

THE EFFECTS OF A TEACHING RESOURCE
UNIT ON THE ATTITUDES OF SEGREGATED
WHITE FIFTH-GRADE STUDENTS

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

Robert Andre Halle

1970



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THE EFFECTS OF A TEACHING RESOURCE UNIT
ON THE ATTITUDES OF SEGREGATED WHITE
FIFTH-GRADE STUDENTS

presented by

Robert Andre Halle

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Education


Major professor

Date August 10, 1970

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF A TEACHING RESOURCE UNIT ON THE ATTITUDES OF SEGREGATED WHITE FIFTH-GRADE STUDENTS

By

Robert Andre Halle

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of a teaching resource unit, about the history and contributions of the American Negro, on the attitudes of segregated white fifth-grade students toward Negroes.

Design and Procedures

Students from seven classrooms served as subjects for the study. The classrooms were located in an all-white residential community and school district. There were 135 students in the experimental group and fifty-three in the control group.

The experimental and control students were administered instruments to assess their attitudes toward Negroes. The instruments were administered to all of the classes before and after the four-week treatment period.

The measures used were: (1) a modified version of the Bogardus Social Distance Scale, using five items to measure proximity, and twelve national or ethnic groups,

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among which were Negroes, (2) a Semantic Differential with the stimulus concept "Black People," and (3) a semi-projective, completion-type test of social perception called the Make Believe Bus Test, consisting of 24 items under three categories, Association, Aggression, and Achievement. Material was read aloud to all subjects. The data obtained from each instrument were treated to an analysis of covariance.

Results

Results from the study did not support the hypothesis that white students exposed to a teacher resource unit about Negro history and contributions would acquire more positive attitudes toward Negroes than the control students.

Pre-test results on the Social Distance Scale found a significant difference favoring the experimental group. These results were also confirmed through a separate Chi-square on the pre- and post-test results of the Social Distance Scale. A pre-test ranking of acceptance for the twelve ethnic groups found the experimental and control groups ranking Negroes third in order of acceptance. Post-test results found Negroes ranked third again by the experimental group and sixth by the control group. Approximately 83 per cent of the experimental group were willing to give Social Distance

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to Negroes on the pre-test items and 89 per cent on the post-test items. Control group percentages were approximately 68 per cent and 74 per cent respectively.

The results from the Semantic Differential and the Make Believe Bus Test did not support the hypothesis that students in the experimental group would acquire more positive attitudes toward Negroes than students in the control group.

Conclusions

The findings of this study indicate that a broader approach is necessary for the changing of white children's attitudes toward Negroes. The findings of this study also suggest that white children's attitudes toward Negroes may be becoming more positive.

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ON THE ATTITUDES OF SEGREGATED WHITE
FIFTH-GRADE STUDENTS

By

Robert Andre Halle

A THESIS

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in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

College of Education

1970

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ABSTRACT

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this research was to examine the effects of a teaching resource unit on the attitudes of segregated white fifth-grade students toward Negroes.

To make the purpose and remaining parts of the study more meaningful, several concepts in the stated purpose need definition.

The "teaching resource unit" was recognized as a unit of instruction about the history and contribution of the American Negro. Negro heritage and contribution to American history was emphasized in the unit.

The effects examined were the attitudes of segregated white fifth-grade students toward Negroes. Pre- and post-tests were administered to examine the effects of the unit of instruction on the children's attitudes toward Negroes.

A theoretical and operational definition of the concept "attitude" that served the purpose of the study was offered by Shaw and Wright. In their attempt to include commonalities of various definitions and still keep their theoretical construct an operational one, they offered the following definition:

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A relatively enduring system of evaluative, affective reactions based upon and reflecting the evaluative concepts or beliefs which have been learned about the characteristics of a social object or class of social objects.¹

The essential difference between their interpretation of attitude and traditional views, concerns the conceptual, affective and action components. Shaw and Wright recognized these components as separate systems with the affective component constituting the attitude.

The affective reaction specified by the traditional analysis constitute the attitude; the traditional cognitive component provides the basis for an evaluation and thereby, for the attitude; and the attitude predisposes the individual to act in a certain manner toward the desired object.²

In accepting the above operational definition of attitude, it was acknowledged that attitudes have a degree of definitude. It was also recognized that attitude change can occur when individuals are motivated to accept concepts that incorporate new or different evaluations.

Need and Significance of Study

Daily news events have kept us constantly reminded that racial relations in our society are at a crucial point. It seems apparent that if the abrasive and frequently violent nature of these relations continues to exist, the very foundation of our democratic culture will cease to exist. Even

¹Marvin E. Shaw and Jack M. Wright, Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1967), p. 2.

²Ibid., p. 13.

though programs and endeavors in our society have attempted to improve human relations and provide opportunities for the disadvantaged, our national problems of prejudice and discrimination continues to exist.

The importance to our society of maintaining stable racial relations was recognized at a UNESCO sponsored conference.

Prejudice is not only a world-wide problem, but also a crucial factor in world stability. At a recent conference sponsored by UNESCO a five-nation research program was set up to study prejudice in young people. Those attending the conference noted that group prejudices held by youth are a serious deterrent to both internal and international harmony and understanding. They pointed out, however, that these feelings and attitudes are learned, not inborn, and that the climate of opinion which prevails in national institutions has a strong influence on the development of prejudices. In light of this, the conference suggested that statements be sent to teacher education centers emphasizing the value of helping teachers to learn ways to combat prejudice and to promote non-prejudiced attitudes.¹

Racial prejudice is not a new phenomenon to educators. They are aware that prejudice exists in children. Over forty years ago an extensive collection of anecdotal records showing children's awareness of group differences was published by Lasker.²

The efforts in this investigation concentrated on improving white racial attitudes toward Negroes, since studies have consistently shown prejudice to be greatest

¹Anne Phillips McCreary, "Intergroup Relations in the Elementary School," The Journal of Teacher Education, Vol. XIV (1963) pp. 74-79.

²Brunko Lasker, Race Attitudes in Children (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1929).

toward the Negro. A typical finding of such studies is indicated below.

Among "Gentile" ten to fifteen-year olds studied by Frenkel-Brunswik and Havel, prejudice towards Negroes was greater than toward other minorities: Mexicans, Chinese, Japanese, and Jew.¹

The United States Congress, in creating a Commission on Negro History and Culture, recognized the need to strive for better understanding toward Negroes.

The essential goal of the commission is to promote better understanding of Negro contributions to American history and culture with the hope of developing a stronger sense of pride and identity within the Negro community and eradicating, within the white community, stereotypes which impair good race relations.²

Other attempts to improve racial relations and attitudes have been made through legislation, judicial action, employment, housing, urban redevelopment, and actions by many organizations. The success of these attempts will not be determined for some time.

Many different approaches will likely be attempted before effective understanding is reached among the races. It is unlikely that any single approach will provide complete accord; therefore it is important that a variety of approaches be tried and tested. The approach in this study involved the use of a teacher resource unit in an attempt

¹E. Frenkel-Brunswik and J. Havel, "Prejudice in the Interview of Children: Attitudes Toward Minority Groups," Journal of Genetic Psychology, Vol. LXXXII (1953), p. 135.

²Claude M. Ury, "Commission on Negro History and Culture: Implications for Education," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. L (January, 1969), p. 289.

to bring about positive changes in white students' attitudes toward Negroes.

Role of the School in Social Change

A major effort to improve racial attitudes must be made by our schools. Although it is understood that schools alone cannot solve our current racial problems, their role as agents of social change is well recognized.

Public education in both theory and practice, is the single most potent social instrument for advancing the democratic ethos, for instruction in rights and responsibilities of citizenship, and for exploring and expanding the social, economic, and political requirements of the democratic state. Furthermore, on purely educational grounds alone, the public schools have been a major instrument of social change.¹

John Mallen in discussing the concept of supervision, emphasized the importance of the school and the role it plays in society.

In dealing with objectives, scope, sequence, content, methodology, and evaluation, (all of concern to the supervisor) we come to a realization that the public school, itself, is a key social agent.²

Banks clearly emphasized the role and responsibility of the schools in facing the racial problems of our society.

Educators, after decades of apathy and indifference to racial problems, have begun to confront the an-

¹Don J. Hager, "Schools are Responsible," in Learning Together, ed. by Mayer Weinberg (Chicago: Integrated Education Associates, 1964), p. 136.

²John T. Mallen and Fran Creason, "A Necessary Frame of Reference," in Supervision: Emerging Profession, ed. by Robert R. Leeper (Washington, D.C. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, N.E.A., 1969), p. 251.

guished truism that the school must play a central role in mitigating racism in America. Historically our schools, like the society of which they are a part, have lacked a commitment to the assimilation and education of Negroes and to the education of other Americans about Negroes. Belatedly, educators have realized that unless the school plays a decisive role in ameliorating social injustice, our society is destined for decades of racial cleavage and strife.¹

Curriculum and Social Change

There is sufficient support for the position that the school curriculum should deal openly with racial matters. Alice Meil, nationally recognized figure in the area of curriculum, clearly stressed the urgency of this situation.

Of the specific issues of human difference, the issue of race, both at home and abroad, is the one where improved teaching is most urgently needed today. Any such improvement will require introducing new subject matter, since race prejudice is in part the fruit of ignorance. At the same time it is necessary to aim directly at children's attitudes, for subject matter may eventually become obsolete, but attitudes usually stick for life.²

During a conference at the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, a need was expressed to include more accurate materials and information about racial groups into the curriculum.

. . . many of the conferees stressed the view that instructional materials in the schools were grossly

¹James A. Banks, "The Need for Positive Racial Attitudes in Textbooks," in Racial Crisis in American Education, ed. by Robert L. Green (Chicago: Follett Educational Corporation, 1969), p. 167-68.

²Alice Miel with Edwin Kiester, Jr., The Short-changed Children of Suburbia (New York: Institute of Human Relations Press, Pamphlet Series No. 8, 1967), p. 60.

inadequate in coping realistically and even honestly with racial and cultural diversity in American life.¹

The need for bringing a study of Negro and racial problems into the curriculum was also pointed out by Ury.

Without doubt, the inclusion of Negro history in the curriculum would give the white American greater respect for the Negro.²

Any inclusion of the study of the Negro into the curriculum will, in many cases, depend largely on the individual initiative of teachers and administrators.

Scope and Limitations

This study was limited in its scope. Rather than investigating the effects of a totally integrated school curriculum, or program, on the attitudes of white students toward Negroes, this study focused on the effects of a specific teacher resource unit. The time period involved was limited to four weeks. The content of the teacher resource unit was centered on the history and contributions of the American Negro.

Although most of the resource materials were supplied for the teacher resource unit, some teachers used materials they had acquired on their own. The time spent on a daily basis in teaching the unit varied among

¹John Gibson, The Intergroup Relations Curriculum, Vol. 1: A Program for Elementary School Education, Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs (Tufts University, 1969), p. 2.

²Ury, "Commission on Negro History and Culture," p. 290.

the teachers. The amount of unit content covered by each teacher during the four weeks also varied. There was no attempt made to determine how much content material was learned by the students.

The selection of the subjects for the study was done on a voluntary basis. Five classrooms were involved, comprising a total experimental group of 135 subjects. Fifty-three volunteer subjects were in the control group. Because the experimental and control groups were not randomly assigned, analysis of covariance, a statistical technique to compensate for the differences between groups, was used.

A further limitation of this study related to the administration of pre- and post-tests. The tests were administered by the teachers involved in the study. Although the teachers in a group orientation session received instructions on administering the instruments, their administration of the instruments created a limitation of this study.

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of a teaching resource unit on the attitudes of segregated white fifth-grade students toward Negroes. The general hypothesis for this study was:

1. White students who receive classroom instruction about Negro history and culture will be more positive in their attitudes toward Negroes than those students not receiving classroom instruction about Negro history and culture.

The hypothesis is restated in testable form in Chapter III.

Overview

A frame of reference for the study is developed in Chapter I. Included are the introduction, statement of the problem, definition of important terms, nature and significance of the problem, scope and limitations, and the general research hypothesis.

In Chapter II, a review of the related research literature is presented. This includes a review of research examining white children's attitudes toward Negroes and programs that have attempted to change racial attitudes.

The design of the study and the procedures followed in the research are reported in Chapter III. Information in this chapter includes sources of data, the research instruments, and the treatment of the data.

The examination and analysis of the data are reviewed in Chapter IV. Included in the chapter is an analysis of the data obtained from each research instrument as it applied to the testable hypothesis.

In Chapter V, a summary of the study, conclusions, and implications for further research are presented.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

Introduction

In this chapter studies of white children's attitudes toward Negroes and programs which attempt to change racial attitudes are reviewed. Studies relative to this investigation and related to white children's attitudes toward Negroes are reviewed below.

White Children's Attitudes Toward Negroes

A basic assumption of the studies reviewed concerning white children's attitudes toward Negroes was that these attitudes are learned. Also, these attitudes are learned in a society that tends to create and sustain racial prejudice. Our society produces differential effects on white and Negro children, and these differences tend to develop at an early age. Children at this age learn the predominant racial feeling in America of "white over black, with the line between."¹ In a study of New England chil-

¹Mary Ellen Goodman, Race Awareness in Young Children (New York: Collier Books, 1964), p. 251.

dren, Goodman¹ found white children to be in-group oriented. They were basically oriented toward the white group and were without any racial self-doubt such as was found in Negro children. The Negro children were out-group oriented as was evident by their "sense of direction" away from Negroes and toward whites. Similar findings were reported by Morland² in his study of preschool children in Virginia, and also by Stevenson and Stewart.³ They found that while white children tended to identify with themselves, Negro children tended to identify with whites.

In a study involving mixed Negro-white classes Criswell⁴ found marked cleavage between Negroes and whites. She found white children beginning to withdraw from Negro children by fourth grade and forming racial groups by fifth grade.

¹Goodman, Race Awareness, p. 256.

²J. K. Morland, "Racial Recognition by Nursery School Children in Lynchburg, Virginia," Social Forces, Vol. XXXVII (1958), pp. 134-37.

³H. W. Stevenson and E. C. Stewart, "A Developmental Study of Racial Awareness in Young Children," Child Development, Vol. XXIX (1958), p. 408.

⁴Joan H. Criswell, "A Sociometric Study of Race Cleavage in the Classroom," Archives of Psychology, (1939), No. 235.

Radke, Sutherland, and Rosenberg¹ studied white and Negro children from grades two to six with the use of projective pictures and sociometric data. Their results indicated that white children assigned almost no undersirable characteristics toward their own race while Negro children assigned undesirable characteristics to Negro pictures. White children at all ages expressed definite preferences for their own racial group. Radke and Trager² tested 152 white and 90 Negro children in six Philadelphia schools. They used interviews and doll techniques with children in kindergarten to second grade. Their findings showed that 89 per cent of the white children preferred a white doll, while 57 per cent of the Negro children preferred a Negro doll. The white children tended to ascribe inferior social roles to Negroes.

Similar findings were reported from a study conducted in Minneapolis involving third, fourth, and fifth-grade children.³ It was found that white children expressed prejudiced feelings toward Negroes. The Negro children, how-

¹Marion J. Radke, Jean Sutherland, and Pearl Rosenberg, "Racial Attitudes of Children," Sociometry, (1950), Vol. XIII, pp. 154-71.

²Marion J. Radke and Helen G. Trager, "Children's Perceptions of Social Roles of Negroes and Whites," Journal of Psychology, Vol. XXIX (1950), pp. 3-33.

³C. Bird, E. D. Monachesi, and H. Burdick, "Infiltration and the Attitude of White and Negro Parents and Children," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. XLVII (1952), pp. 695-96.

ever, held more favorable attitudes toward white children than they did toward Negro children.

Kerckhoff and Gould¹ found that fifth-grade white children in Detroit preferred racially homogeneous neighborhoods, a preference which was not paralleled among Negro classmates.

These studies indicate that white children tend to identify with members of their race, and that many white children have negative attitudes toward Negroes. The studies also showed that racial awareness appears in children at a relatively young age and may tend to increase rapidly during the school years. In some instances children have formed racial groups by the fifth grade.

Programs of Attitude Change

The changing of attitudes, specifically racial attitudes, has been attempted in many ways. The use of change-inducing procedures, such as education, propaganda, and inter-group contact have frequently been used. The approach in this study involved the use of education (teacher resource unit) in an attempt to change racial attitudes. Studies using education as an approach in changing racial attitudes are reviewed here.

¹K. K. Kerckhoff and F. Gould, "A Study of Children's Sense of Community," Merrill-Palmer Institute, (1961), (Mimeographed).

One of the earliest and most frequently reported attempts to change racial attitudes through education was conducted in 1927 by Young.¹ Using 450 undergraduates as a sample, he had them rank various ethnic groups both at the beginning and ending of a course on American Race Problems. His findings showed no change in average rank position as a result of the course.

Schlорff² conducted a pre- and post-test experiment with 425 high-school students using a rating scale similar to the one used by Young. Approximately half of the students had a civics course that included materials about Negroes. The civics course for the other students did not include materials about Negroes. The students attending the civics course including materials on Negroes ranked significantly more favorable in their attitudes toward Negroes, than did students in the other course.

Students enrolled in a course entitled "Immigration and Race Problems" at the University of Kansas became more positive in their attitudes toward the Negro when compared with a group which was exposed to an introduction to sociology course.³

¹Donald Young, "Some Effects of the Course on American Race Problems on the Race Prejudices of 450 Undergraduates at the University of Pennsylvania," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. XXII (1927), pp. 235-52.

²P. W. Schlорff, "An Experiment in the Measurement and Modification of Racial Attitudes in School Children," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1930).

³Mapheus Smith, "A Study of Change of Attitudes Toward the Negro," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. VIII (1939), pp. 64-70.

Levinson and Schermerhorn,¹ using a sample of school teachers, studied the effects of a six-week inter-group relations workshop. They found the participants to have a significant decrease in the average level of prejudice by the end of the workshop.

High-school students were used by Davis² in studying attitude change. Using a biology class, he had an experimental group study scientific aspects of race and a control group study another aspect of biology. The experimental group became more significantly favorable in their attitudes toward Negroes than the control group.

A comprehensive study using the school program to change racial attitudes was carried out by Trager and Radke-Yarrow.³ Two experimental conditions were created: one designed to support democratic intercultural values; the other, to maintain our cultures common prejudices. The effects of teacher philosophy, teaching methods, and materials in the development of attitudes toward racial groups were studied. Philadelphia school children from grades one and two were involved in the study.

¹D. J. Levinson and R. A. Schermerhorn, "Emotional-Attitudinal Effects of an Inter-group Relations Workshop on its Members," Journal of Psychology, Vol. XXXI (1954), pp. 243-56.

²Jerry Davis, "Attitude Changes on Fallout and Race Association with Special Instruction in Biology," Science Education, Vol. XLVII (1952), pp. 178-83.

³H. G. Trager and M. Radke-Yarrow, They Learn What They Live (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952), p. 392.

The children in the program designed to support democratic values showed a definite increase in their expression of accepting attitudes toward various groups. Children participating in the program designed to maintain non-democratic attitudes maintained their initial attitudes or became more prejudiced. The effects of the two different conditions resulted in meaningful differences between Negro children in the two groups. Most of the Negro children in the democratic condition gained in feelings of security, self-acceptance, and group acceptance. Negro children participating in the non-democratic condition showed an increase in rejection of other groups, and they also rejected and derogated Negroes which implied self-rejection.

In conclusion the authors stated that:

The changes achieved in the experiment demonstrate that democratic attitudes and prejudiced attitudes can be taught to young children. The experiment contributes to an understanding of some of the important conditions which are conducive to learning attitudes. Furthermore, it is apparent that children learn prejudices not only from the larger environment but from the content of the curriculum and its values. If democratic attitudes are to be learned they must be specifically taught and experienced.¹

In a study attempting to change racial attitudes of white college students, Katz, Sarnoff, and McClintock² used two approaches: one involving the presenting of factual

¹Trager and Radke-Yarrow, They Learn What They Live, p. 341.

²D. Katz, I. Sarnoff, and C. McClintock, "Ego-defense and Attitude Change," Human Relations, Vol. IX (1956), pp. 27-45.

information about Negroes; and the other using a self-insight or interpretive approach. The use of a case history was used with the latter approach to highlight and explain the self-defensive nature of ethnic prejudices. The authors found that unfavorable attitudes toward Negroes were modified with each approach but to a significantly greater extent with the self-insight procedure.

Williams¹ reported findings in a study involving twenty lessons on African geography. One of his groups received the usual geography lessons, while a second group studied current African problems and their treatment by agencies such as the United Nations. He found a greater change toward the Negro in the group studying current African problems.

One of the most recent attempts to change racial attitudes was conducted by Roth.² He examined the effects of an integral curriculum on Negro and white fifth-grade students. All thirteen classrooms participating in the study were from an integrated community. A major finding by Roth was that white students in integrated classes with an integral curriculum acquired more positive attitudes

¹H. M. Williams, "Changes in Pupils Attitudes Toward West African Negroes Following the Use of Two Different Teaching Methods," British Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. XXXI (1961), pp. 292-96.

²Rodney Roth, "The Effects of Integral Curriculum on Negro and White Students," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1968), p. 78.

toward Negroes than white students in segregated classes. He concluded that schools can be effective agents in changing attitudes of white children toward Negroes, but this is not feasible in many present-day school systems since Negro students do not attend predominately white schools.

Summary

The studies reviewed in this chapter have examined white students' attitudes toward Negroes and programs designed to change racial attitudes.

From the studies reviewed it was evident that many white children have negative attitudes toward Negroes. It was also clear that the formation of racial attitudes frequently occurs early in life, and that racial groups are sometimes formed before children finish the elementary grades.

The studies reviewed involving the school and the curriculum in changing racial attitudes show that schools can change racial attitudes. Although the studies used various materials and subject matter to change racial attitudes, they have all included the presentation of material about Negroes and/or Negro-white relations.

The literature suggests that attempts at changing racial attitudes should occur early in children's lives.

Racial attitudes are frequently fixed by the time children finish their elementary-school years, and attempts to change such attitudes after these formative years can be more difficult.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

This chapter contains a description of the sample, the procedures and instruments used in the investigation, the operational hypothesis, and the statistical procedures used to test the hypothesis.

Sample

The subjects used in the study were 188 white fifth-grade children located in an all-white suburban school district. The children were from seven classrooms located in six elementary schools. Five of the classrooms served as the experimental group and two of the classrooms served as the control group. The experimental and control classes were located in separate buildings. There were 135 subjects in the experimental group and 53 subjects in the control group.

The fifth grade was selected for the study. This grade was selected because the study of America was part of the curriculum at this grade level. The selection of fifth grade allowed the teacher resource unit to be more readily accepted into the school curriculum.

While the study of Negro history and contributions was not a part of the regular curriculum, it was recognized that some teachers, through their own initiative, offered their students some insight into Negro background and culture.

The classrooms were located in an all-white suburban school district and community of Oakland County, Michigan. Information about education, income, and employment in the community is given below. The information was based upon results of a 1964-66 survey conducted by the Detroit Regional Transportation and Land Use Study.

TABLE 3.1
EDUCATION, INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT

| Education | Income | Employment |
|--------------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|
| Percent High School Graduate or More | Percent Earning Less than 10,000 Per Year | Percent Employed as White-Collar |
| 76.4 | 87.8 | 60.5 |

Source: TALUS Data, Detroit Regional Transportation and Land Use Study, 1248 Washington Boulevard, Detroit, Michigan.

Selection of Subjects. Once the decision was made concerning grade level and school district, several building principals were contacted to determine if they had fifth-grade teachers who might be interested in teaching a unit about Negro history and culture. Four female teachers and

one male teacher expressed an interest in using the resource unit. A group orientation meeting was arranged with the volunteer teachers. During the orientation session with the teachers, the following was accomplished:

1. The purpose of the study was explained.
2. The over-all format of the teacher resource unit was discussed.
3. Teachers would spend a minimum of four weeks teaching the unit, devoting approximately 45-50 minutes a day to the unit.
4. A beginning date of April 21, 1970, and an ending date of May 18, 1970, was selected for teaching the unit.
5. Teachers would keep a record of the general content covered and the activities carried out during the course of the unit.
6. A weekly appointment schedule was arranged with the teachers so necessary materials and resources could be delivered to them.
7. The instruments for assessing racial attitude changes were shared with, and explained to, the teachers.

Materials. All the resource materials given to the teachers for their use are listed in the teacher resource unit (Appendix A). The materials were made available by the Oakland County Intermediate School Office, Mount Clemens School District, New Detroit Committee, McGraw-Hill Book

Company, or the Warren Schloat Productions. Related materials were also obtained by the individual teachers involved in the study.

Instruments

A. Attitude Measurement

The most frequently used devices for measuring attitudes, are attitude scales. These scales generally provide the direction, degree, and intensity of an attitude toward a given subject.

The direction of an attitude is usually the cognitive component of belief, disbelief, often stated in terms of agree--disagree. The degree of agreement or disagreement extends this concern to how much plus or minus valence is associated with the attitude. The intensity of an attitude is essentially the same as degree since it too, measures the affective component, usually in terms of "strength of feeling" . . . Thus both degree and intensity appear to measure the affective component of an attitude, while direction is more an indication of the cognitive component. Based upon our earlier discussion of the consistency of these components, it is understandable that they are found to be highly related.¹

The study of student racial attitude changes necessitated the use of several assessment instruments. This section reviews the construction, scoring, reliability and validity of these instruments.

The instruments used to measure student attitudes were: 1) Social Distance Scale, 2) A Semantic Differential with the stimulus concepts "White People" and "Black People,"

¹Edwin P. Hollander, Principles and Methods of Social Psychology (New York: Oxford University Press, 1967), pp. 141-42.

and 3) Make Believe Bus Test. Copies of the instruments are in Appendices B--E.

B. Social Distance Scale

This measure (Appendice B) is based on the Bogardus Social Distance Scale¹ which was originally designed for adults and has proven to be a reliable and valid instrument for measuring attitudes toward out-groups. The scale was designed to test the degree to which a subject would create social distance between himself and Negroes, and also other ethnic groups. Although the questions were not presented in this order, the following items represents social distance from least to greatest.

Best friend

Home to dinner

Live on your block

Belong to your club or scout troop

Be citizens of the U.S.A.

The Ss were presented with each item separately, followed by a list of twelve nationalities or ethnic groups, and told to put a check next to each group they would admit under each circumstance. Some Ss might be willing to check Negro under "Citizenship," finding it a less threatening item than "Home to Dinner," or "Best Friend," and thereby indicating the degree of proximity one would allow for each

¹E. Bogardus, "Measuring Social Distance," Journal of Applied Sociology, Vol. IX (1925), pp. 299-308.

ethnic or national group. Following this, the children were told to place a check by the group they would not want to admit under each circumstance. The items were again presented in random order. The groups of people were listed in random order under each of the twelve items. They were: Chinese, Russian, Italian, Negro, German, Irish, Jewish, Japanese, Polish, African, Turkish, and Puerto Rican.

Scoring. The items were scored either "one" or "zero," with "one" indicating prejudice. For example, if a child did not check "Negro" under the item "Would like to have as members of your club or scout troop," he received "one" for that item. If he checked "Negro," he received a "zero." A maximum prejudice score for each nationality or ethnic group would be "ten," since any check on the "Would not like" items would also count as "one." A minimum prejudice score would equal "zero." It was possible to add all the Ss' scores to obtain a total prejudice score for both the experimental and control groups.

In addition to the above, a rank order was obtained by totaling scores for each of the twelve groups in order to find the most favored. The group with the lowest score ranked first, the group with the highest score, last.

Reliability. Singer¹ established the reliability of the Social Distance Scale by using the correlations between plus and minus scorings from the protocols of three pilot studies. All five items were repeated in a negative form, as in this study, so the subjects could mark the groups they did not want to associate with, as well as mark the groups with which they did want to associate. The correlations were above .5 with a range of .57 to .80, indicating the children were reasonably consistent in their admitting and not admitting a group.

This same modified version of the Social Distance Scale was used by Dentler and Elkins.² Their sample included 2,230 fourth, fifth and sixth-grade children. They found the scale to associate significantly with the Make Believe Bus Test ($r=.45$).

C. Semantic Differential

During the past decade the Semantic Differential has come to be recognized as a reliable and valid instrument for measuring attitudes and attitude change. The instrument

¹Dorothy Singer, "The Influence of Intelligence and Interracial Classroom Exposure on Social Attitudes of Fifth-Grade Children," in Urban Community and Education, ed. by R. Dentler and B. Mackler (New York: Center for Urban Education, 1966).

²Robert A. Dentler and Constance Elkins, "Intergroup Attitudes, Academic Performance, and Racial Composition," in The Urban R's, ed. by R. Dentler, B. Mackler and M. E. Warshauer (New York; Frederick Praeger, 1967), p. 67.

was developed by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum¹ to measure the cognitive meaning of concepts as points in what is called "semantic space."

The Semantic Differentials (Appendices C and D) were used to measure attitudes toward "White People" and "Black People." Both concepts were measured with the same ten bipolar adjective pairs which had evaluative factors of .75 or above.²

Scoring. The scoring on the Semantic Differentials was done by assigning a value of from one to six for each pair of adjectives. The most positive end of the scale was assigned one and the negative end of the scale was assigned six. In summing all ten scales a range of scores from ten to sixty was provided, with lower scores being more positive.

Reliability. Di Vesta and Dick³ established the reliability of the Semantic Differential for elementary students. They found the correlation between test--retest evaluation factor scores for fifth graders to be .86. The test--retest reliabilities for the Semantic Differentials

¹Charles E. Osgood, George I. Suci, and Percy H. Tannenbaum, The Measurement of Meaning (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1957), p. 37.

²Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum, Measurement of Meaning, p. 85.

³Francis I. DiVesta and Walter Dick, "The Test--Retest Reliability of Children's Ratings on the Semantic Differential," Educational and Psychological Measurement, Vol. XXVI, No. 3 (1966), pp. 605-16.

used in this study were established by Roth.¹ He administered the instruments twice to twenty-six white fifth-grade students, with an interval of seven days between the two testing periods. He obtained a reliability coefficient of .75 for the "Black People" concept. The reliability coefficient for the "White People" concept was .71.

The validity of the Semantic Differential for determining racial attitudes was investigated by Suci.² He was able to show significant correlations between Semantic Differential scores for the concept Negro, and a scale Thurstone developed for measuring attitudes toward Negroes.

Roth also determined validity for the Semantic Differential by computing correlation scores with a Social Situation Questionnaire. Respective correlations of .44 and .496 were obtained from administering the instruments on two different occasions to white fifth graders. The above correlations were ($p < .05$).³

D. Make Believe Bus Test

The Make Believe Bus Test (Appendix E) was intended as a device for probing more projective dimensions of social

¹Rodney Roth, "The Effects of Integral Curriculum on Negro and White Fifth-Grade Students," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1968), p. 28.

²Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum, Measurement of Meaning, pp. 193-94.

³Roth, "Effects of Integral Curriculum on Fifth-Grade Students," P. 29.

attitudes. It was originally designed by Singer.¹ Students were given a drawing of a school bus with the faces of four students (a white girl, a Negro boy, a white boy, and a Negro girl) looking out of windows. The children are named Jill, Ted, Dan, and Pam, respectively. Students were asked to fill in the blank lines on a page of twenty-four statements following the picture with these names. The statements were balanced to reflect judgements and social preferences cued to academic performance, aggressive conduct, and peer association. For example:

_____ works hard in arithmetic.

_____ always gets sent to the principal's office.

_____ is the one I like to sit next to on the bus.

The items were provided on a randomized list for each of the three areas of judgment or preference. The areas are performance, peer association, and aggression (see Appendix F). Upon completing the scales, the subjects were asked to draw themselves in any of the empty windows. Then, on a line provided for them under the bus picture, write the name of the child they would like to sit next to on the bus. An additional score for proximity was obtained through this procedure.

Scoring. The total anti-Negro score a subject could receive for each dimension; association, aggression, and

¹Singer, "Influence of Intelligence and Interracial Classroom Exposure," in The Urban R's, p. 64.

achievement, was four. Each listing of a Negro child's name received a score of one, where the preference was stereotypically undersirable. Four items under each dimension were stereotypically undesirable, making it possible for a subject to receive an anti-Negro score of twelve for this part of the instrument.

In addition to the above, it was possible for a subject to obtain anywhere from zero to three additional anti-Negro points, depending on the window they drew themselves in and their selection of a child they would like to sit next to on the bus. The Make Believe Bus Test offered a score from zero to fifteen with the high score of fifteen being extremely anti-Negro.

Dentler¹ found the three subscales of school performance, aggression, and peer association to be so highly intercorrelated ($r=.90, .91, .92$) that only overall scores were used in this study.

Reliability. The internal consistency of the Bus Scale was determined by Singer. Using the Cronback Alpha Test, she found a split-half reliability coefficient of $r=.95$.² The Make Believe Bus was also found to associate

¹Dentler and Elkins, "Intergroup Attitudes, Academic Performance, and Racial Composition," in The Urban R's, p. 64.

²Singer, "Influence of Intelligence and Interracial Classroom Exposure," p. 31.

significantly with the Social Distance Scale ($r=.45$).¹

Teacher Questionnaire. The Teacher Questionnaire (Appendix G) was used to determine how much time was spent daily on the resource unit by the teachers. They were to also indicate how much of the content in the unit was covered. In addition, questions were asked pertaining to the activities carried out and the resource materials used in teaching the unit.

Data Collection

The pre-tests were administered to the experimental and control classes on April 20, 1970. The tests administered were the Social Distance Scale, Semantic Differential with "Black People" and "White People" as stimulus concepts, and the Make Believe Bus Test.

In all instances, the tests were administered by the classroom teacher. This decision was reached after consultation with the building principals and teachers involved. It was based on the realization that the measuring of racial attitudes in an all-white community would be more acceptable when done by the classroom teacher, rather than an outsider.

¹Dentler and Elkins, "Intergroup Attitudes, Academic Performance, and Racial Composition," in The Urban R's, p. 67.

The following directions were given to the teachers for the administration of the tests. 1) Give each student a test booklet containing an identifying cover sheet, the three instruments, the appropriate instructions, and space for responding to each instrument. 2) Have each student fill out the cover or identifying sheet. This sheet asked for the student's sex, birthdate, teacher's name, and present date. 3) Read them the instructions and directions for the first instrument, the Social Distance Scale, and then read each item to them as they go through the instrument, allowing time for responding. 4) Follow the same procedure for the remaining instruments. The importance of the same procedure being used by all the teachers was emphasized.

Hypothesis

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the effects of classroom instruction about Negro history and contributions on white students' attitudes toward Negroes. The hypothesis derived for this study is stated below:

White students who have been exposed to classroom instruction about Negro history and contributions will be more positive in their attitudes toward Negroes than white students who have not been exposed to similar instruction.

Three different instruments were used to assess the white students' attitudes toward Negroes. All three instruments were used with the experimental and control groups to test the operational hypothesis.

The average gain in positive attitudes toward Negroes by white students exposed to a teacher resource unit about Negro history and contributions will exceed the average gain in positive attitudes toward Negroes of the control students as measured by: 1) the Social Distance Scale, 2) the Semantic Differential with "Black People" as the stimulus concept, and 3) the Make Believe Bus Test.

Type of Data and Analysis

To test the hypothesis relating to positive attitudes toward Negroes, an Analysis of Covariance was done on the pre- and post-test results from the following instruments.

1. Social Distance Scale
2. Semantic Differential
3. Make Believe Bus

In addition to the above, the Social Distance data were also treated to form rank order of acceptance. Each of the twelve groups was assigned a rank based upon the total distance score. For example, the group with the

lowest distance score received "one." Ss' scores for each group were added in order to make comparisons between experimental and control groups.

A pre- and post- Chi-square test was also completed on the Social Distance Scale.

The "draw yourself" section of the Make Believe Bus test was also separately examined through an Analysis of Covariance.

Summary

This chapter includes a detailed description of the methodology of the study so that the reader would have a basis for judging the findings which are found in Chapter IV.

The sample population consisted of 188 white fifth-grade children with 135 subjects in the experimental group and 53 subjects in the control group. Selection procedures for obtaining the sample were stated. The investigation was carried out in an all-white residential community and school district of Oakland County, Michigan.

An orientation session was held with the teachers involved in the study to discuss the teacher resource unit and other procedural matters.

A detailed description of the instruments, along with scoring and reliability information was given. The

procedures used for data collection were also presented.

The hypothesis and type of data and analysis used for testing the hypothesis were stated.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purposes of this chapter are to report the findings of this study and to make some brief comments about the findings. Following a restatement of the hypothesis, the data are presented in four sections. The first section contains a report of the research findings obtained from the Social Distance Scale. The second section contains the data from the Semantic Differential. The Make Believe Bus data are presented in the third section. Data from the Teacher Questionnaire are presented in the fourth section.

Restatement of the Hypothesis

White students who have been exposed to classroom instruction about Negro history and contributions will be more positive in their attitudes toward Negroes than white students who have not been exposed to similar instruction.

The hypothesis is accepted, if the test data support the following statement.

The average gain in positive attitudes toward Negroes by white students exposed to a teacher resource unit about Negro history and contributions, will exceed the average gain in positive attitudes toward Negroes of the control students as measured by: 1) the Social Distance Scale, 2) the Semantic Differential with "Black People" as the stimulus concept, and 3) the Make Believe Bus Test.

Social Distance Scale

An Analysis of Covariance was applied to the pre- and post-test data of the Social Distance Scale. In addition, the data were treated to form a rank order of acceptance for each ethnic group based upon total distance score. The data from the Social Distance Scale were also treated to a Chi-square test.

Table 4.1 presents the pre-test results from the Social Distance Scale for students exposed to the resource unit and the regular curriculum. Examination of the table indicates a significant pre-test difference in favor of the experimental group.

TABLE 4.1

PRE-TEST MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FROM
SOCIAL DISTANCE SCALE FOR STUDENTS WITH
RESOURCE UNIT AND REGULAR CURRICULUM

| Group | Mean | S.D. | N | F |
|--------------------|------|------|-----|-------|
| Resource Unit | 1.53 | 2.63 | 135 | 6.93* |
| Regular Curriculum | 2.77 | 3.52 | 53 | |

* $P < .01$

The results from an Analysis of Covariance on the post-test data of the Social Distance Scale are presented in Table 4.2. The effect of the resource unit on the attitudes of white students toward Negroes was not significant. Students exposed to the study of Negro history and contributions did not show a significantly greater change in their attitudes toward Negroes, as measured by the Social Distance Scale.

TABLE 4.2

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ON POST-TEST DATA FROM
SOCIAL DISTANCE SCALE FOR STUDENTS WITH
RESOURCE UNIT AND REGULAR CURRICULUM

| Group | Mean | Adj. Mean | F |
|--------------------|------|-----------|------------|
| Resource Unit | 1.26 | 1.50 | 0.67 (N.S) |
| Regular Curriculum | 2.42 | 1.81 | |

Table 4.3 shows the rank order of acceptance for each ethnic group. The rank order was based upon the total distance score. Examination of the table indicates that both the experimental and control groups ranked Negroes third on the pre-test of the Social Distance Scale.

TABLE 4.3
PRE-TEST MEAN RANK ORDER FROM "CLOSEST" TO
"MOST DISTANCE" FOR 12 GROUPS MEASURED
BY SOCIAL DISTANCE SCALE

| Resource Unit | | Regular Curriculum | |
|-----------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Group | \bar{X} Distance | Group | \bar{X} Distance |
| 1. Irish | 1.17 | 1. Irish | 2.45 |
| 2. Italian | 1.32 | 2. Italian | 2.58 |
| 3. Negro | 1.53 | 3. Negro | 2.77 |
| 4. Chinese | 1.62 | 4. Chinese | 2.88 |
| 5. Japanese | 1.77 | 5. Japanese | 2.96 |
| 6. German | 1.95 | 6. African | 2.98 |
| 7. Puerto Rican | 2.10 | 7. Puerto Rican | 3.13 |
| 8. African | 2.38 | 8. Polish | 3.26 |
| 9. Polish | 2.63 | 9. German | 3.62 |
| 10. Jewish | 2.77 | 10. Turkish | 4.13 |
| 11. Turkish | 3.20 | 11. Jewish | 4.32 |
| 12. Russian | 3.25 | 12. Russian | 4.92 |

TABLE 4.4

POST-TEST MEAN RANK ORDER FROM "CLOSEST" TO
 "MOST DISTANCE" FOR 12 GROUPS MEASURED
 BY SOCIAL DISTANCE SCALE

| Resource Unit | | Regular Curriculum | |
|-----------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Group | \bar{X} Distance | Group | \bar{X} Distance |
| 1. Italian | 0.91 | 1. Italian | 1.50 |
| 2. Irish | 0.95 | 2. Irish | 2.01 |
| 3. Negro | 1.25 | 3. Japanese | 2.32 |
| 4. Puerto Rican | 1.31 | 4. African | 2.34 |
| 5. Japanese | 1.43 | 5. Puerto Rican | 2.35 |
| 6. German | 1.50 | 6. Negro | 2.41 |
| 7. Chinese | 1.54 | 7. Chinese | 2.43 |
| 8. Turkish | 1.76 | 8. Polish | 2.58 |
| 9. African | 2.00 | 9. Turkish | 3.17 |
| 10. Polish | 2.00 | 10. German | 3.32 |
| 11. Jewish | 2.04 | 11. Jewish | 3.56 |
| 12. Russian | 2.22 | 12. Russian | 4.13 |

Table 4.4 gives the post-test rank order of the various ethnic groups as measured by the Social Distance Scale. The students with exposure to the resource unit gave Negroes the same rank order, although a lower mean score, than they did on the pre-test. Students exposed to the regular curriculum gave Negroes a "more distance" ranking on the post-test results of the Social Distance Scale, now ranking them sixth, instead of third.

The data in Table 4.5 present the theoretical ranking of distance for the Social Distance Scale and the pre-test rankings by the experimental and control groups. Refusing to admit Negroes as citizens of the United States would mean keeping them at greatest distance; keeping them out of a club, the next greatest; refusing to have them live on one's block, the next greatest; with "home for dinner" and "best friend" the least distant. The pre-test rankings by the students exposed to the resource unit and those exposed to the regular curriculum are similar. Although their pre-test rankings are similar, they are both slightly different from the theoretical order. The theoretical order places "best friend" at the least distance. Both groups gave "best friend" greater distance. At each level of admittance, a higher percentage of the students in the experimental group offered Negroes proximity. This tends to confirm the findings reported in Table 4.1, showing a significant difference between the groups.

TABLE 4.5

ORDER OF SOCIAL DISTANCE GIVEN TO NEGROES ON PRE-TEST

| Pre-Test Results | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|------------------|--------------------------|-------------|------------------|----------------|
| Theoretical Order | Resource Unit Ss=135 | | Regular Curriculum Ss=53 | | | |
| "Most Distant" to "Closest" | Item | No. of Ss For | % of Ss For | Item | No. of Ss For | % of Ss For |
| Citizens | Citizens | 124 | 91 | Club | 37 | 70 |
| Club | Club | 114 | 84 | Citizens | 36 | 68 |
| Block | Best Friend | 112 | 83 | Best Friend | 35 | 66 |
| Dinner | Block | 110 | 81 | Block | 35 | 66 |
| Best Friend | Dinner | 100 | 74 | Dinner | 31 | 58 |

An examination of the post-test rankings in Table 4.6 indicates there was minimum change from the pre-test rankings. The students exposed to the resource unit and the students with the regular curriculum tended to maintain their initial ranking of allowing proximity to Negroes. Both groups showed an approximately similar percentage increase in allowing Negroes proximity at each level, but the experimental group continued to show a higher percentage for each item. The closest item "home for dinner" showed no particular change in proximity from the pre- to the post-test.

Table 4.7 separately examines the frequency of positive and negative responses for each degree of Social Distance; Citizen, Club, Block, Dinner, and Best Friend, respectively. Included is an examination of "change" between the yes and no responses from the pre- to the post-test. The Chi-square for each of the items of Social Distance on the pre-test are clearly significant (Citizen at $P < .01$; Club at $P < .05$; Block at $P < .05$; Dinner at $P < .05$; and Best Friend at $P < .05$). The pre-test significance is in favor of the experimental group.

Results of the Chi-square on the post-test also indicates significance for each of the items of the Social Distance Scale (Citizen at $P < .05$; Club at $P < .05$; Block at $P < .01$; Dinner at $P < .05$; and Best Friend at $P < .01$). The significance again favors the students exposed to the

TABLE 4.6

ORDER OF SOCIAL DISTANCE GIVEN TO NEGROES ON POST-TEST

| Theoretical Order | Resource Unit Ss=135 | | Regular Curriculum Ss=53 | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|------------------|--------------------------|-------------|------------------|----------------|
| "Most Distant" to "Closest" | Item | No. of Ss For | % of Ss For | Item | No. of Ss For | % of Ss For |
| Citizens | Citizens | 123 | 93 | Citizens | 41 | 77 |
| Club | Block | 121 | 90 | Club | 40 | 75 |
| Block | Best Friend | 120 | 88 | Block | 37 | 70 |
| Dinner | Club | 119 | 88 | Dinner | 37 | 70 |
| Best Friend | Dinner | 113 | 84 | Best Friend | 36 | 68 |

TABLE 4.7

PRE, POST, AND CHANGE CHI-SQUARE TESTS FOR SOCIAL DISTANCE

CITIZEN

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----|----|------|----|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-----|
| Resource Unit Regular Curr. | Pre | | Post | | Resource Unit Regular Curr. | Change Pre Post Yes Yes | |
| | Yes | No | Yes | No | | Yes | Yes |
| | 124 | 11 | 123 | 12 | | 124 | 123 |
| | 36 | 17 | 41 | 12 | | 36 | 41 |

$\chi^2=17.19$
 $P<.01$

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----|----|------|----|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-----|
| Resource Unit Regular Curr. | Pre | | Post | | Resource Unit Regular Curr. | Change Pre Post Yes Yes | |
| | Yes | No | Yes | No | | Yes | Yes |
| | 114 | 21 | 119 | 16 | | 114 | 119 |
| | 37 | 16 | 40 | 13 | | 37 | 40 |

$\chi^2=5.15$
 $P<.05$

CLUB

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----|----|------|----|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-----|
| Resource Unit Regular Curr. | Pre | | Post | | Resource Unit Regular Curr. | Change Pre Post Yes Yes | |
| | Yes | No | Yes | No | | Yes | Yes |
| | 114 | 21 | 119 | 16 | | 114 | 119 |
| | 37 | 16 | 40 | 13 | | 37 | 40 |

$\chi^2=.017(N.S)$

TABLE 4.7--Continued

BLOCK

Pre

| Yes | No |
|-----|----|
| 110 | 25 |
| 35 | 18 |

Resource
Unit
Regular
Curr.

$$X^2=5.14$$

$$P<.05$$

Post

| Yes | No |
|-----|----|
| 121 | 14 |
| 37 | 16 |

Resource
Unit
Regular
Curr.

$$X^2=11.14$$

$$P<.01$$

Change
Pre Post
Yes Yes

| | |
|-----|-----|
| 110 | 121 |
| 35 | 35 |

Resource
Unit
Regular
Curr.

$$X^2=.02(N.S)$$

56

BEST FRIEND

Pre

| Yes | No |
|-----|----|
| 112 | 23 |
| 35 | 18 |

Resource
Unit
Regular
Curr.

$$X^2=6.39$$

$$P<.05$$

Post

| Yes | No |
|-----|----|
| 120 | 15 |
| 36 | 17 |

Resource
Unit
Regular
Curr.

$$X^2=11.84$$

$$P<.01$$

Change
Pre Post
Yes Yes

| | |
|-----|-----|
| 112 | 120 |
| 35 | 36 |

Resource
Unit
Regular
Curr.

$$X^2=.022(N.S)$$

TABLE 4.7--Continued

DINNER

| | Pre | |
|-----------------------------|-----|----|
| | Yes | No |
| Resource Unit Regular Curr. | 100 | 35 |
| | 31 | 22 |

$\chi^2=3.66$
 $P<.05$

| | Post | |
|-----------------------------|------|----|
| | Yes | No |
| Resource Unit Regular Curr. | 113 | 22 |
| | 37 | 16 |

$\chi^2=4.55$
 $P<.05$

| | Change Pre Post | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----|
| | Yes | Yes |
| Resource Unit Regular Curr. | 100 | 113 |
| | 31 | 37 |

$\chi^2=.038(N.S)$

resource unit on Negro history and contributions.

A further examination of the table indicates that the Chi-square treatment on the positive frequencies of the pre- and post-test showed no significant difference. The results of the Social Distance Scale indicate that the students exposed to the resource unit failed to show any significant change in their attitudes toward Negroes.

Semantic Differential

An Analysis of Covariance was applied to the pre- and post-test data obtained from the Semantic Differential.

Table 4.8 presents the pre-test findings from the Semantic Differential with the stimulus concept "Black People," for students exposed to the teacher resource unit and regular curriculum. The pre-test results showed there to be no significant difference between the experimental and control group. These pre-test results differ from pre-test results on the Social Distance Scale which showed a significant difference between the groups.

Post-test results from the "Black People" Semantic Differential for the experimental and control groups are presented in Table 4.9. An examination of the findings in the table indicate that the teacher resource unit had no significant effect on the experimental group. The students exposed to the teacher resource unit on Negro history and contributions showed no significant changes in attitude

TABLE 4.8

PRE-TEST MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FROM SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL WITH STIMULUS CONCEPT "BLACK PEOPLE" FOR STUDENTS WITH RESOURCE UNIT AND REGULAR CURRICULUM

| Group | Mean | S.D. | N | F |
|--------------------|-------|------|-----|-----------|
| Resource Unit | 25.20 | 8.68 | 135 | 2.85(N.S) |
| Regular Curriculum | 27.55 | 8.31 | 53 | |

TABLE 4.9

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ON POST-TEST DATA FROM SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL WITH STIMULUS CONCEPT "BLACK PEOPLE" FOR STUDENTS WITH RESOURCE UNIT AND REGULAR CURRICULUM

| Group | Mean | Adj. Mean | F |
|--------------------|-------|-----------|-----------|
| Resource Unit | 24.66 | 25.08 | 3.20(N.S) |
| Regular Curriculum | 28.13 | 27.05 | |

toward Negroes, as measured by the "Black People" Semantic Differential. The F ratio of 3.8 had to be reached for significance.

The Make Believe Bus

Pre-test results from the Make Believe Bus Test are presented in Table 4.10. The data show no significant difference between the experimental and the control group.

TABLE 4.10

PRE-TEST MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FROM MAKE
BELIEVE BUS TEST FOR STUDENTS WITH RESOURCE
UNIT AND REGULAR CURRICULUM

| Group | Mean | S.D. | N | F |
|--------------------|------|------|-----|-----------|
| Resource Unit | 4.27 | 3.55 | 135 | 2.62(N.S) |
| Regular Curriculum | 5.19 | 3.33 | 53 | |

Table 4.11 presents the results from the Analysis of Covariance on the data from the Make Believe Bus Test. An examination of the results show there was no significant gain in white students' attitudes toward the Negro as a result of the teacher resource unit.

TABLE 4.11

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ON POST-TEST DATA FROM MAKE
BELIEVE BUS TEST FOR STUDENTS WITH RESOURCE
UNIT AND REGULAR CURRICULUM

| Group | Mean | Adj. Mean | F |
|--------------------|------|-----------|-----------|
| Resource Unit | 3.84 | 4.03 | 0.80(N.S) |
| Regular Curriculum | 4.91 | 4.42 | |

The pre-test results from the "draw yourself" portion of the Bus Test are presented in Table 4.12. Results show no significant difference between the experimental and control group.

TABLE 4.12

PRE-TEST RESULTS FROM THE "DRAW YOURSELF" PORTION OF
THE BUS TEST FOR STUDENTS WITH RESOURCE
UNIT AND REGULAR CURRICULUM

| Group | Mean | S.D. | N | F |
|--------------------|------|------|-----|-----------|
| Resource Unit | 1.12 | 0.95 | 135 | 2.75(N.S) |
| Regular Curriculum | 1.38 | 0.99 | 53 | |

Table 4.13 presents findings of the Analysis of Covariance on the data from the "draw yourself" portion of the bus test. The findings indicate there was no significant change in the students' attitudes toward Negroes as measured by the "Draw yourself" section of the bus test.

TABLE 4.13

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE ON POST-TEST
DATA FROM THE "DRAW YOURSELF"
PORTION OF THE BUS TEST

| Group | Mean | Adj. Mean | F |
|--------------------|------|-----------|------|
| Resource Unit | 1.03 | 1.07 | 0.23 |
| Regular Curriculum | 1.23 | 1.13 | |

Teacher Questionnaire

The Teacher Questionnaire was used with the five teachers in the experimental group in order to describe the time spent and the materials used during the investigation.

The results from the questionnaire indicated that the teachers had spent approximately 45 to 50 minutes per day with the content and related activities of the unit. Two of the teachers indicated that on several days they had spent time in excess of 50 minutes.

Two of the teachers said they were able to cover all the general content areas of the unit, and two teachers replied they covered "more than half" of the unit. One teacher said she covered "less than half" of the unit.

There was no single content area of the unit that seemed to receive special emphasis by all the teachers. All the teachers covered the "ancestry" and "enslavement" period of Negro history, with some emphasis on the "transportation" of the slaves to America. Three of the teachers indicated they covered the period during and immediately following the Civil War "quite well." Two teachers replied that they placed emphasis on involvement and contribution of the Negro during "war times." All teachers indicated they spent considerable time on the recognition of individual Negroes and the contributions made by Negroes to America. Two teachers also mentioned they spent "some

time" talking about Civil Rights activity and recent "riots."

Some activities carried out by the teachers were the: making of albums containing pictures and biographies of famous American Negroes, making of chalk drawings of famous Negroes, reading of open-ended stories to teach inter-group understanding, making of murals depicting "plantation days," holding of a "slave market," dramatizing of discrimination and prejudice scenes.

Some of the materials the teachers found to be most useful were: 1) Films, "Heritage in Black," "What Color Are You?" and "I Wonder Why?" 2) Filmstrips and Records, "Myths of Prejudice," "Ghettos of America," and "Minorities Have Made American Great," 3) Multi-Media Kit, "Black Americans in Government," and 4) Filmstrip, "Black Treasures."

Most of the books and materials available to the teachers for use were of a non-fictional nature with a number of them being biographies and autobiographies. There was a sufficient supply of reading materials for students at the fifth-grade level.

Summary

In this chapter, the findings of the study were presented. The first section contained a report of the research findings from the Social Distance Scale. Pre-

test results from the Social Distance Scale showed a significant difference favoring the experimental group. The post-test results indicated that no significant differences occurred in the experimental students' attitudes toward Negroes as a result of their exposure to the teacher resource unit.

The pre- and post-test data from the Social Distance Scale were also arranged to show a rank order of acceptance for each ethnic group. The students exposed to the resource unit ranked Negroes third on both the pre- and post-tests. A pre-test ranking of third and a post-test ranking of sixth was given to Negroes by the control group.

A theoretical ranking of distance for the Social Distance Scale was compared with the pre- and post-test rankings by the experimental and control group. Although the pre-test rankings of proximity were similar for both groups, they were slightly different from the theoretical order. Both the experimental and control group placed "best friend" at greater distance than the theoretical order. The rankings on the post-test indicated minimum change from pre-test rankings. Both the experimental and control groups kept a similar order of allowing proximity to Negroes. A higher percentage of experimental students allowed proximity to Negroes on each Social Distance Scale item of the pre- and post-test.

The frequency of positive and negative responses

for each degree of Social Distance was presented along with the "change" in responses from the pre- to the post-test. A pre- and post-test difference in favor of the experimental group was found on each Social Distance Scale item. An examination of the "Change" in positive frequencies from the pre- to the post-test indicated there was no significant difference in the frequency responses.

The second section reported the findings obtained from the Semantic Differential with the stimulus concept "Black People." The findings from the Semantic Differential did not support the hypothesis. Students exposed to the resource unit did not show a significant change in attitudes toward Negroes.

The findings from the Make Believe Bus were presented in the third section. Interpretation of the findings from the pre- and post-test indicated there was no significant gain in white students' attitudes toward Negroes. The "draw yourself" portion of the Bus Test also showed there were no significant changes in the experimental groups' attitudes toward Negroes.

Statistical analysis and treatment of the data obtained from the research instruments revealed that the hypothesis was not supported. The attitudes of white students toward Negroes did not show any significant changes due to exposure to the teacher resource unit.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of a teaching resource unit, about the history and contributions of the American Negro, on the attitudes of segregated white fifth-grade students toward Negroes.

Students from seven classrooms served as subjects for the study. All the classrooms were located in an all-white residential community and school district of Oakland County, Michigan. There were 135 white students in the experimental group and fifty-three white students in the control group.

All subjects were administered instruments designed to assess their attitudes toward Negroes. The instruments were administered to all the selected classes and subjects before and after a four-week treatment period.

The measures used in this study were: 1) a modified version of the Bogardus Social Distance Scale, using five items to measure proximity, and twelve national or ethnic groups among which were Negroes, and 2) a Semantic Differential with the stimulus concept "Black People," and 3) a semi-projective completion-type test of

social perception called the Make Believe Bus Test, consisting of 24 items under three categories, Association, Agression, and Achievement. All of the tests were administered by the subjects' teachers following prior instructions. The teachers read all test material to the students.

Results of the pre-test data from the Social Distance Scale showed a significant difference favoring the experimental group of students. Analysis of the post-test data revealed that no significant changes occurred in the attitudes of the experimental students toward Negroes as a result of their exposure to the resource unit.

The results of the Social Distance Scale were also used to show a rank order position for each ethnic group. Based upon total distance mean score, Negroes were ranked at the third position, preceded by Irish and Italian, on the pre-test by experimental and control groups. On the post-test, Negroes were ranked third by the experimental group and sixth by the control group.

A comparison of the theoretical ranking of distance for the Social Distance Scale and the pre- and post-test rankings by the experimental and control groups was presented. Pre-test rankings by both groups were similar but slightly different from the theoretical ranking. Both groups gave "best friend" greater distance than the theoretical ranking. A comparison of post-test rankings

with the theoretical rankings indicated that both the experimental and control students maintained approximately the same order of allowing proximity to Negroes. On both the pre- and post-test, the experimental group showed a higher percentage of proximity for each item.

An examination of the frequency of positive and negative responses on both the pre- and post-test for each Social Distance item showed a significant difference favoring the experimental group. Further examination of changes in positive frequencies showed there to be no significant difference as a result of the experimental group's exposure to the resource unit.

The results of a Semantic Differential with the stimulus concept "Black People" revealed that the experimental group did not significantly change their attitudes toward Negroes as a result of the teacher resource unit.

Pre- and post-test results obtained from a semi-projective measure, the Make Believe Bus Test, confirmed previous reported findings in this study, that there were no significant changes in the students' attitudes toward Negroes. The experimental group's exposure to the resource unit about Negro history and contributions did not significantly change their attitudes toward Negroes. The "draw yourself" portion of the Bus Test also showed that the effects of the resource unit on the students' attitudes were not significant.

The results from this study did not support the hypothesis that white students exposed to a teacher resource unit about Negro history and contributions would show a more positive change in their attitudes toward Negroes than the control students.

Conclusions

The pre-test results for this study found the experimental and control students to have relatively positive attitudes toward Negroes. This was particularly so for the experimental students who had a lower mean score and standard deviation than the control students. What positive attitude changes did occur from their exposure to the teacher resource unit were not enough to significantly overcome their initial advantage position. The experimental Ss' positive attitudes toward Negroes were confirmed by their ranking Negroes third in order of acceptance out of twelve ethnic groups on both the pre- and post-test. A further confirmation of the experimental groups' positive attitudes toward Negroes was evident through the percentage of students who granted "Social Distance" to the Negroes. An average of 83 per cent. of the students were willing to give Social Distance to Negroes on the items on the pre-test and 89 per cent on the post-test. Percentage figures for the control students were approximately 15 per cent lower on both the pre- and post-tests. The

experimental students in this study had attitudes toward Negroes that were significantly more positive to begin with than the control students.

It is possible that the teachers who volunteered for this study had already been providing their students with the necessary kinds of experiences for acquiring healthy racial attitudes. If this were the situation, the teachers' own initial positive attitudes may have been an influencing factor in the ultimate results of this study.

There is also the possibility that the approach used in this study was too narrow and limited. Although the review of previous research indicated that attitude changes had sometimes occurred through the presentation of informational content, this study does not support those findings.

This study also suggests that children's attitudes toward Negroes may be becoming more positive. The pre-test findings from both groups indicated that a healthy percentage of the children were willing to grant "Social Distance" to Negroes. It is possible that with the advent of more Negroes on television, more communities passing open-housing ordinances, more Negroes in prominent private and public positions, more integrated school materials, more social awareness on the part of our young adults, and education in general, that the children of today are

acquiring healthier racial attitudes.

Implications of the Study

For Further Research. The results of this study found white students to have relatively positive attitudes toward Negroes. The findings of this study should be compared with findings from previous research to see if white students' attitudes toward Negroes have become more positive in recent years. Attempts should be made to determine what factors in society are influencing children's racial attitudes.

The data in this study showed the subjects giving Jews and Russians the least "social distance" out of twelve ethnic groups. The ethnic background of the subjects did not seem to offer any reason for the subjects' negative responses to Jews and Russians. They were not likely to have had frequent contact with either Jews or Russians. This finding may need further investigation.

Results of previous research indicated that the presentation of information about racial groups had sometimes brought about positive changes in racial attitudes. This study did not support those findings. Attitude change through the presentation of information should be explored further. Such a study should also include a procedure to determine how much information is learned by the subjects.

It was possible that the instruments used in this study, for assessing racial attitudes, may not have been sophisticated enough for today's informed youth. The probability of students giving the correct "social" response is present in this study. Instruments used in assessing racial attitudes may need higher sophistication.

For Education. In attempts to change racial attitudes, educators may have to consider using a more encompassing approach than the one used in this study. The approach used in this investigation did not produce significant results. It is possible that future approaches should involve inter-racial contact with groups pursuing common objectives. Such an approach may enable students to know one another well enough to be aware of the similarities among them, rather than the racial differences.

It was suggested that the racial attitudes of the teachers may have been an influencing factor in the results of this study. If the teachers' racial attitudes did have some influence on the outcome of this study, then attempts at changing racial attitudes through education should first involve an assessment of the teachers' racial attitudes.

Educators are receiving pressures from various segments of society to include the study of Negro history and contributions in the school curriculum. Many people who suggest that Negro history and contributions be included

in the curriculum, assume that such inclusion will help white students to acquire more positive attitudes toward Negroes. This investigation does not support that assumption. School personnel should give consideration to conducting systematic research on the effects of including Negro history and contributions in the curriculum.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Teacher Resource Unit

An Outline of Suggested Concepts, Content,
Activities and Materials of the History and
Contributions of the Negro to American History.

AFRO-AMERICANS: THEIR HISTORY AND CONTRIBUTIONS

I. Basic Knowledge, Concepts and Understandings
The child should:

- A. Know that present discoveries indicate man originated in Africa.
- B. Be aware of the ancestry of the Negro.
- C. Negroes were among the earliest explorers and settlers of our country.
- D. Many Negroes were violently separated from cultural ties that connected them to the past and suffered grievously while being transported into enslavement.
- E. Negroes contributed greatly toward gaining independence for America.
- F. Many Negroes made significant contributions during 1775-1850.
- G. Many Negroes fought in, and contributed to, the success of the Civil War.
- H. Problems and contributions of the Negro did not cease with the end of the Civil War.
- I. Following Reconstruction the way of life for the Negro was largely built on segregation.
- J. Negroes search for equality has continued to the present day.

II. Related Content

A. Origin of man

1. Archaeological findings by Dr. L. Leaky, a British anthropologist, leaves little doubt that man originated in Africa.
2. Most sensational of findings was Zinjan Thropus (East African man) found near Olduvai Gorge in Tanzania.

B. Ancestry of Negro

1. Early West African Kingdoms
 - a. Ghana, 300-1200
 - b. Mali, 700-1600
 - c. Songhay, 800-1650
2. Essential points to emphasize
 - a. Mali-Wealth in gold and minerals
 - b. People had many talents and skills.
 - c. There were many scholars and craftsmen.
 - d. Mali had a strong peaceful government under Mansa Musa (1307-1337).
 - e. Timbuktu was an educational and culture center.

C. Negroes were among the earliest explorers and settlers of our country.

1. Negroes were in charge of two of Columbus's vessels.
 - a. Martin Pinzon - command of "The Pinta"
 - b. Pietro Alonzo - command of "The Nina"
2. Another Negro, Nuffo de Olano was an explorer with Balboa for three years before they discovered the Pacific Ocean in 1513.
3. Estevanico was an outstanding Spanish explorer. He explored much of Arizona and New Mexico, (1539).
4. Jean Baptiste DuSable - founded Chicago.

D. Negroes placed into enslavement

1. Capture

- a. Some were originally slaves of various African tribes.
- b. Some traded to slave traders by victorious tribes.
- c. Some sold themselves and families in famine times.
- d. Some were kidnapped and sold by native gangs.
- e. Free Africans were brought to America as slaves.

2. Transportation

a. To African Coast

- (1). Chained together - sick murdered
- (2). Stored in slave stations or forts

b. Middle Passage - Africa to West Indies

(1). Treatment

- (a). Shackled and jammed together below deck
- (b). Dead - left shackled to living until the end of the voyage - one of eight died.
- (c). Given little food or water
- (d). Unable to change position for as long as 25 days.

(2). Result

- (a). High mortality
- (b). Survivors sick, weak and thin
- (c). Had to be fattened before being sold
- (d). Although many died, there were still many sold.

3. Use of slaves

a. Most used on the plantations

- (1). Plant
- (2). Tend
- (3). Harvest

b. Others used as

- (1). House servants
- (2). Artisans
- (3). Carpenters
- (4). Harness makers
- (5). Blacksmiths

4. Conditions of slaves

- a. Varied in hardship and cruelty
- b. Life was generally a hard one.
- c. Some hired out to work for wages.

5. Laws passed making slavery legal 1640-1750

- a. Negroes not free became slaves for life
- b. Reason given for creating and maintaining slavery related to need for labor in settling colonies.
- c. Quakers spoke out in protest by forming first antislavery society in 1775.

E. Negroes contribution to American Independence

1. Crispus Attucks and Boston Massacre

- a. He and four others were killed by British soldiers.
- b. First patriots to die for American liberty

2. British and Continental promised freedom for American slaves who fought.
 - a. Many fought with the British and won their freedom.
 - b. Many stood out as heroes with the Colonial forces.
 - (1). Peter Salem - killed Major Pitcairn at Bunker Hill.
 - (2). Salem Poor - behaved like an experienced officer.
 - (3). Prince Whipple - crossed Delaware in a boat with Washington.
 - (4). Austin Dabney - received tract of land in Georgia for his bravery.
 - c. Washington called for Negroes to defend their country.
 - d. Officers praised the courage of Negro soldiers.
 - e. 5,000 - 7,000 served in Armed Forces.
 - f. Most fought in integrated units and all Revolutionary War battles.
- F. Negroes made significant contributions during 1750-1850.
1. Benjamin Banneker 1731-1806
 - a. Annual almanac (1791-1802)
 - b. Helped define boundaries of Washington, D.C.
 - c. Created street plan for D.C.
 2. Phillis Wheatley 1753-1784
 - a. First Negro woman poet in America
 - b. Wrote a poem honoring George Washington
 - c. Received letter of thanks from Washington
 3. Paul Cufe 1759-1817
 - a. Ship owner and ship builder
 - b. Built a school for Negroes
 - c. Sued state of Massachusetts for the right of Negroes to vote
 4. James Derhan 1762-
 - a. First Negro doctor in the United States
 - b. Was raised in household of a mater who was a doctor
 - c. Treated Negroes and white patients in New Orleans
 5. Richard Allen 1760-1831
 - a. Purchased his freedom by doing extra work (\$2,000)
 - b. He and others were refused the right to worship in a Philadelphia church.

- c. Formed the African Methodist Episcopal Church
 - d. Strived to improve social and economic conditions of free Negroes
- 6. Martin Delany 1812-1885
 - a. Explorer, doctor of medicine, editor, and scientist
 - b. Pleased to be a "black man"
 - c. Led an expedition of Negroes to Africa
 - d. Was a Major during the Civil War
- G. Negro contributions prior to and during the Civil War
 - 1. Three great abolitionists
 - a. Sojourner Truth
 - (1). "Proclaim (ed) liberty for all inhabitants there of"
 - (2). Preacher, teacher, and lecturer
 - (3). Had great impact on Negro and white audiences.
 - b. Harriet Tubman
 - (1). An acting abolitionist
 - (2). Made nineteen trips to the south and led out more than three-hundred slaves
 - (3). Conductor of the Underground Railroad
 - c. Frederick Douglass
 - (1). Many remarkable talents
 - (2). Talented orator, writer, and editor
 - (3). Fought for the rights of all the oppressed
 - (4). Lincoln used him as a consultant on questions related to Negro soldiers.
 - 2. Other participation
 - a. 166 all Negro regiments
 - b. 449 battles
 - c. 16 Congressional Medals of Honor
 - d. 2,000 employed as laborers, cooks, teamsters, and servants
 - e. 37,638 Negro soldiers killed
 - 3. Thirteenth Amendment abolished slavery (Dec. 18, 1865)
 - 4. Lincoln was neither an abolitionist nor was he pro-slavery.
- H. Problems and contributions of the Negro did not cease with the end of the Civil War.
 - 1. Participation in government
 - a. Negroes elected to the legislature of every Southern state

- b. Lieutenant Governors elected in Mississippi, Louisiana, and South Carolina
- 2. Opposition to Negroes
 - a. Ku Klux Klan
 - b. South received "home rule" compromise in 1877
 - c. Rise of Jim Crow laws and decrees designed to isolate, degrade, and destroy the Negro.
 - d. Lynching (3000 between 1882-1900)
- 3. Black Cowboys
 - a. Chisholm Trail
 - b. Bill Pickett
 - c. Adam Rector
 - d. Britton Johnson
 - e. Nat Love - "Deadwood Dick"
 - f. Cherokee Bill
- 4. Negro inventors
 - a. Elijah McCoy - held over fifty patents.
 - b. Grandville T. Woods - sold many patents to American Bell Telephone, General Electric, and Westinghouse.
 - c. Jan Matzeliger - developed a machine to manufacture shoes.
 - d. Lewis Latimer - worked along side Alexander Graham Bell and Thomas Edison.
 - e. Garrett Morgan - invented World War I gas mask, and automatic traffic light.
- 5. Served in United States Senate representing Southern states from 1869-1901
 - a. Hiram R. Revels
 - b. Blanche K. Bruce
- I. Following Reconstruction, the way of life for the Negro was largely built on segregation.
 - 1. Forced to use separate facilities
 - a. Schools
 - b. Special sections of trains, theaters, ball parks, washrooms, and drinking fountains
 - c. Negro restaurants, hotels, and churches
 - 2. Laws passed enforcing segregation
 - a. It was a crime for Negroes to:
 - (1). Attend school with white people
 - (2). Drink water from a "white" drinking fountain
 - (3). Play with white people in a sports contest
 - (4). Sit on a "white" park bench

- b. Negroes place was considered to be at the bottom level of society.
 - (1). Voting rights taken away through:
 - (a). Literacy tests
 - (b). Poll tax
 - (c). Grandfather Clause
 - (d). Terror, violence, and threats
 - (2). Governments did little to stop segregation.
- 3. Segregation caused many Negroes to migrate North.
 - a. About half of the Negro population lived in the North.
 - b. Most Negroes migrated for better jobs and a better way of life.
 - c. Violence also helped to cause the Negro to migrate North.
 - (1). Lynch mobs took the laws into their own hands.
 - (2). Riots
- 4. Negroes faced special problems outside of the South.
 - a. Trouble finding suitable places to live
 - b. Most arrived without money.
 - c. Forced to live in cheaper housing and run-down areas of the city
 - d. White owners refused to sell or rent homes to Negroes in better parts of the city.
 - e. Negroes had to crowd together in one section called "ghettos".
 - (1). Schools old and overcrowded
 - (2). Public facilities usually poor
 - (3). Crime rate usually high
 - f. Unemployment rate high due to:
 - (1). Lack of education
 - (2). Fewer job skills
 - (3). Discrimination
- 5. Segregation has affected the progress of the Negro.
 - a. Deprived Negroes of their civil rights.
 - (1). Lost equal protection under the law - violation of 14th Amendment
 - (2). Lost the right to vote - violation of the 15th Amendment
 - (3). Segregated facilities were separate but not equal as called for by Supreme Court decision of 1896.
 - b. Segregation made a low "caste" out of Negroes in America.
 - (1). Negroes dark skin was the sign of membership.

- (2). Never allowed to forget he belonged to the lowest caste
- (3). Limited to certain facilities, institutions, and employment

J. The Negroes search for equality continues to the present day.

- 1. Negroes position for equality was strengthened by:
 - a. Urbanization
 - b. Industrialization
 - c. War service
- 2. Establishment of organizations has helped.
 - a. NAACP - helped to do away with segregation in education.
 - b. SNCC - Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee
 - (1). "Read ins"
 - (2). "Wade ins"
 - (3). "Knell ins"
 - c. CORE - Congress of Racial Equality
 - (1). Freedom rides
 - (2). Help to stop segregation in bus seating and station facilities.
- 3. Events and legislation that have helped to bring about greater equality for the Negro
 - a. Civil Rights Act, 1964
 - (1). Equal rights to use public facilities
 - (2). Discrimination banned in most business places.
 - (3). Granted equal voting rights
 - (4). Banned discrimination in employment and union membership
 - b. Voting Rights Act, 1965
 - (1). Banned literacy test requirement for voting
 - (2). Granted authority for federal agents to supervise voter registration
 - c. Participation and success in sports
 - (1). Track
 - (a). Jesse Owens
 - (b). Meridith Gourdine
 - (c). Wilma Rudolph
 - (d). Rafer Johnson
 - (e). Ralph Boston
 - (f). Bob Haynes
 - (2). Boxing
 - (a). Joe Louis
 - (b). Ezzard Charles
 - (c). Sugar Ray Robinson
 - (d). Floyd Patterson
 - (e). Sonny Liston
 - (f). Cassius Clay

- (3). Baseball
 - (a). Jackie Robinson
 - (b). Roy Campanella
 - (c). Willie Mays
 - (d). Ernie Banks
 - (e). Frank Robinson
 - (f). Willie Horton
- d. Participation and success in the arts and sciences
 - (1). Visual arts
 - (a). Horace Pippin - self taught artist
 - (b). Charles White - Artist
 - (c). Gordon Parks - photographer
 - (2). Music and Dancing
 - (a). Marion Anderson
 - (b). William Warfield
 - (c). Leontyne Price
 - (d). Andre' Watts - pianist
 - (e). Nat King Cole
 - (f). Sammy Davis, Jr.
 - (3). Science - Percy Julian
 - (4). Law - Thurgood Marshall and William Hastie
 - (5). Religion - Adam Clayton Powell, Sr. was founder of largest Negro church in the U. S. He helped thousands of jobless and hungry people.
- 4. History of the Negro is an important part of the history of our entire nation
 - a. Negro slavery provided manpower for the plantation system.
 - b. Westward expansion raised the question of slavery expansion.
 - c. Civil War played a part in bringing an end to slavery
 - d. Negro citizenship defined by the Emancipation Proclamation and the 13th, 14th and 15th Amendments
 - e. Court decisions brought changes to Negroes traditional patterns of living.
 - f. Thousands of people have organized to end racial discrimination and prejudice from our country.
 - g. Efforts of many have brought about greater understanding and respect among all citizens.

III. Suggested Related Activities

- A. Origin of Man
 1. Locate Tanzania on map of Africa.
 2. Determine what shaped tools were used by early man.
 3. Compare physical characteristics of early and present day man.
- B. Ancestry of Negroes
 1. Read and discuss "Anansi Plays Dead", an African folk tale.
 - a. Placing of pots in coffin
 - b. Asking Anansi's soul for protection from thieves.
 2. Make murals of old African kingdoms.
 3. Visit exhibit of African art and sculpture.
- C. Negro explorers and settlers
 1. Trace probable route of Estevanico through Arizona and New Mexico.
 2. Determine how much skill and knowledge was necessary to pilot "The Pinta" and "The Nina".
 3. Find out what Negro explorer's name meant Little Stephen.
- D. Negroes placed into enslavement
 1. What was the difference between "indentured servants" and slaves?
 2. Have pupils report on Gabriel Prosser, Denmark Vesey, and Nat Turner.
 3. Have pupils form committees to do research on free Afro-Americans.
 - a. Frederick Douglass
 - b. Amos Fortune
 - c. Cripus Attucks - first patriot to die
 - d. Paul Cuffee - humanitarian, businessman
 - e. Benjamin Bannaker - almanac, Washington, D. C. street plan
 4. Ask children to interview teachers and neighbors asking questions such as the following:
 - a. When did their ancestors come to America?
 - b. What were their reasons for coming?
 - c. From what country did they come?
 - d. Where in America did they settle?
 - e. What problems of adjustment did they have?
 5. Tabulate above information to show variety of ethnic origins, times of arrival, places of settlement, and problems of adjustment.
- E. Negroes contribution to American Independence
 1. Discuss what constitutes bravery and courage.

2. Depict involvement of Negroes in Revolutionary War through crayon resist drawings.
 3. Discuss causes of Revolutionary War and its relevance to slavery.
 4. Display and discuss picture of Washington crossing the Delaware.
- F. Negroes made significant contributions during 1750-1850.
1. Group could report on what is an "Almanac" and original street plan of Washington, D. C.
 2. Group choral reading of Phillis Wheatley's poem "His Excellency George Washington" or some other selected poem
 3. Group activity of building ship models similar to ones built by Paul Cuffe
 4. Group presentation of what \$2,000 would purchase in late 1700's
- G. Negroes contribution prior to and during Civil War
1. Determine relationship between what is enscribed on "Statue of Liberty" and Sojourner Truth.
 2. Trace underground railroad routes through Michigan.
 3. Discuss meaning of "abolitionist".
 4. Dramatization of the roles the abolitionist played with the use of a tape recorder and overhead transparencies.
 5. Have three student committees evaluate the 13th, 14th and 15th Amendments. Did these amendments serve the purpose for which they were framed?
 6. Discuss how these amendments relate to the civil rights laws of the 1960's?
- H. Problems and contributions of Negroes following the Civil War
1. Permit pupils to choose sides for a panel to discuss the following questions:
 - a. How should the South have been treated after the war?
 - b. Who are some Negroes who figured prominently in the government after the war?
 - c. Why was it necessary to "disenfranchise" the Negro:
 2. Read pertinent materials about the life of the Negro following reconstruction.
- I. Following Reconstruction, the way of life for the Negro was largely built on segregation.
1. Have student committees evaluate the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments and compare them to the laws used for segregation purposes in the South.

2. Make pictures showing possible segregated scenes that may have occurred either in the North or the South.
 3. Have the students imagine they are a Negro and have recently migrated to the North. Write an account of the possible kinds of segregation they could encounter.
 4. Dramatization of what a Negro might have encountered while attempting to vote.
- J. Negroes search for equality continues to the present day.
1. Read open-end stories to teach inter-group understanding.
 2. Encourage children to share positive newspaper stories and positive personal experiences with Negroes.
 3. Discuss the ways people are alike and different regarding physical characteristics.
 4. Introduce works of Negro artists, using pictures, reading about the artists, and writing short biographies.
 5. Dramatize a meeting of Negro leaders who are discussing ways to secure equal rights.

IV. Suggested Related Materials

A. Origin of man

1. Vlahos, Olivia. African Beginnings. New York: The Viking Press, 1967.
2. Savage, Katherine. The Story of Africa: South of the Sahara. Walck, 1962.

B. Ancestry of Negroes

1. Dobler, Lavinia and William A. Brown. Great Rulers of the African Past. New York: Doubleday, 1966.
2. "Africa for the Elementary Grades," Grade Teacher. October, 1968.
3. Courtlander, Harold. The Hat Shaking Dance and Other Tales from Ghana. Harcourt, 1957.
4. The Art of Africa. New York: Harper and Row.

C. Negro explorers and settlers

1. Bennett, Lerone. Before the Mayflower: A History of the Negro in America. Chicago: The Johnson Publishing Company, Inc., 1962.
2. Woodson, Carter Godwin. Negro Makers of History. Washington, D. C.: The Associated Publishers, Inc., 1938.
3. Hughes, Langston. Famous Negro Heroes of America. Dodd, 1958.

D. Negroes placed into enslavement

1. Franklin, John. From Slavery to Freedom. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.
2. Graham, Shirley. There Once Was a Slave: Frederick Douglass. New York: Julian Messner, Inc.
3. Graham, Shirley. Your Most Humble Servant: The Story of Benjamin Bonneker. New York: Julian Messner, Inc.

E. Negroes contribution to independence

1. Millender, Dharathula. Crius Attucks: Boy of Valor. Bobbs, 1966.
2. Dobler, Lavinia G., and Edgar A. Toppin. Pioneers and Patriots: Lives of Six Negroes of the Revolutionary Era. Doubleday, 1965.
3. Douty, Ester M. Under the New Roof: Five Patriots of the Young Republic. Rand, 1965.

F. Negroes made significant contributions during 1750-1850.

1. Young, Margaret B. The First Book of American Negroes. New York: Franklin Watts, Inc., 1966.
2. Bonetemps, Anna. Story of the Negro. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1964.

3. Matthews, Marcia. Richard Allen. Baltimore: Helicon Press, Inc., 1963.
 4. Adams, Russell L. Great Negroes Past and Present. Chicago: Afro-Am Publishing Company, Inc., 1964.
- G. Negro contribution prior to and during Civil War.
1. Aptheker, Herbert. The Negro in the Abolitionist Movement. New York: International Publishers, 1941.
 2. Bennett, Lerone. "Harriet Tubman," Ebony. November 1, 1964.
 3. Sterling, Dorothy. Captain of the Planter. New York: Doubleday, 1961.
 4. Franklin, J. H. The Emancipation Proclamation. New York: Doubleday, 1959.
 5. Wade, R. C. The Negro in American Life. Houghton Mifflin, 1965.
- H. Problems and contributions of Negroes following the Civil War
1. Adams, Russell M. Great Negroes Past and Present. Chicago: Afro-Am Publishing Co., 1964.
 2. Stamp, Kenneth M. The Era of Reconstruction. New York: Knopf, 1956.
 3. McPherson, James M. The Negroes' Civil War. New York: Pantheon, 1960.
 4. McWhiney, Gladys. Reconstruction and Freedom. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1958.
 5. Durham, Phillip. The Negro Cowboys. Dodd, Mead, and Company, 1959.
- I. Following Reconstruction, the way of life for the Negro was largely built on segregation.
1. Bennett, Lerone. Before the Mayflower: A History of the Negro in America. Chicago: The Johnson Publishing Company, Inc., 1962.
 2. Redding, Saunders. The Lonesome Road. New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1958.
 3. Bontemps, Arna. 100 Years of Negro Freedom. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1954.
 4. Bailey, Helen Miller. Forty American Biographies. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964.
 5. Du Bois, W. E. B. The Souls of Black Folk. Greenwich, Connecticut: Fawcett Publications, Inc., 1961.
- J. Negroes search for equality continues to the present day.
1. Adams, Russel L. Great Americans Past and Present. Chicago: Afro-Am Publishing Company, Inc., 1964.

2. Bardolph, Richard. The Negro Vanguard. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1959.
3. Burns, W. Haywood. Voices of Negro Protest in America. New York: Oxford University Press, 1963.
4. Richardson, Ben Albert. Great American Negroes. New York: Crowell Publishers, 1945.
5. King, Martin Luther, Jr. Why We Can't Wait. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1964.
6. Salk, Erwin A. The Layman's Guide to Negro History. Chicago: Quadrangle Paperback, 1966.

V. Suggested Audio-Visual Materials

A. Films

1. Heritage in Black (Encyclopedia Britannica)
2. What Color Are You (Encyclopedia Britannica)
3. The Toy Maker (McGraw Hill Book Co.)
4. Out of Slavery (McGraw Hill Book Co.)
5. I Wonder Why (New Detroit Committee)
6. History of the Negro 1861-77 (McGraw Hill Book Co.)
7. History of the Negro 1877-Today (McGraw Hill Book Co.)
8. Frederick Douglass: The House on Cedar Hill (McGraw Hill Book Co.)

B. Filmstrips and Records

1. Myths of Prejudice (Warren Schloat Productions)
2. Rabbits/Statue (Warren Schloat Productions)
3. Ghettos of America (Warren Schloat Productions)
4. What is Prejudice (Warren Schloat Productions)
5. Minorities Have Made America Great (Warren Schloat Productions)

C. Multi-Media Kits

1. Black Americans in Government (McGraw Hill Book Company)
2. Negro History (Society for Visual Education, Inc.)
3. Afro-American Studies (Society for Visual Education, Inc.)

D. Records

1. Adventures in Negro History
2. Great American Negroes
3. African Music

E. Filmstrips

1. Black Treasures (Coca Cola)
2. Great Americans (Dr. D. Brown, Lewis Lattimar, Benjamin Banneker, Granville Woods)
3. George Washington Carver

F. Pamphlets/Portraits

1. What Everyone Should Know About Black Americans (Channing L. Bete Co., Massachusetts)
2. Twentieth Century Americans of Negro Lineage (Friendship Press, New York)

VI. Suggested Over-All Activities

- A. Listen to African music, early American spirituals, and folk songs, up to and including present day Negro entertainers.
- B. Develop a continuous mural for the course of the unit depicting main events in the history of the Negro in America.
- C. Display various art works done by past and present Negro artists.
- D. Organize and set up certain days where children would discriminate against each other because of hair color, dress, or color of eyes.

APPENDIX B

Social Distance Scale

Boy_____ Girl_____

Birthday_____

Teacher's Name_____

Date_____

DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THESE SHEETS

Below are a few questions about your personal point of view about some different groups of people. Study each question carefully and answer it before going on to the next.

1. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would like to have live on your block. Check the ones you wish. You may check all of them, or some of them, or none.

| | |
|---------------|--------------------|
| _____ Chinese | _____ Jewish |
| _____ Russian | _____ Japanese |
| _____ Italian | _____ Polish |
| _____ Negro | _____ African |
| _____ German | _____ Turkish |
| _____ Irish | _____ Puerto Rican |

2. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would like to have as members of your club or scout troop. (If you do not have a club or scout troop, imagine that you do.) Check the ones you wish. Check all of them, or some of them, or none.

| | |
|----------------|--------------------|
| _____ German | _____ Puerto Rican |
| _____ Japanese | _____ Jewish |
| _____ Turkish | _____ Irish |
| _____ African | _____ Polish |
| _____ Chinese | _____ Italian |
| _____ Russian | _____ Negro |

3. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would like to have home for dinner. Check the ones you wish. Check all of them, or some of them, or none.

| | |
|--------------------|----------------|
| _____ African | _____ Russian |
| _____ Turkish | _____ Japanese |
| _____ Irish | _____ Italian |
| _____ Polish | _____ Jewish |
| _____ German | _____ Negro |
| _____ Puerto Rican | _____ Chinese |

4. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would like to have allowed to be citizens of the United States. Check the ones you wish. Check all of them, or some of them, or none.

| | |
|--------------------|----------------|
| _____ Russian | _____ German |
| _____ Turkish | _____ Polish |
| _____ Negro | _____ Japanese |
| _____ Puerto Rican | _____ Chinese |
| _____ Irish | _____ African |
| _____ Jewish | _____ Italian |

5. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would like to be your best friends. Check the ones you wish. Check all of them, some of them, or none.

| | |
|--------------------|---------------|
| _____ Polish | _____ Italian |
| _____ Negro | _____ Turkish |
| _____ Russian | _____ Irish |
| _____ Puerto Rican | _____ African |
| _____ Chinese | _____ Jewish |
| _____ Japanese | _____ German |

6. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would not like at all to have live on your block. Check the ones you wish. Check all of them, some of them, or none.

| | |
|--------------------|----------------|
| _____ German | _____ Chinese |
| _____ African | _____ Japanese |
| _____ Irish | _____ Turkish |
| _____ Puerto Rican | _____ Negro |
| _____ Italian | _____ Jewish |
| _____ Polish | _____ Russian |

7. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would not like at all to have as members of your club or scout troop. Check the ones you wish. Check all of them, or some of them, or none.

| | |
|----------------|--------------------|
| _____ German | _____ Puerto Rican |
| _____ Japanese | _____ Jewish |
| _____ Turkish | _____ Irish |
| _____ African | _____ Polish |
| _____ Chinese | _____ Italian |
| _____ Russian | _____ Negro |

8. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would not like at all to have home for dinner. Check the ones you wish. Check all of them, or some of them, or none.

| | |
|--------------------|----------------|
| _____ African | _____ Russian |
| _____ Turkish | _____ Japanese |
| _____ Polish | _____ Italian |
| _____ German | _____ Jewish |
| _____ Puerto Rican | _____ Negro |
| _____ Irish | _____ Chinese |

9. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would not like at all to have allowed to be citizens of the United States. Check all of them, or some of them, or none.

| | |
|---------------|--------------------|
| _____ Chinese | _____ Jewish |
| _____ Russian | _____ Japanese |
| _____ Italian | _____ Polish |
| _____ Negro | _____ African |
| _____ Irish | _____ Turkish |
| _____ German | _____ Puerto Rican |

10. Put a check (✓) next to the people on this list that you would not like at all to be your best friends. Check all of them, or some of them, or none.

| | |
|----------------|--------------------|
| _____ German | _____ Puerto Rican |
| _____ Japanese | _____ Jewish |
| _____ Turkish | _____ Polish |
| _____ African | _____ Irish |
| _____ Chinese | _____ Italian |
| _____ Russian | _____ Negro |

APPENDIX C

"Black People"
Semantic Differential

Instructions

The purpose of this study is to find out how different students feel about various people.

On each page you will find different people to be judged and beneath it a set of scales with two words at each end. Please make your judgements on the basis of what these people mean to YOU.

Here is how you are to use these scales:

If you feel that the people at the top of the page are definitely related to one end of the scale, you should place your X as follows:

heavy X : : : : : : light
or

heavy : : : : : X : light

If you feel that the people are closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your X as follows:

heavy : X : : : : : light
or

heavy : : : : X : : light

If you consider the people on the scale only slightly related to each end of the scale, you should place your X as follows:

heavy : : X : : : : light
or

heavy : : : X : : : light

- IMPORTANT:
- (1) Place your X on the line, not on the dots.
 - (2) Be sure you X every scale for each person, do not omit any.
 - (3) Never put more than one X on a single scale.

Please do not look back. Do each item in order for each person. Do not try to remember how you checked similar items earlier on different people. Do not spend a lot of time on each item, but mark it with your first or immediate feeling. Please do not be careless because it is important to have your true feeling about the people. Are there any questions before we begin?

"Black People"

valuable ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: worthless

pleasant ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: unpleasant

cruel ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: kind

clean ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: dirty

beautiful ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ugly

dishonest ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: honest

nice ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: awful

good ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: bad

sad ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: happy

fair ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: ____: unfair

APPENDIX D

"White People"

Semantic Differential

"White People"

good _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: bad

beautiful _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: ugly

cruel _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: kind

dishonest _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: honest

clean _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: dirty

valuable _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: worthless

pleasant _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: unpleasant

fair _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: unfair

sad _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: happy

nice _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: _____: awful

APPENDIX E

A Make Believe Bus

A MAKE BELIEVE BUS

Take out the page with the picture of the bus and children. Make believe that these four children are on the bus with you on their way to school. Jill is a white girl. Ted is a Negro boy. Dan is a white boy. Pam is a Negro girl. Read each sentence below, and put the name of one of the four children on the line to make a good sentence. Choose any one child, but make sure the sentence tells about the child you pick. Write the name of the child on the line. Remember, only one name for each sentence. Do not skip any sentences.

EXAMPLE:

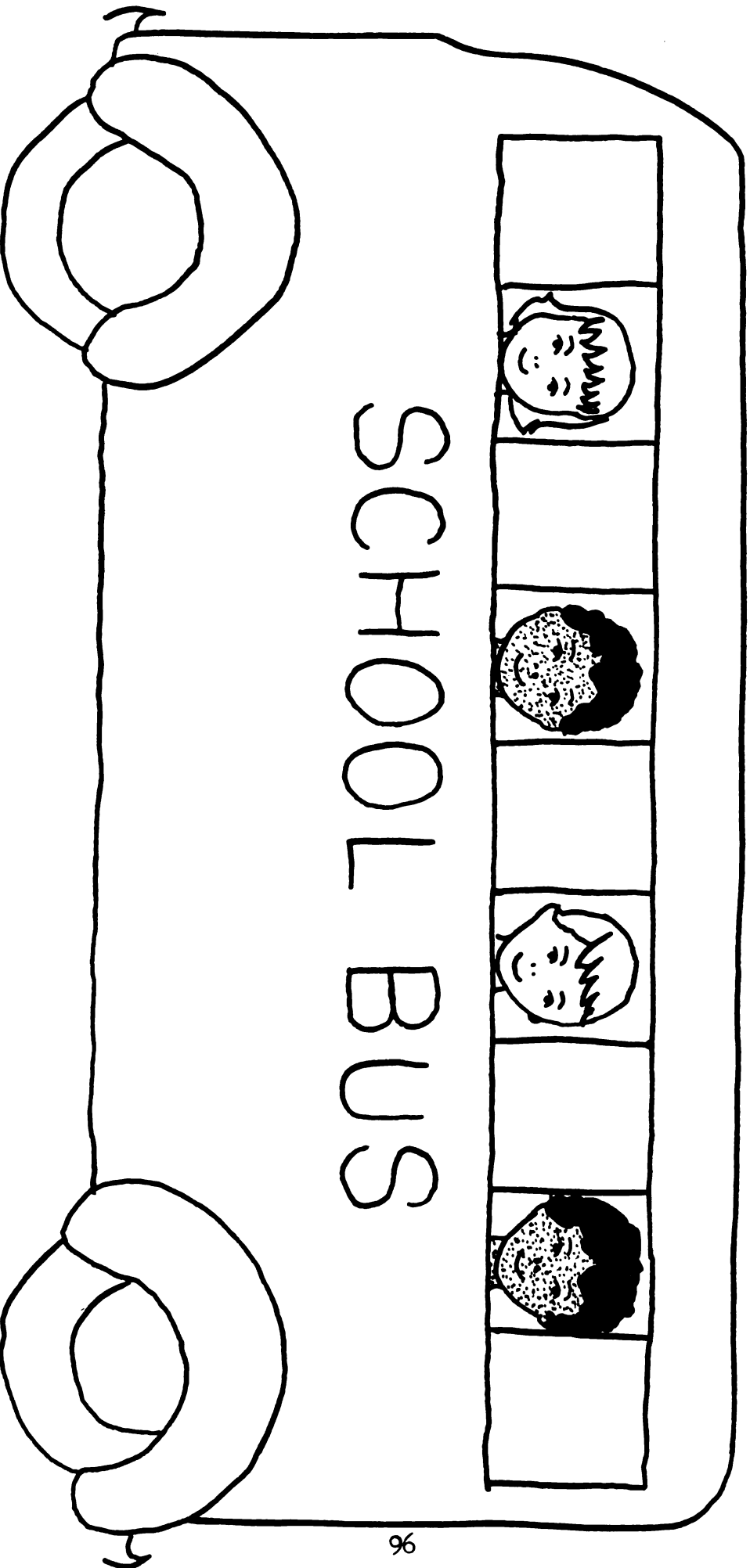
- A. _____ is on the way to school.
 B. _____ is looking out of the window.

BEGIN HERE:

1. _____ is the one I like to sit next to on the bus.
2. _____ gets into a lot of fights on the way to the bus stop every morning.
3. _____ never pushed anyone out of the bus line in the morning.
4. _____ works hard in arithmetic in school.
5. _____ always gets sent to the principal's office.
6. _____ talks back to the teacher in a fresh way.
7. _____ is someone I won't pick to be on my team.
8. _____ would like to play hookey all the time.
9. _____ tries to do the best work in class.
10. _____ has the friendliest face.
11. _____ isn't going to be the one I choose for a partner in the game.
12. _____ never talks back to the bus driver.
13. _____ is coming home with me after school to play.
14. _____ never teases, or uses dirty words.

15. _____ didn't do the homework last night because television is more fun.
16. _____ is the roughest kid in the school yard.
17. _____ wants to grow up to be famous.
18. _____ always goes to the candy store with me after school.
19. _____ doesn't study, but likes to tell jokes and fool around.
20. _____ is someone I wouldn't want to live near me.
21. _____ never seems to know the answer to anything in class.
22. _____ never gets in trouble with the teachers.
23. _____ is the kind of kid I just can't stand to be near.
24. _____ wants to go to college someday.
25. _____ has one of the nicest smiles of any kid on the bus.
26. _____ will be my partner in the game at school today.

A MAKE BELIEVE BUS



Draw a picture of yourself looking out a bus window. Choose any empty window you want. Then write the name of the child you would like to sit next to on the line here _____.

APPENDIX F

Bus Scale Items

BUS SCALE ITEMSAssociation

- 1 is the one I like to sit next to on the bus
- 7 is someone I won't pick to be on my team
- 11 isn't going to be the one I choose for a partner in the game
- 13 is coming home with me after school to play
- 18 always goes to the candy store with me after school
- 20 is someone I wouldn't want to live near me
- 23 is the kind of kid I can't stand to be near
- 26 will be my partner in the game at school today

Aggression

- 2 gets into a lot of fights on the way to the bus stop every morning
- 3 never pushes anyone out of the bus line in the morning
- 5 always gets sent to the principal's office
- 6 talks back to the teacher in a fresh way
- 12 never talks back to the bus driver
- 14 never teases or uses dirty words
- 16 is the roughest kid in the schoolyard
- 22 never gets in trouble with the teachers

Achievement

- 4 works hard in arithmetic at school
- 8 would like to play hooky all the time
- 9 tries to do the best work in class
- 15 didn't do the homework last night because television is more fun
- 17 wants to grow up to be famous
- 19 doesn't study but likes to fool around
- 21 never seems to know the answers to anything in class
- 24 wants to go to college some day

APPENDIX G

Teacher Questionnaire

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

1. During the past four weeks, approximately how much time, on a daily basis, was devoted to the unit on Negro history and contributions?
 - A. 30 minutes or less_____
 - B. 30 to 45 minutes_____
 - C. 45 to 50 minutes_____
2. To what extent were you able to cover the content outlined in the teacher resource unit?
 - A. Less than half of it_____
 - B. More than half of it_____
 - C. All of it_____
3. What content areas received the most emphasis during the course of the unit?
4. What were some of the specific activities you carried out in conjunction with the unit?
5. What experiences or facts do you feel were the most meaningful to the students?

6. What supplementary materials, books, filmstrips, films, records, or multi-media kits did you feel were the most useful?

7. Additional comments

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