration and violence. The belief that any particular racial or ethnic group is superior to another was discouraged. Racial pride and identity were lauded; however, the belief that Negroes are superior to any other group was shown to be unfounded and furthermore unAmerican. The point was made that there is much black racism against whites which needs to be eradicated by rational persuasion.

Procedures stated in previous lessons were followed in Lesson V. In addition to planning with the teacher, small groups were formed to do research on the nature of racism. Group reports were handed in. General discussions were conducted in which the opinions of individuals and groups who preach racism were examined. Small groups reported on various black militant and nationalists groups in America.

Sergeant Bruce M. Shaw of the Community Relations division of the Oklahoma City Police Department spoke on race relations as it related to law enforcement in the

Oklahoma City area. He discussed specific kinds of incidents and problems that often occur when white policemen attempt to question and to arrest black people. Additionally, the sergeant discussed the police department's special programs that are designed to help officers understand racism and other problems resulting from prejudice.

A simulation game concerning community groups that were trying to get their projects funded was played. A black nationalist group was pitted against an "integrationist" group. Reading material included several recent magazine articles: (1) "The Rise of Black Power"--Lerone Bennette, (2) "The Passion of Muhammad Ali"--Leonard Shecter, (3) "White Collegians Tackle White Racism" and (4) "Black Militants Face Showdown in Struggle to Avoid Prison"--John H. Britton. Evaluation at the end of the lesson was a class project--an original skit about a black family who overcame racism.

Lesson Plan VI--Scapegoating. The objective of this lesson was to develop an understanding of the nature and effects of scapegoating. The lesson was also designed to develop the ability of black students to refrain from using scapegoats. Scapegoating was discussed in terms of aggressive energies that individuals or groups use to evade their own personal guilt. Several forms of scapegoating were examined in teacher led discussions. The major activities were simulation games and individual reading.

One game dealt with an interracial advisory committee's attempt to formulate an acceptable concept of Americanism. A second game involved candidates who were running for public office. Each candidate advanced five points on Americanism that served as a basis for the voters to make their choices. A third game consisted of players who used scapegoats in an attempt to persuade a Welfare Board to grant welfare assistance. Reading for the students was Gordon W. Allport's ABC's of Scapegoating.

At the end of this lesson an essay examination and the posttest were given.

Description of Unit II A

Unit II A was basically the same as Unit I A; however, concepts about race and ethnocentrism were presented in much greater depth which was appropriate for senior high school students.

Lesson Plan I--Human Rights and the Importance of Diversity. This unit had several major objectives. The basic and most important one was to develop a clear understanding of the role that cultural and ethnic diversity has played in the shaping of the American character. Additionally, the unit was designed to develop the understanding that personal preferences and voluntary association are individual rights, and the observance of these rights are requisite to the establishment of effective human relationships. The unit was further designed to foster a greater

understanding concerning the notion that individuals have responsibilities as well as rights. Another basic objective was to have students acquire knowledge about universal human rights and conflicting values.

The pretest was administered; a brief overview of the unit was given by the teacher. Also, some basic readings were suggested for the entire unit. Evaluation procedures were explained and small groups were formed to discuss and report on the important factual inputs for Lesson 1.

The content of the unit dealt mainly with the major theories of Americanism--"the melting pot," cultural pluralism, a nation of minorities, assimilation and acculturation. Several sections of the U.S. Constitution provided additional informational input.

The Bill of Rights and Articles 1 and 3 were discussed in detail. Emphasis was on the Constitution's flexibility and equal protection of groups. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was studied to show the global concern for human rights. Some attention was given to group responsibilities.

Students were asked to identify and examine the goals of several groups to which they belonged. Small groups examined the concept of "Black Culture." The historical development of the documents relating to human rights were discussed as they related to inter-group

relations. These included the Bill of Rights, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Preamble to the UNESCO Constitution and several sections of the U.S. Constitution. Ethnic and minority groups were studied in an effort to determine the necessity of co-existing.

Three basic readings were required for all students: (1) These Unalienable Rights: A Handbook of the Bill of Rights. This book interprets the Bill of Rights in the context of modern American problems; (2) Some Questions and Answers on the Civil Rights Bill. This pamphlet describes the major provisions of the 1964 Civil Rights Act; (3) Rights in Conflict. This is an account of the conflict between demonstrators and police during the National Democratic Convention of 1968 in Chicago. A number of other references were available for students and the teacher.

Lesson Plan II--The Nature of Prejudice. The major objective of this lesson was to develop an understanding of the nature, origin, and development of prejudiced attitudes. Also, the lesson tried to develop in students the ability to recognize various forms of prejudices and to understand their effects on the individual and society. Further, the lesson attempted to foster an understanding of the relationship between ethnocentrism and prejudice. The lesson sought to create the desire to reduce prejudice, to refrain from acting on prejudicial attitudes, and

the habit of becoming involved in community problems.

Prejudice was treated as a grave social problem which denies equality of opportunity or status to certain racial, religious, or ethnic groups. Prejudice was also shown as the cause of many social problems; it upsets the natural social order, wastes human resources, and threatens the democratic way of life.

Prejudice was also examined in terms of situational phenomenon which is composed of cognitive and emotional components. A distinction was made between a prejudiced attitude and a prejudiced act. It was pointed out that often attitudes are formed after the fact and that community practices often determine prejudices. However, an individual can change his prejudice if he can examine and fully understand the reasons behind attitudes.

After a brief introduction and review of previously assigned readings, several small groups were formed to conduct a survey, to conduct interviews, and to secure outside resource people. The rest of this lesson was devoted to small group activities and gaming.

The actual lesson began with a general discussion of prejudice in the Oklahoma City area; magazine articles of state and national scope were collected and discussed. Three popular motion pictures, "Guess Who's Coming to Dinner," "A Patch of Blue," and the "Learning Tree" were discussed. The latter was then a current first run motion

picture. In order to give an historical perspective to the lesson, prejudices against Jews, Puritans, and Quakers were analyzed.

In an effort to find out about types of prejudices in Oklahoma, a survey was devised by students and conducted. Individuals and groups who fight prejudice were cited and discussed. One gaming situation involving a community action project was conducted.

Major readings required of all students were:

(1) Prejudice and Society, Earl and Seymour; (2) The Roots of Prejudice, Arnold Rose; (3) Information Is Not Enough, Gertrude Noar; (4) "What Is Prejudice," and (5) "People Aren't Born Prejudiced"--Ian Steverson.

Several other sources were used as optional readings for interested students. The evaluation consisted of two short individual papers: (1) "The Ideal Way to Fight Prejudice," and (2) "The Effects of Prejudice on the Individual and Society."

Lesson Plan III--The Effects of Discrimination.

The major purposes of Lesson II were to help students understand the nature, causes, and effects of discrimination, and to become familiar with the various discriminatory devices which are commonly employed. Also, the lesson was designed to develop the desire and ability to refrain from discriminating on the basis of race or any other indefensible basis.

Discrimination was treated as one of the results of "extreme" ethnocentrism which is often founded on rigid in-group--out-group distinction. Although laws prohibit certain kinds of discrimination, the individual must be persuaded by a set of moral and ethical values which can not be legislated. Discrimination is often practiced within the group as well as against other out-groups. The procedures followed those in Lessons I and II.

The lesson began with a study of discrimination in Douglass High School. This activity was followed by a study of the tendency for some Negroes to practice self-segregation in housing and informal association.

Mrs. Ada Lois Fisher who was responsible for breaking down racial barriers at the University of Oklahoma was invited to speak by the class on the legal aspects of discrimination. She discussed the long litigation involved in her ordeal to be admitted to the O.U. Law School. In an interaction period with her, students asked questions about her feelings about prejudice and discrimination. Their focus was on her personal reactions to prejudice and acts of racism. Mrs. Fisher's major thesis was that she judged each person on his own individual characteristics. She thought also that getting to know people of different races was an excellent way to begin to combat prejudice. Individual essays were written on this discussion. Alternate solutions to discrimination and

segregation were discussed and evaluated by small groups.

Mr. Benton, Urban League Educational Director, was asked to speak on the accomplishments of his organization in fighting discrimination and prejudice in job hiring and so on. Mr. Benton pointed out how community groups cooperate to eradicate discrimination. The major portion of his talk dealt with the Urban League's youth programs designed to help black youth take advantage of new job opportunities without conflict.

Examples of the ways in which black people often discriminate against whites were cited. A simulated game involving a black citizens committee's attempted to hire a director of a Community Action Program.

Reading for the Unit included Arnold Forester's A Measure of Freedom and Duane Lockard's Toward Equal Opportunity.

Lesson Plan IV--Stereotypes. This lesson sought to have the students develop an understanding of the origin and development of stereotypes and further to understand the close relationship between prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination. A stereotype was described as a distorted mental picture or an uncritical judgment about individuals or groups which often leads to hostility. The content was similar to that in Unit I A.

In addition to listing many common prejudices, students' personal experiences were examined. The mass

media were examined to show how stereotypes harm community relations between groups. An intensive study of methods of combating prejudice and stereotypes was made. The methods were censorship, education, propaganda, legislation, intergroup contact, and group retraining. A simulation game involving a Southern legislature committee attempting to describe poor whites was played.

Reading included Saeger and Flowerman's "Stereotypes and Prejudicial Attitudes" and Smith's Killers of the Dream. Also, To Kill a Mocking Bird and The Learning Tree, two novels that deal with interracial relations, were discussed. The latter was a major motion picture showing during the time the Unit was being taught.

Lesson Plan V--Racism. The basic purpose of this lesson was to understand the nature and causes of racism. The lesson also was designed to develop an appreciation and respect for racial differences. Some attention was given to acquiring knowledge about the harmful personal effects of racial separatism and hatred.

Racism was treated as an unhealthy and un-American attitude and behavior which create frustration and violence. It was pointed out that this irrational belief about racial superiority is not a trait held only by whites but also by blacks. This in itself is a serious source of friction. Racial pride was encouraged; however, caution was stressed not to insist on superiority of the race.

Ethnocentrism was compared with racism, but it was pointed out that the difference lies in the belief that one's cultural group is superior to another. The danger lies in the tendency of ethnocentrists to allow discrimination and oppression under the disguise of democracy. Finally, the conclusion was reached that racial separatism for blacks in particular, is not a viable alternative.

As a class project, a community survey was conducted to determine the degree to which racism was prevalent in Oklahoma City. On the basis of this survey, the basic components of the racists' position was outlined and studied in detail. The philosophies of black racist groups were examined and compared with white racist groups. Racism in different countries was studied and compared. Students set up study committees whose aim was to devise ways of combating racism.

Mrs. Freddie Cudjoe and Mrs. Patricia Nicholson, Title IV Advisory Specialists for the Oklahoma City School Board, discussed problems of prejudice and racism in the Oklahoma City Schools and the methods they use to combat these problems. These speakers stated that positive interracial contact was one approach to dealing with problems resulting from prejudice. They also stressed that negative racial attitudes must be broken down on an individual basis. Also, behavior toward other racial groups probably needs to change before attitudinal change can follow.

The primary student reading for this lesson was Whitney Young's Beyond Racism.

Lesson Plan VI--Scapegoating. The major objective of this lesson was to create an understanding of the nature and effects of scapegoating. The lesson also sought to develop an understanding of the irrational reasoning behind scapegoating. Also, a great deal of emphasis was on developing the ability to refrain from resorting to the use of typical scapegoats.

A scapegoat was discussed as a person or object that received unwarranted aggressive energies or attention. Motivation which causes such action are deprivation, guilt, evasion and conformity. Major attention was given to the types of scapegoaters and their victims. See Unit I A, Lesson VI, for details concerning procedures and materials.

Administering the Posttest

The experimental groups finished studying Units I A and II A on October 17, 1969. The instrument "A Survey of Attitudes Toward White People" was administered as the posttest. The instrument is found in Appendix F of this study. The several students who were absent on the 17th were administered the posttest by their teacher on the following Monday, October 20. The posttest was administered to every student who took the initial pretest.

Statistical Procedure

The design of this study required the establishment of four groups of black students--each equivalent in size, sex, and achievement level. There were two experimental groups--Experimental Group A and Experimental Group II A. Likewise, there were two control Groups--Control Groups I B and Control II B. Experimental Group I A and Control Group I B were enrolled in the two sections of ninth grade Negro History at Kennedy Junior High School. Experimental Group II A and Control Group II B were enrolled in the first and fourth sections of eleventh grade World History at Douglass Senior High School.

Thirty students were selected from each of the four classes. Each group contained 15 males and 15 females. The converted reading scores for the Sequential Test of Educational Progress Test were used to further divide each group of males and females into 3 corresponding achievement levels. Each of the four groups contained 5 males and 5 females. The STEP test is administered to all students during the fall semester of the 8th grade at Kennedy. The same test is administered to all 10th graders at Douglass Senior High School. This is true of all 8th and 10th graders throughout the system. Students who are transfers from other systems are administered the test shortly after enrollment in the Oklahoma City system.

Each of the four groups was administered the

instrument "A Survey of Attitudes Toward White People" which is listed in Appendix H. Immediately following the close of the experiment, the four groups were retested using the same instrument. The results from the pre- and posttests were analyzed statistically to test the hypotheses stated in Chapter I.

Each subject was forced to agree or disagree with each of the 20 statements. Theoretically, a subject could have a score of a minus 20 or a positive 20. Thus, there were a total of 40 possibilities. This being the case, the 40 possibilities represented 100% of the cases. Thus, the 40 score units were divided into 100% which yielded a value of 2.5 equal units ($40 \times 2.5 = 100\%$). In order to convert the scores to positive numbers, 20 was added to 2.5 which in turn yielded a constant of 22.5; this constant was added to each of the 40 scores with 0 as the mean score. The decimal was removed by multiplying each resulting score by a constant of 10. This was done to make the computations less complicated. Then a table was set up with converted scores from -20 to +20. When the scores were tabulated on the individual survey forms, the number of negatives was added to the number of positives which yielded the raw score. The table was used to derive the converted score. The lowest possible score was 25 and the highest possible score was 425. 225 represented the mean score; -215 to -125 high negative; -115 to -25 low

negative. A score of 235 to 325, low positive; 335 to 425 high positive.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This study was conducted in an effort to determine the effectiveness of two forms of a human relations study unit that were designed to favorably alter the negative inter-racial attitudes of black 9th and 11th graders toward white people. Basic data for statistical analysis was obtained by calculating the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of each of the subjects.

The statistical significance of the gains or losses in interracial attitudes was determined for the following groups: (1) Experimental Group I A and the Control I A, (2) Experimental Group II B and the Control Group II B, (3) Experimental Group I A and Experimental Group II A, (4) the males of the two experimental groups, (5) the females of the two experimental groups, (6) corresponding groups of students in the upper achievement level of the two experimental groups, (7) corresponding groups of students in the middle achievement level of the two experimental groups, and (8) corresponding groups of students in the lower achievement level of the two experimental groups.

For each category of subjects cited above, the amount of attitudinal change was determined by comparing the gain of the experimental group with that of the control group. This was accomplished by performing a statistical operation whose objective was to test for the significance of the groups' difference at the .01 level of confidence using the "t" test. Subjects were matched on the basis of achievement; therefore, Fisher's formula for deriving the "t" for differences between correlated pairs of means was used.¹ The formula is listed below:

$$t = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum x_1^2 + \sum x_2^2}{N_1(N_1 - 1)}}$$

In performing the operations required for computing the "t" using Fisher's formula, the F test was automatically applied to each group and subgroup to test for homogeneity of variance. In all cases, with the exception of the 9th grade experimental group, there were no significant differences in within group variance. The Cothran and Cox test was used to compute the "t" for this group.² The assumption of normality was satisfied.

¹J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950), p. 228.

²Downie and Heath, op. cit., p. 143.

Hypothesis I stated: There is no significant difference in black 9th graders' negative interracial attitudes toward whites after being taught Unit IA. This hypothesis was tested by comparing the amount of attitude change of subjects in Experimental Group I A with the amount of change in Control Group I B. Subjects in the Experimental Group were taught a special unit of study, and consequently any resulting change was attributed to their study of a specially prepared unit--"Understanding Our Prejudices." On the other hand, subjects in the Control Group were not taught any material specifically designed to change their interracial attitudes toward white people. Thus, no significant change was expected for this group. These conditions also apply to subsequent groups.

Presented in Appendix F of this study are the attitude pretest and posttest raw scores for the two groups. Table 1 of this study presents the calculated results that were necessary in testing the difference between Experimental Group I A and Control Group I B.

Subjects in Experimental Group I A showed a gain of 1010 raw score points over subjects in Control Group I B. An examination of Table D in Guilford¹ revealed that the obtained 2.96 at 29 degrees of freedom was in excess of the necessary 2.756 for significance at the .01 level

¹Guilford, op. cit., p. 609.

TABLE 1

TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN THE RAW SCORE GAINS OF EXPERIMENTAL
GROUP I A AND CONTROL GROUP I B

Sample Size	30
Gain Difference	1010
Mean Difference	33.66
Standard Error of Difference	11.36
Critical Ratio (t)	2.96
Level of Confidence	.01

of confidence. Thus, the difference between the gains of Experimental Group I A and Control Group I B was found to be significant. As was previously stated, in applying the F test to the gain scores for the 9th grade Experimental and Control groups, a significant difference in variance resulted; therefore, the Cothran and Cox formula for testing the significance of the computed "t" was applied.¹ This formula was designed to test the difference between means when there is a difference in variances. The formula is listed below:

$$t_{.05} = \frac{S_{x_1}^{-2} (t_1) + S_{x_2}^{-2} (t_2)}{S_{x_1}^{-2} + S_{x_2}^{-2}}$$

¹Downie and Heath, op. cit., p. 143.

The t_1 is the 5 percent value for t at N_1-1 degrees of freedom while t_2 is the 5 percent value for t at N_2-1 degrees of freedom.¹ It was concluded that the 9th grade experimental group's interracial attitudes were more favorably altered toward whites than those of the Control group.

Hypothesis II stated: There is no statistically significant difference in black 11th graders' negative interracial attitudes toward whites after being taught Unit II A. This hypothesis was tested by comparing the attitudinal change of Experimental Group II A with Control Group II A.

Appendix G of this study presents the attitude pretest and posttest raw scores for the two groups. Table 2 presents calculated results that were necessary for testing the significance of the difference between the gains of the two groups using the "t" test.

Subjects in Experimental Group II A showed a gain of 340 raw score points over subjects in Control Group II B. An examination of Table D in Guilford² indicated that an obtained .78 at 58 degrees of freedom was less than the necessary 2.66 for significance at the .01 level of significance. Consequently, it was concluded that neither of the study units was more effective than

¹Ibid.

²Guilford, op. cit.

TABLE 2

TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN THE RAW SCORE GAINS OF EXPERIMENTAL
GROUP II A AND CONTROL GROUP II B

Sample Size	30
Gain Difference	340
Mean Difference	11.33
Standard Error of Difference	14.45
Critical Ratio (t)	.78

the other in altering significantly 11th grade black students' interracial attitudes.

Hypothesis III stated: There is no statistically significant difference in the negative interracial attitudes toward whites between black 9th and 11th graders after being taught Units I A and II A. This hypothesis was tested by comparing the attitudinal change of Experimental Group I A with Experimental Group II A.

Appendixes F and G of this study present the attitude pretest and posttest raw scores for the two groups. Table 3 shows calculated results that were necessary for testing the significance of the difference between the gains of the two groups using the "t" test.

Subjects in Experimental Group I A showed a gain of 480 raw score points over subjects in Experimental

TABLE 3

TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN THE
TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Sample Size	30
Gain Difference	480
Mean Difference	16.00
Standard Error of Difference	11.72
Critical Ratio (t)	1.37

Group II A. An examination of Table D¹ in Guilford indicated that an obtained 1.37 at 29 degrees of freedom was less than the required 2.756 at the .01 level of confidence. Thus, the researcher concluded that neither of the study units was more effective than the other in altering significantly 9th and 11th grade black students' negative interracial attitudes.

Hypothesis IV stated: There is no statistically significant difference in negative interracial attitudes toward whites between the two corresponding male groups whether taught Unit I A or Unit II A. This hypothesis was tested by comparing the attitudinal change of males in Experimental Group I A with males in Experimental Group II A.

Subjects in Experimental Group I A showed a gain of 320 raw score points over subjects in Experimental

¹Ibid.

Group II A. (See Table IV.) An examination of Table D in Guilford¹ indicated that an obtained 1.42 at 28 degrees of freedom was less than the necessary 2.763 for significance at the .01 level of confidence. Consequently, the researcher concluded that neither of the study units was more effective than the other in altering significantly the negative interracial attitudes of 9th and 11th grade black males.

TABLE 4
TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN MALES IN
GROUP I A AND GROUP II A

Sample Size	30
Gain Difference	320
Mean Differece	21.33
Standard Error	15.05
Critical Ratio	1.42

Hypothesis V stated: There is no statistically significant difference in negative interracial attitudes toward whites between the two corresponding female groups whether taught Unit I A or Unit II A. This hypothesis was tested by comparing the attitudinal change of females in Experimental Group I A with those in Experimental Group II A.

Female subjects in Experimental Group I A showed

¹Ibid.

a gain of 160 raw score points over subjects in Experimental Group II A. (See Table V.) An examination of Table D in Guilford¹ indicated that a .61 at 14 degrees of freedom was less than the necessary 2.977 for significance at the .01 level of confidence. Consequently, the researcher concluded that neither of the study units was more effective than the other in altering significantly 9th and 11th grade black females' negative interracial attitudes.

TABLE 5
TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN FEMALES IN
GROUP I A AND GROUP II A

Sample Size	30
Gain Difference	160
Mean Difference	10.67
Standard Error	17.50
Critical Ratio	.61

Hypothesis VI stated: There is no statistically significant difference in negative interracial attitudes toward whites between the two corresponding groups of students in the upper intelligence level where taught Unit A or Unit II A. This hypothesis was tested by comparing the attitudinal change of upper level 9th graders with the upper level 11th graders.

¹Ibid.

Upper level subjects in Experimental Group I A showed a gain of 210 raw score points over upper level subjects in Experimental Group II A. (See Table VI.) An examination of Table D in Guilford¹ indicated that the obtained score of 1.17 at 18 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.878 for significance at the .01 level of confidence. Hypothesis VI was accepted. Therefore, the researcher concluded that neither of the study units was more effective than the other in altering significantly upper level 9th and 11th grade black students' negative interracial attitudes.

TABLE 6

TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN CORRESPONDING UPPER
ACHIEVEMENT LEVELS OF GROUP I A AND GROUP II A

Sample Size	30
Gain Difference	210
Mean Difference	21.00
Standard Error	17.98
Critical Ratio	1.17

Hypothesis VII: There is no significant difference in black students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites between two corresponding groups of students in the middle intelligence level whether taught Unit I A or Unit II A. This hypothesis was tested by comparing

¹Ibid.

the attitudinal change of middle level 9th graders with the middle level 11th graders.

Middle level 9th grade subjects in Experimental Group I A showed a gain of 50 raw score points over middle level subjects in Experimental Group II A. (See Table VII). An examination of Table D in Guilford¹ indicated that the obtained score of .24 at 18 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.878 for significance at the .01 level of confidence. Therefore, the researcher concluded that neither of the study units was more effective than the other in altering significantly middle level 9th and 11th grade black students' negative interracial attitudes.

TABLE 7

TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE CORRESPONDING MIDDLE
LEVELS OF GROUP I A AND GROUP II A

Sample Size	30
Gain Difference	50
Mean Difference	5
Standard Error	20.78
Critical Ratio	.24

Hypothesis VIII stated: There is no significant difference in black students' negative interracial attitudes toward whites between the two corresponding groups

¹Ibid.

of students in the lower intelligence level whether taught Unit I A or Unit II A. This hypothesis was tested by comparing the attitudinal change of lower level 9th graders with the lower level 11th graders.

Lower level 9th grade subjects in Experimental Group I A showed a gain of 220 raw score points over lower level subjects in Experimental Group II A. (See Table VIII.) An examination of Table D in Guilford¹ indicated that the obtained score of .94 at 9 degrees of freedom is less than the required 3.250 for significance at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 8
TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE CORRESPONDING LOWER LEVELS
OF GROUP I A AND GROUP II A

Sample Size	30
Gain Difference	220
Mean Difference	22.00
Standard Error	23.50
Critical Ratio	.94

Hypothesis VIII was accepted. Therefore, the researcher concluded that neither of the study units was more effective than the other in altering significantly lower level 9th and 11th grade black students' negative interracial attitudes.

¹Ibid.

Discussion of the Results

In Chapter III of this study--The Design of the Experiment--several events were discussed which could have affected the results reported above. Those factors were: the establishment of a Black Muslim Mosque, the burning of the NAACP Youth Center, the seemingly perpetual school integration crisis and the then current black sanitation workers dispute with the Oklahoma City Council. Additionally, the racial climate of the national scene could have had some effect on students' attitudes. Also, there was an unfavorable time limit on the duration of the experiment. In the opinion of the researcher, the garbage dispute and the lack of sufficient time to study the special unit may have influenced the results.

The garbage dispute had discernible racial overtones which were intensified by the city manager throughout the process of negotiations. Numerous mass meetings and a general boycott of downtown businesses appeared to have further intensified the conflict. A tense racial atmosphere resulted in all segments of the community. Thus, the conclusion that conditions were unfavorable to teach a concentrated unit on prejudices, especially to black youths, is reasonable.

The exact degree to which the strike and other events affected the results is uncertain. However, it appears to be reasonable to make the conjecture that

students, particularly those at Douglass, were extremely aware of and intensely interested in the progress that was being made. The teachers of the experimental units reported that almost every discussion began with some reference to the sanitation situation, and numerous examples of discrimination and prejudice were cited. Students were generally disturbed about the attitudes of the city council and their imposition of certain requirements for negotiations.

It should be noted that about two weeks after the special unit was completed, a substantially large group of, approximately 500, Douglass students staged a walkout from school to participate in the demonstration at City Hall in support of the garbage workers.

The 11th grade students at Douglass ranged in age from 15 to 18 and appeared to have already formed firm interracial attitudes. Their thinking was considerably more sophisticated than that of the 9th grade group. This lack of effect on their attitudes confirms the general notion that the older the individual, the more entrenched are his attitudes and therefore, little abrupt and radical change is likely to take place under short term experimental conditions.

The fact that many of the Douglass students were members of various youth groups attached to community organizations which discussed the racial question and

also taught racial pride and identity should not go unnoticed. In this regard, the following crucial question arose: When black students are redefining their roles as individuals along ethnic lines, developing a new sense of identity, and acquiring positive self-images, is it reasonable to expect them to develop positive attitudes and opinions about groups of people whom they regard as responsible for their plight?

Positive interracial attitudes and strong feelings of ethnocentricity on the part of blacks may not necessarily be mutually exclusive. However, the accomplishment of interracial attitudinal change in a formal educational setting appears to depend, to a large extent, upon a decidedly favorable atmosphere conducive to change. Likewise, the willingness of individuals and groups to cooperate which results from such a climate is a vitally needed motivational orientation.¹

In this regard, A. Paul Hare concluded from his study of groups that attitudinal and behavioral change are most likely to occur when the basis for the desired change "is made to a mode of behavior or performance that presumably is already within the available repertoire of

¹Morton Deutsch, "The Effect of Motivational Orientation upon Trust and Suspicion," Human Relations, XIII (May, 1960), 123-29.

the group members and does not require learning."¹ In other words, individuals must at least be aware of the need to make a specific kind of change before any kind of treatment (i.e., discussion, enlightenment, or persuasion) designed to accomplish this change can be effective.

The greatest single reason which may account for the lack of significance was the very minimal time in which the unit was studied. The teachers were fearful from the outset that six weeks would be only a start for this kind of study. It was further reported that at the close of the unit, many students were just getting to the point where they clearly understood the basis of prejudiced attitudes, and were ready to explore ways of combating personal prejudices.

It might be noted further that "t" tests for the significance of the difference between males and females were run. None was found to be statistically significant; however, one or two of the groups did approach significance. In the opinion of the researcher, significance might have occurred had the units been taught over a longer period of time such as a semester.

¹A. Paul Hare, Handbook of Small Group Research (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1962), p. 288. For additional discussion on the process of change, see L. Coch and J. R. P. French, Jr., "Overcoming Resistance to Change," Human Relations, I (1948), 512-32.

Summary

An analysis of the data presented in this study indicated that Form I A of the Unit Understanding Our Prejudices was most appropriate for altering the attitudes of 9th grade black students (Total Experimental Group vs total Control Group). There was no significant difference in any of the sub groups for the 9th grade. Likewise, no difference was produced for any of the 11th grade groups. However, it should be noted that the "t" score of 1.83 for males vs females for the 9th grade approached significance. A score of 2.76 was needed for significance. This, again, supports the assumption that change is more likely to occur with the younger junior high school students than with the older senior high school students.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The problem of this investigation was to determine if there was any significant difference between the interracial attitudes of black ninth and eleventh graders following their exposure to two versions of an experimental human relations teaching unit as opposed to conventional instruction. Study Unit I A for the 9th grade was designed to favorably alter the interracial attitudes of blacks toward whites. The focus of the Unit was on the nature, causes, and ways of combating personal and group prejudice. The entire unit was devoted to the pertinent aspects of prejudice, especially prejudice of Negroes against whites. Study Unit II A was designed to favorably alter the interracial attitudes of black 11th graders toward Caucasians. Essentially the same materials and approaches were used with the 11th grade group; however, this unit was more in depth and comprehensive.

Four groups of thirty students each were established to ascertain the effectiveness of the two units

in altering attitudes. The 9th grade Experimental Group was designated as Group I A and was taught Study Unit I A. The 11th grade Experimental Group was designated as Group II A and was taught Study Unit II A. The Control Groups for the 9th and 11th grades were designated as I B and II B, respectively. These two groups were not taught any material specifically designed to alter their interracial attitudes toward white people.

For the purposes of statistical analysis, each of the four groups contained 15 male subjects and 15 female subjects. All subjects were also paired on the basis of achievement which was done by utilizing the student's reading scores on the Sequential Test of Education Progress. The main groups were further divided into upper, middle, and lower achievement levels. Each sub-group consisted of 10 students each--five male and five females. All subjects were black.

"A Survey of Attitudes Toward White People" was used as a pretest and posttest instrument. All four groups were pretested. Groups I A and II A were taught the experimental units. All four groups were posttested six weeks after the commencement of the experiment. The degree of attitudinal change for each subject was ascertained by subtracting his pretest test score from the posttest score. A statistical analysis was run on the gain scores.

The "t" test was used to test the eight null hypotheses stated in Chapter I. The hypotheses stated that neither of the special study units would produce any significant attitudinal change toward white people for subjects in Experimental Group I A and Experimental Group II A and between the following sub-groups: (1) the two experimental groups; (2) the females of the two experimental groups; (3) the males of the two experimental groups; (4) the upper academic achievement levels of the two experimental groups; (5) the middle academic achievement levels; and (6) the lower academic achievement levels.

Major Findings

Each of the 8 hypotheses was tested by using the "t" formula for testing the significance of difference. (The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were satisfied.)

The basic findings of the study are listed below:

There was a statistically significant difference in the interracial attitudes of the 9th grade Experimental Group toward white people after being taught Unit I A. The difference was significant at the .01 level of confidence.

There was no statistically significant difference in the interracial attitudes toward Negroes of the 11th grade Experimental group toward white people after being

taught Unit II A. Experimental Group II A did show a gain difference of 340 raw score points over Control Group II B.

There was no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude toward white people between the two experimental groups whether Study Unit I A or II A. Experimental Group I A did show a gain difference of 480 raw score points over Experimental Group II A.

There was no statistically significant difference in interracial attitudes toward white people between two corresponding male groups whether taught Study Unit I A or Unit II A. The males in Experimental Group I A did show a gain difference of 320 raw score points over Experimental Group II A.

There was no statistically significant difference in interracial attitudes toward white people between two corresponding female groups whether taught Study Unit I A or Unit II A. Experimental Group I A did show a 160 raw score gain over Experimental Group II A.

There was significant difference in interracial attitudes between the two corresponding groups of students in the upper achievement level of Experimental Group I A or Experimental Group II A. Subjects in the upper achievement level of Experimental Group I A did show a gain of 210 raw score points over Experimental Group II A.

There was no significant difference in interracial attitudes between the two corresponding groups of students in the middle achievement level of Experimental Group I A or Experimental Group II A. Subjects in the middle achievement level of Experimental Group I A did show a gain of 50 raw score points over the corresponding group in Experimental Group II A.

There was no significant difference in interracial attitudes between the two corresponding groups of students in the lower achievement level of Experimental Group I A or Experimental Group II A. Subjects in the lower achievement level of Experimental Group I A did show a gain of 450 raw score points over the corresponding group in Experimental Group II A.

There was no significant difference in interracial attitudes between males and females in either group. However, the female gain over males in the 9th grade Experimental Group approached significant difference.

A further analysis of the data indicated that many of the 9th graders in the control group in Negro History scored considerably lower on the posttest than they did on the pretest. In the context of this study this meant that these students had a higher rate of negative interracial attitudes toward whites after studying black history for six weeks. Therefore, it was reasonable to assume that a separate course in black history may have

reinforced and in some instances increased black students' negative interracial attitudes. Also, as only two such classes in one school were compared, the evidence in this regard, at best, should be regarded as highly inconclusive. Yet, this finding was too important to go unmentioned because of the implications for curriculum planners.

Conclusions

Conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data of this study include the following:

1. That favorable conditions for change must be present before black students' interracial attitudes toward whites can be altered.
2. That a six weeks time allotment to study human relations problems may be inadequate to effect significant interracial attitudinal change without additional attention throughout the life of the specific course.
3. That few, if any, desirable changes are likely to occur when interracial tension is high in the community.
4. That male students in both junior and senior high school tend to be less flexible than girls in making attitudinal change.
5. That human relations teaching units must provide greater opportunity for black students to engage in actual personal interracial contact with white people and an opportunity to engage in projects which will allow

time for considerable interaction with Caucasians on a person-to-person basis.

Recommendations

1. It is recommended that a more comprehensive program dealing with the study of prejudice, discrimination, interracial attitudes and conflicts, interpersonal and intergroup relations be instituted as a regular part of selected social studies classes in Oklahoma public schools. A greater contribution can be made if these opportunities are a part of those courses which all students must take rather than being available only to some students on an elective basis.
2. It is recommended that a comparative study similar to this one be conducted in two cities of comparable size, racial composition, and interracial history to determine if regional difference in blacks' interracial attitudes exist.
3. It is recommended that different forms of the instrument "A Survey of Attitudes Toward White People" be developed to use as the pre- and posttest instrument in ascertaining blacks' interracial attitudes.
4. It is recommended that instructional units be designed to be used with integrated classes particularly newly integrated classes; these should provide opportunity for black and white students to engage in meaningful and personal interaction.

5. It is recommended that all separate Black History classes have built-in components that deal directly with interracial attitudes in an effort to prevent blacks from developing attitudes of hostility toward whites as they acquire knowledge about black racial pride, identity and awareness.

6. It is recommended that study units be designed using a seminar-problems approach in which the emphasis is on student interaction.

7. It is recommended that when black history courses are taught to classes which are predominately black, extensive opportunity to study human relations problems and issues should be provided to safeguard against the development of excessive pride in ethnic origin. The same precaution should be taken in the teaching of social problem courses when taught to predominantly white classes.

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APPENDIX A

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

Norman, Oklahoma 73069

May 12, 1969

Mr. William Shell
Director of Research and Statistics
Oklahoma City Public Schools
900 North Klein
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Dear Mr. Shell:

Pursuant to our May 8, 1969, telephone conversation, I am submitting this letter as a special request to conduct my study in the Oklahoma City Schools during the Fall semester 1969-70 in the event that the study cannot be run during the summer session.

It may be difficult to get enough students in eighth grade Civics and eleventh grade American History during the summer term. If such is the case, the investigation will employ a pretest-posttest experimental design, but with a larger group of students and more teachers. The pretest, "A Survey of Attitudes toward Whites," will be administered to four eighth grade classes enrolled in Civics at Kennedy Junior High School. Also, four eleventh grade classes enrolled in U. S. History at Douglass Senior High School will be administered the same pretest. Four teachers will be involved. Two classes at each grade level will be used as experimental groups while the remaining four groups, two at each grade level, will form the control groups. A specially prepared unit will be taught to the experimental groups. The unit will consist of two forms. Unit IA will be taught the eighth grade. Unit IIA will be taught to the eleventh grade. The control groups will be taught the regular teaching units (IB and IIB). The duration of the experiment will be for six weeks beginning September 8 and continuing through the week of October 13, 1969.

Sincerely yours,

Wayman B. Shiver

APPENDIX B

OKLAHOMA CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

900 North Klein

Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73106

September 11, 1969

Mr. Wayman B. Shiver
405 Wadsack Drive
Norman, Oklahoma 73069

Dear Wayman:

The Research Committee has approved your request to conduct research in the Oklahoma City Public Schools according to the application you recently submitted.

We request that you coordinate the activities in connection with the study with my office.

We would appreciate receiving a copy of the completed study for our files.

Sincerely yours,

William L. Shell
Director
Research and Statistics

WLS/ys

APPENDIX C

Submit 4 copies to: Department of Research and Statistics
900 North Klein
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73106

RESEARCH APPLICATION TO OKLAHOMA CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

ABSTRACT

Applicant's Name: Wayman B. Shiver University: Oklahoma
Telephone
University Address: 405 Wadsack Drive Number : 321-4387
Degree
Program: Ed.D. Advisor's Signature: _____

Department: Secondary Education

TITLE: The Effectiveness of Two Forms of an Experimental
Teaching Unit in Reducing Negro Eighth and Eleventh
Graders' Negative Attitudes Toward Whites

OBJECTIVES: 1. To ascertain the degree to which black
eighth and eleventh graders have negative
interracial attitudes toward whites.
2. To test the effectiveness of two forms of
human relations units in reducing negative
attitudes.

PROCEDURE: (General Design, Population and Sample, Instru-
mentation, Analysis, Time Schedule, etc.)

The investigation will employ a pretest-posttest experimental design. A pretest, "A Survey of Attitudes toward Whites," will be administered to two eighth grade classes enrolled in civics during the summer term. Two eleventh grade classes enrolled in U. S. History will be administered the same pretest. Two teachers will be involved. One class at each grade level will be used as experimental groups while the remaining two groups, one at each grade level, will form the control groups. A specially prepared unit will be taught to the experimental groups. The unit will consist of two forms. Unit I A will be taught the eighth grade. Unit II A will be taught the eleventh grade. The control groups will be taught the regular units. The duration of the experiment will be for six weeks beginning June 1 and continuing through July 14. The "t" test will be used to analyze the data.

INVOLVEMENT OF OKLAHOMA CITY SCHOOLS:

Specific schools will be determined after pre-enrollment in mid-May, 1969.

In the event that the study cannot be run during the summer term, I would like to use Kennedy Junior High and Douglass Senior High Schools. If this should be the case, four teachers and eight classes will be needed--two teachers and four classes at each grade level.

APPENDIX D

SEQUENTIAL TEST OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS READING RAW SCORES AND PERCENTILE RANKS FOR THE 9TH GRADE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

		Experimental		Control	
	Sub- jects	STEP Raw Score	Per- centile	STEP Raw Score	Per- centile
Male	1	276	95	273	92
	2	273	88	260	78
	3	262	73	259	68
	4	260	60	257	62
	5	260	60	255	58
	6	259	47	252	48
	7	258	37	252	48
	8	257	32	249	38
	9	255	28	249	38
	10	254	25	244	28
	11	248	22	244	28
	12	240	12	244	28
	13	240	12	240	18
	14	240	12	238	15
	15	234	2	234	5
Female	1	279	98	276	98
	2	273	92	274	95
	3	271	85	263	87
	4	265	82	263	87
	5	263	78	260	78
	6	262	73	260	78
	7	261	68	259	68
	8	260	60	259	68
	9	260	60	254	55
	10	259	47	252	48
	11	259	47	249	38
	12	259	47	242	22
	13	258	37	236	12
	14	245	18	234	5
	15	238	5	234	5

APPENDIX E

SEQUENTIAL TEST OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS RAW SCORES AND PERCENTILES FOR THE 11TH GRADE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

		Experimental		Control	
	Sub- jects	STEP Raw Score	Per- centile	STEP Raw Score	Per- centile
Male	1	296	95	300	98
	2	294	92	299	95
	3	291	87	285	85
	4	282	82	282	75
	5	281	77	276	67
	6	281	77	276	60
	7	269	60	270	47
	8	265	40	270	47
	9	265	40	267	38
	10	263	35	263	35
	11	260	32	262	32
	12	257	27	253	22
	13	255	22	252	18
	14	249	5	250	13
	15	242	2	245	3
Female	1	299	98	289	90
	2	289	85	289	90
	3	278	72	284	80
	4	275	68	284	80
	5	272	65	279	72
	6	269	60	276	67
	7	267	55	275	60
	8	266	48	272	55
	9	266	48	270	47
	10	266	48	270	47
	11	257	27	259	27
	12	252	17	259	27
	13	252	17	250	13
	14	250	10	247	8
	15	250	10	245	3

APPENDIX F

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW SCORES AND GAIN SCORES FOR THE 9TH GRADE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

		Experimental			Control		
	Sub- jects	Pre- Test	Post- Test	Gain	Pre- Test	Post- Test	Gain
Male	1	225	265	40	305	225	80
	2	185	125	-60	245	285	40
	3	225	285	60	265	265	0
	4	225	285	60	345	285	-60
	5	325	325	0	245	245	0
	6	225	205	-20	285	245	40
	7	165	245	80	185	245	60
	8	305	325	20	305	325	20
	9	325	325	0	285	265	-20
	10	285	305	20	165	265	100
	11	265	285	20	225	225	0
	12	285	265	-20	225	205	-20
	13	195	185	-10	245	245	0
	14	285	345	60	205	165	-40
	15	245	265	20	165	245	20
Female	1	265	295	30	345	245	-100
	2	325	365	40	325	385	60
	3	345	385	40	225	205	-20
	4	285	265	20	325	325	0
	5	145	225	80	185	225	40
	6	265	285	20	285	185	-100
	7	245	245	0	325	325	0
	8	175	165	-10	325	245	-80
	9	265	345	80	365	345	-20
	10	305	265	-40	305	265	-10
	11	265	345	80	265	285	20
	12	225	245	20	305	365	50
	13	265	305	40	205	225	20
	14	285	225	60	205	205	0
	15	285	345	60	225	205	-20

APPENDIX G

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW SCORES AND GAIN SCORES FOR THE 11TH GRADE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

		Experimental			Control		
	Sub- jects	Pre- Test	Post- Test	Gain	Pre- Test	Post- Test	Gain
Male	1	365	365	0	305	305	0
	2	265	305	40	345	325	-20
	3	245	205	-40	295	245	-50
	4	225	245	20	245	285	40
	5	205	245	40	305	265	-40
	6	365	345	-20	185	105	-80
	7	185	245	60	325	265	-60
	8	245	205	-40	345	325	-20
	9	405	345	-60	285	345	-60
	10	205	265	60	245	225	-20
	11	225	225	0	245	285	40
	12	205	165	-40	305	265	-40
	13	245	205	-40	185	225	40
	14	125	165	40	205	285	80
	15	245	175	-70	345	285	-60
Female	1	245	245	0	225	285	60
	2	345	385	40	365	305	-60
	3	265	345	80	265	245	-20
	4	345	305	-40	305	305	0
	5	265	225	-40	205	205	0
	6	345	305	-40	345	245	100
	7	305	305	0	285	285	0
	8	185	225	40	225	225	0
	9	205	305	100	165	265	100
	10	225	225	0	325	385	60
	11	185	125	-60	185	145	-40
	12	125	205	80	305	405	100
	13	285	305	20	285	285	0
	14	205	345	140	345	205	-140
	15	245	285	40	205	265	60

Male _____
Female _____
ID# _____

APPENDIX H

A SURVEY OF ATTITUDES TOWARD WHITE PEOPLE

Directions

Please read carefully: In this survey we are seeking to find out how you feel toward white people in our city, state, and nation. The answers you check will in no way affect your grade in this class.

INSTRUCTIONS: Read each statement carefully. Indicate your answer by placing an X in the appropriate column. Be sure to put an X after each statement. An X under "Agree" means that you think that the statement is true. An X under "Disagree" means that you think that the statement is not true. Please do not ask questions. Absolutely no help will be given.

	Agree	Dis- agree
1. Most Negroes prefer not to associate with whites.	_____	_____
2. It is quite all right for young people of the white and Negro races to go to the same parties and dances.	_____	_____
3. Since religion is a personal affair, I would not like for white people to attend my church.	_____	_____
4. Negro boys should date white girls if they wish.	_____	_____
5. Generally speaking white people should not be trusted.	_____	_____
6. White people are not very brave.	_____	_____
7. Negroes are more talented than whites in sports and music.	_____	_____
8. Negroes should reject their white names and acquire African names like Muhammad Ali (Cassius Clay's new name).	_____	_____
9. Black people are more beautiful than white people.	_____	_____

	Agree	Dis- agree
10. Black home owners should rent to whites.	_____	_____
11. If I owned a store I would hire both whites and blacks to work for me.	_____	_____
12. A person should be judged on his individual characteristics rather than on his race.	_____	_____
13. Terms like "cracker," "peckerwood," "Okie," and "red neck" should be used to describe low-class white people.	_____	_____
14. "Peckerwood" and "Honkie" are all right to use when describing white people that you don't like.	_____	_____
15. Black children should be taught the basic principles of human relations so that they can develop positive attitudes toward whites.	_____	_____
16. Negro teachers should be integrated into formerly all-white faculties as schools are desegregated.	_____	_____
17. Black separation is desirable to insure black identity and purity.	_____	_____
18. Whites underestimate the ability of Negroes.	_____	_____
19. Poor whites should not be avoided in social contacts simply because they are poor and white.	_____	_____
20. Negroes have the right to destroy white people's property because of past injustices.	_____	_____

APPENDIX I

LIST OF JUDGES

Bill Carmack, Assistant Commissioner
Bureau of Indian Affairs
Washington, D.C.

Father Maher, Dean
College of Education
St. Louis University

Ray Berry, Superintendent
San Francisco Unified
District
San Francisco, California

Truman Webster, Vice President
Grayson County College
Dennison, Texas

Joe Lawter, Director
Human Relations Center
Oklahoma University

Gertrude Noar, Formerly of
Anti-Defamation League of
B'nai B'rith (each question was
reviewed in detail with Miss Noar)

Dale Davis, Professor
College of Education
Southern Methodist University

Don Sullivan, Regional Director
National Conference of Christians and Jews
Washington, D.C.

Dr. Lucius Pitts, President
Miles College
Birmingham, Alabama (Negro)

Dr. Staten Webster (Negro)
Professor of Secondary Education
University of California
Berkeley, California

Jane Mercer, Professor of Sociology
University of California
Berkeley, California

Herbert Wey, Associate Dean
School of Education
University of Miami
Coral Gables, Florida

Paul Anthony
Southern Regional Council
Atlanta, Georgia

APPENDIX J

UNIT IA

OVERCOMING OUR PREJUDICES: A Unit of Study on Human Relations for Ninth Grade

MAJOR OBJECTIVE: To modify Negro ninth graders' negative attitudes toward white people to more favorable ones.

LESSON PLAN I

THE CONCEPT OF AMERICANISM: PRINCIPLES AND VALUES

A. Specific purposes of this lesson:

1. To give an overview of the entire unit.
2. To understand that ethnic diversity has helped to make America free and great.
3. To acquire knowledge about the value of group membership.
4. To understand the principle that recognition and acceptance of the worth and integrity of every human being is essential in American democracy.
5. To understand that personal preferences and voluntary association are individual rights.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. America is made up of the peoples of the world. Consequently, our institutions, form of government and national character reflect the contributions of many peoples and their ideals.
2. Basic to Americanism is recognition and acceptance of the worth and integrity of every human being. Racism denies this principle and must be eliminated. Racism is not only practiced by whites, but also by Negroes toward whites as well.
3. In a democracy every individual has the right to become something of his own choosing. In

our own society American Negroes, American Indians, and Mexican-Americans have not had full and equal opportunity to become what they can become. However, these groups must consider the rights and understand the fears and anxieties of other Americans and also of other minorities.

4. Democracy is based upon the intelligent participation of all citizens. All are entitled to first-class citizenship. When minority interests conflict with interests of other groups, all of these groups must work together to solve problems. Many minority groups working at cross purposes with each other, in the absence of communication, is un-American.
5. Personal preference and voluntary association are rights. These, however, cannot be used by individuals to deny to anyone else his rights and his "pursuit of happiness." Even though past wrongs have been done to Negroes, they should work for improvements through means which do not disrupt the lives of other law abiding Americans.

C. Procedure:

1. Give pretest.
2. Introduce unit.
3. Have free discussion on such topics as "Integration of Oklahoma City Schools" or "Black Student's Conception of Whites in General."
4. Conduct planning session.
5. Assign readings for Lesson I.
6. Explain evaluation.
7. See film.
8. Use group discussions to teach facts.

D. Suggested Activities for students:

1. Plan with the teacher: choose topics and activities for this lesson.
2. Form small groups for discussion and projects.

3. Free discussion of Americanism.
4. Discuss various isms which threaten American democracy.
5. List organizations where materials may be found.
6. Identify and discuss organizations which restrict personal choices of individuals.
7. Discuss The Bill of Rights.
8. Each student make a list of personal grievances relating to intergroup, interracial, inter-personal problems.
9. Each small group compose a one-page statement --"The Basic Principles and Values of Americanism."
10. See film: "One People"--ADL.

E. Selected Readings for Students:

1. Walker, Daniel. Rights in Conflict. New York: Bantam Books, 1968.
2. Kennedy, John F. A Nation of Immigrants. New York: Popular Library, 1964.
3. Beauchamp, Mary, Llewellyn, Ardelle, and Worley, Vivienne S. Building Brotherhood. New York: National Conference of Christians and Jews, n.d.
4. For All Humanity. New York: The American Jewish Committee Institute of Human Relations, 1966.

F. Selected Readings for Teacher:

1. Hanlin, Oscar. Out of Many--A Study Guide to Cultural Pluralism in the United States. New York: ADL, 1964.
2. Grambs, Jean D. "What Research Says About Understanding Intergroup Relations," Journal of the National Education Association (December, 1960), reprint.

3. Miles, Mathew. Learning to Work in Groups.
New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers
College, Columbia University Press, 1961.

G. Evaluation:

Each small group compose a one-page statement--
"The Basic Principles and Values of Americanism."

LESSON PLAN II

THE NATURE AND CAUSES OF PREJUDICE

A. Specific objectives of this lesson:

1. To understand the nature of prejudice.
2. To develop the ability to recognize prejudiced ideas and behavior.
3. To understand the effects of prejudice on the individual.
4. To develop the desire to reduce prejudice.
5. To develop the ability to refrain from acting on our prejudiced feelings.
6. To develop skill in rational thinking.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. The term "prejudice" allows for many definitions; but as a social problem in America today, prejudice can be defined exclusively in terms of human behavior which denies or attempts to deny equality of opportunity or status to certain racial, religious or ethnic groups.
2. Prejudiced behavior creates social problems:
 - a. Prejudice is a threat to social order.
 - b. Prejudice wastes human resources.
 - c. Prejudice is a threat to our democratic way of life.
 - d. Prejudice is unhealthy and reduces the individual's ability to be a productive citizen.

3. Prejudiced attitudes do not necessarily pre-determine prejudiced behavior. An individual's prejudiced behavior may be determined more by the social situation at any given moment, than by his preexisting attitudes. Both attitude and behavior are highly susceptible to situational changes.
4. There is direct relationship between attitude and behavior.

C. Procedure:

1. Make brief introduction of lesson.
2. Conduct planning with students.
3. Make reading material available.
4. Allow groups to choose own reading and method of reporting and discussing.
5. Show film.
6. Complete lesson using group approach.
7. Evaluation.

D. Suggested activities for students:

1. Plan with teacher topics and activities.
2. Group discussions to include descriptions of personal experience and free expression of feeling about prejudice. (This should be voluntary.)
3. React to openended statements:
 - a. I don't like poor white people because....
 - b. Negroes should treat all white people.....
 - c. I feel that black and white.....

(These papers should be kept confidential, not read nor graded. This activity is for diagnosis purposes.)

4. Word study to facilitate reading. Have pupils learn to spell and use in sentences such words as:

prejudice
immigrant
tolerance

hostility
segregation
integration

5. Discuss: "The evil that prejudice does to people."
 6. Individual and/or group study of the following:

Nazism	John Birch Society
--------	--------------------
 7. Read "What Is Prejudice"--Marie Jahoda, reprint from Look.
 8. See film Picture in Your Mind.
 9. See film Joshua.
 10. Role play the following situations:
 - a. A neighborhood group denies a white student membership.
 - b. A new boy moves next door; he is ignored because he looks and speaks strangely.
 11. Plan ways in which the group can help its members to cure their prejudices and to control their actions and speech.
 12. Read, discuss and arrange display copies of the great documents of democracy and show how they relate to the black minority.
 13. Read the book Sense and Nonsense About Race by Ethel Alpenfels. New York: Friendship Press.
 14. Write an original skit about a prejudiced person changing his negative attitudes.
 15. Plan a panel discussion on the international implications of intergroup relations.
 16. See film strip: About People, ADL.
- D. Selected Reading for Students:
1. "The Devil and Dream" by Joseph Julian. ADL (play).
 2. Van Til. "Prejudiced--How Do People Get That Way?" New York: ADL, n.d.

3. Rose, Arnold. The Roots of Prejudice. Paris, France: UNESCO, 1958.

E. Selected Reading for the Teacher:

1. Rabb, Earl and Lipset, Seymour M. Prejudice and Society. New York: ADL, 1967.
2. Lee, Irving J. How Do You Talk About People? New York: ADL, 1962.

F. Evaluation

LESSON PLAN III

DISCRIMINATION IN REVERSE

A. Specific objectives for this lesson:

1. To understand the nature and causes of discrimination.
2. To develop an understanding of the effects of discrimination.
3. To develop the ability not to discriminate on any basis.
4. To understand the relationship between prejudice and discrimination.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. Discrimination may be regarded as any conscious or unconscious act which deprives the individual of the human and civil rights which are granted to him by the Federal Constitution and the Bill of Rights and the Civil Rights Act of 1964.
2. Discrimination prevents individuals from attaining a standard of living commensurate with their desires and abilities.
3. Discrimination is not only harmful to those affected by it, but also to those who practice it.
4. Complete racial separation in America which is multi-racial and multi-ethnic is not a viable alternative under our system of government.

5. Blacks often discriminate against members of their own race as well as against other races.

C. Procedures:

See previous lessons.

D. Suggested activities for students:

1. Plan with the teacher topics and activities.
2. List some examples of the ways in which whites discriminate against minorities.
3. List some examples of ways in which whites discriminate against themselves and whites.
4. Role-play the following situation:

Set up an organization; draw up objectives to exclude whites.

5. Play the following game:

Five players constitute group of irate consumers. Each player is given the names of three store owners in their neighborhood. One is Oriental; one is white; and the other is black. Each store owner is guilty of the same offense--selling substandard merchandise at a high cost.

The object of the game is to choose a merchant to boycott, in order to teach the others a lesson. The consumers must present their choice to the Better Community Council and justify their action.

E. Selected Reading for Students:

Handouts

F. Selected Reading for the Teacher:

1. Berger, Monroe. Equality by Stature: Legal Controls over Group Discrimination. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952.
2. Mendelson, Wallace. Discrimination. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1962.

G. Evaluation:

Essay test covering discrimination.

LESSON PLAN IV

STEREOTYPES

A. Objectives for this lesson:

1. To understand the origin and development of racial stereotypes.
2. To develop the ability to distinguish valid characteristics from stereotypes.
3. To develop the ability to judge individuals on the basis of individual characteristics.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. Generally speaking, a stereotype is a standardized mental picture held in common by members of a group and representing an over-simplified opinion, affective attitude, or uncritical judgment--particularly about race.
2. Hostility often flows from a stereotype.
3. Expressions of negative stereotypes create bad feelings. Often persons who have certain stereotypes do not understand their implications.
 - a. Jewess--a feminine ending which is no longer in good standing.
 - b. Peckerwood and Redneck--these terms mean "poor white trash" and are terms usually used in anger or condescension.
 - c. Kike and Shenny--name-calling words used to designate Jews--distinctly derogatory and despising in their connotations.

C. Procedure:

See previous lessons.

D. Suggested Activities for Students:

1. Plan with teacher.
 2. Match the nationalities, religions or races (Column I) with the characteristics (Column II) in completing statements such as: I believe that Negroes are _____.
- | | |
|----------|---------------|
| Germans | musical |
| English | lazy |
| Italians | sly |
| Irish | reserved |
| Jews | shrewd |
| Negroes | methodical |
| Chinese | hot-tempered |
| | dishonest |
| | without moral |
| | lie |
| | cheat |
| | hate Negroes |
3. Construct some statements about different kinds of people; use both false and true statements.
 4. From the answers given above, develop some of the common stereotypes.
 5. Test these for reality by asking pupils to describe people they like who belong to one of the above groups, without mentioning the affiliation. Have the class guess to which group that individual belongs.
 6. As a group project draw up a one-page document using only stereotypes to describe white people; discuss.
 7. Discuss various types of stereotypes Negroes have of white people and of other racial groups.
 8. Examine personal experiences involving stereotypes.
 9. Play the following game:

Six players form a Southern legislative committee. The game is to write a description of Appalachian poor whites to be included in a new bill. Each player is given a card containing some conceptions and characteristics of these people. Some are invalid.

Each player has the task of getting his "description" of Appalachian people accepted by the full legislative committee. All six statements will be considered. The one most free of common stereotypes will be accepted.

E. Selected readings for students:

Handouts

F. Suggested reading for teacher:

1. Kubler, George Adolf. Historical Treatises, Abstracts and Papers on Stereotyping. New York: Brooklyn Eagle Press, 1936.
2. Kubler, George A. A Short History of Stereotyping. New York: Brooklyn Eagle Press, 1936.

LESSON V

RACISM AND ETHNOCENTRISM

A. Specific objectives of this lesson:

1. To develop an understanding of the nature of racism.
2. To develop an understanding of the causes of racism.
3. To develop an appreciation and respect for racial differences.
4. To develop an understanding of the ill effects which racial hatred and bigotry create.

B. Outline of content to be covered in this lesson:

1. Racism is an unhealthy attitude which is the primary cause of violence and frustration in America. It is also an irrational belief that race is the primary determinant of human traits and capacities and that racial differences produce an inherent superiority of a particular race.

2. Racial pride and quest for identity are legitimate and healthy characteristics of any ethnic group. Yet, fanatical insistence that one race is superior to another is contrary to the idea of Americanism.
3. Until recently, racism in America was regarded as an exclusive quality of a great many white Americans. It is now recognized that black racism is just as rampant as white racism. When the two groups of racists meet in direct confrontations, serious problems arise. Blacks, perhaps, have always had these kinds of feelings but until recently they could not make them known.
4. Racism is an un-American attitude and concerted efforts must be made by all citizens to understand it and to combat its further development. Where it has developed it must be eradicated by rational persuasion.

C. Suggested Activities for Students:

1. Plan with the teacher.
2. Form small groups and discuss the nature of racism; outline the major points to hand in.
3. List persons in modern times who have preached racism:
 - a. White racists
 - b. Black racists
 - c. Compare the two
 - d. Explain the irrational arguments racists use.
4. Groups report on the following:
 - a. Black Nationalists groups
 - b. Black Muslims
 - c. Malcolm X
 - d. Elijah Muhammad
 - e. The Black Muslims Movement in Oklahoma City
5. Play the following game:

Two groups of five players each constitute two community action groups with opposing points of view. One is a black nationalist

group; the other is an integrationist group. The game is a special meeting which is being held to get a group of influential business men to help finance some projects.

Each group has the task of getting the business men to join their group and embrace their particular point of view. But to accomplish this, the group must present a convincing and plausible case to support its views. The business leaders will be swayed by the group offering the most rational arguments.

D. Suggested reading for students:

1. Bennett, Lerone, "The Rise of Black Power," Ebony, XXIV (February, 1969), 36-42.
2. Shecter, Leonard, "The Passion of Muhammad Ali," Esquire, LXIX (April, 1968), 128-31, 140.
3. "White Collegians Tackle White Racism," Ebony, XXIII (July, 1968), 99-102.
4. Britton, John H., "Black Militants Face Show-down in Struggle to Avoid Prison," Jet, XXXV (January 16, 1969), 15-20.

E. Suggested reading for the teacher:

1. UNESCO. Apartheid. Paris, France: UNESCO, 1967.
2. Psychiatric Aspects of School Desegregation. New York: Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 1957.

F. Evaluation:

Class Project--Write an original skit about a family overcoming racism.

LESSON PLAN VI

SCAPEGOATING

A. Specific objectives for lesson six:

1. To develop an understanding of the nature of scapegoating.
2. To understand the effects of scapegoating.
3. To develop the ability to refrain from scapegoating.

B. Outline of content to be covered in this lesson:

1. Plan with teacher.
2. Scapegoating is a phenomenon wherein some of the aggressive energies of a person or a group are focused upon another individual, group, or object: the amount of aggression and blame being either partly or wholly unwarranted.
3. The reasons why people use scapegoats include deprivation, fear, and the desire to evade guilt.
4. Forms of scapegoating:
 - a. Fantasy
 - b. Verbal aggression
 - (1) Rumors
 - (2) Jokes, doggerel, derisive cartoons
 - (3) Unjust accusations
 - (4) Teasing
 - (5) Threats
5. Scapegoating often results in coercive action.
6. Scapegoating refers to an individual's aggression which is aroused by frustration, usually of his economic needs; and then, being unable due to intellectual confusion to tell the real causes of difficulty, he lashes out about him, as it were, venting his fury upon whatever object is available and not likely to strike back.
7. The essential mechanism of scapegoating is a tendency to blame other people rather than oneself. It is a lack of insight into one's

own shortcomings and the projection of one's own weaknesses and faults onto others.

C. Suggested activities for students:

1. Play the following games:

- A. A game of six players constitute an inter-racial, intercultural advisory committee to the President of the United States. The game is a regular work session in which a statement will be formulated regarding the concept of Americanism.

Each person has the task of getting elected as chairman of this prestigious committee. To do so, the player must get the other five members to accept his statement in its original form.

- B. A group of seven constitute a slate of candidates who are running for council seats. The game is a campaign session in which five points of a statement on Americanism are advanced. Each player is given cards, each of which shows the thinking of the audience on each of the five points.

Each player has the goal of getting himself elected on the basis of his statement on Americanism. The winner must have two-thirds of the vote.

- C. Three or four players are chosen to represent a jobless and destitute neighborhood group. The game is a meeting with the State Welfare Board which has consented to listen to reasons why these people should receive welfare assistance. Each player is instructed to make his case using "ordinary" scapegoats. Each player will be given a set of scapegoats which are explained in some detail.

The object of the game is to convince the Welfare Board that the jobless and destitute the players represent are not to blame for their present condition; and, therefore, the Welfare system is obligated to support them. Assistance will be granted only if the Board members understand and concur with their testimony.

D. Suggested reading for students:

1. Allport, Gordon W. ABC's of Scapegoating.
New York: ADL, 1966.

E. Suggested reading for the teacher:

1. Frazier, E. Franklin. Race and Culture Contacts in the Modern World. New York:
Alfred A. Knopf, 1957.
2. Vander, Zanden, James W. American Minority Relations. New York: Ronald Press, 1963.

F. Evaluation:

1. Posttest
2. Essay examination

APPENDIX K

UNIT IIA

UNDERSTANDING OUR PREJUDICES: A unit of study on Human Relations for Senior High School

MAJOR OBJECTIVE: To modify Negro eleventh graders' negative interracial attitudes toward whites to more favorable ones.

LESSON PLAN I

HUMAN RIGHTS AND THE IMPORTANCE OF DIVERSITY

A. Specific objectives of this lesson:

1. To understand the role that cultural and ethnic diversity has played in producing the American character.
2. To understand that personal preferences and voluntary association are individual rights.
3. To understand the basis for establishing effective human relationships.
4. To acquire knowledge about assimilation and acculturation theories.
 - a. The Melting Pot
 - b. Cultural Pluralism
 - c. A nation of minorities
 - (1) The role of minorities
 - (2) The types of ethnic groups
 - (3) The value of difference
 - (4) The problems of co-existence
5. To acquire knowledge about Constitutional rights and the flexibility of interpretation.
6. To understand that each individual has responsibilities as well as individual rights.

7. To understand ethnic group responsibilities for safeguarding basic human and civil rights.
8. To acquire knowledge about basic human rights and conflicting values.
9. To understand the international aspects of human and civil rights.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. The strength of the American people lies in their diversity. The values of many different nationalities have been pooled to form a concept called Americanism or the American dream or spirit. The concept is elusive; however, there are certain important principles and certain moral and ethical values which are basic to American democracy. These include respect for the individual, the equality of all human beings, freedom of association, freedom of choice, freedom of speech, the right to protect one's self and property and so on. These principles and values require that individuals and ethnic groups share the responsibility of perpetuating and safeguarding the American way of life.
2. Many social scientists have tried to explain the term "American." Several theories have been advanced.
 - a. The melting pot--All nationalities have intermingled and have therefore produced a single group with distinctive characteristics.
 - b. Cultural Pluralism--America may be described as a nation of many sub-cultures.
 - c. A nation of minorities--Minorities have group self-interests but often work together for common causes; these groups' differences and values force the power elite to make compromises which protect the welfare and interests of various groups. The concept of democracy is demonstrated when these groups negotiate the terms of co-existence.
3. The U. S. Constitution is flexible document which serves all of the sub-cultures equally:

- a. The Bill of Rights
 - b. Article 1, 9, Clause 2
 - c. Article 1, 9, Clause 3
 - d. Article III, 2
 - e. Article III, 3
4. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights has implications for American citizens and the manner in which they will behave toward fellow Americans and other nationalities.
 5. The group process is fundamental to our system. Every individual needs group security and every citizen is a member of some group. The goals of these various groups affect the group members' values and behavior. Group membership is both voluntary and involuntary. In instances where membership is voluntary, some judgment must be used in joining.

C. Procedure:

1. Give pretest.
2. Introduce unit and show its relationship to the study of U. S. History.
3. Assign readings for entire unit.
4. Explain evaluation techniques.
5. Form small groups to discuss and report on factual details for Lesson I.

D. Suggested activities for students:

1. Identify and examine the goals of several groups to which high school students belong.
 - a. Explain why some goals are unacceptable.
 - b. Determine the extent to which goals are conflicting.
 - c. Compare the kinds of groups which attract white people and those which attract blacks.
 - (1) goals
 - (2) criteria for membership

2. Discuss the extent to which immigrants should live according to their native customs, and to what extent they should conform to American ideals and traditions.
3. Discuss in small groups what is meant by "Black Culture."
 - a. Group reports
 - b. Compare reports
4. Discuss the historical development and meaning of the great documents concerning human rights, as they relate to inter-group relations.
 - a. Bill of Rights
 - b. The Four Freedoms
 - c. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights
 - d. Preamble to the UNESCO Constitution
 - e. The 1954 Supreme Court decision on segregation in the nation's schools
 - f. Pertinent sections of the Constitution.
5. List the contributions of the various ethnic groups.
6. Identify various kinds of minorities and how they bargain to co-exist.
7. Evaluate the various theories of Americanization in a short essay with documentation.
 - a. Summarize briefly each theory.
 - b. Give major proponents of each.
 - c. Show how they are alike and how they are different.
 - d. Select the theory, in your judgment, which comes closest to the truth.
 - e. Indicate how you would improve each theory.
8. Group discussion--"Black people need special help from other groups."

E. Selected Readings for students:

1. Lawton, Mary C. and Fontana, Joseph, eds. These Unalienable Rights: A Handbook of the Bill of Rights. Washington, D. C.: Young Lawyers Committee, The Federal Bar Association, 1966.

2. United Nations. Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
 3. Some Questions and Answers on the Civil Rights Bill. Washington, D. C.: Leadership Conference on Civil Rights, 1964.
 4. Baldwin, Roger N. Universal Rights and American Practice. New York: American Civil Liberties Union, 1959.
 5. Walker, Daniel. Rights in Conflict. New York: Bantam, 1968.
- E. Selected Reading for the Teacher:
1. Douglass, William O. A Living Bill of Rights. New York: ADL, 1961.
 2. Brennan, Jr., William J. Teaching the Bill of Rights. New York: ADL, 1963.
 3. Handlin, Oscar. Out of Many: A Study Guide to Cultural Pluralism in the United States. New York: ADL, 1964.
 4. A Bill of Rights Program Guide. Washington, D. C.: The Federal Bar Association, 1966.
 5. Grambs, Jean D. "What Research Says About Understanding Intergroup Relations," Journal of the National Educational Association (December, 1960), reprint.
- F. Evaluation

LESSON PLAN II

THE NATURE OF PREJUDICE

- A. Specific objectives:
1. To understand the nature of prejudice.
 2. To understand the origin and development of prejudice.
 3. To develop the ability to recognize the existence of and the effects of prejudice on the individual.

4. To understand the effects of prejudice on society.
5. To develop an understanding of the different forms of prejudices.
6. To understand the relationship between ethnocentrism and prejudice.
7. To develop the desire to reduce prejudice.
8. To develop the ability to refrain from acting on prejudice.
9. To develop the habit of becoming involved in community problems relating to prejudice.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. The term "prejudice" allows for many definitions; but as a social problem in America today, prejudice can be defined exclusively in terms of human behavior which denies or attempts to deny equality of opportunity or status to certain racial, religious or ethnic groups.
2. Prejudiced behavior creates social problems:
 - a. Prejudice is a threat to social order.
 - b. Prejudice wastes human resources.
 - c. Prejudice is a threat to our democratic way of life.
3. Prejudiced attitudes do not predetermine prejudiced behavior. An individual's prejudiced behavior may be determined more by the social situation at any given moment, than by his pre-existing attitudes. Both attitude and behavior are highly susceptible to situational changes.
 - a. Two components of attitude
 - (1) A cognitive element
 - (2) An emotional element
 - b. Frame of reference influences attitudes.
4. Attitude may be different from an act. A prejudiced attitude may or may not be expressed in an overt act.

5. There is a relationship between attitude and behavior.
6. Prejudiced behavior typically shapes and alters prejudiced attitudes. The learning of prejudice is affected primarily by the kinds of social situations in which people live.
 - a. Sometimes attitudes are formed after the fact.
 - b. Behavior shapes attitudes.
7. The pattern of community practices is the fountain head of prejudice--of prejudiced behavior and of prejudiced attitudes.
 - a. Prejudices may be learned vicariously.
 - b. Social involvement may reproduce prejudice.
8. The complex of prejudicial practices within a community provides the family and other traditional groups with the "frame of reference" which perpetuates these practices and sustains prejudice.
9. The custom of prejudice, once examined and understood, may be changed through remedial social action. Various channels of social action such as the Law, Direct Action, Mass Media, the Schools, and Community Groups may help to effect this change. In addition, the individual must examine and attempt to understand his own behavior and attitude.

C. Procedure:

1. Introduce lesson.
2. Review assigned readings for Unit II.
3. Form several groups to carry out various activities.
 - a. To conduct survey.
 - b. To conduct interviews.
 - c. To secure outside resource people.
4. Reports for groups and general class discussions.
5. Do gaming.

6. Evaluation.

D. Student activities:

1. Discuss prejudice in the Oklahoma City area.
2. Collect newspaper and magazine articles which discuss prejudice against minorities.
3. Discuss movies which deal with prejudice.
 - a. "Guess Who's Coming to Dinner"
 - b. "A Patch of Blue"
4. Report on prejudice in the past
 - a. Jews in the Middle Ages
 - b. Puritans
 - c. Quakers
5. List causes of prejudice in your own neighborhood.
6. Conduct an original survey to find out about prejudice in your school or community.
7. List organizations which fight prejudice in this country.
8. Describe what you feel when you think that you are prejudiced against another person or group.
9. List two representatives of groups who fight prejudice.
 - a. NCCJ
 - b. ADL
 - c. NAACP
 - d. Council on Human Relations
10. Interview William Y. Rose concerning prejudice in Oklahoma.
11. Make distinctions between prejudiced attitudes and non-prejudiced attitudes.
12. Discuss how attitudes are formed.
13. Talk with white students about prejudice; compare their ideas with your own.

14. Listen to dialogue between a white human relationist and a black human relationist.
15. Play the following game:

There are five players who constitute the governing board of a Community Action project, and the game is an executive session which is considering granting a contract to one office supplier. Each player is given a sheet containing information concerning prices, delivery performance, quality of merchandise, etc. (details supplied by class) for three distributors --one is Negro. The data on the two whites indicates that they are superior to the Negro but the Negro is well known and liked.

Each player will recommend that the Negro be given the contract because he is Negro. The board is about to be fired and each member must defend his own action if he is to retain his position. Each player must state as many reasons as possible in justifying his action. The Advisory committee will review the reasons and take appropriate action.

E. Reading for students:

1. Raab, Earl, and Lipset, Seymour. Prejudice and Society. New York: Anti-Defamation League, 1967.
2. Rose, Arnold. The Roots of Prejudice. Paris, France: UNESCO, 1958.
3. Coles, Robert. "White Pieties and Black Reality," Saturday Review (December, 1967).
4. Noar, Gertrude. Information Is Not Enough. New York: The Anti-Defamation League, 1967.
5. Van Til, William. Prejudiced--How Do People Get That Way? New York: The Anti-Defamation League, n.d.
6. Johoda, Marie. "What Is Prejudice," Look, May 24, 1960.
7. Stevenson, Ian. "People Aren't Born Prejudiced," Parents' Magazine, February, 1960.

8. Overstreet, H. A. The Gentle People of Prejudice. New York: Community Relations Service, Institute of Human Relations, 1966.

F. Reading for the teacher:

1. Adorno, T. W., et al. The Authoritarian Personality. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964.

G. Evaluation:

1. Write a short paper on the ideal way to fight prejudice.
2. Outline the effects of prejudice:
 - a. on the individual
 - b. on the society

LESSON PLAN III

THE EFFECTS OF DISCRIMINATION

A. Specific objectives of this lesson:

1. To understand the nature and causes of discrimination.
2. To develop an understanding of the various devices of discrimination.
3. To develop an understanding of the effects of discrimination.
4. To develop the ability to refrain from discriminating on any basis.
5. To understand the relationship between prejudice and discrimination.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. Discrimination tendencies are related to ethnocentrism. Ethnocentrism is based on a pervasive and rigid ingroup-outgroup distinction; it involves stereotyped negative imagery and hostile attitudes regarding outgroups, stereotyped positive imagery and submissive attitudes

regarding ingroups, and a hierarchical, authoritarian view of group interaction in which ingroups are rightly dominant, outgroups subordinate.

2. Many laws have been passed which are designed to curtail discrimination; however, there are numerous aspects of American life that laws cannot govern sufficiently on the purely personal basis. Therefore, each individual, guided by certain moral and ethical values, must be sure that his personal behavior toward other persons is not discriminatory. Social discrimination is the most difficult to eradicate.
3. Discrimination is practiced both between groups and within groups. Discrimination in any form is a violation of human rights.

C. Procedure:

See previous lesson.

D. Activities for students:

1. Study social discrimination within your school.
2. Investigate the practice of self-segregation by minority groups, especially in housing and informal associations.
3. Study the purposes, activities and accomplishments of public and private agencies combating prejudice and discrimination.
 - a. NAACP
 - b. Urban League
4. Invite representatives from the above organizations to talk with class and answer questions.
5. Evaluate some of their projects.
6. Evaluate alternative solutions to the problems of discrimination and segregation:
 - a. Legislation and court decisions
 - b. Economic boycotts
 - c. Demonstrations
 - d. Civil disobedience
 - e. Education

7. Cite some examples of ways in which black people often discriminate against whites.
8. Play the following game:

A black citizen's committee has been formed to serve as an advisory body for the Community Action Program in their area. Each of seven committeemen is given a set of personnel records for four applicants who are seeking the directorship of the program. The application forms contain pertinent information including race. There are four applications--two are white and two are black. The committeemen are told that the whites are more qualified than the blacks.

Each player is to make a recommendation regarding the hiring of the most qualified person; however, they will ignore the qualifications of the two whites and hire the blacks. The applications should be evaluated and written up point by point. Reasons for rejections must be included. Reasons for regarding race should be detailed. The committee will make a choice between the two blacks. Their final decision will be presented to the community for their approval.

D. Reading for students:

1. Forster, Arnold. A Measure of Freedom. An Anti-Defamation League Report, Camden City, N. J.: Doubleday, 1950.
2. Lockard, Duane. Toward Equal Opportunity, A Study of State and Local Anti-Discrimination Laws. New York: Macmillan, 1968.

E. Reading for the teacher:

1. Javits, Jacob Koppell. Discrimination--U.S.A. 1st ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1960.

F. Evaluation

LESSON PLAN IV

STEREOTYPES

A. Specific objectives of this lesson:

1. To understand the origin and development of stereotypes.
2. To understand the relationship between prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination.
3. To develop the ability to distinguish valid characteristics from stereotypes.
4. To develop the ability to judge individuals on the basis of individual characteristics.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. Generally speaking, a stereotype is a standardized mental picture held in common by members of a group and representing an oversimplified opinion, affective attitude, or uncritical judgment--particularly race.
2. Hostility often flows from a stereotype.
3. A person may have a stereotype without hostility or hostility with stereotype.
4. Expressions of negative stereotypes create bad feelings. Often persons who have certain stereotypes do not understand their implications.
 - a. Jewess--a feminine ending which is no longer in good standing.
 - b. Peckerwood and Redneck--these terms mean "poor white trash" and are terms usually used in anger or condescension.
 - c. Kike and Sheeny--name-calling words used to designate Jews--distinctly derogatory and despising in their connotations.
5. Many T.V. variety shows and other forms of entertainment reinforce negative stereotypes unintentionally.

C. Procedure:

See previous lessons.

D. Activities for students:

1. List some common stereotypes.
2. Examine personal experiences involving stereotypes.
3. Write a brief history of several common stereotypes.
4. Group discussion: "How stereotypes harm community relations."
5. Survey the use of racial labels in newspaper stories of crime.
6. Evaluate the stereotyping of nationality and race in television and movie drama roles and cartoons.
7. Study the extent of stereotyping in books, comic books, and newspaper comic strips.
8. Evaluate methods of combating prejudice and stereotypes.
 - a. Censorship
 - b. Education
 - c. Propaganda
 - d. Legislation
 - e. Intergroup contact
 - f. Group retraining
9. Discuss mass media's handling of stereotypes.
10. Do the following game:

Six players form a Southern legislative committee. The game is to write a description of Appalachian poor whites to be included in a new bill. Each player is given a card containing some common conceptions of these people.

Each player has the task of getting his "description" of Appalachian people accepted by the full legislative committee. All six statements will be considered. The one most free of common stereotypes will be accepted.

E. Readings for students:

1. Saenger, Gerhart, and Flowerman, Samuel, "Stereotypes and Prejudicial Attitudes," Human Relations, VII (1954), 217-238.
2. Smith, Lillian. Killers of the Dream. New York: W. W. Norton, 1949.

F. Readings for the teacher:

1. Writers' War Board. How Writers Perpetuate Stereotypes. New York, 1945.

G. Evaluation

LESSON PLAN V

RACISM

A. Specific objectives:

1. To develop an understanding of the nature of racism.
2. To develop an understanding of the cause of racism and bigotry.
3. To develop an appreciation and respect for racial differences.
4. To acquire knowledge about the harmful effects of racial separatism.
5. To develop an understanding of the effects of racial hatred.
6. To develop an understanding of false notions regarding racial superiority.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. Racism is an unhealthy attitude which is the primary cause of violence and frustration in America. It is also an irrational belief that race is the primary determinant of human traits and capacities and that racial differences produce an inherent superiority of a particular race.

2. Racial pride and quest for identity are legitimate and healthy characteristics of any ethnic group. Yet, fanatical insistence that one race is superior to another is contrary to the idea of Americanism.
3. Until recently, racism in America was regarded as an exclusive quality of a great many white Americans. It is now recognized that black racism is just as rampant as white racism. When the two groups of racists meet in direct confrontations serious problems arise.
4. Racism is an un-American attitude and concerted efforts must be made by all citizens to understand it and to combat its development. Where it has developed it must be eradicated.
5. Ethnocentrism is similar to racism in its insistence that one's cultural group is superior to others. Certain democratic values may prevail in ethnocentrists and these values often prevent more drastic action, but they may also serve to permit discrimination and oppression behind a pseudodemocratic front.
6. Ethnocentrism is based on a pervasive and rigid ingroup-outgroup distinction; it involves stereotyped negative imagery and hostile attitudes regarding outgroups, stereotyped positive imagery and submissive attitudes regarding ingroups, and a hierarchical, authoritarian view of group interaction in which ingroups are rightly dominant, outgroups subordinate.
7. Racial separatism is not a viable alternative in a multi-ethnic society such as ours.

C. Procedure:

1. See film and follow with discussion.
2. Follow procedures in previous lessons.

D. Activities for students:

1. Survey your community to determine the degree to which racism is widespread.
2. Outline the basic components of a racist's attitudes toward other ethnic and racial groups.

3. Review recent racial tensions in terms of the Black Power and Black is Beautiful movements.
4. Study black minority racist group movements such as the Black Panthers, the Black Muslims, Black Nationalists.
5. Study white racists groups--White Citizens Councils, the KKK, the John Birch Society.
 - a. Aims and objectives
 - b. Criteria for membership
 - c. Tactics
 - d. Impact on other Americans
 - e. Resistance to these groups
6. Set up a mock citizens committee to combat racism:
 - a. Define goals
 - b. Determine facts about race
 - c. Method of attack
 - d. Recruiting other members
7. Set up a review board to examine charges of racism in the community.
8. Report on racism in Nazism Germany.
9. Discuss racism in South Africa.
10. Compare and contrast the forms of racism practiced by the Germans, South Africans, white Americans, black Americans.
11. See film: "Common Fallacies About Group Differences," Jewish Community Relations Council, Pittsburgh.
12. Play the following game:

Two groups of five players each constitute two community action groups with opposing points of view. One is a black nationalist group; the other is an integrationist group. The game is a special meeting which is being held to get a group of influential businessmen to help finance some projects.

Each group has the task of getting the businessmen to join their group and embrace

their particular point of view. But to accomplish this, the group must present a convincing and plausible case to support its views. The business leaders will be swayed by the group offering the most rational arguments.

E. Reading for the students:

1. Klinebert, Otto. Race and Psychology. Paris, France: UNESCO, 1958.
2. Dunn, L. C. Race and Biology. Paris, France: UNESCO, 1958.
3. "Race and Prejudice." The UNESCO Courier, April, 1965.
4. Spearman, Walter and Meyer, Sylvan. Racial Crisis and the Press. Atlanta: The Southern Regional Council, 1960.
5. Schermer, George. Guidelines: A Manual for Bi-Racial Committees. New York: Anti-Defamation League, 1964.
6. Fisher, Paul L. Race and the News Media. New York: Anti-Defamation League, 1957.
7. Higgins, Chester. "Blacks Sought Separate State 35 Years Ago," Jet, XXXIV (May 30, 1968), 14-21.
8. Baldwin, James. "An Interview with James Baldwin," Esquire, LXX (July, 1968), 49.
9. Poussaint, Alvin. "A Psychiatrist Looks at Black Power," Ebony, XXIV (March, 1969), 142-52.
10. Cleaver, Eldridge. Soul on Ice. New York: Dell Publishing Company, 1968.
11. Bennett, Lerone. The Negro Mood. New York: Johnson Publishing Company, Inc., 1964.
12. Young, Whitney. Beyond Racism. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969.

F. Reading for the teacher:

1. UNESCO. Apartheid. Paris, France: UNESCO, 1967.

2. The Continuing Crisis: An Assessment of New Racial Tensions in the South. Atlanta: The Southern Regional Council, 1966.
3. Psychiatric Aspects of School Desegregation. New York: Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 1957.

G. Evaluation:

1. Essay Test:

"Evidences of Racism in Oklahoma City"
 "Methods for Reducing Racism in America"

LESSON PLAN VI

SCAPEGOATING

A. Specific objectives of the lesson:

1. To develop an understanding of the nature of scapegoating.
2. To understand the effects of scapegoating.
3. To develop the ability to refrain from scapegoating.
4. To understand the irrational reasoning which gives rise to scapegoating.
5. To understand the process by which individuals and groups use scapegoating techniques.

B. Outline of content to be covered:

1. Scapegoating is a phenomenon wherein some of the aggressive energies of a person or a group are focused upon another individual, group, or object: the amount of aggression and blame being either partly or wholly unwarranted.
2. The motivations behind scapegoating:
 - a. Thwarting and deprivation
 - b. Guilt evasion
 - c. Fear and anxiety
 - d. Self-enhancement

- e. Conformity
- f. Tabloid thinking

3. Types of scapegoaters

- a. The compulsive scapegoater
- b. The thwarted scapegoater
- c. The conventional scapegoater
- d. The conforming scapegoater
- e. The calculating scapegoater

4. The victim

- a. The victim has distinguishing and salient characteristics.
- b. The victim has little possibility for retaliation.
- c. The victim's strength has been previously undermined through attack.
- d. The victim is usually accessible.

5. Forms of scapegoating

- a. Fantasy
- b. Verbal aggression
 - (1) Rumors
 - (2) Jokes, doggerel, derisive cartoons
 - (3) Unjust accusations
 - (4) Teasing
 - (5) Threats

6. Scapegoating refers to an individual's aggression which is aroused by frustration, usually of his economic needs; and then, being unable due to intellectual confusion to tell the real causes of difficulty, he lashes out about him, as it were, venting his fury upon whatever object is available and not likely to strike back.

7. The essential mechanism of scapegoating is a tendency to blame other people rather than oneself. It is a lack of insight into one's own shortcomings and the projection of one's own weaknesses and faults onto others.

C. Procedure:

See previous lessons.

D. Activities for students:

1. List and discuss various scapegoats which are commonly used by Negroes.
2. Discuss why people use scapegoats.
3. Play the following games:

- a. A game of six players constitute an inter-racial, intercultural advisory committee to the President of the United States. The game is a regular work session in which a statement will be formulated regarding the concept of Americanism.

Each person has the task of getting elected as chairman of this prestigious committee. To do so, the player must get the other five members to accept his statement in its original form.

- b. A group of seven constitute a slate of candidates who are running for council seats. The game is a campaign session in which five points of a statement of Americanism are advanced. Each player is given cards, each of which shows the thinking of the audience on each of the five points.

Each player has the goal of getting himself elected on the basis of his statement on Americanism. The winner must have two-thirds of the vote.

- c. Three or four players are chosen to represent a jobless and destitute neighborhood group. The game is a meeting with the State Welfare Board which has consented to listen to reasons why these people should receive Welfare assistance. Each player will be given a set of scapegoats which are explained in some detail.

The object of the game is to convince the Welfare Board that the jobless and destitute players they represent are not to blame for their present condition; and therefore, the Welfare system is obligated to support them. Assistance will be granted only if the Board members understand and concur with their testimony.

E. Readings for students:

1. Allport, Gordon W. ABC's of Scapegoating.
New York: Anti-Defamation League, 1966.

2. See Unit I--Ninth grade

F. Reading for the teacher:

G. Evaluation

1. Posttest

2. Essay exam