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IN A HUMAN RELATIONS RESIDENCE HALL

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ATTITUDE CHANGE

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

> Prejudiced behavior typically shapes and alters prejudiced attitudes. The learning of prejudice is effected primarily by the kinds of social situations in which people live.[1]

The desegregation of black and nonblack citizens of the United States was made national policy by the United States Supreme Court in its 1954 Brown decision.[2] There are two basic means for achieving desegregation: (1) breaking down legal barriers that foster unequal treatment on the basis of race and (2) changing negative attitudes. Attitude change is the more

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[1]Earl Raab and Semour M. Lipset, Prejudice and Society (New York: The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1963), p. 19.

[2]Commission on Civil Rights, Report of the Commission, Civil Rights (Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office 1967), p. 185.

difficult task. School desegregation has become the principal means for changing discriminatory behavior and prejudicial attitudes, especially in public elementary and secondary schools and colleges.

Two assumptions underlie the use of educational institutions to bring about changes in attitudes. The first is noncurricular. This argument assumes that close proximity of dissimilar people produces understanding which in turn produces tolerant attitudes. Further, it is contended, small children are color-blind and tolerant; bringing them together in school will reinforce their openness and prevent the development of intolerance. Finally, the argument continues, even those who may have brought intolerant attitudes from family or neighborhood will lose them in desegregated schools.[1]

Most human behavior is learned.[2] No child is born prejudiced; each child must be taught adult prejudices. Racial prejudice is so intimately interwoven with the American way of life that it becomes difficult not to transmit it to children.

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[1]W. Todd Furniss, "Racial Minorities and Curriculum Change," in The Campus and the Racial Crisis, eds. By David C. Nichols and Olive Mills (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1970), p. 72.

[2]James Deese, The Psychology of Learning, (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1958), p. 1.

Allport[1] gives two reasons why change in prejudiced attitudes is difficult to achieve. First, in-group membership tends to evolve around the assumption that certain out-groups are inferior, threatening, or contemptible. A second reason for the persistence of racially prejudice attitudes is that they receive continual support from the social environment.

In The Authoritarian Personality, Adorno, and others state the assumptions of people with hardened prejudices: in-groups are good, out-groups are bad; in-groups are clean, out-groups are dirty.[2] Various researchers conclude that it is difficult, if not impossible, to change such attitudes.[3] It seems that prejudice has too profound a functional significance for authoritarian types to be changed by exhortation, knowledge, or logical argument.[4]

The studies of Adorno and others have given us an insight into the types of personality that are most likely to be

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[1]Gordon W. Allport, The Resolution of Intergroup Tensions (New York: The National Conference of Christians and Jews), p. 6.

[2]T. W. Adorno, E. Frenkel-Brunswik, D. J. Levinson, and R. N. Sanford, The Authoritarian Personality, (Harper, 1950).

[3]Warren C. Carmichael, "An Instrument to Measure Attitudes and Opinions Toward Human Relations Issues," (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1968), p. 2.

[4]Allport, op. cit., p. 6.

contaminated by bigotry. However, it would be misleading to think of prejudice as primarily characterizing individual maladjustment. Both healthy and neurotic individuals absorb the prejudices of their social milieu.

Because prejudice is primarily a social disorder, it tends to perpetuate itself by the effects it creates. Prejudice places members of a minority group at a social disadvantage. As a consequence, members of minority groups tend to develop certain social and psychological characteristics which, in turn, function to support prejudice. Minority group members who are placed at a disadvantage with respect to education, employment, and housing become prophecies which fulfill themselves. Prejudiced members of the majority group, ignoring their responsibility for this state of affairs, frequently use the negative behaviors of minorities to justify their own prejudice.[1]

Thus, the social behaviors which place the members of a minority group at a disadvantage--discrimination and segregation--greatly limit majority-minority group relationships, which not only debilitate minorities but also give basis in fact for the stereotypes of minorities. Prejudice results in a reduction of intimate, equal-status contacts between members of varying status

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[1]R. K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Free Press, 1949).

groups. For instance, the prejudiced white person, because of his prejudice against blacks does not get to know blacks intimately, especially in an equal-status relationship. His prejudice combines with social customs to prevent him from having the types of peer group interactions with blacks which would probably modify his prejudices. The main source of information about blacks generally comes from unfounded "experiences," beliefs, and feelings generated by members of the prejudiced white person's own group. As a consequence, members of the prejudiced white group, through mutually reinforcing contact with each other, have little reason to seriously question the validity of their beliefs. We could, of course, make the same analogy for prejudiced blacks. A vicious circle or a "socially shared autism" is established whereby persons lacking personal experiences with members of another group acquires what at the time seems to be valid reasons for denigrating out-groups.[1]

Need for the Study

Undoubtedly the lack of understanding between blacks and whites is a prime factor in the poor quality of race relations in America today. During the past 10 years the extent of these

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[1]Gardner Murphy, Personality: A Biosocial Approach To Origin and Structure. Harper, 1947.

differences has been dramatically underscored by widespread civil disturbances in urban areas, including the college campuses. To be sure, a great deal of misunderstanding arises because of dichotomous living patterns in our society. Generally, blacks and whites have not been allowed because of legal restraints or encouraged because of social constraints to integrate.

There is nothing inevitable, however, about the tension that characterized many interracial encounters in the United States. Rather such conflict is the direct result of the racial separation that has traditionally characterized our society. In short, separation is the cause, not the remedy, for interracial disharmony.

According to some social practioners, America is a nation whose mode of interaction should reflect racial desegregation. Those of this persuasion cite the fact that the United States Supreme Court has not reversed itself in reference to the 1954 Brown decision. If, as a nation, we are to implement desegregation and--ideally--integration, then more knowledge is needed about the techniques and methods which will allow America to achieve these goals.

For decades, it has been assumed by many scholars that all that must be done is to "put the children together and they will solve this problem." Research in this area is mixed--

some researches support this contention, others do not. In essence, more research is needed.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine the effectiveness of a series of human relations education programs in modifying interracial attitudes of black and white college students who resided in special interest "human relations residence halls" as compared to college students who resided in residence halls without the human relations interest.

More specifically, the study was to determine if the human relations education program caused any statistically significant difference in black and white students' interracial attitudes for the following groups and subgroups: (1) between the two sample groups, (2) between race and sex of the two sample groups.

Hypotheses to be Tested

The design of the study required the testing of the following general null hypothesis: There is no significant difference in the changes in students interracial attitudes whether the students participated in the human relations education program or not. Ten null subhypotheses were tested. These were:

HO_1 There is no statistically significant difference in black male students' interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program.

HO_2 There is no statistically significant difference in white male students' interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program.

HO_3 There is no statistically significant difference in black female students' interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program.

HO_4 There is no statistically significant difference in white female students' interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program.

HO_5 There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between black and white males after participating in the human relations education program.

HO_6 There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between black and white females after participating in the human relations education program.

HO_7 There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change of white male students who did not participate in the human relations education program.

HO_8 There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change of white female students' who did not participate in the human relations education program.

HO_9 There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between the Experimental and Control Groups.

HO_{10} There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between the black and white students of the Experimental Group.

Major Assumptions

The following assumptions were made:

1. That the instrument, The Integration Attitude Scale, was suitable to use as a pretest and posttest for measuring black and white students' interracial attitudes.

2. That the students of both the human relations residence halls and the residence halls without human relations interest were appropriate for this study.

3. That students' interracial attitudes could be modified utilizing certain methods.

The Population

One hundred black and white students enrolled at the University of Oklahoma who resided in single student housing during the fall semester of the 1973-74 academic year were the subjects of this study. The experimental group was comprised of 50 students, blacks and whites of both sexes, and

were the occupants of the human relations residence halls. The control group was comprised of one group of 25 white male students, and one group of 25 black and white female students who were the occupants of the residence hall without human relations interest.

From the experimental and control groups involved in the investigation, four subgroups were formed, three of which were composed of blacks and whites, of both sexes, and one subgroup which constituted white males only.

Definitions of Terms

Experimental Group I refers to the male occupants, both black and white students of the human relations residence hall who participated in the human relations education program.

Experimental Group II refers to both black and white female occupants of the human relations residence hall who participated in the human relations education program.

Control Group I refers to the white male occupants of the residence hall without special human relations interest and who did not participate in the human relations education program.

Control Group II refers to the black and white female occupants of the residence hall without special human relations interest and who did not participate in the human relations education program.

Human Relations Education is the teaching of skills in personal relationships, the understanding of drives and motivation, and the inter-dependence of all people in a democratic society.[1]

Human Relations is the social interaction which takes place between people and the influence which persons have on one another; also refers to the scientific study of this influence.[2]

Prejudice is an opinion or attitude held without regard for, or in spite of, evidence, grounds, or considered judgment.[3]

Attitude refers to the predisposition or tendency to react specifically towards an object, situation, or value; usually accompanied by feelings and emotions.

Racial Desegregation is the participation of nonwhite and white students and staff in the same school activities; includes co-curricular and school-related activities.

Special Interest Housing refers to single student residence halls, whereby the occupants are assigned on a voluntary

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[1]Carter V. Good (ed.), Dictionary of Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959).

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid.

basis in accordance with their particular needs, interest and aptitudes.

Human Relations Expert refers to individuals who are formally and experientially trained in the field of human relations.

Method and Procedure of the Study

A pretest-posttest control group design[1] was employed in this study. According to Good, "This experimental design seeks to control the main effects of history, maturation, testing, instrument decay, regression, selection and mortality."

Allport notes that methods for measuring change of attitudes are a recent development. When we accelerate efforts to apply methods for change, the more problems come to light. The ideal essentials for evaluation research are three in number:

> There must be first an identifiable program to be evaluated (a course of instruction, a law, a moving picture, a new type of contact between groups). This factor is called the independent variable.
>
> There must be some indicies of change. Attitude scales might be administered before and after the experience, such measures are the dependent variable.

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

> Less vital, but still important, is the use of control groups. When the independent variable is applied we should like to prove that the measured change is unquestionably a result of this fact.[1]

Because the control group are not submitted to the independent variable, if they should show an equivalent amount of change, then it cannot be concluded that it was the independent variable that was effective but rather that some other factor influencing both groups.

In the present study, subjects, were selected from a segment of the student body who were enrolled at the University of Oklahoma for the fall semester 1973-74 academic year and who resided in two separate residential centers. One hundred college students were used in the experiment. Fifty students, 25 black and white males, and 25 black and white females formed the experimental group. The remaining 50 students, 25 black and white females and 25 white males formed the control group. Four staff members provided the researcher with a roster of names of their residents by race and sex. The subjects were selected randomly from the list provided and arrangements were made with the residence hall staff for administering the attitude scale.

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[1]G. W. Allport, The Nature of Prejudice, (Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1954), p. 481.

An Integration Attitude Scale was administered to all subjects as the pretest. The control group was not subjected to the experimental treatment. The experimental group was subjected to two lectures and two moving pictures which were in the writer's opinion, appropriate for the purposes of this study. Eight weeks was allowed for the treatment. At the close of the experiment, the two sample groups were administered the original instrument as a posttest.

The Pretest and Posttest Instrument

The instrument An Integration Attitude Scale was devised by Herbert M. Greenberg.[1] It was Greenberg's intention to offer a tool which could be used to scientifically determine where integration was occuring smoothly or where problems might be anticipated. Further, where problems are anticipated the instrument is designed to ascertain with a fair degree of accuracy in what areas (i.e. integration per se, athletics, dances, dormitories). The ability to clearly anticipate such problems can have beneficial effects on the specific applications or strategy of integration in the given situation.

The scale was administered to 233 white high school

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[1]Herbert M. Greenberg, "The Development of an Integration Attitude Scale," The Journal of Social Psychology, 1961, Vol. 54, pp. 103-09.

students attending racially segregated schools in West Texas. The product-moment and related coefficients of correlation between the Integration Attitude and Ethnocentrism scales was plus .71. The correlation was significant beyond the .01 level; thus, there is a positive relationship between prejudice and ethnocentric attitudes as measured by the Integration Attitude Scale. In other words, one could expect with a reasonable degree of assurance that an individual scoring high on the E scale would likely score similarly on the Integration Attitude Scale.

Greenberg developed an item pool based only on the logical validity of each item. The test method employed by the E and F scales was used as the technique of a statement, to be agreed or disagreed with. It was deemed to be superior to the standard "Do you___..., yes or no?" approach. It was Greenberg's belief that a statement, especially if couched in familiar terms, can evoke unconscious reactions much as a projective technique would, while the "Do you" kind of question tends to immediately raise defenses and force the respondent into the position of seeking self-enhancement of his response.

The item pool originally numbered 60 but was reduced to its final form of 29 by testing each item for its discriminatory power and eliminating those failing a reasonable level

of discriminability. Approximately 50 college students chosen at random were employed for this pairing operation. The 29 final items then had logical validity and showed a reasonable ability to separate groups.

Permission was obtained to use the developer's instrument for the present study. A number of items had to be rewritten to make them appropriate to test the integration attitudes of black and white students of both sexes. An intensive search for additional appropriate commercial scales and surveys indicated that few, if any, were suitable to test the students' attitudes toward integration.

On the basis of available research and after careful analysis of the current racial relationships on the college campuses, the writer selected 27 of 29 items, which were subsequently submitted to a panel of judges, all of whom were experts in the field of human relations. Taking the suggestions of the panel of judges, the instrument was reconstructed using the same statements, with slight modification of some items, in most instances, a few statements required only a change in wording, which did not destroy adequacy of content.

A trial run was employed using 27 college subjects from outside of the experimental situation. The subjects were asked to judge the degree of agreement or disagreement

of each statement on the six point continuum. The subjects were also asked to make suggestions for the improvement of the instrument for use in ascertaining the interracial attitudes of college students.

The results of the trial run of the instrument indicated several areas that needed improvement. After analyzing the information gained from the trial run, it was determined that further reliability of the instrument was desirable. The data acquired from the judgments, obtained by the method of equal appearing intervals were calculated for scale and Q values.[1]

After calculating the scale and Q values, it was evident that several statements depicted high Q values, namely, statements number 24 and 26. Further, statements number seven and 22 were questionably high. However, the majority of the statements were within the range of acceptability. Therefore, it was concluded that the instrument was suitable for use as the pretest and posttest for the experiment.

Delimitations

The study was limited to investigation of documents--both primary and secondary sources--located in the University of Oklahoma Library. Sources, periods of publication, and subject headings were as follows:

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[1]See Appendix B of this study.

1. Dissertation Abstracts, from 1968.
2. Psychological Abstracts, from 1950.
3. Periodicals, from 1961.
4. Books, from 1950.

In addition, the measure of attitudes was restricted to one hundred black and white students enrolled at the University of Oklahoma, who resided in single student housing during the fall semester of the 1973-74 academic year.

The sources of data were the one hundred students at the University of Oklahoma who completed the Integration Attitude Scale in the fall of 1973.

Finally, and perhaps the most serious limitation is the fact that instruments are not available which meet the statistical tests of foolproof qualitative measurement of attitude.

Statistical Treatment

A statistical analysis was run from the data obtained as a result of the administration of the attitude scale by analyzing group means using the"t" test of the significance of the difference between the gains of the pre-posttest scores for the experimental, control and the subgroups. 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."[1]

Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter I presents background information and a statement of the problem with a description of the study. Chapter II presents a theoretical framework and a review of selected studies. Chapter III contains a description of the design of the study. The presentation and analysis of data is supported in Chapter IV. Chapter V provides a summary of the study, as well as findings, discussion of findings, conclusions and recommendations based upon the analysis and interpretation of the data.

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[1]George H. Weinberg and John A. Schumaker, Statistics: An Intuitive Approach, (Wadsack Publishing Company, Inc., 1962), p. 193.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF SELECTED STUDIES

This study was concerned with determining the effectiveness of a series of human relations education programs in changing interracial attitudes of black and white college students, who resided in single student residence halls having a special interest in human relations as compared to college students residing in single student residence halls without the special interest in human relations. Therefore, the references to research are confined to those studies which involved intergroup contact, attitude change, and planned efforts to reduce prejudice on the part of the students volunteering to live in a human relations residence hall.

A review of the research disclosed relatively few studies directly related to human relations experiments in college residence halls. Studies selected for detailed review were those relating in some manner to intergroup contact and attitude change.

Theoretical Framework

There are reasons why changes in attitude may be expected. The foremost reason is the fact that prejudiced attitudes have no hereditary basis.[1] Not only is prejudice itself learned, but so too are all of its ingredients. What is learned can, theoretically, be unlearned.

Perhaps the first problem which arises in changing prejudiced attitudes is that of bringing to bear upon the prejudiced persons the experiences necessary for attitudinal change: "Every opportunity must be seized to utilize the diverse factors which cause inconsistency in attitudes and behavior, if the prejudiced person's attitudes are to be changed. This means that the individual's needs, conformity pressures, must be utilized to bring the prejudiced person into situations which he would selectively avoid if he were guided solely by his prejudiced attitude."[2] For example, a prejudiced person's need for a college degree may expose him to information which is counter to his beliefs; his need for housing may make him move into an interracial housing complex during a housing shortage; the operation of an equal employment practices

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[1]Allport, op. cit., p. 7.

[2]I. Chein, "The Problems of Inconsistency," Journal of Social Issues, 5:52-61, (1949).

policy may "compel" him to work with minority groups as a fellow employee.[1]

In a sense, the first step in any program to change attitudes must be directed toward a change in social practices a change which will create the situtations to which a prejudiced person must expose himself if he wishes to satisfy certain needs. A change in social practices can, of course, not only create such situations, but it can also help reduce prejudice by improving the objective socioeconomic status of minority groups and by decreasing the social supports of prejudice. An analysis of psychological requirements for a situation if it is to result in a reduction of prejudice include the following elements:

> For a disruption in rationales of prejudice to occur, the biased individual must be exposed to experiences which contradict the rationales, which are of sufficient intimacy and duration so as to be compelling enough to resist marked perceptual and memorial distortion, and which seem relevant to the basis on which the objects of prejudice are grouped together.[2]

> In theory, there are an infinite number of ways in which these requirements can be met--a course in race relations, attending a concert by a prominent minority group member, formal educational methods, individual therapy, and other methods for improving

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[1]Morton Deutsch and Mary Evans Collins, Interracial Housing, "A Psychological Evaluation of Social Experiment," (Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1951). p. 145.

[2]Ibid., p. 146.

> ethnic relations and for changing prejudiced attitudes. However, in reality few situations are both intense enough and generalized enough to result in significant changes in the beliefs which support prejudice.[1]

There are certain processes used in attempts to bring about attitude change: (1) Experimenters testing white college students for their attitudes toward nonwhites have found a statistically significant shift in attitudes in a favorable direction if the situation is pleasant and the subjects can identify with nonwhites, that is, middle-class nonwhites, (2) Ewing observed that an anti-Ford-automobile speech, presented to a pro-Ford audience, was more influential in producing anti-Ford attitudes in the group when the speaker began by defining himself as pro-Ford. This approach was considerably more effective than an almost identical speech which omitted the initial establishment of a common foundation of agreement with the audience, (3) In religion, mass revivalists such as Billy Graham use the technique of public commitment--physically "coming forward." Revival audiences do not have to "believe" in Jesus Christ before coming forward. The fundamental psychological principle is that an attitude can change after a behavior change which negates the original attitude;

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[1]Gordon W. Allport, The Nature of Prejudice, (Cambridge: Wesley Publishing Company, 1954), p. 480.

that is, in many instances attitude change follows behavior change.

(4) In law, successful trial lawyers pay attention to many factors and to seemingly trivial details which will persuade a jury to agree with their conclusion and reject that of their opponents.

In social psychology there are two main approaches to attitude change. The formal attitude-change approach is based on learning theory and assumes that man is a rational, information-processing being who can be motivated to listen to a message, learn its contents, and include them in his responses when his learning is rewarded. The means of change is a formal, structured communication, and the reason for change is either the actual or the expected reward for concurrence with the communicator.

The group dynamics approach, based on Kurt Lewin's field-theory orientation, assumes that man is a social being who needs people as a basis of self-knowledge, learning proper responses to environmental demands and channeling and controlling present behavior through the operation of group norms. The means of change is through group norms, which may be communicated informally and which may be different from the

individual's attitude or behavior.[1]

Theory of Attitude Change

The study of attitude change is the attempt to indentify and understand the processes underlying the modification of attitudes. Thus, studies of attitude change have necessarily included formulations about other crucial aspects of attitudes, such as how they originally develop and how they are related to values, personality, and the social environment.

The functional approach to attitude change suggests that attitudes develop and change as they serve to promote or support goals of the individual; that is, attitudes are instrumental to each person's satisfaction of certain basic needs.

There have been two major attempts to present a functional explanation of attitude change. The first was proposed by Katz and Stotland (1959) and further elaborated upon by Katz (1960); the second was suggested by Kelman (1961). The functional approach to attitude change is represented here by Katz's (1960) theoretical statement and illustrative research by Katz, Sarnoff, and McClintock (1956).

Katz and Stotland argued that attitudes develop and change because they satisfy psychological needs of the

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[1]George Henderson, To Live In Freedom, (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1972), pp. 114-115.

individual. Thus, a change agent must be aware of what need is being served by an attitude in order to predict the nature of the change. Katz postulated four different motivational bases of attitudes. The first basis, the instrumental function, which, is built on the assumption that a person seeks to maximize rewards and minimize punishments; that is, he or she develops positive attitudes toward those objects or ideas that are rewarding or lead to a reward and negative attitudes toward those that are punishing or lead to punishment. The second basis, the ego-defensive function, is built on the individual's desire to protect himself from self-perceptions that cause him psychological pain. The third basis, the value expressive function, is built on the individual's desire to present attitudes consistent with his central values. The fourth basis, the knowledge function, is built on the premise that all people need to acquire information and to organize it in a way that gives meaning to their potentially chaotic environment.[1]

Kelman's theory of attitude change (1961) proposes a "three-process" theory of attitude change which is particularly concerned with situations in which one person attempts to influence the attitudes of another. Two of these processes

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[1]Richard Wagner and John Sherwood, The Study of Attitude Change, (Belmont: Brooks and Cole 1969), pp 4-5.

focus on the relationship between the change agent and the recipient of the attempted change; the third process focuses on the relationship between the change advocated and the attitudes already held by the recipient. The first process, compliance, occurs when the recipient changes his attitude in order to obtain a favorable reaction or avoid an unfavorable reaction from the influencer. The second process of attitude change, identification, occurs when the person adopts the attitudes of others with whom he has gratifying personal relationships. The third process, internalization, change consistent with the attitudes or values that the recipient already holds.

Review of selected Studies

Among the earliest researchers of intergroup contact and attitude change were three who used experimental methods--Young,[1] Williams,[2] and F. T. Smith.[3] In each case interracial

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[1]D. Young, American Minority Peoples. (New York: Harper, 1932).

[2]D. H. Williams, "The Effects of an Interracial Project upon the Attitudes of Negro and White Girls within the Young Women's Christian Association." Unpublished M.A. thesis, Columbia University, 1934.

[3]F. T. Smith, An Experiment in Modifying Attitudes toward the Negro ("Contributions to Education," No. 887). (New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, 1943).

groups were formed expressly for the purpose of improving attitudes toward blacks (or of studying the effects of intergroup contact on attitudes); in each case participation was voluntary. In the study reported by Young, a group of white college students heard, as part of their course work, lectures by outstanding blacks,[1] visited a black hospital, etc. The contacts occurred, apparently, once a week over the period of one semester. Williams brought 15 white girls and 23 black girls into contact through YWCA club activities. Smith's study was based on a two-weekend (four-day) tour of Harlem by 46 white students at Columbia University. During these visits the students listened to lectures by prominent black leaders; met black doctors, scientists, writers; and were entertained in an upper-class black home.

The black and white girls in the Williams study were considered similar not only in general socioeconomic status but also in their roles in the club activities. In the Young and Smith studies, the blacks presumably were of somewhat higher in status than the white students. Not only did the blacks represent outstanding accomplishments but they also occupied a quasi-teaching position in relation to the students.

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[1]The use of the term black(s) is used in lieu of the term Negro(es) to maintain consistent word use throughout the text.

The relative status of the groups having contact is stressed at this point because of this writer's conviction, to be developed shortly, that the status relations help to determine the outcomes of the contacts.

In all three studies, before-and-after measures of attitudes were used. Young reported very little improvement in attitude toward blacks on the part of the white students in his experiment. Unfortunately the study is only sketchily reported and it is difficult to determine what measuring instruments were used and just how much change was observed. Williams, on the other hand, found a significant improvement in the attitudes of the white girls participating in the interracial club. In addition to before-and-after measurement. Smith used a control group of matched students who had also expressed interest in participating in the Harlem tour. Employing a variety of attitude scales, he found substantial improvement on the part of those who had been on the Harlem trips and no improvement in attitude of those who had participated in the trips was apparent 10 months later.

In addition to these few experimental investigations, there have been a number of studies in which respondents' pre-contact attitudes were compared with their post-contact

attitudes. Allport and Kramer,[1] for example, questioned white college students about their prior experience with blacks and about their present attitudes toward blacks. They found that while any contact with blacks was more likely to be related to favorable attitudes than was no contact at all, certain types of contact more than other were related to favorable attitudes. The contacts most highly related to favorable attitude were those which occurred in school, at work, in recreation, as neighbors, and as friends. Allport and Kramer consider the essential characteristic of these contacts to be that of equal status on the part of the black and white participants.

A number of studies have shown reduction of prejudice or lack of reduction as a result of specified influences. Rose[1] summarized studies published prior to 1945; (1) Of thirteen studies which utilized school or college courses to bring about attitude change, eight indicated change and one was inconclusive; (2) Fourteen studies included specific propaganda in attempts to reduce prejudice. Nine indicated change, four indicated no change, and one was inconclusive; (3) Personal

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[1]G. W. Allport and B. M. Kramer, "Some Roots of Prejudice," Journal of Psychology, 1946, 1946, Volume 22:9-39.

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

contacts were used in nine studies seeking to reduce prejudice. Three of these studies were classified under each of the following results: change, no change, and inconclusive; (4) Twelve studies included knowledge or acquaintance in attempting to reduce prejudice. Nine of these studies resulted in change, two resulted in no change, and the results of one was indefinite; and (5) Eighteen studies utilized general education courses to reduce prejudice. Eight of these studies indicated change, six indicated no change, and one was indefinite.

Mackenzie[1] had college students and government employees fill out questionnaires which measured their attitudes toward and prior contact with blacks. She found that favorable attitudes toward blacks were associated with contacts with blacks who had "high status," that is, college students or professional people, such as doctors, lawyers, or teachers, whereas contact with blacks of nonprofessional status tended to be associated with less favorable attitudes. Since the subjects answering the questionnaire were of relatively high economic and educational status, this could be interpreted as supporting the view that equal-status contacts tend to be

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[1]Barbara K. Mackenzie, "The Importance of Contact in Determining Attitudes toward Negroes," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 1948, Vol. 43:417-41.

associated with more favorable attitudes.

In a study devoted to determining some conditions conducive to attitude change, Watson[2] conducted intensive interviews with 45 non-Jewish subjects who reported having undergone changes--either favorable or unfavorable--in attitudes toward Jews or blacks. While the number of cases is small, her findings also support the general hypothesis that equal-status contact is associated with favorable attitudes. Of 23 respondents who had previous contact with blacks or Jews of "at least equal-status" to that of the respondent, 21 were classified as having altered their attitudes in a more favorable direction. Of 14 respondents who had contact with blacks or Jews of lower status than themselves, 10 had changed attitudes in an unfavorable direction.

In a study focused primarily on attitudes as related to the experience of living in a biracial public housing project, Merton, West, and Jahoda, also considered the question of prior contact with blacks. Respondents who reported both work and residential experience with blacks before moving into the project were more likely to approve of biracial living than were respondents who had previously only one type of

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[1]Jeanne Watson, "Some Social and Psychological Situations Related to Change in Attitude," Human Relations, 1950, Vol. 3:15-56.

contact (either work or residential); those who reported one of these types of contact were, in turn, more likely to approve of biracial living than those who had previously neither job nor prior neighborhood experiences with blacks. The status aspects of these experiences is not specified; however, it may be inferred that for many of the white respondents contacts were with blacks of approximately equal economic status.

In a study of the relation between stereotypes and other dimensions of attitude, Saenger and Flowerman,[1] considered the relation between contact and various dimensions of prejudice. They found that, while persons who had considerable contact with Jews showed greater willingness to associate with them than those who had "no contact, this was not true of persons with "moderate" amounts of contact.

The evidence from the preceding studies and others that are similar in nature suggests a relationship between contact, particularly of an equal-status character, and favorable attitudes. However, these findings are difficult to interpret, since these studies include little or no evidence as to the direction of the causal sequence. It may be that the contacts led to attitude change. On the other hand, the

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[1]G. Saenger, and S. H. Flowerman, "Stereotypes and Prejudiced Attitudes," Human Relations, in press.

possibility must be considered that the contacts were undertaken (or at least not avoided) because the individuals who experienced them were originally favorably disposed to the minority in question. The difficulty can only be overcome when further analysis is possible which may reveal the direction of the causal sequence.

It has been possible to conduct a number of ex post facto studies of the effects of contact in "real life" situations where the nature of the contact is known, and where initial attitudes can at least be estimated from other known characteristics of the subjects or from the logic of the situation. A world War II study, The American Soldier,[1] questioned white combat infantrymen in units of varying organizational distance physical distance from black platoons about their reaction to the idea of having black and white soldiers serve in the same units. It was found that the white soldiers most favorable to black-white units were those in companies which already had a volunteer black platoon. Next most favorable were white soldiers in all-white companies in regiments which had one or more black-white companies. Least favorable were white soldiers in all-white regiments. There is less

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[1]S. A. Stouffer, et al., The American Soldier, (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1950).

information about the initial attitudes of the white soldiers. However, as Kendall and Lazarfeld[2] point out in a re-examination of the findings of this study, the black platoons had been assigned to companies on the basis of military need, without consulting the white soldiers about their willingness to serve with blacks. Thus, it seems unlikely that white soldiers in units physically closer to black platoons were different in initial attitudes from those in units farther away.

Two studies in public housing projects having both black and white residents report findings similar to those in The American Soldier. Merton, West, and Jahoda studied a low-rental, building-segregated housing project in which the over all black-white ratio was about 50-50. The project was divided into three terraces, in which the proportions of blacks were 63 percent, 44 percent, and no percent respectively. In the first two terraces, the blacks were interspersed among the whites. The investigators found that both the number of white respondents reporting friendships with blacks and the number expressing approval of biracial living were greatest in the

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[1]Patricia Kendall and P. F. Lazarfeld, "Problems of Survey Analysis," in R. K. Merton and P. F. Lazarfeld, eds. Continuities in Social Research. (New York: Free Press, 1950).

terrace having the highest proportion of blacks, next greatest in acceptance was the terrace where 44 percent of the tenants were blacks, and smallest rate of acceptance of blacks occurred in the all-white terrace. Although there was no conclusive evidence as to the initial attitudes of the white tenants in the three terraces, there seemed no reason to suppose that they differed significantly, since the assignments to dwelling units in the various terraces were not based on tenants' choices. In the terrace with the highest proportion of blacks there were the greatest proportion of white tenants living in close proximity to a black-occupied building. The conclusion seems justified, therefore, that greater proximity and more frequent contact led to the development both of more friendships between white and black tenants and of more favorable attitudes on the part of the white tenants toward biracial living.

In another study of public housing projects, Deutsch and Collins[1] investigated in great detail the relation between occupancy pattern (including black-white proximity), the incidence of contact between the races, and attitudes. Four low-rental public housing projects were studied, in each of which

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[1]M. Deutsch and Mary E. Collins. Interracial Housing: A Psychological Evaluation of a social Experiment. (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1951).

blacks constituted not less than 40 percent of the total project population. Two of the projects were of integrated occupancy pattern in which a majority of white tenants lived next door to black families in the same apartment buildings. Two were area-segregated, the black and white sections being separated from each other in one case by a busy street, in the other by a large play area for children. The authors found marked differences between the two types of projects in a number of respects. The white residents in the integrated projects reported more frequently that white tenants "would be likely to get to know" black people there and that they themselves engaged in neighborly contacts with black tenants, such as exchanging services and friendly visiting. Moreover, the white residents in the integrated projects were more likely than those in the area-segregated projects to hold blacks in the project in high esteem, were less likely to hold unfavorable stereotypes of blacks, and were less likely to want to avoid contact with the blacks in the project. They were more likely to accept the biracial character of the project and to recommend an integrated occupancy pattern for future projects. A far greater proportion in the integrated projects reported that they had undergone favorable attitude change as a consequence of living in the project. Finally, there was

evidence of some generalization of the experience; the white residents in the integrated projects to be favorable in their appraisal of blacks in general as well as of the specific blacks living in the project.

Deutsch and Collins also attempted to estimate the degree of similarity of initial attitudes of the white tenants in the different types of projects by comparing them on factors known to be correlated with initial attitude, such as religion, educational level, political liberalism or conservatism, and prior knowledge of the biracial character of the project. They concluded that while the tenants in the integrated projects might initially have been somewhat more favorably disposed toward blacks than those in the area-segregated projects, the difference in predisposition was not sufficient to account for the marked differences existing in behavior and attitudes at the time of the study. It appeared that the difference in occupancy patterns was the primary factor leading to differences both in amount of contact and in favorableness of attitude.

Studies of residential proximity in non public housing settings have had somewhat different findings. Kramer,[1] conducted a study of white residents of five small contiguous

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[1]B. M. Kramer, "Residential Contact as a Determinant of Attitudes toward Negroes." (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1951).

residential areas in Chicago. In one area ("Zone 1"), black and white dwelling units were found in the same block. The blacks had moved into this block relatively recently. The remaining four areas contained no black residents, and varied in distance from the black-white zone. Zone 2 (a strip three blocks wide) lay directly south of Zone 1; Zone 3 (also three blocks wide) was directly south of Zone 2, etc. Kramer interpreted these differences in proximity as representing differences in amount of contact between blacks and whites, without obtaining direct evidence concerning the nature of black-white face-to-face contacts which occurred. Kramer concluded that the relationships between proximity and attitude differed, depending on the attitude dimension considered. Thus, on a scale of prejudice constructed for the study he found the least prejudice in Zone 1 and 5--the zones where white residents lived nearest to and farthest from blacks--and the most prejudice in the zones of intermediate proximity. A possible interpretation seems to be that those in the zone farthest from blacks represented an "average" degree of prejudice--that is, the attitude of the typical Chicago resident not faced with the prospect of having black neighbors. According to this interpretation residents of the three intermediate zones may be thought of as having undergone an increase in

prejudice as a consequence of feeling threatened by the impending closeness of blacks. The actual experience of living in the same block as neighbors evidently reduced the anticipatory fears, and brought the attitudes of the white residents of Zone 1 back to--but not below--the "average" degree of prejudice shown in Zone 5.

In a similarly designed study of neighborhoods in Chicago which were in varying degrees of proximity to an area blacks had recently moved into, Winder[1] found differentiating factors of another sort. He too reported, for the sample as a whole, less prejudice on the part of those closest to and farthest from blacks. Breaking down his sample in terms of socioeconomic groupings, however, he found that it was only in the middle-income group that residents in the area closest to blacks showed less prejudice than those in the intermediate zones. The low-income whites in the area closest to blacks were even more hostile than those in the intermediate zones. Winder concluded, on the basis of interview responses, that the hostility of the low-income white residents was based on competition for dwelling units in the midst of a severe housing

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[1]A. E. Winder, "White Attitudes toward Negro-white Interaction in an Area of Changing Racial Composition," American Psychology, 1952, 7:330-31 (abstract).

shortage. These white residents felt--evidently on the basis of objective evidence--that owners of multiple dwellings were eager to force them out because higher rents could be demanded from blacks.

The purpose of a study conducted by Stephenson[1] was concerned with the change in attitudes of college students toward blacks after a three-semester-hour course in minority group relations. A test and several reference books were used in the course. The course time was divided as follows: one-fifth for minority group relations in general, one-fifth for blacks, and three-fifths divided among Jews, Asiatics, Mexicans, Indians, and European immigrants. No special attempt was made during the course to influence any of the students' attitudes.

During the 1948-1949 school year at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, all freshmen in the education curriculum were administered both forms of an attitude scale. During the second semester of their junior year, each student in elementary education was required to take the course in minority group relations. Toward the end of the senior year in 1951-52,

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[1]Chester M. Stephenson, "The Effect of a Course in Minority Group Relations on the Attitudes of College Students," Progressive Education, XXXII, (January, 1955), p. 19.

all education majors were administered both forms of the attitude scale again. Stephenson concluded that college courses designed to change attitudes toward blacks did not lead to very much positive change. Differences between the means of the groups were compared. Apparently, the course in minority group relations affected the students' attitudes toward blacks very little. The senior students graduated with practically the attitudes whether they took the course or not. The author concluded that a course does not necessarily change attitudes favorably, it may only assist.

In analyzing the results of the selected studies of intergroup contact and attitude change--studies designed to reduce prejudice, and attitudes as related to the experience of living in biracial housing, the conclusions from them are contradictory and many times inconclusive.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

Design of the Experiment

This study was designed to determine the effectiveness of a series of human relations education programs in modifying interracial attitudes of black and white college students, who resided in single student residence halls having a special interest in human relations, as compared to college students residing in single student residence halls without the human relations special interest, at the University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma. Two experimental groups and two control groups were constituted and pretested before the experiment. After the experimental treatment had been applied, both experimental and control groups were again tested using the same instrument as was used for the pretest. Near the end of the semester, an interview schedule was randomly administered to the 50 college students representing the experimental groups.

The study was conducted in four single student residence halls where the subjects lived during the fall semester of the 1973-74 school year. Two hundred students lived in the

residence halls selected for study, of these, one hundred were selected to participate in the study. The experiment consisted of lectures and films, presented to the subjects in their residential environments. The presenters of the education programs were both black and white and were individuals who were highly trained and informed in the field of human relations.

The Modification of the Pretest-Posttest Instrument

During the month of September 1973, a modified version of Herbert M. Greenberg's Integration Attitude Scale[1] was administered to 100 subjects as the pretest. Three of the four sample groups constituted 25 men and women each, both black and white, with the exception of one group, which contained white males only. The mean and standard deviation were calculated for each sample group for comparison purposes.

It was Greenberg's intention to offer a tool which could be used to scientifically determine where integration was occuring smoothly or where problems might be anticipated. Further, where problems are anticipated the instrument is designed to ascertain with a fair degree of accuracy in what areas, that is, integration per se, athletics, dances, and dormitories. The ability to clearly anticipate such problems

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[1]See Appendix A of this study.

can have obviously beneficial effects on the specific applications or strategy of integration in the given situation.

Permission was obtained to use the developer's instrument for the present study. A number of the 29 items had to be rewritten to make them appropriate for testing the integration attitudes of black and white students of both sexes. An intensive search for additional appropriate commercial scales and surveys indicated that few, if any, were suitable to test the attitudes toward integration.

On the basis of available research and after careful analysis of the current racial relationships on the college campuses, the writer selected 27 of 29 items, which were subsequently submitted to a panel of judges, all of whom were highly trained and informed in the field of human relations. Taking the suggestions of the panel of judges, the instrument was reconstructed using the same statements, with slight modification of some items, in most instances, a few statements required only a change in wording, which did not destroy adequacy of content.

A pilot run was employed using 27 college students not involved in the experimental situation. The subjects were asked to judge the degree of agreement or disagreement of each statement on the six point continuum. The subjects were also asked to make suggestions for the improvement of the instrument

for use in ascertaining the interracial attitudes of college students.

The results of the trial run of the instrument indicated several areas needing improvement. First, many of the scored instruments had words circled which the subjects perceived as ambiguous. Second, a majority of the 27 subjects' scores were distributed on each end of the six point continuum. As an example, 10 of 27 subjects disagreed strongly with the statement in category one. In category two, four subjects indicated disagreement with the item. With respect to category three, one subject indicated mild disagreement, in category four two subjects indicated mild agreement with the item, and in category six, not a single subject indicated strong agreement with the item.

After analyzing the information gained from the trial run, it was determined that further assurance of reliability of the instrument was desirable. The data acquired from the judgments, obtained by the method of equal appearing intervals were calculated for scale and Q values.[1]

Edwards[2] postulates that if there is good agreement among

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[1]See Appendix B of this study.

[2]Allen Edwards, Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. 1957), p. 89.

the subjects in judging the degree of favorableness or unfavorableness of a statement, the Q will be small compared with the value obtained when there is relatively little agreement among the subjects. A large Q value, indicating disagreement among the judges as to the degree of the attribute possessed by a statement, is therefore taken as an indication that there is something wrong with the statement. Thurstone and Chave regard large Q values primarily as an indication that a statement is ambiguous. Large Q values may result from the fact that the statement is interpreted in more than one way by the subjects when making their judgments or from any of the other conditions producing large discriminal dispersions.

After calculating the scale and Q values, it was evident that several statements depicted high Q values, namely, statements number 24 and 26. Further, statements number seven and 22 were questionably high. However, the majority of the statements were within the range of acceptability.

Administering the Pretest

A team of four residence hall staff members administered the attitude scale shown in Appendix A to those students living in the residence halls selected for study on September 27th and 28th, 1973. The scale was administered first to the two experimental groups and second to the control groups the

following day. The scale was administered to the subjects in their respective residence hall setting. The subjects of both the experimental and control groups were asked to complete the survey as part of a study being conducted by the writer for dissertation purposes. They were not told at the time that they were to participate in an experimental treatment that was to follow. The subjects were instructed to read the instructions carefully and to complete every item without raising questions. Both groups required approximately 25 to 30 minutes to complete the instrument. Those subjects not available to take the scale at the scheduled times were re-scheduled to take the scale shortly after the initial appointment, using the same instructions that were previously given to the two groups. In a short time span, all 100 subjects had completed the pretest instrument.

The subjects were not required to identify themselves by name on the completed scale, identification of the individuals within each sample was made possible by assigning each subject a number from the residence hall roster. Further, anonymity was assured the respondents in order to diminish fear of reprisal or social pressure which may have easily influenced their responses.

Human Relations Education Programs

The planned efforts to modify interracial attitudes were begun on October 9, 1973, with a series of human relations education programs, in an effort to modify interracial attitudes. The series was presented at two week intervals and continued over a period of eight weeks, ending on November 16, 1973.

The initial series of human relations education programs began with a showing of a film, entitled Prejudice, presented to the experimental groups. By design of the experiment the control groups were excluded from participation in the series of human relations education programs. The film was moderated by a University of Oklahoma professor of human relations, who possessed an in depth background in human relations training. In conjunction with the moderator, there was a panel composed of individuals who assisted the moderator in posing and answering questions regarding the content of the film. The sessions duration was approximately 2 hours in length, and was attended by approximately 42 participating subjects.

The content of the film explored the myths that perpetuate prejudice against black people in our society and the subtle ways that hate is learned was explored in the film. The film acquaints the viewer with the subtle and sometimes unconscious manifestations of prejudice as well as the obvious

manifestations of it. It also encourages the viewer to look more closely at his own attitudes. People often ask today, "What can I do to help?"

The following questions were explored in an effort to assist the viewers to gain an understanding of what prejudice is and encourage them to look more closely at their attitudes and to speak out against injustice of discrimination in their areas: (1) Define prejudice and discrimination. How are they different? Is prejudice always negative? Is it possible to be prejudiced without discriminating? Is it possible for someone who is not prejudiced to discriminate against a group because of the mores of the area in which he lives? (2) How important is early training in developing prejudice? (3) Why do you think it is difficult for a prejudiced person to recognize that he is prejudiced? (4) Prejudice is not a problem unique to our country nor is it found only between the black man and white man. What other kinds of prejudice can you identify? (5) Do you believe it is possible for humans to be without prejudice? (6) What is a ghetto? (7) What are some of the social handicaps of children growing up in a ghetto? (8) What are some of the economic problems of the people living in a ghetto? (9) What is meant by "Black Power?" (10) Discuss the following: There are many ways to manifest prejudice--by criticizing, avoiding contact, discriminating, and by threatening physical

harm, and actually doing physical harm. While most people would do no more than demonstrate their hostility through words, by so doing, they make it easier for others to express their hostility through physical violence, i.e., lynchings, pogroms, genocide, etc., and (11) What is being done in the ghetto areas of your community to educate and raise the economic level of the people? What groups and organizations are contributing their time and resources to help make equal education, equal jobs, and equal housing a reality? Where and how can you help?

In another activity, a film, 28 and ½ minutes in length was presented to the experimental group, approximately two weeks from the date of showing the film entitled Prejudice. The film was also narrated by an expert in human relations. The film, entitled Prejudice depicted the historical origins and contemporary forms of prejudice in our society. Emphasis was on the individual's role in contributing to or helping to eradicate the attitudes which result in discrimination and other injustices.

Patterns of racial, ethnic, religious prejudice (as well as that against other minorities or groups of people) was explored logically....without prejudice. The film's content projected a series of vignettes demonstrating some of the daily events, typical comments, and attitudes which perpetuate

prejudice and discrimination. The subjects were able to recognize the relationship between the seemingly "harmless" joke and the ultimate manifestation of prejudice--violence or even genocide.

The behavioral objectives of the film were the following: (1) Subjects were to identify and discuss the five major kinds of prejudice as manifested in people's behavior: antilocution, avoidance, active discrimination, violence and killing (lynching, genocide, murder). (2) The subjects were to identify and discuss the major causes of prejudice: incomplete information or ignorance, fear of the unknown and environmental influences, (3) The subjects were motivated to discuss their own attitudes and feeling about the people of different backgrounds, religion, sex, or ethnic group, and (4) The subjects were to identify and discuss both the causes and the specific effects of their own prejudices.

The conclusion of the film resulted in the subjects being presented questions for discussion. The questions were as follows: (1) What is the literal meaning of prejudice? (2) How do we acquire prejudice? How much of it do you think is "natural" and how much is learned? (3) What are the five major ways of manifesting prejudice? Is there a "cause and effect" relationship between verbal criticism and actual physical violence? (4) Why did people originally come to

America? Why, then is it so odd that prejudice exists in our country? What do you think accounts for the prejudice against Indians and Blacks? (5) What other groups of people besides racial and ethnic minorities are the victims of prejudice? Why? (6) What are some of the most obvious injustices that result from prejudice? When laws are passed to protect people from discrimination, why doesn't prejudice then disappear? (7) How does our society benefit from the diversity of race, religion, and nationality of its members? and (8) Why do you think the prejudice against women differs from that against minorities or ethnic groups? What is happening today which indicates changing attitudes toward women?

The showing of the film evoked enthusiastic response from the subjects, creating an interactional climate among the subjects. This session lasted for about 2 hours and 10 minutes. The showing was well attended, well over 80 percent of the subjects of the study viewed the film.

The third activity was"A Personal Encounter with Prejudice." This activity, presented to subjects of this study at a luncheon-lecture. The lecturer was a University of Oklahoma professor, widely acclaimed for his writing and teaching in the field of human relations. The lecture focused on his collegiate undergraduate years. The substance of the lecture depicted his personal experience of sharing a room in the residence halls

with a white who had no prior contact with blacks and as a consequence, did not care to share in the existing arrangements. It was discovered from the outset that both parties were indifferent to the situation and opposed to living with one another. The lecture was summarized by the lecturer stating how prejudice behavior is acquired.

The fourth and last of the series of human relations programs entailed a lecture to the experimental groups, entitled "Human Rights In Teacher Education." The substance of the lecture focused on how a teacher committed to human-civil rights behave and behaviors by which a school or college administrator demonstrates his commitment to human and civil rights. The activity was presented by a University of Oklahoma professor, who has spent years in time and energy in promoting human rights and teacher education programs.

The highlights of the second lecture presented the behaviors and beliefs of teachers committed to human-civil rights. The lecturer cited the following: (1) The teacher committed to civil rights believes in the worth and dignity of every individual and that it is his obligation to help each to develop his potential. (2) He or she de-emphasizes competition and comparison in learning and subordinates marks to learning, as the objective to be obtained. (3) He or she does not debase, ridicule or use sarcasm to humiliate or destroy

the self-respect of any student. (4) He or she is committed to the right to equal educational opportunity, he welcomes all who wish to attend his or her class regardless of differences in race, religion, ethnic origins, or social class.

The second portion of the lecture focused on the college administrator and how he or she can demonstrate his commitment to human and civil rights within the confines of the academic and university communities. The following commitments were articulated: (1) Because he or she believes that all who are affected have the right to participate in making policies which affect them, he or she arranges for the organization of representative participation of faculty and students in the policy-making processes of the institution. (2) He or she maintains an "open door" so that students and faculty have access to him for discussion of school and campus problems. (3) He or she entertains committees and receives petitions concerning exercise or denial of rights and request for policy, administrative or organizational changes. He or she exercises his or her leadership and powers to facilitate needed changes within the context of faculty and student involvement of established processes. (4) He or she believes that students have the right to the truth, he encourages responsible committees to invite speakers on both sides of controversial issues.

The lecture closed, which was followed by a period of questions and answers directed to the lecturer. The activity lasted for approximately one hour and fifteen minutes.

Administering the Posttest

After completion of the series of human relations programs to the experimental groups, both the control and the experimental groups were administered the Integration Attitude Scale, shown in Appendix A, as a posttest after the experiment. All subjects selected for the experiment were not present. A follow-up was undertaken for the purpose of administering the test to those absent.

Statistical Procedure

A pretest-posttest control group experimental design was employed in the study. The subjects were selected from the resident student body of the University of Oklahoma for the fall semester 1973-74 academic year, who resided in single student housing. One hundred students were used in the study. Fifty students comprised the experimental groups and 50 students comprised the control groups. The experimental groups constituted those students living in the human relations residence halls and the

control groups constituted those students living in residence halls without special human relations interest. The subjects of the study were selected on the basis of race and sex from the residence halls of special human relations, and residence halls without special human relations interest.

During the month of September, 1973, An Integration Attitude Scale (Form I) was administered to the subjects selected for study as the pretest. Subsequent to the administration of the pretest, the experimental groups were subjected to two lectures and two films, over a period of eight weeks. At the end of the treatment both groups were posttested by the Integration Attitude Scale, shown in Appendix A of this study.

During the intervening period 50 subjects were selected from the experimental groups and were individually subjected to an Interview Schedule.[1] The interview schedule attempted to probe the subjects perceptions of himself, others, and his past and immediate environment. The data obtained from the interview schedule was tabulated and codified. The statistic used to describe the population of study was the "percent." Carver[2] postulates that the percent is probably the most mean-

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[1]See Appendix C of this study.

[2]Ronald P. Carver, Special Problems in Measuring Change with Psychometric Devices, (Pittsburg: American Institutes of Research, 1970).

ingful, useful, and simple statistic for analyzing and interpreting changes in evaluation research.

Carver also states that using existing instruments or specially designed ones to measure change, always tie the in-instrument to a meaningful reference group or situation so that the resulting changes or differences can be meaningfully interpreted.

The attitude scale contains 27 statements, 12 of which was viewed by the writer as positive, and 15 as negative. In scoring the attitude scale, the respondents were given one point for a strongly disagree response and up to a six for a strongly agree response. The expected score was a minimum of 63 and a maximum of 117. A score of 63 may suggest that the respondent may be less favorable in his attitude toward integration, and a score of 117 may suggest that the subject is inclined very favorably in attitude toward integration.

In accordance with the hypothesis of the study, it was necessary to measure the net shift in attitudes between the control and experimental groups. The net shift in attitudes for each subgroup was determined.

The procedure used to accomplish this was as follows: (1) the gain (or loss) score for the control subjects were determined by subtracting the pretest score from the posttest

score, (2) the gain (or loss) score for the experimental subject was determined by subtracting the pretest score from the posttest score, and last, (3) the gain (or loss) score of the control subject were subtracted from the gain (or loss) score of the experimental subject providing a net change or difference score for each sample group. Using the net difference scores for each group, the mean, standard deviation, mean difference, total difference between the pre and posttest, standard error of the mean difference, and the critical ratio was calculated. The "t" test was used to test the significance of the difference between the subjects by race and sex in each of the four subgroups. The significance of the difference in each case, was tested at the .05 and .01 levels of confidence.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This study was concerned with determining the effectiveness of a series of a human relations education programs in changing interracial attitudes of black and white college students as measured by the difference between the gains indicated by the raw scores of the pretests and posttests of the experimental and control groups. The significance of the difference between the gains in students interracial attitudes was tested for the following subjects: (1) the black male students of the experimental group, (2) the white male students of the experimental group, (3) the black female students of the experimental group, (4) the white female students of the experimental group, (5) the black and white male students of the experimental group, (6) the black and white female students of the experimental group, (7) the white male students of the control group,

(8) the white female students of the control group, (9) the experimental and control groups and (10) the black and white students of the experimental group.

The fundamental statistical problem in each of the analysis, was that of evaluating the change or lack of change and the appropriate interpretation of that change as shown by the analysis of the data of the experimental group compared with that shown by the control group. The statistical analysis consisted of testing for the significance of difference between changes shown by the groups and subgroups. The statistical treatment used to determine the significance between the gains was the "t" test.

Comparison of Attitudes of the Experimental and Control Groups

Appendix E of this study presents the attitude pretest and posttest raw scores, gains between them, and differences between the gains for the experimental and control groups. Table I includes the calculated results from Appendix E that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference between the gains of the experimental and control groups using the "t" test.

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP

	Experimental Group	Control Group
Sample Size (N)	50	50
Mean of Pre-test (M)	93.62	93.44
Standard Deviation of Pre-Test (SD)	6.32	5.56
Mean of Post-Test (M)	94.38	94.02
Standard Deviation of Post-Test (SD)	4.85	5.57
Differences Between Means of Post-Test (MD)	0.36	
Standard Error of Mean D of Post-Test (SED)	1.05	
Critical Ratio (t)	0.34	

From Table D of Garrett,[1] the critical ratio at 98 degrees of freedom was found to be 1.98 at the .05 level of confidence and 2.63 at the .01 level. The critical ratio is 0.34, it indicates there is no significant difference in

[1]Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1971.

interracial attitude change between the Experimental and Control Groups.

Comparison of Attitudes of Black and White Students of Experimental Group

Table II presents data calculated from Appendix F that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference between the gains of black and white students. The "t" test was used to test the significance of the difference.

TABLE II

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF BLACK AND WHITE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Black Students	White Students
Sample Size (N)	25	25
Mean (M)	94.32	94.44
Standard Deviation (SD)	4.76	5.13
Difference Between Means ($Mean_D$)	0.12	
Standard Error of Mean D (SE_D)	1.40	
Critical Ratio (t)	0.09	

From the Table D of Garrett the critical ratio at 48 degrees of freedom was found to be 2.01 at the .05 level of

confidence and 2.68 at the .01 level. The critical ratio is 0.09, it indicates there is no significant difference in interracial attitude change between black and white students after participating in human relations education program.

Comparison of Attitudes of Black and White Male Students of Experimental Group

Appendix G of this study presents the attitude pretest and posttest raw scores, gains between them, and differences between the gains for the black and white male students of the Experimental Group. Table III includes the calculated results from Appendix G that were required in testing the significance of the difference between the gains of the Experimental Group of black and white males.

TABLE III

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF BLACK AND WHITE MALE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Black Males	White Males
Sample Size (N)	12	13
Mean (M)	94.50	95.23
Standard Deviation (SD)	4.47	4.84
Difference Between Means ($Mean_D$)	0.73	
Standard Error of $Mean_D$ (SE_D)	1.91	
Critical Ratio (t)	0.38	

The critical ratio, from Garrett, at 23 degrees of freedom was found to be 2.07 at the .05 level of confidence and 2.81 at the .01 level. Since the critical ratio (t) is 0.38, it indicates there is no significant difference between black and white male students attitude after participating in the human relations education program.

Results of Pre-Test and Post-Test Attitudes of Black Male Students of Experimental Group

Table IV presents data calculated from Appendix H that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference in attitude shifts of black male students of the Experimental Group. The "t" test was used to test the significance of the difference.

TABLE IV

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF BLACK MALE STUDENTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Sample Size (N)	12	12
Mean (M)	94.50	94.50
Standard Deviation (SD)	6.44	4.47
Total Difference Between Pre-Post-Test (D)	0	
Difference Between Means ($Mean_D$)	0	
Standard Error of Mean D (SE_D)	2.66	
Critical Ratio (t)	0	

The critical ratio, from Garrett, at 11 degrees of freedom was found to be 2.20 at the .05 level of confidence and 3.11 at the .01 level. Since the critical ratio is 0, it indicates that there is no significant difference in black male students interracial attitude change after their participation in the human relations education program.

Results of Pre-Test and Post-Test Attitudes of White Male Students of Experimental Group

The results presented in Table V were calculated from data that were presented in Appendix I. Table V presents data that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference between the gains of white students of the Experimental Group. The "t" test was used to test the significance of the difference.

TABLE V

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF WHITE MALE STUDENTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Sample Size (N)	13	13
Mean (M)	92.23	95.23
Standard Deviation (SD)	7.25	4.84
Total Difference Between Pre-Post-Test (D)	39	
Difference Between Means (Mean D)	3	
Standard Error of Mean$_D$ (SE_D)	2.53	
Critical Ratio (t)	1.19	

From Table D of Garrett,[1] the critical ratio at 12 degrees of freedom was found to be 2.18 at the .05 level of confidence and 3.06 at the .01 level. Since the t ratio is 1.19, it indicated there is no significant difference in white male students interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program.

Comparison of Attitudes of Black and White Female Students of Experimental Group

Appendix J of this study presents the attitude pretest and posttest raw scores, gains between them, and differences between the gains for the black and white female students of the Experimental Group. Table VI includes the calculated results from Appendix J that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference between the gains of the black and white females of the Experimental Group.

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[1] Ibid.

TABLE VI

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF BLACK AND WHITE FEMALE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Black Females	White Females
Sample Size (N)	13	12
Mean (M)	94.15	93.58
Standard Deviation (SD)	5.20	5.49
Difference Between Means ($Mean_D$)	0.57	
Standard Error of $Mean_D$ (SE_D)	2.14	
Critical Ratio (t)	0.27	

The critical ratio, from Garrett,[1] at 23 degrees of freedom was found to be 2.07 at the .05 level of confidence and 2.81 at the .01 level. The t ratio is 0.27, it indicates there is no significant difference between black and white students attitude after participating in the human relations education program.

Results of Pre-Test and Post-Test Attitudes of Black Female Students of Experimental Group

Table VII presents data calculated from Appendix K that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference

[1] Ibid.

in attitude shifts of black female students of the Experimental Group. The "t" test was used to test the significance of the difference.

TABLE VII

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF BLACK FEMALE STUDENTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Sample Size (N)	13	13
Mean (M)	94.62	94.15
Standard Deviation (SD)	6.04	5.20
Total Difference Between Pre-Post-Test (D)	6	
Difference Between Means ($Mean_D$)	0.46	
Standard Error of $Mean_D$ (SE_D)	0.72	
Critical Ratio (t)	0.64	

From Table D of Garrett,[1] the critical ratio at 12 degrees of freedom was found to be 2.18 at the .05 level of confidence and 3.06 at the .01 level. The t ratio is 0.64, it indicates there is no significant difference in black female students interracial attitude change after their participation in the human relations education program.

[1] Ibid.

Results of Pre-Test and Post-Test Attitudes of White Female Students of Experimental Group

The results presented in Table VIII were calculated from data presented in Appendix L. Table VIII presents data that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference between the gains of white female students of the Experimental Group. The "t" test was used to test the significance of the difference.

TABLE VIII

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF WHITE FEMALE STUDENTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Sample Size (N)	12	12
Mean (M)	93.17	93.58
Standard Deviation (SD)	6.18	5.49
Total Difference Between Pre-Post-Test (D)	5	
Difference Between Means ($Mean_D$)	0.42	
Standard Error of $Mean_D$ (SE_D)	0.82	
Critical Ratio (t)	0.51	

The critical ratio, from Garrett,[1] at 11 degrees of freedom was found to be 2.00 at the .05 level of confidence and

[1] Ibid.

3.11 at the .01 level. Since the critical ratio is 0.51, it indicates there is no significant difference in white female students interracial attitude change after their participation in the human relations education program.

Results of Pre-Test and Post-Test Attitudes of White Male Students of the Control Group

Appendix M of this study presents the attitude pretest and posttest raw scores, gains between them and differences between the gains for the white male students of the Control Group. Table IX includes the calculated results from Appendix M that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference between the gains of the white male students. The "t" test was used to determine the significance of the difference between the gains.

TABLE IX

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF WHITE MALE STUDENTS OF THE CONTROL GROUP

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Sample Size (N)	25	25
Mean (M)	94.16	95.48
Standard Deviation (SD)	6.37	6.26
Total Difference Between Pre-Post-Test (D)	33	
Difference Between Means ($Mean_D$)	1.32	
Standard Error of $Mean_D$	1.90	
Critical Ratio (t)	0.69	

From Table D ratio at 24 degrees of freedom was f 05 level of confidence and 2.80 at the .0 atio is 0.69, it indicates that there is no difference in interracial attitude change of white male students who did not participate in the human relations program.

Results of Pre-Test and Post-Test Attitudes of White Female Students of the Control Group

Table X presents data calculated from Appendix N that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference

[1] Ibid.

TABLE IX

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF WHITE MALE STUDENTS OF THE CONTROL GROUP

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Sample Size (N)	25	25
Mean (M)	94.16	95.48
Standard Deviation (SD)	6.37	6.26
Total Difference Between Pre-Post-Test (D)	33	
Difference Between Means ($Mean_D$)	1.32	
Standard Error of $Mean_D$ (SE_D)	1.90	
Critical Ratio (t)	0.69	

From Table D of Garrett,[1] the critical ratio at 24 degrees of freedom was found to be 2.06 at the .05 level of confidence and 2.80 at the .01 level. The t ratio is 0.69, it indicates that there is no difference in interracial attitude change of white male students who did not participate in the human relations program.

Results of Pre-Test and Post-Test Attitudes of White Female Students of the Control Group

Table X presents data calculated from Appendix N that were necessary in testing the significance of the difference

[1] Ibid.

in attitude shifts of white female students of the Control Group. The "t" test was used to test for the significance of the difference.

TABLE X

RESULTS OF THE TEST OF SIGNIFICANCE APPLIED TO THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN RAW SCORE GAINS OF WHITE FEMALE STUDENTS OF THE CONTROL GROUP

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Sample Size (N)	12	12
Mean (M)	92.67	91.08
Standard Deviation (SD)	4.22	4.70
Total Difference Between Pre-Post-Test (D)	19	
Difference Between Means ($Mean_D$)	1.59	
Standard Error of $Mean_D$ (SE_D)	1.78	
Critical Ratio (t)	0.89	

From Table D of Garrett,[1] the critical ratio at 11 degrees of freedom was found to be 2.20 at the .05 level of confidence and 3.11 at the .01 level. The t ratio is 0.89, it indicates that there is no significant difference in interracial attitude change of white female students who did not participate in the human relations education program.

[1] Ibid.

SUMMARY

This study was basically concerned with determining the effectiveness of a series of human relations education programs in changing interracial attitudes of black and white college students as measured by the difference between the two gains indicated by the raw scores of the pre-tests and post-tests of the Experimental and Control Groups.

The 10 hypotheses were tested at the .05 and .01 levels of confidence. The "t" test of the significance of the mean difference was used to test the hypotheses.

Hypothesis I stated: There is no statistically significant difference in black male students interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program. An examination of Table D in Garrett[1] indicated the obtained score of 0 at 11 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.20 for significance at .05 level of confidence. (See Table IV). Hypothesis was accepted. Thus, the researcher concluded that the human relations education programs was not effective in changing interracial attitudes of black male students after their participation in the human relations education program.

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[1] Ibid.

Hypothesis II stated: There is no statistically significant difference in white male students interracial attitude change after their participation in human relations education program. An examination of Table D in Garrett[1] indicated the obtained score of 1.19 at 12 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.18 for significance at .05 level of confidence. (See Table V). The hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, the writer concluded that the human relations education programs was not effective in changing interracial attitudes of white male students after their participation in the human relations education program.

Hypothesis III stated: There is no statistically significant difference in black female students interracial attitude change after their participation in human relations education program. An Examination of Table D in Garrett[1] indicated the obtained score of 0.64 at 12 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.18 for significance at .05 level of confidence. (See Table VII). The hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, the writer concluded that the human relations education programs was not effective in changing interracial attitudes of black female students after their participation in the human relations education program.

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[1] Ibid.

Hypothesis IV stated: There is no statistically significant difference in white female interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program. An examination of Table D in Garrett[1] indicated the obtained score of 0.51 at 11 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.20 for significance at .05 level of confidence. (See Table VIII). The hypothesis was accepted. Thus, the author concluded that the human relations education programs was not effective in changing interracial attitudes of white female students after their participation in the human relations education program.

Hypothesis V stated: There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between black and white males after participating in the human relations education program. An examination of Table D in Garrett[1] indicated the obtained score of 0.38 at 23 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.07 for significance at .05 level of confidence. (See Table III). The hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, the writer concluded that the human relations education programs was not effective in changing interracial attitudes of black and white male students after their participation in the human relations education program.

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[1] Ibid.

Hypothesis VI stated: There is no statistically significant difference interracial attitude change between black and white females after participating in the human relations education program. An examination of Table in Garrett[1] indicated the obtained score of 0.27 at 23 degrees of freedom of freedom is less than the required 2.07 for significance at .05 level of confidence. (See Table VI). The hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, the researcher concluded that the human relations education program was not effective in changing interracial attitudes of black and white female students after their participation in human relations education program.

Hypothesis VII stated: There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change of white male students who did not participate in the human relations education program. An examination of Table D in Garrett[1] indicated the obtained score of 0.69 at 24 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.06 for significance at .05 level of confidence. (See Table IX). The hypothesis was accepted. Thus, the writer concluded that there was no difference in interracial attitude change of white male students who did not participate in the human relations education program.

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[1] Ibid.

Hypothesis VIII stated: There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change of white female students who did not participate in the human relations education program. An examination of Table D in Garrett[1] indicated the obtained score of 0.89 at 11 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.20 for significance at the .05 level of confidence. (See Table X). The hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, the writer concluded that there was no difference in interracial attitude change of white female students who did not participate in the human relations program.

Hypothesis IX stated: There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between the experimental and control groups. An examination of Table D in Garrett indicated the obtained score of 0.34 at 98 degrees of freedom is less than the required 1.98 for significance at the .05 level of confidence. (See Table I). The hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, the writer concluded that there was no difference in interracial attitude change between the experimental and control groups.

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[1] Ibid.

Hypothesis X stated: There is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between the black and white students of experimental group. An examination of Table D in Garrett[1] indicated the obtained score of 0.09 at 48 degrees of freedom is less than the required 2.01 for significance at the .05 level of confidence. (See Table II). The hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, the writer concluded that there was no difference in interracial attitude change between the black and white students of the experimental group.

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[1] Ibid.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The problem of this study was to determine the effectiveness of a series of human relations education programs in modifying interracial attitudes of black and white college students who resided in special interest human relations residence halls as compared to college students who resided in residence halls without the human relations interest.

More specifically, the study was to determine if the human relations education program caused any statistically significant difference in black and white students' interracial attitudes as measured by the attitude survey for the following groups and subgroups: (1) the experimental and control groups, (2) racial and sexual subgroupings of the experimental and control groups. The design of the study required the testing of the following general null hypothesis: There is no significant difference in the

changes in students interracial attitudes whether or not the students participated in the human relations education program or lived in the special interest residence halls.

In addition to the general null hypothesis, 10 sub-hypotheses were tested: (1) there is no statistically significant difference in black male students interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program, (2) there is no statistically significant difference in white male students interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program, (3) there is no statistically significant difference in black female students interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program, (4) there is no statistically significant difference in white female interracial attitude change after their participation in a human relations education program, (5) there is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between black and white males after participating in the human relations education program, (6) there is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between black and white females after participating in the human relations education program, (7) there is no statistically significant difference

in interracial attitude change of white female students who did not participate in the human relations education program, (9) there is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between the experimental and control groups, and (10) there is no statistically significant difference in interracial attitude change between black and white students of the experimental group. All of the hypotheses were tested at the .01 and .05 levels of confidence.

Major Findings

The "t" test of the significance of the mean difference was used to test all hypotheses of the study at the .05 and the .01 levels of confidence. The results obtained from testing the hypotheses were as follows: (1) the difference between the interracial attitude change in black male students after participating in the human relations education program was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence, (2) the difference between the interracial attitude change in white male students after participating in the human relations education program was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence, (3) the difference between the interracial attitude change in black female students after

participating in the human relations education program was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence, (4) the difference between the interracial attitude change in white female students after participating in the human relations education program was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence, (5) the difference between the interracial attitude change between black and white male students after participating in the human relations education program was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence, (6) the difference between the interracial attitude change between black and white female students after participating in the human relations education program was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence, (7) the difference between the interracial attitude change in white male students who did not participate in the human relations education program was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence, (8) the difference between the interracial attitude change in white female students who did not participate in the human relations education program was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence, (9) the difference between the interracial attitude change between the experimental and control

groups was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence, and (10) the difference between the interracial attitude change between the black and white students of the experimental group was not significant at either the .05 or the .01 levels of confidence.

The data obtained from the judgments were obtained by the method of equal appearing intervals and was calculated for scale and Q values (See Appendix B of this study) to determine the reliability of the Integration Attitude Scale which was used as the pretest-posttest instrument. After calculating the scale and Q values, it was evident that two statements depicted high Q values, which is according to some authors indicated primarily that a statement is ambiguous. However, it was concluded that the majority of the statements were within the range of acceptability.

The investigator was not aware of any known extraneous developments that may have occurred preceding and during the study that may have affected the interracial attitude change of the experimental group or the control group similarly. The degree to which the "halo effect" influenced the results of the study is not known.

Discussion and Conclusions

Various methods for measuring change of attitudes are a recent development. The more an attempt is made to apply methods the more complexities come to light. It is easier to detect negative attitudes than to change them.

A comparison of group means of the experimental and control groups, and including racial and sexual subgroupings, indicate that the series of human relations education programs did not cause any statistically significant difference in black and white students' interracial attitudes. These findings support what some researchers have concluded, in that, attitudes are difficult to change, and that the lecture method alone has pratically no influence on change of attitude. In this study, however, the lecture method was not the only treatment subjected the experimental groups. The other treatment included the showing of motion pictures. Although the lecture method was not used as an independent variable per se, is not to suggest that the lecture method was the probable cause for lack of significant change in interracial attitudes.

It is now quite common for whites and blacks to assert that blacks want to withdraw as completely as possible from contact with whites and should be allowed

or encouraged to do so while remaining in the predominatly white institution. The crying out for black dorms, black studies, and the like have provided ample evidence for some that most black students are separatists. Institutional climates designed around false assumptions may lead to a situation in which most black students become separatists. At present, however, there is evidence that separatism is a minority viewpoint among black students.

Attitudes and behavior around the campus are the other major aspects of the separatism which has been attributed to black students. Consequently, in a setting where almost half the black students experience racial discrimination, race will be a factor in the choice of friends and activities.

As a result of the separatists philosophy prevailing on the University of Oklahoma campus, a manifestation of discrimination as perceived by black students, perhaps does not lend itself to coming together of white and black students, when black students perceive whites as desiring to maintain the in status quo philosophy.

The students electing to live in the special interest human relations residence halls, perhaps have a predisposed interracial attitude, as evidenced by their responses to

the Interview Schedule administered to 50 students of these halls. The students both black and white, male and female were interviewed to determine the subjects perceptions of himself, others, and his or her immediate environment.

The subjects were asked to report their political attitudes, of the males reporting, 48 percent saw themselves as liberal in their political attitude, whereas 64 percent of the females reported the same attitude. Of those reporting their residence status, 80 percent of the males and 80 percent of the females were residents of the state of Oklahoma. The students were asked to express their attitude toward the human relations residence hall, 80 percent of males reported a favorable attitude toward the residence hall, whereas 68 percent of the females reported a favorable impression toward the residence hall. The subjects were asked what they liked best about the experience of living in a special interest residence hall, 60 percent of the males reported that the friendliness of the occupants was liked best, whereas 44 percent of the females responded to the same question. When asked about their dislikes about living in the human relations residence halls, 44 percent of the males reported that the physical arrangements was the major dislike, whereas 16 percent of the females reported

in the same manner. Only 4 percent of the males and females indicated the mixing of the races as a dislike. The subjects were asked what their future plans for continuing in the human relations residence hall, of the men reporting, 76 percent indicated they would continue to live there, whereas 56 percent of the females would continue there. The subjects reporting their attitude change toward interracial living, 52 percent of the men reported that their attitude had improved toward interracial living as opposed to 24 percent for the females. When asked what value was placed on living with different races, 52 percent of the males indicated the value of getting to know other races, whereas 60 percent of the females gave the same response. The percentage of black students reporting various relations with white students, 50 percent of the males and 50 percent of the females reported friendly type of relationships with white students. The percentage of white students responding to various relations with black students, 45 percent of the males and only 10 percent of the females reported friendly relationships with black students. 55 percent of the males indicated a mixed type of relationship, with 76 percent of the females reporting the same. The percentage of white students reporting various degrees of esteem

of white students, 22 percent of the males and 0 percent of the females reported a favorable degree of esteem for white students, whereas 64 percent of the males and 75 percent of the females reported a neutral degree of esteem for white students. The percentage of white students reporting attitude change toward black students since living in the human relations residence halls, 82 percent of the males and 33 percent of the females reported a favorable change, whereas 18 percent of the males and 48 percent of the females gave a neutral response. The percentage of black students since living in the human relations residence halls, 50 percent of the males and 0 percent of the females reported a favorable type of attitude change, whereas 50 percent of the males and 75 percent of the females reported a neutral change.

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 interracial attitudes can be altered, (2) That a six weeks time allotment to study the effect of a human relations education program on the attitudes may be inadequate to effect significant attitudinal change without additional attention

throughout the life of the study in the human relations residence halls, and (3) That human relations education programs to reduce prejudice can be designed especially for the targeted group; and past studies of attitude change have clearly shown that the most effective programs are those which are tailored for the specific group.

Recommendations

1. The continued existence of the human relations residence halls and increased support--planning, programming, and resources from the administrative units charged with the responsibility for the overall operation of these projects is highly recommended.

2. Incentives, such as classroom instruction and the opportunity to earn academic credit should be offered to those students volunteering to live in special interest human relations residence halls.

3. Future experiments of this nature should be undertaken to determine what methods, instruments, and approaches may be qualitatively suitable to utilize in attempts to measure and to modify the interracial attitudes of college students living in special interest housing, such as a human relations residence hall.

4. Future research could well be concerned with applying techniques similar to those used in this study to measure the long-range effects of human relations education on interracial attitude change of college students electing to live in future residential arrangements, such as a human relations residence hall.

5. Closer cooperation and increased involvement of the Center for Student Development and the Department of Human Relations in promoting the activities for the human relations residence halls is strongly recommended.

6. Cooperative efforts between the departments of Residential Programs and the Department of Human Relations need to be articulated. For example, an agreement between the two departments should be initiated to facilitate internship course requirement for human relations majors, to do so, would provide meaningful and practical experiences for the practioners in the human relations field.

7. Future programming for the Special Interest Human Relations Residence Halls should involve greater participation of its' residents. The involvement of the residents in programming is imperative to future success of such a living arrangement.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTEGRATION ATTITUDE SCALE

FORM I

AGE____ SEX____ CLASSIFICATION_____

The following are statements that have been made at one time or another by some people. We would like your opinion regarding these statements. There are no right or wrong answers. We simply want your honest opinion. Give us this opinion by placing a 6 if you strongly agree with the statement, 5 if you agree, or 4 if you mildly agree. If you strongly disagree with a statement, insert a 1, while if you just disagree with it, put a 2, or if you only mildly disagree, indicate this by a 3.

6 -- Strongly Agree
5 -- Agree
4 -- Mildly Agree
1 -- Strongly Disagree
2 -- Disagree
3 -- Mildly Disagree

___ 1. Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, banning discrimination in educational institutions was a timely and just policy.

___ 2. I think the scholastic level of an educational institution is adversely affected when members of other races are admitted.

___ 3. I would be willing to accept, as an equal, a member of another race into a club to which I belong.

___ 4. I believe that members of other races should have separate advisors and housing arrangements at the University.

___ 5. I believe that any student who has the ability should be eligible for the band and/or choir regardless of his/her race.

___ 6. Racial groups should sit at separate tables in the cafeteria.

___ 7. I would not approve of a student of another race representing the University at state wide functions (conventions, debates).

___ 8. It would make no difference to me if my instructors were of my own race or a different one.

___ 9. Different races mixing at University functions (dances, parties, etc.) would not be wise--it would only result in fights and ill feelings between races.

___ 10. Every student should have equal rights in regard to holding a student office position as cheerleader, etc., regardless of his/her race or sex.

___ 11. Having members of other races on the University's athletic teams would result in more "dirty playing" and unsportsman like conduct.

___ 12. I believe that every student, regardless of race, should be eligible for school athletic teams, if he/she has the ability to make the team.

___ 13. When full integration is accomplished, separate shower facilities and locker rooms should be provided for the different races in physical education classes.

___ 14. Members of any race should be allowed to live anywhere they choose in student housing, the community, etc.

___ 15. I do not think my parents would want to work on university parent committees, such as the alumni development, mom's day, etc., with parents of another race.

___ 16. I believe a member of the other races could become a very close friend of mine (possibly even my best friend).

___ 17. I believe that dating between races will be a serious problem, once integration is fully accomplished.

___ 18. If I liked a person of the other race well enough, I would accept him/her into my personal group of good friends.

___ 19. Regardless of what anyone else says, I believe that my race is superior and should be accepted as such.

___ 20. I would not mind "double dating" with a couple who were of other races.

___ 21. I would not accept a member of other races as a roommate in the dormitory.

___ 22. The Supreme Courts' decision to integrate other races in predominately white schools was just and timely.

___ 23. Separate facilities should be provided for each racial group attending the University.

___ 24. I would not mind dancing with a member of another race at a University or club function.

___ 25. I would not vote for any candidate for student office unless he/she was of my race.

___ 26. There is no basic reason for feeling prejudiced against another race.

___ 27. I would hesitate to bring students of another race home with me because I do not think my parents would approve.

APPENDIX B

SUMMARY TABLE FOR JUDGMENTS OBTAINED BY THE METHOD OF EQUAL-APPEARING INTERVALS

Statements		Sorting Categories						Scale Value	Q Value
		1	2	3	4	5	6		
1	f	2	0	1	2	11	14	5.4	1.2
	p	.07	0	.03	.07	.37	.47		
	cp	.07	.07	.10	.17	.54	1.01		
2	f	12	8	3	3	3	1	1.9	2.2
	p	.4	.27	.1	.1	.1	.03		
	cp	.4	.67	.77	.87	.97	1.00		
3	f	1	2	1	1	11	14	5.4	1.3
	p	.03	.07	.03	.03	.37	.47		
	cp	.03	.10	.13	.16	.53	1.00		
4	f	12	12	4	0	0	2	1.8	1.2
	p	.4	.4	.13	0	0	.07		
	cp	.4	.8	.93	.93	.93	1.00		
5	f	2	0	0	0	1	27	5.9	0.5
	p	.07	0	0	0	.03	.90		
	cp	.07	.07	.07	.07	.10	1.00		
6	f	20	5	1	0	1	3	1.3	1.1
	p	.67	.17	.03	0	.03	.1		
	cp	.67	.84	.87	.87	.90	1.00		
7	f	18	4	1	2	2	3	1.3	2.5
	p	.6	.13	.03	.07	.07	.1		
	cp	.6	.73	.76	.83	.90	1.00		
8	f	2	4	0	2	9	13	5.3	1.7
	p	.07	.13	0	.07	.3	.43		
	cp	.07	.20	.20	.27	.57	1.00		
9	f	11	7	8	0	3	1	2.1	2.4
	p	.37	.23	.27	0	.1	.03		
	cp	.37	.60	.87	.87	.97	1.00		
10	f	1	1	0	0	5	23	5.9	.7
	p	.03	.03	0	0	.17	.77		
	cp	.03	.06	.06	.06	.23	1.00		

APPENDIX B-- Continued

Statements		Sorting Categories						Scale Value	Q Value
		1	2	3	4	5	6		
11	f	20	7	2	0	0	1	1.2	.9
	p	.67	.23	.07	0	0	.03		
	cp	.67	.90	.97	.97	.97	1.00		
12	f	2	0	0	0	3	25	5.9	.7
	p	.07	0	0	0	.1	.83		
	cp	.07	.07	.07	.07	.17	1.00		
13	f	22	5	1	0	0	2	1.2	.8
	p	.73	.17	.03	0	0	.07		
	cp	.73	.90	.93	.93	.93	1.00		
14	f	2	0	1	0	6	21	5.8	.3
	p	.07	0	.03	0	.2	.7		
	cp	.07	.07	.10	.10	.30	1.00		
15	f	9	9	3	3	4	2	2.2	2.4
	p	.3	.3	.1	.1	.13	.07		
	cp	.13	.6	.7	.8	.93	1.00		
16	f	3	1	2	3	10	11	5.1	1.8
	p	.1	.03	.07	.1	.33	.37		
	cp	.1	.13	.20	.30	.63	1.00		
17	f	7	9	7	3	3	1	2.4	2.0
	p	.23	.3	.23	.1	.1	.03		
	cp	.23	.53	.76	.86	.96	1.00		
18	f	1	0	1	3	12	13	5.4	1.0
	p	.03	0	.03	.1	.4	.43		
	cp	.03	.03	.06	.16	.56	1.00		
19	f	16	5	2	3	2	2	1.4	2.3
	p	.53	.17	.07	.1	.07	.07		
	cp	.53	.70	.77	.87	.94	1.00		

APPENDIX B -- Continued

Statements		Sorting Categories						Scale Value	Q Value
		1	2	3	4	5	6		
20	f	2	1	2	3	12	10	5.1	1.4
	p	.07	.03	.07	.1	.4	.33		
	cp	.07	.10	.17	.27	.67	1.00		
21	f	13	9	3	1	1	3	1.7	1.6
	p	.43	.3	.1	.03	.03	.1		
	cp	.43	.73	.83	.86	.89	1.00		
22	f	2	3	4	4	11	6	4.7	2.6
	p	.07	.1	.13	.13	.37	.2		
	cp	.07	.17	.30	.43	.80	1.00		
23	f	20	6	1	1	1	1	1.2	1.0
	p	.67	.2	.03	.03	.03	.03		
	cp	.67	.87	.90	.93	.96	99		
24	f	3	2	2	5	7	11	4.9	3.0
	p	.11	.07	.07	.17	.23	.37		
	cp	.1	.17	.24	.41	.64	1.00		
25	f	19	7	2	0	0	2	1.3	.8
	p	.63	.23	.07	0	0	.07		
	cp	.63	.86	.93	.93	.93	1.00		
26	f	4	6	5	1	3	11	3.5	3.7
	p	.13	.2	.17	.03	.1	.37		
	cp	.13	.33	.50	.53	.63	1.00		
27	f	12	6	5	4	1	2	2.0	2.2
	p	.4	.2	.17	.13	.03	.07		
	cp	.4	.6	.77	.90	.93	1.00		

APPENDIX C

THE INTERVIEW

Male _____
Female _____
Race _____
ID# _____

Interview # _____ Residential Unit _____

1. What is your Religious Affiliation?_____
2. How do you characterize your self politically? _____
3. What is your residence status? _____
4. How long have you lived in a Human Relations Residence Halls? _____
5. What are your feelings toward living in a Human Relations Residence Halls? _____
6. What do you like most about living in a Human Relations Residence Halls? _____
7. What do you dislike most about living in a Human Relations Residence Halls? _____
8. Where did you live before you moved into the Human Relations Residence Halls? _____
9. Why did you move from there? _____
10. What is your best estimate of the income category for your parents for 1972? (Consider annual income from all sources before taxes) _____
11. What was your parents' highest educational attainment? (Include both parents) _____
12. Describe the community which you think of as your home town during high school days? (Farm, Town or Urban,what size?) _____

APPENDIX C -- Continued

13. What are your future plans: Would you like to continue here, or, if you could, would you like to move out to live someplace else? _____

14. Since you've been living here have you come to like the idea of living in a dorm where there are black and white students? _____

15. When you made application to move into this dorm did you know that there would be black and white students here?

16. What things do you like about living in a dorm where there are students of different races? _____

17. What about the white students who live here? What are they like? (Black interviewees only) _____

18. What about the black students who live here? What are they like? (White interviewees only) _____

19. Can you remember what you thought black people were like before you moved in the dorm? (White interviewees only)

20. Can you remember what you thought white people were like before you moved in the dorm? (Black interviewees only)

21. How much have your ideas changed about black people since you have lived in the dorm? (White interviewees only)

22. How much have your ideas changed about white people since you have lived in the dorm? (Black Interviewees only)

23. On the basis of living in a dorm where there are black and white occupants, what plan for dorm assignments do you think the University should follow in new experiments or projects? _____

24. Commonly held stereotypes by whites toward blacks is that they are: (White interviewees only)

Respond to all three statements.	AGREE	DISAGREE
Black people can't be trusted	_____	_____
Black people are lazy and ignorant	_____	_____
There's something different and strange about black people	_____	_____

APPENDIX D

Table I. Percentages of the Experimental Group Reporting Religious Affilitations

Religious Affiliation	Males (25)*	Females (25)
Protestant	28%	48%
Catholic	12%	48%
Jewish	0%	0%
Other	60%	4%

Table II. Percentages of the Experimental Group Reporting Their Political Attitudes

Political Attitudes	Males (25)	Females (25)
Liberal	48%	64%
Middle of Road	44%	36%
Conservative	8%	0%

Table III. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Residence Status

Residence Status	Males (25)	Females (25)
Resident of Oklahoma	80%	80%
Resident of Another State	20%	20%

Table IV. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Length of Stay in Human Relations Residence Halls

Length of Stay	Males (25)	Females (25)
One Semester	88%	100%
Two Semesters	4%	0%
One Year		0%

*The figures in parentheses indicate the number of cases on which the percentage figures are based.

APPENDIX D Continued

Table V. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Feelings Toward Human Relations Residence Halls

Attitude Toward Human Relations Res. Halls	Males (25)	Females (25)
Favorable	80%	68%
Neutral	20%	16%
Unfavorable	0%	16%

Table VI. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting What They Liked Best About The Experience

Liked Best	Males (25)	Females (25)
Friendliness of Occupants	60%	44%
Learning Experiences	40%	24%
Other	0%	32%

Table VII. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Dislikes About Living In Human Relations Residence Hall

Dislikes	Males (25)	Females (25)
Physical Arrangements	44%	16%
Mixing of the Races	4%	4%
Other	52%	80%

Table VIII. Percentages of Experimental Reporting Previous Residence

Previous Residence	Males (25)	Females (25)
Home with Parents	56%	80%
Another Center	20%	20%
Other	24%	0%

Table IX. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Reasons For Moving From Previous Residence

Reasons For Move	Males (25)	Females (25)
Personal Reasons	24%	36%
Convenience	28%	64%
Other	48%	0%

APPENDIX D Continued

Table X. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Income Category of Parents For 1972

Income Category	Males (25)	Females (25)
Below $5,000 Per Year	12%	0%
$5,000 - $9,000 Per Year	20%	32%
$10,000 - or over Per Year	68%	58%

Table XI. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Highest Educational Attainment of Parents'

	Males		Females	
Educational Attainment	Father	Mother	Father	Mother
8th Grade or Less	4%	4%	8%	4%
Some High School	0%	16%	4%	8%
High School Graduate	16%	44%	4%	32%
Some College	40%	12%	24%	40%
College Graduate	12%	8%	44%	16%
Graduate or Professional degree beyond the Batchelor's	28%	16%	16%	0%

Table XII. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Size of Home Town

Size of Community	Males (25)	Females (25)
Farm or Ranch	0%	0%
Less than 2,500	4%	0%
2,500 to 10,000	0%	24%
10,000 to 50,000	36%	28%
50,000 or Over	60%	48%

Table XIII. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Future Plans For Continuing in Human Relations Residence Hall

Future Plans	Males (25)	Females (25)
Stay	76%	56%
Move Out	24%	44%

APPENDIX D Continued

Table XIV. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Attitude Change Toward Interracial Living

Attitude Toward Interracial Living	Males (25)	Females (25)
More	52%	24%
About the Same	48%	76%
Or Less	0%	0%

Table XV. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Knowledge of Racial Composition of Hall Prior To Move In

Prior Knowledge	Males (25)	Females (25)
Yes	76%	64%
No	20%	4%
Don't Know	4%	32%

Table XVI. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting The Value of Living In Dorm With Different Races

Value of Living	Males (25)	Females (25)
Get to Know Other Races	52%	60%
Cultural Exchange	44%	16%
Programs	0%	4%
Other	4%	20%

Table XVII. Percentages of Black Students Reporting Various Relations With White Students

Type of Relations	Males (14)	Females (4)
Friendly	50%	50%
Mixed	43%	0%
Accomodative	7%	50%

APPENDIX D Continued

Table XVIII. Percentages of White Students Reporting Various Relations With Black Students

Type of Relation	Males (25)	Females (25)
Friendly	45%	10%
Mixed	55%	76%
Accomodative	0%	14%

Table XIX. Percentages of White Students Reporting Various Degrees of Esteem of Black Students

Degree of Esteem	Males (11)	Females (21)
Favorable	55%	67%
Neutral	45%	33%
Unfavorable	0%	0%

Table XX. Percentages of Black Students Reporting Various Degrees of Esteem of White Students

Degree of Esteem	Males (14)	Females (4)
Favorable	22%	0%
Neutral	64%	75%
Unfavorable	14%	25%

Table XXI. Percentages of White Students Reporting Attitude Change Toward Black Students Since Living in Residence Hall

Type of Attitude Change	Males (11)	Females (21)
Favorable	82%	33%
Neutral	18%	48%
Unfavorable	0%	19%

APPENDIX D Continued

Table XXII. Percentages of Black Students Reporting Attitude Change of White Students Since Living In Residence Hall

Type of Attitude Change	Males (14)	Females (4)
Favorable	50%	0%
Neutral	50%	75%
Unfavorable	0%	25%

Table XXIII. Percentages of Experimental Group Reporting Suggestions for Black and White Students in Future Dorm Assignments in Relation to New Projects the University May Implement in the Way of New Experiments or Projects

Suggested Plan	Males (25)	Females (25)
Separate Dorm	4%	0%
Separate Floor	0%	0%
Any Place in Dorm	96%	100%

Table XXIV. Percentages of White Students Reporting Whether They Agree or Disagree With Commonly Held Stereotypes Toward Blacks

Stereotype	Males (11)		Females (21)	
	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
Black people can't be trusted	9%	91%	19%	81%
Black people are lazy and ignorant	9%	91%	19%	81%
There's something different and strange about black people	9%	91%	19%	0%

APPENDIX E

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

		Experimental			Control		
	Sub-jects	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain	Pre-Test	Post Test	Gain
Male	1	96	97	1	93	108	15
	2	87	96	9	91	95	4
	3	102	92	-10	96	96	0
	4	91	101	10	94	93	-1
	5	102	84	-18	94	110	16
	6	100	94	-6	102	90	-12
	7	96	97	1	95	104	9
	8	85	94	9	99	99	0
	9	100	90	-10	86	88	2
	10	97	99	2	108	97	-11
	11	84	94	10	92	90	-2
	12	94	96	2	90	94	4
	13	100	100	0	97	97	0
	14	86	92	6	99	95	-4
	15	92	87	-5	99	92	-7
	16	102	99	-3	77	104	27
	17	99	89	-10	92	96	4
	18	74	101	27	89	95	6
	19	90	102	12	86	91	5
	20	98	96	-2	94	95	1
	21	94	99	5	89	101	12
	22	93	95	2	97	87	-10
	23	89	93	4	104	96	-8
	24	92	90	-2	93	87	-6
	25	90	95	5	98	87	-11
Female	1	89	90	1	93	97	4
	2	100	99	-1	88	90	2
	3	92	92	0	86	100	14
	4	92	92	0	101	99	-2
	5	95	97	2	96	94	-2

APPENDIX E --Continued

		Experimental			Control		
	Subject	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain
Female (continued)	6	97	93	-4	86	101	15
	7	107	101	-6	100	93	-7
	8	92	91	-1	91	92	1
	9	95	97	-2	92	93	1
	10	85	87	2	92	93	1
	11	89	87	-2	97	88	-9
	12	103	104	1	86	88	2
	13	94	94	0	98	93	-5
	14	92	92	0	96	94	-2
	15	88	88	0	92	92	0
	16	91	91	0	96	83	-13
	17	98	96	-2	90	90	0
	18	108	103	-5	89	97	8
	19	94	98	4	92	96	4
	20	95	95	0	84	82	-2
	21	94	94	0	99	92	-7
	22	84	85	1	98	95	-3
	23	95	101	6	90	89	-1
	24	86	87	1	93	93	0
	25	93	93	0	93	90	-3

APPENDIX F

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR BLACK AND WHITE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

		Black Students			White Students		
	Subject	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain
Male	1	96	97	1	100	100	0
	2	87	96	9	86	92	6
	3	102	92	-10	92	87	-5
	4	91	101	10	102	99	-3
	5	102	84	-18	99	89	-10
	6	100	94	-6	74	101	27
	7	96	97	1	90	102	12
	8	85	94	9	98	96	-2
	9	100	90	-10	94	99	5
	10	97	99	2	93	95	2
	11	84	94	10	89	93	4
	12	94	96	2	92	90	-2
	13				90	95	5
Female	1	89	90	1	92	92	0
	2	100	99	-1	88	88	0
	3	92	92	0	91	91	0
	4	92	92	0	98	96	-2
	5	95	97	2	108	103	-5
	6	97	93	-4	94	98	4
	7	107	101	-6	95	95	0
	8	92	91	-1	94	94	0
	9	95	97	2	84	85	1
	10	85	87	2	95	101	6
	11	89	87	-2	86	87	1
	12	103	104	1	93	93	0
	13	94	94	0			

APPENDIX G

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR BLACK AND WHITE MALE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Black Students			White Students		
Subject	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain
1	96	97	1	100	100	0
2	87	96	9	86	92	6
3	102	92	-10	92	87	-5
4	91	101	10	102	99	-3
5	102	84	-18	99	89	-10
6	100	94	-6	74	101	27
7	96	97	1	90	102	12
8	85	94	9	98	96	-2
9	100	90	-10	94	99	5
10	97	99	2	93	95	2
11	84	94	10	89	93	4
12	94	96	2	92	90	-2
13				90	95	5

APPENDIX H

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR BLACK MALE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Subject	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
1	96	97	1
2	87	96	9
3	102	92	-10
4	91	101	10
5	102	84	-18
6	100	94	-6
7	96	97	1
8	85	94	9
9	100	90	-10
10	97	99	2
11	84	94	10
12	94	96	2

APPENDIX I

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR WHITE MALE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Subject	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
1	100	100	0
2	86	92	6
3	92	87	-5
4	102	99	-3
5	99	89	-10
6	74	101	27
7	90	102	12
8	98	96	-2
9	94	99	5
10	93	95	2
11	89	93	4
12	92	90	-2
13	90	95	5

APPENDIX J

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR BLACK AND WHITE FEMALE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Black Students			White Students		
Subject	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Gain
1	89	90	1	92	92	0
2	100	99	-1	88	88	0
3	92	92	0	91	91	0
4	92	92	0	98	96	-2
5	95	97	2	108	103	-5
6	97	93	-4	94	98	4
7	107	101	-6	95	95	0
8	92	91	-1	94	94	0
9	95	97	2	84	85	1
10	85	87	2	95	101	6
11	89	87	-2	86	87	1
12	103	104	1	93	93	0
13	94	94	0			

APPENDIX K

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR BLACK FEMALE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Subject	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
1	89	90	1
2	100	99	-1
3	92	92	0
4	92	92	0
5	95	97	2
6	97	93	-4
7	107	101	-6
8	92	91	-1
9	95	97	2
10	85	87	2
11	89	87	-2
12	103	104	1
13	94	94	0

APPENDIX L

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR WHITE FEMALE STUDENTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Subject	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
1	92	92	0
2	88	88	0
3	91	91	0
4	98	96	-2
5	108	103	-5
6	94	98	4
7	95	95	0
8	94	94	0
9	84	85	1
10	95	101	6
11	86	87	1
12	93	93	0

APPENDIX M

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR WHITE MALE STUDENTS OF CONTROL GROUP

Subject	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
1	93	108	15
2	91	95	4
3	96	96	0
4	94	93	-1
5	94	110	16
6	102	90	-12
7	95	104	9
8	99	99	0
9	86	88	2
10	108	97	-11
11	92	90	-2
12	90	94	4
13	97	97	0
14	99	95	-4
15	99	92	-7
16	77	104	27
17	92	96	4
18	89	95	6
19	86	91	5
20	94	95	1
21	89	101	12
22	97	87	-10
23	104	96	-8
24	93	87	-6
25	98	87	-11

APPENDIX N

ATTITUDE PRETEST AND POSTTEST RAW AND GAIN SCORES FOR WHITE FEMALE STUDENTS OF CONTROL GROUP

Subject	Pretest	Posttest	Gain
1	96	94	-2
2	92	92	0
3	96	83	-13
4	90	90	0
5	89	97	8
6	92	96	4
7	84	82	-2
8	99	92	-7
9	98	95	-3
10	90	89	-1
11	93	93	0
12	93	90	-3

APPENDIX O

MARKETING SURVEY AND RESEARCH CORP.
RESEARCH PARK • P.O. BOX 2050 • PRINCETON, N.J. 08540 • (609) 924-8800

September 26, 1973

Mr. Wilbur Walker
The University of Oklahoma
660 Parrington Oval, Room 110
Norman, Oklahoma 73069

Dear Mr. Walker:

Thank you for your letter of September 18, 1973, and your interest in my Intergration Attitude Scale.

I'm very pleased to grant my permission to use the Scale, and would much appreciate receiving copies of any results.

If you require further assistance, please let me know.

Sincerely,

Herbert M. Greenberg, P.hD.

Dr. Herbert M. Greenberg, P.hD.
President

HMG/ajw

APPENDIX P

The University of Oklahoma 660 Parrington Oval, Room 110 Norman, Oklahoma 73069

Office of the President

September 18, 1973

Dr. Herbert M. Greenberg
111 Ridgeview Circle
Princeton, New Jersey 08540

Dear Dr. Greenberg:

I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Oklahoma. I write you for permission to use your instrument, the Intergration Attitude Scale in my dissertation which pertains to attitude change. The instrument I make reference to appeared in the Journal of Social Psychology, 1961, volume 54.

I am cognizant of the fact that some of the items are dated, but feel that they could easily be updated without adversely affecting the content validity. In addition, should you grant permission, the instrument will be subjected to a panel of appropriate judges and its validity established.

I await a response at your earliest convenience.

Sincerely,

Wilbur Walker

WW:dst