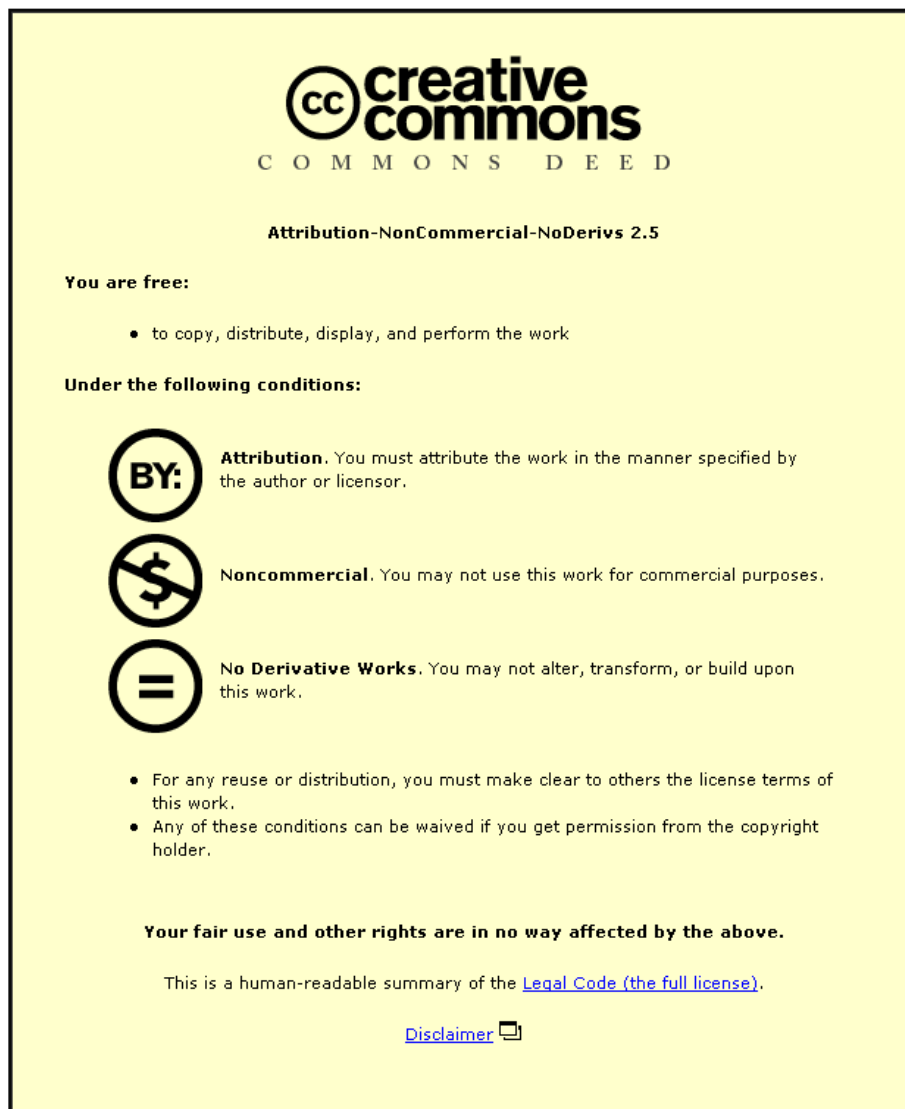


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HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING TO REDUCE RACIAL
PREJUDICE THROUGH INCREASED SELF-ACCEPTANCE
AND IMPROVED COMMUNICATION STYLE

by

Linda Marsanico-Byrne

A Doctoral Thesis

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the award of

Degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the Loughborough
University of Technology (November 24, 1986)

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are people who have helped me during this project. I would like to express my sincere and heartfelt thanks to them. Specifically, I want to thank:

My husband, Luke Martin Byrne. He was a motivator, advisor, collaborator, financier, babysitter, photocopier, editor, driver, and my most loyal supporter. Without his help, I could not have run the project.

My tutor, Duncan Cramer, Ph.D. He gave me objective feedback, at all times, and respected my ability to work through the endless details of this project. He had faith in my capacity to learn new concepts, especially SPSS.

Moe Liss. He gave me his time, ideas, expertise as planner, and trainer in human relations training.

My sister, Joan Marsanico. She painstakingly typed part of this thesis. She offered her time, and had to give so much effort to the process.

My sister, Janet Marsanico Sgritto. She helped me with a mailing and paper quotes. I appreciate her respect and caring.

Betty Ross and Frankie Quick. They let me use the Arapahoe House Outpatient building for telephone calls and testing sessions. I appreciate their openness and trust.

My other colleagues and friends at Arapahoe House. These are Wynne Segal, Georgia Hitchcock, Kerry McKinney, Barb Johnson, Kelly Ellyson and Linda Wayne. I appreciate their help and support during the project.

Logos Yeh. He enthusiastically gave me his time and expertise on the statistical design of this project.

Jerry Blodgett, Ph.D. He supervised the clinical aspects of my project and offered support and advice when I needed it.

Robert Cowan, M.D. He agreed to be the on-call psychiatrist during each of the four workshops in case of any psychological emergencies.

The trainers, Moe Liss, Percy Moorehouse, Ph.D., Faye Rison, Maryellen Waltz. I appreciate their professional leadership during the workshops, and their hard work.

The co-trainers, Jim Cooksey and Leon Willis. I appreciate their excellent, minimal leadership-role during the control-group posttest.

Dolores Johnson. She advised me on black issues, believed in my work, and assisted in the project.

Rev. Ezekiel Habersham, M.A.D.D. He gave me his time and believed in the sincerity of my efforts.

Richard Grant, M.D. (University of Illinois, College of Medicine). He gave his permission for the revision and use of the Psychosocial History Screening Questionnaire (PHSQ).

Tina Busey and Sue Glasgow. I appreciate the time they devoted to rating the audio tapes.

Theadora van de Wiel. She worked tirelessly to retype this thesis. I appreciate her thoroughness.

King Soopers. The \$15.00 they donated to the project was used to buy food for the workshops.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effects of an intensive, weekend, human relations training workshop between black and white adults 20 to 53 years of age. The results were compared to a no-treatment control group. The total sample was 27. These consisted of 13 females and 14 males, including 2 black females and 3 black males.

It was hypothesised (1) that the treatment group would show significantly greater increase than the untreated group on self-acceptance (2) that there would be a significantly greater reduction than the untreated group in prejudice (indirect and direct measure) (3) that communication style scores for the treated group would be significantly more constructive than for the untreated group at posttest and (4) that significant differences would remain significant at delayed posttest. (This did not apply to communication style which was measured at posttest only)

The workshop content was designed to encourage blacks and whites to explore, in a safe environment, similarities in their needs, values and goals, to learn high-level communication skills, to build trust, to undergo personal therapy, and importantly, to understand the implications of their progress.

All subjects were pre-, post-, and delayed posttested on three dependent variables (1) self-acceptance, measured by the Sa scale of the California Psychological Inventory and (2) prejudice, measured by the E and F scales of the California Questionnaire; (3) communication style, (taken at posttest only) was measured by the constructs of collaboration, negotiation, coercion, friendly, assertive, aggressive and hostile. The posttest was the same for the no-treatment control group, and treatment group. It consisted of an hour-long discussion on racially integrating a local school system, and written tests on the other dependent variables. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of five groups once they completed the pretest. The pretest took place approximately six weeks before the workshop, the posttesting immediately after the workshop, and the delayed posttesting approximately six weeks after the workshop.

Screening was accomplished at the time of pretest through the use of the California Psychological Inventory, the Psychosocial History Screening Questionnaire, and an interview to determine if any subject was at psychological risk in participating.

There were four experimental groups (21 subjects) which received the same treatment. One of the four trainers led a group, i.e., (1) a black female, (2) white female, (3) black male (4) white male. This design allowed the trainer variable to be representative of each of the four possible categories of race and sex. Trainers were selected for their similar leadership style. The no-treatment control group (six subjects) was instructed by co-trainers, a black male and a white male, during the posttest on communication style.

Analysis of covariance for independent groups revealed that at posttest the treated group did not significantly change in self-acceptance, or prejudice (direct and indirect measure). At delayed posttest, prejudice (indirect measure) was significantly lower, $p < 0.05$. Analysis of variance, repeated measures, indicated that communication scores were not significantly more constructive although there was a trend toward significance. A secondary analysis (of covariance for multiple groups) revealed that at posttest, prejudice (indirect measure) was significantly reduced in three out of four experimental groups ($p < 0.002$). There was borderline significance at delayed posttest ($p < 0.056$). Possible reasons for this were discussed. Both self-acceptance and prejudice (direct measure) showed no significant changes. Regression analyses suggest that there was no significant interaction of trainer's leadership style and treatment effects.

It was concluded that human relations training between black and white adults decreased prejudice. Recommendations for future research were discussed.

CHAPTER I

THE TOTAL PERSPECTIVE: THE PROBLEM AND PROPOSED INTERVENTION

Statement of the Problem

In the U.S. prejudice between blacks and whites has its origins in slavery, and in the post Civil War period (Allport 1979, 1954; Pettigrew, 1971). It is an attitude which adversely affects interpersonal relationships, groups, communities and countries throughout the World (Allport, 1979, 1954).

Theorists have said that attitudes of prejudice are based in the social and economic spheres (Pettigrew, 1971); that they are a product of aggregate social behaviour and group behaviour (Tajfel, 1978); that they are attitudinal and group interactional (Sherif, 1966); psychodynamic in origin (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson & Sanford, 1982, 1950); or an artifact of both social and personality structures which are formed in an economic and historical context (Allport, 1979, 1954).

Theorists have also claimed that acceptance of others (or prejudice) is related to attitudes toward the self (Sheerer, 1949; Stock, 1949; Phillips, 1951; Berger, 1952; McIntyre, 1952; Omwake, 1954; Fey, 1955; Suinn, 1961; Rogers, 1965; Branden, 1969) and that prejudice is ultimately involved in the ego development of the adult since childhood (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1949; Harris, Gough & Martin, 1950; Sherif & Sherif, 1967; Allport, 1979, 1954; Adorno et al, 1982, 1950).

The question for the researcher is: What intervention or social psychological strategy can be utilised to change attitudes of prejudice and acceptance of self?

The small-group psychotherapeutic approach is thought to be effective in changing attitudes and behaviour in general (Yalom, 1975). It encourages greater self-acceptance and corresponding reductions in prejudice in members who participate (Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b; Fauth, 1972). A large body of correlational research shows a relationship between increased self-acceptance and acceptance of others (Sheerer, 1949; Stock, 1949; Phillips, 1951; Berger, 1952; McIntyre, 1952; Omwake, 1954; Fey, 1955; Suinn, 1961).

Since contact between blacks and whites might be adversely affected by dysfunctional patterns of communication (Pettigrew, 1971), a small-group designed to decrease attitudes of prejudice should include communication skills training. Constructive communication (Coser, 1956) may further enhance decreased attitudes of prejudice. The small group should also focus on the individual since it is the individual who will feel angry or prejudiced (Davies, 1971; Liss & Robinson, 1978). Related literature suggests that multiple psychological factors personally affecting the individual are involved in violent behaviours (Marx, 1971; Barclay, 1984). It is posited that personal therapy for adults is necessary since it was observed that so-called 'normal' adults experienced value conflicts and other insecurities which restricted their creativeness as well as interpersonal contacts (Wechsler, Massarik and Tannenbaum, 1962). In addition to personal therapy, members of the small training group have the opportunity to work on new, more constructive ways of expressing anger and aggression which naturally occur between group members (Bach, 1967). They can share their feelings and attitudes in a safe environment, learn the value of group effort, re-evaluate stereotypes and distorted perceptions which exist between the races, learn high-level communication skills, and understand the effects of this process.

It was thought that the small group, psychotherapeutic approach (including the teaching of high-level

communication skills) would be effective in increasing an individual's self-acceptance, reducing prejudice, and changing communication style from destructive to constructive. The object of this intervention was to test the results of intensive human relations training. Can it significantly decrease members' attitudes of prejudice, increase self-acceptance and improve communication style?

Possible Contributions of the Study

There is only one experimental study* which investigates the model of reduction of prejudice and increased self-acceptance (Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b). Another study used no control group (Fauth, 1972). In another study (Liss & Robinson, 1978) attitude and behaviour change can be inferred by cessation of violence, improved relationships between ethnic groups and increased school attendance following an intervention. However, there was no experimental design or statistical method to quantify change.

Katz (1977, Katz & Ivey, 1977) significantly increased awareness of racism, and anti-racist activities with white university subjects. However, racism awareness is not reduction of prejudice.

Rubin's strategy was successful in significantly reducing prejudice and increasing self-acceptance. It was hoped that this present study would shed some light on the important conditions.

In the above studies, direct measurement of attitudes was conducted. This present study included an indirect measure of prejudice. (Subjects were told that blood pressure fluctuations, which occur as a result of human relations training, were being measured.) If subjects are told the real purpose of the research, demand characteristics cannot be ruled out.

This study recruited a sample of subjects apart from a university setting so that the results would be more

*e.g., only one of which this researcher is aware.

generalisable to the general population; it was thought that a non-university population may tend to have attitudes which are more representative of the general population.

It was hoped that this study would add to the body of knowledge of the trainer's effect on group outcome, as well as the small group, psychotherapeutic approach to attitude and behaviour change for healthy individuals. The trainer affect was addressed in several ways. Lieberman et al (1973) found that the trainer affects group training outcome. In this present study, the trainer effect was addressed by statistically controlling for the trainer's style, sex and race and by hiring experienced human relations training leaders. Skilled trainers of varying race and sex led the groups. The trainer variable was thus representative of each of the four possible categories of race and sex (i.e., black female, white female, black male, white male). The researcher did not conduct any of the groups to avoid experimenter effects, or demand characteristics.

Training was replicated four times to allow representation (of each of the categories of race and sex) in the trainer variable. This replication of training also enhances generalisability of the treatment results.

More specifically, the Lieberman et al study defined an ideal style of leadership which was said to transcend theoretical orientation (i.e., Freudian, T group, etc.) of the trainer. Analyses of outcome, and subject reports revealed that the most effective trainer "...was one moderate in amount of stimulation and in expression of executive function and high in caring and meaning attribution." (Yalom, 1975, p. 477). (See pp.95-96 in the thesis for more details) In this present study, trainers were selected from a pool of candidates in response to the above findings. They were asked to describe their style (see Appendix J), and were further evaluated and interviewed by the researcher.

Processing was included in each of the workshop exercises. The Lieberman et al study also found that 'cognitive integration', further described as 'intellectual insight' helped subjects to generalise their workshop experiences. They reported this on their evaluations of the project. This was quite surprising since it was not an hypothesis of the authors; it was reported by many subjects, and it was pervasive throughout the various group orientations even those which were opposed to intellectualising (Yalom, 1975, p. 478).

LITERATURE REVIEW

This review presents the literature on human relations training in race relations. There have been many studies focussing on various types of groups, but few offer definitive results.

Self-acceptance is presented as a process which produces change: acceptance of others, and reduction of prejudice. The relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others is suggested by many correlational studies. This research is reviewed. There is research which suggests an inverse relationship between self-acceptance and prejudice. Four relevant studies are reviewed.

Communication is described as a process which produces change: individuals are encouraged to be less angry, less aggressive, and less violent-prone. Catharsis of aggression is also reviewed since it occurs in the context of communicating anger.

Lastly, aims of the study are described, and hypotheses listed.

Human Relations Training in Race Relations

There have been many attempts at human relations training in race relations. The review has been categorised into those studies which were offered to students, the police, military personnel, adults; and for racism awareness, and violence prevention. Few of them employ a true experimental design or offer clear-cut results. Of the twenty-two studies critiqued, only five are interesting or conclusive to the researcher of small group training. These are highlighted in the concluding remarks.

Studies with Students

Bryson, Renzaglia and Danish (1974) present a non-experimental video training model to help white counselling trainees and teachers explore attitudes of prejudice and more appropriate interracial behaviours. The rationale is that attitudes of prejudice are learned, therefore, they can be positively changed through communication with blacks and small group training.

They describe a video in which a black actor portrays various emotions toward an unseen person. The training group members respond as though they were the unseen counsellor. The way the members respond to these confrontations is material for improving their skills.

Weigel, Wiser and Cook (1975) conducted a field study which investigated the effects of small interracial work groups in a newly desegregated junior and senior high school. Three-hundred-twenty-four subjects, 12 to 16 years of age, were Mexican-American, black, and white. The ten leaders were female. (There is no mention of their race.) Each class was racially representative, and randomly assigned to one of the two conditions: the traditional class lecture format or the experimental class which encouraged common-goal achievement and 'interdependence' (p.228).

There was significantly more racial conflict between students in the traditional class. However, the authors do not define conflict. They just state that teachers recorded instances of it in the classroom. Interracial helping was significantly greater in the experimental group, as was white students' attraction to Mexican-Americans. The intervention did not generally improve racial attitudes.

Walker (1974) designed a weak treatment approach to improve the racial attitudes of black and white college students. The treatment group of fifty black and white, males and females, were exposed to two lectures and two motion pictures over eight weeks. The no-treatment

control group consisted of 25 white males and 25 black and white females. Subjects were pre- and posttested on the Integration Attitude Scale, and no significant differences were found.

Parker (1975) conducted a race relations program with forty black and white male college students who were assigned to three experimental and one control group (10 subjects each). Treatment consisted of communication skills training and/or exposure to the other racial group members. The control group received delayed training. An experienced black/white co-trainer team led the groups. Three instruments were used to measure change. Significant change on two of seven subscales of one instrument, and no change on the two other instruments suggests that this study was ineffective in positively changing racial attitudes.

Taylor (1974) looked at the effect of human relations, and black studies training. Twenty black and white graduate students were placed into groups of ten. Subjects saw films, attended conferences, and participated in simulated experiences. Data was collected at pretest, midtreatment and posttest by the researcher who conducted the training. There was significant change in the amount of knowledge learned (by whites) about the black culture. However, treatment did not affect attitudinal change.

Whitmarsh (1976) conducted a race-awareness course for 40 white, female students to prepare them to have constructive interracial contact. Treatment provided information, experiences and behavioural alternatives. The control group received no treatment. There was no mention that subjects were randomised into groups. Treatment did not produce over-all changes in attitudes toward blacks.

Patterson and Smits (1974) used small group training to reduce prejudice which was defined as '...significant bias in the direction of verbal statements' (p.9).

Sixteen male and female volunteers from a graduate counselling program were partially randomised into two treatment groups. Trained observers, and audio/video tapes recorded behavioural data.

The two groups differed slightly on their training approach. Results suggest that communication was significantly biased in both groups: blacks directed verbal statements to other blacks more so than did whites to other whites. Qualitative data suggest that the group was a microcosm of societal pressures; blacks spoke collectively while whites spoke individually; blacks used covert, non-verbal communication methods; and whites were unable to express anger toward blacks.

Prejudice was not reduced across the two groups. Regrettably, there was no control group with which to compare results, and no black trainers to lead the groups.

Studies with Police

In 1975, Teahan used role playing and small group techniques to improve policemen's attitudes, values, communication style and interpersonal relationships. It was hoped that these would generalise into better community relations. Forty-eight men comprised the experimental group (35 whites, 13 blacks) which was broken down into groups of ten. Fifty men comprised the no-treatment control group. Three instruments were selected for measuring change. Posttest results suggest that black policemen's attitudes toward whites were significantly more positive. However, while white policemen were more aware of black/white difficulties, they became more prejudiced toward blacks. The author feels that this increased prejudice was caused by white officers' beliefs that the training was offered to help the blacks rather than to help both groups. ?

The failure to communicate treatment objectives to white officers is a serious drawback to positive outcome, and points to the need for either more experienced trainers and better planning, or more here-and-now, in-depth sharing during treatment.

Training for policemen was also conducted by Sata (1975) who ran a five day sensitivity program following the (National Training Laboratory) 'cognitive approach to experiential learning' (p. 108). A consulting process led to the breakdown of mutual stereotypes between the trainers and police administrators. The program strategy which ensued respected the police system, and gained its support.

Four professional trainers conducted the training. Forty-eight policemen were selected from a pool of volunteers, and assigned to groups of eight so that heterogeneity was ensured. Periodically, subjects worked alone, in two's and in three's, and two groups were, at times, combined. Halfway into training, the subjects were called to an actual riot where some were hurt. Observers reported that the subjects were actually more sensitive to other police, and citizens. Police administrators requested additional training, and a second lab was conducted, where policemen were trained to become group leaders.

This was a flexible intervention with professional trainers which was designed to fit into the structure of the police bureaucracy. This added to, or was responsible for its success. A serious drawback was the absence of any statistical measurement, or a control group. Sata fails to mention the race of the subjects. This study needs replication with a rigorous experimental design to support positive outcome with clear-cut results.

Studies in the Military

Milam (1975) conducted intensive human relations training in the military to improve racial attitudes. Subjects were divided into three control and three experimental groups which differed in the amount of time between pre- and posttesting (one week apart, two weeks apart, and four weeks apart). The author reports that there were no significant findings on the Situational Attitude Scale, the Rigidity Scale and Short Dogmatism Scale.

Landis, Day, McGrew, Thomas and Miller (1976) conducted a 'programmed instruction approach' to reduce conflict, tension and misunderstanding which often occur between blacks and whites in the military. Involved in the research were 143 men. Short stories of incidents which usually occur between the culturally different were presented to the subjects. When a response (selected from alternatives) was chosen, the subjects were given immediate feedback on whether the choice was correct, and supporting information to enhance understanding of the other culture. The subjects proceeded to the next story, and the cycle was repeated.

The developmental research design was rigorous. A multi-racial research team was used to broaden the study's perspective. Significant results indicate that white officers learned about black culture, and that interracial understanding was improved. A drawback was that results were based on scores which have not been compared to a control group.

Studies with Adults

Olmosk and Graverson (1972) conducted a parent-teacher workshop to improve relations and relieve frustrations in an interracial school system. Thirteen black parents and 14 white teachers met for a weekend in a

retreat-like setting. Participants shared racial concerns, improved their communication skills, and developed a plan for community betterment. Various projects were initiated following the weekend.

The authors make suggestions for an improved project. To ensure the continuing effort of workshop learning, participants who have the trust of the groups they represent need to be chosen. Participants need to be emotionally stable, and able to view differing alternatives to problems. They need to be provided with sufficient background information (i.e., reading materials) and have an interest in the concerns at hand. Two and one half days was too short to work through the issues which emerged, or to fully develop relationships, according to the authors.

This project appears to have been successful in improving relationships and increasing intercultural understanding. While it is commendable that this effort was part of a larger research effort still in progress in 1972, this particular article makes no quantitative statements about change on a post- or delayed posttest basis. There was no experimental design, and no control group. Another drawback was that the trainers were white.

Cascio and Bass (1976) used role playing to change attitudes toward blacks in the office. Over a two-year period, data was collected on 2292 managers and other staff most of whom were male and white (16% were black, 6% were female). A group of 44 adult, college students served as a no-treatment control group. Treatment consisted of a four-hour training program which included five areas of race awareness: 1. there is bias in the system; 2. corporate administration of equal opportunity is restricted; 3. the competence of blacks; 4. blacks need to be included; 5. blacks need to feel self-confident.

Trainers were experienced. The program included: a posttest, a situation involving a disobedient black worker, a 45-minute role play, a one-hour review, and a posttest.

Positive significant changes were reported on factors three (competence of blacks), four (blacks need to be included), and five (blacks need to feel self-confident). Subjects who had verbally supported a factor changed more on that factor than the average score of all others involved in that role play. The judges (380 subjects) who did not actively argue in any role had scores which were lower than the rest of the group, suggesting a trend. The authors posit that active role playing in support of a concept, versus a silent role, leads to more positive change than does observing. Significant change did not occur on the first concept, 1. bias in the system, and two, corporate administration of equal opportunity is restricted. It is this writer's position that these two items deal with white subjects' acknowledgement of their own actions which support racism in the corporation (i.e., the role of the individual in institutional racism). Hence, the resistance to change on these two items. If this is the case, the study needs to employ a more cogent intervention to affect awareness of individual racism to effectively combat racism overall.

This study employed an impressively large sample. The sixty minute review of actions may have achieved closure which is said to be important in experiential learning (Lieberman et al, 1973). The use of role playing appears to be an effective modality for enhancing inter-racial understanding. The use of 44 adult college students as a control group is questionable, however. Forty-four is only 2% of the study's population of 2292. Are adult college students a likely control group for managers and other staff whose average time with the corporation was seven years? No information is given about the attitudinal questionnaire.

Fauth (1972) conducted human relations training to reduce prejudice and increase self-acceptance. Trainers of varying race and sex facilitated 28 exercises which included a personal therapy component. Her results were

significant but lack of a control group, random assignment, and unobtrusive measures cast doubt on the findings. This study is fully reviewed on pp. 32-33.

Rubin (1966, 1967a, 1967b) used the T group to successfully reduce prejudice and increase self-acceptance between black and white adults. Fifty subjects were randomly assigned to one of five groups. Treatment duration was two weeks in a retreat-like setting. Subjects were said to be less prejudiced than the general population, and therefore, less likely to experience attitude change. This fact adds credibility to his findings. This study is fully reviewed on pp. 33-34.

Studies in Racism Awareness

Kautz (1976) describes a four-year series of non-experimental training programmes which were offered to the staff of a children's governmental agency to enhance racial awareness. These included a black/white encounter group, a cognitive/experiential workshop, and available resources such as movies and seminars.

The author describes the efforts as moderately successful, at best. It was thought that due to the pervasiveness of racism, and the lack of tangible change, people became discouraged. Kautz believes that people are resistant to racism awareness since it implicates feelings of self, and is contrary to society's beliefs. Crucially, she claims that racism awareness leads to conflict with the system (e.g., in this case, the governmental agency); that the system needs to be fluid and supportive of such an approach for real change in racist attitudes and behaviours to be made.

Kautz describes a muddled effort rather than a systematic approach. The importance of her article lies in the statement that the system within which change is to

be made needs to be supportive and approving. Approval from those in authority may be an important ingredient in changes in prejudice and racism.

Halverson (1973) evaluated change in racist attitudes following human relations training. There were nine subjects, six blacks and three whites, who enrolled in a university course for credit. Treatment (sixty hours, usually weekly, over a four-month period) was 'theme centered' rather than growth centered with a main objective of encouraging subjects to change the system (p. 85). The author believed that altering the 'consciousness' of racism versus 'changing attitudes' was essential (p. 87). Skill development was said to encourage behavioural change.

Three dependent variables were: 1. awareness of institutional and individual racism, 2. awareness of one's personal role in racism, and 3. a description of anti-racist behaviour, i.e., specific skills. These were measured by unstructured questions, journal writing, and several inventories. This study has serious limitations. Treatment was cognitive at the expense of the affective (i.e., personal growth or therapy). There is no way to know whether the reported positive change is significant change. (Results were reported in terms of high, medium, and low change). Although subjects were measured on a pre-, post- and delayed posttest basis, there were no statistical analyses and no control group.

Katz (1977) presents a systematic, instructional approach to racism reduction for whites through the use of films, tapes, exercises and written materials. This training is said to affect the cognitive and affective components of racism*. Twenty-four subjects enrolled in a

* White culture in the United States is defined as intrinsically racist because it was designed by whites, having white norms and customs, and a paternalistic attitude toward Third World minorities. Racism is roughly described as prejudice plus the power to subordinate the minority group.

course on racism awareness, and were randomly assigned to one of two groups. Half of these subjects served as the control by receiving treatment several weeks after the first group. This also enabled the researcher to evaluate the effects of extensive pretesting and interviewing; whether they produced change in and of themselves. It also allowed for the replication of the training experience. No significant changes were found in the control group before it underwent treatment. Treatment effects remained at delayed posttest (4 weeks after treatment) and attitude change was maintained one year after treatment (Katz and Ivey, 1977).

Katz' research has many strengths. She replicated treatment with delayed training of her control group. This adds credibility to her findings. Results remained significant after four weeks, and one year after treatment. There are, however, some factors which jeopardise internal validity. Although significant change did occur on attitude and 'subjectively rated behaviours' (p. 86) only 10 out of 24 subjects were said to have met their behavioural objectives. Katz herself suggests that more research is required to develop and evaluate the attainment of behavioural objectives. At one-year follow-up, the authors state that subjects were still involved in anti-racist activities while they report instances of only four or five subjects out of twenty-four. Another drawback is that the subjects were enrolled in a university course where they were graded on their awareness of racism. It could be argued that it was in the subjects' best interests to score liberally on the scales. This fact may confound the positive outcome results in attitude change especially since 14 out of 24 subjects did not reach their behavioural objectives. Even designated significant others who scored the (BRS) behavioural change of the subjects would be inclined to score in the positive rather than the negative to help their friends get a good grade. One might suggest that subjects' attitudes did not change, they merely responded to demand characteristics.

Follow-up at one year may suggest, however, that positive racism awareness did occur as a result of treatment since one year is sufficient time for demand characteristics to dissipate. Unfortunately, reliance on subject self-report is the only documentation of behavioural change at this point.

Overall, the instruments used to measure change in this study appear to measure white racism in a blatant rather than an indirect way. Indirect measures are important in assessing attitudes or behaviours which are defined as positive by the researcher. Otherwise demand characteristics cannot be ruled out.

Katz (1978) outlined her six-stage strategy for anti-racism training. The first two stages focus on an understanding of institutional racism. Subjects learn important definitions, and explore the discrepancy between ideology and reality of American culture. Stage three brings a shift to the personal level so that subjects explore their feelings around minorities.

There is a two week break at this point to allow time for subjects to read additional materials, and to process the laboratory experience. Stages four and five focus on 'cultural racism' (p. 109) which is said to be the basis of personal racism. Racist attitudes and behaviours are confronted by the trainers. Stage six concentrates on the development of a plan to combat racism.

In 1983, Katz disclosed her strategical shift from 'white on white' training to multiracial group training. (Katz & Torres). Although she still prefers the all white groups, she believes that mixed-race groups (with a variety of trainers from different minority groups) offer minorities a fuller understanding of racism's 'conceptual framework' as long as the focus of racism as a white problem is maintained (p. 340). Another alternative is the use of both same-race, and mixed-race groups which are combined at pivotal points in the treatment process. Forty-five hours is said to be the ideal time-frame for the workshops, however, training can be conducted in less

time with the exclusion of some of the exercises. Its format can vary from one week intensive, to a semester course, to the two weekends separated by a two-week interval as long as the 1-6 stage format is followed, and the readings are assigned. Journals are recommended.

Studies on Violence Prevention

Sensitivity training was used in an attempt to settle border disputes among several African nations (Doob, 1970). Eighteen educated blacks, together with four, white American trainers utilised the T group method for 12 days. Members were encouraged to explore and change their "...attitudes and values, improve their communication skills,..." and to disclose the "...deeper psychological or emotional issues in the disputes,..." to enhance a creative solution to the disputes (p. ix). There was some suggestion of attitude change among members who had been taught to hate each other.

There was a meager, though not quantitative, attempt at data gathering through the use of a questionnaire to determine participants' reactions. Regarding the use of other methods of analyses, Doobs writes "...some of our African participants at Fermeda told us that they had no desire to be treated as guinea pigs, especially by non-Africans (p.200)." This suggests that the trainers were seen as outsiders, and that trained African leaders may have been more effective in leading the groups toward attitude and behaviour change. Doob and others admit that the two-part design of the workshop was a mistake. It appeared that the trust and commitment developed during the first stage (i.e., in the small training groups) broke down when participants were placed in the large assembly to develop a plan to settle the border disputes. Both trainers and some participants comment that the mode of communication in the large group (i.e., the assembly) was reminiscent of the pre-training stage which suggests a

regression to that stage. No follow-up procedures were scheduled to augment the workshop training or to reassess attitudes.

For future workshops, Doob would screen participants for willingness to participate, explore and analyse behaviour and personal issues, structure the agenda, and combine the sensitivity training and problem-solving into a simultaneous technique. He claims that the use of a control group at Fermeda was impossible; but it is conceivable that another group of Africans undergoing no T group training could have served as a control. Once the project was complete, the control group could have received training if desirable.

In Belfast (Doob & Foltz, 1973), fifty-six Protestants and Catholics, aged from 16 to 60 years, met in a neutral location for nine days. The workshop was divided into two halves. The first half, devoted to the Tavistock method, aimed to teach the participants about the way they function in organised groups. The pattern of group behaviour, between Catholics and Protestants in Belfast, relating to power, authority, leadership, conflict and religion was said to be maladaptive. Consequently, one of the primary goals of the workshop was to encourage participants to understand their destructive and covert modes of communication so that they could work on new, more effective methods.

The second half utilised the National Training Laboratory approach. The participants were helped to plan projects to be implemented in Belfast, and to acquire the skills necessary to develop and realise those projects.

It is extremely difficult to evaluate this research. There were no data on pre- and posttest attitudes or behaviour, or on personality or self-concept changes due to assurances made by the organisers to the participants at the onset of the workshop. Progress on insight was reported but not quantified. Participants answered open questions before and after the workshop; but it was "...decided unilaterally that the information should not

be made available for analysis" (p.498). The workshop was positive since a majority of the 56 participants gained insight into their dysfunctional pattern of intergroup behaviour, something which may never have occurred otherwise. Unfortunately, 56 people are a drop in the bucket when compared to the population of Belfast. There were no follow-up procedures to assess the maintenance of attitude or behaviour change, or to reinforce the workshop training.

Another major drawback is that the trainers were outsiders. While this enabled them to be neutral, and perhaps, more objective, it is possible that these outsiders may have brought about a negative response to the intervention. In support of this, Doob reports that the trainers sometimes gave offensive feedback because they didn't understand the subtleties of a situation. Lastly, it is difficult to evaluate the few exercises used since only vague descriptions of them are provided. Mention is made that the large groups were broken up into smaller ones, but no numbers are given.

Human relations training was used successfully to prevent racial violence and to cause constructive changes in behaviour in Carteret, New Jersey (Liss & Robinson, 1978). Forty-eight students, selected for their leadership ability, knowledge and involvement in the opposing groups, together with eight high school personnel met for 4 days. The objectives were to resolve immediate conflicts between participating students, encourage communication and interaction, build solidarity; and resolve racial conflicts which lead to violence between the groups.

Training encouraged racial-ethnic awareness and understanding, shared problem solving, interpersonal communication; and taught (i.e., experientially) the value of group effort.

The workshop format is as follows:

Day 1. Orientation:

Included were:

Exercises designed to build self-concept, and to explore the similarities between the groups.

Exercises to stimulate racial awareness, and understanding of the distortions and dangers of rumours, and to examine long-held beliefs about minorities.

Day 2. Importance of Group Effort/Communication Skills.

Included were:

Exercises designed to teach the value of group effort vs. individual effort, to teach communication skills, to build trust (reactions and feelings were processed) and to explore alternative solutions to problems (reactions and feelings were processed).

Day 3. Leadership Training.

Included were:

Exercises designed to encourage individual responsibility, to teach additional communication skills, to develop and plan for back-home problems (reactions and feelings were processed).

Day 4. Finalisation of the Plan.

Time was spent finalising the plan, getting general agreement of the plan, and evaluating, summarising and concluding.

Toward the conclusion of the workshop at the suggestion of the participating students, steps were taken to support the human relations training programme. Police were asked to leave the high school. Students initiated various projects to inform other students (as well as teachers and parents) of their insights and new skills; and to keep communication open between the staff and students. Considerable support was received from the adult Cartaret community.

The Liss and Robinson project (1978) was the only example in the literature which was successful in preventing violence between racial groups. The authors state that from 1971 to 1976, tension between racial groups increased until there was physical violence which led to the harm of a student, the closing of the school and boycotts by blacks.

The success of the Carteret workshop lies in its use of peer leaders, effective workshop techniques; discussion of relevant issues, immediate student-initiated, and follow-up activities, and the fact that it enjoyed strong support from faculty, parents and the community. During follow-up, training skills for interpersonal and group communication were reinforced. Strategies for the prevention and resolution of conflict were emphasised. Student teams were responsible for resolving racial misunderstandings as soon as they occurred, and a crisis intervention team was active until 1983 (Liss, 1983).

Liss claims that the success of the project is still evidenced today by the absence of racial violence in the school. In addition, five years after the project, minority students are integrated into every part of Cartaret's social life. This was not the case before the intervention. Not one school day has been lost because of racial conflict, and attendance, in general, has dramatically increased since the project. (No statistics were kept.) Before the project in 1977 racial conflict and reduced school attendance were frequent occurrences according to Liss (1982).

A major drawback for this project is that there were no pre-, post- or delayed posttest measures gathered on any dependent variables, (e.g., prejudice, self-acceptance) no randomisation, and no control group. The Cartaret intervention was planned as a community project in response to racial violence. It continued as such for six years. There is no way to determine the effectiveness of the workshop itself in the absence of the continued community involvement and reinforcement of training.

Concluding Remarks

Of the studies here reviewed, most have inconclusive findings. The following studies have results which are either conclusive or of interest to the researcher of small group training.

Cascio and Bass (1976) employed a very large sample. Treatment duration was four hours. Role playing was said to be crucial in changing attitudes towards blacks in the work environment. Twenty-five percent of the programme's agenda was devoted to processing and this emphasis may have enhanced positive outcome. This study failed to help white subjects become aware of their personal role in institutional racism, however, given the short duration of treatment, the results were excellent.

Fauth (1972) conducted human relations training over seven days. Twenty-eight exercises including a personal therapy component may have been responsible for a decrease in prejudice, an increase in self-acceptance, acceptance of others, and teachers' more positive assessment of their classroom behaviours. However, the lack of a control group, or an indirect measure of prejudice, etc. casts doubt on her findings.

Katz' anti-racism training (1977; Katz & Ivey, 1977) was successful in affecting change in awareness of racism, and in reported anti-racist behaviours. Her treatment was

comprehensive and cogent. The two-weekend format (with a two-week break) coupled with an affective and cognitive strategy may be responsible for positive outcome. A drawback is that it is difficult to get an indirect or unobtrusive measure of anti-racist attitudes and behaviours. The observers in this study were friends of the subjects. This renders them less objective than trained or professional observers. Another question that needs to be asked is whether an increase in racist awareness encourages a decrease in prejudice and stereotypy. Will members of a racism awareness seminar be more tolerant in their attitudes of prejudice? It would be helpful to replicate this study with an indirect measure of prejudice, and an unobtrusive measure of racism and anti-racist behaviour.

Rubin's (1966, 1967a, 1967b) study is a well-designed intervention which offers clear-cut results. Data suggest that prejudice* decreased and self-acceptance increased after small group training. His use of a direct measure of prejudice is a drawback, however.

Liss and Robinson (1978) is the only study in the literature which was successful in preventing violence in a community. This was the case five years after the initial violence, and ensuing workshop. A drawback to this project is the absence of any experimental design, or baseline figures to support one of the author's claims. School attendance and social integration have markedly improved. This together with the absence of racial violence in the community speaks highly of the effectiveness of the project.

* Rubin describes acceptance of others and prejudice as similar constructs. Prejudice is described as the "...extent of an individual's willingness to accept others in terms of their common humanity, no matter how different they may seem from himself" (1967b, p.234). Prejudice is seen as a more general concept than dislike of a particular group. Ethnocentrism, too, is a general term reflecting rigidity in accepting those who are alike, and rejecting those who are perceived as different. See p.87 below.

Self-Acceptance as a Process Producing Change

Self-acceptance is a process which can produce change. It has been posited that as self-acceptance increases, acceptance of others increases, and prejudice decreases. Self-acceptance appears to be a pivotal variable in attitude change.

Self-acceptance (or self esteem) is said to be the most important value since it is the evaluation of the self (Branden, 1969). The evaluation of the self implicates or affects the evaluation of others. Hence, its effect on interpersonal relationships.

The relationship between acceptance of self and acceptance of others has received strong empirical support from the following studies.

Ten counselees served as the sample for Sheerer's (1949) study to examine the relationship between these variables. Fifty-one statements evaluating the self and 50 statements evaluating others were culled from psychotherapy sessions and scored by four judges on a five-point scale. Interrater reliability ranged from 77.8% to 93.8%. To compute a score, units from 59 interviews were rated and an average score computed for both the self, and other. This was represented in a correlation coefficient which indicated a positive, significant relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others.

Stock (1949) also used ten counselees and psychotherapy statements as a measuring device. Content areas included feelings and perceptions relating to the self, and feelings and perceptions directed toward others. These were scored on a five-point scale by two judges, and the rating system was similar to Sheerer's. An average score was computed and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient chosen to represent interrater reliability (74.6%). A significant correlation between the variables was realised. Stock concludes that the data strongly support a relationship between acceptance of

self, and acceptance of others; and that negative feelings toward the self are related to negative feelings toward others, in general.

In 1951, with college and high school students, Phillips composed a 50-item questionnaire, half relating to attitudes toward the self and half relating to attitudes toward others. Again, items were marked on a five-point scale. A score was computed by adding the responses on each of the two sections of the questionnaire. Pearson's correlation coefficients were significant, supporting the relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others

Berger (1952) investigated the same variables in many samples of subjects, using the abridged version of Sheerer's statements. Pearson's correlation coefficients between self-acceptance and acceptance of others were reported for 183 day college students; 33 evening college students; 33 prisoners; 38 stutterers. With the exception of one group, 18 YMCA students, these data strongly support a positive relationship between the variables.

Part of McIntyre's (1952) study supports the self-other relationship. He administered the Phillips' questionnaire to those males (out of 224 male, first year college students) who scored in the upper and lower 25% sectors in the results of a social preference questionnaire. A significant Pearson correlation coefficient was found in support of the self-other relationship. Replication of this study (Fey, 1955) with 58, third-year medical students also supports the relationship between the variables.

Further support of these findings in a college population is provided by Omwake (1954) who asked 113 students to respond anonymously to three unpublished questionnaires. They were given Phillips' (1951) Attitudes Toward the Self and Others, Berger's (1952) Measurement of Self-Acceptance and Acceptance of Others, and

Bills, Vance and McLean's (1953) Index of Adjustment and Values. Significant correlations were realised on each of the instruments.

Suinn (1961) questioned 82 fourth-year, male high school students who were asked to describe their attitudes toward themselves, their fathers and their teachers. There was a positive correlation between the self attitude and the attitude toward father, and teacher. Suinn also found that as the level of perceived similarity increased between self and father and self and teacher ($r = -0.34$, $p > 0.002$), so did the generalisation of attitudes of self. (It seems that Suinn's use of generalise is similar to mirroring in relationships). Acceptance of others is really acceptance of specific people in the subject's life, namely, father and teacher who are described as social others. Suinn concludes that acceptance of self is generalised to others and speculates that this relationship holds for additional social others as well.

Fauth (1972) conducted seven-day human relations training which was successful in increasing self-acceptance and acceptance of others. However, the lack of a control group, and subject randomisation casts doubt on her findings. This study is fully reviewed on pp. 32-33. Rubin (1967b) reports a strong, positive relationship between the variables. This study is fully reviewed on pp. 33-34.

Sheerer (1949), Stock (1949), Phillips (1951), Berger (1952), McIntyre (1952), Omwake (1954) and Fey (1955)* used correlational statistics to support a positive relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others. Correlational statistics do not indicate causal relationships, they merely suggest a connection.

Fauth's study supports a causal relationship between the variables, but lack of a true experimental design puts the results in question. Rubin's is the only study which clearly supports a strong, positive relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others.

* It has been suggested that the significant correlations in these studies may have been due to response set.

Self-Acceptance and Prejudice

There have been several attempts in the literature to investigate the relationship between reduction of prejudice and corresponding increases in self-acceptance. These studies are reviewed below.

Rogers' (1965) theory of personality implies that the congruent or self-accepting individual is less likely to be prejudiced. He believes that an individual who is self-aware is less tense, less anxious and therefore less vulnerable to threats for which defenses are used to protect the self. Rogers states, "Adaptation to any life situation is improved because the behaviour will be guided by a more complete knowledge of the relevant sensory data, there being fewer experiences distorted and fewer denied..." (p.531).

"...more of the relevant experience is present in awareness, and hence subject to rational choice. This is referred to as 'greater acceptance of self'" (p.531). Rogers describes this individual as being more accepting of others and more apt to understand them as unique "...because he would have less need of being on defensive guard" (p.532). Rogers however offers no empirical justification for his belief in the correlation of these two variables. Other studies do strive to empirically support the relationship between decreases in prejudice and increases in self-acceptance. Five such studies were reviewed. Two of them examine children's attitudes, and one examines neurotic adults. The last two studies examine a so-called 'normal population'.

Tabachnick (1962) found that more prejudiced children were less self-accepting while less prejudiced children were more self-accepting in a study of white boys and girls (151 each), eleven years of age. The author measured self-concept, average grade level achievement, and prejudice.

Low self-esteem was defined as 'felt frustration'. Taken from Allport's definition (1979, 1954), it is said to be closely related to prejudice. Felt frustration is perceived by the individual as a result of the inability to reach a goal or goals. Likely to be displaced as prejudice, it is part of the '...frustration-aggression-displacement sequence...' (p.346).

Self-concept was measured by an unpublished inventory authored by Sears and associates. Respondents were asked to answer 'yes' or 'no' to the question "Am I pretty well satisfied with my self in this?" in regard to ten major categories: physical ability and appearance; mental activity; social relations with boys; and with girls; with parents, with teachers; work habits; personality and social virtues; personality and happy qualities; school subjects.

Prejudice was measured by the Gough, Harris, Martin and Edwards (GHME) prejudice index. This index has 12 positive and 6 negative items about a designated minority group (e.g., blacks) about which respondents give their agreement or disagreement.

Results suggest that high levels of prejudice in children are related to their having low self-esteem. The strongest relationships found were between prejudice and the following categories: satisfaction with personality and happy qualities, total satisfaction with self, and with social relations with same sex peers.

Stephen and Rosenfield (1978) conducted a follow-up to a previous study of the effects of desegregation on 'race relations and self esteem' (p.796). The purpose was to examine the dynamics of changes in the individual which relate to racial attitudes. Five variables were chosen for statistical analyses. They are the children's: level of intergroup interaction, self-esteem; and the parent's ethnocentric, authoritarian and punitive attitudes.

Initially, 230 white boys and girls, eleven to twelve years of age, and their mothers were asked to complete a questionnaire. They were attending either a segregated or

naturally integrated school in a racially-mixed district. A second interview was conducted two years later at which time all students were attending court-ordered, racially mixed schools. The final group comprised 65 students and their mothers.

The original questionnaire gathered information on the subjects' attitudes of prejudice, self-esteem, and patterns of interethnic contact. The second questionnaire additionally included a measure of students' perceptions of their parents' reward and punishment practices. Mothers completed their questionnaire only once, after the students were originally tested.

Prejudice was measured by 10 bipolar adjectives (e.g., 'friendly-unfriendly', 'trustworthy-untrustworthy') (p.798). Once an adjective was chosen from the pair, it was rated on a 1-9 basis.

Self-esteem was measured by a series of statements (e.g., "I wish that I were different from the way I am") where agreement or disagreement was rated on a five-point scale.

Contact with the other ethnic group was measured by asking the students how often they were involved in eight types of contact (e.g., going to their house, inviting them to my house). Frequency was measured by once or twice per week, less than once weekly, not at all.

Perception of parental discipline was measured by asking the students for the typical parental response to eight misbehaviours, e.g., not going to bed on time, using bad words. These were scored on a 4 point scale. Likewise, their perception of parental rewards was measured in response 'to eight positive behaviours', e.g., sharing with my friends, behaving well with houseguests (p.798).

The questionnaires for mothers measured opinions about integration and severe parenting practices, e.g., "I would prefer to send my children to an integrated school"; "A parent should never be made to look wrong in the child's eyes" (p.798).

Statistical analyses were conducted by stepwise multiple regression. Two factors were significant in explaining the changes in racial attitudes: increased interethnic contact, and parental punitiveness. A correlation matrix showed further that increased self-esteem is significantly correlated with positive changes in racial attitudes. The authors note that correlations do not specify causation; however, they do believe "...that two of the strongest predictors of positive changes in racial attitudes during school desegregation were increases in interethnic contact and increases in self-esteem" (p.802). They leave it to future researchers to empirically support a causal relationship between these variables.

Pearl (1954) investigated the relationship between increases in self-acceptance and the reduction of prejudice in his study of 12 neurotic men, aged 22 to 34 years. Subjects were pre- and posttested with the California E and F scales for prejudice, and a Q sort inventory of self-esteem.

The California E and F scales measure prejudice directly and indirectly, respectively. The Q sort consisted of 180 items, half of which were positive, and negative evaluations of the self. Subjects were asked to group these statements into one of two piles, (A) how they characteristically saw themselves; (B) how they would ideally like to characterise themselves.

Treatment consisted of psychotherapy of three-month duration conducted by psychologists and a psychiatric resident. The style of the clinicians was accepting; it included Rogerian, Adlerian and Freudian techniques.

Pretest results on self concept were placed on a continuum of ethnocentrism. They fell into two distinct groups, referred to as Group 1 (high prejudice: scores ranged from, E scale 80-118, F scale 109-157) and Group 2 (low prejudice: scores ranged from E scale, 23-64, F scale, 79-113). Q-sort results indicated that Group 2

experienced anxieties, impulses and hostilities but unlike Group 1, they admitted their existence. When pre- and posttest self concept scores were compared to changes in ethnocentrism, Pearl found a significant correlation between self-concept, one of the factors of ethnocentrism, and E scale changes. He reports that five out of six subjects showed reductions in ethnocentrism. Other correlations were not significant.

Fauth (1972) conducted a seven-day human relations training effort with teachers in order to reduce prejudice, increase self-acceptance and change classroom behaviours. A total of 118 black and white teachers enrolled in a university course for credit, and were placed into five groups. (There is no mention of random assignment.) Trainers were highly skilled men and women of varying racial origin.

Treatment included a personal therapy component and 28 exercises designed to "...create a feeling of community...and shared decision making" (p. 80), to encourage reciprocity of relationships, and an understanding of the similarities and differences between blacks and whites. Subjects learned communication skills, alternative behaviours, and nonverbal ways of expressing feelings.

Five instruments were used to measure change on a pre-, post- and six month's posttest basis. The Multifactor Racial Attitudes Inventory (Woodmansee & Cook, 1967), The Reactions Questionnaire (Woodmansee & Cook, 1966), The Acceptance of Self and Others Scale (Berger, 1952), The Morel Teacher Behaviour Inventory (Morel, 1968) and Flanders Interaction Analysis (Flanders, 1966).

Significant results were realised. Attitudes of racial prejudice decreased, self-acceptance, and acceptance of others increased. Teachers reported to be less authoritarian and more accepting of students' ideas. White subjects showed significantly greater change than did black participants in reducing racial prejudice, and increasing self-acceptance. However, there was no evidence that teachers positively changed in observed

classroom behaviours. There was a discrepancy in what teachers perceived was significant change (on the Morel Scale), and what was actually observed in the classroom by the trained raters (on the Flander's scale).

This research was successful in producing significant attitude change as well as self-report of classroom behaviours. This could be attributed to its week-long format, use of skilled leaders of varying racial origin, and cogent treatment strategy. Some methodological limitations cause a loss of confidence in this study's findings, however. No control group was used, and there is no mention of random assignment. Subjects registered for a university course and knew the purpose of the study. There were no unobtrusive instruments to measure their attitudes in an indirect way. The fact that teachers' self-assessments of classroom behaviours significantly changed while their observed classroom behaviours did not significantly change, suggests that demand characteristics may have been responsible for attitude change. This study needs to be replicated using a rigorous experimental design, and indirect measures of change.

Laboratory training (Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b) was used to significantly reduce prejudice and increase self-acceptance in black and white adults. Subjects reported greater self-acceptance as well as reductions in prejudice.

The 50 subjects (20 men and 30 women, 8 of whom were black) enrolled in a two week sensitivity program in a retreat-like setting. There were five groups composed of ten members. Of the six trainers, four were males, two were females. One female trainer was black. One group had two trainers. Subjects, randomly assigned to groups, were used as their own control. The T group format was used but no details were given on the exercises.

Rubin used 'human heartedness' (which is said to be one of three components of prejudice) to measure change. This is defined as the "...emotional acceptance-of-others in terms of their common humanity, no matter how different

they may seem from oneself" (p. 33). This direct scale includes 15 situations involving blacks and whites. An example is a community school board decision to send most of the black kids to one school, and most of the white kids to another. The test taker is asked to react by choosing four responses: one is the most ideal, and the other three share consecutively descending values; e.g., 4,3,2,1.

Rubin's measure of self-acceptance looks at the test taker's willingness to accept self-threatening facts. The Dorris, Levinson, Hanfmann Sentence Completion Test (SCT) consists of 50 incomplete sentences (e.g., "When he gets angry he..."; "When I get angry I..."), which were matched for content and randomly distributed. These were coded for 'ego-threatening content' (p.32). The subjects were asked to complete the sentences as quickly as possible using a phrase. They were asked to put a plus sign (+) next to those sentences which were personally relevant, and a minus sign (-) if it had no relevance. It was the presumption of the authors that a minus sign indicated a "...subject's lack of awareness of the personal tendency expressed in the completion" (p.31). The self-acceptance score was tabulated by dividing the number of ego-threatening responses (+) by the total number of possible responses.

The subjects are described as atypical of a general population in that they are more likely to attend a laboratory project, and their average pretest score in "human heartedness" was skewed in the direction of "human heartedness." In other words, they were less prejudiced than the general population, and, therefore, less likely to experience attitude change. This adds more credibility to his findings. The absence of an indirect measure of prejudice is a weakness of this study.

Concluding Remarks

The cited studies support a link between the variables. Rogers theorises about the relationship between increased self-acceptance and reduction of prejudice. Tabachnick's nonexperimental study offers support for the relationship. Stephan and Rosenfield cite a strong correlation between positive racial attitudes and increased self-esteem. Pearl's study suggests a trend in the direction of increased self-esteem and reduced ethnocentrism, although most of his results were without significance and his statistical analysis included correlation. Fauth's results support a relationship between increased self esteem and decreased prejudice but faulty methodology casts doubt on her findings. Lastly, Rubin's empirical work (1966, 1967a, 1967b) strongly supports a causal, inverse relationship between the variables.

Self-Acceptance

Self-concept, also called self-esteem or self-acceptance, can be defined as the way individuals see and feel about themselves (Egan, 1976). According to Branden (1969), self-esteem is the most important value individuals develop since it is the evaluation of the individuals themselves. This evaluation is not necessarily a conscious or verbal one. Rather, it is a feeling which is "...part of every other feeling..." And it involves "...every emotional response..." (p.109). An individual's evaluation of the world has as its centre the "me". Is this good or bad for me? It can be said that self-esteem is the most critical determinant of an individual's behaviour. Obviously, it affects how one associates and judges others. ?

In the interest of simplicity, the term self-acceptance will be used in this text. X

Communication as a Process Producing Change

A purpose of this section is to discuss the role of communication in interpersonal relationships. The skill of communication can be developed so that individuals are able to express anger, aggression, conflict (both constructive and destructive) and intense emotions on a current, or on-going basis through interpersonal communication which may include verbal, fair fighting, and rituals (e.g., the Vesuvius [Bach & Wyden, 1969]). The hypothesis is that the individual will experience less rage or discontent.

In the catharsis of aggression section, the point is made that aggression (i.e., anger, conflict, etc.) can not be eliminated (Bach & Goldberg, 1975); that it needs to be expressed appropriately; that aggression from the past can be expressed through personal or group psychotherapy. Once expressed, the individual is "...clearer about the experience,...and more able to become involved with current events" (Nichols & Zax, 1977, p. 209).

More pointedly for human relations training, catharsis of aggression may be virtually essential in producing desirable change since angry adults will be likely to have had myriad experiences from which the anger, rage (or other intense emotions) remains unexpressed. This section supports the importance of the Vesuvius exercise which, together with its cognitive component (i.e., processing of the exercise), provides a constructive outlet for destructive emotions.

The cognitive component, in general, received strong empirical support from Lieberman et al (1973). In this study, a significant number of subjects reported that an intellectual component was important for understanding and utilising the emotional experiences in their small group training. This is especially noteworthy since the concept was not an hypothesis of this large-scale study.

Communication

Communication is the sharing of information through the use of speaking, writing, or making signs (Block et al, 1967). Verbal communication is an important tool since it is the medium through which individuals impart their thoughts, desires, ideas, needs, feelings, fears. People are social beings "...with social needs that are fulfilled through interaction with others" (Egan, 1976, p.17). Through interactions individuals form interpersonal relationships which require verbal communication in order to subsist.

Style of communication can be constructive, tending to enhance and build the relationship, or destructive, tending to spoil or destroy the relationship. Effective communication is needed to support growth, change and development in relationships (Coser, 1956; Bach, 1966, 1970; Bach & Goldberg 1975; Bach & Wyden, 1969); and high-level communication skills are essential to working through conflicting ideas. Expressing unfamiliar ideas in a supportive environment is an essential ingredient to working through conflicts. "Ideas are important to the creative resolution of conflict...", according to Deutsch (1973, p. 362). Encouraging opposing parties to participate in this way can lead them to a creative agreement. With this encouragement, "innovation" and "originality" may prevail, and with it, the hope that a constructive solution can be found. To support this course, Deutsch, too, believes that effective communication is important to insure that people express themselves, understand others, and use the fluid process that is available to them.

Communication and Aggression

With effective communication we can learn to constructively express anger and aggression (Bach, 1970; Bach & Goldberg, 1975). Suppressing anger and aggression is undesirable (Henry, 1965; Bach, 1970; Bach & Goldberg, 1975). In extreme cases, it can lead to depression, suicide, drug addiction, alcoholism and other self-destructive tendencies (Bach & Goldberg, 1975).

Bach recommends that anger be expressed directly and constructively in interpersonal relationships, "eyeball to eyeball" (1970, Tape 3). Furthermore, individuals should become responsible for its expression and release, just as they are responsible for sexual expression and release. Bach designed a manual for fair fighting to enable individuals to feel comfortable and familiar (and not defensive) with "constructive aggression." Once people have battled, they can be closer because fair fighting increases goodwill and fosters intimacy, according to Bach.

Coser's (1956) theory is similar to Bach's. He contends that realistic social conflict can help a system, group or relationship adjust to change by maintaining or adapting to meet the changed needs of the parties. Disharmony (i.e., conflict) and cooperation have important social functions. Disharmony occurs when individuals voice their feelings and objections to bring about change, while cooperation occurs as individuals collaborate when they agree on issues. The results of a marital-conflict study support Coser's theory. They suggest that couples who engage in conflict rather than avoid it, experience a positive change in understanding their spouse (Knudson et al, 1980). The conflict-avoidance group showed opposite results, leading to the conclusion that couples who argue may develop increased awareness of one another's thinking because of their conflict. This communication allows their relationship to adapt to meet changing needs.

Coser further believes that conflict which does not strive to overturn the underlying philosophy which governs

the system, "...revitalizes existent norms and creates a new framework of norms within which the contenders can struggle" (p.125). In essence, it is crucial that individuals in a relationship, group, etc. engage in constructive conflict if they are to grow and change within their system. The alternative is to remain static or to exist in a rigid system which is threatened by hostile explosion from within.

Communication and Conflict

According to Coser, if conflict is expressed within a stable relationship or system, and hostilities are not accumulated or repressed, but

allowed to occur wherever a resolution of tension seems to be indicated, such conflict is likely to remain focused primarily on the condition which led to its outbreak and not to revive blocked hostility,...(p.153).

Coser refers to this type of conflict as "realistic conflict" (vs. "nonrealistic conflict"). A realistic conflict is a result of the "frustration of specific demands" or "estimates of gains" by parties who direct their energies toward someone (or something) who is presumed to be responsible (p.49). In a realistic conflict, the parties have alternate ways short of actual violence or cessation of communication for achieving their goals, e.g., bargaining and pressure tactics rather than all-out strike. Gude (1971) researched political violence in South America. He also believes that if alternatives to settling conflicts exist, violence is not likely to occur.

Nonrealistic conflicts erupt due to "...deprivations and frustrations stemming from the socialisation process and from later adult role obligations." They also result, "...from a conversion of originally realistic antagonism

which was disallowed expression" (pp.54-55). With non-realistic conflict, conflict is an end in itself. Antagonists seek the release of tension through the conflict, and the only alternative is the choice of target. Coser emphasises that realistic conflict is different from what is called "safety valve" mechanisms which substitute objects for tension release. Here, it is often socially acceptable that members of society release their pent-up hostilities toward a target group. The "safety valve" mechanism dysfunctionally channels the hostilities away from the original precipitator. No specific solution of the conflict is achieved; only tension is released. This process does not permit individuals to adjust to a changing environment, and it promotes a rigid and exploitable system.* Coser (1956) compares the society which channels and displaces its aggression to the neurotic individual:

Psychologists have shown experimentally that overt aggression is more satisfying than non-overt aggression,^{17†} similarly, there is at least a presumption that conflict carried out directly against the object may prove to be less dysfunctional for the social system than channeling of aggressiveness through safety-valve institutions.

Institutions which offer substitute channels for the release of aggressiveness may be dysfunctional for the social system in the same way as neurotic symptoms are dysfunctional for the personality system. Neurotic symptoms are a result of repression while at the same time they provide partial satisfaction of repressed drives (p.46).

* The system is exploitable because the individuals in it are unaware of their repressed emotions which have compounded as a result of being repressed and displaced. Individuals can be manipulated through these unexpressed emotions due to their magnitude. At this point, the individuals are unable to direct the course, or choose the target of their emotional response (Coser, 1956; Bach & Goldberg, 1975).

† This number (i.e., 17) was part of the original quote, referring to a publication from which it came.

The usual outlets for aggression are displaced, and/or socially sanctioned. For example, an out-group or scapegoat becomes a target for the release of pent-up aggression. At this point, however, the aggression, because it is "distanced" and "abstracted" is lethal. Storr believes that the ability to use symbolic thought allows for this distancing and abstracting. Brutal violence is easier to commit against strangers than friends. The distance (i.e., physical or psychological) between an individual and others transforms the others into "impersonal target(s)." These targets lose their human qualities (1968, p.112.)*.

Communication and Emotion

In discussing the emotions which accompany verbal fighting, Bach describes the use of rituals or customs which are designed to take the sting out of heated emotions or aggression. He believes that fight rituals are essential to the healthy management of aggression because they release tension.⁺ One example is the Vesuvius (Bach

* It has been theorised that in times of war, individuals perceive their enemy in stereotypic fashion. "The enemy is transformed into an unrelieved evil, and one's own side is seen as possessing all the virtues" (Shibutani & Kwan in Marx, 1971, p.268). The enemy is said to be "...cruel, treacherous, sordid, perfidious, destructive,...a fiend..." (p.270). The most horrible acts are "...possible because of the complete lack of identification" (p.272). The irony is that the enemy forms the same stereotypic picture of those they consider to be their opponents.

+ Animals have aggressive rituals and foreplays which appear to preclude unnecessary intra-species killing. Storr (1968) writes of appeasement gestures which appear to inhibit the stronger animal from attacking the weaker one.

& Wyden, 1969), a blowing-off of steam, a venting of spontaneous hostility. It is a "...temper tantrum that does not involve a partner directly..." (p.48). After individuals spend their aggressive emotions, they are ready to pursue a planning session. The fight is over, and they are more creative about solving their differences. They demand change (Bach, 1970, Tape 1).

Robarchek (1977) describes a similar technique used by the Semai, a nonviolent aborigine tribe from Malaysia, who are known for their avoidance of any kind of interpersonal violence. This tribe has a complex, effective custom for talking the conflict to death. Talking is continued until the emotional component is exhausted. It serves as a catharsis for frustration and aggression. Implicit in their custom is the notion that interpersonal aggression should not fester. Rather, it should be brought out into the open so that the heightened arousal can be reduced through discussion of the disagreement. This Semai ritual ends only when all participants are satisfied; when they have nothing more to say about the matter. Robarchek reports that the custom thus described replaces the need for hostile and aggressive behaviour in a society which fears it. The motivation toward aggression or revenge is removed together with the emotional component of the conflict.

Bach also acknowledges that hostility is a component of aggression. His rituals are designed to remove the lethality from aggression by deescalating and removing the need to act on the aggression.*

This review describes communication as a vehicle for the expression of "constructive aggression" and the

* Bach conducted research with spouses of both sexes who had murdered their mates. The results supported his hypothesis that "Those who kill their mates are fight phobic" (1970, Tape IV).

prevention of violence. It is held that anger should be directly expressed in interpersonal relationships and that rituals may be employed for the constructive expression of intense anger.

Catharsis of Aggression

Aggression is a characteristic of the human species, a force which has allowed the species to survive in the past when humans were pitted against the environment. The construct of aggression includes cognitive and emotional components. Robarchek (1977) posits that aggression is preceded by an emotional state of arousal, and that this emotional state of autonomic arousal subsumes the emotion of fear, anxiety or aggression. Which emotion is elicited depends on the aroused individual who is affected by a "...complex interaction of systems on different levels of organization: physiological, psychological, and socio-cultural" (p.773). In other words, Robarchek describes aggression as a culturally-learned response to a generalised state of arousal.

Survival today does not depend on the same utilisation of aggression. In fact, modern society regards interpersonal aggression as an undesirable characteristic (Bach & Goldberg, 1975). Researchers view aggression as a negative trait (Geen & Quanty, 1977), and experimental results more often than not support the claim that aggressive-releasing activities lead to more aggression in the laboratory. Bach and Goldberg (1975) address this issue:

The notion that aggression breeds more aggression contains within it the underlying belief that aggression can be eliminated altogether... There is not a shred of evidence in support of the belief that aggression can be totally eliminated. Rather, the task is one of acknowledging openly its reality in all of us, eliminating the taboos against its expression in personal ways, and then training or socializing expression into constructive channels (p.134).

One constructive channel for aggression is catharsis. Catharsis, according to Nichols and Zax (1977) is part of a sequence of emotional action or response. Individuals use catharsis when they remember a feeling, communicate that feeling, and engage in physical reactions which are associated with "...having' the feeling" (p.209). Crying can be a response to memories which are sad. This sadness can either be avoided or expressed. The authors continue:

If a patient denies or avoids acting sadly, we may say that the feelings are suppressed or repressed, but what is actually happening is ...that part of the natural action sequence (crying) is being avoided. Catharsis, then, is part of completing the action sequence. By finishing it, the patient may become clearer about the experience, less tense, and more able to become involved with current events (p.209).

These authors believe that individuals can learn to express negative or heretofore undisclosed feelings in the psychotherapy group, to find that the expression of these vivid feelings is not catastrophic. Being a member of a psychotherapy group offers the individual the opportunity to practice ways of expressing anger constructively instead of suppressing it to the point of rage.

The Cognitive Component (Catharsis of Aggression)

Research suggests that aggression is cathartic when a cognitive component is present, for example, when "...reasonable, positive interpretation of the frustrating situation..." is given (Mallick & McCandless 1966, p.596). A study by Bramel, Taub and Blum (1968) suggested that catharsis appears to be effective when subjects are given clear information that their provocateur is hurt, when they have no guilt, and when they are neither encouraged

or discouraged to aggress. Allport (1945) discussed the expression of hostility directed toward minority groups. In a re-education seminar, members directed blame for racial difficulties onto the groups themselves. Allport suggested that these outbursts are a kind of catharsis which is at "...the very heart of prejudice itself..." (p.6). These feelings are usually "unadmitted,..., rationalized and justified..." by the individual who avoids guilt by projecting it onto the outgroup. So prevalent was this blaming phenomenon, that Allport described catharsis as a "safety valve" for prejudice and an essential component in the re-educational process. Individuals are not ready to accept a new point of view until they get rid of this anger.

Feshbach (1956) posits that in order for aggression* to be drive reducing, "...components of the specific drive pattern must be present during the activity" (p.460). For example, aggression against a displaced target may reduce aggression toward the original target if one is thinking of the original target when one is aggressing against the displaced target, or if one has unconsciously or consciously connected the original and displaced targets.

From the classic research study in 1973 (Lieberman, Yalom & Miles), there was strong support for the 'dual emotional-intellectual components of the psychotherapeutic process' (p.29). "We must experience something strongly, but we must also, through our faculty of reason, understand the implications of that emotional experience" (p.28). Following the Lieberman et al position, this researcher believes that in order for aggression to be

* Aggression is not necessarily cathartic when the aggression is displaced to a socially-approved form (Feshbach, 1956) such as boxing; or directed toward an inanimate object (Mallick & McCandless, 1966). Expression of anger on a written questionnaire (e.g., ratings of like-dislike) as well as aggression without anger have no cathartic effect (Mallick & McCandless, 1966).

cathartic, the aggressor must experience intellectual insight. That is, persons aggressing must cognitively process new, insightful information and integrate this information so that they may learn from the aggressive situation. In this way, the aggressor experiences a reduced aggressive drive in the psychological as well as the physiological sense. The integration of new information encourages the decrease of psychological arousal.

Contrary to current psychological belief, it is being posited that full experiencing of anger, aggression, conflict (both constructive and destructive) and intense emotions through highly developed communication skills and rituals will have a constructive potential or end (Coser, 1956; Bach, 1966, 1970; Bach & Goldberg, 1975; Bach & Wyden, 1969). Suppressing these feelings and emotions will not eliminate them. Rather, the emotional and cognitive components of this catharsis (or expression) complement this process of self knowledge (Yalom, 1975), and are said to have a curative effect which may lead to attitude and behaviour change.

Aims of this Study

The aims of this present study were to examine the effects of an intensive, weekend-long human relations training workshop between black and white adults. It was hypothesised that at posttest, significant changes would be found: communication style would be improved, prejudice decreased, and self-acceptance increased in the treatment group when these scores were compared to the control group scores. It was also hypothesised that at delayed posttest, treatment gains would remain in effect. The pretest was used as the covariate in these analyses except for communication style which was measured at posttest only.

Implied in sensitivity training is the theory that self-acceptance increases during the therapeutic process (Wechsler et al, 1962; Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b; Rogers, 1979). Essential to this therapeutic process is a safe, supportive or cooperative environment where the members can examine values, beliefs and themselves in order to increase their acceptance of their real (vs. ideal) self.

The small-group psychotherapeutic approach is thought to be an effective modality for changing attitudes and behaviour in general (Yalom, 1975). This approach leads to an increase in self-acceptance and corresponding decrease in prejudice (Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b). There is a solid body of correlational research which suggests that as self-acceptance increases, acceptance of others increases (Sheerer, 1949; Stock, 1949; Phillips, 1951; Berger, 1952; McIntyre, 1952; Omwake, 1954; Fey, 1955; Suinn, 1961).

From a total perspective, this was an attempt to investigate the model of decreased prejudice and increased self-acceptance. There was a dual strategy of reducing prejudice directly by increasing acceptance of others and indirectly by increasing self-acceptance.

It was thought that a cogent, experiential intervention could be augmented by exercises which might serve as cognitive reference points for change. It was thought that a shorter intervention (2 1/2 days in this present study versus 2 weeks in the Rubin study) would require these reference points to compensate for the lack of time. Theoretically, exercises speed therapeutic development, according to Egan (1976). The shorter interventions in the literature used specific exercises as well (Katz, 1977; Liss & Robinson, 1978). These authors may have also believed that shorter interventions need the emphasis of reference points (i.e., exercises).

Theoretically, prejudice was thought to be directly manipulated by increasing members' acceptance of others (i.e., other members) in the workshop. It was thought that this greater acceptance would generalise to other

relationships. Members were encouraged to improve their interpersonal relationships through the NASA exercise (#III), Intergroup Meeting, which specifically deals with prejudice (#IV), general interaction and communication during training. Interpersonal relationships were thought to be improved through members' sharing their feelings and attitudes in a safe environment. This theoretically leads to members seeing the similarity in their needs, values and goals (Fauth, 1972; Liss & Robinson, 1978). This was encouraged in some way by each of the nine exercises.

The NASA exercise is thought to promote the valuing of group effort rather than individual endeavour; collaboration and solidarity rather than competition. This is thought to enhance relationships since members work together toward a common goal (Sherif et al, 1961).

Intergroup Meeting sought to decrease prejudice by having members examine stereotypes and myths which exist between the races. This is thought to enhance relationships through the mutual process of examining the artifacts of prejudice, interacting, and building on similarities and trust.

Since communication plays a pivotal role in relationships (it can enhance or destroy them), communication skills training was included to support the development of relationships inside, as well as outside the workshop. If after treatment, subjects possessed specific communication skills, they may be more likely to utilise these skills to vent their frustrations and negotiate change. And, this behaviour change (new skills in communicating), might serve to augment any changes in attitudes (self-acceptance and prejudice).

Theorists believe that improving relationships indirectly affects self-acceptance (Bach, 1966, 1970; Bach & Goldberg, 1975; Bach & Wyden, 1969; Egan, 1975, 1976). This brings us again to the dual strategy of training as mentioned above. It was stated that treatment in this present study encompassed a dual strategy of reducing prejudice and increasing self-acceptance. This increase

in self-acceptance was encouraged directly by the Self-Concept exercise (#II) and indirectly by the Communication Skills exercise (#VI), the personal therapy component (Yalom, 1975), (#VIII, Unstructured group activity), the Vesuvius (#VII), and general interaction during the training.

The Self Concept exercise was thought to encourage members to explore their feelings and attitudes by focussing on themselves, accepting themselves, and understanding the similarity of needs between blacks and whites.

Change on communication style was directly encouraged by the skills exercise (#VI) as well as by all exercises in the workshop, since members were encouraged to communicate and the trainers modelled a constructive style.

Communication skills training is thought to enhance self-acceptance indirectly through assertiveness training and personal therapy (Bach, 1966, 1970; Bach & Goldberg, 1975; Bach & Wyden, 1969; Egan, 1975, 1976). Assertiveness training usually occurs when members communicate their needs on an on-going basis, while therapy occurs as members work through their concerns and priorities including anger around racial and personal issues.

It was thought that the small group, psychotherapeutic approach (with the communication skills component) would be effective in increasing an individual's self-acceptance, reducing attitudes of prejudice and changing communication style from destructive to constructive.

All subjects were pretested on the dependent variables of self-acceptance and prejudice (indirect* and direct measures). Communication style was measured on a posttest only basis. Screening was conducted through the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), the Psychosocial

* The indirect measure of prejudice was used in an attempt to measure prejudice without the knowledge of the subjects.

History Screening Questionnaire (PHSQ) and an interview. The no-treatment control group provided the opportunity to measure the dependent variables without the influence of the independent variable, providing the necessary conditions for a true comparison to be made. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of five groups once they completed the pre-test. Importantly, trainers were chosen for their similar style, and the treatment condition replicated four times so that a trainer representing each category of race and sex conducted a group. The overall treatment design hoped to find that treatment was equally effective given a particular trainer style (outlined by Lieberman et al, 1973), regardless of the trainer's race or sex.

Rationale for Choice of a No-Treatment Control Group

It would have been ideal to control for the Hawthorne effect through the use of the placebo control, or another training strategy.* These were rejected, and a no-treatment control group was planned.

Choosing another training strategy was difficult since none was used previously. Rubin (1966, 1967a, 1967b) and Katz (1977) used subjects as their own control; Liss and Robinson (1978), Doob (1970), Fauth (1972), and Doob and Foltz (1973) used no control group.

Admittedly, a non-structured, weekend discussion group, led by a trainer who played a minimal role, could have been employed as a placebo control. This approach was rejected since it was thought that racial conflict could result due to boredom or discontent. The responsibility for people's mental and physical safety was an enormous one, and it was thought necessary to avoid any risk to subjects' safety.

Lack of money was another factor against using the placebo control. Trainer's fees (considerably more than was given the co-trainer team in the no-treatment control), cabin rental, food, transportation, audio equipment

** If the researcher has financial resources, and/or institutional support, it may be worthwhile to employ a placebo control which consists of another treatment strategy.*

rental, etc., would have added to the cost of an already expensive project. Simplicity of using the no-treatment control was also a factor in its favour.

One no-treatment control group was planned. The behavioural posttest (which was the same for all groups, treatment and control) made necessary the use of a trainer to explain procedures, and monitor the discussion which lasted one hour. Even though the trainer's role was one of minimal involvement, it was thought that the presence of this professional might in some way affect the ensuing dynamics.

Conducting the control group with one trainer appeared to be a less attractive design strategy since the trainer would represent only one of four variables. With economy in mind, it was decided that a co-trainer team, representative of the race or sex variable was appropriate. In this way, the team was representative of two of the four variables. A black-white, male co-trainer team was chosen. It was decided that race, since it was the focus of the study, was the more important variable to represent. Admittedly, a black-white female co-trainer team could have accomplished the same goal. Since two male trainers were readily available, they were hired. It would have made sense to conduct another control group with a black/white female co-trainer team to represent the sex variable. A scarcity of subjects ruled out this option.

For the above reasons (i.e., lack of an appropriate model, subject's mental and physical safety, simplicity of the no-treatment control), the placebo control with another treatment strategy was rejected. The study was becoming complex with the four-time replication of the design to include trainers of both races and sexes. This replication was thought to be of paramount importance to the study: in this way results would be more credible, being based on a larger population of subjects. This would add credibility to the effectiveness of this design, the importance of the trainer's style (as outlined in

Lieberman et al, 1973; Yalom, 1975), and the potential of the small group, psychotherapeutic approach in reducing prejudice, increasing self-acceptance, improving communication style.

Hypotheses

The study tested these 5 hypothesis:

- Hypothesis 1: Treatment will increase self-acceptance.
- Hypothesis 2: Treatment will decrease prejudice as measured by the direct measure.
- Hypothesis 3: Treatment will decrease prejudice as measured by the indirect measure.
- Hypothesis 4: Treatment will improve communication style.
- Hypothesis 5: Treatment effects are long term (i.e., will appear at delayed posttest). This does not include communication style which was measured at posttest only.

CHAPTER II

TREATMENT RATIONALE

Research studies and the media discuss conflict and violence in terms of the masses rather than in terms of the individual; yet it is the individual who is frustrated or deprived, who is restless or angry, who is prejudiced. It is the individual who needs to receive the focus of attention (Davies, 1971; Liss & Robinson, 1978). The literature on violence, conflict and conflict resolution suggests that multiple psychological factors personally affecting the individual are involved. Marx (1971) believes it is important to question the unconscious motives behind racial violence. Does it occur because of personal, displaced discontent? He asks:

Under what conditions does the struggle for equal opportunity, dignity, and redistribution of power and income occur, as against strains being ignored, unrecognized, or resulting in displaced hostility toward oneself, other members of one's group or giving rise to individualistic and idiosyncratic resistance (p.3).

Barclay, too (1984), recognises the individual's responsibility in violence. He believes that our emotional reactions are still quite primitive. We use violence to solve conflicts, and this is unacceptable. If we want to outlaw violence on an international basis, individual behaviour needs to be changed. Preventive programs, he believes, are vehicles for planning and developing responsible, 'self-actualising' behavioral responses (p.443).

A medium which affects individual psychology is the small psychotherapy group. The research suggests that the small-group, intensive approach is an effective strategy for changing an individual's attitudes and behaviours

(Bach, 1966; Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b; Yalom, 1975; Liss & Robinson, 1978). The small training group is known by many names: sensitivity training, laboratory training, encounter, human relations training, T group or group therapy. For the purposes of this study, the small-group, intensive approach will be referred to as human relations training. The philosophy behind human relations training is that prejudice will decrease as individuals become aware of the needs of others, and understand how their behaviour affects others. Rubin (1966, 1967a, 1967b) draws on correlational research which suggests that human relations training leads individuals to greater self-acceptance and that self-acceptance is positively related to acceptance of others (Sheerer, 1949; Stock, 1949). There are other studies which support the relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others with correlational statistics (Phillips, 1951; Berger, 1952; McIntyre, 1952; Omwake, 1954; Fey, 1955; Suinn, 1961). (These are reviewed on pp.25-27). In his study, Rubin states that his pre- and posttest data show that small group training resulted in increases in self-acceptance, and reductions in prejudice (which he also terms acceptance of others). (See pp. 33-34 for a review of this study).

Marathon Human Relations Training

Human relations training is thought to be effective in causing behaviour change (Liss & Robinson, 1978). Yalom (1975) discusses the medium, and Kurt Lewin's belief pertaining to this end:

Group members learn most effectively by studying the very interactional network in which they themselves are enmeshed. They profit enormously by being confronted in an objective manner, with on-the-spot observations of their own behaviour

and its effect on others; they may learn about their interpersonal styles, the responses of others to them, and about group behaviour and development in general ...Lewin's research had led him to several conclusions about changing behaviour...long-held beliefs can be changed only when individuals are able to examine them personally and conclude that they are unsatisfactory. Methods of changing attitudes, or retraining, therefore, are effective if trainees are provided with opportunities for discovering the deleterious effects upon themselves; and others of their customary behaviour. Thus, the trainee must be helped to see himself as others see him. Only when the individual himself discovers these facts will his attitude and subsequent behaviour change. As Lewin put it, 'This result occurs when the facts become really their facts (as against other people's facts)'. An individual will believe facts he himself has discovered in the same way he believes in himself (pp.460-462).

Marathon human relations training has longer sessions and continuity, important conditions for accomplishing attitude and behaviour change. Moreover, the marathon format provides longer, intensive sessions with economy; i.e., over 2½ days the marathon format has potentially 30 hours of meeting time; a normal format with hour-long meetings twice per week would require almost 15 full weeks to provide the same hourly commitment. The marathon format may reduce the mortality rate, although subjects could refuse to participate by leaving the premises.

The rationale behind this study is that "group therapy for normals" (Wechsler, Massarik, Tannenbaum, 1962; Yalom, 1975) leads to attitude and subsequent behaviour change. Early on in the history of the T group, group leaders worked with people who were considered to be successful, mentally healthy individuals. After a time, it became apparent that these same individuals "...lived with a fairly continuous level of tension, insecurity, and value conflict" (Yalom, p.467). Wechsler et al (1962) state:

As no convenient learning vehicle is typically available to the 'pseudo-healthy' person, tensions below the surface debilitate realization of potential capacities, stunt creativity, infuse hostility into a vast range of human contact, and frequently generate hampering psychosomatic problems (p.31).

The T group provides an atmosphere where support and confrontation are prevalent so that members of the group are able to communicate honestly with each other "...to re-examine these basic life values and the discrepancies between these values and their life-styles,..." (Yalom, p.470). Participants in a marathon therapy group work on new, more efficient ways of dealing with conflicts that are naturally going to occur between group members.

...This includes the full airing of conflict and aggression between members, as well as the expression of affection and acceptance. The focus is on the experiences that acutely emerge within and among group participants during the long meetings. Candid confrontations, open sharing, and receptivity to feedback are called for night and day. Candid critique, honest aggression...the opportunity to 'fight it out,' are all part of this process (Bach, 1967a, p.999).

There is more of a chance to learn new behaviours in group training than in one-to-one sessions, postulate Bach and Wyden (1969), because of the attention from members of the group. From practical experience these authors observe that the members of the group serve as an audience which judges, gives, receives feedback, and encourages participants to reveal their communication style and personality in a variety of situations. "...[T]he stimulation and instigation for response is at once more forceful (coming from several people rather than one) and more heterogeneous,..." (p.381). There is less of a chance to produce these dynamics in a dyadic rela-

tionship. While there is more focus on the client in a one-to-one relationship, the dynamics are less varied, coming from only two individuals.

Attitude Change

An extensive review of the literature on contact between ethnic groups and consequential attitude change reveals that mere contact between ethnic groups does not lead to positive attitude change or increased understanding. Two historical cases in point are the Jews, and the Blacks who were in proximity to their antagonists. In order for contact between ethnic groups to lead to positive attitude change the contact must be 'ego-involving' and intimate, according to Amir (1969, p.334). This encourages in-group members to avoid stereotyping out-group members and to view them as individuals who possess some in-group characteristics. A feeling of similarity is an important component of interpersonal cooperation. Judd (1978) stresses that research on conflict resolution consistently shows "...that the perception of similarity of values, goals, and actions is both an important determinant and result of the different processes of resolution" (p.484). When parties see themselves as being similar, they tend to choose a cooperative stance; when parties view themselves as dissimilar, they tend to take the competitive stance. Moreover, (Judd citing Deutsch, 1949) cooperative resolution of conflict leads toward more perceived similarity, whereas competitive results lead to increased feelings of dissimilarity. Bach (1967c) too, reports that in marathon group therapy, a person has difficulty in identifying with a member who is unlike or different from the person. Strangeness can deter a person from merely attempting to offer help. "Likeness and similarity tend to facilitate the process of identification which, in turn, is associated with helpfulness" (p.1166). The marathon group emphasises the primary

similarities between people everywhere, and this enhances the development of intimacy.*

That a cooperative (vs. competitive) attitude enhances perceptions of similarity is suggested by Judd's research (1978). He researched attitude change in conflict resolution and randomly assigned pairs of subjects to a competitive or cooperative stance in a debate. The competitive pairs were told to support their position by criticising and attacking the other position. The cooperative pairs were asked to gain an understanding of the other position by taking part in a mutual discussion, and sharing the weak and strong points of an arbitrary issue.

Judd checked the strength of the competitive and cooperative orientation by asking subjects to rate their debate on a 1 to 9 scale. The competitive group rated their orientation as significantly more competitive, than did the cooperative group.

Subjects were also asked to rate their positions as similar or dissimilar on a 1 to 9 scale. Significant differences existed in that the cooperative pairs viewed the opposing positions as significantly more similar than did the competitive pairs.

Judd argues that attitudes or positions on issues may change as the result of a discussion; that the cognitive effects of goal orientation [i.e., whether a person views self as a competitor (threatening) versus a co-operator (non-threatening)] may in part determine or alter the course of attitude change which results. He postulates that "...attitude change may vary depending upon factors which influence whether the communication is seen as a threat, or as a chance to discuss and learn about the

* An intimate relationship is one where there are close personal relations (Block et al, 1967). It is attained by engaging in 'self-disclosure' involving reasonable 'risk-taking' which is appropriate to the situation (Egan, 1976, p.45).

issue" (p.497). The implication for this present study is that perception of similarity is thought to be an inducement to interpersonal cooperation and identification (Deutsch, 1949; Bach, 1967c). Cooperative pairs felt that their positions were more similar than did competitive pairs in the Judd study. This supports the view that mutual discussion in a safe environment, (i.e., understanding the other group's position while feeling unthreatened) aids in developing feelings (of similarity) which may lead toward a pattern of cooperation and better relations.

Constructive Aggression

Bach (1966) reports that marathon group therapy produces emotional discomfort which encourages a reordering of priorities to alleviate the distress. Usually, two novel ways of interaction are realised: (1) the real self becomes evident (is accepted and reinforced by the other members) which leads to (2) 'psychological intimacy' (p.999) among the members. The transition from showing the real self, to 'psychological intimacy' is, Bach believes, a natural occurrence. As people reveal their real selves, they discard their façades. (Façades or roles cause others to be uncertain of where they stand with an individual.) Members are anxious and afraid until everyone in the group interacts, using these new skills.

From years of clinical experience in conducting therapy with married couples and families, Bach (1967b) developed a theory and training programme for intimacy. Fighting it out constructively facilitates the development of intimacy, which "...depends on trust; yet trust is formed through constructive aggression" (p.1156). Fighting fairly includes using aggression constructively, and communicating authentically. Bach's marathon group participants reported that facing and working through conflicts which occur interpersonally rather than striving

for 'peace at any price' are 'aggressive encounters' which are extremely helpful for successful outcome. "Participants...experience aggressive confrontation as a welcome relief from the games of phony accommodation most people play with each other" (p.1157). In addition, the expression of anger (e.g., criticism, annoyance, irritation) is a stimulating experience, which encourages members to share intimate and constructive feelings.

Personal Agenda

A personal agenda refers to issues which the individual wants, or needs to work through. It is also called the personal therapy component. Working toward attitude and behaviour change, in general, Yalom (1975) advocates the use of a therapy component in group process for so-called 'normal' people to allow them to realise their full potential. Bach (1966, 1967a, 1967b, 1970; Bach & Goldberg, 1975; Bach & Wyden, 1969) believes that it is essential for individuals to learn to express anger in interpersonal relationships; that this process has a curative effect.

Rubin (1966, 1967a, 1967b) too advocates the use of sensitivity training to reduce prejudice. Using individual or group psychotherapy to reduce prejudice is recommended by Adorno et al (1982, 1950) as well as Allport (1979, 1954).

Cognitive Framework

Yalom (1975) believes that it is essential to combine 'emotional stimulation' with a cognitive framework. Subjects in his 1973 study (Lieberman, Yalom & Miles) reported that it was important for them to have an explanation of the important points of group process so that they could integrate and generalise the experiences into

their future life situations (p.478). The importance of "...explaining, clarifying, interpreting, providing a cognitive framework for change, translating feelings and experiences into ideas..." (p.477) was to be a catalyst for change. Yalom (1975) reports, "Even so revered an activity as self disclosure bore little relationship to change unless it was accompanied by intellectual insight" (p.478 footnote). The importance of 'intellectual insight' was an exceptional finding since it was not an hypothesis of the authors, it was pervasive throughout the different orientations, and it occurred in groups which claimed to be anti-intellectual.

Conclusion: Six Components of Training

After a review of the literature on race relations and attitude change, a human relations training workshop was designed to affect change on the dependent variables, self-acceptance, prejudice and communication style. These are the six components of training. Exercises encouraged black and white members to:

1. Share their feelings and attitudes in a non-threatening environment so that they can see the similarity in their needs, values and goals. This was based on Judd's (1978) findings that cooperative debaters felt more similar than did their competitive counterparts. Fauth (1972) too, encouraged members to see their values and goals as similar. This was accomplished in a safe, accepting environment. Liss and Robinson's (1978) non-experimental project encouraged this through the attitude of the trainers as well as the philosophy of treatment. Exercises served as cognitive reference points in building trust and self-concept. This present study utilised their philosophy as well as their self-concept exercise.

2. Learn the value of group effort rather than individual endeavor. This is said to foster collaboration, solidarity and improved relationships rather than competition (Sherif et al, 1961). Liss and Robinson attempted this through their NASA Exercise for Survival on the Moon. Members reach consensus by compiling a list of items they need in a life threatening situation. Fauth (1972) too, fostered group effort through shared decision making. In this present study, the NASA exercise was used.
3. Reduce prejudice, re-evaluate stereotypes and perceptions in order to destroy myths which exist between blacks and whites, and to continue to build on similarities. Katz (1977) had her subjects explore these myths in order to combat anti-racist feelings and behaviours. Fauth (1972) had subjects destroy these myths through exploration of unconscious prejudice and stereotypy. In this present study, the Pfeiffer-Jones (1974) Intergroup Meeting was used. These authors have members verbalise their ideas about the other group; understand the other group's perceptions of them, and process the similarities of each group.
4. Learn high-level communication skills as a vehicle for honest, constructive (vs. destructive) articulation of needs. These skills are said to be tools for negotiating differences to achieve compromise and to improve relationships. They allow members to constructively aggress and to build self-acceptance (Bach, 1966, 1970; Bach & Goldberg, 1975; Bach & Wyden, 1969; Egan, 1975, 1976). Fauth (1972) and Liss and Robinson (1978) taught communication skills in their project. Their use of this component implies that they believe them to be important in

changing attitudes and/or behaviours. This present study used Egan's model of listening, responding and challenging (1975, 1976).

5. Undergo personal therapy (Wechsler et al, 1962; Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b; Fauth, 1972; Yalom, 1975; Allport, 1979, 1954; Adorno et al, 1982, 1950). These authors suggest that personal therapy is a way to achieve reduction of prejudice*. In this study, reduction of prejudice was encouraged through unstructured Group Activity (VIII), Communication Skills Training (VI), Vesuvius (VII), Self Concept Exercise (II), and general interaction during training.

6. Learn about themselves and understand the implications of this knowledge (Lieberman et al, 1973; Yalom, 1975). The cognitive component is encouraged through "...explaining, clarifying, interpreting, ... translating feelings and experiences into ideas..." (Yalom, p.477), and is said to be a catalyst for change. In other words, it is important to feel as well as understand the implications of those feelings. The cognitive component is included in each of the nine exercises through the use of closure, and through the Johari Window and Closure Exercise. Other researchers used processing to enhance experiential learning. Katz (1977, 1978) used journal writing, and a two-week break during treatment to enhance understanding of the laboratory experience. Cascio and Bass (1976) devoted one hour of a four-

* In order to gain an understanding of the dependent variable prejudice, five theories were reviewed. These are presented in Appendix A.

hour program to review actions and important points. Fauth (1972) assigned readings prior to the lab experience, and also used daily journal writing to enhance understanding of the process.

CHAPTER IIIMETHODOLOGY

This research study provided human relations training ^{for} between black and white adults in order to test the effects of training on four dependent variables. The training, a workshop which lasted two and one-half (2½) days (Friday evening to late Sunday afternoon), included exercises designed to encourage black and white members to explore in a safe environment similarities in their needs, values and goals, to learn high level communication skills, to build trust, to undergo personal therapy and importantly, to understand the implications of their progress at the workshop. Subjects were told that the study's purpose was to monitor blood pressure fluctuations which occur as a result of human relations training. This was the cover story. x

There was one treatment condition which was run four times with four different trainers[†], and a no-treatment control group. The four-time replication of the treatment condition allowed the trainer variable, to be representative of each of the four possible categories of race and sex (i.e., white female, black female, white male, black male). The no-treatment control group provided the opportunity to measure the dependent variables without the influence of the independent variable, providing the necessary conditions for a true comparison to be made. This no-treatment control group was instructed by co-trainers, a black and a white male, during the posttest on communication style. This dependent variable, measured at posttest only*, was a direct behavioural measure of commu-

* It was thought that a true second measure of communication style (which required audiotaping) would be difficult to obtain since the groups would have gained experience at posttest. Hence, the decision to measure it once.

† This treatment was not double-blind to the trainers.

nication style. The scale was adopted from Peabody's (1972) description of collaboration, negotiation and coercion; and other variables: friendly, assertive, aggressive and hostile (see Appendix I). Three dependent variables were measured on a pre-, post-, and delayed posttest basis: self-acceptance measured by the California Psychological Inventory, prejudice measured directly by the E scale of the California Questionnaire, and indirectly by the F scale of the California Questionnaire. Subjects were originally randomly assigned to one of five groups once they completed the pretest which took place approximately six weeks before treatment. The delayed posttest was conducted approximately six weeks after treatment.

Analysis of covariance, independent groups design, was used to compare the post- and delayed posttest scores of the treatment group (consisting of four experimental groups) and the control group, taking into account any differences between the groups at pretest. The pretest was used as the covariate in these analyses, and in the analysis of the delayed posttests (Winer, 1962). Analysis of covariance was chosen because of its preciseness (Campbell & Stanley, 1966; Huck*, Cormier & Bounds, 1974). Analysis of variance, repeated measures design, was used to examine differences between the treatment and control group on communication style. This data was collected at posttest only through audiotaped conversations.

Regression analyses were used to examine interaction of the effects of treatment and the trainer's race, sex, and style of leadership. The SPSS computer package was used to calculate regression, and dependent variable results for the analysis of covariance, multiple groups design. (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner & Bent, 1975).

Sex of the subjects was analysed by the t test (independent groups) to determine if they are predictive of successful treatment. Raw scores were used in the analyses, and a .05 level of confidence was established for all aspects of this study.

* See this text for an understanding of the differences between the use of analysis of covariance and t test change scores.

Subject Selection

All subjects were recruited by the experimenter through newspaper advertising, or fliers placed in a university library, and campus, in local stores, libraries, in a restaurant and Black Baptist churches. The recruitment area was metropolitan Denver, Colorado. Subjects lived in Wheatridge, Denver, Littleton, Lakewood, Westminster, Commerce City, Edgewater, Englewood and Golden.

An answering service was set up, and persons interested in participating in the project were directed to call the number which was listed in the ad and on the flier. The experimenter then telephoned these prospective subjects and they were given a choice of two pretest dates, and various time slots on those dates. (See Appendix B for a detailed sheet of what was described to each subject and for a sample of the ads.)

The pretest included The Psychosocial History Screening Questionnaire (PHSQ), the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), the F scale and E scale of the California Questionnaire. After testing, the prospective subjects were interviewed by one of several persons (men and women of both races) assisting the experimenter. They were either psychotherapists, or had had experience in interviewing techniques. None of these assistants was used as trainers in the experimental or control groups. Interviewing was conducted to screen person who were at psychological risk* in participating in the intensive workshop, to describe the content of the workshop and control group, to answer subjects' questions, and to have subjects sign an informed consent letter. (See Appendices D and E, for a copy of the tests used and questions asked.)

* Potential subjects were said to be at psychological risk if they were evaluated as psychiatric or extreme in their responses on the CPI, the PHSQ, or during the interview (see pp.83-86 for screening criteria).

The pre-, post-, and delayed posttests were the same except that the PHSQ was administered only at pretest, and an evaluation of the programme was administered at delayed posttest. Blood pressure was monitored (the cover story) at various times during the workshops including at posttest for both the experimental and control groups.

During the pre- and delayed posttests, every attempt was made to control for the race of the pretesters (Sattler, 1970). Black and white men and women took turns reading instructions and assisting prospective subjects before and after they met with the interviewer. At posttest, the trainers conducted the testing. Delayed posttesting materials were mailed to some subjects who were unable to attend the scheduled testing session.

Subjects' Demographic Characteristics

Listed below is information on subjects' mean ages, categories of income, educational and marital status. This information can be found in Table 1 on pp. 70-71.

AGE. The mean ages range from 30 through 45.

INCOME (U.S. Dollars). The three black males earned income in the \$20,000-\$24,999 bracket. Eleven white males represented every income bracket except for \$5,000-\$7,499, and \$12,500-\$14,999. The two black females earned within the same bracket \$12,500-\$14,999. Eleven white females reported income throughout the list except for \$5,000-\$7,499, \$7,500-\$9,999, \$15,000-\$17,499, and \$25,000-\$29,000.

Overall income distribution is clustered in the middle to upper categories. There are seven subjects earning under \$12,499, and 20 subjects earning over \$12,500. The category \$20,000-\$24,999 is the most frequently reported income bracket, i.e., seven subjects checked it.

EDUCATION: Fifteen of the 27 subjects reported technical school or college training. Eight had four-year college degrees; two had advanced graduate degrees. Only two subjects had a high school degree or less.

MARITAL STATUS: One subject out of 27 was married. The remainder were: single, 8; divorced, 14; one was re-married, another was separated, and two were widowed.

Overall, the subjects were mostly older, unattached adults whose income was \$12,500 and over. Ten subjects earned in excess of \$20,000 per year. Education was categorised by some exposure to college or technical school, and undergraduate degrees.

TABLE 1. SUBJECTS' DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

	<u>Experimental</u>				<u>Control</u>			
	Blacks		Whites		Blacks		Whites	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
<u>Number of Subjects:</u>	1	2	8	10	1	1	3	1
<u>Mean Age:</u>	37	37	41.5	35.9	44	45	43	30
<u>Income in Categories:</u>								
2,500 - 4,900	--	--	1	1	--	--	--	1
5,000 - 7,499	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
7,500 - 9,999	--	--	--	1	--	--	--	--
10,000 - 12,499	--	--	1	2	--	--	--	--
12,500 - 14,999	1	--	2	--	1	--	1	--
15,000 - 17,499	--	--	--	1	--	--	--	--
17,500 - 19,999	--	--	2	2	--	--	--	--
20,000 - 24,999	--	2	2	1	--	1	1	--
25,000 - 29,000	--	--	--	1	--	--	--	--
30,000 +	--	--	--	1	--	--	1	--
<u>Education in Categories:</u>								
8th grade or less	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Some High School	--	--	--	1	--	--	--	--
High School Graduate	--	--	1	--	--	--	--	--
Some Technical School or College	1	1	3	5	1	1*	3	1
College and Higher Degree	--	--	3	4	--	1	--	--
Ph.D., LLD	--	1	1	--	--	--	--	--

*delete

TABLE 1. SUBJECTS' DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS - continued

	<u>Experimental</u>				<u>Control</u>				
	Blacks		Whites		Blacks		Whites		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
<u>Marital Status:</u>									
single	--	1	3	2	--	1	--	1	
married	--	--	--	--	--	--	1	--	
divorced	1	--	3	7	1	--	2	--	
remarried	--	1	--	--	--	--	--	--	
separated	--	--	--	1	--	--	--	--	
widowed	--	--	2	--	--	--	--	--	

Group Assignment

Approximately 322 people called the answering service number in response to recruitment attempts. From this total, 141* people agreed to attend a pretesting session, and 49 people actually attended one of the two pretesting sessions. Before and after randomisation into experimental and control groups, 22 prospective subjects either dropped out or were screened from the sample.

Once pretested, subjects were originally randomly assigned to one of five groups. A few subjects who had a conflict with their assigned weekend were switched with other members (of the same gender and race) in one of the four experimental groups. There was no switching of subjects in the control group.

Listed below is the composition (actual attendance) of each of the five groups:

TABLE 2. GROUP COMPOSITION

Group	Ass-igned #	Trainer	Total Subjects	Males		Females	
				White	Black	White	Black
Exper- imental	1	White Female	5	2	-	3	-
	2	White Male	5	2	1	1	1
	3	Black Male	6	3	1	2	-
	4	Black Female	5	3	-	2	-
Control	5	Black Male)	6	1	1	3	1
		White Male)					
Totals			27	11	3	11	2

Each of the experimental groups met for the following weekends (Friday evening until late Sunday afternoon) in 1983, in a rented cabin near Central City, Gilpin County, Colorado:

* The other 181 people could either not be contacted, or refused to participate.

Group #1 met for the weekend of February 18, 19, 20.

Group #2 met for the weekend of February 25, 26, 27.

Group #3 met for the weekend of March 4, 5, 6.

Group #4 met for the weekend of March 11, 12, 13.

Group #5 (no-treatment Control) were posttested on Sunday, February 27.

Transportation was arranged by the researcher and her husband who picked up subjects at two points in metro-Denver, drove them to the remote cabin and returned late Sunday afternoon to drive them back to Denver. Subjects were isolated from outside influences so that they could focus on the workshop, and interact with one another (Liss & Robinson, 1978). Food was delivered to the cabin on the Friday afternoon of each weekend. The subjects and trainers prepared meals and shared chores according to each group's decision and planning.

Scarcity of Black Subjects

Due to an insufficient number of black subjects and the random creation of an all-white group, it was decided to run an all-white group, with a white trainer (Group #1). Later, when the second black male dropped out of Group #4, it became an all-white group with a black trainer. It was thought that the results from groups #1 and #4 could be compared to the control group in spite of these groups' racial homogeneity.

In order to have experiences in all treatment groups be as similar as possible, volunteer white members were asked to role play as black members in groups which did not have any black members. This was the case in treatment groups one and four during Exercise IV, Intergroup Meeting. The trainer asked for two or more volunteers to role play blacks in listing positive and negative phrases, and in the ensuing discussions. In groups 1 and 4 the trainers participated in the listing and discussion of

black issues. In the other two treatment groups (groups 2 and 3) the trainers participated less in the group exercises.

Several weeks before the first experimental group was to be conducted, the researcher wondered whether it was advisable to run the four experimental groups with so few black subjects. An alternative would have been to combine all subjects into two larger experimental groups and one control group. In this case, the trainers would have been paired as co-trainers (i.e., black male and white male; black female and white female). The advantage here was the greater number of black subjects in two experimental groups. The disadvantages were the risk of mortality when subjects were asked to change their weekend date, and the difficulties which might have arisen between the co-trainers who had never before worked together. Ultimately, it was decided to run the four experimental groups as was originally planned. The advantage of this strategy was the four-time replication of the experimental condition.

Review of Workshop Exercises

Each experimental group underwent the same set of nine exercises. (The control group received no treatment. They merely underwent the behavioural posttest.) Exercises 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, and 7 contained didactic and experiential materials. Trainers introduced the exercise, and then members were asked to take part so that they could experience it as a group. Exercises 5, 8, and 9 were designed to deal with issues which arose during the workshop and to provide closure and processing of issues. The desegregation discussion (behavioural posttest) followed exercise 9, was taped and continued for one hour only. This was followed by a written posttest, and the monitoring of blood pressure. See Appendix G for a more complete account of these exercises.

Listed below is a brief description of the workshop exercises.

I. Orientation Exercise

Members and trainers were introduced, and group norms defined. Goals were to set up the cognitive framework for change through the Johari Window; to establish the model for processing the experiential value of the exercises; and for providing a safe environment for sharing feelings and attitudes. Subjects were told that the study's purpose was to monitor blood pressure fluctuations which occur as a result of human relations training. (This was the cover story.)

Format Summary

The trainers introduced themselves, providing minimal self-disclosure. Norms for the group (caring, showing affection by words or touching, self-disclosing, observing confidentiality, using "I" messages and making decisions) were discussed. Subjects were told that they were building self-acceptance, and that it was okay to be open, to share, or to be angry.

The Johari Window was introduced as a strategy for outlining personal growth in communicating and sharing honestly.

Closure was accomplished by members sharing their reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise. This process helped them formulate more concrete ideas from the experience.

II. Self-Concept Exercise

(Adapted from C.O.P.E., 1976)

Goals: Members explored their feelings and attitudes by focussing on themselves (e.g. 'Who am I?') in a low risk exercise. In order to enhance understanding of the similarity of needs between the black and white members,

these feelings, etc. are processed and summarised. The pace of cultural awareness was set with the African vs. European shields. Through this exercise, self-acceptance and building of mutual trust was enhanced.

Format Summary

Members explored their past, present and future by creating a coat of arms of their choice. It was explained that the European shield was most often chosen because it is more familiar. A discussion ensued regarding the lack of knowledge of black history and culture.

Sharing of the information generated by the shield was encouraged by listing it on newsprint. Subjects focussed on general concepts and the trainer helped them reach conclusions about the similarity of their needs and aspirations.

Closure was accomplished by members sharing their reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise. This process helped them formulate more concrete ideas from the experience.

III. NASA Exercise For Survival on the Moon

(C.O.P.E., 1976)

Goals were to teach members the importance of group effort and the appreciation of collaboration rather than competition or individual effort.

Format Summary

Members got an opportunity to work individually and as a team to rank order the priority of materials they would require for survival on the moon. When they worked as a group, they were urged to approve the rank order by

consensus rather than through a majority rule. Consensus is defined as general agreement of each of the members.

Almost invariably, the group scores are superior to the individual scores,* and this illustrates the rewards of group effort. Implicitly, communication skills were being enhanced through the achievement of reaching consensus.

Closure was accomplished by members sharing their reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise. This process helps them formulate more concrete ideas from the experience.

IV. Intergroup Meeting

(Pfeiffer & Jones, 1974)

Members re-evaluated stereotypes and perceptions in order to destroy myths which exist between the races. They were helped to understand how they were perceived by the other group. Black and white members were encouraged to see their similarities and to process this information.

Format Summary

Black and white members separate** and rejoin the large group to prepare to respond to the question: How we see the other group and we think the other group see us?

Members were helped to listen and understand the other group's responses, and the negative implications of stereotypic words so that prejudice can be better understood. When they rejoined, they shared and processed their own deeply-rooted but unexamined beliefs and attitudes toward each other.

* This is reported by Liss (1981); it represents his personal experience rather than empirical evidence.

** In an all-white group, the members were divided into two groups by asking for volunteers to serve as surrogate blacks.

Closure was accomplished by members sharing their reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise. This process helps them formulate more concrete ideas from the experience.

V. Reactions Exercise

The trainer checked the emotional stability of the participants and discussed unfinished business. Unanswered questions were explored. Reactions and feelings were processed.

Format Summary

Trainers observed members for signs of fatigue, depression and worry. A discussion was begun around the workshop experience to encourage processing which helps them formulate more concrete ideas from the experience.

VI. Communication Skills Exercise

(Egan, 1975, 1976)

Goals were to teach effective communication skills to provide members with a vehicle for constructive (vs. destructive) articulation of needs; to prepare them for negotiating differences and venting frustrations to achieve compromise. These skills encouraged members to constructively aggress. Two implicit goals were assertiveness training and personal therapy. Assertiveness usually occurs when members express their needs on an on-going basis; while personal therapy occurs as the members work through their concerns and priorities around racial issues in groups of three. An understanding, of the power of this experience is enhanced through processing.

Format Summary

Members were taught three stages of communicating effectively:

Stage 1. Listening and understanding, Stage 2. Responding and, Stage 3. Challenging. After the trainer presented each of the stages, the members, in groups of three (i.e., helper, helpee, observer), used these skills to deal with a real-life problem belonging to the member who serves as the helpee (Liss & Robinson, 1978). The topic was fears around racial situations at home or from the workshop.

Members then rotated until they portrayed each role, and the group communicated understanding of the skills.

Closure was accomplished by members sharing their reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise. This process helped them formulate more concrete ideas from the experience.

VII. The Vesuvius

(Bach & Goldberg, 1975; Bach & Wyden, 1969)

The goal was to give members a ritualised way to express destructive feelings while in a protected environment. Personal therapy is implicit: members can express formerly unexpressed frustrations. In other words, they have permission to scream or yell about anything that is on their minds. Reactions and feelings are processed.

Format Summary

Members explore the feeling of anger, and its constructive expression. Rational anger was said to be expressed in interpersonal relationships while destructive anger can be appropriately expressed in a Vesuvius ritual.

This was described as a raging session of 1 to 3 minutes where the speaker rants about negative emotions. The other members listened quietly and were cautioned not to take anything the rager said personally or seriously.

Closure was accomplished by members sharing their reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise. This process helped them formulate more concrete ideas from the experience.

VIII. Unstructured Group Activity

Members created their own agenda and discussed issues which hadn't been fully resolved. The personal therapy component was implicit. This exercise also reinforced communication skills.

Closure was accomplished through processing.

Format Summary

The trainer assisted the members in using their new communication skills to resolve both personal and workshop issues. Personal issues were brought to some reasonable conclusion.

Closure was accomplished by members sharing their reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise. This process helped them formulate more concrete ideas from the experience.

IX. Closure Exercise

Each of the exercises was summarised and members were encouraged to share their positive and negative reactions so that the workshop was brought to a conclusion.

Format Summary

The trainer provided a summary of each of the exercises. Members looked at their Johari Window Sheets which were completed on Friday night. They discussed the progress they had made and the relevancy of what was learned. Closure was accomplished through putting members feelings into more concrete concepts/ideas.

Audio-taped Behavioural Posttest (Desegregation Discussion)

(This follows Exercise IX in the treatment groups.)
The no-treatment control group met for this behavioural posttest only. This is preceded by blood pressure monitoring, and followed by the written posttesting).

The purpose of this posttest was to involve members in a discussion which evaluated their communication skills. The one-hour discussion was audio-taped so that the communication style of each group could be scored by two naive, trained raters.

Format Summary

Trainers asked the group to imagine themselves in a situation where they had the responsibility of devising a proposal for racially integrating a school system. They were given options and asked to create some of their own options by brainstorming and other tactics. They had one hour to complete the task.

After the recording was complete, the tape recorder was turned off, and trainers answered questions, and responded to subjects' feelings for 10-15 minutes.

The written posttest was administered, and lastly, blood pressure was monitored. The no-treatment control group subjects left after their blood pressure was

monitored. Experimental group members began to pack and ready themselves for the ride home from the mountain cabin.

Instruments - Screening for Pathologies

California Psychological Inventory

The California Psychological Inventory (CPI) was used to screen for subjects' appropriateness for the study, as well as to measure change in self-acceptance (Sa). The scales of good impression (Gi), Well-being (Wb), and Communality (Cm) were used for screening. These represent 4 of the 18 scales included in the inventory which consists of 480 True and False questions. (See next section, PHSQ, for a discussion of how screening was conducted.)

A strong point in favour of the use of the CPI was its dual use in screening as well as hypothesis testing. This instrument was designed for use in a normal population versus a psychiatric one, and is concerned with the positive rather than the "pathological" (Gough, 1975 p. 5). However, the instrument does have uses in predicting special kinds of problems which may be termed "asocial" (p. 5). Norming was accomplished by sampling 6,000 males and 7,000 females from a variety of age, socioeconomic, and geographic groups (Anastasi, 1976).

Test-retest correlations are as follows: Sa .67 to .71, Wb .71 to .75, Gi .68 to .81, Cm .38 to .58, from a study of 200 male prisoners who took the test twice within 7 to 21 days (Gough, 1975 p. 19), and 2 classes of high school juniors (125 females, 101 males) who took the inventory in 1952, and a year later as seniors. The high correlations were found in the adult male prisoners. The CPI has been technically developed to an excellent level, and has been extensively researched and continuously improved for over 25 years. (Anastasi, 1976).

Self-acceptance (Sa) measures a sense of personal worth. Persons scoring high on this measure are said to be self-confident, self-assured, outspoken and persuasive. Low scorers are said to be self-abasing, passive, quiet, and given to blaming themselves.

Well-being (Wb) measures freedom from self-doubt and disillusionment. High scorers are said to be energetic, versatile and productive while low scorers are said to be awkward, cautious, self-defensive and apologetic.

Communality (Cm) measures test takers' degree of agreement with the usual behaviour set as a model for this inventory. High scorers are said to be moderate, honest and steady while low scorers are said to be troubled and restless.

Good Impression (Gi) measures test takers' concerns for how others react to them. High scorers are said to be co-operative, warm and helpful while low scores are said to be wary, resentful and unconcerned about the needs of others.

Psychosocial History Screening Questionnaire (PHSQ)

The PHSQ, a 44-item inventory, was chosen as a screening and demographic gathering tool (Grant, 1976). It was revised and reduced to 35 items for use in this study with the permission of the author. It was originally designed for screening adults seeking mental health treatment.

After potential subjects completed the pretest, which included the PHSQ, they were interviewed so that any problem areas noted on the questionnaire could be explored. (See Appendix D for a copy of the original and revised versions, and Appendix E for the interviewing and screening details). Questions regarding difficulty in sleeping and making decisions, wanting to hurt self, etc., relate to depression. Questions regarding temper, harming others, episodes of panic and fear may relate to psychopathology. It was necessary to evaluate each potential subject's concerns or fears to determine whether they were within a range which could be considered part of the 'normal' population for which this study was geared.

Individuals experiencing grief, depression or emotional problems to an extreme degree were said to be representative of a psychiatric population. Alcoholics or drug addicts were categorised in the same population. These groups were thought to be unsuitable for participation in the study since it was feared that they may be prone to suicide or psychosis as a result of participation in the study.

For screening purposes, three trends of data were used to gain a more complete profile of the potential subject. No one instrument was used separately. The CPI, the PHSQ, and the interview were used in conjunction. Good impression (Gi), well being (Wb) and communality (Cm) were emphasised on the CPI. These detect lying or dissimulating. Rather than using cut-off scores, this instrument examines the relative highness or lowness of a score in a profile. When a potential subject scored out of the normal range on a CPI scale, other data was sought from the PHSQ and the interview. The same was true for responses on the PHSQ which pinpoints potential problems in drugs, relationships, depression and grieving.

When a response seemed out of the 'normal' range, it was explored during the interview. For example, potential subject (#33) cried throughout her interview. Thinking she was unstable, the interviewer asked whether she was in therapy, got the name of her therapist and permission to speak with her. It was learned that the potential subject was diagnosed 'Borderline Personality Disorder' (American Psychiatric Assoc., 1980, p.321). This psychiatric classification is characterised by marked instability in many areas including relationships, moods, and image of self. Her CPI scores revealed low raw scores in self-acceptance (10 compared to the average score of 20), communality (15 compared to the average 26). Given this data, she was thought to be unsuitable for participation due to a high risk of suicide or psychosis. She was gently told that she had not been randomly selected for participation in the project. (Since potential subjects were told that they would be randomly selected from a

larger pool of subjects, this explanation seemed plausible. It was thought that they would be less likely to fake their scores on the screening questionnaires if they believed there was random selection rather than a screening process. Unfortunately, due to high dropout rates, there was no larger pool of potential subjects from whom subjects were randomly selected. Only four potential subjects were rejected as unsuitable for participation.)

Subject #28 was evaluated as 'depressed' (following a divorce) by the interviewer. A look at his CPI scores revealed low raw scores in good impression (9 compared to the average 20), well being (23 compared to the average 37) and self-acceptance (13 compared to the average 19). The Beck Inventory for Depression (Beck, 1967), was administered to determine the severity of the depression. His score indicated moderate depression (13 in a range of 8-15). The Beck Inventory has a range of 0 to 39 as follows: no depression 0-4; mild depression 5-7; moderate depression 8-15; severe depression 16-39. After a discussion with the psychologist who supervised the clinical aspects of the study, it was decided to have this subject participate in the workshop. Had he scored 16 or more (i.e., score indicates severe depression), on The Beck Inventory, he would have been said to be representative of a psychiatric population, and unsuitable for participation due to the risk of suicide or psychosis.

Instruments for Variable Testing

The Ethnocentrism or E Scale

Authored by Adorno et al in 1950, the E scale of the California Questionnaire was designed to directly measure ethnocentrism which is defined as "...an ideological system pertaining to groups and group relations and referring to general cultural narrowness" (Robinson, Rusk, Head, 1968, p.245). An ethnocentric individual is said to be rigid in acceptance of the culturally "alike" and in unacceptance of the "unlike" (p.102). Prejudice is usually defined as a dislike of a certain group. Ethnocentrism concerns itself with a "...relatively consistent frame of mind concerning 'aliens' generally." (p.102). Ethnocentrics lack the ability to view people as individuals, and have the tendency to judge members of an out-group as merely specimens of that group.

The E scale has three subscales: one for Blacks, Jews, other minorities, and patriotism. The nineteen (19) statements are similar to Likert items to which the test taker expresses full agreement (+3) to full disagreement (-3), with no neutral point. To get a total score, a +4, is added to each statement, and all statements are added together. Various forms of this scale (i.e., forms 78, 60, 45, 40) were administered to diverse groups of over 2000 men and women. No test-retest data are given. Split-half reliability is reported from .74 to .91 on the various forms. The suggested final form was used in this study. It was modified by this researcher to make it more relevant to today's issues. (See Appendix D for a copy of the original and its modifications.) Robinson et al, (1968) state that extensive interviews with two subjects supply evidence for a notion of ethnocentrism as the opposite of social equality. The subject scoring high (suggesting ethnocentrism) exhibited stereotypic attitudes toward minorities and outgroups, while the subject scoring low (suggesting broad-mindedness) expressed ideas of fairness and equality for minorities.

Authoritarian or F Scale

According to Adorno et al (1982, 1950), the aim of the F scale of the California Questionnaire is to measure prejudice without appearing to have this aim and without mentioning the name of the minority group. "Most important, by circumventing some of the defenses which people employ when asked to express themselves with respect to 'race issues', it might provide a more valid measure of prejudice " (p.151). The authors formed an hypothesis that 'deep-lying' personality trends might become known through opinions or attitudes which are 'dynamically' but not 'logically' associated with prejudice toward 'out-groups' (p.154).

Each of the 29 Likert-type items is related to prejudice and combines the irrational with the objective truth. Subjects rate their responses on a continuum of full agreement (+3) to full disagreement (-3), with no neutral point. To score the test, a +4 is added to each statement, and then all statements are added for a total score.

Various forms of the scale (i.e., forms 78, 60, 45, 40) were administered to diverse groups of over 2000 men and women. Forms 45 and 40 (used in this study) had split-half reliability coefficients of between .81 to .97. Robinson et al (1968) report that for form 40, all groups taking the F Scale showed a correlation of .77 with the E Scale.

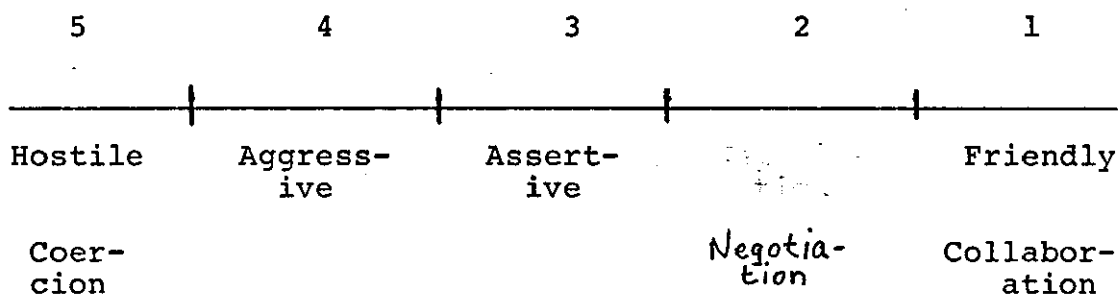
Behavioural Measure of Group Communication Style

This researcher took the constructs of collaboration, negotiation and coercion (Peabody, 1972), and placed them on a continuum. Running parallel with this is another continuum containing the constructs of friendly, assertive, aggressive, hostile. These two continua were combined to provide a better description of constructive and destructive communication styles. (They were used

simultaneously in scoring.) It was thought that this would facilitate the scoring of the audio tapes. The constructs of friendly, assertive, aggressive and hostile were placed above, and parallel to collaboration, negotiation and coercion.

Constructive modes were said to be collaboration (score of 1), negotiation (score of 2), friendly (score of 1) and assertive (score of 3). Destructive methods were said to be aggressive (score of 4), hostile (score of 5), and coercion (score of 5). For a copy of the actual continuum with a description of the constructs, see Appendix I.

Score:



This instrument, a behavioural measure of group communication style, was scored on a 1 to 5 scale (5=hostile, 1=friendly) by two naive, trained raters. This was a direct behavioural assessment of subjects' communication style during their one-hour, audiotaped discussion on racially integrating a local school system. It was administered at posttest only for all groups, including the control group.

Definitions are as follows:

Collaboration -- to work with another; to cooperate, have agreement; to go along with.

Negotiation -- to arrange the terms of agreement, to exchange chits, to disagree without cutting off communication.

Coercion -- to force, to restrain by authority, to disagree and cut off communication.

Friendly -- to be favourably disposed, inclined to help, approve, and support.

Assertive -- to express self (getting needs met) directly while respecting the rights of others.

Aggressive -- to express self (getting needs met) while violating the rights of others.

Hostile -- to show antagonism, animosity, ill will, unfriendliness or opposition.

From the hour-long tapes, three, 10-minute segments were selected for each group in exactly the same way. The starting points were chosen by finding the precise moment the discussion began. (After specific directions were given by the trainer, the discussion began without the trainer.) Ten minutes were clocked using a watch with a second hand. This segment was skipped. At the precise moment the second 10-minute segment began, the starting point for the (scored) 2nd segment was chosen. This process was repeated for the selection of each of the scored segments (2nd, 4th and 6th) and the skipped segments (1st, 3rd and 5th).

The scored segments were divided into 1/2-minute (30 second) conversational phrases. So that each rater scored the exact phrases (60 units for each group), a transcript was provided giving the initial words in each phrase. There was a total of 300 conversational phrases for the five groups.

The scored segments were chosen from the 2nd, 4th and 6th (or last) sections of the tapes to give a representation of the beginning, middle, and end of a group's style of communication. One rater used a 5 to 1 scale; the other a 1 to 5 scale to control for any scoring

differential due to a perception of the highness or lowness of the score. In the event of disagreements, it was decided that an average of the two scores would be used. A Spearman correlation coefficient was chosen to measure interrater reliability.

NOTE:

The California Psychological Inventory (CPI) [see page 83] was also used for variable testing. Self-acceptance was measured by the Sa scale.

Training of the Raters

Training of the naive raters was conducted by the experimenter with the use of a practice tape whose content was a desegregation discussion, similar to that recorded in the study. A description of the terms being rated was given to the raters before a three-hour training session. Further explanation and examples were given as the raters and the experimenter scored the practice tape together.

The raters each held graduate degrees in the field of counselling or vocational rehabilitation. Neither of them participated in any other part of the study. (See Appendix I for instructions for the raters.)

Trainers

To avoid experimenter bias, the researcher did not conduct any of the groups. Six trainers were hired. The four who ran the experimental groups were each paid \$250.00, and the co-trainers who ran the control group were each paid \$50.00.

It was decided that experienced human relations trainers would be recruited to conduct the intensive weekend workshops since research shows that the trainer affects group treatment outcome (Lieberman et al, 1973).

Trainer Qualifications

Trainer 1
(White Female)

Education: undergraduate degree,
social work/psychology.

Experience: over 700 hours of group
work in five years.

Trainer 2
(White Male)

Education: M.A. in Education, further
training in psychology,
guidance counselling and
human behaviour.

Experience: 15 years of group work (12
of which were interracial
groups). Vice President
of his own Behavioural
Science Firm. Had organ-
ised a major project which
was the model for this
present study.

Trainer 3
(Black Male)

Education: doctorate in education,
and a background in
guidance and counselling.

Experience: 1,000 hours of group
experience over 10 years,
and held the position of
Associate Director of a
Desegregation Center at a
state college in Utah. He
also had responsibility
for training human
relations leaders.

Trainer 4
(Black Female)

Education: doctoral candidate whose area of concentration was Group Communication.

Experience: background in psychiatric nursing and group facilitating (2-3 groups per week) for 10 years; she was an assistant professor at a state university in Denver, Colorado (2-3 groups weekly) for 13 years.

Co-trainer 1
(Black Male)

Education: M.S. in psychology, and further training in psychology.

Experience: 20 years of clinical and supervisory mental health experience, and over 1,300 hours of group experience.

Co-trainer 2
(White Male)

Education: B.S. in rehabilitation/psychology and was completing a masters degree.

Experience: 1,000 hours of group therapy experience during his 4 1/2 years in the mental health field.

Once the subjects were randomly assigned to one of five groups (4 experimental, 1 control) the trainers were paired with the groups. It was decided to pair trainer #1 (white female) with the all-white group to test for the effects of human relations training with some group members role-playing as blacks. Trainer #2 asked to lead the group in the second time slot. This was due to his

travelling schedule, and plans to visit Denver for the workshop. Trainer #3 asked to run the group in the third time slot due to his work schedule, and plans to visit Denver for the workshop. Trainer #4 was assigned to the last group. Originally, this group included two black males, but after randomisation, they withdrew. Consequently, group #4 was composed of white subjects with a female, black trainer. The results from groups #1 and #4 were compared to the control group in spite of these group's racial homogeneity.

The experimental group trainers met with the experimenter for a 4-hour planning session to discuss the exercises and to answer questions. Trainer 2 discussed the exercises by telephone since he lived in New Jersey. Trainers were given a copy of the Leader's Guide (see Appendix G). During this time, it was emphasised that groups should be run as similarly as possible so that between-group differences could be minimised. The trainers read the exercises and made suggestions for changes. It was decided that only two techniques were to be used if any special needs or personal agendas arose during the workshop: role play and alterego. Otherwise the trainers agreed to stay with the format outlined in the Leader's Guide. The trainers were also given instructions for the behavioural posttest which was the same for all groups.

The control group trainers met with the experimenter for a 45-minute planning session to discuss their role during the behavioural posttest (i.e., their only contact with the control group). They were asked to monitor blood pressure before and after the taped discussion, to lead the discussion minimally, to keep the group on target, to help members be concrete (vs. vague), and to alert members to time. After the taping, they were asked to discuss any feelings or reactions the members had by spending 15 minutes on closure. These were the exact instructions given to the experimental group trainers for the behavioural posttest.

Trainer's Style of Leadership

During the encounter group study of Lieberman, Yalom and Miles (1973) leaders were rated by observers, and group members. As well, an 'overall' impression was recorded after each meeting by the observers. Leaders' scores on discrete, observable behaviours were 'factor analyzed', reduced into clusters and then further reduced to produce "...four basic functions: Emotional Stimulation, Caring, Meaning-Attribution and Executive Function" (pp. 229-33). The authors believe that these constructs may provide an 'empirically derived' classification for investigating leader behaviour in all types of groups (p. 235).

Moreover, in comparing the group outcome with the styles of the leaders, they found that the most effective trainer displayed these four functions in a particular fashion, and that this style transcended the trainer's theoretical orientation. The most effective trainer had a style which was moderate in 'stimulation' and 'executive function' and high in 'caring' and 'meaning-attribution' (p.240). Conversely, a less effective trainer would have a style characterised by low or very high amounts of 'stimulation,' and 'executive function'; low or moderate amounts of 'caring' and 'meaning-attribution.'

These functions of style were further described by 24 items (Yalom, 1975). For the purpose of this present study, these items were placed on a scale* so that the trainers could evaluate their own style (See Appendix J). In this way, statistical control for any trainer differences could be maintained.

* The numbering system of this scale is taken from Valins (1966) as cited in Dawes (1971, p.94).

The functions and their descriptions are:

- 'Emotional Stimulation' includes 'challenging', 'confronting', and 'self-disclosure'.
- 'Caring' includes 'offering support', showing affection, praising, protecting, showing warmth, 'acceptance', being genuine, showing concern.
- 'Meaning-Attribution' includes 'explaining', 'clarifying', 'interpreting', processing, 'translating feelings and experiences into ideas'.
- 'Executive Function' includes 'setting limits', stating rules, 'norms', 'goals', 'managing time', 'stopping', 'interceding', 'suggesting procedures' (p.477).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the statistical results for the dependent variables: self-acceptance, prejudice (E and F scales) and communication style. Results from the analysis of covariance, independent groups design are listed first. Afterwards, the analysis of covariance, and analysis of variance, multiple groups design are listed. Analyses of, covariance, variance, means, and standard deviations are presented in the same table.

The hypotheses, and whether they are accepted or rejected, are listed.

Secondary analyses: regression and t tests are presented, and a discussion of the results follows.

Self-Acceptance (Hypothesis 1)

Analysis of covariance, independent groups design, results from both the posttest and delayed posttest means for the treatment and control groups revealed no significant differences. Tables 3 and 4 list the results. Tables 5 and 6 list the same results without the scores of a control group subject. Group means and standard deviations are given in each of the tables.

TABLE 3. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, INDEPENDENT GROUPS DESIGN. POSTTEST MEANS ON SELF-ACCEPTANCE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Groups Means	Pretest	Posttest
Treatment	22.43 (SD 3.58)	22.86 (SD 4.25)
Control w/Subject #48	20.50 (SD 4.11)	23.0 (SD 4.4)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Treatment	18.72	1	18.72	3.34 NS*
Error	134.59	24	5.61	
Total	153.31	25		

* Fcrit, 4.24 $p < 0.05$

TABLE 4. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, INDEPENDENT GROUPS DESIGN. DELAYED POSTTEST MEANS ON SELF-ACCEPTANCE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Groups Means	Pretest	Delayed Posttest
Treatment	22.43 (SD 3.58)	23.22 (SD 3.73)
Control w/Subject #48	20.50 (SD 4.11)	22.40 (SD 3.93)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Treatment	9.95	1	9.95	1.69 NS*
Error	118.11	20	5.90	
Total	128.06	21+		

* Fcrit, 4.26, $p < 0.05$
+ Four cases are missing due to mortality

It was decided to remove one subject's score from the computations since this subject was undergoing psychotherapy before and during her involvement in the control group. With the removal of this score, any undue influence on the control group results ~~were~~^{was} monitored.

TABLE 5. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, INDEPENDENT GROUPS DESIGN. POSTTEST MEANS ON SELF-ACCEPTANCE WITHOUT THE SCORE OF ONE CONTROL GROUP SUBJECT. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Groups Means	Pretest	Posttest
Treatment	22.43 (SD 3.58)	22.86 (SD 4.25)
Control W/out Subject #48	21.40 (SD 3.93)	23.0 (SD 4.82)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Treatment	6.05	1	6.05	1.27 NS*
Error	109.20	23	4.75	
Total	115.25	24		
* Fcrit, 4.26, $p < 0.05$				

TABLE 6. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, INDEPENDENT GROUPS DESIGN. DELAYED POSTTEST MEANS ON SELF-ACCEPTANCE WITHOUT THE SCORE OF ONE CONTROL GROUP SUBJECT. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Groups Means	Pretest	Delayed Posttest
Treatment	22.43 (SD 3.58)	23.22 (SD 3.73)
Control W/out Subject #48	21.40 (SD 3.93)	21.75 (SD 4.15)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Treatment	.85	1	.85	.20 NS*
Error	81.35	19	4.28	
Total	82.20	20+		

* Fcrit, 4.38, $p < 0.05$

+ Due to mortality rate of 4, and the removal of one case, the total degrees of freedom drops to 20.

Prejudice, Direct Measure (Hypothesis 2)

Analysis of covariance, independent groups design, results from both the posttest and delayed posttest means for the treatment and control groups reveal no significant differences. Tables 7 and 8 list the results. Group means and standard deviations are given.

TABLE 7. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, INDEPENDENT GROUPS DESIGN. POSTTEST MEANS ON PREJUDICE (E SCALE), DIRECT MEASURE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Groups Means	Pretest	Posttest
Treatment	39.33 (SD 19.44)	38.95 (SD 15.95)
Control	40.16 (SD 9.95)	45.33 (SD 9.12)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Treatment	160.47	1	160.47	1.50 NS*
Error	2568.75	24	107.03	
Total	2729.22	25		
* Fcrit, 4.24, p. < 0.05				

TABLE 8. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, INDEPENDENT GROUPS DESIGN. DELAYED POSTTEST MEANS ON PREJUDICE (E SCALE), DIRECT MEASURE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Groups Means	Pretest	Delayed Posttest
Treatment	39.33 (SD 19.44)	44.11 (SD 19.85)
Control	40.16 (SD 9.95)	44.20 (SD 10.76)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Treatment	25.17	1	25.17	.10 NS+
Error	5264.11	20	263.21	
Total	5289.28	21*		

* Four cases are missing due to mortality
+ Fcrit, 4.35, p < 0.05

Prejudice, Indirect Measure (Hypothesis 3)

Analysis of covariance, independent groups design, results from the posttest reveal no significant differences on prejudice (F scale), indirect measure. Table 9 lists the results. Group means and standard deviations are given.

TABLE 9. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, INDEPENDENT GROUPS DESIGN. POSTTEST MEANS ON PREJUDICE (F SCALE), INDIRECT MEASURE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Groups Means	Pretest	Posttest
Treatment	97.95 (SD 27.90)	93.29 (SD 27.58)
Control	95.17 (SD 13.26)	99.50 (SD 12.20)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Treatment	329.05	1	329.05	1.29 NS*
Error	6114.43	24	254.77	
Total	6443.48	25		
* Fcrit, 4.26, $p < 0.05$				

Analysis of covariance, independent groups design, results from the delayed posttest reveal a significant difference between the treated and untreated groups. Table 10 lists the results. Group means and standard deviations are given.

TABLE 10. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, INDEPENDENT GROUPS DESIGN. DELAYED POSTTEST MEANS, PREJUDICE (F SCALE), INDIRECT MEASURE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Groups Means	Pretest	Delayed Posttest
Treatment	97.95 (SD 27.90)	101.78 (SD 29.72)
Control	95.17 (SD 13.26)	119.40 [†] (SD 32.81)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F
Treatment	1746.82	1	1746.82	6.03*
Error	5792.01	20	289.60	
Total	7538.83	21+		

* F crit, 4.35, $p < 0.05$.

+ Four cases are missing due to mortality

+ It appears that the significant F is due to control group increases from pre- to delayed posttest. ANCOVA does not measure pre-, post- and delayed posttest changescores; rather, it compares treatment and control group scores to determine if they are significantly different.

Communication Style (Hypothesis 4)

An independent groups design was not appropriate for the repeated measure on communication style. Table 18 (p.115) lists the results for this variable in the multiple groups design.

Delayed Posttest Results (Hypothesis 5)

Delayed posttest results for prejudice, indirect measure, were significant at the .05 level of confidence and better. Table 10 lists the results. Other delayed posttest results were not significant. See Tables 4, 6 and 8 and 10, where delayed posttest results were presented.

Analysis of Covariance, Multiple Groups Design

When analysis of covariance, independent groups design revealed no significant differences on prejudice (indirect measure) at posttest, and graphed results indicated some differences among the four experimental groups which comprised the treatment condition, it was decided to analyse the results on a group by group basis. For this purpose, analysis of covariance, multiple groups design was utilised. The SPSS computer package was used to compute the results (Nie et al, 1975).

Prejudice, Indirect Measure (Hypothesis 3)

Analysis of covariance, multiple groups design, results of the posttest means from control and experimental groups reveal significant differences. Table 11 lists the results. Figure 1, p.110 graphs the data.

TABLE 11. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, MULTIPLE GROUPS DESIGN. POSTTEST MEANS ON PREJUDICE (F SCALE), INDIRECT MEASURE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Group Means	Pretest	Posttest
Experimental Groups		
1	98.00 (SD 21.62)	93.80 (SD 20.27)
2	95.80 (SD 25.58)	109.80 (SD 21.05)
3	98.83 (SD 36.97)	93.00 (SD 37.44)
4	99.00 (SD 22.35)	76.60 (SD 10.50)
Control Group #5	95.17 (SD 13.26)	99.50 (SD 12.20)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
Covariates	1	10,618.49	10,618.49	76.57*
Main Effects	4	3,531.42	882.85	6.37+
Explained	5	14,149.91	2,829.98	20.41++
Residual	21	2,912.05	138.67	
Total	26	17,061.96	656.23	

*p < 0.00
+p < 0.002
++p < 0.00

In order to determine which groups significantly differ, Tukey's HSD test was used. Table 12 lists the results.

TABLE 12. TUKEY HSD TEST RESULTS OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON PREJUDICE, F SCALE, AT POSTTEST.

Group Means		Control Group Mean			
		99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5
Group 4	76.6	-22.9*			
Group 3	93.0		- 6.5*		
Group 1	93.8			- 5.7*	
Group 2	109.8				+10.3 ⁺
<p>* $p < 0.01$. Scores for these groups decreased as was hypothesised.</p> <p>+ $p < 0.01$. This group's scores increased to a level which was significantly <u>higher</u> than the control.</p> <p>Fcrit, 4.37; F prime, 5.37</p> <p>Note: Formula for groups of unequal size was used.</p>					

Analysis of covariance, multiple groups design, results of the delayed posttest means for prejudice (indirect measure) from the control and experimental groups reveal borderline significant differences ($p < 0.056$). Table 13 lists the results. See Figure 1, p.110 for graphed data.

TABLE 13. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, MULTIPLE GROUPS DESIGN. DELAYED POSTTEST MEANS ON PREJUDICE (F SCALE), INDIRECT MEASURE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE.

Group Means	Pretest	Delayed Posttest
Experimental Groups		
1	98.00 (SD 21.62)	93.30 (SD 10.40)
2	95.80 (SD 25.58)	116.75 (SD 26.85)
3	98.83 (SD 36.97)	103.67 (SD 38.18)
4	99.00 (SD 22.35)	89.60 (SD 21.32)
Control Group #5	95.17 (SD 13.26)	119.40 (SD 32.81)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
Covariates	1	14,966.62	14,966.62	56.46*
Main Effects	4	3,032.08	758.02	2.86+
Explained	5	17,998.70	3,599.74	13.58++
Residual	17	4,506.75	265.10	
Total	22**	22,505.45	1,022.97	

*p < 0.00
 +p < 0.056 **Four cases are missing due to mortality.
 ++p < 0.00

Figure 1 graphs the prejudice scores, (indirect measure) on a pre-, post- and delayed posttest basis. Prejudice scores are significantly reduced for Groups 1, 3 and 4 at posttest. Group 4 has the lowest scores. Both the control group (group 5) and group 2 show increased scores.

At delayed posttest, scores for group 1 and 3 hover around their pretest levels while group four's scores are considerably lower. It is noteworthy that delayed posttest scores for group 4 remain lower than their pre-test scores. This is the only group which maintained scores at this level.

Scores for the control group (#5) and group 2 are significantly higher.

Tukey Test results (p.107) suggest that posttest treatment effects on prejudice scores for experimental groups 1, 3 and 4 are significantly lower than the control group at a .01 level of confidence, and that group two's prejudice scores increased to a level which is significantly higher than the control group scores ($p < 0.01$).

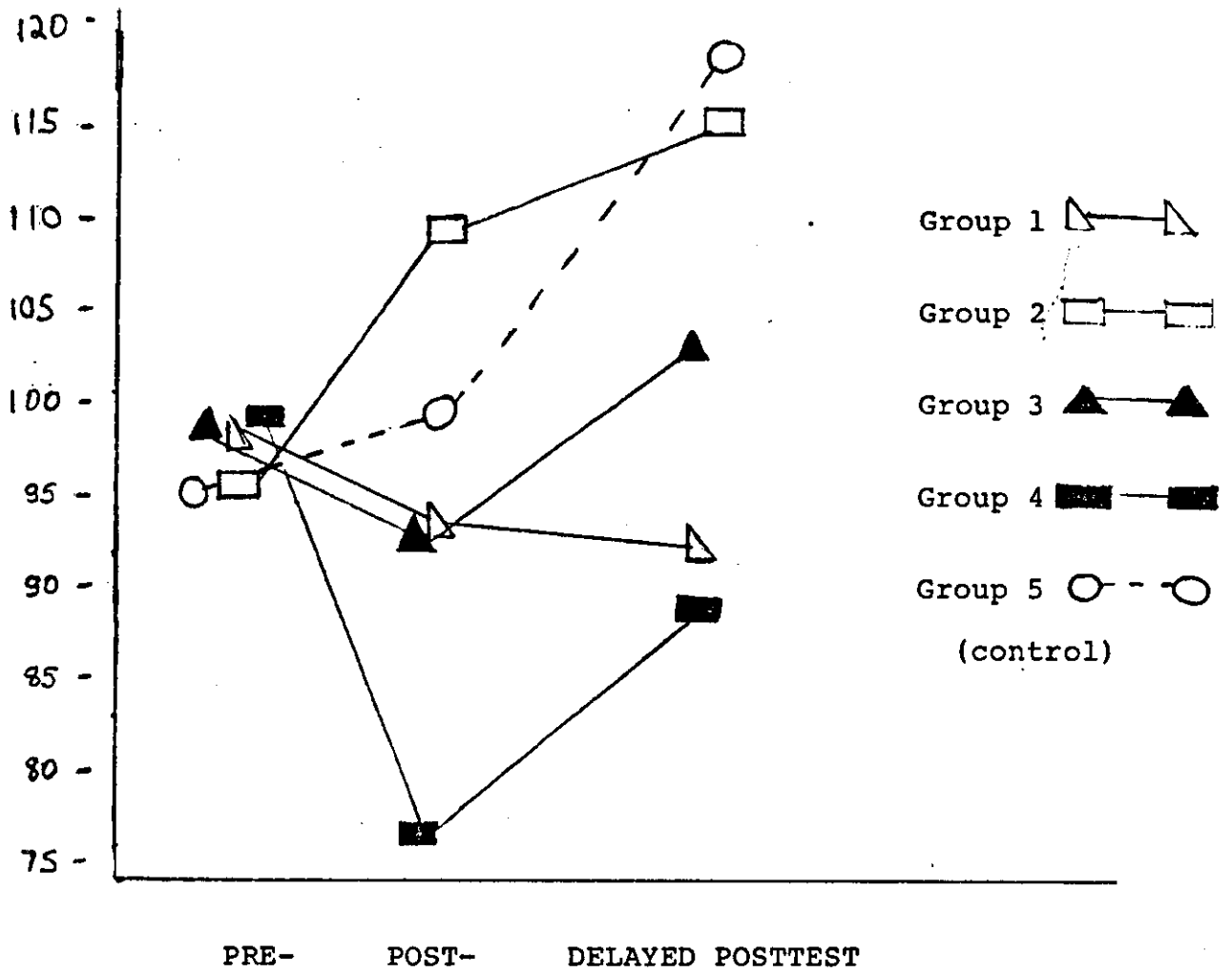


FIGURE 1.

Changes in mean scores on the indirect measure of prejudice, the F scale. Multiple Groups Design.

Self-Acceptance (Hypothesis 1)

Analysis of covariance, multiple groups design, results from both the posttest and delayed posttest means for the control and experimental groups reveal no significant differences. Tables 14 and 15 list the results. Group means and standard deviations are given.

TABLE 14. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, MULTIPLE GROUPS DESIGN. POSTTEST MEANS ON SELF-ACCEPTANCE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Group Means	Pretest	Posttest
Experimental Groups		
1	21.00 (SD 2.28)	21.40 (SD 3.72)
2	20.80 (SD 1.72)	21.20 (SD 4.44)
3	23.30 (SD 4.94)	23.83 (SD 4.51)
4	24.40 (SD 3.01)	24.80 (SD 3.25)
Control Group #5	20.50 (SD 4.11)	23.00 (SD 4.40)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
Covariates	1	345.35	345.35	53.91*
Main Effects	4	18.78	4.69	.73NS
Explained	5	364.14	72.83	11.37+
Residual	21	134.53	6.41	
Total	26	498.67	19.18	

*p < 0.00
+p < 0.056

TABLE 15. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, MULTIPLE GROUPS DESIGN.
DELAYED POSTTEST MEANS ON SELF-ACCEPTANCE.
PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS
STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Group Means	Pretest	Delayed Posttest
Experimental Groups		
1	21.00 (SD 2.28)	22.30 (SD 3.42)
2	20.80 (SD 1.72)	21.75 (SD 3.63)
3	23.30 (SD 4.94)	23.83 (SD 3.65)
4	24.40 (SD 3.01)	24.20 (SD 3.60)
Control Group #5	20.50 (SD 4.11)	22.40 (SD 3.93)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
Covariates	1	200.90	200.90	30.42*
Main Effects	4	15.77	3.94	.60NS
Explained	5	216.67	43.33	6.56+
Residual	17	112.28	6.60	
Total	22**	328.95	14.95	

*p < 0.00
+p < 0.001 ** Four cases missing due to mortality

Prejudice, Direct Measure (Hypothesis 2)

Analysis of covariance, multiple groups design, results from both the posttest and delayed posttest means for the control and experimental groups reveal no significant differences. Tables 16 and 17 list the results. Group means and standard deviations are given.

TABLE 16. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, MULTIPLE GROUPS DESIGN. POSTTEST MEANS ON PREJUDICE (E SCALE), DIRECT MEASURE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE. GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Group Means	Pretest	Posttest
Experimental Groups		
1	26.60 (SD 7.66)	35.00 (SD 15.70)
2	41.80 (SD 13.99)	38.20 (SD 15.16)
3	46.00 (SD 27.46)	41.00 (SD 18.57)
4	41.60 (SD 14.16)	41.20 (SD 12.32)
Control Group #5	40.16 (SD 9.91)	45.33 (SD 9.12)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
Covariates	1	3,299.07	3,299.07	28.64*
Main Effects	4	310.17	77.54	.67NS
Explained	5	3,609.24	721.85	6.27+
Residual	21	2,419.04	115.19	
Total	26	6,028.28	231.86	

*p < 0.00
+p < 0.001

TABLE 17. ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE, MULTIPLE GROUPS DESIGN.
DELAYED POSTTEST MEANS ON PREJUDICE (E SCALE),
DIRECT MEASURE. PRETEST USED AS THE COVARIATE.
GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Group Means	Pretest	Delayed Posttest
Experimental Groups		
1	26.60 (SD 7.66)	33.30 (SD 11.18)
2	41.80 (SD 13.99)	48.25 (SD 16.57)
3	46.00 (SD 27.46)	48.50 (SD 27.51)
4	41.60 (SD 14.16)	42.00 (SD 10.54)
Control Group #5	40.16 (SD 9.91)	44.20 (SD 10.76)

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
Covariates	1	2,379.33	2,379.33	7.76*
Main Effects	4	106.76	26.69	.09NS
Explained	5	2,486.09	497.22	1.62
Residual	17	5,212.50	306.62	
Total	22+	7,698.59	349.94	

*p < 0.01

+ Four cases missing due to mortality.

Communication Style (Hypothesis 4)

Analysis of variance, multiple groups design, results of the posttest means from the control and experimental groups reveal no significant differences. Table 18 lists the results. Figure 2 graphs the data which show a marked difference in the effectiveness of communication style in the four treatment groups despite the insignificant results.

TABLE 18. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE, MULTIPLE GROUPS DESIGN.*
POSTTEST MEANS ON COMMUNICATION STYLE. GROUP
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Group Means	Posttest Only	Standard Deviation
Experimental Groups		
1	2.23	.77
2	2.28	.78
3	2.49	.79
4	1.93	.48
Control Group #5	2.99	.92

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
Explained (treatment)	4	742.26	185.57	3.41NS*
Residual (error)	2	108.93	54.47	
Interaction	8	295.24	36.91	
Total	14	1,146.43		
*Fcrit, 19.25, $p < 0.05$				

The Spearman correlation coefficient for interrater reliability was .32, $p < 0.001$.

*Note: This is a repeated measures design. Subjects were measured on the 2nd, 4th and 6th sections of an audiotape.

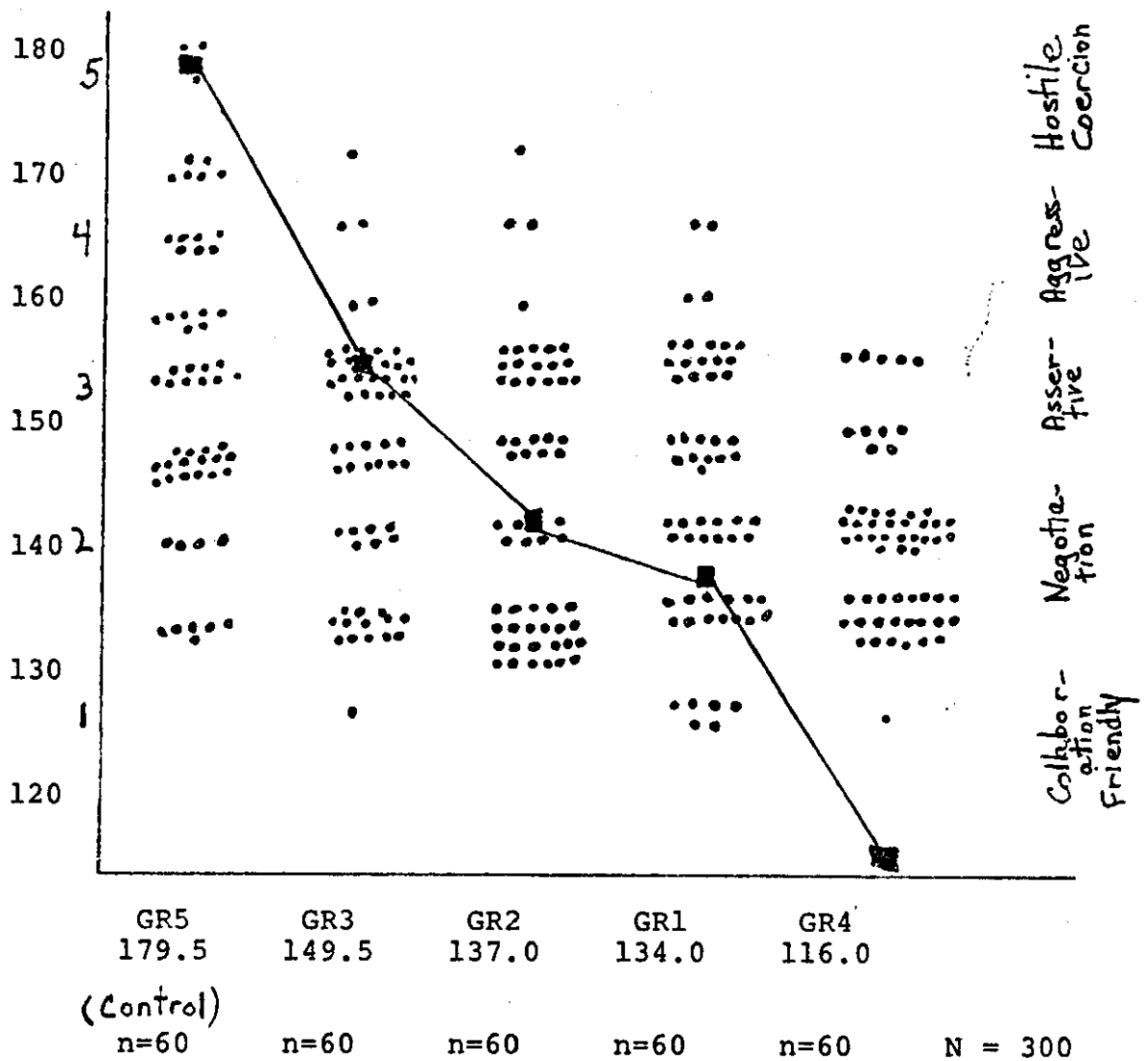


Figure 2:

Frequency of responses on communication style. Constructs of coercion, negotiation, collaboration, hostility, aggression, assertion, friendliness. Posttest only. (Lower score is a more constructive score.)

Sixty responses for each group. Total of 300 responses. Taken from 3, 10-minute segments of a 60-minute tape. Total of 26 subjects.

n = number of responses from each group
 N = total number of responses
 Combined score of two, naive, trained raters

Listed below are the hypotheses, and an indication of whether they are accepted or rejected:

Hypothesis 1: Treatment will increase self-acceptance -- rejected.

Hypothesis 2: Treatment will decrease prejudice as measured by the direct measure -- rejected.

Hypothesis 3: Treatment will decrease prejudice as measured by the indirect measure -- partially accepted.

Hypothesis 4: Treatment will improve communication style -- rejected.

Hypothesis 5: Treatment effects are long term (i.e., will appear at delayed posttest). This does not include communication style which was measured at posttest only -- partially accepted.

Analysis of possible interaction of trainer's leadership style and treatment effects reveal no significant interaction at the .05 level of confidence. Table 19 lists the results.

TABLE 19. REGRESSION ANALYSIS -- POSSIBLE INTERACTION OF TRAINER'S STYLE AND PREJUDICE SCORES, INDIRECT MEASURE, (F SCALE) AT POSTTEST.

Analysis of Variance	df	SS	MS	F	
Regression	2	2277.86	1138.93	1.85*NS	Multiple R .37
Residual	24	14784.14	616.01		R2 .13
					Adjusted R2 .06
					Standard Error 24.82
* p < 0.20					

Analysis of possible interaction of the trainer's race and sex, and treatment effects reveal no significant interaction. Table 20 lists the results.

TABLE 20. REGRESSION ANALYSIS -- POSSIBLE INTERACTION OF TRAINER'S RACE AND SEX AND PREJUDICE SCORES, INDIRECT MEASURE, (F SCALE) AT POSTTEST.

Analysis of Variance	df	SS	MS	F	
Regression	1	2002.94	2002.94	3.33*NS	Multiple R .34
Residual	25	15059.06	602.36		R2 .12
					Adjusted R2 .08
					Standard Error 24.54
* p < 0.10					

A series of t tests for independent groups was performed to investigate the relationship between prejudice (indirect measure) and subjects' sex to determine if sex was predictive of positive outcome. (Subjects' race was not used since there were too few blacks.)

Tables 21 and 22 list the results at post, and delayed posttest. There are no significant differences.

TABLE 21: t TEST FOR MEN'S vs. WOMEN'S POSTTEST SCORES, PREJUDICE, INDIRECT MEASURE (F SCALE).

Sex	M	SD	t
Men	98.5	30.91	.99 NS*
Women	86.33	20.46	
*t (19) critical t = 2.093, two tailed test			

TABLE 22: t TEST FOR MEN'S vs. WOMEN'S DELAYED POSTTEST SCORES, PREJUDICE, INDIRECT MEASURE (F SCALE).

Sex	M	SD	t
Men	107.91	34.65	1.07NS*
Women	92.14	15.30	
*t (16) critical t = 2.120, two tailed test			

Analysis of variance for multiple groups was performed to investigate the relationship between prejudice (indirect measure) and subjects' education. Tables 23 and 24 list the results which support a strong, inverse relationship between the variables.

TABLE 23. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE, MULTIPLE GROUPS DESIGN. POSTTEST MEANS ON LEVEL OF EDUCATION AND PREJUDICE (INDIRECT MEASURE). GROUP MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

effect treatment?

Group Means	Posttest	Standard Deviation
Education	Prejudice	
10-14 Yrs.	109.27	26.05
16-20 Yrs.	75.70	16.21

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
Treatment	1	5,904.01	5,904.01	11.12*
Error	19	10,084.28	530.75	
Total	20	15,988.29		

*p < 0.01, Fcrit, 8.18

TABLE 24. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE, MULTIPLE GROUPS DESIGN.
DELAYED POSTTEST MEANS ON LEVEL OF EDUCATION
AND PREJUDICE (INDIRECT MEASURE). GROUP MEANS
AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS.

Group Means	Delayed Posttest	Standard Deviation
Education	Prejudice	
10-14 Yrs.	117.56	28.08
16-20 Yrs.	86.00	21.91

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
Treatment	1	4,480.89	4,480.89	6.27*
Error	16	11,428.22	714.26	
Total	17	15,909.11		

*p < 0.05, Fcrit, 4.49

Discussion of Results

The results of human relations training between black and white adults suggest that prejudice (indirect measure) was significantly lower in the treatment group at delayed posttest ($p < 0.05$). A secondary analysis (of covariance with multiple groups) suggests that prejudice was significantly lower at posttest* in three out of four treatment groups. This can be considered partial acceptance of hypothesis #3 that reductions in prejudice will be realised at posttest, and hypothesis #5, that the effects of treatment will remain significant at delayed posttest.

Why was prejudice significantly lower in the treatment group? It would appear that treatment was effective in changing attitudes of prejudice. The strategy to encourage change in subjects' attitudes and behaviour on many fronts rather than singularly appears to have been effective. This was attempted in some way by each of the treatment exercises which encouraged subjects to share their feelings and attitudes in a safe environment, to see similarities in their needs, values and goals, to learn high-level communication skills, to build trust, and to understand the implications of their progress during treatment. The personal therapy component may also have helped subjects reduce their attitudes of prejudice through the process of self-acceptance (which is self-awareness).

In other words, the strategy of attempting to reduce attitudes of prejudice directly by increasing acceptance of others and indirectly, by increasing self-acceptance may have been effective.+

- * There was also borderline significance ($p < 0.056$) at delayed posttest.
- + It is possible that the lack of significant increases in self-acceptance may be due to the ceiling effect or an inappropriate measuring device (see pp.132-139 for further discussion).

Another possibility for the significant differences in prejudice is that subjects were responding to the special attention being given them (i.e., the Hawthorne effect). Without the use of a placebo control group, there is no way to completely rule out this possibility. However, since significance was also realized at the time of delayed posttesting, the Hawthorne effect as an explanation for significant differences, loses much of its credibility. The six weeks between treatment and delayed posttesting are enough time for an Hawthorne effect to wear off.

Had the significance been realized only at posttest and not at the time of delayed posttest, it might have been plausible to say that the Hawthorne effect was responsible for treatment effects. In other words, treatment effects at the time of posttest may have indicated that subjects were responding to the special attention being given them.

Analysis of Covariance, Multiple Groups Design

It would be helpful at this point to discuss the rationale for calculating the analysis of covariance which was run on the multiple groups design. Results from the primary analysis (of Covariance for Independent Groups), revealed no significance on the indirect measure of prejudice at posttest. From this, it appeared that treatment was ineffective at the time of posttesting. However, while graphing the results of posttest prejudice scores (F scale), marked differences in the individual treatment group scores were apparent (See Figure 1, p.110). Given this discrepancy, it was decided to statistically examine the dependent variable on a group by group basis. This seemed especially important since interaction of the sex and race of the trainer showed a trend toward significance (see Table 20). Given this trend toward significance it was suspected that some groups may have shown decreased prejudice scores while others did not.

This combination (of the marked differences on Figure 1, and the trend toward significance on the interaction of race and sex of the trainer) supported the calculation of analysis of covariance on a group by group basis.

Analysis of Covariance, Multiple Groups Design, revealed interesting findings on prejudice (indirect measure) at posttest. They suggest ($p < 0.002$ and better) that there were significant differences between the groups. A post hoc comparison, the Tukey HSD test (Wright, 1976), indicated that attitudes of prejudice on the indirect measure (F scale) were significantly lower at posttest in three out of four experimental groups ($p < 0.01$) in comparison to control group scores.

Specifically, groups 1, 3 and 4* showed significantly lower prejudice scores than did the control group.**

Group 2 showed an increase in prejudice scores ($p < 0.01$) in a pattern not unlike that of the control group (Figure 1). How can this be explained? Trainer 2 reported that the individual members of his group focussed strongly on their personal therapy component. (He did not

** Groups 1, 3 and 4 remained about level (i.e.g., had a modest decrease). The control group showed an increase which generated the significant effects.

* (Groups 1 and 4 were all-white groups led by female trainers. Trainer 1 was a white female; trainer 4 a black female. Group 3 was a racially-mixed group led by a black, male trainer.) These results suggest that treatment was effective in these three groups when their results are compared to the control group (at posttest). At delayed posttest, mean scores on prejudice for Groups 1, 3 and 4 fall below those of the control group with borderline significance $p < 0.056$. At least it is not merely that lower prejudice was a 'demand characteristic' of black trainers.

introduce The Vesuvius* since he believed it to be inappropriate). This personal therapy focus may have prevented their transition from egocentric concerns to a concern for others. In other words it is being suggested that the members needed to complete their personal therapy before they could concentrate on the racial awareness design of the workshop, and the needs of others. In the process, the members of group 2 may have become more honest about their prejudices. Hence, the increased scores. It is possible that a longer treatment period may have enabled group 2 to complete the personal therapy component which is said to be the catalyst in the transition from egocentric concerns to awareness of the needs of others.

An alternate explanation for group two's increased prejudice scores is that the members of this group had personalities which would have been resistant to attitude change regardless of the duration of treatment. There is no way to rule out this possibility. This study did not categorise subjects according to personality type or degree of prejudice. All groups were randomised. Based on the trainer's report that his group members focussed on

* In the planning of this intervention, it was hoped that catharsis would be a component through the use of The Vesuvius, Exercise VII in each of the four experimental groups. It was apparent from the trainers' verbal reports that this exercise was only marginally utilised. The trainers presented it as a strategy for future use rather than as an experimental venting technique during the workshop. Trainer #2 never introduced the Vesuvius during the workshop because he felt it was inappropriate. The needs of his subjects were such that they needed to work through their own personal agendas which preceded other, more intensive issues which could have been vented in the Vesuvius. Regrettably, catharsis of aggression was not an effective component in the intervention, and the results of this omission are a matter for speculation. It is recommended that future research in this area include catharsis, with its intellectual component, as a strategy for attitude and behaviour change. See pp.43-44 for a discussion of catharsis of aggression; pp.44-46 for the intellectual component.

personal therapy rather than the racial awareness aspect of the workshop, it is plausible that a longer treatment period may have been necessary for the members of this group to reduce their prejudice scores.

Another explanation for the increased prejudice scores in group 2 is that treatment was not effective due to the trainer's style. There is no way to completely rule out this possibility. Regression analysis on trainer's style did not reveal any significant interaction with the effects of treatment. In addition, trainer #2 had considerable experience over 15 years with racial groups in human relations training, and proven effectiveness in the field. Given the support of the regression analysis, and his experience and effectiveness in the field, it is probable that this trainer's style was not responsible for group two's increased prejudice scores.

Various explanations have been offered for the significant change in prejudice (indirect measure) at delayed posttest. That subjects were responding to the Hawthorne effect is possible. There was no placebo control group to completely rule this out. Treatment effects at the time of posttest may have indicated that subjects were responding to special attention being given them. It was argued, however, that the six weeks between treatment and delayed posttesting are sufficient time for the Hawthorne effect to wear off. It is plausible to argue that significant change in prejudice (indirect measure) at delayed posttesting resulted from treatment.

Results for prejudice (indirect measure) at posttest were equivocal. Three out of four experimental groups showed significant differences when scores were compared to the control group. The Hawthorne effect cannot be ruled out as being responsible for these differences. Various possibilities were explored to explain group two's increased scores. Members of group 2 may have required longer treatment duration for completion of their personal therapy. Or, members of the group may have had personalities which were resistant to change regardless of treatment duration. It is not possible to rule out this

possibility in the absence of categorisation of subjects according to personality type.

Based on the trainer's report that his group members focussed on personal therapy rather than the racial awareness aspect of the workshop, it was suggested that a longer treatment period may have been necessary for the members of this group to reduce their prejudice scores.

Increased prejudice scores in group 2 may also have resulted from the trainer's ineffective style of leadership. This possibility cannot be ruled out. Given the support of the insignificant regression analysis (on potential interaction), and the trainer's proven effectiveness in the field, this explanation seems less plausible.

Potential Interaction of Treatment Effects and Trainer's Style

Regression analyses suggest that there was no interaction between the effects of treatment and trainer's style of leadership. All trainers who participated in this study were experienced human relations training leaders. (Experience ranged from 4 1/2 to 20 years.) They possessed aptitude for this mode of therapy: high level communication skills, ability to juggle the dynamics of judgment and feedback and ease in interpersonal relationships. They were able to demonstrate their expertise by providing a resume of pertinent work experience and by their behaviour during their interview with the researcher. All trainers were selected (from a pool of candidates) for their communicative and interpersonal attributes. After being selected, they were asked to describe the behaviours in which they engage during group therapy or human relations training.* It was hoped that

* They responded on a 24-item scale with a 0 to 100 point range. (See Appendix J).

with this recruitment process, only the most effective trainers were chosen. Theoretically, group outcome would then be influenced in a most positive way.

An alternate explanation for insignificant interaction results is that the constructs used to typify the trainer's leadership style are invalid. In support of the constructs' validity, Lieberman et al, (1973) report that leaders were rated by both observers and group members. These descriptions were further analysed (statistically) and reduced to form clusters so that they were considered to be 'empirically derived' (p.235). In the absence of further validation studies, there is no way to rule out the possibility that these leadership constructs are not a real measure of what a trainer does during training. The effort made by the authors in deriving these functions lends some credibility to their validity.

Another explanation for insignificant interaction results is that trainer self reports are an unreliable measure of their true leadership style; that their actual behaviour in group is different from their report of this behaviour. A way to control for this would have been through videotapes of all, or a portion of the workshop with observers scoring the leaders' style. Observer reports would then have been compared with trainers' self reports. Financial constraints prevented this procedure in this present study. Consequently, there is no way to rule out the unreliability of trainers' self reports. A factor which lends credibility to the reliability of these self reports is the experience of the trainers. Leaders had a range of experience of 4 1/2 to 20 years. It is possible that they were aware of their actual behaviours in group having ample time to have received feedback from colleagues and group members during their prior work.

Potential Interaction of Treatment Effects
and Trainer's Race and Sex

So much effort was given to the four-time replication of the treatment condition (so that a trainer of each race and sex could lead a group) that it seemed wise to examine the potential interaction of the trainer's race and sex, and treatment effects. This seemed especially important since reduction of prejudice reached significance in only three out of four treatment groups in the multiple group analysis of covariance. Interaction of the effects of treatment and trainer's race and sex reached significance at the 0.10 level of confidence. This does not satisfy the established alpha level of 0.05 for the study. It does however alert the researcher to a possible trend which may suggest that the race and/or sex of the trainers differentially affected treatment. Whether a black female is more effective than a white female; a black male more than a white male cannot be answered at this point. Future researchers need to conduct a larger number of groups to further control for the trainer's race and sex so that definitive statements can be made regarding the effect of these variables upon treatment outcome. At this point, the effect is unclear.

Communication Style Results

Communication style scores did not change significantly after treatment. This suggests that human relations training has little or no effect on communication style.

This result is difficult to accept. It could be said that communication skills training was the largest component of the study. In addition, to the exercise (#VI, Communication Skills, Egan, 1975, 1976), which introduced the specific high-level skills to the subjects, communication was the focus of the workshop. Every exercise encouraged verbal interaction among the subjects; the closure portion of each exercise encouraged subjects to

talk about what had occurred: to verbalise their feelings, reactions and ideas. Much time was spent on communicating constructively in the 2 1/2 day workshop. Why then, did the results on this dependent variable not reach significance?

One explanation is that the scale which measured this variable was not appropriately sensitive. Constructed by this writer (see Appendix I), the scale may be too simple, or broad in scope to characterise constructive versus destructive communication styles during a full discussion. A more complex scale may have been necessary to effectively measure conversational diversity.

The 1 to 5 numbering system could have been inadequate as well. Perhaps a transformation of raw scores to a derived score would have enhanced the ability of the scale to differentiate destructive versus constructive style. Since communication is inherently diverse, subjects can be hostile (score of 5) one moment and wanting to negotiate the next (score of 2). This diversity of communication, and the simple 1 to 5 numbering system introduced a lot of error variance into the analysis of variance calculations. This error variance, the small number of subjects, and the repeated measure design (which further reduced the number of subjects for mathematical reasons) made it extremely difficult for results to reach significance. (The F reached in the analysis of covariance results was 3.41. It was necessary for it to reach 19.25 [F critical] for significance to be realised at the 0.05 level of confidence) These factors may have made it difficult for results to reach significance.

Another factor which may have hampered the achievement of significant results in communication style is interrater reliability which, on the scoring of communication style, was low ($r = +0.32$, $p < 0.001$). This low rate of agreement discourages confidence in the definition of the constructs as well as the level of training given to the raters. Why is the correlation so low?

The terms of the scale may not have been defined sufficiently well. Planned as an objective description of

constructive and destructive communication style, the scale may have left too much leeway to the rater, causing differential scoring. The raters' own perceptions (i.e., subjective) may have been the guide rather than the intended descriptions (i.e., objective) of the constructs, rendering the raters inconsistent in their scoring differences.

Since the raters did not practice autonomously (i.e., without the researcher) it is possible that the researcher in some nonverbal or unconscious way, indicated the ideal response which they then provided. Since the raters were able to reach agreement in the presence of the researcher and not as a pair, demand characteristics may have been responsible. There is no way, at this point, to rule out this possibility.

Another plausible explanation is that the two raters were not trained sufficiently well for their task. Their three-hour training period may not have been long enough; the practice tape not diverse enough to prepare them for scoring 300 conversational units (or 150 minutes of tape). Under the sheer strain of the task, they may have resorted to their own perceptions rather than the objective descriptions of the constructs.

Certainly the possibility of demand characteristics exists. It is also possible that a combination of the above factors may have been responsible for low interrater reliability. It is plausible that with only three hours of training, and the sheer strain of scoring 150 minutes of tape, the raters scored according to their own perceptions rather than the objective definition of the constructs.

A graph of the results (Figure 2, page 116) depicts a marked difference in the communication style of the treatment group (groups 1, 2, 3, 4) in comparison to the control group (group 5). Yet, these differences do not reach significance. It cannot be ruled out that human relations training had little or no effect on communication style. Given the extent of the focus on communicating (the largest component of the study) this result

seems doubtful. The weaknesses of the scale in measuring communication style, its numbering system, and the inconstancy of communication as a variable, may have introduced much error variance into the analysis of variance computations. This error variance, together with the small number of subjects, and the repeated measure design (which further reduces the number of subjects for the sake of appropriate calculations) may have made it difficult for results to reach significance. Since scores were averaged when there was disagreement between the raters, low interrater reliability would appear to be another factor which may have further discouraged the achievement of significant results on this dependent variable.

At this point, the reason for insignificant results on communication style after human relations training is unclear. Training may not have had an effect. However, it cannot be ruled out that the scale itself, its scoring system and the resultant statistical calculations, may have caused the insignificant findings. Low interrater reliability may have further discouraged significance. Future researchers need to employ sensitive, appropriate instruments and to properly train raters (to encourage rater agreement) so that real change can be measured on this variable. Constructive communication style is said to be a behaviour which affects interpersonal relationships (Coser, 1956, Bach, 1966, 1970; Bach & Wyden, 1969) as well as self-acceptance (Yalom, 1975). It is an important dependent variable for the researcher of human relations training.

Self-acceptance Results

Scores for self-acceptance at posttest (analysis of covariance, independent group design) reveal a trend toward significance in favour of the control group, suggesting that self-acceptance scores for the control group increased after treatment. (F is 3.34; F_{crit} is 4.24, $p < 0.05$). (See Table 3, p.98.) At the time of the pretest interview, subject #48, who was randomly assigned

to the control group, reported that she was undergoing personal counselling, due to a potential marriage breakdown. This subject was involved in counselling before and during her participation as a member of the control group. To control for this subject's history, it was decided to report results with and without her score in order to understand whether this score unduly impacted the group results. Without her score, the F ratio drops to 1.28. A look at the tables 5 and 6 (self-acceptance, post- and delayed posttest scores without the score of one subject; see pp.99-100) reveals that self-acceptance means for the experimental group range from 22.43 at pretest to 22.86 at posttest (difference of .43) while the control group means range from 21.40 at pretest to 23.0 at posttest (difference of 1.6). Very little change actually occurs at delayed posttest as well (23.22, treated; vs. 21.75, controls).

Overall, self-acceptance scores did not significantly change in response to treatment, although prejudice scores did significantly decrease in three out of four experimental groups at posttest (Analysis of Covariance, Multiple Groups Design) and in the entire treatment group at delayed posttest (Analysis of Covariance, Independent Groups Design). There was not a similar treatment effect in self-acceptance scores across experimental groups, i.e., no significant differences between the experimental and control groups. This suggests that prejudice decreases without any increases in self-acceptance, and does not support the results of the Rubin study (1966, 1967a, 1967b) which indicate a correspondence between decreases in prejudice, and increases in self-acceptance. Why were these increases in self-acceptance not found in this present study? One explanation for lack of significant results in self-acceptance is that self-acceptance did not significantly change after treatment. Duration of treatment in the present study was 2 1/2 days versus 2 weeks in the Rubin intervention.

Changes in self-acceptance may require longer training than 2 1/2 days, longer periods in a non-threatening environment so that the individual receives support which is said to lead to willingness to examine values, conflicts and ideas (Wechsler et al, 1962). If the attitude toward self is the primary attitude, the attitude which is intimately involved in the development of the ego as Sherif (1967) posits, it may be resistant to training of short duration. There is no way to rule out the possibility that significant change in self-acceptance did not occur due to the short duration of training.*

Another explanation for the insignificant results in self-acceptance is that a ceiling effect was operating. Raw scores for the self-acceptance scale of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) range from 4 to 34. The pretest mean for the treatment group was 22.43, standard deviation, 3.58 (This is very similar to the means and standard deviations presented in the CPI manual for college students: 22.2, 3.9; psychology graduate students, 23.2, 3.5; office supervisors and managers, 21.6, 3.7). From the ~~treatment~~ mean score of 22.43 to the maximum score of 34, there are only 11 points of potential movement. In other words, for this present study, there are approximately 11 points left for the average scorer to gain. Since subjects scored too well at the time of pretest, there was little room for improvement.

* This possibility suggests that a decrease in prejudice may occur before an increase in self-acceptance; that prejudice decreases first, with self-acceptance requiring more time. Pursuing this argument would be mere speculation at this point since not enough is known about the discrete dynamics or the specific time frame for change in self-acceptance versus prejudice. Research which compares the duration of treatment (e.g., 2 1/2 days, 5 days, 7 days, 10 days, 14 days) might be helpful in providing data which examine movement in self-acceptance in comparison to prejudice.

It is possible for the ceiling effect to have been operating given the narrow range for the average subject on the CPI. The ceiling effect as an explanation for the lack of significant results in self-acceptance appears to be both probable, and plausible.

An alternate explanation is that the self-acceptance (Sa) scale of the California Psychological Inventory is not sensitive enough to measure the intra-personal changes which subjects may have experienced after laboratory training. It might be helpful to review the instrument used by Rubin (i.e., the Sentence Completion Test) versus this present study (i.e., the California Psychological Inventory (CPI)) to measure self-acceptance. The self-acceptance scale of the CPI is said to measure 'personal worth', potential for independence in thought and deed. It looks at leadership ability, interpersonal ease, sense of exploration and adventure. Overall, it is said to measure energy, ambition, versatility, and the value of 'work and effort for its own sake' (Gough, 1975, p.10). The self-accepting person is said to possess these values. Sample questions are: "I would like to wear expensive clothes" - implies ambition. "My daily life is full of things that keep me interested" - a sign of energy and versatility. "It is hard for me to find anything to talk about when I meet a new person" - involves interpersonal ease. "I doubt whether I would make a good leader" - measures leadership.

It might be said that, for the most part, this self-acceptance scale measures test takers' confidence and interpersonal ease rather than their intra-psychic world; that it evaluates individuals as leaders and adventurers to determine whether they are ambitious, versatile and self-assured. This scale may not evaluate whether individuals are comfortable with or aware of the various aspects of their inner selves. It may be a broad measure of self-assurance or self-confidence rather than a specific measure of introspection or intra-psychic change.

The Sentence Completion Test (Dorris et al, 1954), a measure of self-acceptance used by Rubin, is said to

measure individuals' ability to accept negative and threatening* facets of their personality. The presumption here is that the more self-accepting person is able to admit "...the personal relevance of ego-threatening material..." (Rubin, 1967b, p.234). This is not true of the less self-accepting person, according to the authors.

The test comprises 50 sentence stems covering a range of areas: family, sex, social pressures and other fears. There are 25 pairs which are split between the first person ('I') and the third person (he, she or a proper name). These are matched in content, and randomly distributed in the lists. In ten pairs, the content is identical (see #1). In 15 pairs, the content is similar (see #2). Several pairs deal with positive events, and are not included in the calculations (see #3). These are included to have the test appear less threatening.

<u>I</u>	<u>He, She or Proper Name</u>
1. When I get angry, I ____.	1. She is very proud of ____.
2. When no one paid attention to me ____.	3. Joe was glad when ____.
1. I am very proud of ____.	1. When she gets angry, she ____.
3. I was glad when ____.	2. When he was neglected, he ____.

The test takers are asked to complete the sentence stems as fast as possible, using a phrase rather than one word. When finished, they are asked to reread the responses, placing a (+) sign after each phrase which they

* negative or threatening as considered by many people in society.

feel refers '...to some personal experience or that reflect(s)...' ways they might '...feel or act under the specified circumstances' (1967a, p. 31). A phrase with no 'personal relevance' gets a (-) sign. A minus sign is said to be a 'denial of self-reference' which is said to be an indication that the subject is unaware of the "personal tendency expressed in the completion." Rubin believes that the total number of statements marked as threatening will not change; that "...sensitivity training will not rid a person of his basic conflicts and anxieties...training may help a person find in himself the natural tools that enable him to effectively cope with these things" (p.33).

The theory behind the use of first person and third person is that acceptable material tends to be included in the first person statements while the unacceptable material is relegated to someone else, namely, the third person. Research by Dorris et al, (1954) showed that highly prejudiced test takers denied (i.e., designated these as not true of themselves) almost twice as many third person items than first person items. This is in comparison to less prejudiced test takers' insignificant, low-level designations. The authors posit that the Sentence Completion Test provides a measure of 'defensive unawareness' (p.108). This, they believe, is indicated when test takers project some material to the third person statement which becomes unacceptable in the first person. This defensiveness leads to 'limitations and distortions of self-awareness' (p.99).

It was argued that the Sentence Completion Test may be appropriate in measuring change in self-acceptance after laboratory training. The California Psychological Inventory has been technically developed to an excellent level and has been extensively researched and improved over 25 years (Anastasi, 1976). Its self-acceptance scale is one of 18 scales which comprise the inventory. It is possible that its self-acceptance scale may measure self confidence and self assuredness, persuasiveness and energy. The California Psychological Inventory may

provide a broad measure of self confidence rather than a specific measure of intra-psychic dynamics. The use of the CPI may have prevented quantification of changes which perhaps occurred in this present study on the dependent variable, self-acceptance. The insensitivity of the CPI to explain insignificant results in self-acceptance would appear to be a possible explanation.

Various explanations for the insignificant results in self-acceptance have been offered. That significant change did not occur is probable. The attitude toward self may be resistant to treatment of 2 1/2 days, requiring longer periods in a non-threatening environment, e.g., 2 weeks as in the Rubin study. The ceiling effect on the self-acceptance scale of the CPI is an explanation which appears to be both probable and plausible given the narrow range of potential movement for the average scorer. The calculated pretest mean for the treatment group in this present study was 22.43; very similar to the means presented in the CPI manual for college students, graduate students and office personnel (respectively 22.2, 23.2, 21.6).

It was argued that the Sentence Completion Test used by Rubin may be a more appropriate measure (than the California Psychological Inventory), since it is thought to be a measure of the test taker's willingness to accept negative or threatening facts about the self. This is said to be the process which is enhanced in laboratory training.

The insensitivity of the CPI to measure intrapsychic changes would appear to be a possible explanation. That the ceiling effect was operating would appear to be the strongest argument to explain the insignificant results on this dependent variable. With this argument, one can compare the treatment group's pretest mean (i.e., 22.43) with the means presented in the test manual (22.2, 23.2 and 21.6) and see that there were only eleven points to reach the maximum raw score (of 34 points).

That scores did not significantly change due to the short duration of treatment (i.e., 2 1/2 days) or due to the insensitivity of the CPI cannot be ruled out. These explanations would appear to be less plausible than the ceiling effect, however. (If the ceiling effect were operating with a 'normal' population, the use of the CPI would be inappropriate since this intervention was conducted with so-called 'normal' individuals.) Future research will need to rule out these explanations. At this point, the reason for insignificance in self-acceptance is unclear.

A Comparison: The Rubin Study vs. this Present One

At this point, it might be helpful to again mention the several studies in the race relations literature which investigated the relationship between self-acceptance and prejudice. This will provide a comparison between the present study and previous efforts in this area. These were previously reviewed on pp.28 and 35. Since Tabachnick (1962) and Stephan and Rosenfield (1978) used correlational statistics to analyse their data, and since Pearl's (1954) and Fauth's (1972) results were unclear (she used no control group) it seems unwise to make comparisons on the procedural differences between their designs and this present study. Only Katz (1977, 1978) and Rubin (1966, 1967a, 1967b) used an experimental design. See pp.15-18 for Katz' work.

Katz' approach with 24 subjects was systematic, instructional and multidimensional. She utilised cognitive and emotional components in the design which built in momentum over 48 exercises. After training her subjects were significantly more aware of racism, and reported more anti-racist activities. Rubin's approach with 50 subjects was less systematic or informational. His training group comprised problem-solving and personal growth strategies. Members were encouraged to share feelings while they explored, confronted and received feedback from dynamics

which arose in the group itself. This here-and-now focus is said to change interpersonal behaviours and attitudes through experiential learning.

Another study by Liss and Robinson (1978) is non-experimental but worth mentioning since behaviour change apparently did occur. Training with peer leaders, structured and experiential exercises, follow-up training, and community-supported efforts were likely responsible for its success.

Each of these interventions offered training on-site, in a retreat-like setting. Training was approximately 5 days for Katz (2 weekends separated by 2 weeks), 2 weeks for Rubin, and 4 days for Liss and Robinson. Training in these studies was longer than in the present, 2 1/2 day intervention.

A comparison between these studies, and this present study may be helpful; however, it may not be wise to include the work of Liss and Robinson. Attitude and behaviour change was never quantified in this community project. It can only be inferred from the improved race relations, cessation of violence and increased school attendance. Katz' work may not be comparable since she affected change of a different type - racism awareness, and anti-racist behaviour. It is possible that the conditions which are important for racism awareness differ from the important conditions for the model of reduction of prejudice and increase of self-acceptance. For example, a personal therapy component may be unnecessary in racism awareness training. Moreover, training for racism awareness is not the same as training for reduction of prejudice. Racism awareness training involves the accumulation of affective and factual information about the ordering of society's privilege for whites at the expense of minorities. Training for the reduction of prejudice involves a relaxing of the individual's defenses. This is said to alter the individual's perceptions, and relations with others, especially minorities. This is a model of reduction of prejudice and increase of self-acceptance. For an investigation of the

relationship between prejudice and self-acceptance, we turn to Rubin who conducted 2 week, on-site laboratory training. He utilised an experimental design with a T group (i.e., training group) approach but gives no specific information about his training schedule in his thesis or two articles. He describes the T group as a strategy which focuses on the dynamics which arise in the group itself. The trainer assists the group to "...see the meaning and relevance of their 'here-and-now' experiences" (1966, p.33). Through this, according to Rubin, the members learn about 'human interaction'.

His use of the Sentence Completion Test, the SCT (Dorris, Levinson and Hanfmann, 1954) was an excellent choice, as it tracked subjects' progress in accepting negative facts about themselves. The acceptance of self-threatening facts is said to be one of the main goals for training group members. It has been posited that through this very process, small group members make the transition to acceptance of others and reduction of prejudice (Wechsler et al, 1962; Rogers, 1965, Yalom, 1975).

Rubin's positive outcome may be attributable to several factors:

1. A larger sample was used (i.e., 50 subjects). This enhances the prospects of achieving significance.
2. His self-acceptance instrument measured subjects' progress in learning about the self. This potential for self-awareness is what the training group is supposed to enhance. Posttesting with this scale measures the change of that very aspect of the subject's intra-psychic growth. The SCT was described above (see pp.135-138) as possibly more sensitive than the self-acceptance scale of the California Psychological Inventory (which was used in this present study). To review the major points of this discussion, the SCT is said to indirectly measure the test taker's willingness to admit the existence of negative aspects of the self. It is presumed that the test taker will admit to so-called 'acceptable' tendencies, and place them in the first person of the sentence completion (i.e., When I get angry, I ____). What is thought to be negative is said to be projected to a third person (When he gets angry, he ____). The increased willingness or ability

to admit threatening facts about self is thought to be parallel to the training group experience. The SCT appears to measure that very aspect of psychic growth. The sensitivity of the SCT used by Rubin to measure self-acceptance may be responsible for his quantification of significant results on that dependent variable.

3. Rubin's treatment was 2 weeks. It is possible that longer treatment is responsible for Rubin's successful outcome. It is also possible that his use of the SCT to measure self-acceptance is responsible. More likely, the significance of his findings is attributable to both the longer treatment as well as the sensitive SCT.

One may ask if Rubin's success can be attributed to his T group treatment as opposed to the elaborate treatment of this present study. This explanation does not appear plausible. The human relations training design of this present study includes the T group strategy in addition to cognitive reference points, and processing. Other studies have suggested these to be important components for positive outcome in the small psychotherapy or training group (Lieberman et al, 1973; Yalom, 1975; Liss & Robinson, 1978). It would appear that the length of his treatment rather than the type is responsible for positive outcome.

The reason for insignificant results in self-acceptance in this present study is still unclear. Future researchers will need to conduct groups with a larger sample, employ more sensitive and appropriate inventories (e.g., the Sentence Completion Test), and compare duration of treatment (e.g., 2 1/2 days and 4 days). In this way, more definitive statements can be made about change on this dependent variable. This will add to the body of knowledge of increase in self-acceptance and decrease in prejudice.

Direct Measure of Prejudice Results

Scores on the direct measure of prejudice (E scale) did not significantly decrease in response to treatment. There are changes in group scores but no clear cut trends (Tables 7, 8, 16 and 17). One explanation for the insignificant results is that prejudice did not decrease after treatment. This explanation does not appear to be plausible since the indirect measure of prejudice (F scale) indicates significant differences at delayed posttest for the treatment group (on the independent groups design, analysis of covariance) and at posttest in three out of four treatment groups (on the multiple groups design, analysis of covariance). How can the insignificant results be explained?

One might argue that the E and F scales of the California Questionnaire do not measure the same variable, prejudice. This might explain the discrepancy between the significant results on the indirect measure (F scale), and the lack of significance on the direct measure (E scale). Do the E and F scales measure the same variable? Adorno et al (1982, 1950) report that they designed the F scale expressly to correlate with the E scale; to measure prejudice without appearing to have this aim. Items which appeared to be unrelated to prejudice were chosen to bypass some of the defenses which people may use when asked about racial bias. An indirect measure, they thought, would be useful in assessing attitudes in groups where it was difficult to do so (e.g., groups composed of racial minorities) to measure prejudice in a more accurate way. The authors developed various forms and then combined these forms in their final version. They report an overall correlation of .75 between the E and F scales.

Given the fact that both scales were designed by the same authors, and that a correlation of .75 has been reported it would seem plausible that the E and F scales both measure prejudice. How then, can the insignificant findings on the direct measure of prejudice (E scale) be explained? Could there be problems associated with using

a direct measure? A discussion of the use of direct versus indirect measurement of attitudes may be helpful at this point.

Rubin (1966, 1967a, 1967b) employed one measure of prejudice, a direct measure, yet he found a significant reduction in prejudice after treatment. Why do the results of this present study not yield the same results on the direct measure? The subjects in this present study were recruited for participation in human relations training to test its effects on blood pressure. Blood pressure testing was the cover story. It appears (from subjects' delayed posttest evaluation of this present study) that the cover story was successful in diverting attention from the true purpose of the training which was to reduce prejudice, to increase self-acceptance, and to improve communication style. In fact, each of these dependent variables was measured indirectly*. One might ask why a direct measure of prejudice was used at all. Other studies used direct measuring devices and so it did not seem inappropriate to do so (Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b; Fauth, 1972; Katz, 1977). It was also thought that the direct measure (E scale) would provide a comparison to the indirect measure (F scale).

* The Sa scale of the California Psychological Inventory is one of 18 scales on the inventory. It would not be obvious to subjects that acceptance of self was being measured when they answered a total of 480 questions. Prejudice was measured indirectly by the F scale. It was not obvious to subjects that their communication style was being scored during the hour-long discussion on desegregating a local public school. Their goal during the audio-taped hour was to devise a plan of desegregation which they were to, figuratively, present to a racial group of parents, etc. Their focus was the plan.

Since the subjects in this present study were unaware of the true purpose of the research*, it was thought that the use of the direct measure would not be inappropriate. In other words, since subjects did not know that the researcher hoped to reduce their attitudes of prejudice, they might be honest with their responses on a blatant questionnaire of prejudice. There is a presumption here which needs to be addressed: with a direct measure of a dependent variable, there is a risk of demand characteristics. A direct test for prejudice is a procedure which may create clues for subjects so that they know how the researcher wants them to respond, hence the term, demand characteristics.+ The E scale of the California Questionnaire (direct measure of prejudice) is quite blatant in its use of minority-group names (see Appendix D). Subjects in this present study may have been aware that so-called prejudiced responses are not 'ideal' responses. Consequently, the attempt of the E scale to measure subjects' real attitudes may have been hampered by their desire to look good or appear liberal.

- * This was not the case with Fauth or Katz. Subjects in these studies knew they were involved in training which aimed to change their attitudes. In Rubin's case, the research was described to the subjects in vague terms. No cover story was used.
- + Webb, Campbell, Schwartz and Sechrest (1966) suggest using unobtrusive techniques in measurement so that subjects are unaware they are being observed. Given the financial constraints of this present study, it was thought that indirect inventories of attitudes and behaviour came closest to being unobtrusive. Admittedly, subjects knew they were being tested (they were taking written tests, and being monitored for blood pressure fluctuations [the cover story]); but they did not know the exact variable under scrutiny when taking the F scale, the self-acceptance scale of the California Psychological Inventory, and discussing the desegregation of a public school.

Since the subjects in this present study were apparently unaware of the exact purpose of the research and what the researcher hoped to change with treatment, they possibly had no clues as to how they should respond on the E scale (the direct measure). They may have been both uncomfortable in being truthful about their outright prejudices as well as unsure about the researcher's aims. This apprehension could have led to equivocal scores.* A look at the pattern of scores might be helpful in supporting this argument.

If there is a .75 correlation between the indirect measure (F scale) and the direct measure (E scale), one might expect scores on both scales to follow a similar pattern. If delayed posttest is a better measure of prejudice (than is posttest) as is suggested by the results on the indirect measure, a look at direct and indirect group means at delayed posttest may be helpful. Listed on p.147 (see Table 25) is a table of pre-, post-, and delayed posttest† group means for the treatment vs. the controls for the direct (E scale) and indirect (F scale) measures of prejudice.

There appears to be a difference in pattern in the control group's scores on the direct measure at delayed posttest when compared to the treated group. The control group scored only .09 points higher than the treated group. This does not fit the pattern of a 17.62 point difference between treated and controls on the indirect measure. One might have expected a higher score than 44.20 for the controls on the direct measure to coincide with their 119.40 on the indirect measure. It is possible that apprehension over the blatant questionnaire items as well as doubt over the researcher's aims may have been responsible for this effect.

* This argument suggests that demand characteristics cannot be ruled out as an explanation for significant attitude and/or behaviour change when direct measurement is conducted.

TABLE 25. PRE-, POST-, AND DELAYED POSTTEST GROUP MEANS. TREATMENT VS. CONTROLS, DIRECT (E SCALE) AND INDIRECT (F SCALE) MEASURES OF PREJUDICE.

Direct Measure	Pretest Means	Posttest Means	Delayed Posttest Means	Difference Between ⁺ Controls & Treated at Delayed Posttest
(E scale) Treatment	39.33	38.95	44.11	+.09
Control	40.16	45.33	44.20	
<u>Indirect Measure</u>				
(F scale) Treatment	97.95	93.29	101.78	+17.62
Control	95.17	95.50	119.40	

+ The analysis of covariance looks at the differences between the treated and control groups. It does not analyse gain scores as does the t test.

It seems possible that insignificant results on the direct measure of prejudice (E scale) may have been caused by its directness (especially for the control group); test takers may have been apprehensive about giving their true responses on race issues, hoping to appear liberal. With a .75 correlation between scores on the E and F scales (reported by Adorno et al, 1982, 1950) it would appear that these scales do measure the same construct, prejudice. The fact that both scales were designed by the same authors enhances the argument that they correlate, especially since the indirect measure (F scale) was designed for the express purpose of augmenting the assessment of the E scale. The indirect measure is said to bypass the defenses which people are apt to use when asked to give their opinion on race issues.

The use of direct measurement of attitudes may be ineffective in obtaining a true score of the test taker's attitudes when the test taker can attach a positive or negative connotation to the items on the test. There may be an attempt to appear liberal or look good. With significant change on the indirect measure (F scale) and a reported .75 correlation between E and F scales, it appears plausible that insignificant results on the direct measure (E scale) may be attributed to its blatant mention of minority groups, and the resultant apprehension in a population consisting of some racial minorities, and whites who may have wanted to appear liberal.

Delayed Posttest Results

Delayed posttest results were significant for prejudice (indirect measure) in the treatment group. It would appear from the results of this study that delayed posttesting provides a better measure of treatment effects than does posttesting. Analysis of covariance (independent groups design) indicates significance, $p < 0.05$. The analysis of covariance, multiple groups design shows

borderline significance, $p < 0.056$. This suggests that human relations training as used in this study, may have an effect over time.

From this present study it is not clear whether the effects of treatment will require reinforcement in the long term. Liss and Robinson (1978) enlisted professionals and peer groups to reinforce the workshop skills immediately following the workshop. This implies the researchers believed that the newly-acquired attitudes and behaviours would not have been maintained without support. One problem with a comparison between the Cartaret project and this present study is that teenagers comprised the former project while adults comprised the latter. Teenagers may behave differently than adults during, and following human relations training. Teenagers may be less receptive to re-education, and less likely to retain newly-acquired attitudes and behaviours. Future research needs to examine the effects of human relations training in adult versus teenage populations to clarify any similarities or differences in results. Additional delayed posttesting (e.g., at 3, 6 or 9 month intervals) may be helpful in understanding whether treatment effects remain significant in the longer term.

Insignificant delayed posttest results for self-acceptance may indicate that treatment was not effective due to the short duration of treatment, a ceiling effect on the self-acceptance scale of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) or the insensitivity of the CPI. It was argued that the ceiling effect appears to be the strongest argument to explain the insignificance since one can see that there were only eleven points of potential movement for the average subject in this present study. It was also pointed out that future research needs to rule out these explanations through the use of more sensitive and appropriate inventories (e.g., the Sentence Completion Test), and by comparing duration of treatment (e.g., 2 1/2 days and 4 days). In this way, more definitive statements can be made regarding change in self-acceptance.

Delayed posttest results were also insignificant for the direct measure of prejudice (E scale). It seems plausible that insignificance may have been caused by its directness. Test takers may have been apprehensive about giving their true responses on race issues, hoping to appear liberal. A reported correlation of .75 between the direct and indirect measures suggests that these two instruments do measure the same variable, prejudice, and that insignificance on the direct measure is caused by test taker apprehension in a population (partly consisting of racial minorities) who may have wanted to appear liberal.

The t tests on the effects of subjects' sex, and treatment effects indicate no significant differences. Analysis of variance, multiple groups design, on subjects' level of education and treatment effects supports an inverse relationship between prejudice and education. This supports the well known, empirically tested relationship between the two variables.

Evaluation of the Project

In an attempt to control for the interaction of testing and treatment, subjects were asked to evaluate the project at the time of delayed posttesting. There were 23 subjects* who filled out the survey on the purpose of the project, changes in their lives since participation, and their criticisms. (Table 26 lists their responses.) A discussion of their responses follows.

Purpose of Project:

Nine subjects believed that blood pressure monitoring (i.e., the cover story) was the real purpose of the project. Other subjects believed in another story or in some variation, from studying black and white conflict,

* This represents the loss of 4 subjects.

social balance, revealing feelings about racial prejudice and comparing written (i.e., test results) results with actual group dynamics.

The cover story would have been more effective had the cuffs been state-of-the-art. Notwithstanding, the cover story appears to have been successful in diverting attention from the true purpose of the project: to reduce prejudice, increase self-acceptance, and to improve communication style.

Significant Happenings; Changes in Life since the Project:

In the experimental groups, 16 out of 18 subjects reported either greater insight or positive change in their personal lives. Of the remaining two subjects, one reported no change and one reported negative changes*.

In the control group, two members reported making changes. In one instance (the subject began college and contemplated the break-up of her marriage), the changes preceeded the onset of the project.

What was Liked, Disliked:

Experimental subjects liked the honest communication, and sharing which occurred. Some mentioned the universality of feelings. Others enjoyed learning new coping skills, and the challenge of the experience.

* This subject's comments are consistently negative across all categories. It is noteworthy that these comments are the only consistently negative comments among 23 treatment and control group subjects.

Two subjects (group 1) were disappointed by the absence of black members in their group. One subject was displeased with the level of involvement: expected more of self and the group. Others described the workshop as being too short, or different from what was expected. There was too much to do, according to another.

Control group subjects, liked interacting with new people and the exchange of ideas. They disliked the tardiness of one member, and some of the questionnaires.

What was Helpful/Not Helpful:

Subjects learned from each other. They experienced awareness of self, caring for others, self-confidence, racial insight, awareness overall; and learned various new skills. They found these helpful.

The NASA exercise, the California Psychological Inventory, blood pressure checks and the need for more time were found NOT helpful by some subjects.

Control group subjects enjoyed working with new people, generating new ideas, participating in a worthwhile way. One subject disliked the questionnaires.

Overall, it would appear that participation in the project was a positive, educational experience for all but one subject in the control and experimental groups. The majority of experimental group members reported personal changes (i.e., increased insight, behaviour change) which may have been a result of the 2 1/2 day workshop.

TABLE 26. EVALUATION OF THE PROJECT BY THE SUBJECTS

Purpose of Project	Significant Happenings Since the Projects	Changes in Life	What You Liked Learning	What You Disliked	What Was Helpful	What Was Not Helpful
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RESPONSES						
--	More relaxed with people; Using my new skills	None	Getting feedback & exposure to new ideas.	Food and spiders	Increased awareness. Location.	Lack of knowledge or workshop agenda.
Black and White Conflict	Learned to listen and communicate with others.	Helping others. I learned of my need for understanding.	Awareness of painful aspects of self	No Blacks in group	"Loved it". "Would do it again".	--
"To find the individual and group feelings toward prejudice".	No	Began a new relationship. More self searching.	Liked the people and the facilitator	Beds were hard. No blacks in group.	Learning about self.	NASA exercise
Blood pressure and human relations training	No	No	Role playing. Learning coping strategies.	Nothing	Caring of the members. Role playing.	Nothing

Purpose of Project	Significant Happenings Since the Projects	Changes in Life	What You Liked Learning	What You Disliked	What Was Helpful	What Was Not Helpful
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RESPONSES						
Teach people to solve problems & make decisions; bring people together.	I listen more & use communication skills.	No	Sharing with others and realising common humanity!	Nothing	Learning how to build self confidence; was comforted in knowing that others had inadequacies too.	CPI - it's outdated
Blood pressure and human relations training	"I'm not trying to hold on to broken dream".	Now live alone	Getting to know others and their feelings; realising I'm not the only one who feels alone.	It was too short	I learned to think and act independently; the facilitator.	"I just wish we could have spent one more day together as a group".
Social balance	Confronted my boss but he denied the problem.	Keeping busy with new hobbies; Trying to be available to my children who live elsewhere.	People and the location	Different than expected	People were willing to help	"Clarification of objectives"

Purpose of Project	Significant Happenings Since the Projects	Changes in Life	What You Liked Learning	What You Disliked	What Was Helpful	What Was Not Helpful
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RESPONSES						
X To show correlation between human relations training and blood pressure.	Unwanted job transfer.	No	Openness of people.	Too much to do.	Racial insight	General activities were experienced previous to the workshop.
--	No	No	The whole thing	Nothing	Not much	--
Blood pressure and attitude measuring of those exposed to human relations training.	Took a job as mental health counselor. Attitude toward mental health work is now different. "Being in this research project was largely responsible for my change in attitude".	Yes. Important changes in my life and outlook.	That I could be an effective participator in group, and my new outlook.	Food and the post-test.	Realising that being in a group is not a waste of time.	--

Purpose of Project	Significant Happenings Since the Projects	Changes in Life	What You Liked Learning	What You Disliked	What Was Helpful	What Was Not Helpful
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RESPONSES						
Blood pressure monitoring after human relations training.	Decided to start my own company a year earlier than expected.	←	Meeting people and discussing rarely discussed things; our personal agendas.	The behaviour of one member.	The ability to reach consensus.	---
Blood pressure monitoring after human relations training.	Understanding of self.	New job	Group was "exciting and challenging.	Nothing	Realised that I have no tolerance for 'ignorance' (I don't mean lack of education).	Nothing really
To find things out	More understanding.	No	Learning in general.	Nothing	Learning how others think.	Nothing

Purpose of Project	Significant Happenings Since the Projects	Changes in Life	What You Liked Learning	What You Disliked	What Was Helpful	What Was Not Helpful
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RESPONSES						
To reveal and understand feelings about racial prejudice.	No	Not as relaxed with blacks or interested in making friends with blacks.	Setting of workshop; some of the people.	Facilitator.	Nothing	Facilitator
NOTE: This subject withdrew from the group after refusing to participate in Exercise IV and the remainder of the workshop.						
To study group dynamics. Comments: I thought that the blood pressure checks and racial agenda were both 'ruses'. The workshop was an "...informative and emotionally fulfilling experience".	Ended a six-year relationship.	Dating others	Educational aspect; some of the people.	Some of the people	The facilitator, the communication skills.	Blood pressure checks

Purpose of Project	Significant Happenings Since the Projects	Changes in Life	What You Liked Learning	What You Disliked	What Was Helpful	What Was Not Helpful
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RESPONSES						
"Check attitudes and changes in attitudes on black and white relations and social situations through communication".	Awareness of attitudes on black and white relations.	No	It was a challenge; had to look at myself.	Nothing	Group communication techniques.	--
No idea	No	Dating a group member.	Refocusing on racial attitudes as a group member.	At times it was slow and boring.	Refocusing on racial attitudes as a group member.	--
To compare written results with actual group dynamics.	No	Started dating.	Sharing; duties, feelings, experiences, attitudes.	Expected higher degree of involvement from self and others; disappointed by withdrawal of one member.	"Honest viewpoints of the Black facilitator on blackness The setting.	The company of the 'withdrawn' member on the drive home.

Purpose of Project	Significant Happenings Since the Projects	Changes in Life CONTROL GROUP	What You Liked Learning RESPONSES	What You Disliked	What Was Helpful	What Was Not Helpful
Don't know	None	Yes	Exchange of ideas.	Lateness of one person.	--	--
Analysis of blood pressure.	New Job	New Job	Interaction with strangers.	Lateness of one person.	It was a worthwhile participant.	Day it was held.
Analysis of blood pressure.	Began college; breakup of my marriage.	I've been in counselling.*	Interaction with strangers and participation.	Waiting for one person.	Working with others.	The questionnaire.
Analysis of blood pressure.	None	None	Meeting people and generating new ideas about old problems.	Waiting for one person.	Exposure to new ideas.	--
To learn how people react to things.	Greater understanding of self and others I love.	Went back to school.	The discussion	The questionnaires.	Learning about others.	Nothing

* This occurred before and during participation in the project.

CHAPTER VCONCLUSIONS

Out of five hypotheses two were partially supported. The results suggest the following conclusions:

1. Human relations training between black and white adults significantly reduced prejudice at delayed posttest. Treatment group scores were significantly lower than control group scores.
2. Human relations training may have significantly reduced prejudice between black and white adults in three out of four experimental groups at posttest. Three treatment groups had scores which were significantly lower than control group scores.
3. The design strategy of selecting experienced trainers with a similar style of leadership appears to have been effective. There was no significant interaction of trainer's style of leadership and the effect of treatment.

Discussion

Results for prejudice at delayed posttesting were significant. It would appear that treatment was effective in reducing prejudice. Delayed posttesting may well be a better measure than posttest to indicate that treatment did have an effect: in the absence of a placebo control, it suggests that the results of treatment may not have been caused by the Hawthorne effect. Rather, it points to the conclusion that treatment has an effect over time.

Results for prejudice at posttest were equivocal in the analysis of covariance, multiple group design. They failed to support the hypothesis that prejudice would decrease for the entire treatment group. Instead, three out of four experimental groups experienced reduced scores. The group whose scores increased may have contained individuals who required a longer treatment period. This may have been due to their varying personality types (some of which were resistant to attitude change) or to the fact that they needed a longer period of time to complete the personal therapy component. That individuals of various personality types are resistant to change must not be ignored. Varying personality types and correspondent duration of treatment need to be addressed by future research.

It was argued that increased scores in group 2 were probably not a result of ineffective trainer style since regression analysis of possible interaction did not reach significance, and the trainer had proven effectiveness in the field.

Since it is believed that the trainer affects group treatment outcome (Lieberman et al, 1973), it is plausible to presume that treatment gains were attributable in part, to the participating trainers' style of leadership. Trainers were carefully selected for their experience and interpersonal attributes. With this recruitment process, it was hoped that only the most effective trainers were chosen. Theoretically group outcome would then be influenced in a most positive way. Similar treatment outcome (i.e., reduction in prejudice) in the entire treatment group at delayed posttest, and across three out of four experimental groups at posttest support the position that the trainers were effective in these groups.

Results of this study failed to support three out of five hypotheses, and only partially supported the remaining two. The intervention fell short of its goal to significantly increase self-acceptance and improve communication style. This failure may be a result of insensitive or inappropriate measuring devices, or the short

duration of training. Future research needs to examine a larger number of groups, measure the dependent variables accurately to add to the understanding of the model of increased self-acceptance and decreased prejudice; the understanding of communication style and its role in improved relationships, and the maintenance of attitude and behaviour change.

Prejudice adversely affects an individual's interpersonal relationships with members of outgroups. Future researchers need to gather data scrupulously on prejudice, self-acceptance, communication style, as well as personality differences, and differential treatment duration so that the potential of human relations training as a change agent may be fully understood.

The Study's Limitations

Due to the small population of blacks in the Denver, Colorado area, and to the difficulty in recruiting them for the study, there were too few blacks (18 1/2%)* in the study. The groups were smaller than desirable due to a large attrition rate from the time of pretest to the intervention dates. The total sample of 27 makes it difficult to draw conclusions with confidence or to generalise the results to the general population. Subjects tended to be representative of higher income, education and age groups. Younger, less educated, less salaried members of both racial groups were needed.

Some of the subjects guessed that blood pressure monitoring was a ploy, and not the true purpose of the study. This fact does not appear to have been a problem since none of the subjects pinpointed the exact nature of the dependent variables.

* Rubin (1966, 1967a, 1967b) had 16% blacks in his study.

Recommendations

Future research in human relations training would be improved if the shortcomings of this study were rectified.

1. Subjects were told that the purpose of the research was to monitor the effects of human relations training on blood pressure. A few subjects guessed that blood pressure monitoring was only a ploy, that it was not the real purpose of the research*. They observed that the cuffs used in measuring blood pressure were outdated. The use of state-of-the-art devices for monitoring blood pressure may have convinced them that a serious effort was being made to collect data on this measure.
2. A larger number of subjects would have enhanced external validity. There was a high drop-out rate for potential subjects before and after pretesting and randomisation into groups; and too few blacks. Fifteen dollars was not an effective incentive to encourage individuals to participate in a time-consuming project. There was a mortality rate of four at delayed posttesting.
3. The subjects faced no threat of racial difficulties at home. Trainers reported that some of the subjects had to search for racial incidents for the various

* These two subjects did not pinpoint the exact purpose of the study. They did not say that reduction in prejudice, increase in self-acceptance, or improvement in communication style was the aim of the study. One of these subjects prided himself on exactness. Had he meant reduction of prejudice, etc., he would have said so. Furthermore, the F scale is an indirect measure of prejudice. It should not have been affected by a subject's knowledge that racial attitudes were being examined.

exercises. A group of subjects from a community experiencing racial difficulties would be excellent candidates for replication of this design. Matched subjects from a similar, geographically distant community could serve as a control group in an experimental design. Another option is to recruit younger, less educated subjects from the general population. They may tend to be angrier and to have had more racial experiences.

4. The catharsis of aggression exercise (The Vesuvius) was only minimally used in the three experimental groups where prejudice was reduced at posttest. This omission may have been avoided by better preparation and communication between this writer and the trainers. Some of the trainers were unfamiliar with the technique and this may have influenced their use of it.

5. The recruitment process was flawed. The newspaper ads, and fliers must have appealed to some individuals and not to others. Some subjects were recruited as unpaid volunteers; others as paid recruits. The effect of this is uncertain. There was some confusion on the issue of incentive money. Some potential subjects, who were recruited as unpaid volunteers, felt that they would be paid for their participation. In the interests of fairness, all subjects who completed the project were paid.

In addition to the above, future research in human relations training between racial groups can be enhanced by the following:

1. An ideal design would be a group of 8 to 12 subjects including equal numbers of black and white females and males led by a professionally effective black-white co-trainer team whose expertise is human relations training. These can be representative of both sexes: black/white, female trainers; black/white male trainers. Egan (1976) believes that 8 to 12 is the ideal number for the small psychotherapy group. Having equal numbers of female and male, black and white subjects would offer better control of the race and sex variables. A black-white co-trainer team would better control for the trainer's race and then sex in each group.

2. Compare training of 2 1/2 days (a weekend used in this present study) and 4 days (Thursday through Sunday). The trainers in this present study reported that it would have been helpful to have more time to go through the exercises. Group 2 may have needed more time for some members to complete their personal therapy portion of the workshop. Given the possibility of insignificant change on self-acceptance being due to the short duration of treatment, the 4-day intervention would provide a worthwhile comparison. [Liss and Robinson (1978) utilised a four-day workshop while Rubin (1966, 1967a, 1967b) offered a two-week program.]

3. Use of the F scale to measure prejudice, and the Sentence Completion Test (SCT) to measure self-acceptance. The F scale would provide an indirect measure of prejudice. The SCT may provide a precise measure of intra-psychic changes in self-acceptance, as well as avoid a ceiling effect in a 'normal' population of subjects.

4. Streamlined Screening of subjects through the use of the Psychosocial History Screening Questionnaire (PHSQ) and an interview. This would eliminate the 480-item California Psychological Inventory which was used for screening (through use of the Gi, Wb, Cm* scales) and for dependent variable testing (self-acceptance).

5. Use of a more appropriate instrument for measuring change in communication style. One possibility is a coding system called the Conference Process Analysis (Stephenson, Ayling and Rutter, 1976) which has been used to score negotiation-like conversations.

6. A comparison between the behaviour of adults and teenagers after human relations training would be appropriate. The successful Cartaret project was conducted with teenagers. This present study was conducted with adults. It is not certain that teenagers and adults will have similar behaviour and attitude change after human relations training. Cartaret administrators kept no post-intervention statistics. They merely state that with community involvement and an ongoing reinforcement (i.e., of workshop learning) schedule, all minority students are fully integrated into every aspect of social life; there have been no racially violent incidents since the workshop; and school attendance has dramatically increased. This is all compared to pre-workshop occurrences.

* Gi (good impression), Wb (well being), Cm (communality).

Reduction of Prejudice and
Increase of Self-Acceptance: A Model

Subjects were encouraged to greater self-acceptance as well as acceptance of others. This process was encouraged explicitly and implicitly by the workshop exercises which were designed to encourage blacks and whites to explore, in a non-threatening environment, similarities in their needs, values and goals, to learn high-level communication skills, to build trust, to undergo personal therapy, and to process the implications of these experiences. Theoretically, each of these workshop categories supports the development of individuals, and their relationships to others in the laboratory. This process was reviewed above in the dual strategy of training. (See pp.47-49.)

It has been a belief that evaluation of others implicates the evaluation of self (Rogers, 1965, Sherif, 1967, Branden, 1969); and that a personal therapy component has the effect of reducing prejudice by increasing self-acceptance. This position is supported by theory (Wechsler et al, 1962, Yalom, 1975, Allport, 1979, 1954, Adorno et al, 1982, 1950) as well as research (Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b, Fauth, 1972, Liss and Robinson, 1978). Existing theory posits that the adult, from childhood, has developed defenses and attitudes which are less than constructive in order to cope with pressures from parents, friends, and other societal groups. (The potential influences which lead to these defenses are handled differently by the various authors.)

A review of five theories of prejudice (see Appendix A) enlightens the reader to the tenacity of these attitudes (which can be called defense mechanisms), and their involvement in the ego development of the adult. An intervention (i.e., to reduce prejudice) such as human relations training has the task of relaxing some of the individual's defenses. This may necessitate the inclusion of the personal therapy component to increase self-acceptance.

In intensive human relations training, the group becomes the new family, or the new society where the individual finds it permissible to explore new values, ideas, behaviours in a safe and accepting (i.e., non-judgmental) environment. This is said to encourage psychological growth and change (Wechsler et al, 1962). This training group replaces the family of origin (where prejudice is said to begin) and encourages individuals to accept the positive and negative aspects of themselves. This process is said to encourage acceptance of others (Sheerer, 1949; Stock, 1949; Phillips, 1951; Berger, 1952; McIntyre, 1952; Omwake, 1954; Suinn, 1961) and ultimately reduction of prejudice (Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b; Fauth, 1972).

The above literature which supports the positive relationship between self-acceptance and acceptance of others relies on correlational statistics to base its claim. It is known that correlational statistics only suggest that there is some relationship between variables. They do not imply causation: that a change in one variable will affect a change in the other variable. Rubin's is the only study which indicates a causal, inverse relationship between decreases in prejudice and increases in self-acceptance (1966, 1967a, 1967b). This change resulted after two-week laboratory training. Relying on Rubin's results, it may be said that with decreases in prejudice, increases in self-acceptance can be expected. Results of this present study suggest that prejudice was significantly decreased* without a significant

* It was argued that insignificant results on the direct measure of prejudice (E scale) were probably caused by its blatant mention of minority groups in a population which consisted of some racial minorities and whites who may have wanted to appear liberal. With a reported .75 correlation between scores on the E and F scales, it would appear that the direct and indirect scales both measure prejudice. The insignificance on the direct measure of prejudice alerts the researcher to the drawbacks (i.e., a risk of demand characteristics) associated with using a direct measure of an attitude to which subjects may attach a positive or negative evaluation.

increase in self-acceptance. Why were these increases in self-acceptance not found in this present study? Theoretically, what are the implications of these findings?

A review of the probable explanations for insignificance in self-acceptance may be helpful (see pp.132-139). Self-acceptance may not have significantly changed after treatment due to the short duration of treatment, (i.e., 2 1/2 days). Significant change may require longer treatment in the laboratory. Acceptance of self may be resistant to change due to its primary involvement in the development of the ego. The individual may need more treatment in a safe environment to support the examination of values, conflicts and ideas. This possibility suggests that prejudice decreases before self-acceptance increases. This position is speculative since not enough is known about the specific dynamics involved, and the relative readiness of prejudice and self-acceptance to change.

That the ceiling effect was operating is a strong argument to explain insignificance in self-acceptance. The Sa scale of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) may have prevented the achievement of significant results with its narrow score parameters. Another explanation is that the CPI is not sensitive enough to measure intra-psychic change after training. The Sentence Completion Test (SCT) used by Rubin may be more appropriate for measuring change after laboratory training. It was argued that the ceiling effect of the CPI appears to be the strongest argument. However, other explanations cannot be ruled out.

Just as the model of prejudice reduction and increase in self-acceptance involves important components, the measurement and quantification of resultant changes require sensitive, appropriate instruments. If these sensitive and appropriate instruments are not used, attitude change may occur, yet remain undetected. As the science of psychology grows, the instruments which are used need to be further refined so that a correspondent refinement can be realised in the constructs or variables

which are measured. Future researchers will need to refine the present design and instruments, and gather data so that definitive statements can be made about change on self-acceptance and prejudice.

Communication style is another dependent variable which did not show significant change, and which deserves discussion at this point. It too is said to be a variable which affects relationships either enhancing or destroying them (Coser, 1956; Bach, 1966, 1970; Bach & Goldberg, 1975; Bach & Wyden, 1969). It is possible that significant change did not occur after treatment. Since communication skills training was the largest component of training this result is difficult to accept. It is plausible that the weaknesses of the scale, (its numbering system, and the inconstancy of communication as a variable) introduced a lot of error variance into the analysis of variance computations. This error variance, together with the small number of subjects, and the repeated measure design (which further reduces the number of subjects for the sake of appropriate calculations) may have made it difficult for results to reach significance. Since scores were averaged when there was disagreement between the raters, low interrater reliability would appear to be another factor which may have further discouraged significance on communication style.

At this point the reason for insignificant results is unclear. Training of 2 1/2 days may have been too short to have had an effect. However, it cannot be ruled out that the scale itself, its scoring system and the resultant statistical calculations, as well as low interrater reliability may have acted singularly or collectively to discourage significant results on this dependent variable.

The Trainer Variable

The strategy of selecting experienced trainers with a similar style of leadership may have enhanced group outcome in a most positive way. Regression analyses suggest

there was no interaction of style of leadership and treatment effects. Attention needs to be paid to the leader variable which is said to be a major factor affecting group outcome (Lieberman et al, 1973).

Attention may need to be paid to the race and sex of the trainer. Interaction of the effects of treatment and trainer's race and sex reached significance at the 0.10 level of confidence. This may indicate a possible trend: race and/or sex of the trainer may differentially affect treatment. Future researchers need to conduct a larger number of groups and to further control for the trainer's race and sex so that definitive statements can be made regarding the effect of these variables upon treatment outcome. At this point, the effect is unclear.

Cautions About Conducting Research of this Kind

It would be important to note that both Katz and Rubin offered training in a retreat-like setting. Each author had institutional or university cooperation, as well as financial support. (This was not the case for this present study.)

With all their support, they still rely on relatively small samples of subjects, Katz (24), Rubin (50). This research is quite expensive to conduct, and involves much organisation to train, house and feed subjects.* It was difficult to have subjects devote extended time to a weekend workshop for a \$15.00 incentive fee⁺. There are other hidden costs such as advertising and trainer fees, phone

* Currently there are recruitment ads offering potential subjects \$200.00 each for their participation in off-site studies.

+ Some researchers (Fauth, 1972; Katz, 1977) offer university credit to subjects who volunteer. In this case, it is unlikely that an indirect measure of attitudes will be made. The students know the exact nature of the course.

bill, rental of pretesting and training space, food and transportation. For this present study there was a high dropout rate from the original contact to attendance at pretesting sessions, and participation in the study. This is disappointing given the large-scale recruitment efforts.

The trainers and the cabin were prepared to handle 47 subjects. Prior to actual recruitment, groups of 12 were planned. With 4 experimentals, and 1 control group, a total sample of 60 would have been realised.

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APPENDIX A

PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES OF PREJUDICE AND THEIR
RELEVANCE TO HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING

Five theories of prejudice were summarised in order to provide a solid understanding of how prejudice is said to develop. Since prejudice was chosen as a dependent variable, it was thought that it needed to be theoretically explored so that the thesis could be more firmly supported. In this way, how best to reduce prejudice might be more thoroughly undertaken.

An understanding of the development of prejudice fosters the appreciation that it is difficult to reduce, and this enhances attempts to reduce it in the small training group. With knowledge of its tenacity, the researcher plans the group with a cogent strategy.

The work of Pettigrew (1971), Tajfel (1978), Sherif (1966), Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford (1982, 1950) and Allport (1979, 1954) were chosen because these are some of the more respected in the field of psychology. These authors have formulated their ideas over many years. In fact, the texts of Adorno *et al*, and Allport may be said to be classics for the student of prejudice. These theories of prejudice are relevant to the therapeutic process (i.e., human relations training) in as much as they indicate that the adult, from childhood, has developed defenses and attitudes which are less than self enhancing in order to cope with parents, other societal groups, institutions and pressures. (The potential influences which lead to these defenses are handled differently by each of the five authors.)

Perhaps it is too much to expect that researchers of the development of prejudice can be designers of a program for its reduction. None of the authors described a detailed plan for the reduction of prejudice. They would, no doubt, disagree on details of such a plan. Pettigrew

endorses a socioeconomic focus, a multivariate repatterning of intergroup contact which, he believes will result in equal status between the races, and elimination of racism. Tajfel is vague about what is necessary to reduce prejudice. He mentions the need for changes in education, politics, and the economic and social arenas, but goes no further. Sherif also endorses equal-status contact to reduce prejudice but he understands that prejudice will emerge between the races, and will have to be resolved after equal status is achieved. Adorno et al propose changing child-rearing practices; and individual or group therapy to encourage introspection. But they too stop short of any specifics. Allport, who offers the most comprehensive theory of prejudice, suggests that changing laws, educating and retraining people (to encourage equal-status contact) in individual and group therapy are ways to combat prejudice. However, he shies away from the detailed treatment plan which is thought to be necessary for its reduction.

After reading the five reviewed theories, the reader will most likely reach the conclusion that these are not relevant to human relations training. Human relations training to reduce prejudice does not include the theories, or teach them to participants. The theories of prejudice become relevant for researchers who plan small training groups so that they understand the theoretical nature of prejudice, and the importance of the personal therapy component.

What follows is a summary of each of the theories, their recommendations for reduction of prejudice, and a discussion of contradictions and conclusions.

Thomas Pettigrew

Pettigrew's (1971) theory is social, and economic in its approach. He postulates that prejudice is a function of the individual's attempt to become a member of the immediate society. Since individuals struggle to understand cultural 'reality' and to differentiate themselves from others to find a place in society, the tendency to develop prejudice is said to be social as well as psychological (p.130). The individual learns attitudes which are said to be important for several reasons. They help the individual understand the facts about society (i.e., 'reality') in the way that they are perceived by the culture; they assist in the identification with or differentiation from in- and out-groups; and they serve as an anxiety reducer when they are adapted about something or someone in order to specifically resolve an introspective problem. Most psychologists, according to Pettigrew, concentrate on the use of attitudes as anxiety reducers at the expense of the other two uses. He believes it is important to look at the situational and conformist behaviour of the individual in society.

When the individual is surrounded by parents and friends who are 'racially prejudiced', conformity is the easiest road to follow. When the immediate society racially discriminates, when contrary views can cause social rejection, then anti-black attitudes may result from 'social adjustment' rather than externalisation (p.137). The crux of Pettigrew's argument is that, for the majority of people, prejudice is a result of conformity to prevailing thinking. He says: "...conformity is the social-psychological key to analyzing white resistance to racial change in the South" (p.130).

Anti-black sentiments in the Southern United States have roots in slavery and in the Post Civil War period. Patterns of intergroup relations were initiated and maintained and account for the unequal-status contact between blacks and whites. Changing the contact between

the two groups will bring about change in mutual perceptions, according to this author. Prejudice based upon conformity will dissipate; if you change behaviour, attitude change will follow.

Southern (i.e., United States South) racial attitudes deserve a more intricate analysis than is afforded them. The usual psychological approach concentrates on their acquisition for the purpose of reducing anxiety. Their use as indices of the facts of society, and differentiators of in- and out-groups are critical to the study of prejudice. "...[T]hese neglected and more socially relevant functions [of attitudes]...offer the key to further psychological advances in research..." in race relations (p.134). Pettigrew believes that Southerners are prejudiced against blacks because they realise that this is a fact of life in the South. In order to survive or adjust to the situation, they conform. These conformers are called 'latent liberal' by the author because they are not 'anti-Semitic' or 'authoritarian' (p.139). They continue to be anti-black because of their need to conform. When laws and norms change the way blacks and whites interact, their attitudes will be restructured. These individuals employ attitudes which fit into specific situations. Experiences in new, 'equal-status' circumstances will lead to acceptance of the majority-minority relationship in that situation. "Situations, then, not only structure specific racial behaviour, but they may change specific attitudes in the process" (underlining added, p.133). Pettigrew does admit that behaviour and attitudes are not necessarily generalised to other situations involving the minority group, but usually remain static according to the dominant mode.

As stated above, psychological approaches offer a narrow definition of the attitude construct, posits Pettigrew. Racial attitudes are unrealistically sampled in 'isolation' without sampling of other 'conflicting attitudes and values' (p.133). It would be crucial to learn what are the other salient views which conflict with racial attitudes. Once learned, they could be manipulated

so that adherence to them would preclude conformity to racist attitudes.* For example, if a conforming anti-black valued law and order, a law requiring strict adherence to integrated public housing may cause abandonment of resistance and subsequent conformity to the new integrated housing code.

Pettigrew further describes his theory positing two types of prejudiced individuals in the South. The first is the individual who is consistently intolerant or authoritarian, who is prejudiced perhaps from personal need and not in order to conform to peer pressure. The second type of person discriminates because of the need for conformity. These anti-black attitudes seem to be "...less salient, more specific, and more tied to specific situations" (p.132). The problem lies with these people. Because they cannot be explained by traditional theory, they are, in a sense, unpredictable. Pettigrew estimates that 60% of the anglo-American population may fit into this category which he calls 'latent liberal'. On racial issues, this group vacillates between tolerant and intolerant positions depending upon the issue's appeal or lack of appeal. The 'latent liberals' sometimes align with the extremely prejudiced 20%; other times with the tolerant 20%. Admittedly, these figures are not exact, but they help make sense of public opinion data from the nineteen sixties in U.S. race relations, according to the author. From these figures, Pettigrew draws three hypotheses. The first is that racial attitudes of the anglo-American are somewhat flexible rather than rigid. Secondly, only 20% of the population "...reflect a strong personality commitment to racism..." (p.207). Thirdly, anti-black attitudes do not exist in isolation. To view them as such is simplistic and dangerous because it implies that prejudice cannot be changed. This leads to pessimism.

* This approach is suited for the 'latent liberal'.

Pettigrew's solution for racism and segregation is to racially integrate in small communities, larger communities, and then cities so that blacks have a choice in all spheres of American life. Simultaneously, change and enrich the ghettos in economic, social and educative ways. This plan of integration and enrichment must proceed so that racial integration is encouraged not forced, and segregation becomes unnecessary. When the pattern of intergroup (i.e., black and white) relations is changed to equal-status contact, it is hypothesised that 60% of the anglo-American population (i.e., the 'latent liberal') will no longer conform to racist practices. No recommendations are made for what is called the extremely prejudiced fifth of the population.

Pettigrew's solution for racism and segregation is predominantly socio-economic at the expense of the social psychological. He posits that racist behaviours will dissipate when equal-status contact is achieved. One might argue that attitudes of prejudice (vs. racist behaviours) might still be in evidence. His behaviouristic approach (i.e., change behaviour and attitude change will follow) may not be powerful enough to reduce attitudes of prejudice. It would appear that Pettigrew is against a small group training effort since he focusses on socio-economic change, and believes that conformity needs (and not personal commitment) lead to anti-black behaviour in the majority of Anglo-Americans.

Henri Tajfel

Tajfel (1978) regards aggregate social behaviour as paramount to the study of prejudice. Group membership will determine many of the individual's values. He believes there are perceived differences between various groups because of their membership in, or loyalty to different in-groups.* Individuals are members of many 'social groups' and these memberships give positive and negative input to the 'image' one has of oneself (1978, p.61).

This author regards the individual in a social context and uses social psychological terms to describe the cognitive processes which are used by individuals to understand and negotiate in their environment. Through 'social categorization' individuals group others, and find their place in relation to these others. When these 'groupings' of others become associated with value differences (i.e., of worth), they become "...one of the cognitive and behavioural supports of ethnocentrism..." (p.62). '[S]ocial identity' describes the self image which results from the belonging to various groups (p.63). Through 'social comparison' individuals test the validity of their knowledge, ability or ideas. They need to evaluate themselves through comparisons with groups around them (p.66).

The concept of in- and out-groups becomes an essential construct in Tajfel's theory, for his focus is on 'collective social behaviour' rather than the "...cognitive or motivational processes 'inherent' in the individual" (1981, p.161). These in-groups form rigid ideas (often derogatory) or stereotypes of each other, and these

* There is some suggestion that a simple separation of individuals into groups encourages solidarity between members of the in-group and discrimination against the out-group.

"...ideas, attitudes and systems of belief become an inherent part of the..." social relations between the two groups. In many instances, they can influence or even determine intergroup relations (1978, p.6).

These deep-rooted, rigid ideas originate with the individual's attempt to find a place in society. Attitudes of 'differentiation' (i.e., individuals find themselves different from others) are analogous to the process of 'categorization' (i.e., individuals classify objects). These occur during the socialisation process as the individual structures the environment in order to make it more orderly and understandable. Differentiation and categorisation are intimately involved in the development of attitudes of 'us' against 'them', which are the precursors of prejudice. However, differentiation unlike categorisation involves a negative or positive value judgement. Race is a means to "...enhance and perpetuate the perceived differences in 'worth' between groups or individuals. It contributes to making these differences as clear-cut and inflexible as possible" (p.84).

Tajfel (1981) favors reduction of prejudice and discrimination through educational and social changes and recommends changing laws and creating 'political, social and economic programmes' (p.343). He gives no specifics regarding the substance of these programmes. In spite of his emphasis on 'collective group behaviour', he does address the individual's development of attitudes and values, and negotiation of the social environment.

Tajfel's focus is on in- and out-groups, and how these memberships influence individuals' intergroup relationships. It may be safe to presume that Tajfel would sanction the small training group for reducing prejudice. To use his terms, the training group might be used to forge new relationships between members of both these groups. If group membership determines the individual's values, perhaps values will generalise to include new members thereby enlarging what Tajfel calls the 'social identity' of the members (p.63).

One might posit that he would sanction (small) group re-training in the context of schools, and organisations with community-based support. Tajfel believes that attitude change (i.e., 'beliefs and views', p.141) can affect the 'management of conflicts' which would be best helped by 'strong legislation preventing public forms of discrimination against minorities'. This statement seems to endorse a preference for changing attitudes before, or simultaneously with conflict resolution strategies. He further believes that schools and institutions can help, for prejudice and discrimination "...are deeply rooted in the structure of our society and in the societies from which the students come" (p.186).

Muzafar Sherif

The focus of Sherif is attitudinal as well as (group) interactional. Sherif (1966) also believes that psychological theory alone, although important, is not sufficient to explain prejudice. Before he focusses on the individual in the group (an important emphasis), he spends considerable time on the concept of attitudes which he feels are central to the core of the individual. He emphasises that since William James, the first American psychologist, there has been the theory that attitudes are elements of the individual's 'self-system' (Sherif and Sherif, 1967, p.106) and not segmented parts of human psychology. The following statements are posited. Attitudes are learned in a social context and are therefore in the realm of social psychology. Once formed, they endure. Because they are formed in relation to others (i.e., people, groups, institutions), attitudes presume relationships between the persons acquiring the attitude, and the object or other. These relationships have 'motivational-affective properties' because the 'self' assumes the more important position as the attitudes are formed (p.112). This is further complicated because the relationship between the person and its object (or other) is mediated by its relationship to other objects in close categories in that set. An example might help to explain this. When a person is attracted to another, this presumes that other, varying types of people have been compared. The attraction is a result of the perceptions of the others from whom the attracted individual has been chosen. Sherif and Sherif believe that these comparisons need not be done consciously or deliberately.

They emphasise the implication that the development of attitudes is central to the formation of the sense of who we are. Through a pattern of self-other interactions, the delineation of the 'self concept' occurs. "Through this process, the groups in which the child is born become not merely external realities to which he must adapt, but reference groups with which he identifies or strives to

identify himself" (p.113). From these learned attitudes judgments are made, and the individual is no longer neutral. A position is taken and relations with other people, groups and institutions form a regular and particular pattern. A perception of facts is shaped because individuals select what they will see and hear from the available stimulation. Sherif (1967) also believes that this process (of judging) is emotional and biased because it affects the individual's commitments and opinions, "...the stuff of which...self-identity is composed. The self, the ego are intimately involved in attitudes and evaluations" (p.3).

We now turn to the individual in groups. Sherif (1966) posits (as does Allport, 1979, 1954) that the individual is not born prejudiced against another group. Prejudice against particular groups, and stereotyping originate from the shared images and hostilities belonging to many people who belong to the same in-group. Prejudice against groups is a product of group conflict rather than the cause of it. How does group conflict occur? For the most part, major 'reciprocal interests' and the relative importance of these interests to the groups involved determine the nature of their interaction (p.15). These interests may involve in-group values, goals, economics, politics to name a few. But once a key issue emerges, it may well direct the kind of interaction they have, overshadowing other common interests. And, when stereotyping occurs, it can effect the direction of relations between the groups. Perceptions that leaders (often shared by fellow citizens) have of their opponents affect decisions that they make. Images which have endured for centuries "...may exert a fateful influence on the ongoing process between the groups" (p.26).

Prejudice can be reduced by changing the way groups interact. Since intergroup conflict leads to intergroup prejudice, conflict needs to be diminished in order for prejudice to be reduced. Sherif suggests that 'super-ordinate goals' provide the motivational base for reducing conflict. This received empirical support from the

Robber's Cave Experiment (Sherif *et al*, 1961) with eleven and twelve year old boys in a summer camp. From this he draws several conclusions. Intergroup contact consisting of 'interdependent action toward superordinate goals' is an inducement for groups to cooperate, but one instance of cooperation is not enough to reduce norms of hostility and stereotyping. Repeated cooperation toward common goals had a 'cumulative effect' in improving relations, and it helped develop specific ways of cooperating which were transferable to new circumstances. This resulted in a recognisable pattern of positive interaction. Additionally, negative stereotypes were broken down when members found information about the other group interesting. They were less likely to use the information to feed stereotypic ideas about the other group (pp. 92-93).

Sherif believes that once the repatterning of intergroup behaviour occurs, attitude change follows. Then, "...the acquisition of prejudice by flesh and blood persons...the effects of attitudes toward others in transactions, negotiations, and struggles with them can be realistically assessed" (p.25). Sherif acknowledges that prejudice can be 'tackled' after the restructuring of intergroup contact. Repeated cooperation helps develop specific ways of cooperating which transfer to new situations resulting in a recognisable pattern of positive interaction between the two groups. So, then for Sherif, the key toward improving relations between opposing groups is repeated cooperation and continued positive interaction. Afterwards, reduction of prejudice can be handled on an ongoing basis.

Sherif might agree (with Pettigrew) that attitudes of prejudice are learned in order to adjust to society (conformity). He might also say that the 'self system' is intricately involved in the process of conformity since attitudes help to shape the system of self. From this notion of conformity and 'self system', one might deduce that the individual may be resistant to any change in attitude, because any change in attitude involves restructuring of the system of 'self'. Sherif believes (as

does Pettigrew) that attitude change will follow equal-status contact (i.e., behaviour changes); but he does not ignore the fact that prejudice needs to be struggled with afterwards. One might further infer that Sherif would endorse (small) group retraining to augment positive attitude changes. The repeated pursuit of superordinate goals presumes the use of group training (or human relations training) for the agenda is manipulated (it is an intervention) so as to create the opportunity for members to engage in the pursuit of common goals. Sherif, however, does not include personal therapy in his prescription for prejudice reduction, an important omission.

Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford

Adorno, et al (1982, 1950) have an individual, psychodynamic approach. They believe that the child's personality (i.e., a system of beliefs which include prejudice) is affected by parenting style. They describe the personality as a lasting series of dynamics which help in determining responses in situations and in shaping consistency into behavioural patterns.

The authors depend on the Freudian theory of psychosexual development. The stages are oral, anal, phallic, latent and genital (Freud, 1977, 1923). These occur within the family in society, and the personality develops in the child in this context. Childrearing practices are paramount. From data gathered in the compilation of their text, and research conducted separately by Frenkel-Brunswik*, there is evidence that the occurrence or absence of severe ethnic prejudice in people in "...our culture tends to be related to a complex network of attitudes within, and relating to the family" (p.256).

The extremely prejudiced individual is said to come from a family where discipline is reportedly severe and arbitrary. Here obedience to parental authority occurs together with repression of impulses thought to be unacceptable to the parents. Parents are said to be feared, distant dispensers of conditional love. Roles were dichotomised as dominant and submissive. Parental goals were said to be formal or rigid. What was good or bad was decided by society and embraced by the parents. The authors postulate that childrearing is accomplished without an individual approach and so this interferes with the emergence (in the child) of a distinctly defined personal identity.

* This study is reviewed below, on pp.215-216.

Since these parental values were beyond the child's understanding but severely enforced by the parents, behaviour not in keeping with parental expectations "...has to be rendered ego alien and 'split off' from the rest of the personality..." (P.257). While admiration for the parents is accepted by the ego, resentment of them is suppressed. Hostility is underlying and displaced with a superficial pattern of admiration and hostility mirrored in attitudes toward other authority figures, and institutions.

How the Oedipal phase in psychosexual development is resolved is of great importance. What defences were used by individuals to get beyond these 'instinctual problems' is of primary concern, for they would in part, determine their identification to men and women as well as parental figures (p.246). In extremely prejudiced persons, an ambivalent attitude toward sex is said to develop because of a disappointment in the first relationship of love - their parents. It is characterised by lack of affection, surface admiration and below-the-surface hostility. The perception of masculinity and femininity (by both men and women) - how rigid or flexible - affects attitudes of prejudice since sex-role attitudes are mirrored in social relations.

Adorno et al endorse the Freudian concept of the human psyche, the id, ego and superego. The id is the center of 'punitive aggressive impulses'. The ego is the reality gauge which oversees relations between the 'self' and the external world, as well as the "...self and the deeper layers of the personality". The ego regulates impulses by permitting a moderate level of 'gratification', since too much 'gratification' would lead to castigation by the superego. The superego is the conscience, representing the values of parent and society (pp. 163, 168). The authors posit the following: "What is not acceptable to the ego tends in the further course of events to become externalized..." (p.265). Once externalised, it is out of the realm of the conscious mind. Therefore, the ego, that rational, conscious self, becomes

shrunken. The unacceptable fears are repressed, and projected onto other people, groups, authorities and institutions. This results in a loss of integration in the personality. "The resultant break between the conscious and the unconscious layers in the personality of the high scorers,...appears to have the greatest implications for their...personality patterns" (p.268).

Extremely prejudiced individuals conform to society's values and rules. Their values have a hierarchy, placing the powerful on the top and the weak on the bottom. There is a searching for power and avoidance of weakness for fear of being consumed (by those who are perceived to be strong) so much so that there is the tendency to exploit and manipulate people and things, and to have impaired interpersonal relationships (p.273). Most pervasively, the extreme scorer is rigid in most areas of personality in order to rid consciousness of unacceptable inclinations and impulses. These are controlled by tight defenses which have the effect of shrinking the extent of the ego. These individuals are on guard constantly, showing strict devotion to 'cultural norms' (p.278). Socially sanctioned outlets are sought so that the denied inclinations can be expressed. To aid in maintaining balance, high scorers need to think in straight, simple and firm ways. No ambiguities are tolerated. This, according to the authors, results in a 'profound distortion of reality' (p.275).

A pervasive dichotomy generalises from the 'parent-child' to 'sex roles', 'moral values', and 'social relations'. It is reflected in stereotyping, the need for the in-group and its rejection of out-groups. A fundamental ethnocentrist personality is developed around the conventional and rigid, utilising denial in its extreme form.

Prejudice connotes a dislike of a certain group. Adorno et al prefer the term ethnocentrism which, they feel, reflects a generalised prejudice toward those who are different or alien in general.

Ethnocentrism is said to be a system of ideas relating to the group and its relations with other groups. A group may define a country, a region, a political party, a socio-economic class, but it may also classify a certain set of people such as the criminal, the rich, and the politician. "Psychologically, they are groups in so far as they are social categories or regions in an individual's social outlook..." (p.146). There are in-groups and out-groups. In-groups are those to which the individual belongs or identifies, and out-groups are those to which the individual does not belong or have an affinity. To be considered an out-group, there must be a "sense of contra-identification, of basic conflict, or mutual exclusiveness, of violation of primary values" (p.147). Toward in-groups there are unflinchingly positive attitudes, toward out-groups, rejection, stereotypy and desire for dominance. The out-group is seen as a threat. There is a fear that they are trying to get even for past discriminations or trying to become superior. The conflict between the groups is perceived to be enduring and unreconcilable, (p.149). Generally speaking, the belief system of the ethnocentrist rejects out-groups across the board. Because there is no identification with these groups, ethnocentrists oppose them. These distinctions are the foundation of the ethnocentrist's societal categorisations. Their '...need for an out-group...' precludes their involvement with a total society of humans. This lack of involvement is connected to their perceiving people only as members of particular groups, and not as individuals (p.148).

These perceptions would seem to focus on the 'psychological functioning' of the ethnocentrist rather than on the actual traits of individuals in the out-group. Many of us have had unpleasant experiences with minorities without extreme categorisation and stereotyping. In the opinion of the authors, "...it is not the experience as such that counts, but the way in which it is assimilated psychologically" (p.149). The ethnocentrist reacts to people who are considered different by doubting, rejecting and being hostile.

The authors remind us of the limitations of their theory. They have concentrated on the individual and family at the expense of the historical, cultural and economic. Emphasis should be given to history, the culture and the economic. They emphasise that their hypotheses regarding the ethnocentrist personality are based on statistical analyses of group trends; that these are extremes and caricatures rather than real profiles. These profiles reflect trends found in the high scorer, and most likely no one person will exhibit this exact profile. They admit that there are many variations between it and its polar opposite, the tolerant personality. Those who might score in the middle of the continuum were not included in the analyses from which this theory was formulated. Furthermore, these hypotheses are further limited due to the population surveyed: the West Coast of the United States. Future research needs to determine how valid is the theory for other cultures and sub-cultures. The authors do have suggestions for reducing prejudice. They suggest changing childrearing practices since some parents are able to raise tolerant children. They point however, to the likelihood that extremely prejudiced parents could not follow such a parenting program. Moreover, even tolerant parents would find it difficult to raise children without moulding them to fit into society the way it is.

Encouraging people (e.g., through individual therapy) to perceive themselves as they really are would be an asset since in the individual with self-insight there is a greater tendency toward the tolerant personality. Of course, self-acceptance (or self-insight) can also be achieved in the small training group with greater economy.

They also believe that individual and group psychotherapy strategies (akin to human relations training no doubt) can overcome 'resistance' to introspection (p.480). These can be used on a grand scale. (They admit that psychotherapy would not be successful with the high scorer, but believe, as does Pettigrew, that the majority of people score moderately on the prejudice continuum).

Adorno et al realise that the psychological emphasis alone is not sufficient to reduce attitudes of prejudice. Demanding a multidisciplinary approach is essential since prejudice is a result of the 'total organization of society' of which psychology is a part (p.479). They do not give specific details but they state that all social scientists need to be involved.

Gordon Allport

Allport offers a multidisciplinary approach which acknowledges that historical, socio-cultural, situational, psychodynamic and phenomenological factors collectively act to cause attitudes and prejudices.

Allport's (1979, 1954) theory of prejudice is a comprehensive, multidisciplinary one. Prejudice is said to be a complex attitude which may be best approached from a psychological perspective since it is the individual who feels antagonistic and discriminates. However, he emphasises that prejudice is an artifact of both social and personality structures formed in an economic and historical context.

Allport states that prejudice is a negative and hostile set of attitudes and beliefs which is directed toward a whole group of people or toward individual members of a group. Prejudice can be 'felt or expressed' (p.9). It is based on incomplete information and is rigid in nature. It is important to differentiate between a misconception and a prejudice. A misconception is susceptible to change in light of new information while a prejudice "...is actively resistant to all evidence that would unseat it" (p.9).

Individuals may be said to be predisposed to prejudice because of their tendency to oversimplify in making categorisations and generalisations. Personal values encourage the forming of prejudgments and 'love-prejudices' which are the precursors to both in-group loyalties and out-group relationships (p.27) . An in-group is one to which the members feel they belong. Members use the term 'they' to refer to those outside of their group (out-group). Allport theorises that membership in, and loyalty to an in-group does not necessarily result in rejection of an out-group for everyone. He argues that the concept of group differences does not account for why there is prejudice. Allport posits that:

there are many personal reasons why prejudice develops to support an individual's style of life. The self-image that he needs may be determined by his insecurity, fear, guilt; by an initial trauma or by the family pattern; by his level of frustration tolerance or even by his inborn temperament. In all these cases, specific ethnic attitudes develop to round out, to bring closure to, the pattern of personality that is developing (p.324).

It appears that feelings of perceived difference and images of the out-group underlie prejudice while race and sex aid in the stereotyping. (Characteristics ascribed to an out-group or ethnic group are exaggerated from kernels of truth.) It is said that visibility often awakens the irrational in people's minds. Children notice race difference at the age of 2 1/2*. The difference in colour (i.e., black) is often associated with negative terms (e.g., dirt) since in the Western culture, dark has a negative connotation. Children also learn 'linguistic tags' (p.305), that is they learn emotionally laden words before they understand the meaning of the words or the groups to which they apply. It is thought that by the age of three, the child develops a sense of self, an ego. By the age of five, this sense of self can be associated with or dependent on the subordination of other groups.

Allport describes three stages of learning prejudice in children. The first stage can be called a pre-logic stage (approximately 6 years). It suggests that children neither fully understand the adult categories for grouping others, i.e., Jews, blacks, etc., nor know what their own attitudes ought to be regarding these groups. A full sense of who the child is is not yet fully developed either. In the prejudiced child, severe preconditions seem to exist. 1. Strong identification with the parents; strong craving for 'affection' and 'approval' in a

* Two studies of the acquisition of prejudice in children are reviewed on pp.214-217.

'stern' and 'critical' home. Conditional love usually produces an obedient child who is wary of people outside the family. 2. Children understand that people are 'clustered' into groups where judgments and evaluations are made (p.307). 3. Children learn that a certain group (name or identity is unknown) "...is somehow hateworthy. They already have the emotional meaning but lack the referential meaning" (p.308).

Stage two is called the 'total rejection' period (approximately 7-11 years). When children have the understanding of who the hated groups are (in the minds of their parents), they will reject them all. The third stage is one of 'differentiation' (approximately 13-18 years). Prejudices become less total. Attitudes are modified so that they become more 'rational' and reasonable to the young adult. The teenagers incorporate some of their own experiences (to augment parental attitudes) into beliefs about other groups [p.309].

Allport differentiates between attitudes of prejudice based on conformity versus 'ego-relevance'. He believes that prejudice, best viewed on a continuum, will have a "maximum degree of functional significance" for the highly prejudiced person, and a "maximum degree of sheer conformity" for others. A "...given case of prejudice may fall anywhere between these two extremes" (p.286).

To conform (vs. to develop prejudice) to attitudes of prejudice is to adapt to the views of the family or culture. Ethnic attitudes of parents can be handed down to their children through 'teaching and learning' (p.292). It may be said that for reasons of survival, children who depend on their parents may adopt their parents' views whether through love or fear. Also, children lovingly mimic their parents, hoping to identify with them. Allport feels that this process is pervasive, intricate, subtle and probably unconscious. It is also posited that children need to conform and be accepted by the groups which immediately surround them. But children can be selective about adopting these ready-made values, and they can outgrow them. Allport doesn't report or posit an

explanation to explain why some children shed their parents' attitudes. One might deduce that there are individual differences as well as external variables which are responsible.

Allport targets childrearing practices (as do Adorno et al 1982, 1950), as the cause of developing prejudice. Parents who are prejudiced are likely to impart attitudes of prejudice as well as "...train the child to develop a prejudiced nature" (p.297). From several studies on young children, Allport posits that with severe, critical childrearing (based on strict obedience, and unacceptability of impulses), children are more likely to be prejudiced. Why? The children feel threatened. They repress their impulses for fear of punishment and loss of parental love. Therefore, they learn to look for the parent's approval and disapproval. Therein lies the parent's power over the child. Their power becomes pivotal, resulting in the child's view that society is a hierarchy based on inequality, and that relationships are dichotomised by power and weakness. "The effect goes even deeper. The child mistrusts his impulses: he must not...disobey. He must fight such evil in himself" (p.299). By projecting these fears, the child fears the 'impulses' of others. The child learns to fear rather than to trust them (p.299).

Social or later learning affects attitudes of prejudice. Allport believes it is necessary to presume that the child is serious about organising experiences into 'definite meaning' (p.316) in order to say that early conditions lead to attitudes of prejudice. Due to either fear or learning the hierarchy of power, young adults gather experiences which can be selectively perceived (according to their salient and biased values) in order to close-up the gaps in their system of ideas. In this way, they fashion the fabric of their personality. In the process, individuals gather ideas and values which to themselves seem "...concrete, viable, justified and reasonable..." (p.317).

The need for status is involved. At the core of this still developing personality is the self or ego, and a sense of worth that needs to be established. Caste or status (a means of dividing people into higher and lower groups) serves to enhance self-worth in the dominant group. Individuals who have personal reasons to use this division to feel superior may develop attitudes of prejudice to support the values, interests and self concept which they are broadening. One can see that conformity invites individuals to exploit cultural divisions in their own desire for status.

Allport proposes several hypotheses regarding cognitive processes and their role in prejudice. Individuals tend to form categories from impressions which are similar in order to make sense of the world. These categories are usually altered somewhat due to life experiences; but individuals prefer to hang on to previously formed categories as long as they can fit their needs. Making an exception to a category is easier than forming a new one which would involve restructuring a series of other attitudes. Once a person is identified, behaviours which are consistent with his or her category are expected. Categories contain some truth, untruth and emotional information. When life experience clashes with the category, the experience can be distorted to fit or reaffirm the category. Categories which can be viewed on a continuum (black...gray...white) are frequently seen as extremes (black or white) and "...readily control our thinking about ethnic groups" (p.176). Racial or ethnic prejudice is a classification of a group according to unrealistic attributes rather than realistic ones. This leads to discrediting the entire group. Allport believes that research on prejudice suggests that, generally speaking, prejudiced individuals have a different way of ordering their cognitive processes and that "...a person's prejudice is unlikely to be merely a specific attitude toward a specific group; it is more likely to be a

reflection of his whole habit of thinking about the world he lives in" (p.175). Allport agrees with Adorno et al on this point.

For the prejudiced personality one is probably going to find a portrait of 'ego-alienation', desire for what is definite, safe and authoritative. Individuals who feel 'threatened' seem to develop "...similar patterns of accommodation to life in general" (pp. 396-7). A necessary component of this pattern is 'repression'. What cannot be faced is repressed, consequently the 'ego' does not 'integrate' the numerous repressed tendencies which emerge from the personality and from the environment. These omissions result in a spiral of insecurity and 'repression'. There is a sharp separation of the conscious and unconscious layers of the mind. Strategies for strengthening a fragile self concept (e.g., dichotomising, moralising and projecting, etc.) are said to develop. Allport makes the following statement:

"Our picture may be oversharpe and may later need modification and supplementation, but the basic fact is firmly established -- prejudice is more than an incident in many lives; it is often lockstitched into the very fabric of personality. In such cases, it cannot be extracted by tweezers. To change it, the whole pattern of life would have to be altered" (p.408).

Allport cites six approaches to the causation of prejudice, the historical, sociocultural, situational, psychodynamic, phenomenological, and the reputation of the out-group. Prejudice can be understood through the history of, and economic relationship between the opposing groups. It can be explained in terms of the socio-cultural, its social context, the traditions behind the conflict, the upward mobility of the various dominant and subordinate groups, population density and intergroup relations. Allport posits that when the following conditions are widespread, prejudice will become prevalent; when there is: a heterogeneous society, upward mobility

and varied social changes; ignorance and lack of communication; a minority population which is large or getting larger; actual competition for scarce resources; exploitation of the subordinate group with economic gain by the dominant group; ethnic intolerance and aggression toward the minority group which are sanctioned and rationalised; and when the dominant group rejects both the 'assimilation' and ethnic cultural rights of the subordinate group.

Situational variables describe the 'immediate influences' (p.213) which surround and inevitably affect the growing child including economic competition, 'social-mobility', the kind of contact between groups and their comparative density in the population. The psychodynamic approach lays the cause of prejudice at the feet of the individual who may be frustrated, angry, insecure, deprived, hostile. Included here is the scapegoat theory which is described thusly, "...anger once engendered may be displaced upon a (logically irrelevant) victim" (p.216). It also looks to the personality of the individual probably because of childrearing practices which were severe and lacking in parental affection. The phenomenological approach looks toward the individual's perceptions and definitions of the world. Allport believes that historical, cultural and personality influences converge into a central point, and that the phenomenological "...is the immediate level of causation..." (p.217). But one should not view the phenomenological in isolation (i.e., apart from what is situational, cultural, historical and personality related). Reputation of the out-group approaches prejudice by saying that out-groups are the object of prejudice because of their characteristics. Allport discounts this emphasis by suggesting a reciprocity of reaction. In other words, negative attitudes (toward the out-group) are partly decided by the characteristics of the out-group as well as characteristics (perceptions or projections) of the in-group. Allport warns of the complex nature of prejudice. His theory is 'eclectic', embracing each of the above listed approaches. It is impossible "...to reduce them to a single theory of human

action" (p.208). Overall, Allport's synthesis of the intricate quality of prejudice is stated in this way: Individuals employ acts of prejudice partly because of their perception of a person or object. Their perceptions are partly based on the needs of their personality which were 'socialized' in the family, school and district. Existent social conditions also influenced this process and probably conditioned their perceptions. Beyond these influences lie other cogent, far removed 'causal influences'.

Allport's recommendations for reducing group tensions include creating laws (e.g., against segregation) whose purpose is to change overt, intolerant behaviour. He believes this would have an ultimate affect on thoughts and feelings, so it has to have an indirect affect on prejudice and the improvement of intergroup relations. Education and retraining (e.g., human relations training) in the community with use of the media as a tool for setting role models, together with approval and urging from those in authority are necessary. Programmes to acquaint groups and encourage equal-status relationships are suggested. "Theoretically, perhaps the best of all methods for changing attitudes is under conditions of individual psychotherapy..." (p.495). (He admits, however, that there is no conclusive empirical finding to support this contention apart from reports from clinicians.) Under appropriate conditions, he believes catharsis is helpful for insight in preparation for attitude change.

Allport's theory appears to be the most cogent and comprehensive. While his approach to the reduction of prejudice is multifaceted, it lacks specifics. His greatest focus (as a change agent) appears to be individual, and group retraining reinforced by the community, the media and those in authority. He would, no doubt, endorse the small training group. Changing laws will have, he believes, a positive, indirect effect on attitudes of prejudice and intergroup relations. He realises the importance of equal-status contact, psychological as well as legislative modes of changing attitudes and behaviour.

Conclusions

Pettigrew's approach to the study of prejudice is limited. He posits that prejudice results from conformity to societal values for 60% of the American population*. He accuses other theorists of viewing prejudice in a psychological vacuum and becomes guilty of an analagous omission - viewing prejudice in social and economic isolation. For 60% of a population, he does not address the functional significance of prejudice (i.e., the need to project feared impulses and inadequacies onto a target group, usually minorities).

Tajfel limits himself to group behaviour, and emphasises the effects of membership in these groups since they have considerable effect on the individual member. Through his tacit endorsement of social and psychological strategies such as group retraining to support legislative changes to stop discrimination, he acknowledges the role of social psychology in the study of prejudice. Tajfel leaves the reader in the dark as far as specifics in the realm of social psychology. His is really a segment of a theory rather than a unified approach.

Sherif believes (as does Pettigrew) that as repatterning of intergroup behaviour occurs, attitude change (toward the specific group with whom the contact has changed) will follow. But, he acknowledges the fact that prejudice will still be an attitude with which to struggle. His description of attitudes as elements of the 'self system' presumes their enduring character. As he says, "The self, the ego are intimately involved in attitudes and evaluations" (1967, p.3). It is, perhaps, Sherif's over emphasis on common goal achievement which renders his approach narrow minded: he ignores the psychic needs of the individual in these groups. While common goal achievement is an important element in reducing or preventing

* Of the remainder, 20% are highly tolerant; another 20%, highly prejudiced or ethnocentric.

intergroup violence, it may not be a sufficient condition (Liss & Robinson, 1978). Where prejudice has functional significance for the individual's 'self system', repeated cooperation with an out-group may not necessarily eradicate the functional position which prejudice occupies. Sherif ignores this fact.

Adorno et al give us a detailed, psychodynamic theory based on the profiles of extremely prejudiced people. Their theory is devoted to the intrapsychic dynamics of the extreme scorer: the ethnocentrist. The authors acknowledge that they ignore other factors which help us to understand the causation of prejudice.

Allport emphasises the overriding importance of the psychological component, but he includes the social, cultural and economic influences of prejudice. In contrast to Pettigrew, he believes that while conformity encourages prejudice, individuals who adopt attitudes of prejudice enjoy 'ego-relevant' benefits (p.286). He, as do Adorno et al, believes that prejudice (for the high scorer) is a sample of the way in which individuals order their thinking, and not a discrete attitude toward a particular group. Allport also shares the view of Adorno et al on the role of repression, and the corresponding separation of the conscious and unconscious mind (in the extreme scorer). This separation underscores the need for a personal therapy component. Allport appears to have presented the most realistic and comprehensive approach.

A review of the theories of prejudice illustrates the tenacity of these attitudes, and their involvement in the ego development of the adult. It is this realisation that makes the theories of prejudice relevant to human relations training. The human relations training group with reduction of prejudice as a dependent variable has the responsibility of stripping away some the individual's defenses. This necessitates the inclusion of the personal therapy component.

In intensive human relations training, the group becomes the new family, or the new society where the individual finds it permissible to explore new values,

ideas, behaviours in a safe and accepting (i.e., non-judgemental) environment (Wechsler et al, 1962). This encourages growth. The group replaces the family, or society of origin (where prejudice is said to begin) and encourages individuals to accept the positive and negative aspects of themselves. This process is said to encourage acceptance of others (Sheerer, 1949; Stock, 1949; Phillips, 1951; Berger, 1952; McIntyre, 1952; Omwake, 1954; Suinn, 1961), and ultimately reduction of prejudice (Rubin, 1966, 1967a, 1967b; Fauth, 1972).

Regarding the family, some researchers who have studied attitudes of prejudice in children have suggested that they are related to parenting style and authoritarian disciplining; and learned in the early childhood years. If this is the case, attitudes of prejudice are shaped as children form their concept of self during their earliest years. It is also thought that this enduring self concept impacts the personality of the adult. Consequently, it was decided to review some of the research on children and prejudice. Two such studies are described below.

Harris, Gough and Martin (1950) conclude that ethnic intolerance in children seems to be related to a complicated combination of parental attitudes in childrearing. They tested the ethnic attitudes of 154 boys and girls from 9-12 years of age, and the parenting philosophy of the mothers of these children. Their rationale was based on the belief that the intolerant personality appears to be 'rigid' and 'authoritarian' and that this style might be mirrored from parental attitudes and style of parenting (p.169).

The children who scored in the highest and lowest ranges of the group (i.e., 38 in each sector) were selected from the larger sample. Selected also were the responses of the mothers of these children.

Children's attitudes were assessed by an eighteen-statement instrument toward Blacks which is not described by the authors in this paper. Childrearing style was measured in three ways. Attitudes relating to children and parenting were answered either true or false.

Parenting statements were made, and mothers indicated their degree of agreement, a lot, sometimes, or little. A paragraph described ten strategies for resolution of the problem they would use, or reject.

The authors found that mothers of intolerant children "...expect obedience promptly and unquestioningly from children." Mothers of tolerant children are less inclined to spank or discipline by 'shaming' (p.172). To a significant degree, mothers of intolerant children agreed with the following statements: "Obedience is the most important thing a child can learn"; "It is wicked for children to disobey their parents"; "I prefer a quiet child to one who is noisy".

The authors believe that parental "...authoritarian handling of control and...lack of tolerance of children's 'annoyance value'..." are related to the development of ethnic intolerance in children. They do not believe that ethnic prejudice in children "...is based on a simple one-to-one relationship with similar attitudes held by their elders" (p.180). Rather, ethnic prejudice, according to Harris et al, is one sector of a broader-group of attitudes which is manifested in parent-child, and other social relationships.

Frenkel-Brunswik (1949) tested 120 boys and girls, eleven to sixteen years of age, who were chosen from a population of 1500 on the basis of low and high prejudice scores. The initial test consisted of 50 statements of tolerance or intolerance toward racial groups (i.e., Jewish, Black, Japanese, Mexican, others, in general), 'general social attitudes', and a personality test (p.296). Once chosen, the 120 children, and their parents were interviewed along the following categories: 'general social attitudes', 'anti-weakness', 'power and money', sex role dichotomisation, 'ambivalent submission to parents and teachers', 'parents' concern with social status, rigid rules and discipline', 'moralism and conformity', and 'intolerance of ambiguities'.

Statistical differences, the author asserts, were established for the results indicated in the study. From the questionnaires and interviews with the children, and interviews with the parents, it was found that prejudiced children were reared with rigid rules and strict discipline. Conformity, concern with status, and upward mobility were emphasised by the parents. The prejudiced children were moralistic and rejecting of what was weak, and more likely to glorify power, and dislike ambiguity. She believes that a scared, 'frustrated' child tends to achieve secure feelings by over-simplifying ideas and concepts into dichotomies.

Frenkel-Brunswik agrees with Harris et al in concluding that prejudice, is one of a series of related attitudes for the prejudiced child. She also implies that parenting style may affect tolerance or intolerance in children. Frenkel-Brunswik posits that while the personality of the intolerant child is similar to the personality of the intolerant adult there are differences. "...[T]his personality pattern seems quite firmly established in the adult, it appears in the child as incipient, or as a potential direction for development. This is indicated by correlations which are all-around lower than the analagous ones in adults" (p.304). By this assertion, the author alerts the reader to the, perhaps, modifiable nature of children's intolerant attitudes. Recommendations for raising tolerant children are broad based: modelling equal relationships in the family and school; treating children as individuals, and balancing a permissive and directive approach.

It is noteworthy that the work of Stephan and Rosenfield (1978) supports the findings of Harris et al, and Frenkel-Brunswik: authoritarian childrearing practices are related to high levels of prejudice in children (see pp.29-31 for a discussion).

This finally concludes the discussion of the theories of prejudice. The point was made that attitudes of prejudice are said to develop in childhood. The five

theories of prejudice, and two empirical studies of children's attitudes support this position.

An appreciation of the pervasiveness of the prejudicial outlook may again reaffirm the researcher's belief that reduction of prejudice requires an ambitious approach which, of necessity, focuses on the individual in psychotherapy.

APPENDIX BSubject Recruitment LiteratureFlier

DENVER RESEARCH PROJECT

60 RESEARCH VOLUNTEERS NEEDED

OBJECTIVE:

TO TEST THE RESULTS OF A HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING EXPERIMENT ON BLOOD PRESSURE.

WHO IS NEEDED:

BLACK AND WHITE ADULTS; MALE AND FEMALE BETWEEN THE AGES OF 21 and 55 YEARS.

WHAT WILL BE ASKED OF YOU:

SELECTED VOLUNTEERS WILL BE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO ONE OF A SERIES OF GROUPS. SOME WILL BE ASKED TO PARTICIPATE IN A WEEK-END LONG WORKSHOP TO BE LOCATED IN A RUSTIC MOUNTAIN CABIN. OTHERS WILL BE ASKED TO PERFORM TASKS. THESE WILL OCCUR IN FEBRUARY AND MARCH OF 1983.

IF YOU ARE INTERESTED IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT, PLEASE CALL DENVER RESEARCH PROJECT AT 370-9301.

Newspaper Ads

Black/White Men/Women Needed as research volunteers for a one weekend long research experiment, testing the effects of human relations training on blood pressure. 60 people will be selected. Call Denver Research Project: 370-9301.

BLACK & White men & women (21-55 yrs. old) needed as research participants for a 1 weekend long research experiment testing the effects of human relations training on blood pressure. 60 people will be selected. Sm. incentive paid. Call Denver Research Project 370-9302.

Subject Recruiting Measures

Hello, I'm calling from the Denver Research Project. May I speak to _____. I received a message from the answering service that you called in response to the ad/flier. Let me tell you something about the research.

The purpose of the research is to test the effects of human relations training, between black and white adults, on blood pressure and other factors.

Some participants will be asked to attend a workshop (from Friday evening to Sunday evening); others will be asked to take part in a discussion group (on a Sunday afternoon) for three hours or so. Placement in the workshop or discussion group will occur by random assignment; i.e., everybody's name will be placed in a hat, and, by chance, assigned to one of the various groups.

All participants will be asked to attend a pretesting session on January 15, January 29 or January 30*, where they will be given a series of questionnaires which are designed to allow us to get to know them better. It will take 2½ hours or so.

All participants will be asked to keep open the weekends of February 18, 19, 20; February 25, 26, 27; March 4, 5, 6; March 11, 12, 13. BUT, assignment will be made to only one weekend OR one Sunday afternoon, NOT all four.

There will be a delayed posttest in June.+

All participants will be contacted by telephone after January 30 (the last pretesting date), and advised of the random selection results. Do you have any questions regarding the workshop, or the discussion group?

If yes, the Overview of the Weekend Workshop and Discussion Group is read to the potential subject.

* These dates were ultimately changed.

+ This was later changed to April for fear of mortality.

Overview of Weekend Workshop

Exercises

1. Why are we here? Explanation.
2. Who am I? Where am I going?
3. If X were to occur, what needs would I have?
4. Discussion of our current perceptions.
5. Discussion of the workshop's progress.
6. Communication skills practice.
7. Summary of the workshop.
8. Discussion group.

Discussion Group Overview

Discussion for one hour, followed by a posttest for 1½ hours. Total of 2½ hours or so.

Are you interested in participating? If yes: name, age, address, race, sex. Give directions to the pretesting facility.

Note:

The first group of subjects was recruited as volunteers; the second group as receivers of a \$15 incentive. However, all participants were told, before the workshop or discussion group, that they would receive a \$15 incentive upon completion of the delayed posttest.

Reminder Call to Subjects

This is Linda from the Denver Research Project. We are getting ready to randomly select and assign people into groups.

There is certain information that I'd like you to have. For instance, we are paying a small incentive of \$15 after completion of the project to compensate you for any transportation costs to and from the pre- and delayed posttesting sessions.

This is just a reminder that the weekend dates are February 18, 19, 20; February 25, 26, 27; March 4, 5, 6; March 11, 12, 13.

Are you still interested in participating? Are you still available for the weekends or Sundays I mentioned?

We will call you on Saturday or Sunday to let you know about your selection and assignment. Can we reach you at this number?

Second Call to Subjects After Random Assignment

This is Linda from the Denver Research Project. You have been assigned to (weekend or Sunday afternoon).

Weekend Assignment

Where would you like us to pick you up*, at Arapahoe House in Sheridan at 6:45 p.m., or St. Thomas' Episcopal Church on Dexter at 6:00 p.m.?

Please bring a sleeping bag, pillow, jeans (casual clothes), warm clothes, heavy sweater, toothbrush, toiletries, soap and a towel.

We've asked each participant NOT to bring any alcohol or drugs because they would interfere with the monitoring of blood pressure, and progress of the workshop.

* Subjects were familiar with these two locations, since they were pre-tested at one of the two locations.

Sunday Afternoon Assignment

Would you please meet at Arapahoe House at 1:00 p.m. on Sunday, February 27. Plan to be there from 1:00-4:00 p.m. Explanation of directions, if necessary.

If you have any questions or concerns, please don't hesitate to call me at _____ or _____.

APPENDIX CSelection Criteria and Group Assignment

During the recruiting process, it became evident that a sufficient number of black subjects was not being attracted. In an attempt to recruit more blacks, it was decided to offer a \$15 incentive to all subjects who completed participation in the study. Consequently, some subjects were recruited without the offer of incentive money (i.e., as volunteers), and others were recruited with the offer of an incentive. However, all subjects who participated were informed that they would be given incentive money upon completion of the delayed posttest.

Selection Criteria

1. Being a member of the ethnic group Black or White.
2. Being between the ages of 21 - 60 years of age.
3. Willingness to accept an assignment to one of four weekends (the experimental group) or a Sunday afternoon (the no-treatment control group) based on random selection.
4. Being evaluated as appropriate, i.e., at no psychological risk to participate. A diagnosis 'at psychological risk' means emotional instability. This diagnosis was given to those thought to be representative of a psychiatric population, and outside the 'normal' range for which the project was geared. It was thought that an unstable subject would be more likely (than a stable subject) to commit suicide, or become psychotic following participation in an intensive psychotherapeutic project. (See pp. 83-86 for more screening information).

Twenty-two subjects dropped out of the project for the following reasons:

<u>Subject No.</u>	<u>Before</u>	<u>After</u>	<u>Reason</u>
	<u>Randomisation</u>		
1	x		Too busy to give up weekend
3		x	Didn't want to; unorganised
6		x	Did not respond to calls
10	x		Unwilling to commit weekend
16	x		Wanted only the Sunday after-noon group
17	x		Left pretesting session after partially completing paperwork
19		x	Did not show up for Sunday afternoon group
23		x	Became very ill; was in hospital
25		x	Did not return calls; did not attend Sunday afternoon group
29	x		Screened out; not in black or white ethnic group
32	x		Screened out; not in black or white ethnic group
33	x		Rejected -- highly unstable; diagnosed "Borderline Personality" by own therapist
34	x		Could not be contacted

<u>Subject No.</u>	<u>Before</u>	<u>After</u>	<u>Reason</u>
	<u>Randomisation</u>		
35		x	Chose not to participate
36		x	Chose not to participate
37		x	Chose not to participate
41		x	Chose not to participate
44		x	Chose not to participate
45		x	Could not be contacted
46		x	Chose to withdraw due to conflict with weekend group
47		x	Chose to withdraw due to conflict with Sunday afternoon group
49	x		Screened out, not in black or white ethnic group

APPENDIX D

Pretest Measures

Date _____ Name _____

Psychosocial History Screening Questionnaire (PHSQ) (Patient/Client Form) Original Version

PLEASE CIRCLE OR CHECK THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE.

1-3	1. AGE _____	SEX 2. _____	M (1) F (2)	DATE OF BIRTH _____
4	3. Racial-ethnic background			
	1 _____ American Indian	3 _____ Oriental	5 _____ White	
	2 _____ Mexican-American	4 _____ Black	6 _____ Other	
5	4. What is your current marital status?			
	Single 1	Married 2	Re-married 3	Divorced 4
			Separated 5	Widowed 6
6	5. What is the highest grade you have attended in school?			
	8th or less 1	Some high school 2	High school graduate 3	Tech/trade school 4
			Some college 5	Four or more years of college 6
7-8	6. When employed, what is your primary occupation?			
	01 _____ never employed	07 _____ farmer		
	02 _____ housewife	08 _____ white collar worker (sales/clerical/technician)		
	03 _____ student	09 _____ level I professional (BA, MA or equivalent)		
	04 _____ retired	10 _____ level II professional (Ph.D., M.D. or equivalent)		
	05 _____ unskilled laborer (no formal preparation)	11 _____ small or medium business/proprietor or manager		
	06 _____ skilled laborer (informal or formal preparation)	12 _____ large business/administrative personnel		
		13 _____ large business/proprietor or executive		
9-10	7. When employed, what is your spouse's/partner's occupation?			
	00 _____ Check here if no spouse	07 _____ former		
	01 _____ never employed	08 _____ white collar worker (sales/clerical/technician)		
	02 _____ housewife	09 _____ level I professional (BA, MA or equivalent)		
	03 _____ student	10 _____ level II professional (Ph.D., M.D. or equivalent)		
	04 _____ retired	11 _____ small or medium business/proprietor or manager		
	05 _____ unskilled laborer (no formal preparation)	12 _____ large business/administrative personnel		
	06 _____ skilled laborer (informal or formal preparation)	13 _____ large business/proprietor or executive		
11	8. What is your family income (yours & spouse's/partner's. If not married, only yours)?			
	01 _____ 0 -2,499	07 _____ 15,000-17,499		
	02 _____ 2,500-4,999	08 _____ 17,500-19,999		
	03 _____ 5,000-7,499	09 _____ 20,000-24,999		
	04 _____ 7,500-9,999	10 _____ 25,000-29,999		
	05 _____ 10,000-12,499	11 _____ 30,000 +		
	06 _____ 12,500-14,999			

Instructions

This questionnaire asks about psychological and social areas where people sometimes have difficulty. Please answer all of the questions to help us provide for you the best health care we can.

Answer each question by circling the number which best describes you. It is very important not to leave any questions blank. If you are not sure how to answer any question, put an X by the number of the question and we will help you with it.

EXAMPLE 1:

	Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Very Satisfied
How satisfied are you with the number of close friends you have?		1	2	3	4	5	6

(A circle around the 2 means the person is moderately dissatisfied with the number of close friends.)

EXAMPLE 2:

	Con- stantly	Almost Always	Fre- quently	Occasion- ally	Rarely	Never	
How frequently does your temper create problems for you or others?		1	2	3	4	5	6

(A circle around 1 means the person's temper constantly creates a problem for him/her or others.)

EXAMPLE 3:

Do you have any current legal problems or lawsuits pending?	Yes	No
---	-----	----

(Some questions will ask you for either a 'yes' or a 'no' response as in the above example.)

	Very Dissatisfied					Very Satisfied
1. How satisfied are you with your financial status over the last year?	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Whether or not you are a wage earner, how satisfied are you with your current occupational status or conditions?	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. How satisfied are you with your current educational level?	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. How satisfied are you with the way you spend your recreational or leisure time?	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. How satisfied are you with the importance of religion in your life?	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. How satisfied are you with your frequency of sexual activity over the last few months?	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. How satisfied are you with your sexual partner(s) in the last few months?	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. How satisfied are you with how you use alcohol?	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. How satisfied are you with your use of non-prescribed drugs?	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. How satisfied are you with your ability to stand up for your thoughts and ideas with other people (such as at work, with family members, friends and acquaintances)?	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. How satisfied are you with your ability to let other people know your feelings or emotions, such as sadness, anger or affection?	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. How satisfied are you with your ability to make friends?	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Do you have a primary or significant relationship that is currently active with a spouse, girlfriend or boyfriend?	Yes 1		No 2			
	Very Dissatisfied					Very Satisfied
14. If you answered Yes to question 13, how satisfied are you with that relationship? (Leave blank if you answered No to question 13.)	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. How satisfied are you with your current living situation?	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. How satisfied are you with your current marital status whether married, single, divorced, or separated?	1	2	3	4	5	6

How concerned are you about any of the following problems with regard to any person close to you?	Very Concerned						Not Concerned					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Drug or alcohol use?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
18. Difficulty with their behavior?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
19. Difficulty in school or occupation?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
20. Sexual problems?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
21. Difficulty with friends?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
22. Repeated or long-standing illness?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
23. Problems in your relationship with that person?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
							Con- stantly	Almost Always	Fre- quently	Occasion- ally	Rarely	Never
24. In the last few months how often have you had difficulty with sleeping?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
25. In the last few months how often have you felt unusually fatigued or tired?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
26. In the last few months how often have you felt yourself to be discouraged or depressed?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
27. In the last few months how often have you had difficulty making decisions?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
28. How frequently does your temper create problems for you or others?	1	2	3	4	5	6						
29. In the last few months, have you had thoughts of wanting to hurt or injure yourself or others?	Yes			No								
30. In the last few months, have you had thoughts of dying or ending your life?	Yes			No								
31. Have you ever attempted to harm yourself or to end your life?	Yes			No								
32. In the last few months, have you taken an overdose of drugs?	Yes			No								
33. In the last few months, have you been crying more than usual?	Yes			No								
34. In the last few months, have you had episodes of panic or fear?	Yes			No								
35. Do you have any current legal problems or lawsuits pending?	Yes			No								
36. Are there any problems of concern to you that were not mentioned in this questionnaire?	Yes			No								

Date _____ Name _____

Psychosocial History Screening Questionnaire (PHSQ) (Patient/Client Form)

Adapted Version

PLEASE CIRCLE OR CHECK THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE.

1-3	1. AGE _____	SEX 2. _____	M (1) F (2)	DATE OF BIRTH _____			
4	3. Racial-ethnic background	1 _____ American Indian	3 _____ Oriental	5 _____ White			
	3a. Religion	2 _____ Mexican-American	4 _____ Black	6 _____ Other			
5	4. What is your current marital status?	Single 1	Married 2	Re-married 3	Divorced 4	Separated 5	Widowed 6
	5. What is the highest grade you have attended in school?	8th or less 1	Some high school 2	High school graduate 3	Tech/trade school 4	Some college 5	Four or more years of college 6
7-8	6. When employed, what is your primary occupation?						
	01 _____ never employed	02 _____ housewife	03 _____ student	04 _____ retired	05 _____ unskilled laborer (no formal preparation)	06 _____ skilled laborer (informal or formal preparation)	07 _____ farmer
							08 _____ white collar worker (sales/clerical/technician)
							09 _____ level I professional (BA, MA or equivalent)
							10 _____ level II professional (Ph.D., M.D. or equivalent)
							11 _____ small or medium business/proprietor or manager
							12 _____ large business/administrative personnel
							13 _____ large business/proprietor or executive
9-10	7. When employed, what is your spouse's/partner's occupation?						
	00 _____ Check here if no spouse	01 _____ never employed	02 _____ housewife	03 _____ student	04 _____ retired	05 _____ unskilled laborer (no formal preparation)	06 _____ skilled laborer (informal or formal preparation)
							07 _____ farmer
							08 _____ white collar worker (sales/clerical/technician)
							09 _____ level I professional (BA, MA or equivalent)
							10 _____ level II professional (Ph.D., M.D. or equivalent)
							11 _____ small or medium business/proprietor or manager
							12 _____ large business/administrative personnel
							13 _____ large business/proprietor or executive
11	8. What is your family income (yours & spouse's/partner's. If not married, only yours)?						
	01 _____ 0 - 2,499	02 _____ 2,500 - 4,999	03 _____ 5,000 - 7,499	04 _____ 7,500 - 9,999	05 _____ 10,000 - 12,499	06 _____ 12,500 - 14,999	07 _____ 15,000 - 17,499
							08 _____ 17,500 - 19,999
							09 _____ 20,000 - 24,999
							10 _____ 25,000 - 29,999
							11 _____ 30,000 +

Instructions

Answer each question by circling the number which best describes you. It is very important not to leave any questions blank. If you are not sure how to answer any question, put an X by the number of the question and we will help you with it.

EXAMPLE 1:

	Very Dissatisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Very Satisfied
How satisfied are you with the number of close friends you have?			(2)				

(A circle around the 2 means the person is moderately dissatisfied with the number of close friends.)

EXAMPLE 2:

	Con- stantly	Almost Always	Fre- quently	Occasion- ally	Rarely	Never		
How frequently does your temper create problems for you or others?			(1)	2	3	4	5	6

(A circle around 1 means the person's temper constantly creates a problem for him/her or others.)

EXAMPLE 3:

Do you have any current legal problems or lawsuits pending?	Yes	(No)				
---	-----	------	--	--	--	--

(Some questions will ask you for either a 'yes' or a 'no' response as in the above example.)

	Very Dissatisfied					Very Satisfied
1-56 1. How satisfied are you with your financial status over the last year?	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Whether or not you are a wage earner, how satisfied are you with your current occupational status or conditions?	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. How satisfied are you with your current educational level?	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. How satisfied are you with the way you spend your recreational or leisure time?	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. How satisfied are you with the importance of religion in your life?	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. How satisfied are you with how you use alcohol?	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. How satisfied are you with your use of non-prescribed drugs?	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. How satisfied are you with your ability to stand up for your thoughts and ideas with other people (such as at work, with family members, friends and acquaintances)?	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. How satisfied are you with your ability to let other people know your feelings or emotions, such as sadness, anger or affection?	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. How satisfied are you with your ability to make friends?	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Do you have a primary or significant relationship that is currently active with a spouse, girlfriend or boyfriend?	Yes 1		No 2			
	Very Dissatisfied					Very Satisfied
12. If you answered Yes to question 11, how satisfied are you with that relationship? (Leave blank if you answered No to question 13.)	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. How satisfied are you with your current living situation?	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. How satisfied are you with your current marital status whether married, single, divorced, or separated?	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Con- stantly	Almost Always	Fre- quently	Occasion- ally	Rarely	Never
15. In the last few months how often have you had difficulty with sleeping?	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. In the last few months how often have you felt unusually fatigued or tired?	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. In the last few months how often have you felt yourself to be discouraged or depressed?	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. In the last few months how often have you had difficulty making decisions?	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. How frequently does your temper create problems for you or others?	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. In the last few months, have you had thoughts of wanting to hurt or injure yourself or others?	Yes			No		
21. In the last few months, have you had thoughts of dying or ending your life?	Yes			No		
22. Have you ever attempted to harm yourself or to end your life?	Yes			No		
23. In the last few months, have you taken an overdose of drugs?	Yes			No		
24. In the last few months, have you been crying more than usual?	Yes			No		
25. In the last few months, have you had episodes of panic or fear?	Yes			No		
26. Do you have any current legal problems or lawsuits pending?	Yes			No		
27. Are there any problems of concern to you that were not mentioned in this questionnaire?	Yes			No		

Changes on the original version of the E scale:

"Negro" was changed to "Black."

This item was deleted:

"Zootsuiters prove that when people of their type have too much money and freedom, they just take advantage and cause trouble."

This item was reworded:

"Certain religious sects who refuse to salute the flag should be forced to conform to such patriotic action, or else be abolished."

It appears as item 15:

"Certain groups of people who refuse to salute the flag should be forced to conform to such patriotic action, or else should be punished."

This item was reworded:

"Filipinos are all right in their place, but they carry it too far when they dress lavishly and go around with white girls."

It appears as item 16:

"Orientals are all right in their place, but they carry it too far when they dress lavishly and go around with black women." (White women was used on the version for white subjects.)

This item was reworded:

"The best guarantee of our national security is for America to have the biggest army and navy in the world and the secret of the atom bomb."

It appears as item 19:

"The best guarantee of our national security is for America to have the biggest army and navy in the world and the power of nuclear weapons."

Ethnocentrism Scale (E Scale)For Black Subjects

The following statements refer to opinions regarding a number of social groups and issues, about which some people agree and others disagree. Please mark each statement in the left-hand margin according to your agreement or disagreement as follows:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| +1: Slight support,
agreement | -1: Slight opposition,
disagreement |
| +2: Moderate support,
agreement | -2: Moderate opposition,
disagreement |
| +3: Strong support,
agreement | -3: Strong opposition,
disagreement |

ANSWERS

- _____ 1. One trouble with Jewish businessmen is that they stick together and prevent other people from having a fair chance in competition.
- _____ 2. I can hardly imagine myself marrying a Jew.
- _____ 3. There may be a few exceptions, but in general Jews are pretty much alike.
- _____ 4. The trouble with letting Jews into a nice neighborhood is that they gradually give it a typical Jewish atmosphere.
- _____ 5. To end prejudice against Jews, the first step is for the Jews to try sincerely to get rid of their harmful and irritating faults.
- _____ 6. There is something different and strange about Jews; it's hard to tell what they are thinking and planning, and what makes them tick.
- _____ 7. Whites have their rights, but it is best to keep them in their own districts and schools and to prevent too much contact with Blacks.

8. It would be a mistake ever to have Whites for foremen and leaders over Blacks.
9. White musicians may sometimes be as good as Black musicians, but it is a mistake to have mixed Black-White bands.
10. Manual labour and unskilled jobs seem to fit the White mentality and ability better than more skilled or responsible work.
11. The people who raise all the talk about putting Whites on the same level as Blacks are mostly radical agitators trying to stir up conflicts.
12. Most Whites are overbearing and disagreeable if not kept in their place.
13. The worst danger to real Americanism during the last 50 years has come from foreign ideas and agitators.
14. Now that a world organization is set up, America must be sure that she loses none of her independence and complete power as a sovereign nation.
15. Certain groups of people who refuse to salute the flag should be forced to conform to such patriotic action, or else should be punished.
16. Orientals are all right in their place, but they carry it too far when they dress lavishly and go around with Black women.
17. America may not be perfect, but the American way has brought us about as close as human beings can get to a perfect society.
18. It is only natural and right for each person to think that his family is better than any other.
19. The best guarantee of our national security is for America to have the biggest army and navy in the world and the power of nuclear weapons.

Ethnocentrism Scale (E Scale)For White Subjects

The following statements refer to opinions regarding a number of social groups and issues, about which some people agree and others disagree. Please mark each statement in the left-hand margin according to your agreement or disagreement as follows:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| +1: Slight support,
agreement | -1: Slight opposition,
disagreement |
| +2: Moderate support,
agreement | -2: Moderate opposition,
disagreement |
| +3: Strong support,
agreement | -3: Strong opposition,
disagreement |

ANSWERS

- _____ 1. One trouble with Jewish businessmen is that they stick together and prevent other people from having a fair chance in competition.
- _____ 2. I can hardly imagine myself marrying a Jew.
- _____ 3. There may be a few exceptions, but in general Jews are pretty much alike.
- _____ 4. The trouble with letting Jews into a nice neighborhood is that they gradually give it a typical Jewish atmosphere.
- _____ 5. To end prejudice against Jews, the first step is for the Jews to try sincerely to get rid of their harmful and irritating faults.
- _____ 6. There is something different and strange about Jews; it's hard to tell what they are thinking and planning, and what makes them tick.
- _____ 7. Blacks have their rights, but it is best to keep them in their own districts and schools and to prevent too much contact with Whites.

- _____ 8. It would be a mistake ever to have Blacks for foremen and leaders over Whites.
- _____ 9. Black musicians may sometimes be as good as White musicians, but it is a mistake to have mixed Black-White bands.
- _____ 10. Manual labour and unskilled jobs seem to fit the Black mentality and ability better than more skilled or responsible work.
- _____ 11. The people who raise all the talk about putting Blacks on the same level as Whites are mostly radical agitators trying to stir up conflicts.
- _____ 12. Most Blacks are overbearing and disagreeable if not kept in their place.
- _____ 13. The worst danger to real Americanism during the last 50 years has come from foreign ideas and agitators.
- _____ 14. Now that a world organization is set up, America must be sure that she loses none of her independence and complete power as a sovereign nation.
- _____ 15. Certain groups of people who refuse to salute the flag should be forced to conform to such patriotic action, or else should be punished.
- _____ 16. Orientals are all right in their place, but they carry it too far when they dress lavishly and go around with White women.
- _____ 17. America may not be perfect, but the American way has brought us about as close as human beings can get to a perfect society.
- _____ 18. It is only natural and right for each person to think that his family is better than any other.
- _____ 19. The best guarantee of our national security is for America to have the biggest army and navy in the world and the power of nuclear weapons.

California F ScaleAll Subjects

The following statements refer to opinions regarding a number of social groups and issues, about which some people agree and others disagree. Please mark each statement in the left-hand margin according to your agreement or disagreement as follows:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| +1: Slight support,
agreement | -1: Slight opposition,
disagreement |
| +2: Moderate support,
agreement | -2: Moderate opposition,
disagreement |
| +3: Strong support,
agreement | -3: Strong opposition,
disagreement |

ANSWERS

_____ Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.

_____ No weakness or difficulty can hold us back if we have enough will power.

_____ Science has its place, but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.

_____ Human nature being what it is, there will always be war and conflict.

_____ Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.

_____ When a person has a problem or worry, it is best for him not to think about it, but to keep busy with more cheerful things.

_____ A person who has bad manners, habits, and breeding can hardly expect to get along with decent people.

_____ What youth needs most is strict discipline, rugged determination, and the will to work and fight for family and country.

Some people are born with an urge to jump from high places.

Nowadays when so many different kinds of people move around and mix together so much, a person has to protect himself especially carefully against catching an infection or disease from them.

An insult to our honor should always be punished.

Young people sometimes get rebellious ideas, but as they grow up they ought to get over them and settle down.

It is best to use some prewar authorities in Germany to keep order and prevent chaos.

What this country needs most, more than laws and political programs, is a few courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can put their faith.

Sex crimes, such as rape and attacks on children, deserve more than imprisonment; such criminals ought to be publicly whipped, or worse.

People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong.

There is hardly anything lower than a person who does not feel a great love, gratitude, and respect for his parents.

Someday it will probably be shown that astrology can explain a lot of things.

Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.

Wars and social trouble may someday be ended by an earthquake or flood that will destroy the whole world.

Most of our social problems would be solved if we could somehow get rid of the immoral, crooked, and feeble-minded people.

The wild sex life of the old Greeks and Romans was tame compared to some of the goings-on in this country, even in places where people might least expect it.

If people would talk less and work more, everybody would be better off.

_____ Most people don't realize how much our lives are controlled by plots hatched in secret places.

_____ Homosexuals are hardly better than criminals and ought to be severely punished.

_____ The businessman and the manufacturer are much more important to society than the artist and the professor.

_____ No sane, normal decent person could even think of hurting a close friend or relative.

_____ Familiarity breeds contempt.

_____ Nobody ever learned anything really important except through suffering.

APPENDIX EInformation for Interviewers and PretestersInterviewers

The purpose of this research is to test the effects of human relations training, between black and white adults, on blood pressure and other factors.

This is part of a doctoral research project with Loughborough University in England.

Some volunteers will be asked to attend a workshop (Friday evening to Sunday evening). Other volunteers will be asked to take part in a discussion group (Sunday afternoon for 2 hours or so). Assignment to the workshop or task group will be determined by random assignment.

All volunteers have been asked to attend a pre-testing session in January (2½ hours).

All volunteers will be asked to set aside four weekends in February and March because we have no way of knowing what group they'll be assigned to, or what Sunday afternoon they'll be assigned to (in the case of the discussion group).

The weekends are: February 18, 19, 20; February 25, 26, 27; March 4, 5, 6; March 11, 12 13.

There's a delayed posttesting session in June* -- the 4th (Saturday) or the 12th (Sunday) for 2½ hours.

Every volunteer who participates in the pretesting session in January will be contacted by telephone and advised if he/she is selected (selection is by random choice), and if he/she is selected, what group he/she has been assigned to.

* This date was changed to April to reduce mortality.

Important Points to Remember:

1. Participation for those selected will be only one weekend, or one Sunday afternoon.
2. We have no way of knowing what group a volunteer will be assigned to.
3. Participants will be chosen randomly, AND assigned to groups randomly.
4. Pretesting questionnaires -- their purpose is for us to get to know the volunteers.
5. This research project attempts to have participants undergo various conditions of human relations training -- to see the effects of human relations training on blood pressure. Will blood pressure go up, go down, remain the same? We want to monitor blood pressure changes before and after the workshop or task.
6. The workshop and discussions are educational in nature.
7. We are asking to tape-record only the one-hour discussion task to see how it correlates with blood pressure.

The Workshop Overview

A Cabin in the Mountains

1. Who am I? Where am I going?
2. If certain things were to occur, what needs would I have?
3. Posting and explaining of information about our current perceptions.
4. Discussion of the workshop's progress.
5. Practice of communication skills.
6. Summary, opinions, reactions to the workshop.
7. Discussion of task (This will be tape-recorded).
8. Posttest, including blood pressure monitoring.
9. Drive back to Denver with group.

10. Participants will be contacted for the delayed post-testing in April.
11. After April, results will be available to volunteers who are interested.

Discussion Group*

Denver Location

1. Participants will be asked to discuss a particular topic for one hour. (This will be tape-recorded.)
2. Afterwards, they will be posttested (questionnaires are the same as in pretesting today) including blood pressure monitoring.
3. They are free to leave.
4. Participants will be contacted for the delayed post-testing in April.
5. After April, results will be available to volunteers who are interested.

* This was described as a discussion group so that subjects who were assigned to it would be unaware that it was, in fact, the Control Group.

Pretesting Plan

Volunteers come in through the front door. Pretester greets, asks them for name and shows them to the available testing room. The other pretester holds their packet until the room is full, then distributes the packets. (He/She then goes to the door to greet other volunteers, showing them to their rooms.) The other pretester reads the instruction sheets to the volunteers in a serious voice. He/She closes the door so that they have quiet while taking the tests.

Pretesters stay around the hall area to answer any questions. When the volunteers are finished, take their packet from them and show them upstairs to the end room. Ask them to wait for the interview, putting their name on a list so that we know who is to be interviewed next. Interviewers can check the list to know whom to interview.

Pretesters

People will come in. We'll have a list of everyone's names (e.g., 9:00 all volunteers scheduled for pretesting will be on your list). Please show them to the first room (5-6 chairs). When the room is filled, please give them their packets. (Take turns). One pretester can distribute the packets, and the other can show people to the rooms.

When volunteers have their packets, and when the room is filled, please (take turns) read these instructions:

In your packet you will find 4 questionnaires. Work at your own pace. You have as much time as you need to complete them. There is no time limit. These are not tests of ability. There are no right or wrong answers. This is just an attempt for us to get to know you better.

Are there any questions?

Question 18 and 19. If they answer 1,2,3 Ask:
18. What's going on in your life right now?
19. When do you get mad?

Question 20. If they answer "Yes" Ask:
You sound angry. What makes you want
to hurt or injure yourself or others?

Question 21, 22 and 23. If they answer "Yes" Ask:
What makes you want to die?

Question 24 and 25. If they answer "Yes" Ask:
What's going on in your life?

Question 26. If they answer "Yes" Ask:
Would you explain your legal problems?

Question 27. If they answer "Yes" Ask:
What concerns do you have?

6. Are you on any medications? (prescribed by doctor?)
7. Have you had any experience in human relations training?

APPENDIX FSubject Informed Consent SheetsINFORMED CONSENT

Dear Volunteers:

This research will be studying the effects of human relations training between Black and White adults.

We do not foresee any risks to you as a result of your participation in this research. This study is part of a doctoral research project with Loughborough University in England.

After pre-testing today, if you decide to participate in this project, you will be asked to take part in one weekend workshop or a discussion group to which you are randomly assigned; and a delayed post-testing session in approximately three months*. The testing consists of questionnaires, ideas about other groups of people and medical and demographic data.

We have asked for research volunteers; there will be no monetary compensation for your participation in this project.⁺ However, we hope that you will learn communications skills, and gain insight into your relationships with other adults. Your participation will add to the knowledge science has about human relationships. For a one-hour period only, we will take a sample audio-tape recording of your conversations.

* This was later changed to 1 1/2 months to reduce mortality.

+ An incentive was ultimately given to assist recruitment efforts.

All information about you from testing and participation is strictly confidential. It will be assigned a number, and those scoring the questionnaires, etc. will not have access to your names. All information will be stored in a locked file, to which only a few individuals will have access. "Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary, and you are free to discontinue participation at any time" (Collett, 1979, p.116).

Each of you will have a chance to ask any questions pertaining to this project before you sign the attached consent. We will also be available to answer any further questions during the project.

Sincerely,

Linda Marsanico-Byrne
Ph.D. Student

Duncan Cramer, Ph.D.
Tutor

I do hereby consent to participate in the human relations training research described above. I understand that my participation is voluntary, and that I may terminate my participation at any time, and that my responses are completely confidential.

Your name _____

Your signature _____

Today's date _____

_____ Check here if you want to receive a copy of the results of the project when it has been completed.

APPENDIX GDESCRIPTION OF EXERCISES USED IN THIS STUDYLeader's GuideEXERCISE I

Orientation: 9:30-10:30 p.m. Friday Night

Goals

- A. To have group members get to know each other.
- B. To explain the cover story of the study: the effect of human relations training on blood pressure. To monitor blood pressure.
- C. To define group norms.
- D. To set cognitive framework for change with Johari Window.
- E. To set closure.

Agenda Overview

- A. Introduction.
- B. Cover Story Explanation.
- C. Norms for Group.
- D. Johari Window.
- E. Closure.

Agenda Format

- A. Introduction
 - 1. Facilitator introduces him/herself, giving information on interests, work, and plans for the future. Include some moderate self disclosure to set the pace.
 - 2. Ask members to do the same, asking questions which will help the members open up, e.g., What brought you to Denver? Have you always liked photography?

B. Cover Story Explanation

1. Outline the objectives. This is a doctoral research project with Loughborough University in England. Its purpose is to monitor any blood pressure change (e.g., does blood pressure go up, down, or remain the same) which occurs as a result of human relations training. The study will add to the body of knowledge that science has about blood pressure fluctuations.
2. Monitor blood pressure.

C. Norms for Group

General messages from facilitator:

1. Caring (showing affection, touching - if you are comfortable with this).
2. Self disclose minimally. Do not become an effective group member (in Rogerian terms); use self disclosure when it will help the group share/become comfortable, e.g., we are all prejudiced as products of this society.
3. We are building self-concept.
4. This is an educational workshop rather than a romantic encounter.

What is expected of the members.

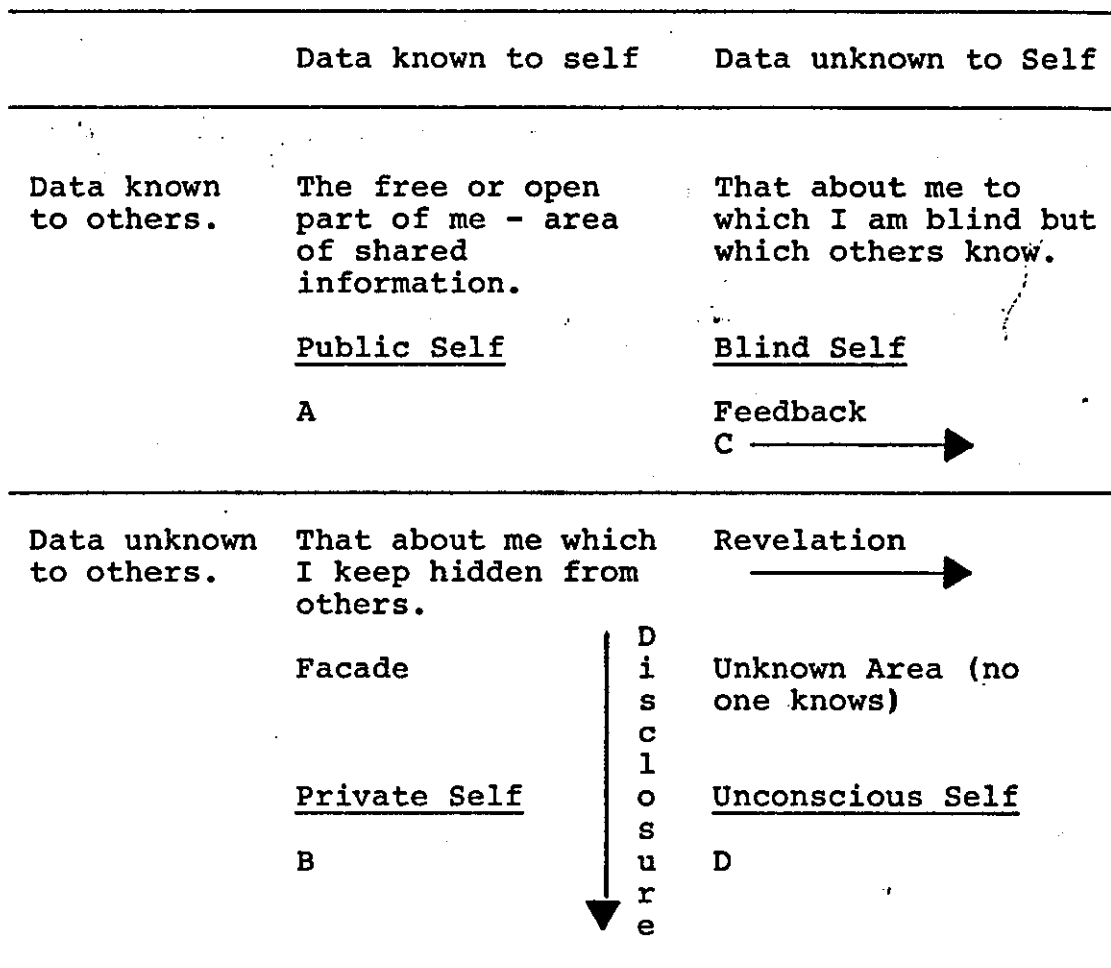
- a) It's okay to be open, to share, to be angry.
- b) We are going to build trust.
- c) Remembering first names; preface questions with the individual's name, e.g., Mary, I hope you will share your reaction with the group.
- d) One person talks at a time.
- e) Confidentiality.
- f) Open discussion: group discussion involves all members; members can feel free to enter the discussion, providing that one member speaks at a time.
- g) We are all important.
- h) Each person is responsible for own participation, and for using "I" messages (from the very beginning - owning feelings and statements).

- i) Group is responsible for itself, making decisions on when to break for meals, confronting members, e.g., if a member dominates the conversation, offer a mirror observation - John, Mary; John, Ed; John, Joan (Liss, 1983).

Encourage the members to confront a member; if this fails, then 'process' the difficulty, i.e., Mary has been ignoring the issue of _____, and no one in the group has touched the subject. I'm sharing this observation with you.

- D. Johari Window (named for Joe Luft and Harry Inghram, Western T.L. in group development, 1955) adapted for this study from Liss, 1983. This enables us to learn more about who we are, by drawing a window with four sections. This drawing represents the person as a whole, in relation to other people.

The Whole Person



Section A

Part of self which is available to self and others.

Section B

Part of self we don't share with others.

Section C

Part of self which is obvious to others but unknown to self. It could be a style or a speech pattern.

Section D

Part of self which is unknown to self and others.

We can share (give and receive) information about ourselves, and open the sections of the windows through feedback, disclosure and revelation.

Feedback

Verbal reactions from others on our behaviour. Feedback aims to be constructive and supportive.

Example:

Joan: "You're really sincere, Carol. I like you, and respect your commitment to the group. I want to share this: your manner of speech is stylised. Sometimes you sound aloof, while other times you sound involved. When you're aloof I feel far away from you".

Disclosure:

Sharing something personal with others.

Example:

Carol: "Thanks for the feedback, Joan. I become aloof in my speech when I feel threatened".

Revelation:

Becoming aware of something (previously preconscious) about self. This occurs spontaneously.

Example:

Walter (another member who has been observing Joan and Carol). He is thinking to himself: "This is something that I do as well. I feel threatened when my colleagues talk about their parents' wealth and social position".

In summary, here is what Liss (1983) and his colleagues at the Center for Organizational and Personal Effectiveness, Inc., (C.O.P.E. Inc. (1976)) say about psychological and interpersonal growth and the Johari Window:

The more one's FREE self coincides with one's whole self, the more a person shares of himself with the world, the better he communicates his true self to others, the less tension there is within himself.

In a new group, Area A is very small; there is not much free and spontaneous interaction. As the group grows and matures, Area A expands in size and this usually means we are freer to be more like ourselves, and to perceive others as they really are. Area B shrinks in size as Area A grows larger. We find it less necessary to hide or deny things we know or feel. In an atmosphere of growing mutual trust, there is less need for hiding thoughts or feelings... It takes longer for Area C to reduce in size; because usually there are good reasons of a psychological nature to blind ourselves to the things we feel or do. Area D perhaps changes somewhat during our most intense learning experiences, but we can assume that such changes occur even more slowly than shifts in Area II...

E. Closure

1. Summarise orientation and its results; talk about what was happening (process).
2. Ask for members' reactions (i.e., "I" statements) to it by going around the room one by one, asking for reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise.

NOTE: Facilitators are asked not to confront members at this time, but to wait until Exercise III on Saturday.

EXERCISE II

Self Concept Exercise (Adapted from C.O.P.E. INC., 1976)
10:30 - 12 Midnight, Friday Night

Goals

- A. To have members focus on 'Who am I?' 'Where am I going?'.
- B. To have members explore concrete feelings and attitudes around their 'hopes, fears, needs and aspirations' in a low risk exercise (Liss & Robinson, 1978, p.170).
- C. To have members discuss these hopes, fears, needs and aspirations with the group.
- D. To process the similarity (i.e., between blacks and whites) of these needs.
- E. To set the pace of cultural awareness.
- F. To build self concept.
- G. To get closure.

Agenda Overview

- A. Instructions.
- B. Summarising/Categorising Responses.
- C. Discussion of Similarity.
- D. Closure.

Agenda Format

- A. Instruction.

Hand out the two sheets with coats of arms. Ask members to choose the coat of arms they would like to use. Ask members to create their own coat of arms by drawing the answer which expresses their feelings in the consecutive sections of the coat of arms.

Before they begin writing, ask them to choose a coat of arms. (Usually, people choose the European one.) Tell the members that the coat on page 261 is an African shield. Most often people choose the European shield because it is familiar to them. We do not know much about Black history/culture in this country. Generally, it is not taught in the schools. When members have completed the drawings, ask them to share their responses with the group.

Message from facilitators:

1. It's okay to ask questions
2. It's okay to say I am not ready to share this yet.
3. Relax and be proud
4. We are building self concept

B. Summarising/Categorising Responses

List on newsprint or chalkboard the major categories generated by the members. Try to subsume minor or similar items under more global concepts so that it is easy for the members to focus on concepts rather than nitty gritty, e.g., "I love my sister" gets subsumed under family.

C. Discussion of Similarity

Help the members reach conclusions about the similarity of their responses and needs and aspirations by asking questions like: "Do you notice similarities or trends in these responses?" "Who shares similar reactions?"

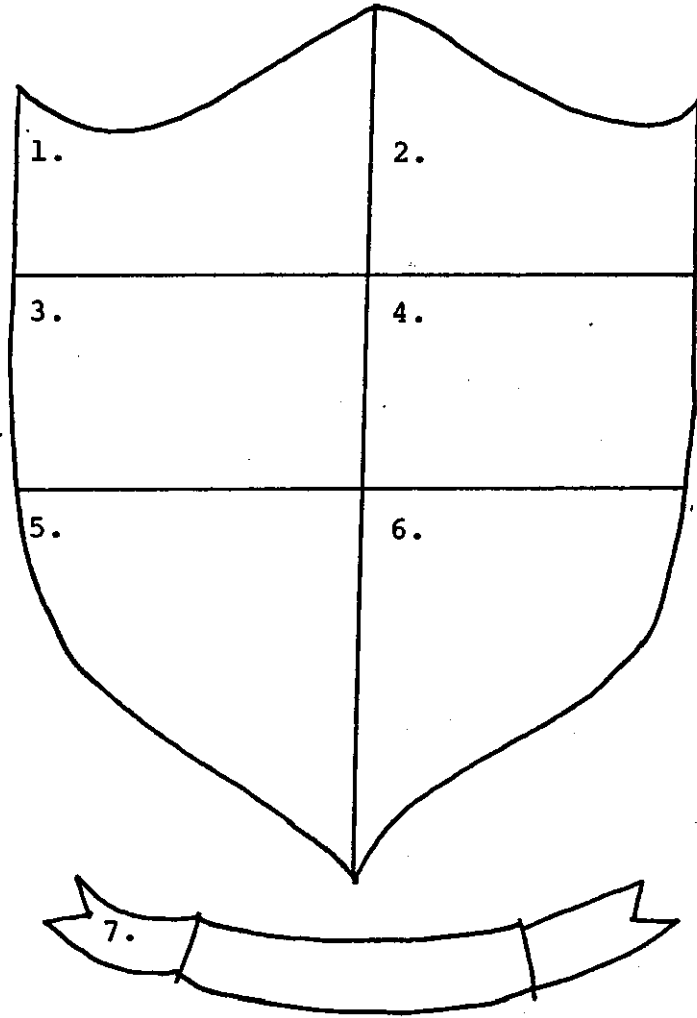
D. Closure

1. Summarise the exercise and its results; talk about what was happening (process).
2. Get members' reactions to it by going around the room one by one, asking for reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise.

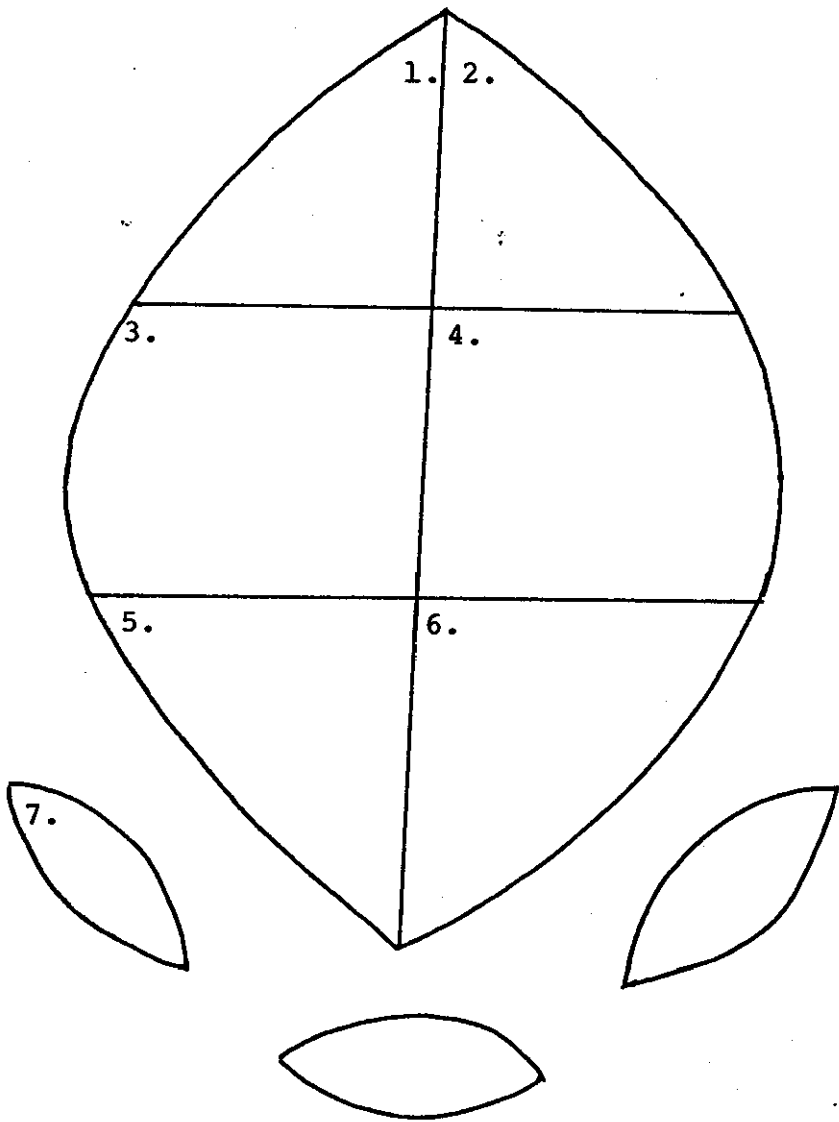
Personal Coat of Arms (C.O.P.E. INC., 1976)

1. Express in a drawing the most significant event in your life - 0 to present.
2. Express in a drawing your happiest moment in the past year.
3. If you had one year to live and were guaranteed success in whatever you attempted, what would you attempt? Draw a picture expressing your answer.
4. Express in a drawing something you're good at.
5. Complete, I want to be ...
6. Complete, I hurt when ...
7. If you died today, what three words would you most like to be said of you?

EUROPEAN SHIELD



AFRICAN SHIELD



EXERCISE III

NASA Exercise for Survival on the Moon
(C.O.P.E., INC., 1976).

Saturday Morning

Goals

- A. To teach members the importance of group effort (i.e., vs. competition or individual effort).

Agenda Overview

- A. Description of exercise.
B. NASA Decision Form.
C. NASA Group Worksheet.
D. Closure.

Agenda Format

- A. Description of Exercise.

Tell the members that we will be looking at team building, i.e., how we work in a group. Begin by breaking up the members into two groups of six members, getting equal numbers of sex and race in each group.

- B. NASA Decision Form.

Just before the members break into teams, ask each individual to complete the NASA Decision Form. Read the instructions while they have the worksheet in front of them, and give them 10 - 15 minutes to complete this sheet.

- C. NASA Group Worksheet.

After their individual lists are complete, ask them to rank order their survival items as a group. They are urged to approve the rank ordering by consensus rather than by using majority rule techniques.

When this is complete the person responsible calculates the difference between the average individual scores and the group scores. Almost invariably, the group scores are superior to the individual scores. The difference between the individual and group scores (these are more accurate) illustrates the rewards of group effort.

D. Closure.

Summarise the exercise and its results; talk about what was happening (process).

Ask for members reactions (i.e., "I" statements) to it by going around the room one by one, asking for reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise.

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Elizabeth, New Jersey. 07202

NASA EXERCISE DECISION FORM

NAME _____

GROUP _____

Instructions: You are a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Due to mechanical difficulties, however, your ship was forced to land at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. During re-entry and landing much of the equipment aboard was damaged, and, since survival depends on reaching the mother ship, the most critical items available must be chosen for the 200 mile trip. Below are listed the 15 items left intact and undamaged after landing. Your task is to rank order them in terms of their importance in allowing your crew to reach the rendezvous point. Place the number 1 by the most important item, the number 2 by the second most important, and so on through number 15, the least important.

Rank

Items

_____	Box of matches
_____	Food concentrate
_____	Parachute silk
_____	Two .45 calibre pistols
_____	Case of dehydrated Pet milk
_____	Two 100 lb. tanks of oxygen
_____	Solar powered portable heating unit
_____	50 feet of nylon rope
_____	Stellar map of the moon's constellation
_____	Life raft (self-contained inflation)
_____	Magnetic compass
_____	Five gallons of water
_____	Chemical signal flares
_____	First aid kit with oral and injection medicine
_____	Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

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NASA EXERCISE GROUP WORKSHEET

Instructions: This is an exercise in group decision-making. Your group is to employ the method of GROUP CONSENSUS in reaching its decision. This means that the prediction for much of the 15 survival items MUST be agreed upon by each group member before it becomes a part of the group decision. Consensus is difficult to reach. Therefore, not every ranking will meet with everyone's complete APPROVAL. Try, as a group, to make each ranking one with which ALL group members can at least partially agree. Here are some guides to use in reaching consensus:

1. Avoid ARGUING for your own individual judgments. Approach the task on the basis of logic, rather than on the basis of who made the decision.
2. Avoid changing your mind ONLY in order to reach agreement and avoid conflict. Support only solutions with which you are able to agree somewhat, at least.
3. Avoid "conflict-reducing" techniques such as majority vote, averaging, or trading, in reaching your decision.
4. View initial agreement as suspect. Find out why there is agreement.

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Items</u>
_____	Box of matches
_____	Food concentrate
_____	Parachute silk
_____	Two .45 calibre pistols
_____	Case of dehydrated Pet milk
_____	Two 100 lb. tanks of oxygen
_____	Solar powered portable heating unit
_____	50 feet of nylon rope
_____	Stellar map of the moon's constellation
_____	Life raft (self-contained inflation)
_____	Magnetic compass
_____	Five gallons of water
_____	Chemical signal flares
_____	First aid kit with oral and injection medicine
_____	Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

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ANSWER KEY FOR SPACE SURVIVAL TASK

Instructions: You are a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Due to mechanical difficulties, however, your ship was forced to land at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. During re-entry and landing much of the equipment aboard was damaged, and, since survival depends on reaching the mother ship, the most critical items available must be chosen for the 200 mile trip. Below are listed the 15 items left intact and undamaged after landing. Your task is to rank order them in terms of their importance in allowing your crew to reach the rendezvous point. Place the number 1 by the most important item, the number 2 by the second most important, and so on through number 15, the least important.

	<u>Rank</u>	<u>Items</u>
Little or no use on moon	<u>15</u>	Box of matches
Supply daily food required	<u>4</u>	Food concentrate
Shelter against sun's rays	<u>8</u>	Parachute silk
Self-propulsion devices could be made from them	<u>11</u>	Two .45 calibre pistols
Food, mixed with water for drinking	<u>12</u>	Case dehydrated Pet milk
Fills respiration requirement	<u>1</u>	Two 100 lb. tanks of oxygen
Useful only if party landed on dark side	<u>13</u>	Solar powered port- able heating unit
Useful in tying injured together, help in climbing	<u>6</u>	50 feet of nylon rope
One of the principal means of finding directions	<u>3</u>	Stellar map of the moon's constellation
CO2 bottles for self-pro- pulsion across chasms, etc.	<u>9</u>	Life raft (self- contained inflation)
Probably no magnetized poles	<u>14</u>	Magnetic compass
Replenishes loss by sweating, etc.	<u>2</u>	Five gallons of water
Distress call when line of sight possible	<u>10</u>	Chemical signal flares
Oral pills or injection medicine valuable	<u>7</u>	First aid kit with oral and injection medicine
Distress signal trans- mitter, possible commun- ication with mother ship	<u>5</u>	Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

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NASA EXERCISE DIRECTION SHEET FOR SCORING

The group recorder will assume the responsibility for directing the scoring. Individuals will:

1. Score the net difference between their answers and the correct answers. For example, if the answer was 9, and the correct answer was 12, the net difference is 3. Three becomes the score for that particular item.
2. Total these scores for an individual score.
3. Next total all individual scores and divide by the number of participants to arrive at an average individual score.
4. Score the net difference between group worksheet answers and the correct answers.
5. Total these scores for a group score.
6. Compare the average individual score with the group score.

RATINGS.

0-20	Excellent
20-30	Good
30-40	Average
40-50	Fair
Over 50	Poor

EXERCISE IV

Intergroup Meeting (Pfeiffer & Jones, 1974)
2:00-4:00 p.m. Saturday

Goals

- A. To have members focus on words and phrases, negative and positive which depict or stereotype each ethnic group.
- B. To help black and white sectors understand how they are perceived by the other group.
- C. To highlight how each group is stereotyped by the other.
- D. To encourage blacks and whites to see themselves as similar.
- E. To improve relations between blacks and whites who are members in this human relations training.
- F. To get closure.

Agenda Overview

- A. Goal Discussion.
- B. Perceiving the Other Group; How do they Perceive Us?
- C. Posting the Explanation of Data.
- D. Responding and Planning.
- E. Sharing and Processing of Beliefs and Attitudes.
- F. Closure.

Agenda Format

- A. Goal Discussion.

Explain that the purpose of this exercise is to focus on positive and negative words and phrases used to depict and stereotype blacks and whites; that honesty is important in getting the most out of the exercise. Explain the sequence of the exercise.

- B. Perceiving the Other Group; How do they Perceive Us?

The groups separate to identify two lists of data on a chalkboard or newsprint: How we see the other group, and How we think the other group sees us. Focus on words and phrases used to depict each ethnic group. The facilitator can rotate between groups.

C. Posting and Explanation of Data.

The two groups join each other in the same room, and one member from each group takes a turn in posting and explaining the data. During this phase, the facilitator helps members to listen and not respond to the content of the feedback, but just to understand it. Questions may be asked only in order to clarify the content, not to respond to it.

D. Responding and Planning.

The groups separate again to discuss the data and to plan how to respond to it when they return to the large group. The spokesperson can list them on chalkboard or newsprint to aid in the planning. The negative and positive implications of words will be discussed so as to illustrate prejudice. The facilitator can rotate between groups.

E. Sharing and Processing of Beliefs and Attitudes.

The two groups join each other to share reactions, and process deeply-rooted but unexamined (i.e., irrational beliefs and attitudes toward each other). Feelings and attitudes of one group toward the other can be described and compared. Ask questions like: "Let's go around the room and give one of our own deeply rooted, yet unexamined beliefs/attitudes about the other group."

F. Closure.

1. Summarise the exercise and its results, talk about what was happening (process).
2. Get members' reactions to it by going around the room one by one, asking for reactions and feelings resulting from the exercise.

EXERCISE VReactions

5:00-6:00 p.m. Saturday

Goals

- A. To check on the stability of the participants.
- B. To discuss any unfinished business, and explore questions.
- C. To process the experience thus far.

Agenda Overview

- A. Issues or questions to be raised.
- B. What are you feeling right now?

Agenda Format

- A. Issues or questions. Plan to talk about the process: What has been happening? Lead a discussion to encourage the members to share, discuss and process any information which is brought up. Useful questions: "Are there any positive or negative issues you want to raise?" "Are there any surprises or disappointments?".
- B. Ask for each member's feelings by going around the room one by one.

EXERCISE VI

Communication Skills (Egan, 1975, 1976)
8:00-11:00 p.m. Saturday

Goals

- A. To teach skills of effective communication to provide members with a vehicle for constructive (vs. destructive) articulation of needs*, and possible compromise especially in preparation for negotiating differences.
- B. To serve as a medium for members to deal with personal concerns and priorities.
- C. To get closure.

Agenda Overview

- A. Goal Discussion.
- B. Teaching of Communication Skills.
- C. Learning in Triads.
- D. Learning in the Group.
- E. Closure.

Two Topics for Discussion:

- a) Racial incident from outside the group/workshop.
- b) Racial awareness/incident from the workshop.

Agenda Format

- A. Goal Discussion.
Why the need for communication skills. A small lecture.
- B. Teaching of Communication Skills.
 - 1. Categories of Communication Skills:
 - i) Stage I - Listening and Understanding
 - ii) Stage II - Responding
 - iii) Stage III - Challenging

* Implicit in the teaching of these skills is the goal of assertiveness. As the member learns to express needs on an ongoing basis, he/she will be learning to be assertive.

i) Stage I - Listening and Understanding

Listening, the beginning stage of responding, involves several important constructs: attending, empathy, respect, genuineness and understanding.

Attending happens before all else. Gear yourself for clearing the mind for listening, e.g., in karate, opponents look each other in the eye and concentrate before starting. Attending is mentally preparing ourselves by ridding ourselves of clutter. Get relaxed and be comfortable. Aids to listening are: eye contact, appropriate facial expression and tone of voice; focusing. Blocks to listening are: wanting to speak yourself,, feeling threatened, shocked, feeling unaccepting or bored, identifying with the speaker and going on your own trip, anticipating what the speaker is going to say.

Empathy refers to communicating that you understand what the speaker is saying, putting yourself in his/her shoes, super, in-depth understanding which is demonstrated by paraphrasing (to be discussed below).

Respect refers to having a non-judgmental attitude for the person as a human being.

Genuineness refers to being open, willing to share yourself as a human being.

Understanding refers to being non-defensive; dynamic rather than static; a person who is understanding shows mutuality, which is characterised by "...each person moving out toward the other in understanding, self-sharing, caring and confrontation" (Egan, 1975, p.133).

- (a) The facilitator (helper role) and a volunteer member of the group (helpee role) will act as helper, helpee with the group as observer to provide a model. The facilitator will point out the various skills as they are being used, e.g., I am now, in thought, being respectful, or genuine. Members are asked to form triads, taking the roles of helper, helpee and observer to practice listening and understanding WITHOUT responding, merely listening to the speaker. Ask the helpee, then the helper, then the observer (in that order) to give feedback for 3 minutes each.

ii) Stage II - Responding

Responding includes paraphrasing, concreteness and self-disclosure skills.

Paraphrasing refers to putting the speaker's essential message into your own words utilising the skills discussed in Stage I. Also, empathy will be further described as having two levels, I and II. Empathy I refers to communicating understanding of the speaker's thoughts and feelings as they are expressed to you, while Empathy II refers to communicating understanding of the speaker's message: thoughts and feelings, that which is implied, hinted at, and non-verbal.

Example:

Empathy I: No one to talk to in my marriage.

Response: You sound lonely.

Empathy II: We haven't gotten along for years. Nothing is right.

Response: Sounds like you're thinking about a separation.

Concreteness refers to moving from the general to the specific in helping the speaker to focus on a particular concern.

Self Disclosure is the sharing of an experience with the speaker if it will aid in the understanding of the problem being discussed.

The facilitator will utilise the same process described above in (a).

iii) Stage III - Challenging

Challenging includes the skills of constructive confrontation, alternative frames of reference, and immediacy.

Constructive Confrontation is the questioning of discrepancies and distortions in another's behaviour so that the individual can achieve a better understanding of that behaviour.

Challenging example: Person talks about anger not being a problem. This is a constructive confrontation: "Could it be that the anger you 'swallow' at faculty meetings doesn't stay down?" From what

you've said, it seems to dribble out somewhat in cynical remarks, aloofness, and uncooperative behaviour. Does this make any sense to you? I'm wondering if I have the correct picture?" (Egan, 1975, p.165).

Alternate Frames of Reference is the offering of a different perspective to another person so that the person may view the behaviour in another way.

Example:

Person talks of an argument with a close friend saying that she hasn't heard from the friend in one month, and that the friend usually calls on a weekly basis: Have you every considered taking more responsibility in this relationship? Could it be that your friend wants to see if you are interested enough to call? (Egan, 1975).

Immediacy refers to exploring a relationship in the here-and-now in order to get a better understanding of the structure and dynamics of that relationship.

Example:

Helpee: "At times you push me too hard. Like right now. And it scares me. You are helping me, but slow down". Helper: "You feel you'd do just as well - or maybe even better - if I held off a bit. That makes sense. You've been working hard". (Egan, 1975, p.176).

The facilitator utilises the same process described above in (a).

C. Learning in Triads.

After the presentation of each section of skills: i) Listening and Understanding; ii) Responding; and iii) Challenging, the members, in groups of three (i.e., helper, helpee; observer), will use these skills while dealing with a real-life problem belonging to the member who serves as the helpee (Liss & Robinson, 1978).

Helping session to last
5 minutes.
Helpee's reactions -
3 minutes.
Helper's reactions -
3 minutes.
Observer's reactions -
3 minutes.
Total - 14-15 minutes.

Topic:

Human relation fears or concerns around racial situations.
1. Racial incidents from outside.
2. Racial awareness from workshop.

D. Learning in the Group.

Volunteer members will take roles of helper, helpee with the group as observer. (Facilitator can volunteer if it helps to get the ball rolling.) Use the same time frame discussed in C above.

E. Closure.

1. Summarise the exercise and its results, talk about what was happening (process).
2. Get members' reactions to it by going around the room one by one asking for reactions and feelings.

FLOATING EXERCISE VII

The Vesuvius (Bach & Wyden, 1969; Bach & Goldberg, 1975).

This exercise should be worked into the agenda on Saturday (when anger emerges) at an appropriate time.

Goals

- A. To acknowledge the existence of destructive feelings.
- B. To give members a ritualised medium to serve as a "... non-injurious aggression catharsis - 'blowing off steam' ..." (1969, p.388). In this way, members can discharge formerly unexpressed frustrations, tensions and hostility in a protected environment.

Agenda Overview

- A. Discussion of Anger.
- B. Constructive Expression of Rational and Irrational Anger.
- C. The Vesuvius.
- D. Closure.

Agenda Format

- A. Discussion of Anger.

Anger is a natural and normal response to frustrating events. Like other feelings, it is neither bad nor good; it is something that we experience inwardly. What we do with the angry feelings determines whether they are constructive or destructive. It is important to have an appropriate way to express the anger, so that it can be dealt with on a current, on-going basis. In this way, we can be aware, and pinpoint the causes of our anger.

- B. Constructive Expression of Rational and Irrational Anger.

Rational anger can be expressed in interpersonal relations via good communication skills.

Irrational anger can be expressed through a ritual called the Vesuvius which is a one-way blast of anger set by mutual consent and a time limit, usually one to three minutes. Members will talk about "...frustrations, resentments, hurt, hostilities and rage..." (1975, p.165). Other members listen quietly without response, and are cautioned not to take anything the rager says personally or seriously.

C. The Vesuvius.

Facilitators will encourage members to conduct their own Vesuvius. If necessary, the facilitator will model a Vesuvius to set the pace, and encourage the members to feel comfortable in conducting their own.

D. Closure.

1. Summarise the exercise and its results. Talk about what was happening (process).
2. Get members' reactions to it by going around the room, one by one, asking for reactions and feelings.

EXERCISE VIIIUnstructured Group Activity

Saturday evening or Sunday a.m. depending on group needs.

Goals

- A. To allow members to create their own agenda (i.e., issues for personal therapy) and to handle unfinished business.
- B. To reinforce communication skills.
- C. To get closure.

Agenda Overview

- A. Unstructured activity.
(Personal agendas to be aired).
- B. Closure.

Agenda Format

- A. Assist the members in using the communication skills (they have learned) to deal with any issues they bring up).
- B. Closure.
 - 1. Summarise the exercise and its results. Talk about what was happening (process).
 - 2. Get members' reactions to it by going around the room, one by one, asking for reactions and feelings.

EXERCISE IXClosure Exercise

9:00-12:00 Noon Sunday

Goals

- A. To provide a summary of the workshop.
- B. To process what was learned, both positive and negative.
- C. To provide closure.

Agenda Overview

- A. Summarising.
- B. Questions and Concerns.
- C. Johari Window.

Agenda Format

- A. Summarise each of the exercises, and encourage members to give their reactions/impressions. Discuss the relevancy of what was learned. Put feelings into ideas.
- B. Ask the members, by going around the room one by one, if there are any questions or concerns regarding the workshop.
- C. Johari Window-Individually and Group.
Where were we on Friday?
Where are we now?

AUDIO-TAPED BEHAVIOURAL POSTTESTDESEGREGATION DISCUSSIONAgenda Sheet*

2:00-3:00 p.m. Sunday

You are on the Board of Education of the Denver Public School System. You have been asked to devise a proposal for settling the racial inequality in Denver's schools.

Some options are:

Busing plan to achieve desegregation

Magnet schools

Recommend that true desegregation cannot be achieved, and separate but equal education is more easily achieved.

Any other option you can think of.

To achieve your task, you may want to consider:

Brainstorming

Enlisting parental support

Gathering leaders of the Black/White community

Any other tactics

Please make an outline of how you plan to implement your proposal, giving specific details. You have been asked to present the plan to a rally of 1,000 racially mixed - black and white people who will look to you for a resolution. You have one hour to do so.

* See next page for instructions.

LEADER'S GUIDE FOR TAPED DISCUSSION ON DESEGREGATION

(Same for Control and Experimental Groups)

1. Ask group to imagine themselves in the situation; to really put themselves into the roles.
2. Provide minimal facilitation.
3. Help them keep on target; help them be concrete vs. general or vague through clarification, if necessary.
4. Alert them to time.
5. Ask for a volunteer to act as recorder to write out the proposal for group. The recorder should also be active in group discussion.
6. If members get stuck in making themselves clear, help clarify the point, only if it appears necessary to do so.

Read the agenda sheet aloud to them. Take 10-15 minutes for questions before recording the one-hour discussion, so that they understand their task.

After the one-hour is up, and the recording is off, do closure. Take 15 minutes to put to rest any feelings or reactions the members have.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR CO-TRAINERS, CONTROL GROUP

People come in.

Check their name from list.

Monitor blood pressure.

Distribute Agenda Sheet.

Take 10-15 minutes for instructions.

(Record these instructions)

Tape the discussion for one hour.

Turn off the tape recorder.

Conduct closure 10-15 minutes.

Read posttest instructions.

Distribute packets.

When finished, monitor blood pressure.

Workshop TimetableFriday

	Arrival at cabin	8:00 p.m.
	Snack	8:30 - 9:30
Exercise	I -- Orientation	9:30 - 10:30
Exercise	II -- Self-Concept	10:30 - 12 Midnight

Saturday

	Breakfast	8:00 - 9:00 a.m.
Exercise	III -- NASA	Morning
	Lunch and Break	12:00 - 2:00 p.m.
Exercise	IV -- Intergroup Meeting	2:00 - 4:00 p.m.
	Break	
Exercise	V -- Reactions	5:00 - 6:00 p.m.
	Dinner	6:00 - 8:00 p.m.
Exercise	VI -- Communication Skills	8:00 - 11:00 p.m.
Exercise	VIII -- Unstructured	Saturday evening or Sunday a.m.
		(depending on group needs)

NOTE: The Vesuvius, Exercise VII to be introduced on Saturday at appropriate time.

Sunday

	Breakfast	8:00 - 9:00 a.m.
Exercise	IX -- Closure	9:00 - 12:00 noon
	Lunch and Break	12:00 - 2:00 p.m.

Behavioural

Posttest	-- Desegregation	
	Discussion	2:00 - 3:00 p.m.
	Written Posttest	3:00 - 4:30 p.m.
	Blood Pressure	
	Monitoring	4:30 - 5:00 p.m.
	Packup and leave	
	cabin	5:00 p.m.

Control Group Timetable

The no-treatment control group met on Sunday, February 27th, from 1:00 to 5:00 p.m. Upon arrival, subjects had their blood pressure monitored and then discussed the desegregation issue for one hour only. (This taped discussion was uniform for all groups.) One member of the control group was one-hour late. Consequently, the discussion began at 2:00 p.m. instead of 1:00 p.m. After the taped discussion, subjects completed the written posttest and had their blood pressure monitored. During April and May, both treatment and control group subjects were contacted to complete the delayed posttest. Afterward, subjects were informed of the true nature of the research; their questions were answered and a discussion took place. All but four subjects completed the delayed posttest.

MENU FOR WORKSHOPSnack Friday Night

Cheese
Crackers or
Fruit

Donuts
Potato Chips

Coffee
Soda

Breakfast Saturday Morning

Eggs
Sausage

Cereal
Toast

Coffee, Tea
Juice, Soda

Lunch Saturday

Chicken Casserole
Tuna Salad

Grilled Cheese

Coffee, Tea
Soda, Milk

Dinner Saturday

Hamburgers
Salad w/dressing

Pork and Beans

Juice, Milk
Coffee, Tea
Soda

Breakfast Sunday Morning

Same as for Saturday

Lunch Sunday

Grilled Cheese
Egg Salad or
Leftovers

Juice, Milk
Coffee, Tea
Soda

LETTER TO SUBJECTS WHO TOOK DELAYED POSTTEST AT HOME

Dear _____,

As we discussed, enclosed is the delayed posttest for my project.

Would you please complete the questionnaires in one sitting, and return them to me in the self-addressed, stamped envelope before May 15.

Thank you in advance for helping me to tie-up these last-minute details of the project.

I plan to be in touch with you in order to send you your \$15 incentive.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at Arapohoe House on Tuesday or Thursday.

Sincerely,

Linda Marsanico-Byrne

Encl.

APPENDIX I

Continuum for Analysis of Group Communication Style

5	4	3	2	1
<u>Hostile</u>	<u>Aggressive</u>	<u>Assertive</u>		<u>Friendly</u>
Antagonism, animosity, ill will, unfriendliness, opposition. Tone of voice shows anger.	Expressing self and violating the rights of others by not listening to others; dominating conversation. No respect. Sarcasm, Condescending. Tone of voice may imply anger. (Talking down to someone.)	Expressing self directly while respecting rights of others. Tone of voice is free from anger ("You're not listening to me."), and implies respect.		Favorably disposed; inclined to help, approve, support. Tone of voice implies respect.
<u>Coercion*</u>			<u>Negotiation*</u>	<u>Collaboration*</u>
To force, restrain by authority; disagreement with cessation of communication. ("There's no use talking to you. I don't want to discuss it.")			Arrangement of the terms of agreement; exchange of the chits. Disagreement without cessation of communication. ("I beg to differ." "I have a different opinion." "Have you ever thought of it this way?") Exchange of ideas. Both parties seem to be listening.	To work with another; cooperate, have agreement, to go along with ("Yes, I agree.") Personal trust. ("How do we accomplish this?")

* These are taken from Peabody (1972)

PROCEDURE FOR RATING TAPES

1. There are 3 ten-minute segments for each tape. These segments have been divided into $\frac{1}{2}$ -minute (30 second) conversational segments, so that each rater will be asked to score 30, $\frac{1}{2}$ -minute segments or 60 units for each tape. This totals 300 conversational segments for the five tapes.

2. When rating the tapes, listen to the process, and any exchange of words. Rate the principal speaker if only one person speaks; rate the exchange, if several people speak. Listen to the tone of voice (does it show respect, or anger?), as well as what is being said.

3. Concentrate on the constructs of friendly, assertive, aggressive, hostile, coercion, negotiation and collaboration. When you decide on the construct which best describes the conversational segment, then assign the number (which I will explain at our meeting on the 17th) which corresponds to the construct.

LIST OF TERMS USED IN RATING TAPES

- Friendly:** Favorably disposed; inclined to help, approve of, or support others. Tone of voice implies respect of others.
- Assertive:** Expressing self clearly, directly; i.e., getting one's own needs met while respecting the rights of others. Tone of voice is usually free from anger, and implies respect. Example: "You're not listening to me." Implied: I need to have you listen to me. An interruption, as follows, is assertive: "We need to move on to another subject."
- Aggressive:** Expressing self; i.e., getting one's own needs met while violating the rights of others. This can occur by not listening to others, by dominating the conversation. Tone of voice may show or imply anger or sarcasm. The speaker talks down (condescends to someone. Example: An interruption, or change of the topic of conversation without regard for the speaker. "You don't know what you are talking about."

- Hostile:** Expressing antagonism, animosity, ill will, unfriendliness, or opposition to others. Tone of voice shows anger.
- Collaboration*:** To work with another, to cooperate, have agreement, to go along with. There is personal trust. "Yes, I agree." "How do we accomplish this?"
- Negotiation*:** Arrangement of the terms of agreement; exchange of chits (i.e., bargaining); disagreement without the cessation of communication. There is an exchange of ideas. Both parties seem to be listening. Examples: "I beg to differ." "Have you ever thought of it this way?"
- Coercion*:** To force, to restrain by authority; disagreement with cessation of communication. Example, "I don't want to discuss it."

* These constructs are taken from Peabody (1972).

APPENDIX JScale for Leadership Style

(Lieberman et al, 1973; Yalom, 1975).

I would like to get an idea of your leadership style, a construct for which I am controlling, in order to statistically account for the leader variable.

A human relations training leader performs many functions. Would you please indicate, on the scale from 0 - 100, how often you engage in the behaviours during group therapy or human relations training.

'Challenging'

0++++100

'Confronting'

0++++100

'Self-disclosure'

0++++100

Being a group member

0++++100

'Setting limits'

0++++100

'Stating rules, norms'

0++++100

'Stating goals'

0++++100

'Managing time'

0++++100

'Stopping'

0++++100

'Interceding'
 0+++++100

'Suggesting procedures'
 0+++++100

'Offering support'
 0+++++100

'Showing affection'
 0+++++100

'Praising'
 0+++++100

'Protecting'
 0+++++100

'Showing warmth'
 0+++++100

Showing acceptance
 0+++++100

Showing concern
 0+++++100

Being genuine
 0+++++100

'Explaining'
 0+++++100

'Clarifying'
 0+++++100

'Interpreting'
 0+++++100

Processing
 0+++++100

'Translating feelings and experiences into ideas'
 0+++++100

These items were taken from Yalom (1975, p.477) and then placed on a scale taken from Valins (1966) as shown in Dawes (1971, p.94).

TRAINER'S RECRUITMENT MEASURE

Would you please answer the following questions:

NAME: _____ SEX: _____

ADDRESS: _____ MARITAL STATUS: _____

_____ CHILDREN: _____

Telephone: () _____

Were you born in the United States? _____

In what State? _____

Years of Education (e.g.; 12, 13) _____

Last degree received _____

What was your major (area of concentration)? _____

Other, on-going courses, or further training (attach extra sheet if necessary).

What experience, in hours, have you had in leading groups of "normal" adults in therapy or human relations training?

Would you please explain your experience or attach a resume. What experience have you had in human relations training, teaching or the mental health field?

Would you please list (and describe responsibilities) your current and past positions?

V I T A

Name Linda Marsanico-Byrne
Date of Birth 24/11/46
Husband Luke Byrne
Children Tom, Leigh, Megan

Education:

Ph.D. Loughborough University,
Leicestershire, England, November,
1986. Social Psychology.

M.Ed. Peabody College, Vanderbilt
University, Nashville, Tennessee,
Overseas Division, May, 1981.
Human Development Counseling.

B.Sc. Ramapo College of New Jersey, Mahwah,
New Jersey, August, 1979.
Psychology.

Personal Experience:

Expertise in individual, marital and group psychotherapy. Experience as a part-time and on-call therapist in alcoholism treatment. Ability to conduct initial evaluations in an adult, outpatient mental health agency setting. Two years experience in private psychotherapy practice.

