

Responding to Racism:

**Measuring the Effectiveness
of an Anti-Racism Program for
Secondary Schools.**

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Abstract

This thesis reports on the effectiveness of an anti-racist training program implemented at secondary schools in Vancouver and Richmond in February and March of 1995. The program used Responding to Racism: a guide for High School Students, prepared by the author, with John Kehoe and Lily Yee. Training involved three hours of anti-racist role-play exercises from Responding to Racism. A pretest-posttest control group design was employed to measure: retention of given models for dealing with racist incidents, post-treatment levels of racism, and behavioral reactions during a staged racist incident.

Ten social studies classes from two schools made up a sample population of 262 students. Following half-day workshops, three teachers carried out the program with a total of six classes of either grade 9 or 11 students. Four additional classes continued with regular curriculum to serve as the Control sample. The Cultural Diversity Scale (Kehoe, 1982, 1984), was given as a pretest to establish Control to Experimental group equivalency. A posttest Written Response to Racist Incidents instrument, used to measure knowledge of how to respond to a racist incident, found a significant positive difference between Experimental and Control groups, ($t=(3.83)$ $p<.001$). Post-training levels of racism, evaluated through the Evidence of Racism Scale, were not significantly different ($+ .16Sd$).

The final postmeasure, the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale (Culhane, 1995), found significant positive effect among a sample of 68 students (40-Exp./28-Cntl.), ($t=(3.33)$ $p.<.001$). Students undergoing treatment were in the 68th percentile of Control students on the Written Response to Racist Incidents, (+.47Sd), and the 92nd percentile (+1.23Sd) of Control subjects on results from the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale. Experimental students did not show significant difference when compared to Control subjects on items pertaining to empathy for the victims of racism. The results suggest the program was most successful in changing behaviour, over attitudes, within the context of a relatively short-term time period.

Responding to Racism provided students with methods for responding to racist incidents which were evident on written and behavioral measures. Support given to the victims of the racist incidents, opposition to the perpetrators, and positive attempts to limit the racism in each incident were all significantly more apparent in responses of Experimental students over Control. The results reaffirm the utility of role-play anti-racist training, and validate the use of Responding to Racism as an effective package for use in secondary school settings, notably in regards to changing student behaviour in racially-motivated situations.

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I Introduction

Problem & Overview

The perception of a growing problem in their schools led representatives of five Lower Mainland school districts to become actively involved in implementing a model anti-racist program. This group became known as the **Consortium for Preparation and Evaluation of an Anti-Racist Training Package for High School Students**, hereafter "the Consortium." The Consortium began meeting in the Spring of 1994. Over the next few months, the author and Lily Yee were employed to gather critical incidents of racism. These came from extensive interviews with teachers, students, administrators and members of various cultural associations. Some thirty of these incidents formed the basis for an anti-racist training package, adapted by the author and John Kehoe: **Responding to Racism: a Guide for High School Students** (Kehoe, Culhane, & Yee, 1995).

The next step for the Consortium was to implement the program on a trial basis for the purpose of evaluation, which became the impetus for this study. Three aspects of a possible impact of Responding to Racism emerged for consideration: its effects on reducing levels of racism; whether it encouraged a greater sense of empathy toward the victims of racism, rather than a strengthened sense of vicarious identification with the perpetrators; and finally, whether the program would lead to a behavioral change when students were placed in an actual situation involving racism. Three teachers volunteered to take part in the study after being made aware of the program through contact with Consortium members from Richmond and Vancouver School Districts. These teachers worked through the package with a total of six classes, while four other classes made up the Control group. Prior to beginning the program, the three participant teachers underwent a workshop training session at UBC, where they became more familiar with Responding to Racism, its methods and procedures.

Following the return of parental permission forms, and the administration of the pretest equivalency measure, students underwent one week of anti-racist role-play activities as laid out in Responding to Racism. Students were given a variety of techniques for responding to racist situations, and then the opportunity to practise these responses within the context of the role-play. Two measures were administered in an initial

posttest, one week after the training program. Paralleling the pretest, the first of these measures was the Likert-type Evidence of Racism Scale. The second post-measure to be administered sought evidence of student retention of the training package models for responding to racist incidents. Pre and posttest results were then correlated for each grade level and each teacher. Finally, correlational data was used to establish differences between Control and Experimental groups, for an overall analysis of the impact of the Responding to Racism training program.

From ten to twelve days subsequent to the written posttests, a smaller sample (Vancouver & Richmond, N=68; n=40 Experimental / n=28 Control) underwent a covert behavioral measure, involving a staged racist incident. Students were placed in a situation where racist words and actions would arise. The scenario involved asking students to complete a short survey of their attitudes on a variety of issues about student autonomy in the classroom. Students from both Control and Experimental classes were taken in pairs to a small interview room, and asked to complete a brief questionnaire on the stated topic while working with two additional students, who were explained to be from a different secondary school that was also taking part in the study. One of these other students was already present when the two students arrived in the interview room, while the other arrived shortly after. In fact, these third and fourth students

were professional actors of a similar age to the students being measured.

The researcher left the room after asking the group to complete a single survey sheet, on which they were to record how many in the group agreed or disagreed with four simple questions. The questions concerned whether students should be allowed to eat food or wear "Walkmans" in class, take advantage of empty parking spots in staff parking lots, and otherwise enjoy more control over what goes on in their classes.

As the groups worked through the questionnaire, the two actors would become involved in a minor argument over an aspect of one of the questions. This argument would take on racial overtones, and eventually include racist words and attitudes. The two students to be measured were then evaluated on their reaction to the racist exchange between the actors. Scoring was carried out by the two actors, with each student receiving a number on a five-point scale. Anecdotal information was also recorded immediately following each session, involving input from the actors and the researcher, who watched the exchanges through a concealed opening to a window into the interview room.

Assessment of each student focused on the degree to which they became involved in the incident, as well as whether this was in a supporting or opposing manner, vis a viz the racist comments, the victim, or the perpetrator of the racist attack. As expected, the results from this behavioral measure were the most intriguing aspect of the study. Not only did these results provide potent evidence for a significant impact of the training program, but they also offered evidence of the utility of the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale as a simple, unobtrusive, measure of behavioral response following anti-racist training. Results of this administration found students undergoing training to be significantly more likely to oppose the racism than Control students.

An average Experimental student scored in the 92nd percentile of Control subjects on the behavioral measure, whereby only 8-percent of students not being trained scored higher than the average of the trained group. In comparison, students from the Control group were significantly more likely to support the racist comments in the scenario, to provide some form of support for the perpetrator, and to worsen the situation for the victim in some manner. These results suggest the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale brings assessment of anti-racist training programs much closer to an accurate prediction of impact on student behaviour, than can be accomplished simply through the use of written measures. Moreover, the Racist Incident

Behavioral Scale accomplishes the ethically challenging process of a covert measurement of racism with a relative minimum of student deception being necessary. Although students are unaware they are being measured for their response to the racism in the scenarios, they are aware they are being measured, and that answers they give are being written down on the questionnaire sheet. Use of the actors to score the incidents further eliminates the need for video or sound recording, while also affording very detailed data on student reactions, most of which would be extremely difficult to discern from sound or video recordings.

Role-Play in Anti-Racist Education

Anti-racist role-play targets the affective aspects of racism. It is designed to address the inadequacies of Cultural Information and Intergroup Contact strategies (McGregor, 1993), two of the more prevalent techniques in anti-racist education. Cultural Information methods of anti-racist education seek to limit racist beliefs by replacing what are usually depicted as conceptions of cultural difference born out of ignorance, with more accurate portrayal of various cultural groups. Intergroup Contact approaches attempt to accomplish a similar type of replacement. They differ in preferring direct contact between members of two or more cultural groups over other means to this end.

In contrast, Anti-racist Role-play involves placing students in situations where they can practise responding to racist incidents, without necessarily involving a great deal of cultural information, or any particular need for mixed cultural grouping. Discussions of the roots of social tension and other intergroup problems take place throughout a role-play exercise, as students learn new response patterns to various situations involving racism.

Role-play's foundation in anti-racist methodology is found in a progression of theories from Social Psychology. The list includes Festinger's concept of **Cognitive Dissonance**, Bandura's **Social Learning Theory**, Rokeach's **Values Discrepancy** strategy, and Triandis' **Cross-Cultural Sensitivity Training** (Festinger, 1957; Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1969; Rokeach, 1960, 1966, 1971, 1973; Triandis, 1964, 1975). The intended outcomes of anti-racist role-play vary. However, all programs attempt to change racial attitudes in some manner, toward generally more tolerant positions on various aspects of cultural difference. In acting out the role of the "other" during the staged racially-charged incidents, students are believed to be building up a cognitive dissonance, as inconsistencies mount between earlier attitudes and emergent ones. If successful, such dissonance results in an eventual attitudinal and behavioral change in a more tolerant, empathetic direction (Festinger, 1957; Bandura, 1969; Rokeach, 1971, 1973).

Several methods are used to measure pre and post-treatment attitudinal or behavioral change. These range from assessments of cultural sensitivity, such as levels of out-group to in-group affiliation, to measurement of changes in general levels of racist attitudes. Assessment frequently involves an evaluation of a subject's attitudes towards some aspect of cultural diversity. Instruments used for such measurement generally include semantic differential, social proximity, or social

distance scales. Recently, a developing body of tools for qualitative analysis is also being shaped, demonstrating attitudinal change through anecdotal description (Breckheimer & Nelson, 1976; Sechrest, 1979; Webb et al, 1981; Strauss, 1988; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Hopkins, Stanley & Hopkins, 1990; Schumacher & McMillan, 1993. These type of studies involve much smaller samples than their quantitative counterparts, affording more detailed, individualized analysis which is, unfortunately, less generalizable to other research situations.

As an anti-racist strategy, role-play has numerous successful examples. It has been found to create significant positive attitude change toward members of specific minority groups (Kehoe & Rogers, 1978); to result in lowered levels of social distance between majority and minority group members (Culbertson, 1957; Verma & Bagley, 1972, 1973, 1979, 1981); and to increase both the frequency and strength of social bonds between majority and minority students (Breckheimer & Nelson, 1976). However, role-play approaches have also produced quite the opposite outcomes.

Research has found some programs resulted in a strengthening, rather than a reduction of previously-held stereotypical or racist attitudes (Miller, 1969). Other examples suggest an enhancement of vicarious identification with the perpetrators of racism, (Kehoe & Rogers, 1978; Kehoe, 1981);

others still, that an insignificant impact on either attitudes or behaviour has resulted (Balch & Paulsen, 1978; Ungerleider & McGregor, 1990; McGregor, 1993).

The most recent meta-analysis of research conducted in this area synthesized studies of role-play, comparing its efficacy with that of other anti-racist strategies (McGregor, 1993). An average shift of $(+.419Sd)$ was found among experimental groups undergoing a role-play treatment program, when compared to control samples (McGregor, 1993). Effectively, this means an average student in the 13 studies included in the review exhibited less racial prejudice than 64% of the students not undergoing treatment (McGregor, 1993). The figures from the McGregor meta-analysis are slightly more favourable than those found in an earlier study she carried out with Charles Ungerleider.

This previous meta-analysis compared the results of studies involving role-play with those from other anti-racist, and cultural presentation strategies. Among the subject groups were in-service teachers, student-teachers, and police officers. Significant positive effect sizes were found among 19 studies in the data involving the use of role-play. An average $(+.20Sd)$ improvement was found in treatment groups from the 19 studies, whereby an average Experimental subject was in the 57th percentile of Control subjects when measured for racial prejudice.

(Ungerleider & McGregor, 1990). McGregor and Ungerleider portrayed a series of impressive examples of successful use of role-play in reducing racial prejudice. Overall, Anti-racist role-play has almost forty years of examples where positive effect sizes have been produced: Culbertson (1957), Gilmour & Janice (1965), Rosenberg (1965), Hohn (1973), Gray and Ashmore (1975), Breckheimer & Nelson (1976), Verma & Bagley (1979), Ungerleider & McGregor (1990), McGregor & Douglas, (1993).

Consortium Program

Responding to Racism builds on many of the recommendations listed in the above meta-analyses (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990; McGregor, 1993). It also reflects numerous other suggestions raised in a variety of studies (Verma & Bagley, 1976, 1979; Kehoe, 1981, 1984; Buchignani, 1985; Butt, 1986; Ungerleider, 1992). Ungerleider & Douglas' When Cultures Meet, a role-play anti-racist package designed for primary level teachers, uses many similar techniques to those in Responding to Racism. The first contrast between the two packages is naturally a difference of intended audiences. Responding to Racism has been produced with the secondary school setting in mind. Its role-play aims for greater student to student contact, more appropriate student-aged language, and to be part of an overall package more familiar to students. Responding to Racism contains a similar attempt to include a variety of cultural groups, yet with a more limited focus than found in When Cultures Meet. Other complex social issues, like gender and power relations, which are important on their own but may over-complicate an already difficult subject for adolescents during the role-play exercises, were deliberately not mixed into the package.

Responding to Racism deals primarily with racism. As a result, many concerns found in When Cultures Meet are not as prominent in this package, although they may certainly be raised during the discussions following each of the role-plays in Responding to Racism. These were considered to be secondary to

the principle focus of this training programs: analyzing the underlying racism in each scenario.

Further suggestions from members of the Consortium have afforded a very wide spectrum of involvement in the creation of Responding to Racism. Although the package centres on behavioral training for reacting to racist incidents, rather than other educational issues such as causes of racism or the societal impact of this problem, this does not mean its foundation is likewise as tightly focused. A diverse chorus of voices were integral to the creation of this package, from teachers and administrators, to members of multicultural sections of Greater Vancouver school boards, and the Multiculturalism branch of the Ministry of Education, as well as several cultural groups in the Vancouver and Victoria areas.

The critical incidents of racism turned into dramatic dialogues for use in the role-play have emerged from concerns and experiences of those most directly involved in secondary schools. Some were painful revelations, stories of personal tragedies. The discussions following each role-play are aimed at forming links between students and the actual participants who related these stories.

Emotions arising as a result of the role-play may be worked out with teachers and peers, however, the true power of role-play emerges in a much more private place, within each student's own understanding of culture, race, and identity. Students can certainly gain a deeper understanding of the issues and impact of racism from adopting the perspective of the "other" within the guises of a role-play setting. They may accept a teacher's encouragement and adopt techniques from the training package in dealing with racist incidents they encounter in everyday life. Yet, a successful intervention in an anti-racist program does not necessarily have to go this far. When a trained student decides not to aggravate a racist situation, or to offer some increased level of comfort for a victim to a greater extent than they otherwise might have, Responding to Racism will have been successful.

These may be only partial successes in a more gradual process, but changes in behavioral reactions to racist incidents must be seen as essential components of not only ongoing changes in attitudes, but also of ensuring racism is both limited and counteracted when it does arise. Responding to Racism seeks to change behaviour. The tools it offers for students to use in reacting to racist situations are designed to allow for behavioral and attitudinal change, but are certainly grounded on the premise that behavioral change is an essential step which

can be separate from, or directly tied to attitudinal change.

A realistic assessment of an anti-racist program needs more than measurement through written instruments alone. Testing effects, whereby students produce what they believe to be desired answers in a given situation, are too real to be eliminated from overt tests of racism. For this reason, the inclusion of a covert behavioral measure was regarded as an imperative in the design of this study. Evaluating students on behavioral reactions serves to predict in a much more adequate way how "significant" a program has been in encouraging students to work against racist incidents in classrooms, lunchrooms, halls and playgrounds. Examples of the first two of thirty critical incidents from Responding to Racism can be found in Appendix D.

Hypotheses

Three aspects were considered essential for a systematic analysis of the effectiveness of Responding to Racism. These were formulated into the following three hypotheses:

- (1) Students participating in the program would demonstrate a significantly more positive knowledge of the how to respond to a racist incident, as laid out in the training program, compared with students who did not participate in the program, on the Written Reaction to Racist Incidents measure.
- (2) Students participating in the program would be significantly less racist than those in the Control group, as measured by the Evidence of Racism Scale.
- (3) Students participating in the program would respond significantly more positively to both a described racist incident, as measured by the Written Response to a Racist Incident Questionnaire and an actual situation, as measured by the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale.

II *Significance of the Problem*

Transformation

School districts in Southwestern British Columbia are undergoing an ethno-cultural transformation brought on by shifting immigration trends. Today, "New Canadians" are far more likely to have left East, South, or Southeast Asian nations, rather than North, West, or East European ones (Fleras & Elliott, 1992). Demographers and various other social scientists will debate the impact of shifting sources of Canadian immigration, away from what are still unfortunately termed "the traditional sources." Yet, irrespective of these concerns, Vancouver will continue to be a school district made up of students with ethnic backgrounds from over 80 different countries (Ashworth, 1989; Sullivan, 1989). The Greater Vancouver area already leads the country in percentage of population considered to be "visible minority" group members. In 1986, the visible minority population in Greater Vancouver was over 16-percent (Fleras & Elliott, 1992), already 10-percent above the national average. Recent Statistics Canada numbers suggest this percentage is rapidly rising. In 1988, Hong Kong, India, the Philippines, Vietnam, Jamaica, and Iran were among the top ten countries of origin for immigrants to Canada (Fleras & Elliott, 1992). In 1990 alone, East and South Asian nations accounted for approximately 26.4% of the total of 212,166 immigrants to this

country (Fleras & Elliott, 1992). The point to be made does not involve questions of ethnicity, or "Countries of Origin", rather, a simple acknowledgement of an ongoing process of transformation. Ethnically and culturally, Vancouverites are a changing group. The region stands as a destination for a huge number of New Canadians, who come to unite families, find jobs, or simply rejoice in the "wet-coast" climate. The Greater Vancouver area serves as a major centre of an ongoing cultural adjustment. An adjustment process involving not only the newcomer, but also those who came a little earlier, as well as the nations settling the region thousands of years ago. Secondary schools in Greater Vancouver are a natural locus of the necessary cross-cultural accommodation.

Language learning is of paramount concern for recent newcomers from non-English speaking backgrounds, and school districts throughout the region have implemented new or additional English as a Second Language programs. But it would be shortsighted to limit the adaptation process to linguistics. Both the individual and most of the receiving community share the need for accommodation and adaptation. Ethno-cultural difference is playing itself out as often on the streets and in the businesses of Greater Vancouver, as it is in its classrooms and cafeterias. Such difference can result in cultural clashes and racism, which are likely to arise to some extent, given the realities of the current period of ethnic change. Meanwhile,

changes in student populations are driving concomitant ones in methodology adopted by teachers, administrators, multicultural workers and other participants in the educational system. Curricula must be reshaped accordingly. Exemplifying this process is the recent recognition of Japanese and Mandarin as Heritages Languages by the Ministry of Education, through the setting of Province-wide exams. The recognition came after years of intense lobbying, and can only open new educational opportunities and challenges for Primary, Secondary, and Post-secondary systems throughout B.C.

As the ethnic composition of the Greater Vancouver student population is redefined, anti-racist educational initiatives are resulting from an awareness of a need to take proactive measures to keep racial problems from becoming entrenched. Responding to Racism evolved from this type of impetus. The package stands in evidence of the work of people at various levels in Lower Mainland school districts, who are turning to anti-racist education as a guide for instituting programs to address the impact of changes in their student population, and within their institutions.

Anti-racism & Reality

Anti-racist programs are rarely evaluated based on what works in an everyday educational situation (Buchignani, 1985). Availability of class time for such programs, as with any other type of in-service workshop, is at a premium for secondary teachers, who must constantly balance competing interests and needs. The immediacy of Responding to Racism hopes to counteract this problem. A teacher can be familiar with its contents, and more than capable of carrying out its methods after only a half-day workshop. Teacher competence in leading an anti-racist program has been repeatedly stressed as a key aspect in successful interventions (Verma & Bagley, 1981; Buchignani, 1985; Ungerleider & McGregor, 1990; McGregor, 1993). To ensure this, Responding to Racism utilises relatively straight-forward patterns. It embodies strategies which are easily transferred from training workshops on campus to role-plays in the secondary classroom.

Curricular restrictions form a further limitation facing most teachers in regards to anti-racist programs. Responding to Racism is designed to meet this problem by being flexible enough to be applicable to a wide variety of educational settings. Its design is quite adaptable to any number of subject-area curricula, from Social Studies to English, Humanities to Guidance and other Counselling Programs, to Theatre class. Responding to

Racism works to create an important modelling aspect for teacher to student relations which can be useful in as assortment of school situations. Its design allows for value-laden teaching about racism, in a more personal climate which is hopefully more meaningful to students. This type of climate has often been attributed by researchers as an integral component of successful anti-racist education (Verma & Bagley, 1981; Sarnoff & Katz, 1981; Buchignani, 1985). There are many examples of negative outcomes being produced in studies using anti-racist teaching techniques which involve distant, impartial moderators (Miller, 1969; Balch & Paulsen, 1978; Kehoe, 1981;).

Virtually all anti-racist teaching programs have produced examples where entirely unexpected negative outcomes have resulted. Three recent meta-analyses of anti-racist educational techniques found such examples of negative effect sizes. In these cases, experimental subjects ended up measuring higher on scales of racism after being "treated" (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990). The first of these meta-analyses involved anti-racist programs for police officers. Negative effect sizes were found in 31% of the cases studied. Likewise, the second meta-analysis, with student-teachers and in-service teachers as the subject groups, found 28% of effect sizes were negative (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990). The third meta-analysis compared the effectiveness of role-play with Cultural Information strategies. Role-play programs led to negative outcomes in 12% of the studies

showing significant effect sizes (McGregor, 1993). Part of the difference between higher and lower negative effect sizes was attributed to the age of the particular subject group under study. Overall, elementary and secondary school-aged students were more likely to change their beliefs or behaviours, over post-secondary students, police officers, or in-service teachers, (McGregor, 1993). With an abundance of studies showing negative impacts, any large scale attempt at anti-racist education clearly needs to be assessed. Adding to racial stereotyping and intolerant attitudes are both very real possibilities as a result of role-play, as with any other type of anti-racist teaching.

Role-play uses language and materials which contain racist aspects, presenting these in order to work through their consequences, inconsistencies, and fallacies. As a result, a series of challenges for a teacher implementing this type of program naturally arise. These include an inability of some students to recognize situations where empathy is needed, which may produce quite inappropriate reactions (Kehoe, 1981). One possibility is the production of what has been termed an "inoculation effect" (Miller & Dollard, 1941; Verma & Bagley, 1976). The inoculation effect involves subjects casting aside a diluted form of an argument due to an apparent weakness in its position. With regard to anti-racist role-play this would likely arise through the use of sanitized language and situations, which deny the need for action against a form of racism made too

"classroom acceptable" to actually portray the true nature of the problem. "If this is racism," a student might conclude, "then it's no big deal...;" or "If this is racism, you're saying we're all racists!?" The logical conclusion from a subject would be to reject the suggestions of the training program. This has been demonstrated as a major problem with subjects who already hold racist opinions (Verma & Bagley, 1976).

A second problem is the reluctance of some students to fully participate in the exercise, due to the social pressure of the situation (Kehoe, 1981). Moreover, there appears to be a serious tendency of some students to form a vicarious identification with the perpetrators of racism (Kehoe, 1981, 1984a). The process of role-play has also been found to lead to a weakening of identity and self-image for minority students. A number of researchers have charged poorly formulated anti-racist role-play programs with leaving minority students feeling the portrayals present them as helpless victims (Ijaz, 1984; Kehoe, 1984b; Lynch, 1987; Rattansi, 1992). Criticism of these programs includes their failure to portray minority group members as fighting back against perpetrators of racism, or as perpetrators of racism themselves.

Measuring Anti-Racist Training

A series of questions must be considered before any anti-racism program can move into general use. Whether it follows solid theoretical grounds or not, the possibility of negative outcomes being produced remains. The questions this study asks must be addressed before an anti-racist program can be considered to meet its goals. Students must remember the methods it relates before they can put them into practise. A successful program must also create some modicum of an increased level of empathy for the victims of racism, if it is to create attitude shifts toward more tolerant views toward cultural difference. However, this may be problematic to measure, as it is likely to be a latent reaction to training. Finally, it must be asked if the "classroom lessons" of the program actually lead to behavioral change beyond this artificial setting.

Evaluating the degree to which Responding to Racism answers these crucial questions can further the process of anti-racist education by providing a test for a theoretically sound design. The package is based upon a reliable anti-racist strategy. It includes recommendations drawn from the most current meta-analyses, as well as considerable involvement of teachers, administrators, multicultural works, and many others involved in the educational system. Responding to Racism appears to have a solid foundation. Yet, without a systematic assessment of its

impact on students, it can only remain a newly-packaged version of somewhat untested educational assumptions.

III *Review of the Literature*

There are three separate areas of the literature to be reviewed: the theoretical background for role-play techniques in anti-racist education; evidence for the success of this approach, as it pertains to the eventual design for Responding to Racism; and finally, relevant research on the instruments used in the study.

Role-Play: Bandura's Social Learning Theory

As a technique of anti-racist education, role-play involves three separate processes: observation, action, and cognitive reaction. Each of these has its own theoretical basis. Bandura's **Social Learning Theory** explains the observation aspect of role-play. During a role-play, students initially view the actions and attitudes of significant others, be they peers or instructors, and then come to participate in modelling this behaviour (Bandura, 1968, 1969). Gradually, an expression of well-formulated responses appears, and this is steadily enhanced, as well as socially regulated, through the actions of the models; initial attempts by the participant are eventually successfully modeled (Bandura, 1962, 1965, 1968, 1969; Bandura & Walters, 1963). Modelling has been found to be ideally suited to the elimination of behavioral deficits, to the transmission of self-regulated systems, and social facilitation of behavioral patterns, most notably on a group-wide scale (Bandura, 1962,

1965, 1968, 1969). As students in a role-play rehearse responses, they are formulating these patterns into reaction sets from within a social context closely matching that of the incident outside of the role-play. The context serves to reinforce the modelling. Subjects come to pattern their behaviour increasingly on that of the model, and then re-use this model in apparently similar future situations (Bandura, 1965, 1968, 1969). Bandura worked often with very different subject groups than those of anti-racist education in secondary schools. However, his theories are powerful descriptions of this use of role-play, in what is still an example of socially-based learning. The process of observation, formulation of action, and then performance of a modeled interaction, applies directly to the process used in both examples of role-playing.

To understand the importance of Bandura's ideas to the concept of modelling, some discussion of work previous to his is necessary. Modelling was earlier thought to take place as a result of the positive reinforcement of a subject, should the "correct" response be matched adequately. Early tests generally used a series of trial and error responses, which were initially random, and became progressively more and more patterned (Miller & Dollard, 1941). Modelling was seen as a form of stimulus matching, in which a person would match the stimulus pattern being modelled with their own responses. Gradually, these responses would become more and more appropriate to the purpose of the role-play. A series of positive cues from the model

helped to further this process (Skinner, 1953; Bandura, 1969). Bandura accepted these earlier aspects of role-play, but expanded both of these notions by introducing an aspect of selectivity to this type of imitative response reproduction (Bandura, 1962, 1968a, 1969). The repetition of modelled patterns, to Bandura, was driven by a utilitarian value, rather than simple reinforcement. It could not be achieved unless a needs, or benefit analysis had been made by the subject. Bandura believed a person would never lose the fear of dogs, for example, unless a benefit appeared to result from losing this fear. Exposing persons to distinctive sequences of modeled stimuli was not enough, he asserted, unless an individual had imagined a possible benefit to be gained from modelling. Bandura thought individuals would naturally select only those aspects most relevant to their needs, according to an individual interpretation of the modelling, and the social expectations it contained. Only the aspects most pertinent to the individual's needs would be retained for future imitation (Bandura, 1968a; 1969).

Closely paralleling current role-play strategies, Bandura believed new response patterns could be more effectively related through modelling procedures which involved more natural interpersonal interactions, where, "verbal approval, affectional expressions, play activities and a sense of accomplishment replace primary rewards as major reinforcing events," (Bandura, 1965, 1969). For example, Bandura found empathetic reactions were more likely when children were asked to imagine how they

would feel if they were in the situation of the other person being observed, rather than how they believed the other would feel (Stotland, 1969; Bandura, 1969). In role-play, this is accomplished through acting out the role of the other, whereby sensations felt by this other person can be felt first hand, while playing this role, rather than merely imagined from a distance. Bandura found a need for subject to model similarity in attempts at creating empathetic responses. It appeared to him quite natural that a person would be more capable of applying the results of observed actions as consequences they might endure, when the model closely reflected who they actually were (Bandura, 1968, 1968a, 1969). Bandura did not tie emotional arousal directly to a significant role in vicarious observational learning, but suggested this strategy had not yet been employed on a systematic basis to develop empathy, pleasurable reactions, and favourable social attitudes (Bandura, 1969), as current role-play techniques seek to do.

The "action" aspect of role-play can also be related to Bandura, and Social Learning Theory. Modelling is turned into action through performing the role of the other. Patterns of observational response are learned and roles practised during this performance, which are later imitated and reinforced when used in similar situations (Bandura, 1968a, 1969). Three distinct reactions to observant modelling can arise during such subsequent behaviour according to Bandura. The observer may acquire new responses that did not previously exist in his or her

behaviour repertoire. A second outcome involves the weakening or strengthening of inhibitory responses, as a result of patterns in the modelling. Finally, the behaviour of models may elicit previously learned responses that match precisely, or bear a close resemblance to those exhibited by the model, and are merely repeated by the subject in this later episode (Bandura, 1968a, 1969).

To use the case of Responding to Racism, the learning of a new response technique would apply to learning how to comfort a victim of racism, and equally as well to addressing the unacceptability of the perpetrator's actions directly. The second reaction, involving the generation of an inhibitory response, can also be seen in anti-racist role-play. For example, a witness to a racist incident may choose to stand up against an aggressor, as a result of a weakening of the inhibition against doing so. This would be an example of a weakened inhibitory response. An example of a strengthened inhibitory response can be found in a greater reluctance of a person to engage in racial discrimination in the future. This would result from an individual attributing additional or more stringent negative consequences arising from espousing or acting on racist attitudes. The behaviour modelled in the text and role-play of the anti-racist package seeks to elicit this double-edged response, weakening inhibitions in some attitudinal or behavioral aspects, while at the same time strengthening those in others. Socially sanctioned actions are shown to be

unacceptable, both ideologically and through the visible consequences evident in the role-play. Socially appropriate actions, on the contrary, are rewarded and repeatedly remodelled through examining the text and acting out the scenarios.

Bandura's third possible outcome, the "response-facilitation effect" directly epitomizes the goals of anti-racist role-play. Here, modelled behaviour, be it a response pattern to comfort a victim or, as with the case in much of Bandura's work, to reduce the fear in a young child of snakes or dogs, is repeated by the observer-participant in continued practise. Finally, this is successfully imitated as a learned pattern of social response which mirrors that portrayed by the original model (Bandura, 1968, 1968a, 1969). In anti-racism, role-play would be aimed at gradually weakening an inhibitory response, such as reducing the fear of confronting a perpetrator of racism, through positive reinforcement of modelled actions (Bandura, 1968a; 1969). This positive reinforcement generally takes the form of exposing subjects to modelled behaviour in increasingly threatening scenarios, but still ensuring that the model does not meet with negative consequences. A classical Bandura example would be to show children short movies of other children slowly approaching snakes or other feared animals. Gradually, the model children in the films become more and more at ease with these animals, yet still do not meet with the assumed dire consequences underlying the inhibitory responses from the subjects. As models present a weakening of their inhibitory responses in this situation, the

subjects come to follow this new behaviour in their modelling, following the slow step toward reduced inhibition in tandem with that demonstrated by the models. Bandura illustrated these three possible outcomes clearly in an investigation of the social transmission of novel aggressive responses, (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1961), and upheld them with later efforts to assess the importance of observer-modeller similarities (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1963; Bandura, 1968a). In each study, these three reaction patterns emerged. Greater success in reducing previously-held inhibitions, both through increased retention of patterns presented, and by affording more prevalent adaptation of previously known patterns, were shown to occur in situations involving models closely reflecting the particular subjects (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1961, 1963; Bandura, 1968a, 1969).

Triandis

Triandis' work on culture-sensitivity training further relates these behavioral aspects of role-play. Triandis holds that behavioral intention, defined as what one would do toward any "desired object" carrying an attitude attachment with it, is very closely related to socially-driven norms of behaviour. What appears to be expected by others in a social situation comes to be modelled by the particular individual, as a result of close examination of the apparent expectations of the "other" in the social context (Triandis, 1964, 1971). Correlations in the order

of (.60) have been observed in studies of behaviour norms and behaviour intentions (Bastides and Van den Berghe, 1957; Triandis, Vassiliou and Nassiakon, 1968). Triandis later went on to expand into studies of cross-cultural learning, applying these concepts to such learning in a new, or otherwise changed cultural environment. Many of Triandis' current cross-cultural sensitivity training strategies employ role-play techniques.

In a role-play episode socially-driven expectations are both presented and reinforced, through the content of the text used and the reaction patterns being taught. These expectations are mirrored through the actions of fellow students and teachers leading the episodes. Case-study role-play such as that in Responding to Racism evokes each of these components for messages of social expectation. Teachers and students are both modelling responses from the package design. Triandis' modification of this concept into cross-cultural training clearly represents the goals of role-play in anti-racist education. Here, the behavioral intentions are derived from varying norms generated in a disparate culture, and the role-playing serves to give students new response patterns suitable to this alternative social environment (Triandis, 1975, 1977, 1992). New behavioral norm patterns are being socially taught, viewed, and then practised through performing the role of the "other" in a cultural context, in the same manner as that used to generate empathetic responses from performing this role in racist incident replication through anti-racist role-playing. Inappropriate actions are identified

and negatively sanctioned in a socially-relevant context, within which they can be replaced with more appropriate patterned responses, "putting your left hand on that Egyptian Arab man's shoulder held a completely different connotation than the one you offered..."

Triandis' "Cultural Assimilator", (Triandis, 1992), mirrors the strategies of current anti-racist role-play, seeking as it does to model behaviour on expectations of such cultural environments. Anti-racist education seeks to create scenarios where racist actions are presented as socially unacceptable, as well as to provide patterned responses to effectively teach this in life-like situations. Triandis suggests a need for transmitting differing role expectations of individuals moving into different cultures, in a manner directly relevant to the value-laden educational strategies used in anti-racist role-play. Here too, correct and incorrect behaviours are constantly reinforced through the content in the cases being studied, the socially based modelling of the performances, and the text itself, upon which the entire exercise is based.

Even when a particular student views, participates, and models what are deemed to be socially correct behaviour in a role-play situation, the exercise does not fully succeed unless a further cognitive goal is achieved. This is realized through the process of dissonance. **Festinger's Theory of Cognitive Dissonance** holds that if a person experiences enough discordant

information, the information will eventually cause a change in attitude or behaviour (Festinger, 1957). As it pertains to role-play, students in the unfamiliar role as the "other" are eventually led into dissonance, as the imagined situation of this other person is gradually replaced with direct sensations emerging from playing the role. Teachers must work to limit the possibility of vicarious identification with the perpetrators in the racist scenarios, by creating a climate in the role-play where these actions are actively portrayed as unacceptable. Adequate stress must be placed on the dangers arising from this aspect of the role-play in the training given to teachers undertaking the package. The creation of perpetrator identification must be minimized, and this is likely only achieved through a very careful analysis of the possible responses in a role-play situation.

Rokeach et al.

Rokeach (1960, 1966, 1971, 1973), Janice & Gilmour, (1965), and Rosenberg, (1965), Gray & Ashmore, (1975), and others have adapted Festinger's dissonance-creating strategy to anti-racist education by using discussions of equality and values. In one example, students were asked to compare their group's stated responses to a ranked list of "most important things", with those of other students. Statistics from U.S. colleges were used to show Equality at #11 of 18 items listed. This was then compared

to stated exultations of equality under the American democratic ideal (Gray & Ashmore, 1975). When students were confronted with the disparity between the value place on personal freedom versus welfare of others, or equality, researchers have been able to create dissonance, and a resulting change toward more equitable values (Rokeach, 1971, 1973; Janice & Gilmour, 1965; Rosenberg, 1965; Gray & Ashmore, 1975). In each of the above studies, students were found to reduce this type of cognitive inconsistency by elevating the value they placed on equality in subsequent rankings. Rokeach found racial attitudes, which he relates to issues of equality, were also observed to move in an egalitarian direction as a consequence of this insight (Rokeach, 1969, 1971, 1973, & Cochrane, 1972). Gray & Ashmore (1975) upheld Rokeach in a later study in this finding. Although Values Discrepancy may or may not involve role-playing techniques, it relates directly to creating dissonance, which is integral to the question of effectiveness in both strategies.

Role-Play: Evidence of Success

Role-playing as an effective tool for altering racial attitudes can be seen as early as 1957. Culbertson found role-play to be effective in shifting attitudes toward more integrationist approaches in students from a middle-England school, who were facing a growing integration of recent Black immigrants in housing and schooling. Culbertson suggested it may

prove to be a useful technique for altering even strongly-held racist attitudes (Culbertson, 1957). Gilmour & Janice (1965), Rosenberg (1965), Hohn, Weisner & Wright (1973), and Gray & Ashmore (1975) all found significant results from using role-play to modify racial beliefs. Gray & Ashmore in particular built directly on Culbertson, but with a larger effect size, comparing role-play, informational, and values discrepancy techniques. They found the strategy to be effective in creating dissonance, and to result in more equitable attitudes toward cultural difference (Gray & Ashmore, 1975).

Breckheimer & Nelson (1976) found racial discussion and racial-based role-playing strategies led to greater cross-race contact in an informal meeting situation, as measured by a series of behavioral interaction scales. They compared cross-race contacts in a group setting, including the selection of partners for use in a discussion exercise and other such measures in order to evaluate greater racial tolerance in attitudes (Breckheimer & Nelson, 1976). In concluding, they recommended a hybrid approach involving role-play, games, and racial discussion, because no single strategy seemed to affect change in each of the behavioral differential and sociometric choice scales they used (Breckheimer & Nelson, 1976). Verma & Bagley (1971, 1973, 1979) have been successful in a series of quasi role-playing situations, involving both discussions of racial difference and modelling (Verma & Bagley, 1971, 1973, 1981). In their 1979 study, they directly measured the effectiveness of role-play in

comparison to three other designs, finding shifts toward tolerant views on a number of measures as a result of role-play from pre-to-post tests (Verma & Bagley, 1979).

The three recent meta-analyses mentioned previously offer support for the use of role-play in anti-racist education. McGregor & Ungerleider analyzed research using student-teachers, in-service teachers, and police officers as subject groups. These studies were all aimed at preparing each group for dealing with intercultural and inter-racial contact (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990). The programs they analyzed were concerned with both attitudes and behaviours, and involved two distinct teaching approaches: cultural information and racism awareness. Their final data set included 19 studies, conducted between 1967 and 1985, one of which was Canadian (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990). A wide variety of different measurement devices were used, but findings were limited to those garnered from social distance, semantic differential, and behavioral observation scales. The average study showed a $(+.20)$ Standard Deviation improvement in experimental group, representing an average person undergoing treatment demonstrating less racial prejudice than 57% of control subjects who did not undergo treatment (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990). Racism awareness studies had a mean effect size of $(+.27Sd)$, while cultural information approaches one of $(+.09Sd)$. In a subsequently published meta-analysis, McGregor directly compared role-play to anti-racist information strategies involving elementary, secondary, and post-secondary students.

McGregor found 13 studies involving role-play which could be effectively used in her meta-analysis. This group represented an average standard deviation of $(+.419Sd)$, in shifting attitudes toward more tolerant positions; 64% of students in control groups showed more prejudice than the average of students undergoing a role-play treatment. McGregor's findings were also more favourable than those in the 1990 meta-analysis with Ungerleider in the important area of negative effect sizes. Whereas 28% of studies involving teachers, and 31% of those with police officers showed negative effect sizes in the 1990 meta-analysis, (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990), McGregor found only 12% of the role-play effect sizes were negative (McGregor, 1993). A negative effect size essentially means subjects measured higher on racial prejudice from pre-test to post-test, or scored higher than control groups on post-test only designs. Moreover, McGregor found a higher percentage of significant effect sizes in 1993, 53% as compared to 47% percent (police) and 30% (teachers) (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990; McGregor 1993). McGregor suggests the more favourable effects may represent an increased malleability in children, over teachers and police, which could allow for a greater impact of anti-racist teachings (McGregor, 1993). McGregor also found higher effect sizes in studies involving younger students, elementary and secondary, when compared to those in post-secondary settings (McGregor, 1993).

Behind the Consortium Design

The Consortium's role-play package follows a pattern laid out in the program for teachers of elementary students by Charles Ungerleider and Cheryl Douglas: When Cultures Meet (Ungerleider & Douglas, 1989). Ungerleider and Douglas used a variety of sources to create their package, from general, non-sexist and/or non-racist education guidebooks, to subject-specific texts for particular aspects of one or more of the critical incidents of racism included in the program. John Kehoe's, A Handbook for Enhancing the Multicultural Climate of the School, (Kehoe, 1984), serves as a major source for both Ungerleider & Douglas, and Responding to Racism. Kehoe suggests teachers must have a positive, not neutral attitude when dealing with racial issues in the classroom. Other studies have found such an attitude to be an important factor in success of role-play (Rubin, 1967; Buchignani, 1985). Kehoe suggests any anti-racist education strategy must portray victims who are about the same age as the subject groups, appear to be fighting back against the perpetrators, and are generally people seen to be agreeable in the subjects' eyes (Kehoe, 1984). Responding to Racism aims at presenting just such a message, with peer-group victims being used throughout the role-play technique.

Part of this study's purpose was to measure post-treatment empathetic levels, in hopes of evaluating exactly what Kehoe's suggestions are seeking to limit: vicarious identification with

the perpetrators of racism. Kehoe further suggests such role-plays should stress a sense of public agreement, with opinions being demonstrated in order to add to social pressure to conform to expected behaviour (Kehoe, 1981, 1984). The building of social sanctions against racial behaviour serves to magnify opportunities for dissonance, and further the valued-oriented goal of the role-play. While the structure of the package closely parallels When Culture's Meet, some important recent recommendations are also part of Responding to Racism.

A greater attempt has been made to ensure a limiting of an effect of creating vicarious identification with the perpetrators of racism. Teachers are being encouraged to take overtly strong moral stands against racism, to directly present values in a situation where individual behaviours are depicted as right or wrong. This can also aid in personalization of race, to make the role-play more meaningful for students (Katz & Sarnoff, 1981; Buchignani, 1985). As mentioned, vicarious identification can be a serious unintended outcome of any anti-racist strategy (Kehoe, 1979, 1984). In one example of unintended negative outcomes from a historical analysis of racism, students were apparently left with the impression racism was a frequent occurrence in Canadian society, and that reduced immigration was the only answer to curb the problem (Kehoe, 1981).

Numerous recommendations from the meta-analyses listed above have also been included. McGregor recommends programs need to be

longer than a single-shot duration (McGregor, 1993), but warns of a serious drop-off when they are too long (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990; McGregor, 1993). Responding to Racism involves three one-hour sessions with students over a regular week of classes, and is intended to fall within these limits.

Teacher competence has been found to be a major factor in role-play (Verma & Bagley, 1981; Buchignani, 1985; McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990; McGregor, 1993). In this case, half-day training seminars were given to teachers implementing the program. McGregor (1993) found teacher training was not carried out prior to most programs she analyzed. The critical incidents used, and the makeup of the Consortium itself both promoted substantial teacher involvement in the creation of Responding to Racism, reflecting another McGregor recommendation for successful role-play anti-racist education (McGregor, 1993). Neither pre-testing effect, nor ethnic composition of treatment groups were found to be factors in either meta-analyses. McGregor and Ungerleider (1990) found greater success with increased ethnic mixture with groups of police officers, which is somewhat reflective of the general ethnic composition of most classrooms undergoing treatment in this study. McGregor (1993) also recommends an integration of anti-racist education into regular curriculum, which was intended to be accomplished by bringing the training program into regular social studies classes, rather than having special teachers carry out the program with these classes.

Measurement Devices

Instrument One - Willingness to Accept Cultural Diversity

All subjects were pretested with a measure of Willingness to Accept Cultural Diversity (Culhane & Kehoe, 1994), for the purpose of establishing Control to Experimental group equivalency. This measure was adapted from one created for a number of previous studies (Kehoe, 1984). A Likert-type 5-point scale, this instrument was administered on a trial run among 143 subjects in both grades 9 and 11 in Richmond, as well as among a single group of approximately 30 grade 9's in a North Vancouver class. Trial-run validity Means and Anova results suggested two items, which did not correlate as strongly as the other 15-items, should be removed from the final version of the Questionnaire.

Validity results are presented below. T-test and Anova comparisons demonstrated group equivalency from Control to Experimental groups in all three teacher samples. Equivalency data follow the Reliability Analysis. Dates of Birth, written by the students on the top of the answer sheets, provided a linking mechanism from pre to posttest. Analysis of the data was on a class-to-class, experimental-to-control basis, rather than on an individual basis.

Reliability Analysis

i - Reliability variables Premeasure (prem01 to prem15)

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALL)

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS

	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED ITEM- TOTAL CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
PREM01	31.3460	49.6654	.4672	.7072
PREM02	31.2417	54.9937	.2096	.7345
PREM03	31.8957	52.1796	.3578	.7200
PREM04	32.2322	54.5030	.2649	.7290
PREM05	31.8057	51.8906	.3927	.7165
PREM06	32.1090	56.4976	.0906	.7475
PREM07	31.9336	51.2241	.3635	.7195
PREM08	31.7915	53.7373	.2244	.7353
PREM09	32.5687	55.4560	.2739	.7284
PREM10	31.5545	55.0673	.1658	.7406
PREM11	31.6540	50.4559	.5318	.7031
PREM12	32.0948	52.0481	.4609	.7114
PREM13	31.8720	52.3978	.4293	.7142
PREM14	31.4597	49.6972	.4746	.7064
PREM15	31.6351	50.5090	.4140	.7135

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS

N OF CASES = 211.0

N OF ITEMS = 15

ALPHA = .7359

Table 1 Group Equivalency

Variable	PREMEASURE	SCORES				
By Variable	GROUP	SELECTION				
Analysis of Variance						
Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.	
Between Groups	1	30.0012	30.0012	.5436	.4618	
Within Groups	209	11534.1220	55.1872			
Total	210	11564.1232				

O N E W A Y						
Group	Count	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	95 Pct Conf	Int for Mean
Experimental	137	31.2774	7.2728	.6214	30.0486 To	32.5061
Control	74	32.0676	7.7111	.8964	30.2810 To	33.8541
Total	211	31.5545	7.4207	.5109	30.5474 To	32.5616
Fixed Effects Model			7.4288	.5114	30.5463 To	32.5627
Random Effects Model				.5114	25.0563 To	38.0527
Random Effects Model	Estimate of Between Component Variance					-.2621

Group	Minimum	Maximum				
Grp 1	14.0000	50.0000				
Grp 2	18.0000	53.0000				
Total	14.0000	53.0000				

Tests for Homogeneity of Variances						
(Approx.)						
Cochrans	C =	Max. Variance/Sum(Variances)	=	.5292,	P = .550	
Bartlett-Box	F =			.327	, P = .567	
Maximum Variance	/	Minimum Variance		1.124		

Instrument Two - Evidence of Racism Scale

The Evidence of Racism Scale (Kehoe, 1994) was administered post-treatment to Experimental groups, and to Control subjects following a week of regular social studies classes. Validity tests performed on trial runs of this instrument also led to a reduction in number of items. In this case, three items which did not correlate as strongly with overall results were removed. Validity results are below. Matched Dates of Births were again used to link particular students from pre to posttest.

ii - Evidence of Racism Scale - (posta01 to postal4)

----- R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L L) -----

ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS

	SCALE MEAN IF ITEM DELETED	SCALE VARIANCE IF ITEM DELETED	CORRECTED ITEM TOTAL CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
POSTA01	28.8710	37.2481	.3918	.6723
POSTA02	29.1344	37.7926	.3934	.6737
POSTA03	27.9570	37.7711	.2757	.6862
POSTA04	29.1022	35.7571	.5535	.6538
POSTA05	28.4355	37.7823	.2510	.6900
POSTA06	28.6828	37.9367	.2401	.6915
POSTA07	28.8280	37.1702	.4554	.6670
POSTA08	28.9570	36.9927	.2970	.6838
POSTA09	28.2151	35.9751	.3331	.6790
POSTA10	28.5591	39.9343	.1078	.7078
POSTA11	28.3871	39.4926	.1022	.7128
POSTA12	28.3495	38.1961	.2668	.6870
POSTA13	29.0108	36.9837	.4155	.6695
POSTA14	28.9032	36.4554	.4919	.6614

COEFFICIENTS: N OF CASES = 186.0 N OF ITEMS = 14 ALPHA = .6974

Instrument Three - Written Response to a Racist Incident

This instrument was created specifically for the purpose of this study to measure knowledge of how to respond to a racist incident. Experimental and Control subjects were given four examples of racist incidents in anecdotal form. They were then asked to write brief outlines of how they would respond to these situations. The strategy outlined in the training package, for responding to a racist incident, served as a model for appropriate responses, and the blueprint for scoring. The questions used closely paralleled the scenarios given in the training program. Upon trial runs of this instrument in North Vancouver, a single item was considered for removal, as its mean score did not correlate well with overall scores of individual students. It was believed this was due to a difference in locus of the racist incident. While the other three items involved the student reading about a situation which included them as a participant, in the scenario involving a racist incident, this item did not. However, in the final design, this item was included as it was believed to reflect some of the critical incidents in the training package, and would therefore afford more detailed analysis of the program than if it were to have been removed.

Instrument Four - Racist Incident Behavioral Scale.

Breckheimer & Nelson (1976) used a similar staged social setting to record behavioral interactions following a role-play training program, along with three other anti-racist teaching strategies. In their example, students were asked to come to an organizational meeting in a conference room, where they were to wait a short time before the proceedings got underway. The room was equipped with a one-way mirror, behind which was video recording equipment. During the 10 minute period, student to student interactions were recorded on tape for later analysis. Students had been warned that they were being videotaped as part of the program. Two undergraduate students, unaware of the details of the study, were trained to a 90% reliability level prior to judging the tapes. Breckheimer & Nelson used the session as a measure of sociometric choice, with students being asked to select partners for an upcoming exercise. Meanwhile, behavioral interactions were recorded, ranging from choice of seating positions to verbal interactions.

The methodology of the current study borrows from Breckheimer & Nelson, but also uses a somewhat different set of measurement devices. A reshaping of the essentials of Breckheimer & Nelson's pattern for analyzing student to student interaction has been carried out to measure student reactions in a manner more closely reflecting Responding to Racism.

Students are scored based upon the level to which they participate in the racist situation, and whether that participation serves to oppose or support the racist ideas presented. The grading system uses anecdotal comments from two student actors involved and the researcher, in coded scores from each actor between one and five. A more thorough explanation of the workings of the instrument are to be found in the upcoming Methodology section.

IV *Design and Methodology*

Design

- 2 High Schools: 1 Vancouver, 1 Richmond

-- Vancouver: 2 Grade 9/ 2 Grade 11

* Taught by Teacher A

-- Richmond: 3 Grade 11

* Taught by Teacher B

3 Grade 11

* Taught by Teacher C

Total of 10 classrooms, 6 - Experimental 4 - Control, T=262.

All subjects were pretested with measure of **Willingness to Accept Cultural Diversity/Questionnaire I**. Mean and Anova comparison data established group equivalency.

Treatment: Experimental Anti-Racist Training Package.

Control: Regular Socials Studies Classroom Work.

All subjects post-tested with:

- a) **Written Response to Racist Incidents / Questionnaire III.**
- b) Indication of levels of racism / Questionnaire II - Likert Scale.

A smaller samples post-test with:

- c) **Unobtrusive Reaction to a Racist Incident Behavioral Scale / Number of subjects = 68 (40 Experimental;28 Control.)**

Methodology

(a) Selection

Teachers involved in the study were aware of the program as a result of their school district participation in the Consortium. Each were contacted by members of the Consortium from their district. They volunteered to participate in testing **Responding to Racism** in their classrooms. Students included are members of three classes per teacher involved. School district approval for the study was received after applications were made to the respective ethical review committees of Vancouver and Richmond School Districts, (see Appendix C). Individual schools involved gave their approval through district ethical review consultation. Student and parental permission were obtained through request forms, (see Appendix C).

Students not completing successive measures were dropped from later analysis and subsequent measures. Selection for the Behaviour measure was threefold. First, teachers removed names from class lists of students who had not completed the previous three questionnaires. Second, random samples of ten to twelve students were selected, ensuring sufficient numbers for study in the event of student absence. Students were then matched into pairs immediately prior to taking part in the behavioral test by the teacher and not the researcher. No attempt was made to ensure pairs were of any particular ethnic, gender, or other type of composition.

The actors involved in the study were selected after contact with the Vancouver Youth Theatre. Due to the nature of the program, it was necessary that one student actor was from a visible minority group, and the second was not. For this reason, great care was taken in selecting the final two actors involved. Both actors participated in a brief discussion in regards to what the work entailed, as well as an afternoon training session at UBC. During this time possible areas to be used in generating a life-like racist exchange were worked out. While the students were made aware of the essentials of the training package, and the purpose for the behavioral measure, they were not aware of group membership of particular pairs of students being measured at any time.

(b) Scoring

Premeasure and Postmeasure I scoring followed the Likert rating scale. Choices ranged from: "Strongly Agree": 1 ; "Moderately Agree": 2 ; "Can't Decide": 3 ; "Moderately Disagree" : 4 ; "Strongly Disagree": 5. Negatively skewed questions were coded likewise, but recoded upon calculation. This involved approximately 40% of the items on both Questionnaires. Students were matched from measurement to measurement through Dates of Birth, requested on each answer sheet. Students were dropped from the sample if this could not be established through subsequent measures. A university student not otherwise involved in the study was brought in to enter the data, and also to score

the second Postmeasure.

Scoring for Postmeasure II - Written Reaction to Racist Incidents followed the pattern laid out in Responding to Racism. This five-point scale measures two aspects of possible responses: support/opposition for perpetrator and/or victim in the particular incident, and the strength of this support or opposition. The scoring criteria was explained to the data entry student, who scored this measure according to the following model:

Full Positive Intervention	= 5
Partial Intervention	= 4
Neutral Response	= 3
Partial Negative Response	= 2
Full Negative Response	= 1

A Full Positive Intervention would be characterized by an active attempt to stop the perpetrator, or to show direct opposition to the racist comments, and to support or comfort the victim.

A Partial Positive Intervention would be demonstrated by an apparent uneasiness displayed toward the racial slur given, a partial attempt to have the perpetrator halt the action, and/or a partial attempt to comfort the victim.

A Neutral Response would be characterized by no attempt to stop the perpetrator or comfort the victim, but may include some effort to dissipate or otherwise calm the situation.

A Partial Negative Response would be evidenced by a visible or audible support for the perpetrator, be it in laughter or some other supportive gesture, no attempt to comfort the victim, but no overt attempt to further add to the name-calling, and/or to escalate the situation.

A Full Negative Response would involve an action reflective of the perpetrator, furthering the racial slur, adding support for the perpetrator, and furthering the discomfort of the victim in some way.

Scoring of the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale was done by the actors, following the above model from the Written Response to a Racist Incident. Originally, hidden video recordings were to be used, but it was found almost immediately that the other scoring techniques were more reliable, especially in relation to minor facial or verbal reactions, which were all but impossible to pick up with video recordings. Moreover, the student actors found many other subtleties that would be essentially invisible to a video recording, such as quick incidents of eye contact, small reactions evidenced by body language, and minor laughs or sighs. While the actors had some briefing on the goals of the program, and were aware of the ingredients of the scoring

criteria, they were purposely not made aware of which subjects were from Control or Experimental groups. The scoring criteria was thoroughly discussed with the actors prior to commencement of the behavioral measurement. The actors were encouraged to write anecdotal comments immediately following each measurement session, which added to the researcher's data on each pairing.

Each of the two individuals under study were categorized separately, although it was understood the actions of one may have had a bearing on that of the other. Responding to Racism draws heavily on social aspects of racially-motivated behaviour, and it was the intent of this measure to evaluate the extent to which reactions of the students would follow this social behaviour. Examples of anecdotal comments and subsequent scores assigned by the actors follow.

Behavioral scoring - anecdotal comment examples.

*Names have been changed to protect anonymity.

*Pat and Karen are the student actors.

*Pat is of Japanese descent; Karen, of English descent.

(a) Full-Positive Addressal = Score 5.

Y. was more aggressive in responding to the racist words than W. She looked directly at Karen and showed displeasure with a noticeable glare. Support was given to Pat in a nodding motion, apparently suggesting Pat should ignore what was going on. Y. also told Karen that what she was saying was "garbage", "offensive", and "racist."

A. challenged Karen immediately. She looked at Pat, who was the recipient of the racist comments from Karen, and shook her head in disbelief. She then gave a perplexed look at Karen, as if to say that she could not understand how some people were like this...like Karen was acting. She asked Karen to stop, told Pat not to listen, and mentioned the incident when the researcher returned to the interview room.

(b) Partial-Positive Addressal = Score 4.

D. was clearly uneasy about the racist words being said by Pat. While she appeared to agree with L., she was less direct in confronting Pat, choosing to show her displeasure with quick glances and, at one point, a long disapproving stare accompanied by a puff of breath in astonishment.

S. reacted quickly when Pat made her racist remarks about Karen, although he chose to focus directly on Pat, and not on helping Karen, for the most part. He gave her, in Pat's words, "a cold hard stare" which was visible outside the room as a confrontation. A less tangible sign of support for Karen was also noticed by both actors and the researcher.

(c) Neutral Response = Score 3.

R. was even more distant than the other student in the incident, C. She really didn't involve herself in the situation, taking care not to laugh, smile, or frown in disagreement or sympathy with either actor.

Neither A. nor T. were very comfortable with any aspect of the survey or even leaving class to take part. What appeared to be confusion may very well be due to weaker levels of English, and a misunderstanding of what was going on. During the racist incident, neither made comments of support or opposition. In fact, they appeared to be quite cautious with the situation, and seemed to carefully avoid coming down with any type of opinion that might get them involved.

(d) Partial-Negative Response = Score 2.

N. stayed away from supporting or confronting either actor immediately after Pat made comments about "White people wearing their f__ing walkmans", but soon chose to support the racism. He laughed, smiled and made a similar comment under his breath, which was not picked up clearly by either actor. His actions fell short of furthering the racism, but certainly helped to continue it.

A. began to support Pat's comments immediately after hearing them. He chuckled, smiled at N., and made a few similar comments to Pat's. It appeared to the researcher that his actions were working to further the racism, both student actors agreed this was the case, but did not believe it warranted a full-negative response.

(e) Full-Negative Response = Score 1.

D. took off when Karen made a comment about stupid "ch-nks" in Richmond and Vancouver, with "their fancy cars". She showed immediate and strong support for the comments in a way which clearly served to add to the racism of the situation. Both actors were shocked at her full-fledged acceptance of the racism expressed, which even continued when the researcher returned to the room, when she said there should be different rules for the "rest of us" than "them."

(c) Procedure

All subjects were pretested with a measure of Willingness to Accept Cultural Diversity (Culhane & Kehoe, 1994). A Likert-type 5-point scale, this instrument was administered on a trial run among 143 subjects in both grades 9 and 11 in Richmond, as well as among a single group of approximately 30 grade 9's in a North Vancouver class. Trial-run validity Means and Anova results suggested two items, which did not correlate as strongly as the other 15-items, should be removed from the final version of the Questionnaire (Validity results can be found earlier, in the Measures section of the Literature Review). One week prior to commencement of the training program, both Control and Experimental groups completed the Premeasure, Questionnaire I. Data was immediately analyzed to ensure Control to Experimental group equivalency, which was established, (see Measures in Literature Review).

In the following week, experimental students in six classes underwent three one-hour sessions using the role-play strategies and scenarios from Responding to Racism. Meantime, four control classes continued with regular social studies material.

Postmeasurement began one week later. Questionnaires II and III were written in the same session, taking up about thirty minutes in total. The Evidence of Racism Scale (Kehoe, 1994) was also tested for validity prior to use, (see Measures). Matched

Dates of Births were used to link particular students from pre to posttest, ensuring students had written both measures. Comparison data was obtained for Control to Experimental samples, Gender and Grade difference. The Written Reaction to Racist Incidents measure / Questionnaire III involved giving subjects four written examples of racist incidents in anecdotal form. They were then asked to write brief outlines of how they would respond to these situations. The strategy outlined in the training package, for responding to a racist incident, served as a model for appropriate responses, and the blueprint for scoring. The questions used closely paralleled the scenarios given in the training program. Mean, T-test, and Anova data was then tabulated for Control to Experimental group comparison.

Ten to twelve days after the administration of the training program, random samples of students from Experimental and Control groups (N=68) were placed in a staged situation where strategies role-played in the program could be utilized. Students underwent analysis in pairs, (n=32 Vancouver/n=36 Richmond; Total Samples: Control n=28; Experimental n=40). In these pairs, with Experimental and Control pairs kept isolated, students were asked to participate in a survey of youth attitudes on various topics involving autonomy in the classroom. They were told other students from a nearby school would also be taking part. The sample was chosen at random by each of the three teachers involved, who made certain only students having written the three

previous measures could be selected. Students were grouped into pairs on a class list, with no attempt made to ensure particular gender or ethnic grouping. When students arrived at a special room for the interview, the researcher handed them a simple survey sheet containing four questions, instructing the two students to be measured to complete the survey along with two other students, explained to be from a nearby school. In fact, these two other students were professional actors, trained for the role.

The researcher left the room while the students worked through the survey sheet, saying he had to arrange the following groups, and that he would return after about five minutes. Once he had left the room, the two actors chose an aspect of the survey to disagree on. Their disagreement turned into a racist incident, with one of the actors making racist comments toward the other, and the other essentially acting the role of the victim. The actors were of differing ethnicities, one of Japanese descent, and the other of English descent. While the scenario progressed, the two actors paid attention to the reaction of the two students being measured. Immediately following the return of the researcher, and the dismissal of the two students, anecdotal comments and scoring of the two students was carried out. Care was taken to ensure the proceeding pairs of students to be measured were not aware of the true identity of the two actors, and that students returning from the testing did

not meet up with upcoming groups immediately upon their arrival back to class.

Scoring was on a five-point scale, entirely done by the two actors, who were closest to the students being measured, and also more impartial to the goals of the program than the researcher. Anecdotal comments recorded by the researcher, who was able to view the ongoing scenarios through a small window opening, were used to validate the scoring by the actors. However, final scoring was tallied only from the actors' numbers. The cover story of a student attitudes survey on topics, such as "Use of Walkmans in class", and "Eating food in class", seemed effective. Only a single pair had to be removed from the sample due to "catching on" to the scenario, and this was because one of the students personally knew one of the two actors. Fortunately, this pair was in the final class to be analyzed. Teachers involved worked to assist the covert aspect of this measure, helping to separate the researcher from the anti-racist training program. The researcher had not previously appeared to any group of students involved in the study. Students were brought into waiting areas in pairs, to ensure no contact between past and upcoming groups, and teachers were careful no students returning to class discussed the interview scenario they had just been through during class. Anova, Means, and T-test calculations of difference were carried out after the administration of the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale.

A post-hoc evaluation of student empathetic levels toward the victims of racism was accomplished through analysis of five empathetic items from the first posttest. These were recoded into a new variable and then compared from Control to Experimental groups. Both written and behavioral responses to racist incidents inherently measured empathetic aspects of student reactions, due to their scoring criteria of whether support or opposition to perpetrators or victims in the racist scenarios was offered. However, the combination of these two measures with the first post-test into a multivariate analysis of empathy required further reliability testing, possible only through subsequence administrations of each instrument. As a result, while a modified multivariate analysis was made through a combination of the final two instruments, Anova, T-test, and Mean results from these calculations are only being presented as an initial step toward further validation of these instruments.

V Results

Results will be presented in three stages. Each of the three Hypotheses considered in the study will be addressed in turn. Following this, Gender and Grade analysis will be evaluated in relation to all three hypotheses.

(1) - Positive Knowledge of How to Respond to Racism

(1) Students participating in the program will demonstrate significant positive knowledge of how to respond to a racist incident, compared with students who did not participate in the program.

The second posttest, Written Reactions to Racist Incidents, (Questionnaire III) served as the measurement device with regard to knowledge of how to respond to a racist incident. Contained in Appendix A, it codes written responses of students to described scenarios, closely paralleling those given in the training program. As expected, students undergoing training responded significantly more positively than Control students in demonstrating a knowledge of the patterns presented in the training package for how to react to a racist incident. Significant effect sizes were demonstrated between Experimental and Control group means, ($t=3.33$) $p. <.001$). Experimental subjects showed a moderate shift in S_d (+.47) over Control subjects, whereby an average Experimental subject ranked in the

66th percentile of Control groups. Table 2 and 3 contain Means and T-test results from Posttest II.

Table 2 Means - Written Reaction to Racist Incidents

Group 1: EXPERIMENTAL			Group 2: CONTROL		
		<u>Number of Cases</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>	<u>Standard Error</u>
Group	1	121	16.9504	1.760	.160
Group	2	63	15.8413	2.315	.292

Table 3 T-Tests - Written Reaction to Racist Incidents

		Pooled Variance Estimate			Separate Variance Estimate		
<u>F</u>	<u>2-Tail</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>Degrees</u>	<u>of 2-Tail</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>Degrees</u>	<u>of 2-Tail</u>
<u>Value</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>Freedom</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>Freedom</u>	<u>Prob.</u>
1.73	.011	3.63	182	.000	3.33	100.22	.001

These results agree with those from the McGregor meta-analysis, which found an average improvement of $(+.41Sd)$ in Experimental groups over Control among programs using role-play (McGregor, 1993). The slightly higher $(+.47Sd)$ variance between Experimental and Control groups here may be attributable to a more direct measurement process. In reviewing the significant positive effect size studies from McGregor, it was found that most of these used written measures on semantic differential, or other scales, to evaluate post-treatment levels of racism. Contrasting this, Postmeasure II in this study involved a much

more direct measurement of **response** to a described **racist incident**. One would expect a more significant difference on such a measure, due to the proximity of the items to the actual training program. Breckheimer & Nelson (1976) did use a similar measure in their study, which was among the McGregor sample, and also found a larger impact on Experimental subjects than the average for the meta-analysis.

(2) Lower Levels of Racism, Increased Empathy

(2) Students participating in the program will be less racist than those in the control group, as measured by attitude and empathetic scales.

Levels of Racism

The first posttest, the **Evidence of Racism Scale** was used to determine post-treatment levels of racism among Control and Experimental groups. Students undergoing training were slightly less racist on this measure, than Control subjects, (+.16Sd). Experimental group Means ranked in the 56th percentile of Control students. Overall scores for Control and Experimental groups were quite consistent, while class to class variation was wide, as evidenced in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4 Means - Evidence of Racism Measure

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
	For Entire Population		30.8763	6.5224	186
TEACH	EXP	1	28.0870	6.2734	23
TEACH		2	30.9333	11.0871	15
TEACH		3	31.9000	6.8202	20
TEACH	EXP	4	32.0909	4.6075	22
TEACH	EXP	6	29.8333	6.4362	12
TEACH		7	32.5714	4.0935	21
TEACH		8	29.8889	5.7975	9
TEACH	EXP	9	31.0000	6.5498	21
TEACH	EXP	10	31.2917	6.3553	24
TEACH	EXP	11	30.3158	6.5917	19
Total	Cases	=	220		
Missing	Cases	=	34 OR 15.5 PCT.		

Table 5 Overall Means - T-test - Evidence of Racism

		Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
EXPERIMENTAL		121	30.4793	6.159	.560
CONTROL		65	31.6154	7.141	.886

		Pooled	Variance	Estimate	Separate	Variance	Estimate
F	2-Tail	t	Degrees	of 2-Tail	t	Degrees	of 2-Tail
Value	Prob.	Value	Freedom	Prob.	Value	Freedom	Prob.
1.34	.165	-1.13	184	.258	-1.08	115.54	.281

The relatively short measurement period of the study, over weeks and not months, may be partly contributing to the slight nature of this difference between Control and Experimental subjects. Moreover, this instrument is likely to be the one most susceptible to what is termed the *Hawthorne Effect*. Under the

Hawthorne Effect, subjects act differently because they realize they are involved in a research study (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993). Students may fake responses to appear in a more positive light, or as a result of fore-knowledge of intended outcomes of a particular program. While Experimental and Control group students are both susceptible to this type of reaction, the use of three separate postmeasures in this study serves to limit the impact of this factor on the larger Experimental sample. As the **Hawthorne Effect** is much simpler to site than to measure, the use of a behavioral measure was seen as being particular essential to this study. Overt evaluation is much more susceptible to any testing effect, including **Hawthorne**, on subject responses, than covert measurement, where students are not aware they are being evaluated.

Breckheimer & Nelson, 1976, suggest the use of a hybrid training program to accomplish wider ranges of anti-racist objectives. They recommend a hybrid approach involving role-play, games, and racial discussion, because no single strategy seemed to affect change in each of the behavioral differential and sociometric choice scales they used. It is likely the role-play technique utilized in Responding to Racism produces positive results in the area of racist attitudes, but over a longer time frame than was allowed for. Verma & Bagley (1971, 1973, 1979) found success in quasi role-play strategies, involving both

discussions of racial difference and modelling (Verma & Bagley, 1971, 1973, 1981). In their 1979 study, they directly measured the effectiveness of role-play in comparison to three other designs, finding shifts toward tolerant views on a number of measures as a result of role-play from pre-to-post tests (Verma & Bagley, 1979). However, they also suggest a multiple approach strategy, which features some components of Cultural Information and Contact streams to produce results over a wide range of possible objectives, (Verma & Bagley, 1979, 1981).

The modest level of the attitude shift must, however, be addressed in the light of the possibility of producing negative results, rather than even slightly positive ones. McGregor's 1990 meta-analysis found 12% of the effect sizes to be negative, among studies using role-play (McGregor, 1993). A much higher 28% of studies involving teachers, and 31% of those with police officers showed negative effect sizes in the 1990 meta-analysis (McGregor & Ungerleider, 1990). In the studies with these negative effect sizes, attempts to sensitize groups to issue of racial prejudice had managed to convince a majority of subjects to be more intolerant than they had been prior to training. While it would be fallacious to argue any latent effect would shift these negative effect sizes into the positive realm, the latent aspect should not be so rejected in situations where a modest positive shift has already been shown. This was the case in the results of the first post-measure questionnaire.

Empathy

Analysis of empathetic reactions towards the victims of racism was accomplished through a selection of five items from the first posttest, all of which directly related to empathy. Results suggest only a minor shift toward more empathetic positions by Experimental students.

Table 6 Means Post-Empathy Control to Experimental

Variable		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population		12.7419	3.4856	186
Experimental	1	12.6612	3.2623	121
Control	2	12.8923	3.8896	65
Total Cases		=	211	
Missing Cases		=	25 OR	11.8 PCT.

As mentioned, one of the limiting factors of this study was a relatively short baseline for data collection. Evaluation of student retention of the given models for dealing with racist incidents, both on the written and behavioral tests was not effected by this problem. However, results from the measurement of empathy were. Creation of empathy, and reduction of levels of racism, are the most affective components of the training program aims. Taxonomies of affectively focused educational objectives have placed these types of reactions far beyond either awareness or a willingness to respond to a particular situation (Krathwohl,

1965; Hopkins, 1990). Such affective objectives generally involve latent results, which cannot be measured in the time-frame of this study. Anti-racist role-play seeks the transmission of patterns of expected behaviour. The other two postmeasures focus on these types of responses, and have accordingly shown more tangible, as well as positive results. As value adjustment is generally considered to be a longer-term effect of any training program, the researcher may re-test Experimental students after a greater period, to test for a latent response on empathetic and attitudinal components, to confirm these expectations.

Although empathetic responses were an integral component of the marking criteria for the measures of written and behavioral responses to racist incidents, a multivariate analysis involving these two new instruments could not be immediately validated. An attempt will be made then, as a result of these factors, to present multivariate data which must still be considered as only a suggestive interpretation. The analysis provided by a combination of the final two postmeasures found significant difference between Control and Experimental samples, ($t=3.61$) $p < .001$). Lower scores were taken as evidence of a more empathetic response toward the victims of racism. Percentile rankings have Experimental group students, on average, in the 79th percentile of Control subjects. Again, these data can only be considered speculative, without a more thorough statistical validation of

each of these instruments, requiring further administrations and validity tests. However, the empathetic components of the final two measures are valid, so the significance of these findings might also suggest the appropriateness of written and behavioral evaluation originating from a much more proximitous theoretical grounds, than either attitude or semantic differential scales. Table 7 presents the means achieved from this combination of Instruments three and four.

Tables 7 & 8 Means & T-Test Written and Behavioral Measures

	Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
For Entire Population	68	13.1324	3.8861	
Experimental	40	11.0500	2.754	.436
Control	28	16.1071	3.304	.624
Total Cases =			211	
Missing Cases =			143 OR	67.8 PCT.

	Pooled	Variance	Estimate	
F	t	Degrees	of	2-Tail
Value	Value	Freedom	2-Tail	Prob.
1.44	2-Tail Prob.	-6.86	66	.000
		-6.64	51.27	.000

When adjusted to a possible scale of 30, six items with maximum scores of five, Experimental subject mean scores translate into a partial addressal response (2.21), according to the scale listed above for scoring these instruments. Whereas Control subjects, measuring (3.22), rank one full category higher, in the non addressal response area. Trained students chose to respond

in a slightly positive manner, on average, while Control subjects chose, on average, to do nothing.

(3) - Positive Response to a Racially-based incident

(3) Students participating in the program will respond significantly more positively to a described, and an actual racist incident, than those not undergoing treatment.

Results from analysis of the behavioral measure provided the clearest evidence of the success of both the program and the training package. Significant effect sizes were demonstrated between control and experimental groups in both Richmond and Vancouver ($t=(5.44)$ $p.< .001$). Experimental students measured in the 92nd percentile of Control subjects, correlating to a remarkable (+1.23Sd) shift. Tables 9 and 10 outline the Means and Frequencies of reactions among both groups (class by class analysis is in Appendix E).

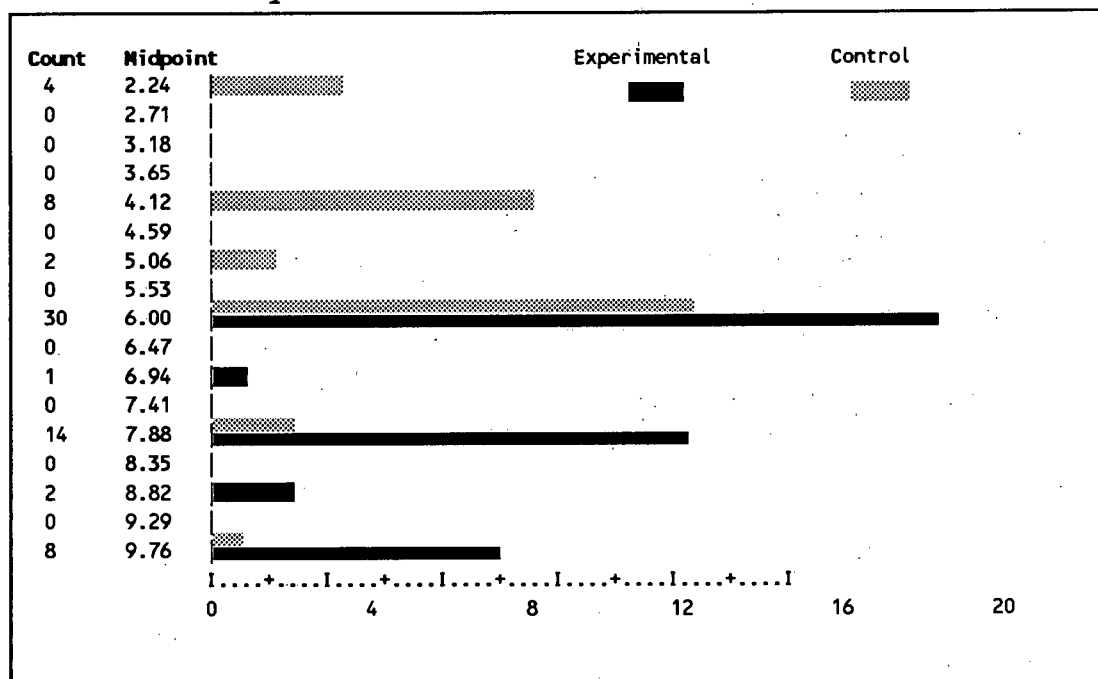
Table 9 Means - T-Test Racist Incident Behavioral Scale

		<u>Number of Cases</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>	<u>Standard Error</u>
EXPERIMENTAL		40	7.4750	1.536	.243
CONTROL		28	5.1071	1.912	.361

		<u>Pooled</u>	<u>Variance</u>	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>Separate</u>	<u>Variance</u>	<u>Estimate</u>
<u>F</u>	<u>2-Tail</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>Degrees</u>	<u>of</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>Degrees</u>	<u>of</u>
<u>Value</u>	<u>Prob.</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>Freedom</u>	<u>2-Tail</u>	<u>Value</u>	<u>Freedom</u>	<u>2-Tail</u>
				<u>Prob.</u>			<u>Prob.</u>
1.55	.207	5.65	66	.001	5.44	49.86	.001

The magnitude of this difference appears startling, but it should be moderated by a frequency analysis. In general, students from Control groups tended to either not react to the staged racist incident, or to react in a partially racist manner. Whereas, students who had completed the training program tended to either give a neutral reaction, or react in a moderately positive manner. These tendencies are magnified in the T-test results, but can be demonstrated clearly in Table 10, a frequency distribution histogram.

Table 10 Frequencies - Racist Incident Behavioral Scale



Notice the two relative clusters at 6.00, representing Neutral Scores of "3" from both Actor/Scorers. Control students cluster from scores of "4" to "6", in evidence of **Partially Negative** responses to the racist incidents. Contrarily, Experimental subjects, tend to be distributed from "6" to "8", reflecting **Partially Positive** assessments on the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale. These differences are exaggerated in the T-test results somewhat, but are never-the-less significant.

Precise frequencies on the behavioral measure are as follows:

Table 11 Group Frequencies - Behavioral Measure

Control					Experimental				
Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent	Percent	Value	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cum Percent	Percent
2.00	4	5.2	14.3	14.3	6.00	18	12.7	45.0	45.0
4.00	8	10.4	28.6	42.9	7.00	1	.7	2.5	47.5
5.00	1	1.3	3.6	46.4	8.00	12	8.5	30.0	77.5
6.00	12	15.6	42.9	89.3	9.00	2	1.4	5.0	82.5
8.00	2	2.6	7.1	96.4	10.00	7	4.9	17.5	100.0
10.00	1	1.3	3.6	100.0					
				-----					-----
Total 28				100.0	Total 40				100.00

Results from the Written Response to Racist Incidents parallel these, as presented under the "*Positive Response to a Racist Incident*" section above. Students undergoing the Responding to Racism role-play training showed a (+.47sd) shift, measuring in the 66th percentile of Control subjects, demonstrating a significant difference ($t=(3.33)$ $p. <.001$).

Class by class Means on the Behavioral Measure were naturally more disparate, although they also reflected the same frequency pattern, as presented in Table 12.

Table 12 Group Means - Behavioral Measure

(a) Class by Class					
Variable	Label		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire	Population		6.5000	2.0552	68
TEACH EXP	1		8.3750	1.6850	8
TEACH	2		4.8750	1.8077	8
TEACH	3		5.2500	1.0351	8
TEACH EXP	4		8.3750	1.3025	8
TEACH EXP	6		8.1667	1.6021	6
TEACH	7		4.7500	2.1213	8
TEACH	8		6.0000	3.2660	4
TEACH EXP	9		6.5000	.9258	8
TEACH EXP	10		6.4000	.8433	10

(b) Control to Experimental					
Variable	Label		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire	Population		6.5000	2.0552	68
Experimental	1		7.4750	1.5357	40
Control	2		5.1071	1.9117	28

(4) Grade Level Analysis

McGregor suggests more favourable effects in some of the studies included in her meta-analysis may have been due to an "increased malleability in children," over older subject groups such as teachers or police officers (McGregor, 1993).

Table 13 Grade Variance - Evidence of Racism Scale

Variable			Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For	Entire	Population	30.8763	6.5224	186
GRADE		09	29.8605	6.7351	43
GRADE		11	31.1818	6.4498	143
Total			Cases	=	211
Missing			Cases	=	25 OR 11.8 PCT.

Similar considerations have been raised in many other studies. However, the present data, displayed in Table 13 above, did not find significant difference between Grade 9 and Grade 11 students on the measurement devices used. Data from the first post-measure found some variation between Grade 9 and 11 students, however when analysis was drawn into a three-way Anova calculation, the level of this difference was not significant.

Grade level analysis of the second post-measure, Written Response to Racist Incidents, also did not suggest any significant difference between grades.

Table 14 Grade Variance - Written Response to Racist Incidents

Variable			Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For	Entire	Population	7.4317	2.0339	183
GRADE		09	7.1429	2.1135	42
GRADE		11	7.5177	2.0093	141
Total			Cases	=	211
Missing			Cases	=	28 OR 13.3 PCT.

Anova tests were also performed to ascertain a link between variables, grade level and Experimental or Control group status in regards to levels of empathy toward the victims of racism. Again, analysis did not find significant difference between grades.

Table 15 Post-Empathy by Grade - Experimental to Control

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	5.371	2	2.686	.218	.804
TEACH	2.974	1	2.974	.242	.624
GRADE	3.112	1	3.112	.253	.616
2-way Interactions	2.482	1	2.482	.202	.654
TEACH GRADE	2.482	1	2.482	.202	.654
Explained	7.853	3	2.618	.213	.887
Residual	2239.760	182		12.306	
Total	2247.613	185		12.149	

Grade by grade analysis of the behavioral measure found the largest difference between grade samples. This may, however, be due to a much larger selection of Grade 11 students, due to the nature of the final behavioral testing process. Refer to the Significance of F category of Table 17.

Table 16 Means - Behavioral Measure by Grade.

Variable		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population		5.5000	2.0552	68
GRADE	09	5.1875	2.1046	16
GRADE	11	5.5962	2.0509	52
Total Cases =		211		
Missing Cases =		143 OR	67.8 PCT.	

Table 17 Anova - Behavioral Results

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	445.814	2	222.907	25.801	.000
TEACH	437.447	1	437.447	50.634	.000
GRADE	24.583	1	24.583	2.846	.096
2-way Interactions	13.077	1	13.077	1.514	.223
TEACH GRADE	13.077	1	13.077	1.514	.223
Explained	458.890	3	152.963	17.705	.000
Residual			552.919	64	8.639
Total			1011.809	67	15.102

While the effects of the Teach variable, ostensibly Experimental or Control group membership, are significant to the $p. <.001$ level, Grade membership shows a low probability estimation as well. This means the impact of grade membership can only narrowly be rejected as having no effect, mathematically speaking. The combination of a two way interaction between these variables, in Table 17, raises the mathematical likelihood that this variance is due to chance, rather than tangible difference between the four student groups: Experimental and Control for each of two grades.

(5) Gender Difference Analysis

While not a major focus of this study, Gender difference on post-treatment scores warrants consideration. Taken collectively, Female Mean scores, regardless of group selection, are strongly more positive than Male scores. Gender analysis found significant difference between students undergoing training and those in the Control group, notably with the knowledge of how to respond to racism measure.

Table 18 Gender Means - Postmeasure II

POPULATION (Both Genders)					
Mean 16.57 (183)					
Total Sample Means:					
Male	15.89	(75)	Female	17.04	(108)
Control Group:			Experimental Group:		
Male	15.08	(26)	Male	16.33	(49)
Female	16.19	(36)	Female	17.46	(72)

Table 19 Means by Gender - Post-Empathy

MEANS		
TOTAL POPULATION		12.74 (186)
	GENDER	
	Male	Female
EXPERIMENTAL	13.74 (50)	11.90 (71)
CONTROL	14.07 (27)	12.05 (38)

When Experimental to Control comparison is made within each gender, however, impact of the treatment remains consistent with non-gender-based analysis. Variance from Female to Male ratings are virtually equivalent from pre to post measures. Post-empathy analysis also furnished significant gender variance.

Table 20 Gender Anova - Post-Empathy

* * * A N A L Y S I S O F V A R I A N C E * * *						
GENDER	BY GROUP	Sum of	DF	Mean		Signif
Source	of Variation	Squares		Square	F	of F
Main Effects		165.593	2	82.797	7.239	.001
TEACH		2.180	1	2.180	.191	.663
SEX		163.334	1	163.334	14.280	.000
2-way Interactions		.343	1	.343	.030	.863
TEACH SEX		.343	1	.343	.030	.863
Explained		165.936	3	55.312	4.836	.003
Residual			2081.676	182	11.438	
Total			2247.613	185	12.149	

While analysis of female subjects alone demonstrates what appears to be a significant difference, once again, this is more fully explained through the Anova results. When Gender difference is compared to the much greater effect of being in or out of the treatment group, the resulting **2-way Interaction** fails to produce a significant difference between Gender groups, see Significance of F in Table 20. Therefore, although female respondents did measure mathematically lower on the post-empathy items, their overall scores were not significant in comparison to those generated between Control and Experimental groups.

Analysis of the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale followed this pattern, as presented on Tables 21 and 22.

Table 21 Means by Gender- Racist Incident Behavioral Scale

TOTAL POPULATION			5.50 (68)
	GENDER		
	Male	Female	
EXPERIMENTAL	4.82 (17)	4.30 (23)	4.53 (40)
CONTROL	6.80 (15)	7.00 (13)	6.89 (28)

* * * A N A L Y S I S O F V A R I A N C E * * *					
Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Signif of F
Main Effects	93.156	2	46.578	15.878	.000
TEACH	89.379	1	89.379	30.469	.000
SEX	.810	1	.810	.276	.601
2-way Interactions	2.103	1	2.103	.717	.400
TEACH SEX	2.103	1	2.103	.717	.400
Explained	95.260	3	31.753	10.825	.000
Residual		187.740	.64	2.933	
Total		283.000	.67	4.224	

Table 22 Anova - Gender Difference Racist Incident Behavioral Scale

As explained above for the previous measure, the 2-way Interaction of this Anova calculation found no significant difference between females and males within the same treatment groups, Control or Experimental.

VI *Summary and Conclusion*

This thesis reported on the effectiveness of an anti-racist training program implemented at secondary schools in Vancouver and Richmond in February and March of 1995. The program, using Responding to Racism: a guide for High School Students, demonstrated significant positive change between Experimental and Control samples in two of three postmeasures, and slight change (+.16Sd) in a third. Following only three hours of anti-racist role-play exercises from Responding to Racism, students trained were significantly more likely to respond in a staged-racist incident with either a partially positive or fully positive addressal, when compared to their Control group counterparts.

The Racist Incident Behavioral Scale (Culhane, 1995), found significant positive effect among this sample of 68 students (40-Exp. / 28-Cntl.), ($t=(3.33)$ $p<.001$). These students were in the 92nd percentile (+1.23Sd) of Control subjects. Moreover, none of the 40 Experimental students who underwent the covert behavioral measure, acted in a manner that aggravated the racial aspect of the scenario further. This markedly differed with the Control sample, among whom 16 of 28 students furthered the racist comments and actions in the staged scenario. A posttest questionnaire on Written Reaction to Racist Incidents also found significant positive difference between Experimental groups to

Control, ($t=(3.83)$ $p<.001$), with students undergoing treatment measuring in the 68th percentile of Control students ($+.47Sd$).

Students undergoing training demonstrated slight change toward more empathetic feelings toward the victims of racism. Likert-type empathetic rating items alone did not distinguish this as a significant difference between groups, and a multivariate analysis involving written and behavioral reactions to given racist situations was presented only as an illustrative example. Further administrations of the final two instruments used in this study must be accomplished prior to multivariate use.

Responding to Racism provided students with methods for responding to racist incidents which were clearly in evidence on written and behavioral measures. Provision of support for the victims in the racist incidents, opposition to the perpetrators, and positive attempts to limit the racist elements of each incident were all significantly more apparent in responses of Experimental students over those from the Control group. The results reaffirm the utility of role-play anti-racist training, and validate the use of Responding to Racism as an effective package for use in secondary school settings capable of significant positive effect on student behaviour in racially-motivated situations.

Results from the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale demonstrated the effectiveness of the Responding to Racism training package in a manner which could not be accomplished without the use of a covert measurement of student behaviour. While a number of important concerns should be raised over the use of any type of covert evaluation in an educational setting, the results of this study confirm the utility of covert measurement of anti-racist training programs. Without the use of the Racist Incident Behavioral Scale, this study would only be able to point to the significant positive difference demonstrated on the second written post-test, the Written Reaction to Racist Incidents, for an overall impact of the intervention on likely student actions. With its inclusion, a powerful analysis of the program's effect was able to be carried out. As a result, Responding to Racism can be clearly demonstrated as being extremely effective in changing student behaviour in racially-motivated situations.

VII *Directions for Further Research*

A wide range of possible areas for further research have been opened up as a result of the findings of this study. The first for these involves further administration and refinement of the new instruments created for use in the study. The Racist Incident Behavioral Scale affords a relatively simple, unobtrusive, and yet ethically feasible method for measuring accurate behavioral reactions of students in racist situations. Researchers concerned with the impact of anti-racist interventions could accomplish a great deal by building on the external validity of this instrument through re-administrations in other contexts and settings. Likewise, the Written Reaction to Racist Incidents instrument could serve researchers in a similar manner, without the use of covert deception.

Results of this study reaffirm Bandura's **Social Learning Theory**, most notably in its underpinning of the foundation for role-play training. The strategies laid out by Bandura were followed in the methodology of the design for Responding to Racism. Student reactions on both written and behavioral measures paralleled those presented by Bandura in his earlier work, as well as those of numerous other researchers who adapted these strategies for use in anti-racist role-play. Further adaptation and refinement of **Social Learning Theory** emerges as a second area for suggestion, in light of the significantly

positive effect sizes produced on two of the three result components used in this study.

The effect of anti-racist role-play training programs like Responding to Racism on differing groups, such as those involving various ethnicities, age, and gender compositions also emerges as a possible area for further research. Cross-cultural studies involving such role-play training appear to be an area where the suggestions of this study could be especially relevant. Although no special attempt to carry out training with students of particular ethnicities was made in this study, research into variations in reaction among subjects from individualist versus collectivist cultures, as well as between more specific bi-cultural comparisons are suggested by the results presented here. Triandis' Cross-Cultural Assimilation Training already works within a theoretical strategy that is similar to Responding to Racism, albeit with somewhat different theoretical assumptions than those made by Bandura. Cultural components of anti-racist training should also be a growing field for future study, given the inapplicability of many majority-group focused training programs to the situation of an increasingly multicultural region such as Southwestern British Columbia. The results of this study further suggest comparison and reanalysis of role-play anti-racist training with these concerns more directly in mind.

Finally, given the recommendations of Responding to Racism for student reactions to racist incidents, questions of individual difference also arise as an area for future study. A few of these would be whether individuals with differing self-concepts react in manners which serve to maintain these conceptions; whether certain groups of students are more unlikely to respond, due to the confrontational nature of the suggestions in Responding to Racism; and whether students who measure high on various personal attributes which suggest a more assertive or confrontational personality are more likely to respond favourably to this type of training program.

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IX *Appendixes*

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Opinion Questionnaire I

Directions: For each statement, put a check mark on the answer sheet best describing your opinion.

1. When there are a lot of people around who are different from me, I'm not very comfortable.
2. Foreign languages often sound pleasing to the ear.
3. People with different backgrounds don't usually have a great deal in common.
4. The opportunity to know people who are different from you is a real advantage of living in a city like this one.
5. People whose way of life is different from my family's make me feel out of place.
6. Going to a different place every year is the best way to take vacations.
7. Differences among people do not stand in the way of friendship and understanding.
8. Because differences among people mainly divide them, people should try to be more alike.
9. You can learn a lot from people whose backgrounds are different from yours.
10. It's usually best to shop in the same stores so that you can know what to expect.
11. I enjoy being around people who are different from me.
12. A country where people have a wide variety of backgrounds is likely to be an interesting place to live.
13. People whose way of life is different from my family's are interesting to me.
14. It's hard to know how to get along well with people from different backgrounds.
15. A country where everyone has the same background is a lot better off than a very mixed one.

Opinion Questionnaire II

Directions: For each of the following statements, place a check mark on the answer sheet in the spot which best describes your opinion.

1. I would try to stop someone who made fun of someone else because of their race.
2. I feel sorry for people who are called racial slurs.
3. I would join a support group to help people who are called racial slurs.
4. I feel angry when I see someone being picked on because of their culture.
5. People who are recent immigrants wouldn't get into trouble if they didn't behave differently.
6. Most racist incidents are not the fault of the victims.
7. I would do as much as possible to stop discrimination against someone on the basis of his or her skin colour.
8. I don't care what experts say, people with different skin colour don't share the basic Canadian values that I hold.
9. Although I can't help feeling sorry for them, I must admit that some people of colour simply bring the discrimination on themselves.
10. With all of the government's programs, people can't complain about discrimination in Canada anymore.
11. Discrimination against non-whites is a problem in Canada.
12. People who meet with misfortune have often brought it on themselves.
13. I feel badly when I see someone being "put down".
14. I often have concerned feelings for people who are victims.

Questionnaire III

Block _____ Male Female
Date of Birth: day _____ month _____ year _____

Directions: After reading each of the following short passages, answer the question in the space provided in as much detail as possible.

- (1) In a Grade 10 class Bill Chan is being picked on by Joe Wilton for having a Cantonese accent when speaking English. Bill tells Joe to mind his own business, but Joe doesn't stop. Bill gets more and more mad at Joe, and eventually they start pushing and shoving each other around. Joe makes Bill really mad when he starts to pretend to speak Chinese.

Question: If you were sitting across the table from Joe and Bill, what would you do in this situation?

- (2) Elvir and Ademir are recent newcomers to Canada. They are working on some English homework in the cafeteria at their school. Two tables over, Geoff and Paulo are eating their lunch while Elvir translates some difficult words into Croatian for Ademir. Paulo gets angry when he hears them using Croatian. He shouts out a racist name at them, and tells them to shut up, learn English, or go back to where they came from.

Question: Imagine you are Geoff, sitting beside Paulo. What would you do in this situation? Give details.

(3) The Chou family is having a get-together over Spring Break in Penticton. Louise and Shin Yee are cousins. They are talking about their plans for the week in the Okanagan, when Shin Yee shocks Louise by telling her she hopes no white people come on the trip. Shin Yee's family is quite new to Canada, having come from Hong Kong only two years ago. Louise doesn't want to make a scene, but still thinks Shin Yee is being racist. Shin Yee says her mother doesn't want her to have any "white boys," as boyfriends, because then she will lose her Chinese roots.

Question: Imagine you are Louise. What would you do in this situation? Please give details.

(4) In order to get School Service Points, you regularly help out in an ESL class during lunchtime. One day, two students in the class get into an argument over how to pronounce the word "encyclopedia." Although the two students involved, Gerome and Inder are younger than you, you still don't really want to get involved in their little argument. They start to get into a pushing match. You are in charge, so you have to do something to keep things under control. Gerome starts to yell at Inder in French and Inder yells back in Punjabi. Your French is good enough to understand the type of swear words and racist terms Gerome is calling Inder, and you guess Inder's words probably mean the same thing.

Question: How would you respond to this situation? Please explain all of the actions you would take.

QUESTIONNAIRE I

ANSWER SHEET

	Agree		Can't Decide	Disagree	
	Strongly	Moderately		Moderately	Strongly
1.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
13.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
14.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
15.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Grade/Block _____ Male Female (Circle)
 Birthdate
 Day ____ Month ____ Year ____

QUESTIONNAIRE II

ANSWER SHEET

	Agree			Disagree	
	Strongly	Moderately	Can't Decide	Moderately	Strongly
1.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
12.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
13.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
14.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Grade/Block _____ Male Female (Circle)
 Birthdate
 Day ____ Month ____ Year ____

Appendix B

Group Variance Comparison

Analysis of Variance

Group 01-03

F Ratio	F Source	Prob.	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares
			2	80.1289	40.0645
Between .7147	Groups				
Within .4934	Groups		61	3419.5211	56.0594
	Total		63	3499.7500	

Group 02-04

F Ratio	F Source	Prob.	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares
			2	30.3564	15.1782
Between .2220	Groups				
Within .3016	Groups		61	4170.5811	68.3702
	Total		63	4200.9375	

Group 06-07

F Ratio	F Source	Prob.	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares
			1	3.0300	3.0300
Between .0481	Groups				
Within .3277	Groups		35	2205.7267	63.0208
	Total		36	2208.7568	

Group 06-08

F Ratio	F Source	Prob.	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares
			2	8.1576	4.0788
Between .0683	Groups				
Within .9340	Groups		46	2745.3934	59.6825
	Total		48	2753.5510	

Group 09-11

F Ratio	F Source	Prob.	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares
Between	Groups		2	31.4867	15.7433
.3316					
Within	Groups		70	3322.9517	47.4707
.7189					
Total			72	3354.4384	

Group 10-11

F Ratio	F Source	Prob.	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares
Between	Groups		1	19.6980	19.6980
.4402					
Within	Groups		47	2103.1183	44.7472
.5103					
Total			48	2122.8163	

Group Equivalency T-tests

(a) Vancouver Groups

		Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error				
Group	01	25	28.6000	6.083	1.217				
Group	03	20	321.2000	7.551	1.688				
		Pooled	Variance	Estimate	Separate	Variance	Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.
1.54	.315	-1.28	43		.207	-1.25	36.14		.220

		Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error				
Group	02	19	30.3684	8.970	2.058				
Group	04	25	32.0400	8.264	1.653				
		Pooled	Variance	Estimate	Separate	Variance	Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees of Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.
1.18	.696	-.64	42		.525	-.63	37.12		.530

(b) Richmond Groups

		Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error				
Group	06	14	32.7143	9.110	2.435				
Group	07	23	33.3043	7.157	1.492				
		Pooled	Variance	Estimate	Separate	Variance	Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.
1.62	.308	-.22	35		.328	-.21	22.71		.338
<hr/>									
		Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error				
Group	06	14	32.7143	9.110	2.435				
Group	08	12	33.3333	7.004	2.022				
		Pooled	Variance	Estimate	Separate	Variance	Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.
1.69	.389	-.35	24		.732	-.35	23.76		.727
<hr/>									
		Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error				
Group	10	24	31.2917	6.727	1.373				
Group	11	25	32.5600	6.653	1.331				
		Pooled	Variance	Estimate	Separate	Variance	Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.
1.02	.955	-.66	47		.510	-.66	46.37		.510
<hr/>									
		Number of Cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error				
Group	09	24	31.0833	7.283	1.487				
Group	11	25	32.5600	6.653	1.331				
		Pooled	Variance	Estimate	Separate	Variance	Estimate		
F Value	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.	t Value	Degrees Freedom	of	2-Tail Prob.
1.20	.662	-.74	47		.462	-.74	46.20		.463
<hr/>									

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Thank you very much for participating in an Anti-Racism Program for Secondary Schools. This letter will explain your part in our program. Should you not wish to be involved in these Questionnaires, please inform your teacher.

The program involves the writing of three brief Questionnaires which are included in this package.

(1) Before the Anti-Racism program which will take place in your class. Questionnaire One will take about fifteen or twenty minutes to complete.

(2) & (3) One week after the program, two further Questionnaires are to be filled out. Questionnaires Two and Three take about thirty-five minutes in total to complete.

Answers on these Questionnaires are to be kept entirely confidential. However, we must make certain that the same students are involved in writing each Questionnaire. For this reason, you will find a number at the top of each page in your package. Please remember this number, and make certain you use the same Questionnaire package for each of the three writings.

Again, thank you for completing these Questionnaires, your assistance is greatly appreciated.

Regards,

Stephen Culhane & John Kehoe

TO THE STUDENTS

These questionnaires are being developed in order to assess student attitude toward people of cultures different from their own.

Teaching materials are being developed which may be used to help students better understand their attitudes toward other people.

By completing these questionnaires you are helping with a research project to develop the teaching materials.



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victim of the racial slurs?; 3) do they appear to support the victim or the perpetrator?; and finally, 4) what is their reaction once the researcher returns?

Results from the Questionnaires and Observational measures are to be compared, essentially between students in, and out of the training program. It is hoped the findings of this study will support previous research in demonstrating the effectiveness of this type of anti-racism program. Moreover, the use of a behavioral test will extend understanding of how such programs impact on student actions in situations beyond the classroom.

Data from individuals, particular classes, and each individual schools involved are to be kept entirely confidential. A numbering system will be necessary, however, to ensure results reported reflect changes of the same group of students from the beginning to the end of the test. Once this has been accomplished, all traces of names and Questionnaire answers or Observational records are to be destroyed. A final report on the study's findings will be made available for interested teachers and their classes.

Again, thank you for participating in this study, your assistance is greatly appreciated, and integral to its success.

Regards,

Stephen Culhane

Appendix D

Training Package Excerpts

From: **Responding to Racist Incidents**
(Kehoe, Culhane, & Lee, 1995).

Preface

The purpose of this training package is to teach high school students how to respond to racist incidents. It is our expectation that high school students will be able to recognize a racist incident and describe an appropriate response. It is also our expectation that the students will respond appropriately when faced with an actual racist incident. Finally, it is our expectation that high school students participating in the program will become less racist.

The materials should be used in classrooms where there can be a purposeful discussion of the incidents and appropriate responses. It is most important that students be given an opportunity to practice responding to an incident. It is imperative that the practice be taken seriously. It needs to be emphasized that the behaviour and language of the perpetrators is used to illustrate the critical incident. Neither the behaviour nor the language is acceptable under any other circumstances.

Ungerleider and Douglas (1989) have suggested four possible types of responses that students might use when confronting a racist incident. They are: **no response, neutral response, partial addressal** and **full addressal**. A person who gives no response typically ignores a situation and pretends they did not see or hear anything. A neutral response does not confront the issue, but recognizes that something has happened by telling the students to stop or to get back to work. A partial addressal takes place when the perpetrator is told the comments are unacceptable but the victim is not reassured and no punishment is given. Another kind of partial addressal is when the perpetrator is ignored but the victim is given assurance, support and comfort. A third partial addressal is when the perpetrator is confronted and the victim is reassured but no punishment is given to the perpetrator. Most high school students will not be in a position to administer punishment. A full addressal is when the incident is discussed, the perpetrator is punished, and the victim is reassured publicly and privately.

Critical Incident Number One

Situation: Three Grade Ten boys are walking into an English class immediately after a heated floor hockey game in P.E. class.

Participants: Masaki is of Japanese descent; Joey, of Ukrainian descent, and Paul of Greek descent.

Scenario: Masaki pushes Joey. Joey trips over a garbage can at the entrance to Mr. Stewart's English class, and falls over. Paul is friends with both boys.

JOEY: (Standing up, angrily) Hey! What's your problem Masaki?!

MASAKI: What do you mean...? Eh... look it was an accident.

(Mr. Stewart is gathering books from a supply room at the back of the class. He can hear what is going on, but cannot see.)

JOEY: (Seeing other students are watching; becoming angry and embarrassed) Ya, right...like the way you play hockey man... you NIPS just can't play!

MASAKI: (Flustered and angry) I've told you not to call me that...

JOEY: Hey, it's no big deal...

(Masaki moves directly in front of Joey, to confront him.)

MASAKI: Don't do it! (pushes on JOEY'S shoulders).

(A third student, Paul, steps between the two.)

PAUL: Come on you guys, just relax, eh...

Discussion

1. Here are four possible responses by Paul. After reading them, decide which one you feel to be most appropriate to this situation.

Choice A

Separate the two boys and decide to treat them equally, with the objective of showing they are both wrong.

Choice B

Separate the two boys, and then go and sit down.

Choice C

After separating the boys, explain to Joey that his comment was unacceptable, and simply will not be tolerated. Make a point of speaking to Joey and Masaki in an equal way for the physical altercation. Tell Joey he should not use the term even in fun. Provide comfort to Masaki, by telling him that Joey should not have said what he said.

Choice D

Once the two boys have been pulled apart, take the time to tell Joey that his comment was inappropriate. Explain to him that this type of racial slur is not acceptable.

2. Each of the choices on the previous page reflect one of four basic responses that could be given in this situation: No-Response, Neutral Response, Partial Addressal, and Full Addressal.

The least effective response is Choice B. This is considered to be No-Response. It ignores both the racial slur and the altercation itself.

Choice A is a Neutral Response. While the physical actions are addressed, nothing is done to address the racial slur, which might offer reassurance to the victim.

A more effective response would be Choice D. As a Partial Response, Paul has dealt with the unacceptable nature of Joey's comment. However, little has been done to reassure the victim.

Choice C is the most effective response. This is a Full Addressal. Paul directly addresses the racial slur, and deals with the entire situation resulting from it. This response allows for a much fuller reaffirmation of the victim's self-worth.

3. Role play the situation using the four different responses.

Critical Incident Number Two

Situation: Assume you are a friend of Masaki. He comes to you after the incident.

Participants: The same as in Incident Number One.

Scenario:

YOU: What's wrong? You seem upset about something.
(Masaki says nothing.) Hey, Masaki, are you feeling all right?

MASAKI: I'm OK. I guess.

YOU: You guess? What does that mean?

MASAKI: Do you ever have any trouble with people putting you down?

YOU: Oh..... I see. What happened?

(Masaki relates the incident.)

Choices:

- a)
 1. You tell Masaki to forget it.
 2. You talk to Joey and to Paul. You tell Joey he shouldn't use the word because it really hurt Masaki. You tell Paul he should talk to Masaki.
 3. You do everything described in Choice 2 but, in addition, you tell Masaki that you support him and Joey is not typical of people in the school.
 4. As soon as you realize the problem, you are uncomfortable and change the subject.
- b. Discuss the choices and study which are the two most appropriate.
- c. Which kind of response, neutral, etc., does each response represent?
- d. Role play each response.

Appendix E - Scores

Group Means - Premeasure

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			31.5545	7.4201	211
GROUP	01		28.6000	6.0828	25
GROUP	02		30.3684	8.9704	19
GROUP	03		31.2000	7.5505	20
GROUP	04		32.0400	8.2638	25
GROUP	06		32.7143	9.1098	14
GROUP	07		33.3043	7.1569	23
GROUP	08		33.8333	7.0043	12
GROUP	09		31.0833	7.2826	24
GROUP	10		31.2917	6.7275	24
GROUP	11		32.5600	6.6526	25

Total Cases = 220
Missing Case = 9 or 4.1 PCT.

Group Means - Post-measure I

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			30.8763	6.5224	186
GROUP	1		28.0870	6.2734	23
GROUP	2		30.9333	11.0871	15
GROUP	3		31.9000	6.8202	20
GROUP	4		32.0909	4.6075	22
GROUP	6		29.8333	6.4362	12
GROUP	7		32.5714	4.0935	21
GROUP	8		29.8889	5.7975	9
GROUP	9		31.0000	6.5498	21
GROUP	10		31.2917	6.3553	24
GROUP	11		30.3158	6.5917	19

Total Cases = 220
Missing Cases = 34 OR 15.5 PCT.

Group Means - Post-measure II

Written Reaction to Racist Incidents

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			16.5683	2.0339	183
TEACH EXP	1		17.0417	2.0319	24
TEACH	2		15.2857	3.2208	14
TEACH	3		16.6111	2.2528	18
TEACH EXP	4		17.4545	2.0172	22
TEACH EXP	6		16.8333	1.5859	12
TEACH	7		15.2857	1.8478	21
TEACH	8		15.6667	1.3229	9
TEACH EXP	9		16.6667	1.5599	21
TEACH EXP	10		17.0417	1.3345	24
TEACH EXP	11		16.8333	1.8231	18

Total Cases = 220
Missing Cases = 37 OR 16.8 PCT.

Group Means - Behavioral Measure

Variable		Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For	Entire	Population	6.5000	2.0552	68
TEACH	EXP	1	8.3750	1.6850	8
TEACH		2	4.8750	1.8077	8
TEACH		3	5.2500	1.0351	8
TEACH	EXP	4	8.3750	1.3025	8
TEACH	EXP	6	8.1667	1.6021	6
TEACH		7	4.7500	2.1213	8
TEACH		8	6.0000	3.2660	4
TEACH	EXP	9	6.5000	.9258	8
TEACH	EXP	10	6.4000	.8433	10

(b) Control to Experimental Means

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For	Entire	Population	6.5000	2.0552	68
GROUP	1	EXPERIMENTAL	7.4750	1.5357	40
GROUP	2	CONTROL	5.1071	1.9117	28

Post-measure III- Behavioural Measure Results

(a) Control Classes

POSTB	Count		2	3	7	8	Row Total
	Col	Pct					
	Tot	Pct					
2.00	1				2	1	4
	12.5				25.0	25.0	14.3
	3.6				7.1	3.6	
4.00	3		3		2		8
	37.5		37.5		25.0		28.6
	10.7		10.7		7.1		
5.00	1						1
	12.5						3.6
	3.6						
6.00	2		5		3	2	12
	25.0		62.5		37.5	50.0	42.9
	7.1		17.9		10.7	7.1	
8.00	1				1		2
	12.5				12.5		7.1
	3.6				3.6		
10.00						1	1
						25.0	3.6
						3.6	
Column Total	8		8		8	4	28
	28.6		28.6		28.6	14.3	100.0

(b) Experimental Classes

POSTB	Count Col Pct Tot Pct	1	4	6	9	10	Row Total
6.00	2	1	1	6	8		18
	25.0	12.5	16.7	75.0	80.0		45.0
	5.0	2.5	2.5	15.0	20.0		
7.00			1				1
			16.7				2.5
			2.5				
8.00	2	4	2	2	2		12
	25.0	50.0	33.3	25.0	20.0		30.0
	5.0	10.0	5.0	5.0	5.0		
9.00	1	1					2
	12.5	12.5					5.0
	2.5	2.5					
10.00	3	2	2				7
	37.5	25.0	33.3				17.5
	7.5	5.0	5.0				
Column Total	8	8	6	8	10	40	
	20.0	20.0	15.0	20.0	25.0	100.0	