Rowan University Rowan Digital Works

Theses and Dissertations

5-5-2005

Homosexual prejudice: comparing self-report to perceived interaction

Megan C. Kleefeld Rowan University

Follow this and additional works at: https://rdw.rowan.edu/etd

Part of the Educational Psychology Commons Let us know how access to this document benefits you share your thoughts on our feedback form.

Recommended Citation

Kleefeld, Megan C., "Homosexual prejudice: comparing self-report to perceived interaction" (2005). *Theses and Dissertations*. 1020. https://rdw.rowan.edu/etd/1020

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by Rowan Digital Works. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Rowan Digital Works. For more information, please contact LibraryTheses@rowan.edu.

HOMOSEXUAL PREJUDICE: COMPARING SELF-REPORT TO PERCEIVED INTERACTION

by Megan Kleefeld

A Thesis

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Master of Arts Degree of The Graduate School at Rowan University May 5, 2005

Approved by

Professor

~05 5-5 Date Approved

© 2005 Megan Kleefeld

ABSTRACT

Megan C. Kleefeld Homosexual Prejudice: Comparing Self-Report to Perceived Interaction 2004/05 Dr. John Klanderman and Dr. Roberta Dihoff Master of Arts in School Psychology

The purpose of this research was to determine the level of homosexual prejudice that existed in the sample population and to determine if there were differences in the way that high versus low prejudice individuals reacted to a situation in which they believed they would be working with an individual who was a homosexual. A questionnaire completed by 254 college students (69 male, 185 female) was used to determine their level of prejudice. At a later time, 53 students (25 males, 28 females) participated in a second phase where they believed that they would be interacting with a partner who was represented as either a homosexual or a neutral person by their belongings. Chi square analysis revealed that there was a significant difference in prejudice level in phase 1 by gender, political orientation, knowledge of homosexuality, and number of homosexual friends. An ANOVA determined that, in phase 2, prejudice level significantly affected the likelihood that you would want to be friends with the partner outside of the experiment.

Acknowledgements

The guidance and support provided by Dr. Klanderman and Dr. Dihoff were invaluable in the completion of this thesis. Sincere thanks are extended to the Psychology and Special Education Department offices for research space. Additionally, thank you to the professors who allowed me to survey their classes and to those offered advice and support, particularly Dr. Lois Strauss.

To my family and friends who encouraged and supported me in every aspect of completing this thesis, especially my parents for their unconditional support, I offer my thanks and gratitude.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	iii
List of Figures	vii
CHAPTER I: The Problem	1
Need	1
Purpose	2
Hypothesis	2
Theory	3
Definitions	5
Assumptions	6
Limitations	6
Overview	7
CHAPTER II: Review of the Literature	. 8
The Nature of Prejudice	8
Prejudice Today	10
Prejudice and Homosexuality	14
Homosexuals' Experiences	20
Reducing Homophobia	24
CHAPTER III: Design	30
Participants	30
Measures	31
Procedure	34
Design	37

Testable Hypothesis	37
Analysis	39
Summary	39
CHAPTER IV: Results	40
Overview	40
Restatement of Hypothesis	· 40
Statements of Significance	41
Summary	57
CHAPTER V: Discussion	59
Summary	59
Discussion	60
Conclusion	63
Future Research	64
REFERENCES	65
APPENDICES	7:
APPENDIX A: Informed Consent	74
APPENDIX B: Demographics Questionnaire	7:
APPENDIX C: Contact Questionnaire	70
APPENDIX D: Working With Groups Questionnaire	7
APPENDIX E: Filler Questions	8
APPENDIX F: Informed Consent (Phase 2)	8
APPENDIX G: Math Test	. 8
APPENDIX H: Perception of Individual Versus Group Ability	8

APPENDIX I: Experimental Manipulation Check	87
APPENDIX J: Debriefing	88
APPENDIX K: Collage	89

List of Figures

Figure 4.1 Affect of Gender on Homosexual Prejudice	42
Figure 4.2 Affect of Knowledge of Homosexuality on Prejudice	43
Figure 4.3 Affect of Personal Contact with Homosexuals on Prejudice	44
Figure 4.4 Affect of Knowledge from Homosexual Friends on Prejudice	45
Figure 4.5 Affect of Friendships with Homosexuals on Prejudice	46
Figure 4.6 Affect of Political Orientation on Prejudice	47
Figure 4.7 Correlation Between Jewish Racism and Homosexual Prejudice	48
Figure 4.8 Correlation Between Black Racism and Homosexual Prejudice	48
Figure 4.9 Correlation Between Jewish Racism and Black Racism	4 9
Figure 4.10 Correlation Between Black Racism and Political Correctness	50
Figure 4.11 Correlation Between Jewish Racism and Political Correctness	51
Figure 4.12 Correlation Between Political Correctness and Homosexual Prejudice	51
Figure 4.13 Correlations Between Lesbian and Gay Versions of Prejudice Scale	52
Figure 4.14 Affect of Prejudice Level on Future Friendship with Phase 2 Partner	53
Figure 4.15 Affect of Condition and Gender on Perception of Previous Experiences	54
Figure 4.16 Affect of Condition on Perception of Partner's Gender	55
Figure 4.17 Affect of Prejudice Level and Gender on Perception of Partner's Gender	55
Figure 4.18 Affect of Condition on Perception of Implied Sexual Orientation	56
Figure 4.19 Affect of Condition on Perception of Partner's Religion	57

CHAPTER I

The Problem

Need

The social environment in which individuals live governs the experiences that they have throughout life. Unfortunately all people are not treated equally. This inequality often stems from the perceptions others have of them which affects the treatment they receive. Prejudice affects the lives of many individuals for widely varying reasons. One group of individuals who have been notably prejudiced against in modern history is the homosexual community. They have been labeled as defiant and immoral. They have been forced to live in an environment where they hold a minority status and are ridiculed, abused, and excluded by the heterosexual majority (Conley, Devine, Rabow, Evett, 2002).

It has been stated that homophobia is one of the last acceptable prejudices. It has been hypothesized that homosexuality is viewed by many as a lifestyle choice which therefore lends itself to open criticism without the social ramifications that exist against blatant racial prejudice (Heavens, Crawford, Cain, Walker, Jussim, Cohen, et al., 2004). However, in recent years the visible presence of homosexuals in mass media may be helping to reduce the permissibility of homophobia (Mazur & Emmers-Sommer, 2002). At the same time however, these representations of homosexuals, although more frequent, are often comically ridiculing and display only a stereotypical view of homosexuality.

The focus on political correctness in our society today might lead to a reduction in overtly stated discrimination against homosexuals and other stigmatized groups. However, people's prejudices have not completely disappeared and their more subtle nature might be evident in their interactions with homosexuals when they feel that their prejudice would be hard to pinpoint (Ewing, Stukas, & Sheehan, 2003). The prejudice that gay and lesbian youth still face affects their school experience and the ways in which they view themselves (Rossi, 1995).

Purpose

This research aimed to determine if individuals' responses to the perceived need to interact with a person from a stigmatized minority group would correspond or differ from their self-reported level of prejudice. An additional purpose was to determine the effect, of previous exposure to and friendships with homosexuals, on an individuals' overall level of prejudice and specifically to a social situation with a homosexual. This research also aimed to discover which variables are associated with prejudice towards homosexuals.

Hypothesis

It is hypothesized that there would be a difference in the evaluation of the other person in the group ability task depending on whether the situation was believed to involve a homosexual or a neutral person whose sexual orientation was not a salient characteristic. Further, it was hypothesized that there would be a difference in the evaluation of the homosexual person based on whether a person had an overall high or

low prejudice level as determined by the questionnaire in the first half of the study. It was also believed that females would tend to be less prejudiced against homosexuals then males which would further support previous findings (Ellis, Kitzinger, Wilkinson, 2002). It was additionally hypothesized that the more exposure and significant contact (e.g. through friendships) that a person had with homosexuals the lower their specific homosexual prejudice would be.

Theory

Modern racism is a term that has been used to describe the trend in society to act unprejudiced, but to still internally maintain prejudiced attitudes (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2002, p. 492). Although, the term racism brings to mind only racial prejudice this concept actually relates to the trend of concealing all forms of overt prejudice that has been evident in society. Considering that this study was focusing on prejudice based on sexual orientation the concept was referred to as modern prejudice.

It is believed that individuals need to hide their prejudiced feelings because society has condemned the idea of prejudice, but has not necessarily provided enough positive information and exposure to stigmatized groups to adequately dispel the feelings of prejudice. It is for this reason that individuals have resorted to the use of impression management (altering one's words and behavior to fit the social situation) and positive self-presentation skills to appear unprejudiced. It has been found that some individuals, in this case students, will actually go to extreme measures to seem unprejudiced by rating the stigmatized group member (homosexual lecturer) as higher then a neutral group member (lecturer assumed to be heterosexual) after a weak lecture (Ewing et al., 2003).

It is important to determine the level of actual prejudice that still exists in society. Questionnaires provide individuals with an anonymous forum in which they can state their true feelings, however the overt questioning of prejudice that is found in most questionnaires may still prompt individuals to feel the need to hide their prejudice. It is therefore believed that subtle behavioral manipulations may provide another avenue for measuring prejudice. Additionally, it is necessary to try to develop strategies that may help to reduce prejudice and not just to hide it behind politically correct words and actions.

The two-step model of cognitive processing of stereotypes developed by Patricia Devine proposes one way to move beyond prejudiced thoughts (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2002). The first step of the model is automatic processing. This is when contact with a stereotyped group member or a stereotypical statement automatically activates and brings to mind prejudice against that stigmatized group. These thoughts are not consciously brought to mind, but rather triggered by the current event. In order to escape the negative effects of these thoughts, individuals must move to the second step of the model, which is controlled processing. It is through controlled processing that the person recognizes the prejudiced thoughts and makes a conscious effort to ignore the thoughts or to find information that disproves them.

The contact hypothesis states that for prejudice to truly be reduced it needs to be more than just mere contact, but rather the contact must be meaningful and needs to meet certain conditions (Allport, 1954/1979). Six conditions have been established that need to be met in order to reduce prejudice through contact (Aronson et al., 2002). First, the groups must have mutual interdependence where their success depends on working with

the stigmatized group. Second, both groups must be striving for a common goal. Third, both groups must be of equal status during the contact situations. Fourth, the contact must occur in a casual and friendly setting which promotes their one-on-one interaction with members of the other group. Fifth, the individual must be able to recognize the out-group members as positive representatives of their whole group and not just as rare exceptions. Finally, the sixth aspect of this process is that the contact can serve to reduce prejudice against the stigmatized group.

Although, outward prejudice against homosexuals has been greatly reduced in society until adequate processes have been developed to measure and reduce the levels of internal prejudice, homosexuals will still be physically and psychologically abused and discriminated against by the majority heterosexual society.

Definitions

Heterosexual – a person who is romantically attracted to individuals of the opposite sex.

Homosexual – a person who is romantically attracted to individuals of the same sex as themselves.

Gay – a man who is romantically attracted to other men and not to women.

Lesbian – a woman who is romantically attracted to other woman and not to men.

Prejudice – "a hostile or negative attitude toward a group of people, based solely

on their membership in that group" (Aronson et al., 2002, p. 460). "Modern Prejudice" – this is the presence of more subtle racism and a lessening of overt racism, which reflects societal pressure to appear less prejudiced. The more subtle forms of prejudice are preferred because they can be more easily hidden.

Assumptions

It was assumed that because the prejudice scales were imbedded among other personality scales that participants did not know that the focus of the study was homosexual prejudice. If individuals were aware that homosexual prejudice was the focus, this knowledge may have affected their responses. It was also assumed that the behavioral situation, in which some individuals were meant to infer that they would be working with a homosexual, was realistic and believable. Assumptions were also made that the behavioral evaluation component was an adequate way to determine whether individuals were prejudiced against interactions with homosexuals. Finally, it was assumed that the perspectives of individuals and the levels of prejudice in this subset of a mid-sized public university is somewhat generalizable to the overall trends occurring in levels of homosexual prejudice and interactions with homosexuals.

Limitations

One possible limitation is that the study was conducted only with college students whose prejudicial views may not be representative of the entire population and all age levels. Also, the study's small sample size in phase 2 may serve to reduce generalizability. It may be limiting that in phase 2 the participants did not fill out an established questionnaire about their level of prejudice against homosexuals, but rather

that the presence of prejudice was determined by their evaluation of working with a partner.

<u>Overview</u>

The following chapter explores the presence of both overt and covert prejudice against homosexuals. It will also discuss the feelings of homosexuals who have experienced this prejudice and look at possible ways to combat and lessen the prejudice against them in our society especially in the school setting. The third chapter discusses the actual design of this study and the tasks that the participants were required to complete. The fourth chapter presents the results and provides an in-depth analysis of the data gathered. The fifth and final chapter discusses the findings of the research including possible ramifications for the study of homosexual prejudice and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

The Nature of Prejudice

Prejudice is defined as "a hostile or negative attitude toward a group of people, based solely on their membership in that group" (Aronson et al., 2002). According to social dominance theory prejudice serves as a way to legitimize and perpetuate the existing social hierarchy (Quist & Resendez, 2002). If high status individuals are able to rationalize their prejudiced beliefs by stating that "this is the way things always were" or "this is the way they are suppose to be" then these beliefs will continue to effect the way they interact with minority groups. Quist and Resendez determined that individuals high in social dominance orientation were the most prejudiced when they believed that there was a threat to their group's superior status in society.

Individuals whose group identity was central to their self-identity were particularly affected if their group was negatively evaluated (Dietz-Uhler & Murrell, 1998). Further, Dietz-Uhler and Murrell found that individuals who highly identified with a group based part of their self-esteem on their group's success and prestige, whereas individuals without strong group identification did not measure their self-esteem upon group success and were therefore less affected by threats to the group status. These findings can be used to help explain the presence of prejudice in our society. It can be hypothesized that individuals who are the most highly prejudiced are also highly identified with their social group and fear a threat to the group which promotes their prejudice of out-group

members. The stereotypes of their in-group are highly valued and are often adopted as one's personal attitudes (S.A. Haslam & Wilson, 2000). People maintain their sense of self by reacting defensively to a threat (which can result in prejudiced behavior), this reaction is seen as a coping strategy that protects the individuals from a loss of selfesteem (Dietz-Uhler & Murrell). Jellison, McConnell, and Gabriel (2004) found this relationship in heterosexual men's negative correlation between attitudes of heterosexuality and homosexuality. Their identity with traditional heterosexual roles increased their positive evaluation of heterosexuals, which alternatively resulted in negative evaluations of homosexuals (Jellison et al.). The homosexual way of life can not be endorsed by these men if they are to hold on the self-esteem enhancing belief of heterosexual superiority.

Personality factors have also been related to prejudice. Ekehammer and Akrami (2003) found that two out of the Big Five personality factors are related to prejudice. Specifically, they found that Openness to Experience (r = -0.45, p < 0.001) and Agreeableness (r = -0.45, p < 0.001) were negatively correlated with generalized prejudice. It is also interesting to note that seven different scales of prejudice were used in the study and that they all were highly correlated with one another and could therefore be reduced into one generalized prejudice factor. If all the different forms of prejudice are highly correlated then individuals who score high on a general prejudice should also be prejudice to a specific group such as homosexuals.

The root of prejudice lies in stereotyping of groups. Although, stereotypes often have aspects of truth in them and do serve a valid purpose in allowing us to organize and categorize the vast amounts of information that the world presents, there are many

negative aspects of stereotyping. Stereotyping stops serving a purpose when it actually becomes a way of confining people and prevents us from seeing the uniqueness that is present in all individuals. Stereotypes are meant to provide us with a general frame of reference for an entire group, but not to be rigidly applied to all individuals who are members of that group (Hamilton, Sherman, & Ruvolo, 1990). Once activated stereotypes have a way of becoming self-confirming. Even behaviors that are fairly ambiguous can be perceived as confirming evidence. People's expectations in a situation, which are fueled by their stereotypes, can result in a self-fulfilling prophecy by altering the way they interact with the stereotyped group member, which in turn causes their reactionary behavior to confirm the negative stereotype (Hamilton et al.). It is believed that these stereotypic expectancies can be reduced through the presentation of disconfirming information about individuals in the stereotyped group (Hamilton et al.).

Prejudice Today

The presence of prejudice in our society remains a troubling problem in the twenty-first century. However, the advent of politically correct speech in recent years has made individuals more aware of the problematic nature of appearing prejudiced. Most people are now concerned that they will be labeled prejudiced, which is a term with a very negative connotation in our present culture. As a result reported prejudice has declined (McConahay, Hardee, & Batts, 1981). The form of prejudice that remains is more subtle and is therefore accepted because it is not recognized by most of society as prejudice (McConahay et al.). Some examples of these new forms of prejudice are

holding back one's opinion, thwarting political correctness, and acting indifferent about race or sexual orientation (Korobov, 2004).

A study testing the presence of an anti-prejudice norm in society (Monteith, Deneen, & Tooman, 1996) found that the social norms have appeared to switch from the 1960's pro-prejudice norm to a current underlying anti-prejudice norm. Monteith et al.'s experiment demonstrated that the activation of an anti-prejudice norm through a confederates comment served to reduce prejudice when compared to a control group, yet a prejudiced comment by a confederate did not result in increased prejudice. It is believed that the motivation to appear unprejudiced has two possible sources. One motivating factor is a personal belief in anti-prejudice attitudes, however a desire to appear unprejudiced could also be based on accepting the need to hide one's true feelings in order to avoid confrontation or rebuke for their beliefs (Dunton & Fazio, 1997).

A new scale developed by Heavens et al. (2004) examined the relationship between political correctness and prejudice. The scale measured the degree to which individuals may lie on a questionnaire to appear unprejudiced. A strong negative correlation ($\mathbf{r} = -.57$, $\mathbf{p} < .01$) was found between scores on this scale and scores on the Modern Racism Scale. These findings suggested that lying to appear unprejudiced is a major component of the recent decrease in reported prejudice. This measure however, was not correlated with scores on the Attitudes Towards Gays and Lesbians Scale (ATGL) and scores in subtle, obvious, and bogus pipeline conditions were all similar. It was believed that this was because prejudice against gays and lesbians is still somewhat acceptable in our society and hence people are not lying to appear unprejudiced of gays and lesbians (Heavens et al.; Jellison et al., 2004; Thurlow, 2001). An alternative

interpretation is that a correlation between political correctness and homosexual prejudice might have been absent due to the prejudice scale that was used in the study. A newer scale the Modern Homonegativity Scale developed by Morrison and Morrison (2002) was found to be more useful with a college population and to have less floor effects then the Attitudes Towards Gays and Lesbian Scale.

As a result of the reduction of blatant prejudice, researchers (Meertens, & Pettigrew, 1997) have investigated the possible presence of subtle prejudice. The major difference between blatant and subtle prejudice is the overtness of the prejudice, with blatant prejudice falling within the overt category (Meertens & Pettigrew). The covert nature of subtle prejudice is more socially acceptable in our anti-prejudice culture. The Blatant and Subtle Prejudice Scale developed by Pettigrew and Meertens (1995) when tested with a cross-national European sample found a strong correlation (r = .48 to .70) between the blatant and subtle subscales. This strong correlation helped to determine that subtle prejudice is actually a form of prejudice. It was further determined by Meertens and Pettigrew that subtle prejudice added an important level of distinction in the presence of prejudice especially among the young and well educated in societies with strong antiprejudice norms, which results in their very low scores on measures of blatant prejudice.

Through the use of the Blatant and Subtle Prejudice Scale a new category of respondent type surfaced. Those high on both blatant and subtle prejudice were labeled by Meertens and Pettigrew (1997) as the "bigots", those low on both measures were labeled the "equalitarians", and those who were low on blatant prejudice, but high on subtle prejudice were labeled the "subtles." The subtles, which comprised half of the 3,806 participants in the Meertens and Pettigrew study, form a new category added to the

traditional black-and-white distinction of prejudiced or non-prejudiced. A hallmark of the response of the subtles was only expressing dislike for prejudiced groups when there was another obvious reason available for their negative evaluation (e.g. only supporting deportation of immigrant criminals and those without documentation) (Meertens & Pettigrew).

Ewing et al. (2003) found that students who listened to a lecture by either a neutral lecturer or homosexual lecturer evaluated the lectures differently. The strength of the lecture was also varied to create an opportunity where a poor lecture given by a homosexual may be evaluated more negatively by the students with the underlying excuse being that the lecture was bad not that they were critical of homosexuals (Ewing et al.). It was believed that this would be an avenue for subtle prejudice to become apparent because previous research (Moreno & Bodenhausen, 2001) found that individuals with high anti-gay affect only rated an essay about equality for homosexuals negatively when the excuse of poor grammatical structure was provided. Instead Ewing et al. found that students who listened to weak lectures rated the homosexual lecturer more favorably then the neutral lecturer, and that students who listened to strong lectures rated the neutral lecturer more favorably then the homosexual lecturer. The lecturers were actually the same person for the homosexual and the neutral category so that differences in ratings could not be due to lecturer differences. These findings support the black sheep effect (Marques, Robalo, & Rocha, 1992; Marques, & Yzerbyt, 1988; Marques, Yzerbyt, & Leyens, 1988).

The black sheep effect is related to in-group favoritism and social identity theory. An individual whose social identity is created by group norms over-values an ingroup

member who conforms to this norm (likeable) and over-devalues an ingroup member whose behavior goes against an accepted norm (unlikeable) (Marques, Yzerbyt, et al.) This is done in order to maintain ones self-belief that the group norms are very important (Marques, Yzerbyt, et al.). Ingroup individuals are placed at the two extremes of evaluation whereas outgroup members evaluation shows less variation. Because of the extreme rating of ingroup members, unlikeable outgroup members are actually rated higher than unlikeable ingroup members, but likeable ingroup members are rated above likeable outgroup members. The more narrow range of outgroup evaluation also supports the outgroup group homogeneity hypothesis, where outgroup members individuating characteristics which are less well known cause individuals to believe that all outgroup members are the same (Marques, Yzerbyt, et al.; Marques, Robalo, et al.).

Prejudice and Homosexuality

Homosexuals are a minority group which still encounters a great deal of prejudice in our society. Throughout history homosexuals have been marginalized and abused by the mainstream culture. Homosexuality has been labeled as deviant, criminal, and a psychological condition (Hiller, & Rosenthal, 2001). Consistently, between 1973 and 1991 approximately 70% of the public believed that same-sex sexual relations were wrong and only 25% of people even in 1996 had favorable feelings about homosexuals (Yang, 1997). Due to societies denigration of homosexuality many individuals have been forced to hide their homosexual orientation in social settings in order to avoid prejudiced treatment.

Schools are often a particularly prejudiced environment for young homosexuals. Individuals who are even suspected of being gay in a high school setting often experience derogatory taunting and threats of violence (Buston, & Hart, 2001). One study of high school students in the United Kingdom found that 10% of all derogatory comments where homophobic, which was significantly greater then the 7% of comments that were racist (Thurlow, 2001). Yet, the racist comments were considered to be much more serious and problematic by students than the homophobic comments, which were actually more volatile (Thurlow). Rey and Gibson (1997) found that 94.9% of surveyed college students reported making or laughing at derogatory jokes and comments about homosexuals particularly in middle school and high school. However, these students did not believe that their jokes and negative comments harmed anyone and often used them very casually (Rey & Gibson; Thurlow). One student who engaged in continued taunting of a classmate which resulted in them eventually leaving the school was proud that they had never used physical violence. They stated that "the administration would never intervene in name-calling but physical abuse would not be tolerated. Besides I have more class than that" (qtd. in Rey & Gibson). Thurlow found that 82% of surveyed teachers were aware of instances of verbal homophobic bullying and that 26% were aware of physical homophobic bullying. Yet, only 6% of surveyed schools had policies about dealing with homophobic bullying and most teachers were unsure of what they should do to intervene (Thurlow). It is especially disturbing that these abusive interactions are often observed by other students and teachers who choose to ignore this inappropriate behavior (Buston & Hart). Ignoring homophobic attacks on students serves only to legitimize this behavior and to ensure that it will continue in the future.

Buston and Hart (2001) found that over half of the sex education teachers that they observed were either demonstrating overt homophobia or assuming a heterosexist world in their teachings. Teachers who were overtly prejudiced in their classroom told inappropriate jokes, associated homosexuality with HIV/AIDS and pedophilia, and made statements such as "it's difficult for normal men to be friends with gays" (qtd in Buston & Hart). Not only were these teachers creating a negative environment for homosexual students, they were also teaching the next generation that: homosexuals are unacceptable and are meant to be harassed. Adolescents spend half of their waking hours in the school setting and deserve, whether heterosexual or homosexual, to have a safe environment to learn (Hiller & Rosenthal, 2001).

Teachers expressed many reasons why they did not teach about homosexuality in their sexual education classrooms. Consistently teachers reported personal and students' discomfort with the topic, feeling that they could not be neutral in discussing a topic they had strong feelings about (Buston & Hart, 2001). Lack of support from administration was also implicated, including an actual local law that prevented "promoting homosexuality by teaching or by publishing material" (qtd in Buston & Hart). One positive trend that can be noted was that in 1996, 75% of surveyed individuals felt that qualified homosexuals should be allowed to teach in a college setting, which was a drastic improvement over the 47% approval rating in 1973 (Yang, 1997). Yet prejudice against homosexuality is still evident at the collegiate level, with 28% of surveyed university professors stating that Lesbian/Gay/Bisexual (LGB) studies would not be valuable course-work for students, and one in three believing that there would be negative consequences of incorporating LGB information into the curriculum (Eliason,

1996). Often, a negative reaction is expected by the students, one professor explicitly stated "I think a good share of undergraduate students are narrowminded and prudish when it comes to sexuality. As a consequence I've eliminated nearly all reference to sexuality from my teaching..." (qtd. in Eliason). Additionally, Pilkington and Cantor (1996) found evidence of heterosexual bias and homosexual prejudice in the curriculum and the actions of professors in many psychology graduate programs.

Over half of the employees surveyed at a large university stated that they were uncomfortable working with LGB people, yet 60% on a later question expressed support in hiring a qualified LGB person (Eliason, 1996). This is another example of the subtle nature of modern prejudice. People's prejudiced feelings are still present but are tempered through the lens of political correctness. Agreeing with blatantly prejudiced blanket statements is recognized as inappropriate by almost all individuals now, yet the more specific questions do not elicit the need for politically correct responding to the same degree. This contradictory responding was also found by Ellis et al. (2002) with 93.9% of the psychology students surveyed agreed that sexual orientation should not affect a person's access to basic rights and freedoms, yet fewer than 50% felt homosexuals should have all the parenting rights of heterosexuals or should actively promote homosexuality as equal to heterosexuality in schools. Yang (1997) found that between 1994 and 1996, 83% of surveyed individuals felt that homosexuals should have equal rights in job opportunities, yet only 43% felt that they should be accorded the same civil rights as other groups. Although now the minority, some individuals are still blatantly prejudiced including one individual who stated "The day I'm required to hire one [an LGB person] is the day I quit" (qtd. in Eliason). Even one individual holding

such hostile views of homosexuality can create a threatening environment for a homosexual that disrupts the ability to work or learn.

Beyond just harassment in school and work settings, prejudice against homosexuals affects all aspects of their life. This includes homosexuals' participation in sports. Across the country Christian sports organizations in colleges and universities are trying to convert and cure homosexuals by making them into heterosexuals (Sykes, 2001). Also sports players tend to be especially homophobic of lesbians in their sport. In particular, this is true among competitive female tennis players, who attack lesbians for their muscular physique, stating that playing with them is like playing with a man (Sykes). They implied that their physical strength gives them an unfair advantage, but it is believed that their attacks are based in fear of a blurring in the distinction between heterosexual and homosexual women (Sykes).

The twentieth century was marked by an unnatural lack of homosexuality in the media's portrayal of American society. The topic has been considered so taboo it has virtually been ignored for the majority of television's history. A ground breaking made for television movie, *That Certain Summer*, in 1972 depicted a homosexual father explaining his orientation to a teenage son (Kielwasser & Wolf, 1992). Although this film was revolutionary it avoided the discussion of emerging sexuality that teenagers face (Kielwasser & Wolf). This film was followed throughout the 1980's and 1990's with occasional appearances of a homosexual character who was usually portrayed not as someone committed to a homosexual life, but rather as a confused teen not wanting to go against mainstream society or as a situational homosexual (Kielwasser & Wolf). Some recent shows such as *Will and Grace* (sitcom) and *Queer Eye for the Straight Guy*

(reality-based makeover show) do center around gay individuals. However, *Will and Grace*'s humor centers around a stereotypically comical gay character which serves to perpetuate stereotypes not reduce them. Also, *Queer Eye for the Straight Guy* portrays gays as flamboyant and effeminate and distinctly different from heterosexuals. Although, the fact that gay and lesbian characters can now be seen on television at all is progress, but the ways in which they are depicted still needs to be improved if the goal is to truly reduce homophobic prejudice.

America's misperception of homosexuals can be partly understood through the traits that they typically associate with homosexuals. Male homosexuals are seen to have the same traits as heterosexual women including: being helpful, gentle, emotional, devoted, kind, and aware of feelings (Pardine, Gioia, & LaPadula, 2004). These traits although positive are directly opposing typical male traits and therefore are degraded when present in a male. Female homosexuals are viewed as a combination of both typically heterosexual male and female traits (Pardine et al.). It may be because female homosexuals are still viewed as embodying some of the traits of heterosexual women, that lesbians are typically not as harshly prejudiced against as gay men. Similarly, Pardine et al. found that individuals who scored low on prejudice against gay men believed that they had traits characteristic of heterosexual men in addition to traits of heterosexual women. Whereas, those scoring high on prejudice towards gay men did not believe that male homosexuals possessed typical male heterosexual traits (Pardine et al.)

Prejudice against homosexuals is also affected by the presence of essentialist beliefs (Allport, 1954/1979). Essentialist beliefs state that a characteristic is an essential part of the person, natural, inevitable, and immutable (N. Haslam, Rothschild, & Ernst,

2002). N. Haslam et al. (2002) found that anti-gay attitudes were predicted by the belief that homosexuality was discrete (different from sexual normality), not natural (nonbiological), mutable (chosen), and present throughout history. Prejudice against homosexuals was associated with a blend of anti-essentialist beliefs (non-natural and mutable) and essentialist beliefs (discrete and historical continuity). It has been found that when homosexuality was believed to have a biological basis people were less prejudiced against homosexuals because they felt it was uncontrollable (N. Haslam et al.; Sakali, 2002; Whitley, 1990). However, belief in a biological basis of homosexuality may also result in homosexuals being seen as members of an entirely different species which may lead to further prejudice and alienation (N. Haslam et al.) Therefore, promotion of a biological viewpoint of homosexuality, which has gained greater acceptance in recent years (Yang, 1997) may not have the desired prejudice reducing effects.

Homosexuals' Experiences

Research into the experiences of homosexuals has provided valuable insights into the effect of prejudice in their lives. Before the development of HIV there was little research on the lives of homosexuals (Hiller & Rosenthal, 2001). Before the medical need to understand and protect all forms of sexual practice, homosexuals as a group were considered inaccessible for research because of lack of funding for such a controversial topic and homosexuals own fears of stigmatization (Hiller & Rosenthal). Even since then the research that has been done has often been of poor quality and included methodological errors (Savin-Williams, 2001).

Research on homosexuality tended to focus on the differences between homosexuals and heterosexuals hence fostering and perpetuating stereotypes (Savin-Williams). It is important to recognize that all homosexuals are not the same and that above all else homosexual adolescents are still adolescents with many of the same problems as other adolescents (Savin-Williams). It also must be considered that any research that is based on self-identified gay and lesbian students will be missing the opinions of those struggling to determine and accept their sexual orientation and/or those who are not comfortable disclosing their sexual orientation in a research setting (Savin-Williams).

Research has found gay, lesbian, and bisexual youth tended to score higher on a depression scale and lower on a self-esteem scale then did straight males and females (Rossi, 1995). One sample of 194 gay, lesbian, and bisexual youth found that forty-two percent had attempted suicide at least once (Hershberger, Pilkington, & D'Augelli, 1997). The most prevalent approach used by 70% of attempters was drug overdose (Hershberger et al.). Although a large percent attempted suicide, it is important when considering homosexual youths' risk of suicide, to identify the specific factors that lead to low and high risk levels, in an attempt to understand that not all homosexual adolescents are suicidal (Savin-Williams, 2001). Hershberger et al. found distinct differences among homosexuals who attempted suicide versus those who did not. Those who had attempted suicide at least once had become aware of their sexual orientation at an earlier age and had their first same-sex sexual experience at a younger age and had more partners than non-attempters. Also, attempters were more open about their sexual orientation and as a result had endured more verbal and physical abuse and lost a greater number of friends

due to their sexual orientation than non-attempters (Hershberger et al.). There were also two main factors that correlated with multiple suicide attempts by homosexual adolescents: being bisexual (five times more likely to attempt more than once) and having current suicidal ideation (3 times more likely) (Hershberger et al.)

The perception of the prevalence of anti-homosexual attitudes varies between homosexual and heterosexual individuals (Brown, Clarke, Gortmaker, & Robinson-Keilig, 2004). Eliason (1996) found that 75% of homosexual respondents felt that antihomosexuals attitudes were prevalent on campus, yet only 28% of heterosexual respondents felt the attitudes were prevalent. Further, heterosexual college freshmen in Brown et al.'s study were less aware of anti-GLBT (Gay/Lesbian/Bisexual/ Transgendered) attitudes on campus than were heterosexual juniors. This may have been related to the fact that freshmen also reported attending less pro-GLBT events on campus and less attitude change towards homosexuals during the academic year (Brown et al.) Freshmen may not have noticed the prevalence of anti-GLBT attitudes because they may have tended to hold those same views and did not find them unusual enough to be particularly note-worthy. The theory that more negative attitudes towards homosexuals can result in decreased awareness of anti-GLBT attitudes on campus was supported by findings that males held more negative views of homosexuals than females and also reported lower perceived anti-GLBT attitudes on campus (Brown et al.)

Conley et al. (2002) found that 46% of homosexual individuals were negative towards and suspicious of a situation where someone would discover their sexual orientation because they feared the repercussions they may face. Sixty-three percent of the people in this study reported that they had been harassed by highly prejudiced

individuals upon discovery that they were homosexual (Conley et al.). Although, this type of harassment could cause homosexuals to dislike and distrust all heterosexuals, it has been found that most homosexuals were able to subtype heterosexuals into three categories: high-prejudice, low-prejudice, and those who were well-intentioned but uncomfortable (Conley et al.). This subtyping allowed homosexuals to react with hostility and anger to high-prejudiced heterosexuals, to be friendly to low-prejudiced heterosexuals, and to want to educate and make comfortable those who were well-intentioned (Conley et al.).

Research appears to support the use of the contact hypothesis from the perspective of the minority group as well. Although, homosexuals are almost constantly exposed to majority out-group members, it has still been found that positive contact with heterosexual individuals has been correlated with more positive future reactions by homosexuals to encounters with heterosexuals (Conley et al., 2002). Homosexuals with high self-esteem report that if they believe that their homosexuality will be accepted by others, it is often accepted (Conley et al.)

Homosexuals must develop a sense of self-identity in a culture where their sexual orientation is devalued on a daily basis. It is even harder for gay individuals to develop a positive sense of self if they do not have support and validation of their lifestyle. This support often comes from the gay community after one has disclosed their sexual orientation to other homosexuals. Yet, homosexuals' acceptance of themselves is a precursor to disclosure of their sexual orientation to others (Stevens, 2004). The ability to find an inner strength can lead homosexuals to feeling a sense of empowerment that not only allows them to accept themselves but to actually embrace their identity

(Stevens). Jellison et al. (2004) found that gay men's more positive implicit attitudes toward homosexuality were related to being more involved in the gay culture. Explicit measures of homosexual attitudes in gay men revealed more positive evaluations of homosexuality in men who freely expressed their homosexuality to those around them (Jellison et al.).

Homosexuals are aware of the negative stereotypes that are associated with their lifestyle. They are also aware that the majority culture tends to see all members of the minority group as the same, denying that the same variability that exists within the majority is also present in the minority. This leads homosexuals to experience stereotype threat, which is the fear that their behavior will confirm a negative stereotype held by the majority (Aronson et al., 2002). This causes homosexuals to closely monitor their behaviors in public, feeling that they must represent a positive view of homosexuality for themselves and all homosexuals (Conley et al., 2002). This stereotype threat can even cause gay men to reject members of their community who are considered too effeminate or exotic (non-White gay men) and therefore confirm societies negative stereotypes (Stevens, 2004). This rejection only serves to further isolate and divide homosexuals who should instead be uniting against heterosexual homophobia.

Reducing Homophobia

Homophobia is a problem that greatly affects the lives of all homosexuals. Although, the visual presence of homosexuals in society has increased in recent years it is not enough to reduce prejudice. It has been found heterosexuals often still experience anxiety when they believe that they must interact with a homosexual individual (Cuenot,

& Fugita, 1982). This anxiety can lead to activation of prejudiced attitudes. As a result, recent research has been striving to find ways to reduce or hopefully to eliminate heterosexuals prejudice against homosexuals.

Research into the effects of college students attending a gay and lesbian panel discussion as part of a human sexuality course found that prejudice can not be eliminated through such brief contact with homosexuals (Chng & Moore, 1991). However, positive changes in homosexual prejudice were found among college freshmen who volunteered to help conduct social justice research on their campus and discovered the antihomosexual attitudes on their campus (Evans & Herriott, 2004). These positive changes were a result of extensive exposure to information about GLBT students' experiences and interactions with GLBT individuals. This type of extended contact leading to a reduction in prejudice supports the contact hypothesis developed by Allport (1954/1979).

Dovidio, Gaertner, Flores Nimann, and Snider (2001) found that prejudice towards stigmatized groups could be reduced if both in-group and out-group members were perceived to be part of a larger community. One example of this can be seen in college students' identification with their university. The higher identification with the university the less likely someone was to feel discriminated against on campus (Dovidio et al.). This reduced perception of discrimination was probably linked to an actual reduction in prejudiced interactions between in-group and out-group members because the salience of their both being members of the university community served to reduce negative feelings toward the 'other'. Monteith et al. (1996) found that a reduction in prejudice against homosexuals occurred for both low and high-prejudice heterosexuals after hearing a confederate make a positive non-prejudiced statement about homosexuals. Yet, there

was not a significant increase in prejudice after hearing a confederate make a negative prejudiced comment about homosexuals (Monteith et al.). This suggests that there is a stronger social norm to reduce prejudice then there is to be prejudiced (Monteith et al.). This social norm to reduce prejudice can be utilized by educators and the media as a way to minimize homophobia by presenting positive references of homosexuality. However, the practice of some educators to ignore homosexuality or to treat it completely neutrally will not help to make individuals more accepting of homosexuals.

It has been found that non-traditionalism was correlated with more positive evaluations of homosexuals (Mazur & Emmers-Sommer, 2002). In a study of the effects of exposure to a movie representing a non-traditional family (including homosexual parenting) it was found that women had more favorable reactions then men (Mazur & Emmers-Sommer). Women had more positive attitudes toward gay lifestyles and held more non-traditional attitudes as a result of viewing the film than men (Mazur & Emmers-Sommer). However, the overall prejudice against homosexuals did not differ compared to a control group after seeing such a film, which can be seen to offer further support to the need for extended positive representations of homosexuals to affect true attitude change (Mazur & Emmers-Sommer). In another study, the effects of disclosure of sexual orientation by a professor on student evaluations found that evaluations were equally positive in both the experimental and the control group (Liddle, 1997). However, an important factor that goes along with these findings is that the disclosure was not made until the end of the semester after the students had several months to become comfortable with the professor (Liddle). As a result the finding that sexual orientation did not effect evaluation provides evidence that when sexual orientation is not

the most salient characteristic of a person, knowledge of homosexuality may not negatively affect interpersonal evaluations.

A distinct difference has been observed in males' versus females' levels of prejudice against homosexuals. Males in a majority of studies have been found to be more homophobic than women, particularly towards gay men. Whereas, women who had anti-LGB attitudes usually expressed a "love the sinner, hate the sin" perspective (qtd. in Eliason). This difference may be due to the fact that society typically judges male homosexuals more harshly than lesbians (Chng & Moore, 1991). It has also been found that male heterosexuals' prejudice against homosexuals was much more resistant to change than females' prejudiced attitudes (Finken, 2002). However, some studies have not found a gender difference in homophobia including, Eliason (1996) who found almost identical rates of homophobia between males and females (18% and 16.5% respectively). Also, contrary to expectations Finken found no significant difference between males and females initial homophobia.

Research seems to show that individuals who know a homosexual individual are less prejudiced than those who do not know any homosexuals (Whitley, 1990). Infact, Sakalli and Ugurlu (2002) found that a small but significant positive change in attitudes towards homosexuals after a one hour conversation with a lesbian, among individuals who had never before met a homosexual person. Herek and Capitanio (1996) found that prejudice against homosexuals was further reduced for each additional homosexual friend a person has. It was also found that prejudice was reduced more if the person was a close friend or immediate family member compared to an acquaintance or a distant family member (Herek & Capitanio). Therefore, some of the reduction in prejudice noted in

recent years may be a result of an increase in individuals reporting having a friend who is homosexual (only 24% in 1983 compared to 56% in 1996) (Yang, 1997). Also, younger college students were found to be more prejudiced and less supportive of homosexual social and political rights (Ellis et al., 2002). It is possible that these younger students are more prejudiced because they have not yet had many opportunities for significant interactions or friendships to develop with homosexual individuals.

Multiple benefits for both homosexuals and heterosexuals were found to be associated with cross-sexual orientation friendships among adolescent females (Galupo & St John, 2001). Increased closeness and trust developed among the friends after disclosure of the one's sexual orientation. Although, not all people react acceptingly, the fact that these friends did served to strength the friendship. Also, this acceptance helped homosexuals to increase their self-acceptance and self-esteem and to realize that not all heterosexuals were judgmental and that friendship with a heterosexual person was possible (Galupo & St John). The acceptance of their differences allowed them to focus on the many ways in which the two women were similar (Galupo & St John). Friendship with a homosexual increased the heterosexual women's sensitivity to homosexual perspectives and often led them to feel obligated to defend homosexuality when it was being denigrated (Galupo & St John). In fact, some of the heterosexual women actually learned to see their sexuality as more 'fluid' and considered the possibility of becoming a homosexual or bisexual individual in the future (Galupo & St John). These friendships helped to break down stereotypes held by both homosexuals and heterosexuals by allowing them to realize that all members of the out-group were not the same (Galupo & St John).

It is also believed that a change in attitude may develop over an extended period of time and not be captured in traditional pre-test, post-test experiments that do not allow for several weeks to pass in between the two testing times (Finken, 2002). This theory is based on Finken's finding that although reduction of prejudice eventually occurred for females (but not men), the reduction was not evident shortly after the exposure to information about homosexuals, but was of a significant level at the end of the semester. Bohan (1997) in a qualitative study of the effects of a course on the psychology of sexual orientation found that the course was well received by both heterosexuals and homosexuals. It was recommended that information on sexual orientation be included in social psychology, psychology of women, psychology of gender, or diversity courses if an entire course on sexual orientation was not possible (Bohan). It is believed that this type of in-depth study of the psychology surrounding sexual orientation can result in reduced prejudice against homosexuals. However, research into long-term attitude changes about homosexuals has not been conducted and it is possible that these reductions in prejudice seen in some studies may be short-lived.

CHAPTER III

Design

Participants

Two hundred and sixty-three undergraduate students participated in the first phase of the study. These students completed the experiment either as partial fulfillment of an introductory psychology course requirement or as volunteers recruited by going into classrooms and with teacher permission asking students to fill out the questionnaire during class time. Many of these professors also offered the students extra credit for participating in the study. Nine individuals who completed phase 1 had to be dropped from the study. Four of these individuals were removed because they indicated that they were homosexual and five individuals were removed because they were neutral on the homosexual prejudice scales and could not be properly categorized as low or high prejudice. Therefore all analysis of phase 1 was based on 254 participants, 69 males and 185 females. The mean age for phase 1 participation was 21.71, ages ranged from 18 to 51. Of those that completed phase 1, 155 volunteered to be contacted to participate in phase 2. Ninety-five individuals were actually contacted to complete phase 2 a minimum of 1 week later. All low and high prejudice males and all high prejudice females were contacted to complete phase 2, but due to the very large number of low prejudice females a random sampling was contacted. Phase 2 was completed by 53 individuals, 25 males (11 high prejudice, 14 low prejudice) and 28 females (8 high prejudice, 20 low prejudice). The mean age for phase 2 participation was 21.40, ages

ranged from 18 to 46. The research was conducted at a mid-sized public university in Southern New Jersey.

Measures

The design of the study was in two parts: phase 1 a long questionnaire administered in a group/classroom setting, and phase 2 a behavioral component that consisted of a math test and a short questionnaire about their perception of individual versus group ability. The questionnaire in phase 1 actually consisted of several published questionnaires and several that have been designed specifically for the purpose of this study. The questions in these questionnaires were integrated into one long questionnaire in an effort to hinder participants from determining the true aim of the study. The published questionnaires include the Modern Homonegativity Scale (Morrison & Morrison, 2002), the Modern Racism Scale (McConahay, 1986), the Political Correctness Scale (Heavens et al, 2004), and the Self-esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965).

The Modern Homonegativity Scale (MHS) consisted of two separate scales one addressing homonegativity towards gay men (MHS-G) and the other addressing homonegativity towards lesbians (MHS-L). The scales can be used separately or together and the 12 item scales are identical except the use of the terms "gay men" or "lesbians" in the questions (Morrison & Morrison, 2002). The MHS had been shown to have high reliability with an alpha coefficient of .91 for males and females on the MHS-G and .89 for males and .85 for females on the MHS-L (Morrison, and Morrison). The validity of the MHS was demonstrated by its positive correlation with modern sexism,

r = .59 for males and .57 for females (Morrison & Morrison). These scales were believed to more accurately assess current homophobia then older measures because when tested by Morrison and Morrison in three studies they consistently showed less floor effects then did older measures of homophobia. In this particular study participants completed both the MHS-G and the MHS-L. One word in the 11th question was altered in both the MHS-G and MHS-L, where "Canadians' tax dollars" was replaced with "Americans' tax dollars". The scores on the two scales were summed to create a homophobia score for each participant, but were also analyzed separately to see if there was a difference in the presence of homonegativity based on the gender of the participant and the version of the scale.

The Modern Racism Scale (McConahay, 1986) included six-items that were determined to be a better assessment of current racism compared to older scales. The measure had been shown to have good reliability with alpha coefficients for college students ranging from .81 to .86 (McConahay, 1983). The scales validity was determined by its r = .59 correlation with the Old Fashioned Racism Scale (McConahay, 1986). For the purpose of this study in addition to the Modern Racism Scale, a modified version that asks about perceptions of Jews was also administered. The only wording change was replacing "blacks" with either "Jews" or "Jewish" throughout the scale. This modification was necessary to create another group that participants rated their level of prejudice against. The presence of prejudice questions relating to homosexuals, Blacks, and Jews helped to disguise the actual purpose of the study.

The Political Correctness Scale (PC)(Heavens et al, 2004), a 22 item scale, measured the likelihood of individuals to lie to appear more politically correct. The

scale was found to have high reliability with Cronbach's alpha = .80 (Heavens et al.). The scale was found to be positively correlated with scores on the Impression Management Scale r = .64, p< .01 and the Self-Deceptive Denial Scale r = .70, p<.01 (Heavens et al). This measure was included in the present study to determine if individuals were likely to lie to appear non-homophobic. Although, Heavens et al. did not find a significant correlation between homophobia scores and PC scores, they were using an older measure of homophobia which may not have fully captured modern homophobia in the same manner as the MHS.

The Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), is a 10 item scale frequently used to measure individuals' self-esteem. In fact the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is believed to be the most widely used measure of self-esteem in the social sciences ("The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale"). The scale had high reliability with Cronbach's alpha ranging from .77 to .88 depending on the sample population ("The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale"). The scale had high reliability with cronbach's alpha ranging from .77 to .88 depending on the sample population ("The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale"). The scale was used here as both a filler to help camouflage the true aim of the study and to determine if there was a correlation with homophobia and an individuals' self-esteem.

Several questionnaires were created for phase 1 of this study. The Demographics sheet provided information such as race, religion, grade level, and identity with the university that was analyzed to determine if a correlation existed between any of these variables and the level of homophobia present. A Contact Questionnaire that asked about their knowledge of particular groups (Jews, Hispanics, Homosexuals, and Blacks), allowed analysis to be done to determine if certain types of contact were related with lower levels of homophobia. A Working With Groups Questionnaire that asked about their experience/feelings about working with a partner/group provided a baseline

comparison for the same questions presented in phase 2. The creation of 10 filler questions that were interspersed throughout the long questionnaire further helped to disguise the aim of the research.

For phase 2, a math test was developed which consisted of 9-12th grade algebra problems taken from the SureMath website:

(http://www2.hawaii.edu/suremath/k4_12dir/k4_12menu.html). Additionally, a Perception of Individual versus Group Ability Questionnaire was created. This questionnaire was the main evaluation of individual's prejudice against homosexuals in a behavioral situation by determining if people more often stated that they would not like working with the partner or like the partner as a friend in the experimental versus the control condition. The answers on these questions were also compared to their answers on the Working With Groups Questionnaire completed in phase 1 and their homophobia score from phase 1. An Experimental Manipulation Questionnaire, was also created to check for their knowledge of the purpose of the study. The created scales are included in the Appendix.

Procedure

Participants completed phase 1 of the study in their classroom during class time, however participation was completely voluntary. Additionally, some participants were recruited through sign-up sheets posted outside of the psychology department and completed the questionnaire in a group setting, but not during class time. The questionnaire which they were told was measuring college students' personality and attitudes, took 10-15 minutes to complete. At a later time, the experimenter determined

the homophobia score for each individual. Individuals who fell into the necessary male/female and low prejudice/high prejudice categories and who had stated on the informed consent that they were willing to participate in another study (phase 2) being conducted by the same experimenter, were contacted. Also, as an incentive to participate in phase 2, it stated on the informed consent that individuals who participated in the second experiment would be entered into a prize drawing for one of four \$25 gift certificates to a local restaurant. When participants were contacted to return for phase two they were scheduled for an individual appointment time, because phase 2 needed to be conducted individually. When the participants arrived for phase 2 they signed a new informed consent and were told that the experiment they were about to participate in was researching the differences between individual and group ability. They were then given a math test to complete and were timed by the experimenter. Participants were only allowed to work on the math test for 10 minutes. The participants were then taken to another room where they were told that they would be working with another person to complete a similar math test to determine if their speed and accuracy was affected by working with a partner. In this room there was a white binder with either a plain cover or a cover that had a collage depicting pro-homosexual references. There was also a gray fleece vest on a chair, a pen, and a Rowan University notebook on the table to give the appearance that a real person had dropped their belongings off in the room. The participant was told that was the person that they would be working with and that the person must have just left for a minute to go to the bathroom or to get a beverage. The experimenter then left the room for about one and a half minutes to retrieve paperwork from the first testing area. This was done to allow the participant to have sufficient time

to look at the belongings of their partner. When the experimenter returned they expressed surprise that the partner had not yet returned. They then stated that the first task they would have done even if the participant was there was to fill out a brief questionnaire about their perception of working by themselves versus working with a partner. They were then asked if they could complete the questionnaire while they waited. A questionnaire was also placed at the seat of the other "participant" to increase the realness of the situation. The experimenter also recorded the position of the seat that the participant chose to sit in; to determine if seat choice was affected by prejudice level. The experimenter then stated that they do not know where the other person was and that they would only wait a few more minutes and that if the person did not return they would have them skip ahead to the end of the experiment. After a few minutes elapsed the participants were asked to answer a few questions about what they felt the experiment was testing and if they were aware of the sexual orientation of the person they were suppose to work with (the Experimental Manipulation Questionnaire). If participants stated that they could not answer the questions about the person because they had not met them they were asked to simply guess. Additionally, if the participants wanted to wait for the partner to return they were allowed to wait another minute and then it was suggested that the other person may not return and that they should answer the final questionnaire. After completing the Experimental Manipulation Questionnaire participants were told that the actual intent of the experiment was to determine individuals' reaction to the perceived need to interact with either a neutral or a homosexual person. They were also informed that phase 2, which they believed to be a different experiment, was actually a continuation of the original experiment that they

participated in and that answers would be analyzed to determine if there were any changes between self-report and attitudes in the behavioral situation. Any questions they had were answered and they were given a written debriefing and contact information in case they had any future questions or concerns. Finally, they were asked to maintain the confidentiality of the true purpose of the study so as not to contaminate the results of future participants. They were thanked for their participation and were free to leave.

Design

The study was designed to test the prevalence of prejudice against homosexuals in a sample of the undergraduate population. An additional objective was to determine if there was a difference between the levels of prejudice that individuals self-report on prejudice questionnaires versus the way they reacted in a behavioral situation where they believed that they would have to interact with a homosexual individual to complete a task. The design of the study was a 2 (level of prejudice: low vs. high) x 2 (gender) x 2 (condition: control vs. homosexual interaction) between subjects factorial.

Testable Hypothesis

Ho: There would be no difference in homosexual prejudice based on gender.

- Hi: There would be a difference in homosexual prejudice by gender with females being less prejudiced.
- Ho: There would be no difference in homosexual prejudice based on contact with homosexuals.

Hi: There would be a difference in homosexual prejudice based on contact with

homosexuals, with greater contact associated with lower prejudice.

- Ho: There would be no relationship between homosexual prejudice and political correctness.
- Hi: There would be a relationship between homosexual prejudice and political correctness.
- Ho: There would be no difference in perception of working with a person based on gender of the participants.
- Hi: There would be a difference in perception of working with a person based on gender of the participants.
- Ho: There would be no difference in perception of working with a person based on prejudice level.
- Hi: There would be a difference in perception of working with a person based on prejudice level.
- Ho: There would be no difference in perception of working with a person based on condition.
- Hi: There would be a difference in perception of working with a person based on condition.

<u>Analysis</u>

Due to the likert scale nature of almost all the questions throughout phase 1 and phase 2, non-parametric tests were done on the majority of the data. A chi-square test of independence was used to determine the relationship if any between gender, prejudice level, and reaction to perceived interaction with a homosexual. Also, Pearson correlations were done with many of the individual questions and some questionnaires used in the experiment to help further determine the factors associated with prejudice against homosexuals. In phase 2, an ANOVA was conducted to determine the effect of various variables on the likelihood that the participant would choose to be friends with the partner outside of the experimental setting.

Summary

Undergraduate volunteers completed phase 1 of the experiment which consisted of a long questionnaire. Those who returned to participate in phase 2, described their feelings surrounding a perceived interaction that was going to involve a neutral or a homosexual individual. The data was analyzed mainly using non-parametric tests to determine if gender or pre-existing levels of homophobia had an effect on their perception of working with a homosexual.

CHAPTER: IV

Results

Overview

In an attempt to determine the levels of prejudice against homosexuals present in this college sample, a variety of measures were used. The Modern Homonegativity Scale (Morrison and Morrison, 2002) both the gay and lesbian versions were administered as part of a longer questionnaire. The score on the two versions of the scale were summed to determine an individual's overall level of homosexual prejudice. These scores have been analyzed to determine what factors have a statistically significant effect on homosexual prejudice, in particular gender and previous contact with homosexuals. Questions in phase 2 assessed individual's perception of working with a person who was represented as either a neutral person or as a homosexual. The questions presented in phase 2 have been analyzed to determine if there was a statistically significant effect based on condition, gender, or prejudice level.

Restatement of Hypothesis

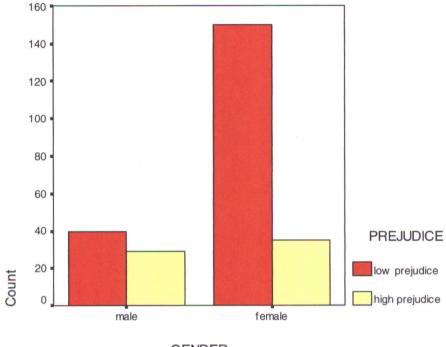
The first hypothesis stated that gender would have a significant affect on level of prejudice. Specifically, it was predicted that females would be less prejudice than males. The second hypothesis stated that previous contact with homosexuals would serve to reduce homosexual prejudice. The third hypothesis stated that homosexual prejudice would be correlated with political correctness. The fourth hypothesis stated that gender

would have an effect on perception of working with a person. The fifth hypothesis stated that there would be a difference in perception of working with the person based on initial prejudice level. The sixth hypothesis stated that there would be a difference in working with a person based on what condition that individual was in, dependent upon whether they believed their partner was a neutral person or homosexual.

Statements of Significance

The affect of gender on homosexual prejudice level was assessed using a Chi Square analysis; $\chi^2(1, N = 254) = 14.240$, $p \le .001$. Through this analysis it was determined that gender had a significant affect on prejudice with males being significantly more prejudiced than females. Figure 4.1 represented the difference in the mean prejudice score by gender; with males (N = 69) having a mean score of 69.93 and females (N = 185) having a mean score of 58.35.

Figure 4.1 Affect of Gender on Homosexual Prejudice





The affect of knowledge of homosexuality on the level of homosexual prejudice in an individual was tested using Kendall's Tau-b; τ (N = 253) = -.167, p \leq .003. Through this analysis it was determined that level of knowledge about homosexuality had a significant affect on an individual's prejudice against homosexuals. Specifically, greater knowledge seemed to be associated with less prejudice. Figure 4.2 suggested that low prejudiced individuals tend to have greater levels of knowledge about homosexuality then do individuals who are high prejudiced.

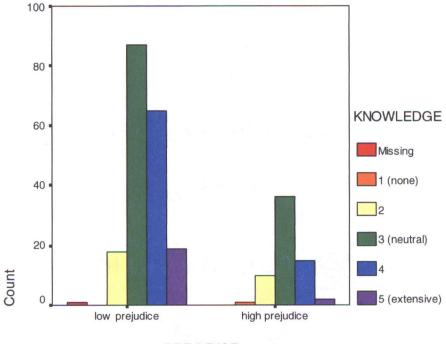


Figure 4.2 Affect of Knowledge of Homosexuality on Prejudice



The questionnaire in phase 1 asked individuals to specify the exact sources from which they received their information about homosexuality. They were provided with seven choices including: media, personal contact, school, family, non-homosexual friends, homosexual friends, or that their knowledge came from being a member of that group. All of the questions were analyzed using the continuity correction chi square analysis. The affect of being a member of the group on prejudice was not analyzed because the 254 subjects being analyzed were all self-reported heterosexuals due to the fact that they did not check that they were a member of the homosexual community.

Analysis of the data suggested a significant affect on prejudice level if knowledge of homosexuality was based upon personal contact with homosexual individuals; χ^2 (1, N = 254) = 8.223, p \leq .004, continuity correction. Figure 4.3 showed that low prejudice individuals significantly more frequently stated that they had knowledge from personal contact.

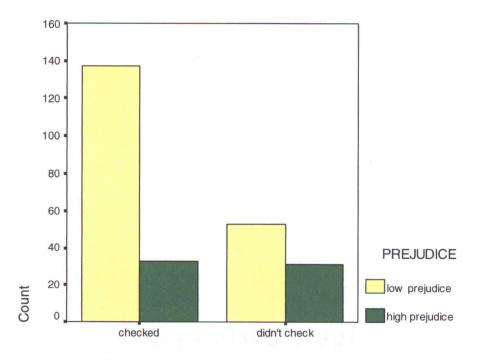
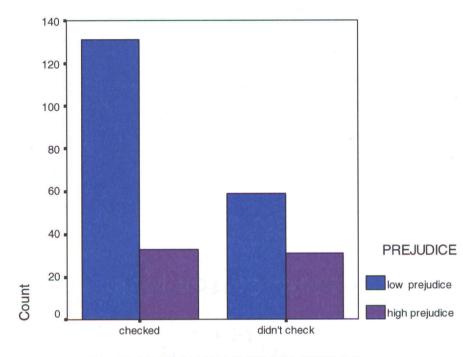


Figure 4.3 Affect of Personal Contact with Homosexuals on Prejudice



The data also suggested that knowledge of homosexuality which stemmed from friends that are gay had a significant affect on prejudice level; $\chi^2(1, N = 254) = 5.587$, $p \le .018$. Figure 4.4 showed that low prejudice individuals were more likely to state that their knowledge came from friends that were homosexual.







Prejudice against homosexuals was also significantly affected by the number of friends that an individual had who were homosexual; τ (N = 254) = -.159, p ≤ .006. Figure 4.5 suggested that having at least one friend that was a homosexual may have an impact on an individual's level of homosexual prejudice. However, the greatest difference between those with low versus high prejudice appeared to be in the proportion of individuals who had 5 homosexual friends. A much higher proportion of low prejudice compared to high prejudice individuals had 5 homosexual friends.

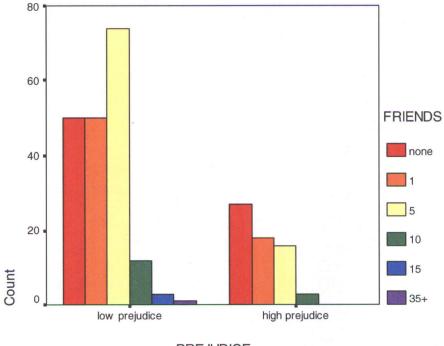
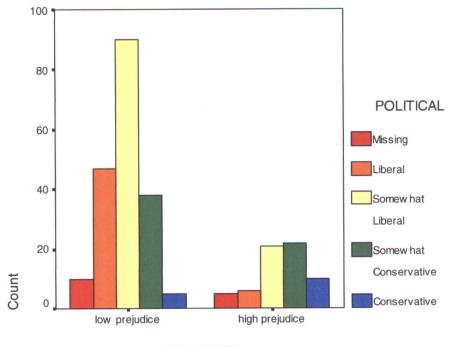


Figure 4.5 Affect of Friendships with Homosexuals on Prejudice



Additionally, a variety of demographic factors were analyzed to determine if they had a significant affect on prejudice level. A chi square analysis of the data found that political orientation significantly affected prejudice level; χ^2 (3, N = 239) = 25.929, $p \le .001$. Figure 4.6 suggested that low prejudice individuals tend to be more liberal whereas high prejudice individuals tend to be more conservative. Figure 4.6 Affect of Political Orientation on Prejudice



PREJUDICE

Other scales were included in the phase 1 questionnaire to determine if individuals who were high prejudiced against homosexuals would be prejudiced against other typically stereotyped groups. The Modern Racism Scale (McConahay, 1986) was used to test prejudice against Blacks. The scale was also adapted to test the presence of prejudice against Jews. According to Pearson's correlation; r (254) = .393, p \leq .001 there was a relationship between racism against Jews and prejudice against homosexuals. The positive correlation in Figure 4.7 suggested that as Jewish racism increased so did the presence of homosexual prejudice. It was also found that racism against Blacks was correlated with prejudice against homosexuals; r (254) = .393, p \leq .001. The positive correlation in Figure 4.8 suggested that as racism against Blacks increased so did homosexual prejudice. Therefore, those who were prejudiced against homosexuals also tended to be prejudiced against Blacks and Jews.

Figure 4.7 Correlation Between Jewish Racism and Homosexual Prejudice

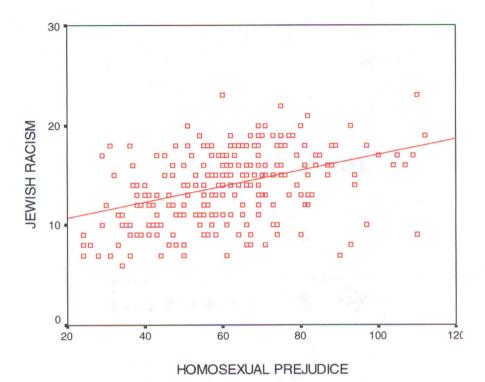
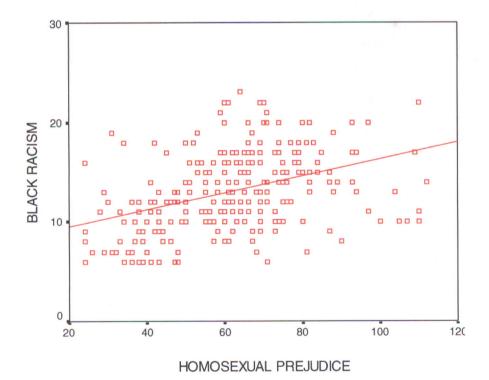
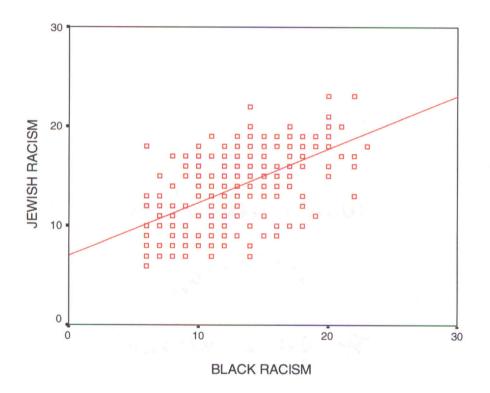


Figure 4.8 Correlation Between Black Racism and Homosexual Prejudice



Data was analyzed to determine if racism against Blacks was correlated with racism against Jews. A correlation between these two variables was particularly important to find considering that they were actually the same questions for both groups, the only variation being the word Jews or Blacks. A moderate correlation was found to exist between the two scales; r(254) = .578, $p \le .001$. Figure 4.9 suggested those who were high in racism against Blacks were also high in racism against Jews.

Figure 4.9 Correlation Between Jewish Racism and Black Racism

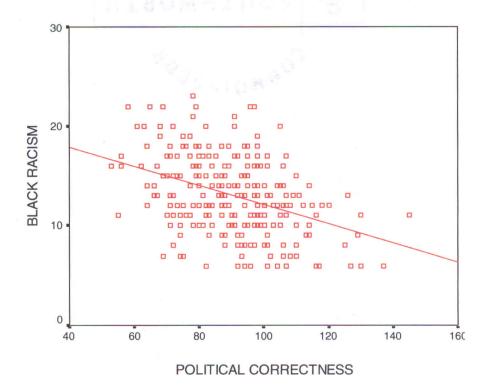


Another component of the phase 1 questionnaire was the Political Correctness Scale (Heavens et al., 2004). This scale was included to determine if a correlation existed between political correctness and various types of prejudice. Earlier research had found that the scale was correlated with the Modern Racism Scale, but that political correctness was not correlated with homosexual prejudice. Analysis of the data found that racism against Blacks was correlated with political correctness, r (252) = -.38, p \leq .001. Figure 4.10 showed that the negative correlation suggested that the lower the reported Black racism the higher the score on political correctness.

Racism against Jews was also found to be correlated with political correctness; r (252) = -.328, p \leq .001. Figure 4.11 showed that as a result of the negative correlation lower reported racism against Jews was correlated with higher scores on political correctness.

Analysis of the data, also found that overall homosexual prejudice was correlated with political correctness; r(252) = -.29, $p \le .001$. Figure 4.12 suggested that lower scores on homosexual prejudice were correlated with higher scores on the political correctness scale.

Figure 4.10 Correlation Between Black Racism and Political Correctness



50

Figure 4.11 Correlation Between Jewish Racism and Political Correctness

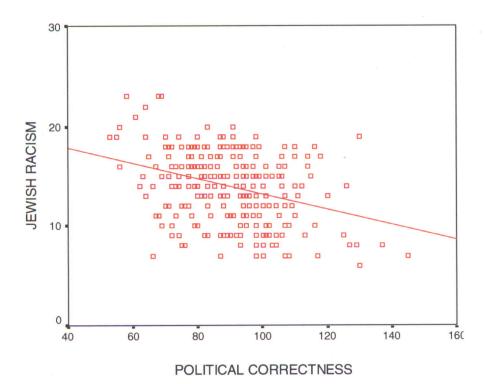
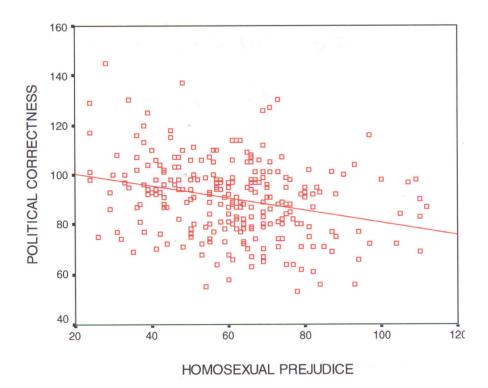
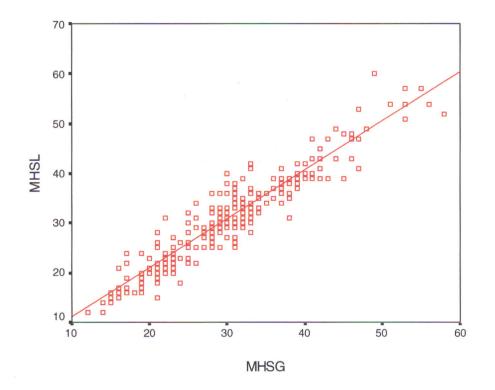


Figure 4.12 Correlation Between Political Correctness and Homosexual Prejudice



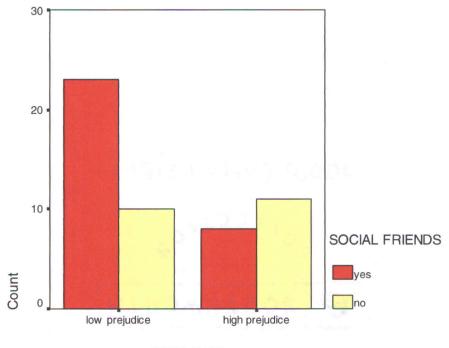
Analysis of the data found that the two versions of the Modern Homonegativity Scale were highly correlated, r (254) = .943, $p \le .001$. Figure 4.13 showed that as the score on the gay version increased so did the score on the lesbian version of the scale.

Figure 4.13 Correlations Between Lesbian and Gay Versions of Prejudice Scale



In phase 2, questions were asked to determine the feelings that an individual had about working with a partner. The target question asked if the individual thought that their partner was someone that they would be friends with outside of the experiment. A two-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to determine if prejudice level, gender, or condition had an affect on their perception of being friends. A significant affect was found based on prejudice level of the individual; F(1, 51) = 5.361, $p \le .025$. Figure 4.14 showed that among low prejudice people the majority stated that they would be friends with the individual, whereas among high prejudice people the majority stated that they would not be friends with the partner outside of the experiment.

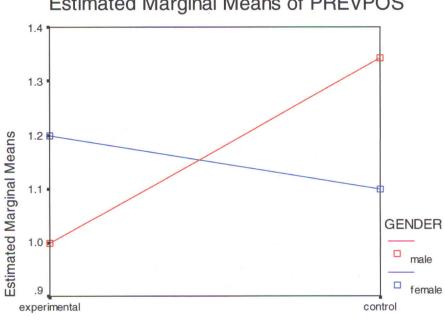
Figure 4.14 Affect of Prejudice Level on Future Friendship with Phase 2 Partner



PREJUDICE

When participants were asked if previous times they had worked with another person had been a positive experience, the responses varied significantly by condition and gender; F(1, 52) = 4.552, $p \le .038$. Figure 4.15 showed that females were fairly consistent in their stating that the experience was positive between the experimental and control condition. However, males rated past experiences significantly more positive when in the experimental than the control condition.



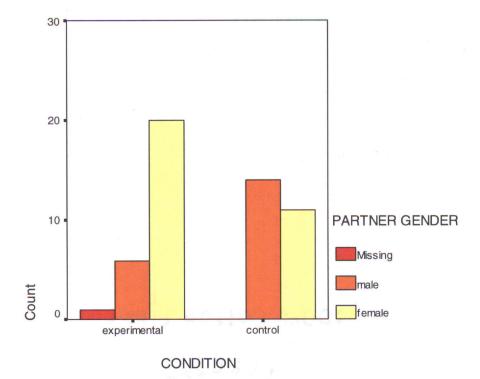


Estimated Marginal Means of PREVPOS

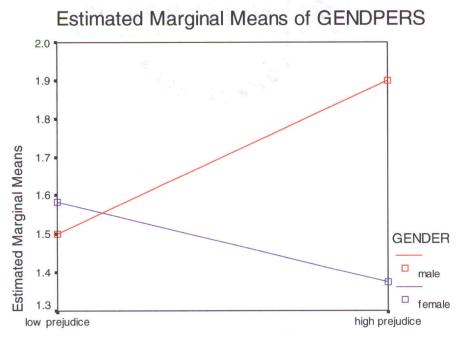
CONDITION

When asked to guess the gender of the person they were suppose to work with responses were affected by condition; F(1, 51) = 7.967, $p \le .007$. Figure 4.16 showed that individuals in the experimental condition were more likely to state that the individual was a female. Responses to this question were also affected by gender and prejudice level; F (1, 51) = 4.939, p \leq .032. Figure 4.17 showed that low prejudice people answered about evenly that the person was a male or a female. However, the high prejudice individuals consistently stated that the person was the opposite gender as themselves.

Figure 4.16 Affect of Condition on Perception of Partner's Gender









Analysis showed that the experimental condition was noticed by participants, F(1, 52) = 55.467, $p \le .000$. Figure 4.18 demonstrated that individuals in the experimental condition noticed the homosexual collage a statistically significant percent of the time.

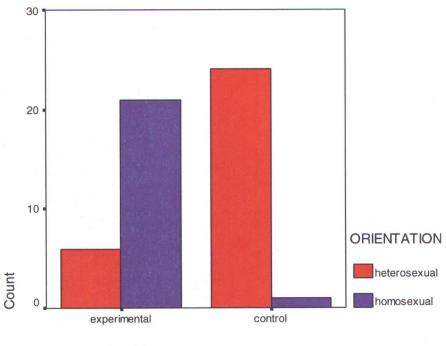


Figure 4.18 Affect of Condition on Perception of Implied Sexual Orientation

CONDITION

Condition also had a statistically significant affect on the religion they perceived the person to practice, F (1, 48) = 5.634, $p \le .022$. Figure 4.19 demonstrated that in the control condition the majority stated that the person was Catholic, but in the experimental condition they believed that the person was non-religious.

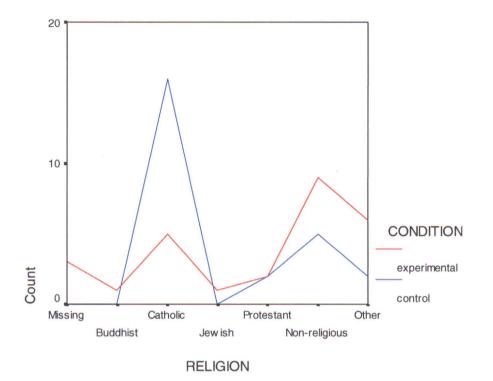


Figure 4.19 Affect of Condition on Perception of Partner's Religion

Summary

Prejudice was found to vary significantly by gender with males being more prejudiced then females. Political orientation was also found to have an affect on prejudice level with low prejudice individuals tending to be liberal or somewhat liberal and high prejudice individuals tending to be conservative or somewhat conservative. Knowledge of homosexuality that stemmed from personal contact or friendship was associated with lower prejudice. Black racism, Jewish racism, and homosexual prejudice were all associated with political correctness. Also, the two versions of the homosexual prejudice scale were highly correlated. In phase 2, it was found that prejudice level was significant in determining whether the individual would want to be friends with the partner outside of the experiment. Both gender and condition affected the perception of past experiences with a partner. The gender that the person was assumed to be, was affected by condition and by prejudice/gender. Sexual orientation was noted in the experimental condition and individuals in the experimental condition tended to believe that the person was nonreligious.

Chapter V

Discussion

Summary

Prejudice is a problem that affects many individuals in our society particularly homosexuals. This prejudice persists even though many other forms of prejudice have been deemed inappropriate. The push for political correctness in our culture has served to reduce some prejudice, but has also prompted prejudice to become more covert. Prejudice against homosexuals is still present and its devastating effects have been felt by most homosexual individuals. Research needed to be conducted to help further understand the nature of homosexual prejudice and to find ways to reduce it.

This current research was conducted in an effort to gain additional knowledge about the factors that underlie homosexual prejudice while determining the presence of prejudice on a college campus. The study was designed to measure levels of homosexual prejudice as stated in a self-report questionnaire and then to compare that to the interactions of a small subset of the group. Low and high prejudiced individuals completed phase 2 in which they believed that they would be completing a task with either a neutral person or a perceived homosexual. The results showed that gender had a significant affect on prejudice as did significant contact with homosexuals. However, in phase 2, condition did not have an impact on whether the participant believed they would be friends with the partner. Yet, an individual's level of prejudice did have an affect on the likelihood of being friends regardless of the condition. Individuals who were high prejudice were less interested in being friends with a neutral or a homosexual individual then were low prejudice individuals.

Discussion

Prejudice is known to be affected by gender. Research has often found that females were less prejudiced then males (Brown et al., 2004; Ellis et al., 2002). This was supported by the results of the current experiment. The psychology classes that this sample was drawn from tended to be dominated by females and as a result a large proportion of the sample was low prejudice females. The presence of so many low prejudice females among the future psychologists and teachers who take these courses provides hope that the impact of these professionals will help to increase the acceptability of homosexuality among future generations.

It is believed that contact must reach a certain degree of intimacy before it can have lasting effects in reducing prejudice (Allport, 1954/1979; Chng & Moore, 1991; Galupo & St John, 2001). This theory was supported by the current research which found that knowledge which was grounded in personal contact and friendship was associated with lower prejudice. Other avenues of gathering information that were removed from the source such as through media, school, family, and non-homosexual friends did not result in a significant reduction in prejudice. The significance of the type of contact was affirmed through this research. It was found that the number of individuals a person knew that were homosexual did not have an impact on prejudice level. An individual could have known a large number of individuals who were

homosexual, but unless they were friends with several of these homosexuals it would not serve to lower their prejudice against homosexuals.

Further, in phase 2 the high prejudice individuals were less interested in being friends with the partner regardless of their sexual orientation. This information suggested that high prejudice people tended to isolate themselves more from potential new friendships. This supported the findings of Ekehammer and Akrami (2003) that the Big Five personality factor Openness to Experience was negatively correlated with prejudice. It is possible that because the high prejudiced people were more guarded about the possibility of developing friendships with a stranger, they have created their own obstacles to reducing prejudice. If an individual is not open to new friendships then they will not be able to gain the type of significant contact that is needed to reduce prejudice.

Research by Heaven et al. (2004) found that racism against Blacks was correlated with the political correctness scale that they developed. However, they did not find any correlation between political correctness and homosexual prejudice across several studies. In the present study a negative correlation with political correctness was found for Black racism, Jewish racism, and homosexual prejudice. The fact that a correlation was found between political correctness and homosexual prejudice in this study may be a result of the fact that a newer and more precise scale of homosexual prejudice, the Modern Homonegativity Scale, was used instead of the Attitudes Towards Gays and Lesbians Scale. The political correctness scale was designed to measure the likelihood that individuals will lie to appear unprejudiced. Heavens et al. believed that a correlation between political correctness and homosexual prejudice did not exist because homosexual prejudice was still acceptable to society and therefore did not need to be

disguised. The fact that a negative correlation was found implies that some low prejudiced individuals in the study may have been lying to appear unprejudiced. This correlation can also be interpreted to mean that prejudice against homosexuals is no longer acceptable in society, which is the first step towards reducing prejudice.

The fact that individuals can lie to appear unprejudiced quite easily on paper is what led to the development of phase 2. It was the purpose of the study to determine if there was a difference in the way individuals reacted in a situation where they believed that they were going to be working with another person compared to their responses on a questionnaire. It was believed that it may be harder to conceal prejudice in more of an interactive situation. However, the phase 2 condition that the participant was in did not have a significant effect on whether they felt they would like working with the person or if they would be friends with the person outside of the experiment. Where the participant sat in the room was also analyzed to determine if it varied by prejudice, condition, or gender. It was found that almost all participants sat next to the perceived partner. It is believed that this is a result of the nature of the interaction that was going to occur. Since participants thought that they would have to work directly with the person they logically chose a seat from which this action would be possible and prejudice did not factor into their choice.

In phase 2, individuals were also asked if they would like their partner. It was found that across condition, prejudice level, and gender that most individuals stated that they would like working with the person. This suggests that individuals are able to compartmentalize their feelings and not apply their opinions of another person to all types of interaction. Participants were able to recognize that having a partner to work

with would be an enjoyable experience regardless of whether the person is someone with whom they would be friends. This finding presents another challenge to reducing homophobia. If almost all individuals including those who are high prejudiced believe that they can have an enjoyable working experience with a homosexual, but still not be interested in friendship then the contact is not effective. This suggests that a contact situation must be more in-depth and personal then an academic team task if the positive effects of the contact are going to have lasting effects. Unless the contact situation leads to an eventual friendship it will not serve to reduce an individuals' homophobic prejudice. Additionally, if an individual can appear on the surface to enjoy working with a homosexual but still hold onto their prejudice then the prejudice has become covert and it will be even harder to find a way to alter their negative attitudes.

Conclusion

The most significant findings of this study were that gender was an important factor in deciding the homosexual prejudice of an individual. As a result of this more attention must be given to finding ways to reduce the prejudice of males against homosexuals. The other main finding of the current research may point to a way to reduce homosexual prejudice in males. The finding that those individuals who had a thorough understanding of homosexuality, which had been built upon personal contact and friendship with the stigmatized group, resulted in lower levels of prejudice provided hope that prejudice can be reduced through meaningful contact. However, the fact that high prejudice individuals were less interested in friendship with either the neutral or the

homosexual partner suggested that finding ways to create these meaningful contact situations may be difficult among high prejudiced members of the population.

Future Research

One possible limitation of this research was the fact that only 53 people participated in the second phase. Those people were then sub-divided by prejudice level, condition, and gender resulting in some cells being quite small. Future research should have larger participation in the second phase of the study. Also, future research could extend this study by involving different subsets of the population. It would be interesting to see how the results might change if this research were conducted with high school students or with middle aged adults. Although, high school students are not much younger then the current population the culture of prejudice is often much stronger in a high school setting particularly against homosexuals.

- Allport, G.W. (1954/1979). *The nature of prejudice*. (25th anniversary ed.) Reading, MA: Addsion-Wesley.
- Aronson, E., Wilson, T.D., Akert, R.M. (2002). *Social Psychology* (4th ed.). Upper saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bohan, J.S. (1997). Teaching on the edge: the psychology of sexual orientation. *Teaching* of Psychology, 24(1), 27-32.
- Brown, R.D., Clarke, B., Gortmaker, V., & Robinson-Keilig, R. (2004). Assessing the campus climate for gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender (glbt) students using a multiple perspectives approach. *Journal of College Student Development, 45*(1), 8-26.
- Buston, K., & Hart, G. (2001). Heterosexism and homophobia in scottish school sex education: Exploring the nature of the problem. *Journal of Adolescence, 24*, 95-109.
- Chng, C.L., & Moore, A. (1991). Can attitudes of college students towards aids and homosexuality be changed in six weeks?: The effects of a gay panel. *Health Values*, 15(2), 41-49.
- Conley, T.D., Devine, P.G., Rabow, J., & Evett, S.R. (2002). Gay men and lesbians' experiences in and expectations for interactions with heterosexuals. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 44(1), 83-109.
- Cuenot, R.G., & Fugita, S.S. (1982). Perceived homosexuality: Measuring heterosexual attitudinal and nonverbal reactions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 8(1), 100-106.

- Devine, P.G. (2003). A modern perspective on the classic american dilemma. *Psychological Inquiry*, 14(3&4), 244-250.
- Dietz-Uhler, B., & Murrell, A. (1998). Effects of social identity and threat on self-esteem and group attributions. Group *Dynamics Theory, Research, and Practice, 2*(1), 24-35.
- Dovidio, J.F., Gaertner, S.L., Niemann, Y.F., & Snider, K. (2001). Racial, ethnic, and cultural differences in responding to distinctiveness and discrimination on campus: Stigma and common group identity. *Journal of Social Issues, 57*(1), 167-188.
- Dunton, B.C., & Fazio, R.H. (1997). An individual difference measure of motivation to control prejudiced reactions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 23(3), 316-326.
- Eliason, M.J. (1996). A survey of the campus climate for lesbian, gay, and bisexual university members. *Journal of Psychology & Human Sexuality*, 8(4), 39-57.
- Ellis, S.J., Kitzinger, C., & Wilkinson, S. (2002). Attitudes towards lesbians and gay men and support for lesbian and gay human rights among psychology students. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 44(1), 121-137.
- Ekehammar, B., & Akrami, N. (2003). The relation between personality and prejudice: A variable- and a person-centered approach. *European Journal of Personality*, 17, 449-464.
- Evans, N.J., & Herriott, T.K. (2004). Freshman impressions: How investigating the campus climate for lgbt students affected four freshman students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 45(3), 316-332.

- Ewing, V.L., Stukas, Jr. A.A., & Sheenan, E.P. (2003). Student prejudice against gay male and lesbian lecturers. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 143(5) 569-580.
- Finken, L.L. (2002). The impact of a human sexuality course on anti-gay prejudice: The challenge of reaching male students. *Journal of Psychology & Human Sexuality*, 14(1), 37-46.
- Galupo, M.P., & St John, S. (2001). Benefits of cross-sexual orientation friendships among adolescent females. *Journal of Adolescence, 24*, 82-93.
- Hamilton, D.L., Sherman, S.J., & Ruvolo, C.M. (1990). Stereotype-based expectancies:
 Effects on information processing and social behavior. *Journal of Social Interests*, 46(2), 35-60.
- Haslam, N., Rothschild, L., & Ernst, D. (2002). Are essentialist beliefs associated with prejudice?. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *41*(1), 87-101.
- Haslam, S.A., & Wilson, A. (2000). In what sense are prejudicial beliefs personal the importance of an in-group's shared stereotypes. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 39, 45-63.
- Heavens, S., Crawford, J.P., Cain, T.R., Walker, R., Jussim, L., Cohen, F., et al. (2004, April). Assessment of lying to appear unprejudiced: The political correctness (pc) scale. Poster session at the annual meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Washington, D.C.
- Herek, G.M., & Capitanio, J.P. (1996). "Some of my best friends": Intergroup contact, concealable stigma, and heterosexuals' attitudes toward gay men and lesbians. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 22*(4), 412-424.

Hershberger, S.L., Pilkington, N.W., & D'Augelli, A.R. (1997). Predictors of suicide

attempts among gay, lesbian, and bisexual youth. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, *12(*4), 477-497.

- Hiller, L., & Rosenthal, D. (2001). Special issue on gay, lesbian and bisexual youth. Journal of Adolescence, 24, 1-4.
- Jellison, W.A., McConnell, A.R., & Gabriel, S. (2004). Implicit an explicit measures of sexual orientation attitudes: Ingroup preferences and related behaviors and beliefs among gay and straight men. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30*(5), 629-642.
- Kielwasser, A.P., & Wolf, M.A. (1992). Mainstream televison, adolescent homosexuality, and significant silence. *Critical Studies in Mass Communication*, 9, 350-373.
- Korobov, N. (2004). Inoculating against prejudice: A discursive approach to homophobia and sexism in adolescent male talk. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity*, 5(2), 178-189.
- Liddle, B.J. (1997). Coming out in class: Disclosure of sexual orientation and teaching evaluations. *Teaching of Psychology*, 24(1), 32-35.
- Marques, J.M., Robalo, E.M., & Rocha, S.A. (1992). Ingroup bias the 'black sheep' effect: Assessing the impact of social identification and perceived variability on group judgements. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 22, 331-352.
- Marques, J.M., & Yzerbyt, V.Y. (1988). The black sheep effect: Judgemental extremity towards ingroup members in inter- and intra-group situations. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 18*, 287-292.

- Marques, J.M., Yzerbyt, V.Y., & Leyens, J-P. (1988). The 'black sheep effect': Extremity of judgements towards ingroup members as a function of group identification. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 18, 1-16.
- Mazur, M.A., & Emmers-Sommer, T.M. (2002). The effect of movie portrayals on audience attitudes about nontraditional families and sexual orientation. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 44(1), 157-179.
- McConahay, J.B., Hardee, B.B., & Batts, V. (1981). Has racism declined in America? It depends on who is asking and what is asked. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 25(4), 563-579.
- McConahay, J.B. (1986). Modern racism, ambivalence, and the Modern Racsim Scale. In
 J.F. Dovidio & S.L. Gaertner (Eds.), *Prejudice, discrimination, and racism* (pp. 99-125). Orlando, FL: Academic Press.
- Meertens, R.W., & Pettigrew, T.F. (1997). Is subtle prejudice really prejudice? *Public* Opinion Quarterly, 6(1), 54-71.
- Monteith, M.J., Deneen, N.E., & Tooman, G.D. (1996). The effect of social norm activation on the expression of opinions concerning gay men and blacks. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 18*(3), 267-288.
- Morrison, M.A., & Morrison, T.G. (2002). Development and validation of a scale measuring modern prejudice toward gay men and lesbian women. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 43(2), 15-37.
- Pardine, P., Gioia, C., & LaPadula, M. (2004, April). Beliefs about homosexuals and implicit inversion of gender-role stereotypes. Poster session at the annual meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Washington, D.C.

- Pettigrew, T.F. (1997). Generalized intergroup contact effects on prejudice. *Personality* and Social Psychology Bulletin, 23(2), 173-185.
- Pettigrew, T.F., & Meertens, R.W. (1995). Subtle and blatant prejudice in western Europe. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 25, 57-75.
- Pilkington, N.W., & Cantor, J.M. (1996). Perceptions of heterosexuals bias in professional psychology programs: A survey of graduate students. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*, 27(6), 604-612.
- Preuss, G.S., & Fleeson, W. (2004, April). The development and validation of a questionnaire on opinion restraint. Poster session at the annual meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Washinton, D.C.
- Quist, R.M., Resendez, M.G. (2002). Social dominance threat: Examining social dominance theory's explanation of prejudice as legitimizing myths. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 24(4), 287-294.
- Rey, A.M., & Gibson, P.R. (1997). Beyond high school: Heterosexuals' self-reported anti-gay/lesbian behaviors and attitudes. *Journal of Gay and Lesbian Social Services*, 7, 65-84.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). Society and the adolescent self image. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Rossi, L.M. (1995). *Gay, lesbian, and bisexual youth at risk for low self-esteem and depression.* Unpublished masters dissertation, Rowan University.
- Sakalli, N. (2002). Application of the attribution-value model of prejudice to homosexuality. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *142*(2), 264-272.

- Sakali, N., & Ugurlu, O. (2002). The effects of social contact with a lesbian person on the attitude change toward homosexuality in turkey. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 44(1), 111-119.
- Savins-Williams, R.C. (2001). A critique of research on sexual-minority youths. *Journal* of Adolescence, 24, 5-13.
- Sykes, H. (2001). Of gods, money, and muscle: Resurgent homophobias and the narcissim of minor differences in sport. *Psychoanalysis and Contemporary Thought, 24*(2), 203-225.
- Stevens, R.A. (2004). Understanding gay identity developemtn within the college environment. *Journal of College Student Development*, 45(2), 185-206.
- The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. Retrived December 13, 2004, from University of Maryland, College Park, Department of Sociology Web site: http://www.bsos.umd.edu/socy/grad/socpsy_rosenberg.html
- Thurlow, C. (2001). Naming the "outsider within:" Homophobic perjoratives and the verbal abuse of lesbian, gay, and bisexual high-school pupils. *Journal of Adolescence, 24*, 25-38.
- Warwick, I., Aggleton, P., & Douglas, N. (2001). Playing it safe: Addressing the emotional and physical health of lesbian and gay pupils in the U.K. *Journal of Adolescence, 24*, 129-140.
- Whitley, B.E., Jr. (1990). The relationship of heterosexuals' attributions for the causes of homosexuality to attitudes toward lesbians and gay men. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 16(2), 369-377.

Yang, A.S. (1997). The polls - trends Attitudes towards homosexuality. Public Opinion

Quarterly, 61(3), 477-507.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Informed Consent

I agree to participate in a study entitled "Personality and Attitudes of College Students" which is being conducted by Megan Kleefeld under the supervision of Dr. Dihoff of the Psychology Department, Rowan University.

The purpose of this study is to determine how the attitudes of college students may be different from attitudes of college students 20 years ago.

I understand that I will be required to answer a questionnaire as an individual and to share my honest opinions about a variety of subjects. My participation in the study should not exceed half an hour.

I understand that my responses and all the data gathered will be confidential. I agree that any information obtained from this study may be used in any way thought best for publication or education provided that I am in no way identified and my name is not used.

I understand that there are no physical or psychological risks involved in this study, and that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time without penalty.

I understand that my participation does not imply employment with the state of New Jersey, Rowan University, the principal investigator, or any other project facilitator.

If I have any questions or problems concerning my participation in this study I may contact Dr. Dihoff at (609) 256- 4500 ext. 3783.

Please Print Name:

(Signature of Participant)

(Date)

(Signature of Investigator)

(Date)

This same experimenter is running another experiment. If you are willing to return about a week later to participate in a second experiment, this one dealing with individual versus group ability please provide your contact information.

******ATTENTION*****

Anyone who participates in the second experiment approximately a week later will be entered into a prize drawing for a \$25 gift certificate to the LANDMARK Restaurant

 If willing to be contacted:
 and/or
 Phone Number _____

APPENDIX B

Demographics Questionnaire

Please fill out the following demographics questions to help us better understand our sample population. (Please check or circle your answers)

Gender: Male Female

Age:

Religion: _____ Buddhist _____ Catholic _____ Hindu _____ Jewish _____ Protestant _____ Non-religious _____ Other

Race: (check as many as apply --- but then please circle the one with which you most identify)

African American Asian Caucasian Hispanic/Latino Native American Pacific Islander Other

Politically – do you consider yourself:(please circle only one)LiberalSomewhat LiberalSomewhat ConservativeConservative

Year at Rowan: (Undergraduate) 1^{st} 2^{nd} 3^{rd} 4^{th} <u>or</u> Graduate student

Resident or Commuter

Do you feel that you are part of the Rowan University community? 1 2 3 4 5 (not a part) (slightly a part) (average) (strong part) (very strong part)

How important is being a "Rowan Student" to your self-identity (id)? 1 2 3 4 5 (not part of id) (small part) (average) (large part) (very large part of id)

APPENDIX C

Contact Questionnaire

		3	ws?	4		5	
	(ave	erage amo	ount)		(ext	ensive k	nowledge)
	1 1	6 Q (4	<u>~111</u>	1 41- 24 2 2			
•	wiedge come	from? (e		r that appry	1		
	ontact						
School							
Family							
Friends (fr	om that group)					
You are a 1	member of the	at group					
v people h	ave vou knov	vn that ar	e Jewish	?			
j peopre ii							
1-10	15-25	35-5	0	60-75	75-1	.00	100+
v friends d	lo vou have tl	hat are Je	wish?				
		•					
1 5	10	15	20	25	30	35+	
			<u> </u>		· · ·		
1 1	Faal you know	about H	ispanics	?			
n do you i	Leef you know						
n do you i 2	leef you know	3	1	4		5	(nowledge)
	Media Personal co School Family Friends (no Friends (fr You are a 1 y people h 1-10 y friends c	Media Personal contact School Family Friends (not from that g Friends (from that group You are a member of th y people have you know 1-10 15-25 y friends do you have th	Media Personal contact School Family Friends (not from that group) Friends (from that group) You are a member of that group y people have you known that ar 1-10 15-25 35-5 y friends do you have that are Je	Media Personal contact School Family Friends (not from that group) You are a member of that group Y people have you known that are Jewish 1-10 15-25 35-50 y friends do you have that are Jewish?	Media Personal contact School Family Friends (not from that group) Friends (from that group) You are a member of that group y people have you known that are Jewish? 1-10 15-25 35-50 60-75 y friends do you have that are Jewish?	Personal contact School Family Friends (not from that group) You are a member of that group Y people have you known that are Jewish? 1-10 15-25 35-50 60-75 75-1 y friends do you have that are Jewish?	Media Personal contact School Family Friends (not from that group) Friends (from that group) You are a member of that group y people have you known that are Jewish? 1-10 15-25 35-50 60-75 75-100 y friends do you have that are Jewish?

Friends (not from that group) Friends (from that group) You are a member of that group

None	1-10		15-25	35-:	50	60-75	75-100	100-	ŀ
How ma	ny frie	nds do	you have t	hat are H	ispanic?				
None	1	5	10	15	20	25	30 3	5+	
			<u></u>						
						•			
How mu 1	ich do g	you fee 2	el you knov	v about H	lomosexu	ality? 4		5	
(nothing	g)	_	(av	erage am	iount)	. •	(extens	ive knowle	edge)
Where h	nas you Media		ledge com	e from?	(Check al	ll that appl	y)		
	Perso	nal cor	ntact		· .				e A
	_Schoo		· ·					· · ·	
	Famil	v			-				
		ds (not	from that		•				
	_ Friend	ds (not ds (fro	m that grou	ip)	•		. · ·		
	_ Friend	ds (not ds (fro		ip)					
How ma	_ Friend _ Friend _ You a	ls (not ls (from tre a m	m that grou	p) nat group		sexuals?			•
How ma	_ Friend _ Friend _ You a	ls (not ls (fron rre a m ple ha	m that grou ember of tl	p) nat group	re Homo	sexuals? 60-75	75-100	100	+
	Friend Friend You a	ls (not ls (fron rre a m ple ha	m that grou ember of tl ve you kno	p) hat group wn that a	re Homo		75-100	100	+
None	Friend Friend You a any pec 1-10	ds (not ds (fro re a m pple ha	m that grou ember of tl ve you kno	p) hat group wn that a 35-	re Homo 50	60-75	75-100	100	+
None	Friend Friend You a any pec 1-10	ds (not ds (fro re a m pple ha	m that grou ember of tl ve you kno 15-25	p) hat group wn that a 35-	re Homo 50	60-75	•	100 35+	+
None How ma	Friend Friend You a any pec 1-10 any frie	ds (not ds (fro ure a m pple ha nds do	m that grou ember of th ve you kno 15-25 you have	p) hat group wn that a 35- that are H	re Homo 50 Iomosexu	60-75 uals?	•		• • •
None How ma	Friend Friend You a any pec 1-10 any frie	ds (not ds (fro ure a m pple ha nds do	m that grou ember of th ve you kno 15-25 you have	p) hat group wn that a 35- that are H	re Homo 50 Iomosexu	60-75 uals?	•		+
None How ma None	Friend Friend You a any pec 1-10 any frie	ds (not ds (frou re a m ople ha nds do 5	m that grou ember of th ve you kno 15-25 you have	p) hat group wn that a 35- that are H 15	re Homos 50 Iomosexu 20	60-75 nals? 25	•	35+	+ .
None How masses How masses	Friend Friend You a any peo 1-10 any frie 1	ds (not ds (frou re a m ople ha nds do 5	m that grou ember of th ve you kno 15-25 you have 10 el you know	p) hat group wn that a 35- that are H 15 w about E 3	re Homo 50 Iomosexu 20 Blacks?	60-75 uals? 25	30	35+	
None How ma None	Friend Friend You a any peo 1-10 any frie 1	ds (not ds (frou re a m ople ha nds do 5	m that grou ember of th ve you kno 15-25 you have 10 el you know	p) hat group wn that a 35- that are H 15	re Homo 50 Iomosexu 20 Blacks?	60-75 nals? 25	30	35+	· ·
None How m None How m 1	Friend Friend You a any peo 1-10 any frie 1	ds (not ds (frou re a m ople ha nds do 5	m that grou ember of th ve you kno 15-25 you have 10 el you know	p) hat group wn that a 35- that are H 15 w about E 3	re Homo 50 Iomosexu 20 Blacks?	60-75 nals? 25	30	35+	· ·

Where has your knowledge come from? (Check all that apply)

_____ Media

- Personal contact
- School
- _____ Family
- _____ Friends (not from that group)
- Friends (from that group)
- _____You are a member of that group

How many people have you known that are Black?

None	1-10	15-25	35-5	50	60-75	75-	100	100+	
	•		•	•					
How m	any frier	nds do you hav	ve that are Bl	ack?					
None	1	5 10	15	20	25	30	35+		

• ;

APPENDIX D

Working With Groups Questionnaire

to achieve a task?				
1 2	3		. 4	5
(none)	(average	e amount)		(a lot)
		- - -	· · · · ·	
How do you feel that	you work in a n	artner/groun s	setting?	
1 2		3	4	5
(very poorly)	(av	erage)		(very well)
	. ,			
How do you think you	ir accuracy is no	ormally affect	ed by working w	ith another person on
a task?		· •		<u>r</u>
(deemoore croatity)	Z Calichtler	3 (ma affect)	$\frac{4}{(1-ali ali ali t)}$	(in anong an amontlas)
(decreases greatly) [less accurate]	(- slightly)	(no affect)	(+ slightly)	(increases greatly) [more accurate]
				•
r.				
Uan da yay think ya	m an and is norm	ally affected	hu washina with	another norman?
How do you think you	r speed is norm	ally affected	by working with	another person?
How do you think you 1 (decrease greatly)	2		3	4
l (decrease greatly)	r speed is norm 2 (decrease slig		by working with 3 crease slightly)	4
1	2		3	4 (increase greatly)
l (decrease greatly)	2		3	4 (increase greatly)
l (decrease greatly) [will take longer] Do you normally like	2 (decrease slig	htly) (in thers on a con	3 crease slightly)	4 (increase greatly)
l (decrease greatly) [will take longer]	2 (decrease slig	htly) (in	3 crease slightly)	4 (increase greatly)
l (decrease greatly) [will take longer] Do you normally like	2 (decrease slig working with of	htly) (in thers on a con	3 crease slightly)	4 (increase greatly)
l (decrease greatly) [will take longer] Do you normally like Yes	2 (decrease slig working with of or	htly) (in thers on a con No	3 crease slightly) nmon goal?	4 (increase greatly) [be done faster]
l (decrease greatly) [will take longer] Do you normally like Yes Have previous times v	2 (decrease slig working with of or when you worke	htly) (in thers on a con No d with others	3 crease slightly) nmon goal?	4 (increase greatly) [be done faster]
l (decrease greatly) [will take longer] Do you normally like Yes	2 (decrease slig working with of or	htly) (in thers on a con No	3 crease slightly) nmon goal?	4 (increase greatly) [be done faster]
l (decrease greatly) [will take longer] Do you normally like Yes Have previous times v	2 (decrease slig working with of or when you worke	htly) (in thers on a con No d with others	3 crease slightly) nmon goal?	4 (increase greatly) [be done faster]
l (decrease greatly) [will take longer] Do you normally like Yes Have previous times v	2 (decrease slig working with of or when you worke or	htly) (in thers on a con No d with others No	3 crease slightly) nmon goal? on a task been a	4 (increase greatly) [be done faster]

Do you usually think that they are someone that you might become friends with, if you were in more of a social situation with them? Yes or No

79

APPENDIX E

.

Filler Questions

The campus offers many	v activities f	or students to pa	articipate in. 4	5
(disagree strongly)	2	(neutral)	·	(agree strongly)
•				
College is a better exper	ience than h	igh school.		
] (diaganag atrangla)	2	3	4	5
(disagree strongly)		(neutral)		(agree strongly)
D		1	11. C 41 1	11 , 1 , 1
Parents need to realize the choices.	hat they are	no longer respo	nsible for their	r college student's
1	2	3	4	5
(disagree strongly)		(neutral)		(agree strongly)
		·		
I am an introverted perso	on.			
1	2	3	4	5
(disagree strongly)		(neutral)		(agree strongly)
I always enjoy being sur	-	triends.	4	5
l (disagree strongly)	2	o (neutral)	4	3 (agree strongly)
(usugice strongly)		(nounar)		(derec strongly)
I am the life of the party				
1	. 2	3	4	. 5
(disagree strongly)		(neutral)		(agree strongly)
I always keep a secret th	at is confide	ed to me by a fri	iend.	
1	2	5	4	5
(disagree strongly)	· .	(neutral)		(agree strongly)
		,		
Sports are more fun to w	atch then to	o play.		. <u>-</u>
(dianaroo atronala)	2.	3 (noutrol)	4	5 (agrae strangly)
(disagree strongly)		(neutral)		(agree strongly)

Eating healthy and getting enough exercise is very important to me.12345(disagree strongly)(neutral)(agree strongly)

Upcoming papers and tests add a lot of stress to my life.12345(disagree strongly)(neutral)(agree strongly)

APPENDIX F

Informed Consent (Phase 2)

I agree to participate in a study entitled "Individual versus Group Ability Among College Students" which is being conducted by Megan Kleefeld under the supervision of Dr. Dihoff of the Psychology Department, Rowan University.

The purpose of this study is to determine if people do better when they work as an individual or when they work with a partner to accomplish a task.

I understand that I will be required to complete a math test as both an individual and working with a partner and to answer a brief questionnaire about my perceptions of individual versus group ability. My participation in the study should not exceed half an hour.

I understand that my responses and all the data gathered will be confidential. I agree that any information obtained from this study may be used in any way thought best for publication or education provided that I am in no way identified and my name is not used.

I understand that there are no physical or psychological risks involved in this study, and that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time without penalty.

I understand that my participation does not imply employment with the state of New Jersey, Rowan University, the principal investigator, or any other project facilitator.

If I have any questions or problems concerning my participation in this study I may contact Dr. Dihoff at (609) 256- 4500 ext. 3783.

Name of Psychology Professor and Class where you did first experiment

Please Print Your Name

(Signature of Participant)

(Date)

(Signature of Investigator)

(Date)

82

APPENDIX G

Math Test

You wish to temporarily mount a wire to serve as the antenna of your transmitter in your laboratory. It is necessary that this be straight and as long as possible. You recall that when you had the floor covered required exactly 200 square yards of carpet and that the long side of the room was 20 yards. You also know that the height of the room is 12 feet. You go to the store room to get the wire but find that it can only be supplied in lengths that are an integral multiple of 1 meter. What length of wire do you take back to the lab?

An urn contains three white and four black balls. One of the balls is drawn out of the urn. Find the probability that the ball is white.

An urn contains three white and four black balls. We take out a ball and put it in a drawer without looking at it. After that we take out a second ball. Find the probability that this ball is white.

Given two intersecting straight lines and a point P marked on one of them, show how to construct a circle that is tangent to both lines including point P.

A farmer has a circular field, radius R meters, in which he has a goat tethered to one edge by a length of chain, L meters long. If the goat is able to graze exactly half of the available area, find an expression for L in terms of R.

Determine the roots of $z^3 + 6z^2 - 4z - 24 = 0$

A piece of straight, level rail whose length is one mile in winter increases in length by one foot in summer. If the ends were firmly anchored in winter, we are to assume that the rail will become an arc of a circle in summer. How far will the center point move relative to its winter position?

APPENDIX H

Perception of Individual Versus Group Ability

If you did not participate in the individual portion of the experiment please skip to question # 4.

1. How do you th 1 2 (poorly)	ink you did on the indiv 3 (average)	idual math test. 4	5 (very well)
			· · · · ·
2. What percentage	ge do you think you ans	wered accurately?	
Under 25%	25-50% 50	-75% 75	-100%
· ·			
		د .	
3. How do you th	ink your speed was on t	he individual test?	5
(below average)	2 3 (average)	(al	5 Sove average)
-	our accuracy will be aff	ected by working wi	th another person?
Yes	or No		· · ·
	· ·		
If Yes How do you	think accuracy will be a	affected?	4
(decrease greatly)	(decrease slightly)	(increase slightly)	4 (increase greatly)
[less accurate]	([more accurate]
		· .	
5. Do you think	your speed will be affec	ted by working with	another person?
Yes	or No	•	
	· · · ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

If Yes --- How do you think speed will be affected?1234(decrease greatly)(decrease slightly)(increase slightly)(increase greatly)[will take longer][be done faster]

- 6. Do you normally like working with others on a common goal? Yes or No
- 7. Do you think you will enjoy working with the other person on this task? Yes or No
- 8. Have previous times when you worked with others on a task been a positive experience?

Yes or No

.

- 9. Do you think that you will like the other person? Yes or No
- 10. Do you think that they are someone that you might become friends with, if you were in more of a social situation with them?
 Yes or No

APPENDIX I

Experimental Manipulation Check

What do you think is the purpose of the study that you just completed?

What was the gender of the person you just worked with? Male Female

What do you believe was the race of the person you just worked with?

African Ameri	can
Asian	
Caucasian	
Hispanic/Latir	10
Native Americ	an
Pacific Islande	r
Other	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

What do you believe was the sexual orientation of the person you just worked with?

Heterosexual Homosexual

What do you feel was the religious background of the person you just worked with?

 Buddhist

 Catholic

 Hindu

 Jewish

 Muslim

 Protestant

 Non-religious

 Other

87

APPENDIX J

Debriefing

Thank you for your participation in the study.

The objective of the research you just participated in is to test the prevalence of prejudice against homosexuals in a sample of the undergraduate population at Rowan University. An additional objective is to determine if there is a difference between the levels of prejudice that individuals self-report on prejudice questionnaires versus the way they react in a behavioral situation where they believe that they will have to interact with a homosexual individual to complete a task. The data from those who did not see a prohomosexual collage on the other person's binder are part of our control group, which provide the important reference data to show how individuals normally react to working with a partner.

Your data will help us to better understand the presence of prejudice against homosexuals and how it affects interactions with a member of that group.

If you have any future questions or problems concerning your participation in this study please contact Dr. Dihoff at (609) 256- 4500 ext. 3783.

APPENDIX K

Collage

The following page contains a copy of the collage of pro-homosexual references that was on the cover of the binder in the experimental condition in phase 2.

