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ABSTRACT

One hundred and seventy-six public school administrators, teachers, and students from the State of Tennessee attended a five-day institute designed to improve intergroup relations within their schools. As one method of indicating the effects of the institute on their attitudes, a pretest and posttest attitudinal survey was administered. This paper presents a statistical analysis of the results of that survey, and reports the attitudinal changes of the black and white school participants; the latter were found to have changed their attitudes about concepts relating to the resolution of racial and student unrest in the schools--for example, desegregation, Martin Luther King, Jr., and segregation. They also changed attitudes about concepts related to turmoil on the high school campus; such concepts as student unrest, militancy, rioting, and the SDS changed in a positive way. In another aspect of the study, it was found that black and white participant attitudes were different relative to a large number of concepts. In general, black participants were more positive than whites toward concepts dealing with unrest and race, and white participants were more positive regarding concepts that are usually considered to be more conservative. (Author/RJ)

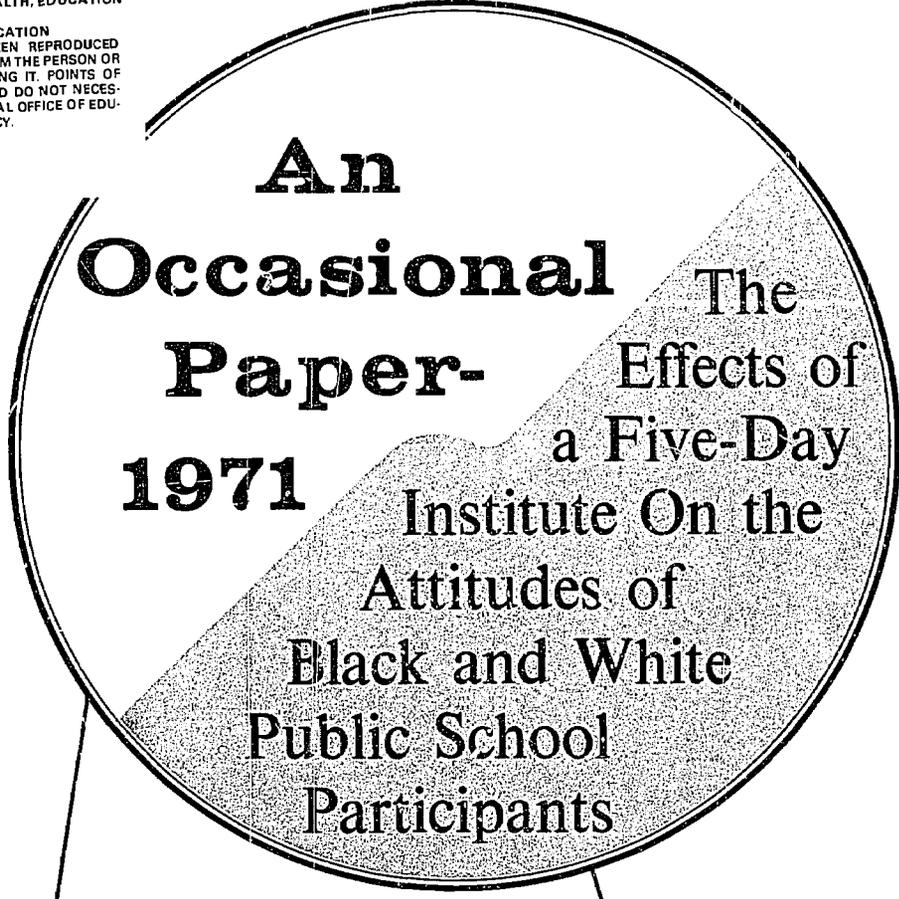
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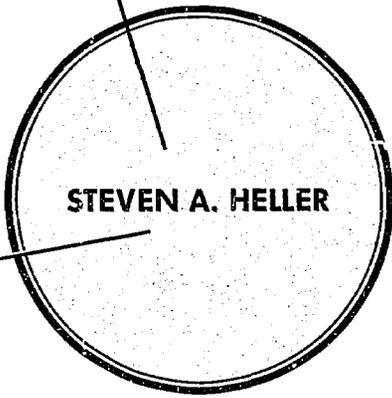
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COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE/KNOXVILLE

ABSTRACT

One hundred and seventy-six public school administrators, teachers, and students from the State of Tennessee, attended a five-day institute designed to improve intergroup relations within their schools. As one method of indicating the effects of the institute on their attitudes, a pre- and posttest attitudinal survey was administered. This paper presents a statistical analysis of the results of that survey and reports the attitudinal changes made by the black and white school participants.

Of the twenty concepts investigated in this study, it was found that black and white participants changed their attitudes about certain concepts thought important to the resolution of racial and student unrest in the schools. By the conclusion of the institute, participants changed their attitudes about such racially-oriented concepts as desegregation, Martin Luther King, Jr., and segregation. They also changed their attitudes about concepts related to turmoil on the high school campus. Such concepts as student unrest, militancy, rioting, and Students for a Democratic Society changed in a positive way.

Another dimension of the study reveals the status of the attitudes and attitudinal differences between black and white public school personnel. It was found that black and white participant attitudes were significantly different relative to a large number of concepts. In general, black participants were more positive than whites toward concepts dealing with unrest and race, and white participants were more

positive regarding concepts that are usually considered to be more conservative (i.e., Spiro Agnew, conservative, law and order).

In summary, the study indicates that by the conclusion of the five-day institute: (1) attitudinal change did occur; (2) attitudes changed in a direction consistent with the program; and (3) blacks and whites differed significantly in their attitudes about certain concepts.

PREFACE

This monograph has been written in accordance with the prevailing philosophy of the Educational Opportunities Planning Center that positive steps toward good racial relations within desegregated schools must be promoted as smoothly and as efficiently as possible. To implement such a philosophy requires an innovative and multidimensional approach that radically transcends the knowledge and techniques developed just a decade ago. As the demographic characteristics of the nation's populace change, as laws change, and as attitudes and behaviors change, so are the problems of racial conflict and their possible solutions extremely altered. It is true that race relations have always presented societal problems. It is also true that there are no general, viable solutions to the multifaceted problems presented by racial conflict. Furthermore, the number of logistical problems to be managed continues to grow.

In its efforts to deal with the increasing variety of racial problems in desegregated schools, the Center has consistently attempted to discover, develop, and validate new and innovative techniques for improving race relationships. One highly publicized attempt to handle school racial problems more effectively led the Center to develop and utilize a simulation game for the elementary and high school teacher. Entitled "Solving Multi-Ethnic Problems," this inservice training technique is presently being distributed nationally by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith in New York.

This monograph represents another move by the Center to share its resources by supplying current and factual information about racially differentiating attitudes and suggesting practical techniques for bringing about attitudinal change. It is hoped that these findings will be particularly useful in planning other workshops and institutes designed to influence the attitudes and behaviors of black and white school personnel. The information about the differences in attitudes among members of both races may also be helpful as a benchmark for further research.

As every writer knows, a monograph is made possible only through the assistance of many people who contribute their ideas, time and technical expertise. Dr. Frederick P. Venditti and Dr. M. Everett Myer (Director and Associate Director of the Educational Opportunities Planning Center, respectively), spent many hours with the writer conceptualizing, planning, and refining all phases of the development of both this monograph and the Institute of School Intergroup Relations. Dr. Douglas Towne gave considerable assistance in the design of the semantic differential and in the use of his recently developed three-dimensional visual display. Vic Skullman was our very capable computer consultant; Craig Cline did the excellent photographic work for the illustrations; Sandy Green and Gladys Alexander, Center secretaries, patiently deciphered and typed the often illegible manuscript.

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Steven A. Heller

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INTRODUCTION

During the last five days of July 1970, the Educational Opportunities Planning Center (EOPC) sponsored an Institute on School Intergroup Relations (ISIR) on the Vanderbilt University campus. The institute's stated purpose was to help participating school personnel develop certain skills and understandings which would enable them to decrease problems related to intergroup conflicts in Tennessee high schools. In the planning stage, behavioral objectives were established, specialized consultants hired, and a cognitive program developed which was thought to have the potential of being optimally effective in decreasing some specific intergroup problems.

One persistent problem with all institutes designed to bring about behavioral change is related to the organizational and economical considerations for efficiently evaluating the program's success. To insure appropriate evaluation of the Institute on School Intergroup Relations, not only would a specific behavioral change in the participants have to be observed, but a measurable decrease in specifically defined intergroup conflict problems would have to be noted as a direct result of the behavioral change. It was assumed at the outset that the decrease in problems would lead to a better learning and teaching environment. Obviously, such an evaluation requires an enormous amount of resource reallocation and expenditure of both personnel and money--a most dysfunctional approach for most non-research oriented organizations.

By the very nature of its role and functions, the EOPC must shy away from extensive evaluations and research. Yet the Center must still

attempt to validate the effect of its activities so that future programs can be even more rationally and intelligently planned. Moreover, the Center, to function efficiently, must be not only concerned about understanding its own operation but also knowledgeable about the populace that it serves.

The focus of this monograph is on the findings of an instrument which was specifically designed to measure attitudinal change that transpired during the institute. Major emphasis is on the measured change among black and white participants and how the two racial groups differed in certain attitudes. If attitudinal change in the desired direction did indeed occur, then perhaps other institutes may find it desirable to replicate parts of this institute's program and/or its evaluation method.

Thus, this monograph represents an outgrowth of the Center's attempt to conduct a feasible evaluation of the institute while gaining a pragmatic understanding of the attitudes of its public school participants. As this part of the institute's total evaluation was extremely fruitful in providing information that may have a strong bearing on the Center's future activities, this monograph will attempt to share the most useful of its findings.

THE INSTITUTE ON SCHOOL INTERGROUP RELATIONS

The institute's program was developed through a series of planning and brainstorming sessions which involved many people. The ensuing objectives and strategies were then reviewed and evaluated as to their relevancy to immediate school problems by an advisory committee composed of five administrative officials from a large urban Tennessee school system. This committee made an important contribution toward the final shaping of the program which was implemented during the institute.

Some Pertinent Assumptions

As the institute program was being planned, it became readily apparent that certain assumptions had to be made about the problem, the participants, learning theories, and instructional methods. A brief review of assumptions underlying the planning and implementation of the institute program may be useful if replication of this type of institute is desired.

It was assumed that school intergroup conflicts and problems existed because of (1) a real or perceived incongruency of goals and objectives between different interest groups, (2) a basically deep-rooted distrust and lack of empathy for (and knowledge about) members of other groups, and (3) an absence of constructive communication between groups to resolve the intergroup conflicts. These types of intergroup and inter-personal problems were seen to have a detrimental effect upon the prevailing intergroup behaviors within a school social-system.

Within any school social-system there exists a number of interest groups which function to acquire rewards for their own members. These interest groups are often engaged in conflict because group members misunderstand their reward-seeking behavior as being necessarily incongruent with the reward-seeking behavior of other groups. For example, as long as school administrators perceive student involvement as being necessarily inherently harmful for the administration of the school, and as long as students perceive administrators as being necessarily restrictive, then intergroup conflict can be expected to result. It was thus hypothesized that if members of opposing groups within the school social-system were given an opportunity to examine their feelings and broaden their understandings about members of other groups (while being taught better methods of communication), then a decrease in school intergroup conflicts would result.

Identifying and Recruiting the Participants

In order for the institute to be effective in helping to reduce the likelihood of intergroup conflict in the schools, representatives of potentially conflicting groups had to be identified and brought to the institute. Those opposing interest groups which were identified as most likely to be found within most school settings were the groups of: administrators, teachers, and students; blacks and whites; militants and reactionaries, conservatives and liberals.

Vigorous efforts were made to obtain participants representative of these groups. In every written and verbal communication with

participating school system superintendents, the need for representative group members was emphasized. These superintendents announced the advent of the institute and asked principals to aid in the recruitment of institute participants.¹ The ISIR brought together school personnel from the larger school districts located throughout Tennessee. Approximately 180 participants represented the following school systems: Memphis, Shelby County, Jackson, Chattanooga, Hamilton County, Nashville-Davidson County, Clarksville-Montgomery County, Oak Ridge, and Knoxville. Table I summarizes a breakdown of the participants who attended the institute in terms of position, race, and representation as related to the total group.

TABLE I

POSITION	THE INSTITUTE PARTICIPANTS		NUMBER	PERCENT
	BLACK	WHITE		
Administrator or Supervisor	4	2	6	3
Principal or Asst. Principal	14	31	45	26
Teacher	17	35	52	29
Counselor or Ombudsman	4	6	10	6
Students	32	31	63	36
TOTAL NUMBER	71	105	176	100
TOTAL PERCENT	40	60	100	

¹There was no limit on the number of principals permitted to attend. The number of students and teachers allowed from each system was proportional to the number of principals sent.

A Living-Learning Center

It was assumed that a more mutually beneficial situation could develop if members of each group learned some cognitive skills that would help them understand, relate to, and communicate with members of opposing groups. Therefore, a cognitive program was designed to aid the participants in gaining those skills and understandings related to problems causing intergroup conflict.

It was further believed that certain intergroup processes at the institute would lead to affective changes (or changes in "feelings") that would be consistent with and complementary to the cognitive program. These intergroup processes were facilitated by the deliberate planning of activities and living arrangements to maximize the interaction opportunities of participants from "conflicting" groups. Housing in the university dormitories was arranged in such a manner as to assure an environment that would facilitate nonaversive and reinforcing social interactions. Participants were "mixed" to provide maximum opportunity to meet members of the other race and school personnel from different schools, school systems and regions. Other opportunities for continued interaction were provided through scheduled coffee breaks and evening activities which included films on racial relations and interpersonal relations. Participants were also encouraged to eat their meals on the university campus.

Finally, each participant was given opportunity to interact with a diverse group of people by being assigned to one of fifteen small groups which functioned throughout the institute's program. Each group

had between eleven and thirteen members and a proportional mix of representatives from divergent groups: blacks and whites; students, teachers, and administrators; males and females. Moreover, care was taken to separate people from the same school or school system so that better communication might be facilitated. Also, whenever groups were seen to have a preponderance of conservatives or liberals, or leaders or followers, group members were periodically switched around to promote divergent thinking.

The Program Format

The cognitive program was designed to increase the participants' understandings about themselves, others, communication skills, and the school as a social-system. Goals toward that end were set up in the following order: (1) help participants become open to new and different ideas; (2) help participants begin to develop and evaluate new and different ideas; (3) help participants see the relevance of these ideas through theoretical constructs (show them that the ideas are logically and rationally sound); (4) help participants see and use practical applications of the new and different ideas; and (5) help participants make a commitment toward the improvement of their own schools' inter-group relations utilizing those insights, skills, and understandings, gained at the institute.

Dr. William Poppen and Dr. Charles Thompson, Professors of Education at The University of Tennessee, led the institute during the first three days and organized a series of group experiences which were designed to help the participants accomplish a number of behavioral

objectives. Before the institute's conclusion, the participants were able to demonstrate in practice situations:

1. A minimum of five good listener behaviors.
2. A minimum of five procedures for making effective complaints.
3. A minimum of three methods for assessing personal strengths in self and others.
4. The ability to utilize role reversal as a technique for conflict resolution.
5. A minimum of three techniques for assessing trust in others.

Appendix A contains an informative listing of the types of experiences designed to help participants gain the insights and skills enumerated above. For example, one such exercise used to help participants improve their communication skills was that entitled "Listening Triads." Participants were divided into groups of three and, within the course of an hour, each participant enacted the roles of listener, talker, and rater. Using the rating form provided (see Appendix B), each person was given feedback about his listening behavior and then an opportunity to improve his listening behavior (and his rating).

In addition to participating in the type of learning activity illustrated above, each participant was asked to identify one change he believed he could make which would improve his school, and also to select a commitment partner with whom he would maintain contact to validate progress toward achieving their goals. Individual goals and program check-points were listed on a contract written by each participant.

On the fourth day of the institute, Dr. William Wayson, formerly principal of an inner-city school in Syracuse, New York (and now at Ohio State University), was in charge of the program. Although he too utilized role-playing situations and small group work to clarify important causes of communication breakdown, Dr. Wayson primarily shared with the participants his theoretical expertise and examples of practical application. Using such models as Plato's "Analogy of the Cave," a "Decision System in a School," and a categorization of sentence (and thought) breakdowns, Dr. Wayson described the human and organizational behavior of a school social-system.

One example of the type of input provided by Dr. Wayson was his method of clearly delineating the rights and roles of individuals within a school social-system. By helping students clearly understand their role and function in the school and by letting students know exactly the minimal behavior expected of them, and in turn know exactly what they can expect, a workable approach can be found to reducing frustration, confusion, and turmoil in the school social-system. Among other materials, a "student bill of rights" was made available to participants and is included in Appendix C. Although Dr. Wayson was limited to one day, his theoretical input was an outstanding contribution to the institute.

Dr. Kenneth Fish, principal of a racially desegregated school in Flint, Michigan, and author of Conflict and Dissent in the High School,²

²Kenneth L. Fish, Conflict and Dissent in the High School (New York: Bruce Publishing Company, 1970).

led the last day's activities. Dr. Fish was more concerned than other consultants with the "how to do it" aspect. Through actual case studies, small group discussions, role plays, and lecture, participants were able to view alternative ways of dealing with intergroup conflict. In one case study, for example, Dr. Fish discussed the need for the principal to communicate--in writing--his responses toward student demonstrators and his demands to the students. Examples of both written communications can be found in Appendix B.

A General Program Evaluation

Just prior to the institute's conclusion, the participants were asked to evaluate the institute program. The evaluation form sought to obtain the following information from participants: emotional and objective reactions to the institute, opinions about each consultant and his presentation, and other comments and recommendations. A copy of the evaluation form may be found in Appendix E.

The open-ended evaluation forms were completed and returned by 109 of the 176 participants. However, as evidenced in later discussion and Table III, a substantial number of participants who left prior to the administration of the evaluation form can be accounted for. Moreover, these responses constituted only one measure of participant reaction. The evaluation forms were reviewed by three judges to decide whether the participants felt "positively," "negatively," or had "mixed" feelings about the institute. The following table summarizes the judges' assessment of the 109 responses.

TABLE II

ASSESSMENT OF EVALUATION FORM RESPONSES		
RESPONSE RATINGS	NUMBER	PERCENT
Good	89	82
Mixed	13	12
Bad	7	6
TOTAL	109	100

The table reveals that the majority of respondents (82 percent) viewed the institute as a "good" experience, 12 percent had "mixed" feelings of both praise and criticism, and only a few (6 percent) reacted negatively to the institute. These findings were supported by data from the semantic differential (to be discussed later) which indicated that participants in general saw the institute as basically "good," "active," and "hard."

MEASURING THE MEANING OF CONCEPTS

Measurement of Meaning

A "semantic differential" is an instrument used to measure the meanings of concepts along different scales. The instrument was primarily developed through the work of Charles E. Osgood and his associates who wanted "to set up a perfectly general and simple measuring instrument."³ In developing, evaluating, and refining the instrument, Osgood found that concepts could be best understood by using certain representative scales that described the dimensionality of the concept. The three scales found by research to be more useful were evaluative, activity, and potency. Participant perceptions of the concept meanings as measured both before and after the institute were obtained on these three scales: good or bad (evaluative scale), active or passive (activity scale), and hard or soft (potency scale).

Why measure the meanings of concepts? Although it is true that attitude scales do not always allow us to predict actual behavior in real life situations, proponents of attitude measurement agree that attitude scores indicate a disposition toward certain classes of behaviors. "It is true that different attitudes imply different behaviors toward the objects signified."⁴ Thus, knowing how different groups perceive the same concepts, we are more likely to understand

³Charles E. Osgood, George J. Suci, and Percy H. Tomenbaum, The Measurement of Meaning (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1957) p. 325.

⁴Ibid., p. 199.

their overt behavior toward one another whenever the concepts are related to their activities and interactions in a school environment.

Selection of Concepts

The 20 concepts to be investigated were selected from a large number of concepts that were thought to be relevant to the institute's program. The chosen concepts (a) were thought to influence intergroup relations, (b) were expected to reveal considerable differences among the various participating interest groups, (c) were believed to have unitary meaning for the individual, and (d) were thought to be familiar to all subjects.

Concepts selected because of their direct association with the planned cognitive program were those of school, teacher, principal, student, student involvement, student unrest, law and order, militancy, Students for a Democratic Society (SDS), rioting, Black Panthers, and myself as a person. Less directly associated with the planned cognitive program (through group processes) were the selected concepts of segregation, desegregation, integration, conservative, liberal, Spiro Agnew, Martin Luther King, Jr., and this institute. Although certain concepts might seem to be more closely tied to the cognitive program than others, it must be recognized that the differentiations were subjective and no attempt was made to determine precisely "how" the meanings of the concepts changed, but only that they did, in fact, change.

The Semantic Differential

Two mark-sense forms of the semantic differential were administered to the participants. Each form contained four sheets: an instruction coversheet with explicit directions and examples and three mark-sense response sheets, each listing the same concepts in the same order. The first response sheet required that the participant make one of seven choices as to how "good" or "bad" was each of the 20 concepts; the second, how "active" or "passive"; and the third, how "hard" or "soft."

The pretest and posttest forms, however, differed in one respect: each of the three scales on the pretest was reversed on the posttest. For example, the concept school on the pretest was evaluated as good or bad, passive or active, and soft or hard. On the posttest, the scales were reversed to adjust for rating bias: bad or good, active or passive, and hard or soft. The numbers 1 through 7 were used to evaluate the scales, with 1 always representing the extreme "bad," "passive," and "soft," and 7 always representing the extreme "good," "active," and "hard" in their respective scales. Since a 4 evaluation was always neutral, any change above or below a 4 on the scales was considered to indicate more or less "good" or "bad," "active" or "passive," "hard" or "soft" (depending upon the direction of the change and the scale used). A copy of the pretest semantic differential has been reproduced in Appendix F.

THE TEST ADMINISTRATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The Participant Respondents

The semantic differential was administered at the very outset of the institute and again at its conclusion. Not all institute participants completed both the pre- and posttest semantic differentials. As inferential statistics were not used in this study to infer that all participants were similar to those who completed the pretests and posttests, it may be important to a complete understanding of the findings to consider the number who could have possibly completed both tests but for some reason did not.

TABLE III

POSITION	ADMINISTRATION OF THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL						TOTAL PERCENT- AGE WHO TOOK PRE- BUT NOT POSTTEST
	RACE				TOTAL NO. WHO TOOK TEST		
	BLACK		WHITE				
	PRE- TEST	POST- TEST	PRE- TEST	POST- TEST	PRE- TEST	POST- TEST	
Administrator	18	16	33	29	51	45	12
Teacher	17	14	14	10	31	24	23
Student	25	18	21	13	46	31	33
Other	11	6	13	8	24	14	42
Subtotal Respondents	71	54	81	60	152	114	25
Subtotal non- respondents who can be accounted for ⁵	0	8	12	15	12	23	
TOTAL ⁶	71	62	93	75	164	137	16

⁵Participants recorded as having arrived late, left early, or turned in nonusable forms and can otherwise be accounted for as "normal losses."

⁶Total number of participants who either took the tests or whose absence could be accounted for.

These data reveal that: (1) 86 percent of the institute participants completed the pretest; (2) taking "normal" losses into account, 93 percent of the participants who could have completed the pretest did so; and (3) of the 164 participants who took the pretest or could be accounted for, only 16 percent did not take the posttest or could not be accounted for. Although the missing forms could have been misplaced or lost or never completed, it can be assumed that at least a small percentage of these participants had negative attitudes toward concepts measured on the semantic differential and purposely left early. Data from this group might have been noteworthy.

The Test Situation

The pretest semantic differential was administered to the participants⁷ shortly after the institute opened. Instructions on the cover-sheet were read aloud and all questions pertaining to the instrument answered. No time limits were imposed. Each pretest semantic differential form had its identification number in the top righthand corner and participants were asked to record this number.

The posttest semantic differential was administered at the conclusion of the institute's activities and, once again, participants were encouraged to ask questions and given as much time as needed to complete the forms. They were also instructed to record their individual pretest identification numbers on the posttest. In this manner, test papers were kept anonymous and yet could be matched for analysis.

⁷Hereafter, the term "participants" will be used to refer to the "participant-respondents" of the semantic differential.

The t-Test of Significance

The semantic differentials were administered for the sole purpose of providing feedback about the effect of the institute on the meanings of certain concepts to different interest groups. Questions to be answered for the purposes of this monograph were: (1) Did participant perceptions about certain concepts change during the institute? (2) Did black and white participants (as two separate groups) change, and, if so, in what direction? (3) How similar and dissimilar were black and white participants in their perceptions of the meanings of the selected concepts? (4) Were the races less "different" at the institute's conclusion?

To answer these questions objectively and to insure reliability of the findings, one of two forms of the t-test was applied. By using the appropriate t-test whenever the F-value indicated a significant difference in the variance of the two groups being tested, a large variance was taken into account.⁸ The t-test was used to test the null hypothesis that the group concept arithmetic means (derived from the semantic differential) were not significantly different from each other at some particular level of significance. If one group's arithmetic means changed significantly from the pretest to the posttest situation, then it was clear that a significant attitudinal change had taken place for that group. Also, if the arithmetic means of two groups differed

⁸Statistical formulas may be found in Anderson, Richard L. and T. A. Bancroft's Statistical Theory In Research (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1952) 399 pps.

significantly on the same concept, then the two groups could be said to hold significantly different feelings about that concept as measured.

The Use of Statistics

In this monograph, the null hypothesis was rejected only if the t-test indicated that the observed result would occur no more than five times in one hundred experiments as a result of sampling variability. Thus, the .05 level of significance was used as the sole criterion for determining whether or not the arithmetic means being compared were significantly different.

An additional use of the levels of significance has been made in tables describing the findings of the analysis. As one of the purposes of this paper was to describe the differences of the same groups before and after the institute, and also differences between groups, the .01 and .001 levels of significance have been used in the tables presenting the findings. When applicable, these levels of significance have been used to suggest that more confidence could be placed in the belief that the means were different. Thus, in presenting the data, the .01 and .001 levels of significance have been used to clarify the study findings.

Limitations

There has been no attempt to statistically infer that the groups tested in this study were representative either of all institute participants or of the groups in which they were categorized (blacks, whites). The statistical findings have been limited to the groups tested. It should be emphasized, however, that there is little reason

to believe that the testees were necessarily atypical of either all institute participants of the two racial groups. In fact, as emphasis in the selection of participants was placed on the "representativeness" of groups in the school environment and as a high proportion of institute participants did respond to the semantic differentials, there is reason to believe that the testees may have been more typical than atypical of their respective groups.

Another limitation of the findings was the absence of a control group to determine if the institute did, in fact, bring about the attitudinal changes. It can only be stated that changes were made sometime during the institute, not that the changes were due solely to the treatment of the institute. Since all the changes, however, were seemingly consistent with the institute's cognitive program objectives, there is a strong likelihood that the institute did indeed influence the attitudinal changes.

THE FINDINGS

Changes in All Participant Attitudes

Analysis of the data indicated that the institute participants (considered as a single group) changed their attitudes significantly about the meanings of eleven of the twenty selected concepts. The changes in mean scores were significant to at least the .05 level of confidence. All changes were consistent with the cognitive program.

Along the evaluative scale, the meanings of seven concepts had changed significantly by the conclusion of the institute. Student unrest, rioting, and SDS were seen to be significantly less "bad" and teacher and Martin Luther King, Jr. significantly more "good" at the institute's conclusion than at the beginning.⁹ Additionally, segregation was viewed as significantly more "bad" and conservative as significantly less "good" on the posttest. Along the activity scale, significant differences were found for three concepts. Student, this institute, and SDS were seen to be significantly more "active" than had been thought earlier. Along the potency scale, desegregation and militancy changed dramatically from being fairly "hard" to much less "hard" by the end of the institute.

Attitudinal changes along the respective scales can be seen by comparing Illustrations I and II.¹⁰ The results of the semantic

⁹The distinction between less and more "good" or "bad" was clarified in "The Semantic Differential" in the section entitled "Measuring the Meaning of Concepts."

¹⁰The three-dimensional visual display of the twenty concepts from the semantic differential was developed by Dr. Douglas Towne. More

differential for all participants on the pretest are represented in Illustration I, and for the posttest in Illustration II. Not only can any single concept be observed to change along the three dimensions, but the movement of entire groups of concepts along different dimensions can be readily visualized. The attitudinal changes which occurred between the pre- and posttest period are further documented in Table IV.

Changes in White Participant Attitudes

White participants of the institute realized statistically significant changes in their attitudes about six of the twenty concepts. Along the evaluative scale, white participants saw Martin Luther King, Jr. as more "good" and student unrest as less "bad" at the institute's end. This institute and SDS along the activity scale were rated as significantly more "active" than previously, and the concepts desegregation and militancy were changed dramatically from the very "hard" rating on the pretest to much less "hard."

Illustrations III and IV are visual displays of the results of the pre- and posttest semantic differentials for this group, and the attitudinal changes of white respondents have been further documented in Table V. The various levels of significance emphasize some of the more dramatic changes. Table V also provides easy comparison of attitudinal changes on the part of both white and black institute participants.

information may be found in his paper, "Displaying Semantic Differential Data in Three-Dimensional Space," presented at the Fifty-fifth Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association in New York, N. Y., February 4, 1971.

TABLE IV

CHANGES IN ALL PARTICIPANT ATTITUDES ABOUT CONCEPTS				
CONCEPT	CONCEPTS CHANGED TO	CHANGES IN ATTITUDES BY LEVELS OF SIGNIFICANCE		
		SCALE		
		EVALUATIVE	ACTIVITY	POTENCY
Student Unrest	Less bad	.01		
Teacher	More good	.05		
Rioting	Less bad	.05		
Martin Luther King, Jr.	More good	.05		
SDS	Less bad More active	.05	.01	
Segregation	Less good	.05		
Student	More active		.001	
This Institute	More active		.001	
Desegregation	More hard			.001
Militancy	More soft			.001

TABLE V

CHANGES IN BOTH BLACK AND WHITE PARTICIPANT ATTITUDES ABOUT CONCEPTS							
CONCEPT	CONCEPT CHANGED TO	CHANGES IN ATTITUDES BY LEVELS OF SIGNIFICANCE					
		SCALE					
		EVALUATIVE		ACTIVITY		POTENCY	
		WHITE	BLACK	WHITE	BLACK	WHITE	BLACK
Student	More active				.01		
Martin Luther King, Jr.	More good	.05					
Desegregation	Less hard					.001	
Militancy	Less hard					.001	.001
This Institute	More active			.001	.01		
Student Unrest	Less bad More good	.05	.05				
SDS	More good More active		.05	.05	.05		

Changes in Black Participant Attitudes

Black participants changed their perceptions about six of the twenty concepts measured. Along the evaluative scale, black participants saw both student unrest and SDS as being significantly more "good" by the conclusion of the institute and the following three concepts to be more "active": student, this institute, and SDS. Finally, militancy for the black respondents change from being fairly "hard" to much less "hard" by the time of the institute's conclusion. Illustrations V and VI represent visual displays of the pre- and posttest semantic differentials for black participants.

Table V summarizes the changes in attitudes exhibited by both black and white participants in comparison to their respective pretest semantic differential concept means. Although the summary indicates that both black and white participants changed their opinions about four of the concepts, there is no suggestion that these concepts were ultimately viewed identically by the two groups. It is noteworthy, however, that the changes were all in the same direction and that three of the concepts were highly related to turmoil on high school campuses (SDS, militancy, and student unrest).

Persistent Attitudinal Differences of Black and White Participants

While it is important to know whether or not black and white attitudes about the meaning of certain concepts changed during the institute, it is equally important to determine what they changed to and how closely both groups ultimately viewed the same concepts. Not surprisingly, even

ILLUSTRATION VI
BLACK PARTICIPANTS - POSTTEST

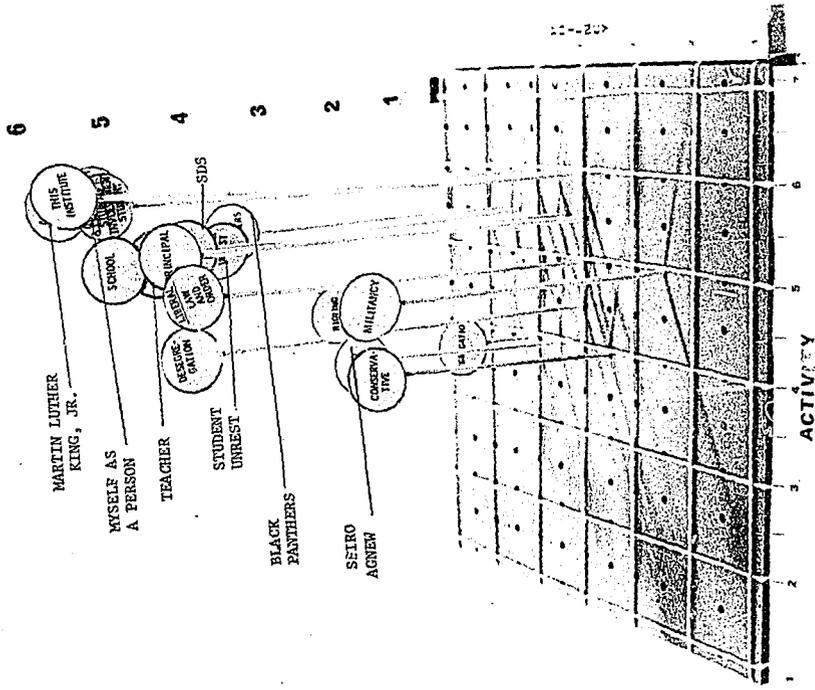
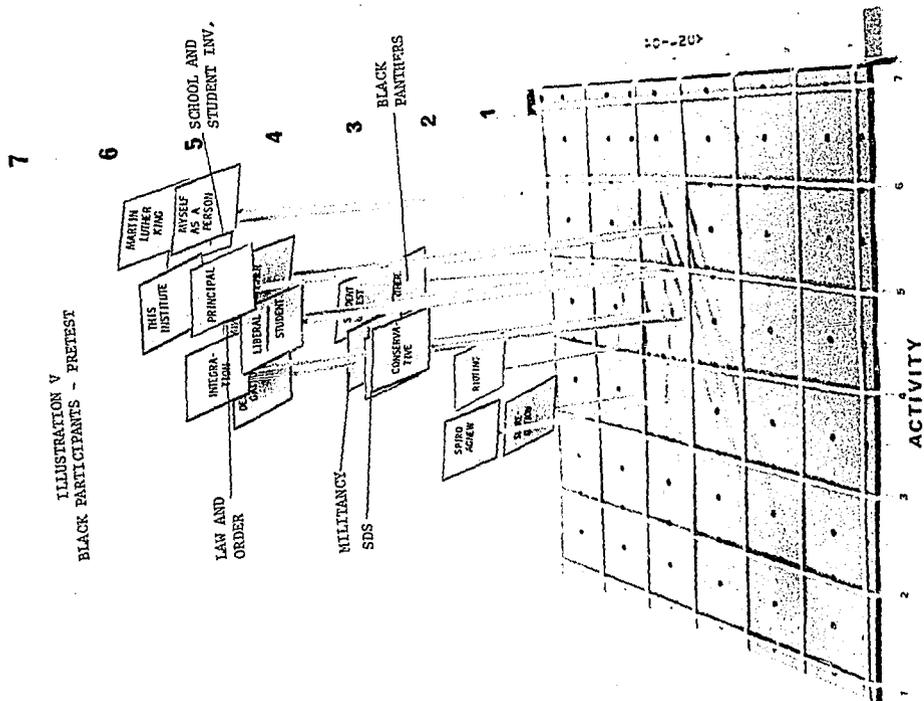


ILLUSTRATION V
BLACK PARTICIPANTS - PRETEST



with attitudinal changes taking place, black and white participants continued to hold highly divergent views that were significantly different. In fact, at the conclusion of the institute, blacks and whites still had significantly different attitudes about twelve of the twenty concepts.

Along the evaluative scale, blacks were significantly more positive than whites about the following concepts: Martin Luther King, Jr., militancy, this institute, student unrest, Black Panthers, SDS, rioting, and liberal. Whites, on the other hand, were significantly more positive than blacks about these concepts: segregation, Spiro Agnew, law and order, and conservative.

Significant differences were noted also along the other two scales (activity and potency). Blacks saw Martin Luther King, Jr. as a more active concept than did whites, and Spiro Agnew was viewed as more active by whites than by blacks. Along the potency scale, blacks saw the following concepts significantly softer than did whites: conservative, SDS, and law and order. Illustrations VII and VIII represent visual displays of the posttest semantic differential results for white and black participants, respectively, and Table VI summarizes the documentation of differences between black and white perceptions of the same concepts. For further clarification of differences between the two groups, Table VI includes the arithmetic means of both.

ILLUSTRATION VIII
BLACK PARTICIPANTS - POSTTEST

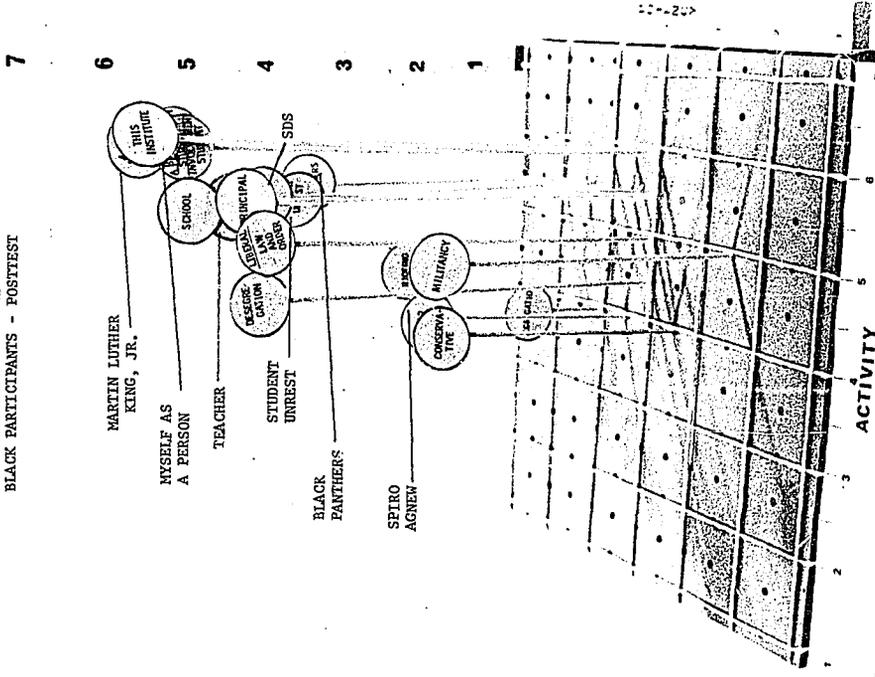


ILLUSTRATION VII
WHITE PARTICIPANTS - POSTTEST

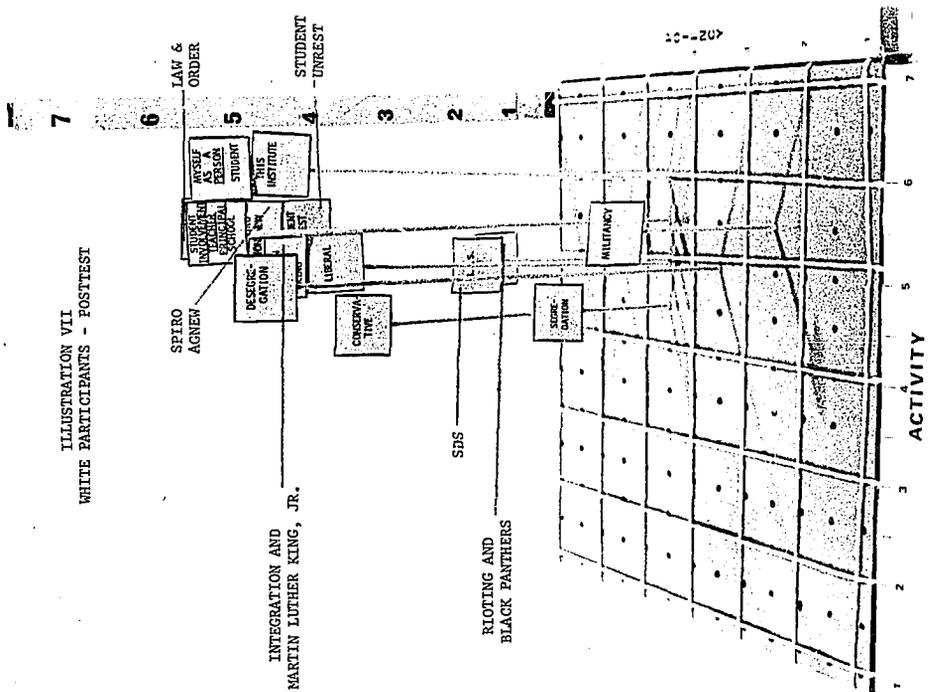


TABLE VI

CONCEPT	ATTITUDINAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN WHITE AND BLACK PARTICIPANTS PERSISTING AFTER THE INSTITUTE CHANGES IN MEANS - BY LEVELS OF SIGNIFICANCE									
	EVALUATIVE SCALE			ACTIVITY SCALE			POTENCY SCALE			LEVEL OF SIGNIF.
	GROUP MEANS		LEVEL OF SIGNIF.	GROUP MEANS		LEVEL OF SIGNIF.	GROUP MEANS		LEVEL OF SIGNIF.	
	BLACK	WHITE		BLACK	WHITE		BLACK	WHITE		
Martin Luther King, Jr.	6.70	5.40	.001	5.89	5.20	.01				
Militancy	4.04	2.63	.001							
This Institute	6.30	5.37	.001							
Student Unrest	4.74	3.88	.05							
Black Panthers	3.93	2.08	.001							
Rioting	3.15	1.78	.001							
Liberal	5.32	4.62	.05							
SDS	4.87	2.47	.001							
Spiro Agnew	2.96	4.75	.001	4.11	5.33	.01	4.75	5.57		.05
Conservative	3.72	4.50	.05				3.49	4.35		.05
Law and Order	5.26	6.13	.01				3.94	4.82		.05
Segregation	1.70	2.73	.01							

Increases and Decreases in Racial Attitudinal Differences

Until this point, the investigation of the findings has included: (1) attitudinal changes made by the two racial groups during the institute and (2) attitudinal differences between the races at the conclusion of the institute. These findings are useful in understanding both the effectiveness of the institute in bringing about attitudinal change per se and the concepts about which blacks and whites continued to exhibit specific and significant attitudinal differences. Another highly useful approach to evaluating the effectiveness of the institute is to measure attitudinal differences before and after the institute and observe where those differences were significantly increased or decreased. Table VII compares the pre- and posttest differences and permits observation of how the black and white participants changed their attitudes about five concepts during the institute. On three of the concepts, black and white participants no longer differed significantly in their attitudes by the time of the posttest. At the institute's beginning, they had significantly disagreed as to their perceptions of how "good" was the concept integration, how "active" was the concept law and order, and how "hard" was the concept myself as a person. By the institute's conclusion, these differences had decreased and attitudes of the two racial groups about these three concepts were no longer significantly different.

On the other hand, black and white participants at the institute's beginning were not significantly different in their attitudes about how "hard" were the concepts conservative and law and order. By the

TABLE VII

COMPARISON OF THE PRE- AND POSTTEST STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCES OF IDENTIFIED ATTITUDINAL DIFFERENCES

CONCEPT	SCALE	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE		INTERPRETATION OF LEVEL CHANGES BY THE END OF THE INSTITUTE
		TEST		
		PRE-	POST-	
Integration	Evaluative	.01	Not significant	The two groups were closer together in their attitudes.
Law and Order	Activity	.01	Not significant	
Myself As A Person	Potency	.01	Not significant	
Conservative	Potency	Not significant	.05	The two groups were farther apart in their attitudes.
Law and Order	Potency	Not significant	.05	

institute's end, however, the two racial groups had become significantly different in their perceptions of these concept meanings and were farther apart in their attitudes about these two concepts.

Thus, neither the black nor white groups showed a statistically significant change in attitudes when viewed by themselves in these cases. But, when viewed together, the two groups showed significant change during the institute.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

Findings of the statistical analysis of data provided by the semantic differential offered some evidence to support the following propositions: (1) attitudinal change did occur during the institute; (2) the cognitive program was only partially responsible for the attitudinal change; (3) participants changed in a direction consistent with the program; and (4) blacks and whites often perceived the same concepts in different ways. To the degree that the findings support these propositions, the following implications appear to be extremely important to the future planning of events for biracial groups.

Attitudinal Change Did Occur During the Institute

The total group of participants was found to have significantly changed its attitudes in some way during the institute about eleven of the twenty selected concepts. As separate groups, both black and white participants revealed statistically significant changes in attitudes about six concepts each. The attitudinal changes in four of the six concepts were common to both races. Most of the attitudinal change was along the evaluative scale. That is, participants more often changed their opinions about how good or bad was a concept than about how hard or soft, active or passive. Although the accuracy of predicting behavior is improved by measuring other dimensions of the semantic differential, the evaluative scale is still the most crucial.

The very fact that attitudes underwent change during the institute may offer strong justification for subsequent activities of this kind

by organizations attempting to bring about meaningful change. The corollary assumptions here, of course, are that (1) the attitudinal change will manifest itself in behavioral change and (2) the attitudinal change will not significantly diminish over time. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that meaningful behavioral change would seem less likely to preliminary attitudinal change, thus the importance of attitudinal change should not be minimized.

The Cognitive Program Was Only Partially Responsible

One of the most interesting findings of the analysis was that a number of concepts only incidentally related to the institute's cognitive program had undergone significant change. It had been anticipated that such concepts as student unrest, militancy, SDS, rioting, and law and order would undergo change as these concepts were repeatedly focused upon during the institute. Racially-oriented concepts, however (such as Martin Luther King, Jr., segregation, desegregation, and integration) also underwent significant change although there were no overt attempts to center attention on these particular concepts. It thus appears that racial attitudes can be influenced even when the verbal focus is not actually on racial conflict. Deliberate attempts to insure racial balance in small group sessions, of course, provided opportunities for interaction between the two races, and the experience of merely working with members of the opposite race (and other interest groups) undoubtedly influenced attitudes to change. Changed opinions about the concept conservative also could not be directly attributed to the program content.

The implications of this particular finding suggest that progress can be made in dealing with changing attitudes about race without necessarily talking about it. In some instances where the races are polarized, it may be appropriate to have biracial groups discuss topics other than race (e.g., curriculum, instructional techniques, learning) and still find a shift in racially oriented attitudes. Further investigation in this area would indeed be useful for the planning of future workshops and institutes. This study may serve to indicate that such a non-racially focused program may be successfully utilized for this unannounced purpose.

The Program and Participant Change

One of the basic assumptions underscoring both the program and its instructional methods was that intergroup conflict problems are more likely to resolve themselves when conflicting groups can communicate effectively. Hence the emphasis of the institute was on communication and human relations skills with some grounding in theory (and experience) in individual and group behavior.

As participants began to communicate about their perceptions of group-related school problems, this communication was expected to facilitate a greater degree of participant empathy, understanding, and tolerance which, in turn, hopefully would decrease negative stereotyped attitudes and behaviors which interfere with solving intergroup problems. If the communicating process was effective, it was reasoned, participants would be able to deal in less negative ways with concepts describing

groups and group activities. Also, as communications between races increased, it was expected that negative stereotypes would diminish and participants would gain more favorable attitudes toward concepts reflective of biracial interaction.

Statistical analysis of the data supplied by the semantic differential provided evidence that the institute was successful in accomplishing at least some attitudinal change that was consistent with, and influenced by, the cognitive program. Of the concepts more directly related to intergroup conflict in the schools, the following concepts were seen to become more positive along the evaluative scale for the total group of participants: student unrest, rioting, SDS, and teacher. The concept conservative was seen more negatively. Student unrest and SDS were also seen to be more active, and militancy became much softer. The fact that these highly connotative words were viewed more favorably at the conclusion of the institute may suggest that representatives of the various intraschool interest groups, after having improved their communicative skills and experienced meaningful dialogue, felt more positively toward one another and the whole concept of "unrest." As a result, it is expected that these participants in the future will be more willing to listen and to handle unrest more efficiently when it occurs in the school setting. Also, as the participants now feel that student unrest and SDS are more "active" in the schools and militancy much "softer," it would seem that future incidents of student unrest in the schools will be met with less surprise or fear than previously.

At the conclusion of the institute, the concept Martin Luther King, Jr. was seen more positively by the total group of participants (and by the whites as a group). Segregation was seen more negatively, and desegregation was viewed as much "softer" than previously. These concept changes suggest that desegregation situations appeared less threatening (especially to white participants) and segregated situations less desirable than had been initially believed. Additionally, the positive change by whites toward the concept Martin Luther King, Jr. may have resulted from a new understanding of how blacks felt about segregation and King's leadership in attempting to abolish it.

Thus, a review of the program objectives and assumptions and the attitudinal changes which took place suggests that certain attitudinal changes were indeed consistent with the program and that, in this respect, the institute program was successful.

Differences in Black and White Perceptions

Even with many attitudinal changes by both black and white participants, the data analysis at the institute's conclusion still revealed significant differences between the two groups about certain concepts. Black participants generally were more positive than whites toward concepts dealing with unrest (militancy, student unrest, rioting, SDS, and liberal) and race (Martin Luther King, Jr. and Black Panthers), but more negative about segregation. White participants in general, on the other hand, were more positive than the other race toward concepts that are often considered to be highly conservative (Spiro Agnew,

conservative, and law and order). Whites also found the concepts con-
servative and law and order to be harder and Spiro Agnew to be more
active than did the black group.

What do these differences in black and white perceptions of con-
cepts suggest? Because of differing attitudes about unrest and race,
it might be expected that black and white school personnel would be
predisposed--to the extent that attitudes influence overt behavior--to
act differently during occurrences of student unrest, especially when
related to racial disturbance. It would seem further that white parti-
cipants, viewing law and order, Spiro Agnew, and conservative more
favorably than blacks, might be more reactionary toward the kinds of
changes that are taking place in the schools today (inasmuch as these
concepts are considered reactive toward change).¹¹

The significant differences between the races about certain con-
cepts at the conclusion of the institute also suggest that desegregated
schools may not be as homogeneous as might have been expected after
many years of desegregation. If it is true that attitudes grow more
similar as groups begin to meld, then there is a great deal more meld-
ing to be done and stronger efforts must be put forth to facilitate the
process.

¹¹ For a very informative discussion on the characteristics of con-
servatives and liberals, see G. C. Lenski, Power and Privilege (New
York: McGraw-Hill, 1966), Chap. 1.

CONCLUSIONS

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the findings of the study which may be useful in the preparation of future workshops, institutes, and other activities concerning racial relations. Moreover, the findings seem to indicate the need for additional research in this area. The following conclusions have been drawn from the data and analysis presented in this monograph.

The fact that participant attitudes were changed in the desired direction during the five-day institute suggests that forum-type activities may be extremely useful if the attitudinal change can be seen to lead to behavioral change and subsequent improvement in school racial relations.

The data acquired by the semantic differential reveal that black and white school personnel do, in fact, hold significantly different attitudes about many concepts dealing with unrest and race. Moreover, most of the differences in attitudes are along the evaluative scale rather than the activity or potency scales. During the course of the five-day session, however, both white and black participants underwent attitudinal change in the desired directions and, despite the persistence of significantly different views about a few concepts, the two groups were in closer agreement than five days earlier.

Many of the attitudinal changes about race seemed to be a result of biracial interaction in small groups rather than a product of the cognitive program. Programs designed to bring about change in racial

relations, then, need not necessarily be specifically directed toward racial problems as long as biracial grouping is provided for in the small group seminars.

Finally, it must be concluded that racial conflicts will persist as long as black and white school personnel continue to hold significantly different opinions about the same concepts. Conflict does not emerge out of agreement. Thus, the continued planning and implementation of institutes which foster biracial interactions and attempt to erase significant racial differences would seemingly be advantageous to decreasing racial conflicts in desegregated schools.

APPENDIX A

TYPES OF GROUP EXPERIENCES UTILIZED TO ACHIEVE BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

Listening Triads

Participants were divided into small groups of three. Each participant alternately assumed the role of listener, talker, and rater during the course of an hour. Using the listening rating form (Appendix B) and obtaining feedback, participants became aware of their listening behaviors and five ways to improve them.

How To Make An Effective Complaint

Participants were asked to respond to an exercise (developed by Poppen and Thompson) requiring recall of two experiences: someone had infringed upon his personal rights and (1) he did not complain or (2) he made an effective complaint to someone. These experiences were discussed and rehearsed with a partner who provided feedback. Unsuccessful experiences of complaining were recalled and role-played, enabling participants to improve the effectiveness of their complaining behavior. A handout on effective complaining provided additional input.

Strength Testing

Participants in small groups of five were asked to follow a written procedure where they would (1) assess the strengths of the other four, and (2) have the other four assess their strengths. Each participant gave information about his self-concept, important experiences, and the like to help others give him feedback about himself. The process

of assessing strengths in small groups is often a positive experience as well as one that results in the identification of unused capacities. With heterogeneous groups, it seemed to be a highly effective exercise in helping the participants realize how they were seen by others.

"What Does It Take?" Discussion

Small groups of eleven to thirteen participants were asked to compile lists of traits for the roles of people in the public schools: students, teachers, and administrators. After reaching a consensus of opinion about the traits of each school group, role-play and role-reversal were used to enable participants to better understand each other's roles.

Conflict Resolution: A Paper and Pencil Role-Play

Small groups of eleven to thirteen participants were given a series of problems to nonverbally role-play by writing down the ensuing dialogue. An example of one such problem follows:

"Charles, a Negro student, hates Jews and tells the teacher he would like to strangle every one of them." Participants paired off and each pair attempted to solve the problem in writing, with one participant playing the role of Charles. The group members discussed all of their role-plays, giving and receiving feedback about their method of resolving the conflict. Role-reversal was also used to enable participants to understand their adversaries' roles.

Blind Walk

"Blind walk" is primarily designed to enable each participant to understand his ability to trust others and the ability of others to trust him. Participants paired off, with one person being instructed

to close his eyes while the second guided him on a "blind walk." After one-half hour, the participants reversed positions so that each had the opportunity to assume both roles. The participants later discussed their feelings of trust and fear in small groups.

Break-in

"Break-in," an activity involving small groups of eleven to thirteen, was designed to help the participants understand the feelings of social acceptance, social rejection, and the effects of group pressure. One participant at a time would attempt to break into a circle formed by the other interlocking participants. The feeling of being "locked out" (or allowed in) was discussed afterwards by the group members. Participants also learned how best to use their strengths to overcome problems as many pretty girls, strong men, and smooth talkers seemed to "break-in" using the appropriate strategies.

APPENDIX B

LEARNING TO LISTEN: INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS ON TECHNIQUE
FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION AND AVOIDANCE

Rate the following listener behaviors on a 1 to 5 point scale with 5 being the highest rating and 1 the lowest rating:

Observer's listener rating scale.

5 - always
4 - more than one-half of the time
3 - one-half of the time
2 - less than one-half of the time
1 - never

Rating

- _____ 1. The listener heard all the content the talker was presenting. (Listener was able to summarize the content accurately).
- _____ 2. The listener heard the feelings behind what the talker was presenting. (Listener was able to summarize the talker's feelings).
- _____ 3. The listener maintained eye to eye contact with the talker.
- _____ 4. The listener encouraged the talker with verbal statements and questions.
- _____ 5. The listener encouraged the talker with non-verbal communication techniques such as gestures, smiling, etc.
- _____ 6. The listener used "clarifying" statements which encouraged the talker.
- _____ 7. The listener refrained from "cutting-off" the talker.
- _____ 8. The listener communicated real interest in the talker and his message. He treated the talker like he was the most important person in the world at the moment.

APPENDIX C

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE: STUDENT ROLE

STUDENT ROLE AND FUNCTIONS*

A school belongs to the students. If it is a good school, it will be only because the students are good. The only way people can know what kind of school this is is by watching what students do both here and in other places.

That means that students are responsible for what this school is. They must work to make it the kind of school they want. They must help to see that no one (other students, teachers, visitors, principal, etc.) does anything to keep it from being a nice place in which people learn.

Students should do all they can to protect the following Bill of Rights for all other people in the building:

1. All people in a school have a right to learn without being disturbed.
2. All people have a right to come to school and to be in school without being afraid.
3. All people have a right to ask questions until they clearly understand what is being said.
4. All people have a right to know what they are supposed to do before they can be criticized for not doing it.
5. All people have a right to criticize any action affecting them so long as the criticism is fair and so long as it is said in a way that can correct the situation without hurting innocent people.
6. All people in a school have a right to get good teaching and to have a good learning atmosphere.

7. All people in a school have a right to learn how to solve problems that are bothering them.
8. All people have a right to a fair hearing before being criticized or punished for wrong-doing.
9. All people have a right to try to change rules that affect them.
10. All people have a right to be governed by authorities who protect these rights.
11. Each person should treat other people the way he wants them to treat him.

*From the Staff Handbook of Dr. Martin Luther King School, Syracuse, New York 13205.

APPENDIX D

March 1, 1970

THE PRINCIPAL'S DEMANDS

Six Requests to Anyone Who Wants to Hold a Demonstration at Northwestern High School

Because Northwestern High School means enough to most of us who are part of it must not unnecessarily be undermined, I request the following of anyone who intends to act for quick changes of any kind:

1. Show evidence that you represent the majority of the students before you ask to be given priority over the organization that was fairly elected from ALL the students--the Student Congress.
2. Listen to the present leadership of the school and hear its plans for remedying the problems before calling any student meetings.
3. Find out what the present administration of this high school stands for, and what we are trying to do, before you interfere with our efforts at making the gains we are working for. (Perhaps we are working for the same purposes.)
4. You should show enough respect for other students to call your rallies or special meetings at a time when it will not take them out of class. You have no right to make problems for other students.
5. Plan your demonstrations against whoever has the power to make the specific changes you are asking for. That is, if you want a shorter school week, deal with the state legislature. If you want more assemblies, deal with me. If you want a change in the bus service, put pressure on the Superintendent's office. Think about whom you demonstrate at for what!
6. Appoint able, influential student assistants to remind any of your less thoughtful followers that disorderly activity is unwise and might set this school back two years, by bringing police and other outsiders to Northwestern. We ought to be able to solve our own problems together here at school if everyone plays it cool!

K. L. Fish

March 3, 1970

THE RESPONSES TO THE STUDENT DEMANDS

BUSSES

Alvin Brown has agreed to make a list of the people with a need for one o'clock bus transportation. Upon learning the number and destination of these students, we shall decide about the need for an additional bus and ask the Superintendent's office to satisfy the need if it is substantial.

FOOD SERVICE

On February 23rd a conference was held with the cafeteria staff which led to requiring all women working with food to wear hair nets, and to establishing other hygienic conditions. The people downtown who cook the food have been asked to provide more variety.

HISTORY

The head of our Social Studies Department has set a meeting with a committee of students on March 12th to review with them new plans for history courses which are to include more Black History as a part of every U.S. History course, and possible new courses.

SCHEDULE

We are awaiting a more specific proposal from students on this; however, our expectations of a large enrollment--2500 students--next year makes us doubtful that 1970-71 would be a wise time to introduce an experimental program.

DISCIPLINE

We have considered the request that we never close classes pending investigation when a student appears to be involved in trouble. In actual practice this is rarely done--perhaps 9 times a year--and only in cases where the specific circumstances warrant it. We shall continue to use our judgment and to keep this at a minimum.

SCHOOL RULES

A clear summary of school rules is being formulated by teachers and will be subject to further review by the Student Government for distribution.

ASSEMBLIES

To provide for more assemblies reflecting the interests of students, a meeting has been scheduled for March 10th which will include 8 students who will represent a variety of viewpoints, as well as several staff members. At this meeting the specific suggestions of Alvin Brown will be considered. If speakers of interest specifically to black students are invited here by the Northwestern students for Black Advancement (or if speakers are invited here by another school sponsored special interest group) after-school meetings will be arranged and we shall try to arrange special transportation to return students home after the meeting.

K. L. Fish

APPENDIX E

EVALUATION FORM

My emotional reactions to the institute were:

My objective reactions to the institute were:

I feel the following way about:

Dr. Thompson and Dr. Poppen and their program

Dr. William Wayson and his program

Dr. Kenneth Fish and his program

Comments, recommendations, etc.

(Use back of sheet if necessary)

APPENDIX F

PLEASE SUPPLY THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION

Position: Administrator Teacher Student Other _____
 Sex: Male Female Race: Black White
 School system: _____ Identification number _____

The purpose of this study is to assess the meanings of certain concepts to various people by having them judge them against a series of descriptive scales. In responding to this instrument please make your judgements on the basis of what these concepts mean TO YOU. Each concept is presented 3 times using a different scale each time. You are to rate each concept on each scale in order from left to right and from top to bottom.

This is how you are to use these scales:

If you feel that the concept appearing above the scale is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your mark as follows:

unfair fair OR unfair fair

If you feel the concept is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your mark as follows:

safe dangerous OR safe dangerous

If the concept seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then you should mark as follows:

hazy clear OR hazy clear

The direction toward which you check, of course, depends upon which of the two ends of the scale seem most characteristic of the thing you're judging. If you consider the concept to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the concept, or if the scale is completely irrelevant, unrelated to the concept, then you should place your mark in the middle space:

dry wet

IMPORTANT:

1. Be sure you check every scale for every concept.
2. Never put more than one mark on a single scale.
3. Please use a soft pencil and darker the bracket thoroughly.

THIS NOT THIS

Sometimes you may feel as though you've had the same item with the same scale before. This will not be the case, so do not look back and forth through the items. Do not try to remember how you checked similar items earlier on the instrument. Make each item a separate and independent judgment. Work at fairly high speed through this test. Do not worry or puzzle over individual items. It is your first impressions, the immediate "feelings" about the items, that we want. On the other hand, please do not be careless, because we want your true impressions.

000 0
 001 1
 002 2
 003 3
 004 4
 005 5
 006 6
 007 7
 008 8
 009 9
 010 0
 011 1
 012 2
 013 3
 014 4
 015 5
 016 6
 017 7
 018 8
 019 9
 020 0
 021 1
 022 2
 023 3
 024 4
 025 5
 026 6
 027 7
 028 8
 029 9

School
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active

Integration
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

Student
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

Martin Luther King, Jr.
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active

Desegregation
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active

Militancy
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

This Institute
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

Student Unrest
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active

Principal
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active

Segregation
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

Spiro Agnew
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

Conservative
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active

Black Panthers
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active

Teacher
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

Rioting
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

Student Involvement
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active

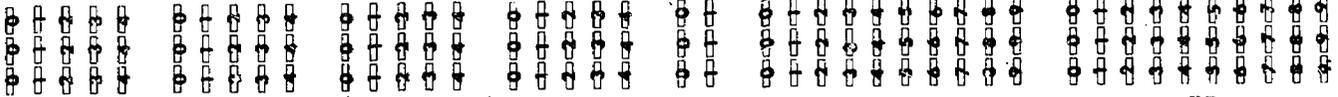
Liberal
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active

S.D.S.
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

Myself as a Person
 Active [] [] [] [] [] [] Passive

Law and Order
 Passive [] [] [] [] [] [] Active





School

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad

Student

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Desegregation

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad

This Institute

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Principal

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad

Spiro Agnew

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Black Panthers

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad

Rioting

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Liberal

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad

Myself as a Person

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Integration

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Martin Luther King, Jr.

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad

Militancy

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Student Unrest

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad

Segregation

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Conservative

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad

Teacher

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Student Involvement

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad

S.D.S.

Bad [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Good

Law and Order

Good [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] Bad



