

1987

The relationship between favorable or unfavorable contact on the social distance attitudes of residence hall students toward residential subgroups

Patricia Jo Robinson
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The relationship between favorable or unfavorable
contact on the social distance attitudes of
residence hall students toward residential subgroups

by

Patricia Jo Robinson

A Dissertation Submitted to the
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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the undergraduate college experience has been built on two powerful traditions: individuality and community (Boyer, 1987). Individuality has been affirmed through the students who come to college to pursue their own goals, enhance their own abilities, and become productive, independent human beings. Balancing this purpose has been a commitment to instill in students an experience that helps them go beyond their own private interests, learn about the world around them and discover how they can contribute to the larger society (Boyer, 1987).

Today's undergraduates show an increasing focus on the personal utility of the college experience with a corresponding decrease in the sense of social responsibility. Since 1966, the number of college freshmen identifying the goal "being very well-off financially" as being very important has increased from about forty percent to over seventy percent in 1985. During this same time period the importance of helping others fell from 68.5 per cent to 63.4 per cent. The value of promoting racial understanding declined from 38.5 per cent in 1977 to 32.4 per cent in 1985 (Astin, 1987).

These trends are further confirmed by what undergraduates determined as the essential outcomes of a college education. The outcome "training and skills for an

occupation" increased by fourteen per cent from 1969 to 1984 with the outcome "detailed grasp of a special field" increasing by eight per cent. Decreases of eleven per cent and eight per cent respectively were noted for the outcomes "learning to get along with people" and "formulating goals and values for my life."

A study of the undergraduate experience sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation (Boyer, 1987) found undergraduate students in general to be inadequately informed about the interdependent world in which they live. They also found many colleges and universities pervaded by a parochialism that fails to challenge students to develop a more global perspective. There is a growing imperative for the undergraduate experience to introduce students to traditions or cultures other than their own. The interdependency of the world community can be demonstrated to students through the intellectual and social integration that creates a community of learning.

While the academic experience needs to assist students in developing an appreciation of diversity, it can not stand alone. The challenge in the building of community is to see the academic and nonacademic life as interrelated and extend the resources for learning to the entire campus (Boyer, 1987).

The Carnegie study proposed that the college of quality is a place where the curricular and cocurricular are viewed

as having a relationship to each other. The effectiveness of the undergraduate experience relates to the quality of campus life both in and out of the classroom (Boyer, 1987).

Student personnel administrators recognize the importance of helping students develop the skills necessary to be successful in both the community of learning and the larger world community. In a survey of 1000 chief student personnel officers, the issues of "respect for others" and "honesty" were so strongly endorsed as the most important in affecting student development, that the authors suggested these be considered the "core issues" essential to student development efforts (Dalton, Barnett, & Healy, 1982b). Cross (1985) predicts that the most significant contribution that student personnel professionals can make in the twenty-first century concerns the growing interdependence of people. The development of human resources has economic importance in age of technology. Graduates will need to leave college with the interpersonal skills enabling them to work productively with others.

The campus cannot be satisfied if students separate themselves from one another or reinforce stereotypes and prejudices (Boyer, 1987). Standards need to be set which clarify the expectations of the institution both in academic and nonacademic matters. In a community of learners intent on demonstrating the interdependence of people, the standards of tolerance and respect for others are of high

importance. And, the conditions under which tolerance and respect for others can be promoted need further examination.

The study group on the conditions of excellence in American higher education sponsored by the National Institute of Education (1984) believes that the quality of undergraduate education will be improved if existing knowledge is applied to three critical conditions of excellence: high expectations or standards, student involvement, and assessment and feedback. The commitment to increase students' tolerance of and respect for others needs to be accompanied by an examination of what is known about using student involvement and assessment and feedback to achieve these standards.

Student involvement has been shown to have a direct impact on raising the level of tolerance toward others. The increase in tolerance and respect for others has been associated with the opportunity to interact with others whose viewpoints are different than one's own (Dalton, 1985). While this opportunity is available in many places on the college campus, the residence hall setting has the added dimension of students living together (Thomas, Murrell & Chickering, 1982). The residence halls provide a unique environment in which the standards of tolerance and respect for others can be promoted. The fact that students are living together increases the probability that the types of interactions shown to increase tolerance will occur.

Encounters with other residence hall students when there is diversity of background and prejudice among them create a context for increased tolerance and freedom in interpersonal relationships (Chickering, 1981). Students involved in the Sierra Project who lived in a residence hall emphasizing a supportive community environment listed getting to know people from cultures or races different from one's own as one of the most important experiences influencing their character development (Whitely, Bertin, Ferrant & Yokata, 1985).

Another opportunity for developing tolerance which occurs in the residence hall setting are relationships with roommates and other friends. These interactions have been cited as the principal experiences that changed ethnocentrism into a greater acceptance of others (Whitely et al., 1985; Heath, 1968).

Assessment can be used to increase student involvement and clarify expectations when it is used to measure improvements in performance (N.I.E. 1984). In order to set the conditions for involvement in learning, baseline data need to be obtained from incoming students. By assessing student attitudes and abilities upon beginning the college experience, later assessments can be made and the outcomes of the college education determined. Assessments should allow for judgments of the impact of curriculum and instruction on the academic related skills but also on such

characteristics as organizational and human relations skills, and on the understanding of cultural and intellectual diversity (N.I.E., 1984).

Baseline data on the tolerance levels of residence hall students need to be obtained to determine the impact of the residence hall environment on students' respect toward others, and to improve the conditions under which increased tolerance occurs.

Significance of the Study

Saddlemire (1986) states that the current state of assessment in the field of developmental theory hinders theory-based research and practice. He suggests that a factor explaining the lack of theoretical articles in student affairs journals is that many of the instruments used to measure developmental theories are complex, expensive to administer or score and difficult to interpret.

Student development theory provides a number of ways to assess development through models proposed by such theorists as Chickering, Heath, Kohlberg, Loevinger and Perry (cited in Canon, 1984). However, one of the impediments to achieving excellence in the area of promoting tolerance and understanding is the lack of instrumentation measuring baseline information about student's attitudes towards others, and subsequently the impact of any programs or practices to improve these attitudes.

In search of a way to measure these attitudes, this investigator discovered the Bogardus Social Distance Scale (1925). This instrument may be adapted to the residence hall setting to measure the tolerance levels of residents toward diverse groups. The social distance scale has been used in the field of sociology for over sixty years to measure the degree of acceptance that exists between given persons and meets the above criteria (cited in Miller, 1970).

This instrument measures the concept of "social distance" proposed by Park (1924). Park believed that degrees of intimacy characterize all personal relationships and called this concept "social distance." He suggested that because these degrees of intimacy and distance are distinguishable, they might also be measurable. Although Park himself used the method of interviewing in depth as a way of learning about human attitudes, he encouraged Bogardus to develop an objective instrument to measure those same attitudes (Bogardus, 1967). Park felt that a statistical approach to the study of human relationships would lead to a greater understanding on the problems involved.

Bogardus (1967) used his scale to compare the degrees of tolerance expressed by one group toward another. He noted that the degree of tolerance toward various ethnic groups differed based upon the respondents' characteristics

including sex and ethnic background. He hypothesized that contact with the groups included on his scale resulted in lower social distance scores, or more tolerant attitudes. He believed that the differences he noted based on the demographics of the respondents could be attributed in part, to the opportunity of the respondents to have contact with the scale groups.

Bogardus's belief that contact positively effects the level of tolerance expressed towards groups is congruent with findings of other researchers who have associated an increase in the respect for others with the opportunity to interact with others whose viewpoints are different from one's own (Whitely et al., 1985; Chickering, 1981). The social distance scale developed by Bogardus (1967) will be used in this study to assess the levels of tolerance expressed by residence hall students toward others whose viewpoints may differ from their own.

The information obtained from this study will provide residence hall administrators with a baseline against which the tolerance attitudes of the residence hall population can be measured to determine if programs and practices initiated after this study effect a change in the level of students' respect toward others.

This study will also help residence hall administrators better assess which students should be the targets of programs and practices designed to foster more positive

attitudes towards others by measuring differences in attitudes based upon demographic data such as the respondents' sex, length of time in the residence halls and ethnic background.

Purposes of the Study

The present investigation was designed to explore the attitudes of residence hall students towards various ethnic and racial groups, and resident behaviors existing in the residence hall environment at Iowa State University. More specifically, the questions to be researched were:

1. Do the social distance attitudes of new residents differ from those of residents who have lived in the halls for a longer period of time?

2. Do the social distance attitudes of white Americans, American minorities and International Students differ from each other?

3. Do the social distance attitudes of male residents differ from those of female residents?

4. Have students who have lived in the residence halls longer had more contact with the diverse population in the residence halls than the newer residents?

5. Is there a relationship between the attitude held toward a group and the type of contact previously had with that group?

Statement of the Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were developed from the above research questions:

1. The longer students live in the residence halls, the lower the social distance scores they will express towards the groups studied.

2. White students, American minority students and International students will express lower social distance scores towards groups studied which are most racially or ethnically similar to themselves.

3. Men and women express equal social distance scores towards the groups studied which reflect various ethnic or racial backgrounds and behaviors found in the residence hall setting.

4. The longer students live in the residence halls, the more positive contact they will have with the groups studied.

5. Students who have had previous positive contact with the groups studied will have lower social distance scores than students who have had no contact or negative contact with the groups studied.

6. Students who have had previous unfavorable contact with the groups studied will have higher social distance scores than students who have had no contact or previous favorable contact with those groups.

Definition of Terms

For purposes of this study the following operational definitions are being used:

Baseline Date. The term "baseline data" was used to refer to information about student attitudes and abilities collected prior to the student beginning college.

Contact. The term "contact" was used to refer to the respondent group's previous acquaintance with residence groups.

Contact Scale. The term "contact scale" was used to refer to the scale used to measure the type of contact respondent groups had with residence groups. Scale ranges from 1 to 5 more specifically defined contact as: "favorable close personal contact," "favorable but not close personal contact," "no contact," "unfavorable but not close personal contact," and "unfavorable close personal contact."

Distance Scale. The term "distance scale" was used to refer to the Bogardus Social Distance scale used to measure the degree of social distance that respondent groups felt toward scale groups.

Respondent Groups. The term "respondent groups" was used to refer to the residence hall students who completed the contact and distance scales.

Scale Groups. The term "scale groups" was used to refer to the thirty-six groups studied in both the contact and distance scales. These groups are representative of the

ethnic and racial backgrounds and behaviors which are found in the residence halls at Iowa State University.

Social Distance. The term "social distance" was used to refer to degree of understanding and intimacy which characterize personal and social relations (Park, 1924).

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to a description of the social distance attitudes and residence group contact of residence hall students at a large, public, landgrant institution in the midwest. The students at this institution are predominantly white and 74 per cent are in-state residents. Four percent of the students are American minorities and eight per cent are International students (Iowa State University Student Profile, 1987).

This study did not attempt to measure the social distance attitudes or residence group contact of students in any other type of living arrangement at this institution, nor of students in various living arrangements at other institutions.

The residence groups studied were applicable to the residence hall population at the institution studied. The residence groups or the terminology used as the descriptor for the residence group may not be appropriate for other populations.

The methodology employed in this study, with appropriate residence group descriptors, should permit the measurement of social distance and group contact in other living situations.

CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The two major purposes of this research have been to measure the social distance attitudes of residence hall students towards groups having ethnic or behavior characteristics found in the residence hall setting, and to determine the effect of contact with those groups on social distance attitudes. This chapter will review the concept of social distance, discuss the development of the instrument used to measure social distance, and summarize the findings of social distance studies applicable to the residence hall setting. Finally, theory and research related to the assessment or development of tolerance in the residence hall environment will be discussed.

Concept of Social Distance

The term "social distance" was proposed by Park (1924) in a brief journal article. Park defined social distance as "an attempt to reduce to measurable terms the grades and degrees of understanding and intimacy which characterize personal and social relations generally" (Park, 1924, p.339). He believed that persons are conscious of the degree of intimacy in all personal relationships. This degree of intimacy or sense of distance which characterizes personal relationships extends to relationships with people from other races or classes.

Park uses the example of "the lady of the house" and her cook who may be on the most intimate personal relations but only as long as the cook retains her "proper distance." He suggests that personal and racial reserves conventionalize relationships and that everyone is capable of getting along with everyone else as long as each preserves his or her proper distance.

Social distance is related to but not equated with prejudice. Park (1924) defines prejudice as a specific type of social distance reaction by individuals toward a group that instinctively and spontaneously attempts to maintain distance. Prejudice is a conservative rather than an aggressive force which seeks to preserve the social order and the social distances upon which that order rests.

Because the degrees of social distance are distinguishable, Park believed the concept could be measurable. He suggested that social distance study could measure the "subtler social attitudes which represent the stabilizing, spontaneous forces upon which social order rests" (Park, 1924, p. 344).

Development of the Instrument

Based on Park's thought, Bogardus (1925) developed as instrument to measure the theory of social distance. This instrument, the social distance scale, consisted of a set of seven response choices and a list of ethnic or racial

groups. Respondents were asked to select as many of the response choices as applied to their feelings towards each of the ethnic or racial groups.

The response choices developed by Bogardus were designed to measure the degrees of intimacy or social distance held by respondents towards the scale groups. The first response reflected the least social distance, the seventh response the greatest. The seven choices were:

1. To close kinship by marriage.
2. To my club as personal chums.
3. To my street as neighbors.
4. To employment in my occupation in my country.
5. To citizenship in my country.
6. As visitors only to my country.
7. Would exclude from my country.

Although the wording of the response choices were updated to conform with present terminology (Bogardus, 1967) the scale used today is basically the same format as the original one. Known today as the Bogardus Social Distance Scale, this measure one of the oldest and most used tests of social attitudes, and the most frequently cited illustrations of attitude measurement in social psychology texts (Campbell, 1952; Neumeyer, 1974).

Scoring methods

Bogardus (1925) developed three methods for describing the results of his social distance scale: the social contact range, the social contact distance, and the social contact quality index. Of particular note is the social contact distance which is the method used to describe the results of most later social distance studies. These three methods were developed after Bogardus noticed that the responses to his scale tended to follow specific patterns.

Bogardus (1925) found the following patterns in his first study with the social distance scale. He asked a group of businessmen and a group of public school teachers to which of the seven groups they would admit members of forty-seven different races. In examining the record sheets of the 110 respondents he noted that if a race was admitted to the intermarriage group (response 1), responses two, three, four and five were usually selected. If response two was selected for a race but not response one, responses three, four and five were also selected. If a race was excluded from the country (response 7) the previous six responses were not selected. He then developed three methods for describing the responses.

The social contact range (S.C.R.) for each scale group is determined by figuring the mean number of responses selected for each race by the respondents (Bogardus, 1925). The lowest number of responses that can be selected for a

race being one, the highest number of responses seven. Bogardus cautioned that the social contact range did not reflect the merits or traits of the respective races but the social contacts open to each race and presumably the opportunity for accommodation and assimilation. However, he believed that the social contact range did indicate the racial attitudes of the raters and could be used as a method of comparing the racial attitudes of the respondents.

The social contact distance (S.C.D.) is measured by determining the mean of the lowest response number selected for each race by the respondents (Bogardus, 1925). The S.C.D reflects the intimacy of the contact expressed towards a race. The lower the social contact distance score, the closer the relationship the respondent is willing to have with the race.

A long contact range is paralleled by a short contact distance and vice versa. A race admitted to a large range of group contacts is also admitted to the most intimate groups, while a person admitted to a small range of contacts is admitted to the least intimate types.

Bogardus also developed a social contact quality index (S.C.Q.) for each race. An arbitrary value indicating the worth of each response is assigned. The most intimate response (response 1: "To close kinship by marriage.") is assigned the value of seven, the least intimate response (response 7: "Would exclude from my country.") is assigned

the value of one. The S.C.Q. is determined for each race by adding the values assigned to each of the responses selected. Bogardus (1925) suggests that the social contact quality index represents a summary of the factors included in the social contact range and social contact distance, this scale is not mentioned in his later, summarizing work (Bogardus, 1967) nor by any other researcher included in this study.

Bogardus (1967) continued to use the social contact range and social contact distance measures, which he later called the racial distance spread and the racial distance index respectively, throughout his work. A number of authors have used only the social contact distance, the mean of the totaled lowest response numbers selected for each scale group by the respondents, in their social distance studies (Crull & Bruton, 1985, 1979; Spangenberg & Nel, 1983; Triandis & Triandis, 1962). Miller (1970) states that the social contact distance is a simpler method of scoring found to be as reliable as the more complex methods. The social contact distance, which will be called the social distance score throughout the rest of this study, will be the primary measure used to describe the outcomes of the social distance studies in this literature review.

Scale revision for equal-appearing intervals

Bogardus (1933) revised his social distance scale using a variation on a technique suggested by Thurstone (1929). One hundred judges were asked to distribute sixty statements into groups representing seven different degrees of social distance. The means of the judgments, which ranged from 1 to 7 for each of the 60 statements, were taken. The statements having the means nearest 1.00, 2.00, 3.00, 4.00, 5.00, 6.00, and 7.00 were selected to obtain a series of equidistant social distance situations. The results increased the accuracy of the scale but no serious rewording of the scale was necessary (Bogardus, 1967).

Reliability and validity

The split-half reliability coefficient for the social distance scale is reported at .90 or higher in repeated tests by Hartley and Hartley. Newcomb reports high validity using the "known group method." This involves finding respondents known to be favorable towards some ethnic groups and unfavorable towards others and seeing if their pattern of responses on the distance scale fits the pattern of what is known (Miller, 1970).

Social Distance Trends

Bogardus Studies

Bogardus (1967) conducted national studies of social distance attitudes in 1926, 1946, 1956 and 1966. These

studies were conducted through professors of sociology at twenty-five to thirty-nine colleges and universities. The respondents were enrolled at the institutions and for the most part were enrolled in sociology or related courses. Their ages ranged in the most part from nineteen to twenty-six and they were primarily from middle class families. The respondents in the four studies numbered 1,725, 1,950, 2,053, and 2,605 respectively.

The 1926 study set a general pattern that recurs in each of the following studies. Racial groups that received the lowest social distance scores indicating the highest degree of tolerance were mostly of northern European origin. Bogardus believed those results were predictable since the majority of respondents in this study, as in later studies, were chiefly of northern European heritage.

Racial groups whose scores placed them in the middle group included those with south and eastern European backgrounds such as Italians, Jews, and Slavs. American Indians were also included in this category. Bogardus notes that these groups contribute a "substantial type of citizenship to life in the United States, but communication between them and other people in our country has often been limited" (Bogardus, 1967, p. 14). The racial groups found in the third sector were of Asiatic, Black and Mexican lineage. From interview data Bogardus determined that few respondents were personally acquainted with immigrants

from Asia. Mexicans were laborers who were not part of the middle or upper classes and reactions towards them were based on impressions of lower classes rather than on actual acquaintance with them. The reactions to blacks was varied. Black respondents gave blacks close or low distance scores. Bogardus felt that the attitudes of white respondents varied from those who felt a deep bitterness towards Black Americans and gave a higher score, to those who felt that Blacks in the United States had been very unjustly treated and thus gave a lower or nearer score.

The 1946 study generated the same three sectors of response as the 1926 study although some groups experienced a change of rank within their sector. This change seemed to parallel the group's alliance with the United States during World War II. Germans, Italians and the Japanese all received higher or more distancing scores than in the previous study. Chinese, Czechs, Norwegians, and Greeks received lower or more intimate scores than in 1926.

A distinction was made in this study between Japanese and Japanese-Americans, and Mexican and Mexican-Americans. The Japanese-Americans and Mexican-Americans received lower scores than did their counterparts.

The 1956 study results were again very similar to the other two studies with the exception of two groups. The Russians received higher scores which placed them in the third sector, a probable response to the inhospitable United

States--Soviet Union political climate of the "cold war" era. Japanese-Americans moved into the second sector. American attitudes towards the unfair internment of Japanese-Americans during WW II, as well as an excellent WW II record cited as the reasons for the reduction of these distances.

Of particular note is the great reduction of social distance attitudes towards Blacks. This decrease was accounted for in part by the decrease in social distance given to all darker-skinned racial groups in the United States. Bogardus also cited a decade in which friendly interactions between Whites and Blacks were on the increase, evidenced by a substantial reduction in the racial distance spread, as a second reason.

Racial groups tended to remain in the same three sectors in the 1966 study as in the 1956 study with some minor shifting in ranks within the sectors.

During the forty-year Bogardus studies there was a decrease in the overall mean social distance score. Overall means were 2.14 in 1926, 2.12 in 1946, 2.08 in 1956, and 1.92 in 1966. The overall spread in scores decreased as well: 2.85, 2.57, 1.75, 1.56 respectively. The difference between the race receiving the lowest distance score and race receiving the highest distance score decreased during each subsequent study. A 1977 replication of the Bogardus study conducted by Owen, Eisner and McFaul (1981) revealed a

continuance of the trend towards increased tolerance. Overall means decreased to 1.93 with the overall score spread declining to 1.37.

Payne and Fagan (1974) noted that there was actually little change in social distance scores in the Bogardus studies from 1926 to 1956. Most of the decrease took place from 1956 to 1966. Crull and Bruton (1985) found that the results of the Bogardus social distance replication study by Owen, Eisner and McFaul (1981) to be misleading. While the overall mean and overall spread of the thirty group means supports a general decrease in social distance, a decrease in social distance scores occurred for only seven of the thirty groups to which their subjects responded. Twenty-two of the groups averaged higher social distance scores in 1977 than in 1966 and fifteen averaged higher than in 1956. The large decreases in social distance for American Indians and blacks accounted for much of the reduction of the overall mean. The 1977 data suggest that the trend towards increased tolerance which Bogardus cited in his forty year study needs closer examination.

Score differences by sex

Bogardus studied the differences between the social distances reported by men and women during the 1956 and 1966 studies. The women reported greater distance reactions than did the men for both studies indicating that women were less

willing to associate with the scale groups than were men. The limited interview materials collected chiefly during the 1956 study suggested several factors for this difference (Bogardus, 1967). He proposed that women had less opportunity for contact with as many different racial groups than did men who had contact through business related ventures. He also suggests that custom in some areas may restrict opportunity for contact with other races. He acknowledged that women have been credited with feeling more sympathy for members of minority groups than do men and thus should have lower distance scores. But a show of friendliness by a woman to men of a race with limited contacts with American women may cause romantic advances that are resented by women and offset nearness feelings.

While women's scores in the 1966 study were still greater for women, the decrease in women's scores was greater than the decrease in men's scores. Bogardus (1967) explained that this decrease could be a result of women's increased interest in public affairs courses at the college level, increased interest by women in the Civil Rights Movement, and the increase in women entering business who have more opportunity for making racial contacts. This led Bogardus to hypothesize that the differences between men's and women's scores would disappear in future studies.

A further analysis of Bogardus's 1966 data by Ames (1968) showed that the standard deviation of women's scores

were larger than men's when the social distance scores were lower and smaller than men's when the social distance scores were higher. He suggests that less variability of the more distancing responses shows that women are more likely to stereotype than males, but only towards those groups perceived as more socially distant.

Later studies show a reversal of the above trends. There was no correlation between ethnic attitude and sex in a study of white South Africans attitudes towards black South Africans (Spangenberg and Nel, 1983). Women were found to hold less distancing attitudes towards homosexuals (Staats, 1978; Nevid, 1983) and black families (Payne, 1976). Women had lower social distance scores than men in a study using eight ethnic groups from the original Bogardus scale and three other groups (Crull and Bruton, 1979). Women showed more of a change towards less tolerance in a repeat of the study (Crull and Bruton, 1985) but still were more tolerant than men.

Score differences by ethnic background

In his first study, Bogardus (1925) notes a significant correlation between the ethnic background of the respondents and their social distance scores. While the correlations themselves are not given, ethnic groups to which a number of the respondents belong are given higher ratings than those ethnic groups to which no respondents belong. The ten

racial groups with the lowest social distance scores in the 1926, 1946, 1956 and 1966 surveys are predominantly those of Northern European background which parallels the descent of the majority of the survey respondents (Bogardus, 1967). Bogardus (1967) suggests that black respondents would give the black contact group the lowest social distance score but provides no data analysis to verify this.

A 1977 national study replicating Bogardus' four earlier studies, while not reporting social distance scores for all groups based on ethnicity of the respondents, did report some general findings based on ethnicity (Owen, Eisner & McFaul, 1981). Black respondents gave the highest social distance scores to twenty-two of the thirty scale groups and had the highest overall mean. Asian-Americans respondents gave the highest social distance scores to eight of the thirty groups and had the second highest mean. White respondents gave the lowest social distance responses and had the lowest overall mean. The authors suggested that a partial reason for the rise of the rank order of the Black scale group from twenty-ninth in 1966 to seventeenth in 1977, maybe due to the increase in the black population among the respondents from ten per cent in 1966 to nineteen per cent in 1977.

Other studies found that black respondents expressed greater social distance scores than did white respondents for most scale groups except Blacks (Gray and Thompson,

1953; Fagan and O'Neill, 1965). Fagan and O'Neill also found that ordering of the groups by mean on the social distance scale was different for black respondents than for the other three white respondent groups in the study. Blacks expressed lower social distance scores towards the black scale groups than did the white groups. A follow-up study of Fagan and O'Neill's work by Payne, York and Fagan (1974) again yielded similar results, however, Payne et al. compared the data by medians rather than means.

The tendency to give the lowest social distance scores to the groups most resembling the respondents' ethnicity appears to extend across cultures. Five hundred Indian college students reported lower social distance scores for the Indian scale group than any of the other ten groups included in a social distance study (Sinha and Upadhyaya, 1962).

Contact and Social Distance

Bogardus (1959) suggested that previous contact with the ethnic groups on his scale resulted in lower social distance scores. He hypothesized that men had lower overall social distance scores because of their increased contact with other ethnic groups through business and social opportunities (Bogardus, 1959). He also suggests that the lowering of women's social distance means in the 1966 data is a result of women's increased interest in world affairs

and the increasing numbers of women entering business and other occupations which result in increased contacts with other races (Bogardus, 1967).

Neprash's (1953) study of white male childrens' attitudes towards black male children supports this hypothesis to some extent. He found that personal contacts reduce unfriendly attitudes but mere physical proximity, without personal contacts, had no effect on attitude change. His study implied that the absence of personal contacts may be important in the development of negative attitudes.

The effect of contact is more explicitly reported in a study in which 1043 college students were administered a social distance scale and asked to designate the groups with which they had had personal contact (Crull and Bruton, 1979). Respondents who reported having contact with the ethnic groups had significantly lower social distance scores than did the respondents who reported having no contact.

The relationship between contact and increased tolerance was also found in a study in South Africa (Spangenberg and Nel, 1983). The social distance scores of a group of white South African academicians who worked with black South African colleagues were compared with those of a group of white South African academicians who worked at an institution that was predominantly white and had no black instructors. The social distance scores of the white South Africans who worked with black South Africans reflected

significantly more tolerance towards black South Africans than did the scores of the whites who did not work with blacks. The authors felt contact with persons in an equal-status situation was an important element in explaining the difference between the social distance scores of the two white groups.

Another study suggesting that it is the type of contact which is important in raising tolerance levels was done by Crull and Bruton (1985). They found that students who reported having favorable contact with groups gave those groups lower social distance scores than students who reported having unfavorable contact with those groups. The distance scores of the students who reported having no contact with the scale groups were not included in the study.

The results of the studies cited indicate that Bogardus's hypothesis of contact increasing tolerance can be only partially supported. Other factors such as the status of the persons with whom contact is had, and the favorableness of the contact also have a part in reducing social distance.

Related Research

The social distance scale has been used to measure the degree of tolerance expressed by one group towards others.

Higher degrees of tolerance have been associated with previous contact with the group. No citations were found to indicate that the social distance scale has been used to assess social distance attitudes in the residence hall environment. However, studies have been conducted on student tolerance and the effect of the interaction among students in the residence hall environment on student attitudes.

Chickering (1981) hypothesized that development in the residence halls stemmed from two sources: close friendships and concomitant reference groups, and the general attitudes and values which form the culture of the living area.

Encounters with friends and other residence groups, when there is a diversity of background and prejudice creates a context for the development of tolerance. Through conflict and debate as well as friendly sharing, personal beliefs can be challenged and biases faced leading to a greater appreciation and understanding of others (Chickering, 1981).

The values and norms constituting the culture of the living area also impact student development (Chickering, 1981). Beliefs and values of individuals are measured against those of the living area. Over time discrepancies between beliefs and behavior are noted by fellow group members and, in a supportive environment those individuals

are confronted by group members. Again, beliefs are reexamined leading to greater personal awareness.

Astin (1984) found that residence hall living is associated with increases in hedonism, liberalism and self-esteem. Residence hall students, more than commuters, expressed greater satisfaction with their undergraduate experience, especially in the areas of faculty-student relations, student friendships and social life. Residence hall living is also shown to be positively associated with persistence in college (Astin, 1984).

Astin's findings were underscored in a study done by Pascarella (1985). Pascarella measured the effects of three variables of the college experience: academic satisfaction, interaction with peers and interaction with faculty and staff, on students' intellectual self-concept and students' interpersonal self-concept. The sample consisted of 4,191 nonminority residence hall and commuter students at 74 institutions who were post-tested two years after the initial study.

Living in the residence halls had significant, positive, direct effects on the extent of students' interaction with peers and with faculty. These measures of interaction were positively associated with students' intellectual and interpersonal self-concepts. Thus, residence hall living was found to increase student

involvement which subsequently increased students' self-concepts.

Studies have been conducted in the residence halls to determine what kinds of interactions occur among students. The following is a summary of those findings.

Newcomb (1962) found that the opportunity for contact was a determinant for significant relationships. Men in a two floor house developed closer relationships initially with the men on their own floor. Roommates, whose proximity was greatest of all tended to develop the closest relationships. Newcomb notes that while the relationships changed over time, close relationships were most likely to be maintained with whom they were first developed.

Relationships with roommates and friends have been reported as the principal experiences that assisted students in developing greater acceptance towards others (Whitely et al, 1985; Heath, 1968). Research into what determines a positive roommate relationship has produced varied results. Gehring (1970) matched roommates based on five variables that had been previously indicated as possibly significant factors in discriminating between satisfied and dissatisfied roommates: educational level of the father, size of high school, smoking habits, predicted grade point average, and rate of church attendance. He noted no significant

difference in compatibility between roommates matched on those variables and those assigned at random. He cautioned that variables drawn from the examination of similarities and differences of compatible and incompatible roommates may not be sufficient conditions for compatibility.

Pace (1970) investigated the differences on scholastic achievement and the perception of the college environment (as measured by the College and University Environmental Scales) on roommate pairs. He found that dissatisfied pairs experienced less academic success and a less positive college environment than did the satisfied roommate pairs.

Several studies have been undertaken to determine the effects of residence hall assignment by classification. Groups of male and female freshmen students were assigned to all freshmen areas, while other freshmen students were housed with upper class students. While no difference between the experimental groups were reported in terms of grades, freshmen men housed with upperclassmen were more satisfied with the college experience than those housed with freshmen. There was no difference in the satisfaction level between the groups of women (Beal and Williams, 1968).

Chesin (1969) measured the change in beliefs between freshmen men housed in all-freshmen areas and those housed with upperclassmen. He found that all freshmen in the study, regardless of the degree of contact with

upperclassmen, became more mature and less stereotypic in their beliefs after completing one year of college.

Studies have also compared student perceptions of living-learning environments with conventional residence halls. Pemberton (1968) found the living-learning groups made more rapid gains in cultural sophistication and aesthetic values but smaller advances in peer independence. They were more satisfied with faculty but earned about the same grades as the group in the conventional hall. Decoster (1969) found no difference between the living-learning environment and the conventional environment for academic variables. However, the living-learning environment did seem to facilitate improved faculty-student relationships and peer relationships as well as a higher satisfaction with the college experience.

The diversity of the students involved in a living-learning residence hall resulted in an added dimension to the impact of the environment (Whiteley et al., 1985). Students in a hall composed of roughly equal numbers of Anglos, Blacks, Chicanos and Asian Americans reported satisfaction with faculty-student and peer relationships. They also reported experiences with a diverse peer groups as very influential in their college experience. Students cited living and getting to know people from diverse backgrounds and the resulting exposure to different values

and beliefs, and the classes conducted in the halls which facilitated discussions about these beliefs as the means which helped them explore their own convictions.

Most of the literature on studies in the residence environment reflects the white experience. To attempt to understand what the experience of minority and international students in the residence hall might be, it is necessary to examine the literature that describes the experience of these groups on a predominantly white campus.

Fleming (1984) compared black students' experiences at predominantly black colleges and predominantly white colleges. She notes that the stress of racial tension and inadequate social lives experienced by black students at predominantly white institutions causes feelings of alienation that can lead to serious adjustment problems. Stress can lead to psychological withdrawal that impairs academic functioning, resulting in many blacks not performing up to their ability level. Suen's (1983) study on alienation and attrition reflects these findings. He found that Blacks scored higher than whites on an alienation scale. And, after following attrition rates for three semesters, there was a higher correlation between alienation and attrition for black students than for white.

Minority students at Ohio State listed racial discrimination, poor relations among minorities, and

feelings of isolation and loneliness serious problems they have experienced (Livingston and Stewart, 1987). In response to questions on the same survey, 54 per cent said they had experienced discrimination by white students, however, 77 per cent disagreed with the statement "I would prefer not to mix socially with whites," and 60 per cent disagreed with the statement "I would prefer not to have a white roommate." While racial discrimination is a problem, most black students still do not seem to purposefully disassociate themselves from whites.

There are few studies addressing the adjustment of the international student to the predominantly white campus. Some of the problems facing Blacks are similar for Internationals. International students interviewed at a Canadian university cited racial discrimination, cultural differences, academic issues, social interaction with other students and language skills as major adjustment issues (Heikinheimo and Shute, 1986). International students interacted with Canadians reported less cultural and social adjustments than did students who isolated themselves.

Homesickness, obtaining housing, social relationships with members of the opposite sex, English language and finances were listed as adjustment problems in another study of international students (Stafford, Marion & Salter, 1980).

Many of the problems of international students such as racism, language difficulties, and social interaction could lead to feelings of isolation and alienation which have been shown to impede academic success and be related to higher attrition levels.

Summary

In summation, both the literature on social distance studies as well as related residence hall studies indicate a relationship between contact with diverse groups and an increase in levels of tolerance expressed towards a group.

Favorable contact has been linked with lower social distance scores (Bogardus, 1967; Crull and Bruton, 1985); the opportunity for significant personal relationships (Newcomb, 1962); and the impetus to explore personal convictions about others (Whitely et al., 1985).

Lack of opportunity to interact with others has been cited as a reason for low social distance scores towards various ethnic groups (Bogardus, 1967), feelings of alienation among Black students (Livingston and Stewart, 1987; Fleming, 1984), and adjustment problems for International students (Heikenheimo and Shute, 1986; Stafford et al., 1980).

CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY

This study had two major purposes. The first purpose was to examine the degree of tolerance expressed by residence hall students towards groups having ethnic backgrounds and characteristics that might be found among students in the residence hall population. The second purpose was to examine the relationship between the degree of tolerance and the type of previous contact had with the residence groups studied.

The degree of tolerance was measured by the Bogardus Social Distance Scale (Bogardus, 1925). The type of previous contact was determined by using a scale developed by Crull and Bruton (1985).

This chapter describes the development and distribution of the survey instruments, the subjects of the study, and statistical procedures used in analyzing the data.

Development of the Survey

Selection of scales

The Bogardus Social Distance Scale was chosen to measure the concept of tolerance of residence halls students towards the various ethnic groups and behaviors existing in the residence hall environment. The Bogardus Scale was selected for this study because it is intended to measure the social distance or degree of social acceptance that

exists between given persons and certain social groups.

Respondents are asked to select from among seven equidistant responses the responses which describe the closeness of the relationship they would be willing to have with each of the groups included in the scale (Bogardus, 1933). In this study the wording for the first situation "would marry" was changed to "would marry or allow a family member to marry" to accommodate responses to groups that might be of the same sex as the respondent. The following set of social distance responses was used to measure distance reactions:

1. Would marry or allow a family member to marry.
2. Would have as a good friend.
3. Would have as my neighbor.
4. Would have in the same work group.
5. Would have as a speaking acquaintance only.
6. Would have as a visitor to my country only.
7. Would exclude from my country.

Crull and Bruton (1985) developed the scale that was used to describe the degree of favorable contact residence hall students had with the groups studied. This scale has been previously used in conjunction with the distance scale (Crull and Bruton, 1985). Students were asked to describe the type of previous contact they had with each group studied by assigning a number to each group based on the following responses:

1. Favorable close personal contact.
2. Favorable but not close personal contact.
3. No contact.
4. Unfavorable but not close personal contact.
5. Unfavorable close personal contact.

Selection of scale groups

Because it was important to select groups for the social distance scales whose characteristics would be applicable to the residence hall environment in which this study was conducted, a group of professional residence hall staff members were asked to develop the initial list of residence groups to be included in the study. Staff members were instructed to include groups towards which students' social distance reaction would be of interest. Groups whose behaviors or ethnic backgrounds resulted in conflict situations were included as were groups whose inclusion was merely for curiosity's sake. Several groups (Russians, Nicaraguans and Black and White South Africans) were included because of the national media attention being given to them at the time of this survey.

A group of residence hall student government members was then given the list of groups as a part of the pilot study to be described later. The students were asked to review the terminology used to refer to the group ethnicity

or behavior characteristic to make sure the terms were understandable to the average residence hall student.

Thirty-six groups were finally included on the both the social distance and the contact scale (Table 1).

TABLE 1. Groups used in social distance and contact scales

White Americans	Drinkers
Black Americans	Nondrinkers
Hispanic Americans	Smokers
American Indians	Nonsmokers
Internationals	Christians
Oriental	Born Again Christians
Arabs	Jews
Africans	Muslims
Indians (from India)	Frat./Sorority Members
Europeans	Rural Students
South/Central Americans	Urban Students
Russians	Football Players
Iranians	Basketball Players
Black South Africans	Wrestlers
White South Africans	Swimmers
Nicaraguans	Gymnasts
Homosexuals	Track/field Athletes
Drug Users	Tennis Players

Subjects

All study participants were undergraduate students living in the residence halls at Iowa State University at the time of the study. Because the majority of students in this residence hall system are white Americans, it was decided that all American Minority and International students living in the residence hall would be included in the study in order to get a sufficient return rate to

compare the results with those of the majority population. This population consisted of 708 residents. The twenty per cent sample of American white residents consisted of 1444 subjects. The 2152 residents included in the sample were selected in the following manner.

The ethnic backgrounds of the residence hall students were determined by student records on a computer data base at the Office of the Registrar at Iowa State University. Labels were generated for all students who were living in the residence halls whose racial background and citizenship indicated that they were other than white American.

The names of residents whose records indicated that they were white Americans were then put in order according to residence hall address and a label was printed for every fifth person on this list.

The Iowa State University Committee on the Use of Human Subjects in Research reviewed this study and concluded that the rights and welfare of the students were adequately protected, that the risks were outweighed by the potential benefits and expected value of the knowledge sought, and the confidentiality of the data was assured.

Survey Procedures

Pilot study

After the scale groups (Table 1) were selected by residence hall professional staff members, the social

distance scale and contact scale were administered to a group of thirty-three student government leaders during one of their regularly scheduled meetings. Other than a few minor word changes, the major result of the pilot test was a change in the format of the social distance scale.

The original social distance scale consisted of the names of the groups to be studied in a columns on the left of followed by a grid of seven columns. Each of the seven columns was headed by one of the social distance response choices. The first column then was headed with "would marry or allow a member of my family to marry" and so on to the seventh column which was headed with the most distancing response "would exclude from my country." The respondents were asked to check as many of the columns for each of the scale groups as their feelings dictated. Many of the respondents used only one check to indicate their reaction to each group, or positioned checks off the scale or between columns to indicate a response. To eliminate coding errors, and because the nearest column checked was determined to be a reliable scoring method (Miller, 1970), the social distance scale was modified. The scoring grid was eliminated and a blank line was inserted to the left of each of the thirty-six scale groups. Respondents were asked to assign the whole number that best described the closest relationship they would be willing to have with each of the groups included on the scale.

Survey distribution

The social distance and contact scales used in this study were included as part of a survey conducted by the Department of Residence at Iowa State University (see Appendix) to measure student satisfaction with residence hall living. The incorporation of the scales into the Department of Residence survey had several advantages which included staff assistance in the distribution and collection of the survey as well as the encouragement of residents by staff to complete the survey.

Surveys were distributed in February, 1987 through residence hall mail boxes. The instructions asked that the survey be completed and returned within a week to the Resident Assistant or to the residence hall post office from which it was distributed. A personally addressed letter was sent to each student in the sample ten days after the survey was distributed. The letter thanked the student if the student had returned the survey and reminded those who hadn't completed the survey that there was still time to do so (Appendix). No other follow-up was done after the letter was sent.

Data Analysis

Data preparation involved assigning each returned survey an identification number, transcribing the responses written on the surveys into a format which could be utilized

by SPSS-X procedures (SPSS Inc., 1983), and correcting coding errors. Address labels, if they weren't removed by the respondents, were removed to afford the respondents complete anonymity.

Reliability and validity

The split half reliability coefficient of the Bogardus Social Distance Scale is reported at .90 or higher in repeated tests by Hartley and Hartley (cited in Miller, 1970). High validity is reported using the "known group" method. This involves finding groups known to be favorable towards some of the ethnic groups and unfavorable towards other, then comparing their responses on the scale to what is known (cited in Miller, 1970). No reliability or validity measures are reported for the contact scale (Crull and Bruton, 1985).

The reliability of the social distance scale and the contact scale used in this study was determined by using the SPXX Reliability program for the calculation of Cronbach's alpha. A feature of this program is its capability to compute alpha for subsets of items remaining after each item is deleted in turn. It is thus possible to determine which items, if deleted, could increase the reliability of the scale. An alpha of .70 or higher is considered a high reliability.

Statistical procedures

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the Sheffe Multiple Range Test was used to examine differences among the respondent groups in their responses to the social distance scale and the contact scale. Analyses were made based on the respondents' sex, ethnic background and length of time in the residence halls.

The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to measure the relationship between responses on the social distance scale and the contact scale. Again, relationships were measured based on the respondents' sex, ethnic background and length of time in the residence halls.

CHAPTER IV. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

After a summary of the general characteristics of the data used in the analysis, the results of this study will be presented by discussing hypotheses related to the analysis of the social distance scale, followed by hypotheses related to the analysis of the contact scale, and finally, by hypotheses related to the relationship between the social distance and the contact scale.

Respondent Characteristics

Return rate and demographic information

The survey used in this study was sent to 2152 residence hall students. The overall return rate was 43.6 per cent with 940 surveys returned. This return rate was inconsistent across the groups sampled. The survey was sent to a twenty per cent sample of white American residents. Of the 1444 surveys distributed to this group 784 were returned for a 54.29 per cent return rate. All American minority and International students were included in the sample. Of the 708 surveys distributed to this group 156 were returned for a 22 per cent return rate.

The resulting residence hall sample from which the data were analyzed consisted of 616 white Americans (about 79%), 109 American Minorities (about 14%) and 56 Internationals (about 7%). The initial sampling procedures suggest that American minorities and Internationals together made up 8.9

per cent of the undergraduate residence hall population at the time of this study. No exact figures are available for the number of American minority and International students living in the residence halls at the time of this study. However, the Iowa State University Profile (Iowa State University, 1987) reports a university population of American ethnic minorities of approximately 4.0 per cent for the fall of 1986, and an undergraduate International population of 4.1 per cent. These figures suggest that an 8.9 per cent residence hall population of those two groups is fairly accurate. The population of American minority and Internationals is probably over-represented in this study.

The percentage of men and women returning the survey is reflective of the 60 per cent population of men and 40 per cent population of women attending Iowa State at the time of this survey (I.S.U., 1987). Males make up 57 per cent of the population in this study, while women make up 43 per cent.

Scale scoring and reliability

The social distance scale consisted of seven response choices ranging from the least distancing response, number one, to the most distancing response, number seven. Respondents were asked to select the number of the one response choice which best fit their reaction to each of the thirty-six groups included on the scale. The social

distance score for each of the thirty-six scale groups was determined by computing the arithmetic mean of the totaled response choice numbers selected by all respondents. The lower the social distance score or mean score, the closer or more intimate the relationship the respondents were willing to have with that group.

The scoring for the contact scale was computed similarly to the social distance scale. The response choices ranged from one to five with number one being "favorable, close personal contact" and number five being "unfavorable, close personal contact." Response choice three indicates no contact with the group. The contact score for each scale group was determined by computing the mean contact response score for all of the respondents. The lower the contact score or mean, the more favorable the previous contact had with the group.

Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the reliability of the social distance scale and the contact scale used in this study. Alpha for the social distance scale is .95. Alpha for the contact scale is .83. No item was found on either scale which, if deleted, would raise the alpha significantly higher.

The Social Distance Scale

The first three hypotheses stated that students who lived in the residence halls longer would have lower

distance scores than newer residents; that the students would express lowest distance scores towards those groups most ethnically similar to themselves; and that the social distance scores of men and women would be equal. These hypotheses involved analyses of the social distance scale, the overall results of which are indicated in Table 2.

Differences by length of residence

The first hypothesis stated that the length of time in the residence halls would effect the mean social distance score. The more semesters students lived in the residence halls, the lower mean social distance scores they would express.

Respondents were divided into four groups based upon the length of time they reported living in the residence halls. Students who lived in the halls one or two semesters (n=330) were combined into one group, three or four semesters (n=198) into a second, five or six semesters (n=133) into a third, and seven or more semesters (n=95) into a fourth.

The one way ANOVA procedure was used to determine differences among the social distance responses of the four respondent groups. Only three significant differences were found.

The Scheffe Multiple Range Test showed that the mean social distance score of students who had lived in the

Table 2. Means and standard deviations of social distance scale groups by all respondents

Scale Groups (N=754)	Mean	S.D.
Iranians	3.46	2.09
Nicaraguans	3.06	1.84
Arabs	2.93	1.76
South African Whites	2.92	1.86
Russians	2.97	1.90
South African Blacks	2.71	1.54
Indians (from India)	2.68	1.56
Africans	2.62	1.45
South/Central Americans	2.51	1.52
Oriental	2.50	1.60
Internationals	2.24	1.40
Hispanic Americans	2.22	1.41
American Indians	2.08	1.28
Black Americans	1.91	.94
Europeans	1.80	1.14
White Americans	1.11	.37
Homosexuals	4.91	2.06
Drug Users	4.70	2.07
Smokers	2.63	1.72
Drinkers	2.05	1.53
Nondrinkers	1.26	.65
Nonsmokers	1.19	.53
Muslims	2.75	1.51
Born Again Christians	2.34	1.63
Jews	2.22	1.25
Christians	1.27	.73
Frat./Sorority Members	1.78	1.45
Rural Students	1.23	.62
Urban Students	1.22	.55
Football Players	1.94	1.37
Wrestlers	1.80	1.20
Basketball Players	1.71	1.23
Swimmers	1.60	1.00
Tennis Players	1.58	1.02
Gymnasts	1.58	.98
Track/Field Athletes	1.55	.95

Overall Mean	2.25	.83

residence halls for one or two semesters expressed more distance towards or had a significantly higher social distance score ($M=2.67$) for Orientals than did students who had lived in the halls for seven or more semesters ($M=2.14$), $F=3.28$, $p<.05$.

Students who had lived in the residence halls for one or two semesters expressed more social distance towards Russians ($M=3.08$) than did students who had lived in the halls for five or six semesters ($M=2.51$), $F=3.23$, $p<.05$. Also the social distance mean of students who had lived in the halls for one or two semesters was higher for homosexuals ($M=5.21$) than was the mean of student who had lived in the halls for five or six semesters ($M=4.61$), $F=4.46$, $p<.01$.

The overall means of the social distance scale when computed by the number of semesters the respondents had lived in the residence halls, showed no significant differences among them.

These results do not support the hypothesis that students who lived in the residence halls longer would have lower social distance scores.

Differences by heritage

The third hypothesis stated that respondents would show lower social distance scores towards those groups most closely resembling their ethnic heritage.

To explore this hypothesis, respondents were classified into three groups: white Americans, American minorities, and Internationals. Table 3 shows the composition of these three groups. The one way ANOVA procedure was used to test for differences among the respondent groups. The results are listed in Table 4.

TABLE 3. Ethnic backgrounds of respondents combined into three heritage groups

White Americans (N=616) -----	Internationals (N=56) -----
American citizens (616)	Western Europe, Australia, Canada, New Zealand (5)
Minority Americans (N=109) -----	Central/South America (3)
American Indian/Eskimo (5)	Middle East (Syria, Egypt, Iraq, Iran, Saudi Arabia) (5)
Asian American (16)	Far East (Japan, China, Korea, Malaysia, Thailand)
Black American (55)	(26)
Hispanic American (33)	India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka (10)
	Africa (5)
	Other (2)

Analysis using the Scheffe showed, as hypothesized, that the white American respondent group had significantly lower social distance scores for the scale group "white Americans" than the American minority or International respondent groups. The American minority respondent group had significantly lower scores for the scale groups "Black Americans and "Hispanic Americans" than did the white American or International respondent groups.

TABLE 4. F values, means and standard deviations of social distance scale groups by ethnic background

Scale Group	F Value	White Americans (N=598)		Minority Americans (N=106)		Inter-nationals (N=50)	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Iranians	4.42*	3.58	2.11	3.05	1.97	2.98	1.94
Nicaraguans	3.33*	3.15	1.86	2.68	1.76	2.82	1.71
Arabs	5.81**	3.05	1.77	2.50	1.65	2.53	1.76
White South Africans	.05	2.91	1.84	2.91	1.92	3.00	1.93
Russians	.01	2.88	1.90	2.86	1.98	2.90	1.75
Black South Africans	4.32*	2.79	1.54	2.32	1.40	2.61	1.62
Indians (from India)	5.81**	2.78	1.58	2.30	1.45	2.33	1.45
Africans	9.53**	2.74	1.49	2.14	1.18	2.26	1.31
Oriental	9.86**	2.62	1.61	2.27	1.58	1.66	1.06
South/Central Americans	5.51**	2.59	1.54	2.07	1.31	2.56	1.57
Internationals	5.37**	2.32	1.41	2.08	1.42	1.72	.88
Hispanic Americans	9.72**	2.29	1.41	1.70	1.10	2.57	1.71
American Indians	4.74**	2.08	1.11	1.91	.99	2.51	1.46
Europeans	.96	1.78	1.33	1.86	1.21	2.00	1.05
Black Americans	11.27**	1.96	.91	1.52	.95	2.08	1.12
White Americans	97.28**	1.03	.19	1.42	.63	1.50	.61
Homosexuals	2.35	4.91	2.06	4.68	2.10	5.45	1.94
Drug Users	6.76**	4.64	2.08	4.55	2.05	5.73	1.73
Smokers	3.68*	2.55	1.67	2.79	1.86	3.18	1.92
Drinkers	87.27**	1.74	1.20	2.74	1.79	4.16	2.14
Nondrinkers	41.88**	1.16	.50	1.56	.97	1.84	.89
Nonsmokers	64.52**	1.09	.33	1.48	.88	1.76	.80

Muslims	2.18	2.81	1.50	2.50	1.40	2.59	1.78
Born Again Christians	1.41	2.38	1.63	2.09	1.55	2.36	1.61
Jews	10.35**	2.16	1.17	2.22	1.19	3.00	1.94
Christians	14.54**	1.20	.62	1.46	1.12	1.68	.77
Frat./Sorority Members	6.52**	1.74	1.48	1.66	1.09	2.48	1.59
Rural Students	45.03**	1.14	.50	1.47	.78	1.86	.92
Urban Students	54.08**	1.14	.42	1.35	.63	1.19	.99
Football Players	13.39**	1.86	1.32	1.91	1.22	2.88	1.73
Wrestlers	15.04**	1.73	1.71	1.80	1.02	2.69	1.60
Basketball Players	13.92**	1.64	1.08	1.70	.96	2.50	1.55
Swimmers	12.04**	1.54	.97	1.69	1.01	2.24	1.22
Tennis Players	7.22**	1.52	.98	1.74	1.13	2.02	1.10
Gymnasts	7.94**	1.52	.95	1.70	1.01	2.06	1.18
Track/Field Athletes	10.48**	1.49	.90	1.64	.95	2.10	1.30

Totals (N=754)	4.04**	2.24	.82	2.18	.84	2.56	.95

*p<.05.

**p<.01.

The International respondent group had lower mean social distance scores than did white Americans or American minorities for the scale groups "Internationals" and "Orientals", however, the Scheffe showed that these scores only differed significantly from those of the white American respondent group. The social distance scores of the International respondents towards other scale groups reflective of some of their ethnic backgrounds such as "Arabs," "Africans," "Indians," and "Iranians," are not significantly lower than those of white American or American Minority respondents.

This hypothesis is supported by the results of the white American and American minority respondent groups but only partially supported by the results of the International respondent group.

Other significant differences were found in these data which suggest some trends. White Americans had significantly lower mean social distance scores than did American minority or International respondents for drinkers, nondrinkers, nonsmokers, students from rural areas, students from urban areas, and track and field athletes.

Minority Americans expressed significantly lower social distance scores than did white Americans for Arabs, Africans, Indians (from India), South and Central Americans and South African Blacks.

International respondents expressed significantly higher scores than did white Americans and minority Americans for drug users, drinkers, nondrinkers, nonsmokers, Jews, fraternity and sorority members, students from rural areas, students from urban areas, football players, basketball players, wrestlers, swimmers and track and field athletes. International respondents expressed significantly higher scores than did white Americans for smokers, gymnasts and tennis players.

In order to assess general patterns in the responses of white Americans, minority Americans and Internationals the scale groups were combined into five categories. These categories are: ethnicity, behavior, religion, living area, and athletes, as indicated in Table 5. The one way ANOVA procedure was used to indicate differences in social distance responses among the three respondent groups for the five scale group categories. The results are listed in Table 6.

The American minority respondent group had a significantly lower mean ethnic distance score than did the white American respondent group. The white American respondent group had a significantly lower mean score for behavior distance than did the other American minority or International respondent groups. And the International respondent group had a significantly higher mean score than did the white American and International respondent groups

TABLE 5. Scale groups combined into five categories

ETHNIC CATEGORY:	BEHAVIOR CATEGORY:
White Americans	Homosexuals
Black Americans	Drug Users
Hispanic Americans	Drinkers
American Indians	Nondrinkers
Internationals	Smokers
Oriental	Nonsmokers
Arabs	
Africans	RELIGION CATEGORY:
Indians (from India)	Christians
Europeans	Born Again Christians
South/Central Americans	Jews
Russians	Muslims
Iranians	
Black South Africans	ATHLETE CATEGORY:
White South Africans	Football Players
Nicaraguans	Basketball Players
	Wrestlers
LIVING AREA CATEGORY:	Swimmers
Frat./Sorority Members	Gymnasts
Rural Students	Track/Field Athletes
Urban Students	Tennis Players

for behavior distance, living area distance and athlete distance. No significant difference was found among the respondent groups for religious distance.

Differences by sex

The third hypothesis stated that the mean social distance scores for men and women would be equal. The data do not support this hypothesis and show that the social distance scores for women are generally lower, or show less distance towards the groups than do the scores of the men.

Table 6. F values, means and standard deviations of social distance scale group categories by ethnic background

Scale Group	F value	White Americans (N=598)		Minority Americans (N=106)		Inter-nationals (N=50)	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Ethnic Category	3.31*	2.53	1.21	2.22	1.09	2.36	1.13
Behavior Category	27.42**	2.68	.88	2.97	1.18	3.67	1.15
Religious Category	1.94	2.14	.92	2.07	1.06	2.39	1.20
Living Area Category	28.97**	1.34	.62	1.49	.74	2.08	1.02
Athlete Category	14.32**	1.61	.93	1.74	.95	2.35	1.17

*p<.05.

**p<.01.

The mean social distance scores of the 327 women were lower than those of the 430 men for all thirty-six of the groups. When the one way analysis of variance procedure (ANOVA) was used to test the significance of these differences, significant differences at the .01 level were found for nineteen of the groups. Five of the groups were significantly different at the .05 level. Twelve of the groups showed no significant differences between the mean scores of men and women (Table 7).

The difference between the overall mean social distance scores of men (M=2.38) and women (M=2.08) was also significant: $F=24.18$, $p<.01$.

TABLE 7. F values, means and standard deviations of social distance scale groups by sex

Scale Groups	F value	Females (N=327)		Males (N=430)	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Iranians	21.96**	3.06	1.82	3.77	2.22
Nicaraguans	10.37**	2.82	1.56	3.25	2.01
Russians	4.12*	2.71	1.72	2.99	2.02
Arabs	13.37**	2.66	1.50	3.14	1.91
White South Africans	12.55**	2.62	1.56	3.13	2.03
Black South Africans	8.93**	2.52	1.28	2.85	1.69
Indians (from India)	8.33**	2.49	1.36	2.82	1.69
Africans	6.38*	2.47	1.26	2.74	1.57
Oriental	2.42	2.42	1.35	2.58	1.75
South/Central Americans	9.91**	2.31	1.26	2.67	1.68
Internationals	4.32*	2.12	1.23	2.34	1.50
Hispanic Americans	11.01**	2.02	1.16	2.37	1.55
American Indians	4.25*	1.98	1.00	2.15	1.21
Black Americans	7.22**	1.80	.79	1.99	1.04
Europeans	1.00	1.76	1.07	1.84	1.19
White Americans	1.48	1.09	.30	1.09	.42
Drug Users	14.19**	4.37	2.08	4.94	2.03
Homosexuals	71.80**	4.21	2.02	5.44	1.93
Smokers	4.39	2.48	1.64	2.74	1.78
Drinkers	2.60	1.94	1.43	2.13	1.60
Nondrinkers	1.93	1.22	.60	1.29	.68
Nonsmokers	1.38	1.16	.55	1.21	.51
Muslims	2.91	2.64	1.37	2.83	1.60
Born Again Christians	1.77	2.24	1.46	2.40	1.73
Jews	1.22	2.17	1.17	2.27	1.30
Christians	10.08**	1.17	.63	1.34	.79
Frat./Sorority Members	5.63*	1.63	1.24	1.88	1.58
Rural Students	1.50	1.20	.54	1.26	.67
Urban Students	1.96	1.19	.47	1.25	.60
Football Players	27.31**	1.64	1.13	2.16	1.48
Wrestlers	30.78**	1.53	.98	2.01	1.31
Basketball Players	23.25**	1.49	.95	1.88	1.22
Swimmers	15.85**	1.44	.89	1.73	1.07
Gymnasts	11.17**	1.44	.87	1.68	1.05
Tennis Players	16.61**	1.41	.82	1.71	1.12
Track/Field Athletes	17.71**	1.38	.80	1.67	1.03
TOTALS	24.18**	2.08	.74	2.38	.87

*p<.05.

**p<.01.

The Contact Scale

The fourth hypothesis stated that the longer students live in the residence halls, the more contact they will have with the groups listed on the contact scale. This hypothesis involves examining the contact scale and the number of semesters students have lived in the halls. The contact scale will also be examined by the sex and heritage of the respondents as these are important components of the relationship hypothesis which will be discussed later. Overall contact scores are indicated on Table 8.

Differences by length of residence

It was hypothesized that students who lived in the residence halls longer would have more positive contact with the scale groups than would newer residents.

Respondents were divided by the length of time in the residence halls into the same four groups used with the social distance scale. The first group consisted of students who had lived in the halls one or two semesters; the second group, those who had lived there three or four semesters; the third group, five or six semesters; and the fourth group, seven or more semesters. Only three significant differences were found.

An analysis with the Scheffe showed that the mean contact score of students who had lived in the halls for one or two semesters ($M=2.67$) for people from India was

Table 8. Means and standard deviations of contact scale groups by total respondents

Scale Groups (N=782)	Mean	S.D.
Russians	2.97	.36
Nicaraguans	2.92	.44
White South Africans	2.92	.42
Iranians	2.86	.71
American Indians	2.80	.53
Arabs	2.78	.76
Black South Africans	2.78	.55
Africans	2.68	.67
South/Central Americans	2.63	.72
Indians (from India)	2.59	.79
Hispanic Americans	2.44	.84
Europeans	2.37	.77
Oriental	2.32	.92
Internationals	2.23	.85
Black Americans	1.92	.90
White Americans	1.14	.54
Homosexuals	3.05	.70
Drug Users	2.90	1.07
Smokers	2.60	1.46
Drinkers	1.80	1.27
Nondrinkers	1.33	.70
Nonsmokers	1.16	.49
Muslims	2.73	.68
Jews	2.61	.75
Born Again Christians	2.53	1.12
Christians	1.31	.69
Frat./Sorority Members	2.23	1.19
Rural Students	1.27	.62
Urban Students	1.26	.62
Football Players	2.64	.97
Swimmers	2.61	.80
Basketball Players	2.58	.82
Wrestlers	2.58	.81
Gymnasts	2.56	.79
Tennis Players	2.56	.76
Track/Field Athletes	2.34	.82

Total Scale Mean	2.36	.31

significantly higher, or showed less close favorable contact than the contact score of students who had lived in the halls for seven or more semesters ($M=2.42$), $F=2.88$, $p<.05$. The contact score of students who had lived in the halls for one or two semesters ($M=2.82$), for Muslims differed significantly from students who had lived in the halls three or four semesters ($M=2.65$) and five or six semesters ($M=2.62$), $F=4.20$, $p<.05$.

Students who lived in the residence halls for one or two semesters had closer, more favorable contact with football players ($M=2.51$) than did students who had lived in the halls for either five or six semesters ($M=2.79$) or seven or more semesters ($M=2.83$), $F=4.54$, $p<.05$.

The overall mean scores for the contact scale showed no significant differences based on the number of semesters in the residence halls.

The length of time spent in the residence halls appears to have no bearing on the kind of contact the respondent groups had with the scale groups.

Differences by heritage

No hypotheses were stated which required the analysis of contact scale based upon the ethnic heritage of the respondents. However, several significant differences were found. Respondents were divided into three groups based upon their ethnicity. These groups, the same ones as used

with the social distance scale, were: white Americans, American minorities, and Internationals.

The one way ANOVA procedure was used to find differences among the three respondent groups contact with the thirty-six scale groups. Table 9 reports the results of this procedure.

White American respondents had significantly more positive contact with the white american scale group than did the American minority or International respondent groups. They also reported more positive contact than did the other two respondent groups with drinkers and students from rural areas. White Americans had significantly more positive contact with nonsmokers and students from urban areas than did the International respondents.

White Americans reported significantly less positive contact than did the American minority and International respondent groups for Internationals, Orientals, Africans, Indians from India, South African Blacks and Muslims. They reported less positive contact with Nicaraguans, born again christians and football players than did American minority respondents, and less positive contact with Arabs than did International respondents.

American minority respondents had significantly more positive contact with Black Americans, Hispanic Americans and basketball players than did the white American or International respondents. They reported no significantly

TABLE 9. F values, means and standard deviations of contact scale groups by ethnic background

Scale Group	F value	White Americans (N=612)		Minority Americans (N=106)		Inter-Nationals (N=52)	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Russians	1.58	2.98	.34	2.94	.47	2.90	.36
Nicaraguans	11.00**	2.96	.37	2.75	.67	2.84	.50
White South Africans	2.20	2.93	.40	2.84	.50	2.88	.43
Iranians	9.45**	2.91	.69	2.75	.70	2.50	.85
Black South Africans	18.19**	2.84	.48	2.55	.68	2.58	.72
Arabs	6.64**	2.82	.74	2.68	.78	2.46	.85
American Indians	4.22*	2.80	.51	2.68	.61	2.92	.48
Africans	22.35**	2.76	.60	2.42	.71	2.29	.91
South/Central Americans	3.09*	2.67	.65	2.52	.91	2.48	.98
Indians (from India)	17.72**	2.66	.76	2.46	.78	2.04	.86
Hispanic Americans	11.81**	2.49	.81	2.08	.85	2.55	.88
Orientals	23.18**	2.41	.92	2.17	.76	1.56	.87
Europeans	.92	2.36	.76	2.46	.82	2.33	.78
Internationals	23.35**	2.30	.85	2.08	.75	1.52	.64
Black Americans	12.98**	1.97	.88	1.55	.82	2.19	.93
White Americans	30.38**	1.06	.42	1.43	.89	1.40	.53
Homosexuals	2.00	3.08	.69	2.93	.74	3.06	.50
Drug Users	.44	2.90	1.09	2.85	.98	3.02	.98
Smokers	2.79	2.67	1.49	2.37	1.40	2.33	1.33
Drinkers	20.50**	1.68	1.23	2.06	1.34	2.75	1.19
Nondrinkers	3.03*	1.31	.72	1.31	.54	1.56	.70
Nonsmokers	8.01**	1.12	.48	1.23	.46	1.38	.60

Muslims	30.33**	2.80	.61	2.63	.73	2.08	.96
Jews	2.69	2.60	.76	2.57	.74	2.84	.61
Born Again Christians	3.97**	2.59	1.13	2.28	1.06	2.38	1.00
Christians	2.46	1.29	.68	1.37	.64	1.49	.83
Frat./Sorority Members	2.69	2.26	1.23	1.99	1.12	2.37	.77
Urban Students	10.95**	1.22	.59	1.36	.76	1.61	.70
Rural Students	31.85**	1.18	.52	1.57	.88	1.70	.73
Football Players	5.46**	2.68	.95	2.36	1.12	2.72	.75
Basketball Players	7.24**	2.61	.79	2.31	.94	2.74	.82
Swimmers	.82	2.60	.80	2.66	.86	2.72	.75
Wrestlers	4.57**	2.58	.79	2.47	.94	2.88	.65
Tennis Players	2.41	2.57	.75	2.63	.75	2.35	.82
Gymnasts	3.30*	2.52	.80	2.72	.71	2.67	.68
Track/Field Athletes	1.22	2.34	.81	2.23	.88	2.37	.85

Totals	4.09*	2.38	.29	2.29	.34	2.35	.35

*p<.05.

**p<.01.

less positive contact scores than the other two respondent groups for any of the scale groups included in this study.

International respondents reported more significantly positive contact toward Internationals, Orientals, Indians from India and Muslims than did the other two groups. They had significantly less positive contact than did the other white American or American minority respondents with drinkers and wrestlers. International respondents reported significantly more negative contact than did white Americans for nonsmokers and students from rural areas.

When differences among the respondent groups' contact scores were assessed by combining the scale groups into five categories (see Table 5), several significant differences were found. Table 10 shows the results of this procedure.

The mean contact score of white Americans ($M=2.56$) was significantly higher, or indicated less positive contact, than the mean scores of either American minorities ($M=2.40$) or Internationals ($M=2.34$) with the scale groups included in the ethnic category, $F=16.98$, $p<.01$.

International respondents indicated less positive contact ($M=1.90$) with scale groups included in the living area category, than did American minorities ($M=1.64$), $F=8.48$, $p<.05$, or white Americans ($M=1.55$), $p<.01$. Internationals also indicated less positive contact with the groups included in the behavior category ($M=2.35$) than did white Americans ($M=2.13$), $F=3.55$, $p<.05$.

No differences among the three respondent groups were reported for the scale groups included in either the religious or athlete categories.

TABLE 10. F values, means and standard deviations of contact scale group categories by ethnic background

Scale Groups	F value	White Americans (N=614)		Minority Americans (N=106)		Inter-nationals (N=52)	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Ethnic Category	16.98**	2.56	.34	2.40	.39	2.34	.37
Behavior Category	3.55*	2.13	.58	2.12	.56	2.35	.59
Religious Category	3.17*	2.32	.48	2.21	.48	2.19	.55
Living Area Category	8.48**	1.55	.56	1.64	.69	1.90	.58
Athlete Category	1.59	2.56	.54	2.48	.59	2.64	.50

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

Differences by sex

Although no hypotheses require the analysis of the contact scale based upon the respondents' sex, significant differences were found when this was done (Table 11).

Women expressed lower mean social distance scores than men for all but four groups which were Orientals, South and Central Americans, swimmers and wrestlers, none of which were statistically significant. The Scheffe showed that women had significantly closer contact than men ($p < .01$)

TABLE 11. F values, means and standard deviations of contact scale groups by sex

Scale Groups	F Value	Females (N=332)		Males (N=442)	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Russians	.16	2.97	.24	2.98	.43
Nicaraguans	.25	2.92	.38	2.93	.48
South African Whites	.64	2.90	.40	2.92	.44
Iranians	.14	2.85	.64	2.87	.76
Arabs	.02	2.77	.63	2.78	.84
American Indians	1.95	2.76	.52	2.82	.53
South African Blacks	3.79	2.74	.53	2.82	.56
South/Central Americans	.46	2.65	.64	2.62	.78
Africans	1.57	2.64	.64	2.70	.69
Indians (from India)	.59	2.62	.66	2.57	.86
Hispanic Americans	1.72	2.39	.70	2.47	.87
Europeans	.07	2.36	.70	2.38	.82
Oriental	2.18	2.26	.85	2.36	.97
Internationals	.54	2.25	.76	2.20	.91
Black Americans	7.56**	1.82	.86	2.00	.91
White Americans	1.60	1.11	.48	1.16	.59
Homosexuals	28.88**	2.91	.73	3.18	.63
Drug Users	5.47*	2.80	1.04	2.98	1.08
Smokers	4.44*	2.47	1.47	2.70	1.45
Drinkers	1.45	1.74	1.21	1.85	1.31
Nondrinkers	22.75**	1.19	.47	1.43	.81
Nonsmokers	11.74**	1.09	.33	1.21	.57
Muslims	5.15*	2.79	.54	2.68	.76
Jews	.41	2.59	.73	2.63	.77
Born Again Christians	3.13	2.45	1.08	2.60	1.15
Christians	16.28**	1.20	.57	1.40	.75
Frat./Sorority members	27.02**	1.97	1.15	2.42	1.19
Urban Students	5.83*	1.20	.59	1.31	.64
Rural Students	9.98*	1.19	.49	1.33	.70
Wrestlers	.30	2.60	.73	2.57	.86
Swimmers	.67	2.59	.77	2.63	.83
Tennis Players	.40	2.59	.72	2.54	.77
Football Players	4.10*	2.56	.94	2.70	.99
Gymnasts	.86	2.53	.78	2.58	.79
Basketball Players	7.99**	2.48	.82	2.65	.81
Track/Field Athletes	.76	2.31	.80	2.36	.84
TOTALS	14.71**	2.31	.28	2.40	.32

*p<.05.

**p<.01.

with black Americans, homosexuals, nondrinkers, nonsmokers, christians, fraternity and sorority members, and wrestlers. Women's contact was closer ($p < .05$) for drug users, smokers, Muslims, students from rural areas, students from urban areas and football players.

The women's mean contact score for the overall scale was significantly lower than that of the men's.

Relationships Between Contact and Social Distance

The last hypotheses stated that students who had positive contact with the scale groups would have lower social distance scores while students who had negative contact would express higher social distance scores. Several methods were used to test these hypotheses.

The Pearson Correlation was used to test for relationships between the social distance and contact scale responses for each of the scale groups. Positive, but low correlations were found for the scale groups (Table 12). A low, but positive relationship was found between overall means of the contact scale and those of the social distance scale, $r = .43$, $p < .01$. This indicates that about eighteen per cent of the variation in the social distance scale can be attributed to the variation in the contact scale.

In order to see if higher correlations might be found, Pearson r was calculated for social distance and contact for the same scale group categories used in measuring

TABLE 12. Pearson correlation coefficient of social distance and contact scores by scale groups

Scale Group (N=747)	r**	Scale Group (N=747)	r**
Orientals	.45	Smokers	.42
Black Americans	.42	Nondrinkers	.21
Internationals	.40	Nonsmokers	.17
Hispanic Americans	.38		
Arabs	.37	Born Again Christians	.51
Indians (from India)	.37	Christians	.45
Iranians	.34	Muslims	.28
Europeans	.32	Jews	.27
Africans	.29		
White Americans	.28	Frat./Sorority Members	.46
South/Central Americans	.28	Rural Students	.36
Black South Africans	.22	Urban Students	.29
White South Africans	.20		
American Indians	.16	Football Players	.34
Nicaraguans	.16	Wrestlers	.24
Russians	.15	Basketball Players	.21
		Track/Field Athletes	.18
Drinkers	.58	Gymnasts	.16
Drug Users	.55	Swimmers	.14
Homosexuals	.45	Tennis Players	.12

**All correlations significant at .01 level.

differences among the respondents scores based upon their heritage (see Table 5). As Table 13 shows, significant but low positive correlations were found for all five groups. These findings indicate that at least part of the respondents' attitudes towards the scale groups may be attributed to the type of contact had with the group.

In order to further establish a relationship between social distance and contact, the contact and social distance means of the five scale group categories above were compared by the sex and ethnic background of the respondents. These trends were not as clear. Although the social distance

scores of women were significantly lower than those of the men for all five categories, the contact scores of women were significantly lower than the men for only the behavior and living area categories.

TABLE 13. Pearson correlation coefficients of contact and social distance scores of scale group categories

Scale Groups (N=750)	Pearson r
Ethnic Category	.43**
Behavior Category	.57**
Religion Category	.37**
Living Area Category	.42**
Athlete Category	.23**

**p<.001.

White Americans reported significantly less favorable contact with the groups included in the ethnic category than did either American minorities or Internationals but had significantly higher social distance scores than only the American minority group. The mean scores of International respondents for the ethnic category were lower than those of the American minority respondents on the contact scale but higher on the social distance scale.

Internationals reported significantly less positive contact than white Americans with scale groups included in the behavior category, but expressed higher social distance scores towards this category than did either white Americans

or American Minorities. White Americans reported significantly lower social distance scores towards the behavior category than did the other two groups. There does not appear to be a direct relationship between contact with the groups included in the behavior category and social distance attitudes towards them.

This trend continues in two other categories. While International respondents had significantly less favorable contact with groups in the living area category and significantly higher social distance scores for the same category, white Americans who reported significantly more favorable contact did not report significantly lower social distance scores. No difference in contact with the scale groups included in the athlete category was reported, however, Internationals expressed significantly higher social distance scores towards this category than did either white Americans or American minorities.

To further assess the relationship between the type of contact and the social distance score, the mean social distance scores for each scale group were computed for all respondents based on the type of contact reported. Thus, for each scale group the mean social distance score was computed for all respondents who said they had favorable, close personal contact with the group. A mean social distance score was computed for the other four contact responses: favorable, but not close, personal contact; no

contact; unfavorable, but not close personal contact; and unfavorable close personal contact. The results are reported on Table 14 and Figure 1.

In most cases, the more favorable and closer the contact, the lower the social distance mean. And, conversely, the more unfavorable and close the contact, the higher the social distance mean.

In seven of the scale groups, unfavorable close personal contact resulted in a lower social distance mean than did unfavorable, but not close personal contact. These seven scale groups are: Black Americans, American Indians, South and Central Americans, Russians, homosexuals, Jews and swimmers. It is important to note that the numbers of respondents in some of the categories, especially "unfavorable close personal contact" is very small for a number of the contact groups.

In general the data support the hypotheses that favorable contact results in lower social distance scores or more tolerant attitudes while unfavorable contact results in higher social distance scores or less tolerant attitudes. However, as discussed earlier, there are a number of exceptions to these trends.

Table 14. Social distance means, standard deviations, and respondent numbers by favorableness or unfavorableness of contact

SCALE GROUPS	Favorable close personal contact			Favorable but not close personal contact		
	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N
Russians	3.29	2.63	7	2.75	1.97	32
Iranians	2.45	1.53	42	2.45	1.44	106
Nicaraguans	2.56	1.82	16	2.40	1.26	43
White South Africans	2.38	1.89	16	2.08	.90	48
Black South Africans	2.09	1.55	32	2.22	.98	112
Indians (from India)	1.82	.88	85	2.23	1.16	181
Arabs	1.79	.91	52	2.41	1.36	147
South/Central Americans	1.79	.81	67	2.13	1.16	168
Oriental	1.76	.93	143	2.22	1.19	311
Africans	1.78	.94	54	2.25	1.18	160
American Indians	1.64	.82	33	1.79	.72	97
Internationals	1.61	.82	143	2.04	1.10	344
Black Americans	1.57	.60	256	1.88	.70	358
Hispanic Americans	1.47	.77	110	1.95	1.06	252
Europeans	1.32	.58	114	1.59	.81	268
White Americans	1.06	.25	683	1.65	.81	57
Homosexuals	1.95	.52	19	2.69	1.30	77
Drug Users	1.86	.96	93	3.68	1.77	139
Smokers	1.79	1.13	247	2.39	1.24	180
Drinkers	1.35	.72	464	2.61	1.41	142
Nondrinkers	1.17	.49	575	1.58	.90	135
Nonsmokers	1.15	.45	657	1.55	.87	76
Muslims	1.89	.92	63	2.27	1.24	110
Jews	1.59	.52	87	1.94	1.01	139
Born Again Christians	1.30	.74	187	1.88	1.15	127
Christians	1.13	.48	582	1.50	.83	123
Frat./Sorority Members	1.17	.46	249	1.57	1.03	260
Rural Students	1.13	.40	595	1.52	.82	125
Urban Students	1.13	.39	598	1.52	.66	122
Tennis Players	1.35	.75	102	1.52	.87	141
Football Players	1.34	.76	249	1.64	.84	168
Swimmers	1.33	.71	96	1.58	.91	148
Track/Field Athletes	1.31	.67	154	1.47	.65	199
Wrestlers	1.30	.48	93	1.65	.98	172
Basketball Players	1.26	.58	96	1.67	1.01	186
Gymnasts	1.22	.46	105	1.56	.86	151

No contact			Unfavorable but not close personal contact			Unfavorable close personal contact		
Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N
2.79	1.82	686	5.93	1.79	15	6.00	2.24	5
3.48	2.06	527	5.48	1.97	54	5.75	1.70	16
3.08	1.83	666	4.27	2.49	11	6.33	1.21	6
2.93	1.83	665	5.75	1.91	12	6.67	.58	3
2.79	1.54	586	4.82	2.09	11	7.00	.00	2
2.84	1.55	435	4.50	1.97	38	6.17	1.70	6
2.96	1.68	480	4.49	2.12	51	5.76	1.92	17
2.66	1.56	484	4.93	2.06	14	4.25	2.25	8
2.74	1.43	506	4.57	1.93	23	5.00	2.65	3
2.71	1.61	221	4.37	2.07	62	5.73	2.15	11
2.13	1.56	606	3.67	1.21	6	3.50	2.12	2
2.66	1.53	210	3.94	1.94	35	4.62	2.50	8
2.40	1.22	83	3.22	1.81	41	2.73	1.19	11
2.44	1.47	343	4.13	1.91	30	4.33	1.58	9
2.04	1.26	347	3.57	2.03	14	4.67	2.31	3
1.67	.58	3	1.00	.00	3	1.37	.74	8
5.05	1.99	518	6.16	1.22	105	6.15	1.32	26
5.41	1.70	310	5.65	1.54	153	5.51	1.92	47
3.15	1.97	55	3.38	1.82	164	3.67	2.20	98
4.90	2.20	20	3.50	1.59	70	3.69	2.17	51
1.48	1.36	21	2.00	.82	10	1.00	.00	6
1.44	.73	9	1.50	.71	2	1.00	.00	3
2.87	1.49	540	4.04	2.01	23	5.00	2.12	5
2.36	1.27	497	3.73	2.15	15	3.33	2.25	6
2.64	1.60	311	3.49	1.67	77	4.31	2.08	39
1.95	1.29	22	3.13	1.55	15	2.60	2.51	5
2.27	1.69	84	2.66	2.01	122	3.80	2.50	30
2.13	1.46	15	2.86	2.27	7	1.40	.55	5
2.23	1.69	13	1.00	.00	7	1.83	1.60	6
1.64	1.05	488	2.00	1.94	9	3.00	2.71	4
1.97	1.33	356	2.73	1.82	81	3.73	2.41	22
1.87	1.24	443	2.72	1.74	25	3.18	2.40	11
1.61	.99	462	2.28	1.76	32	2.12	1.81	8
1.68	1.11	382	1.50	.55	6	3.33	2.21	3
1.74	1.10	418	2.54	1.99	35	2.80	1.99	10
1.66	1.07	464	1.90	1.29	20	2.00	1.73	5

Figure 1. Graph of social distance means by favorableness or unfavorableness of contact

KEY:

- Favorable close personal contact
- † Favorable but not close personal contact
- ◆ No contact
- △ Unfavorable but not close personal contact
- × Unfavorable close personal contact

SCALE GROUPS:

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| A. White Americans | S. Drinkers |
| B. Black Americans | T. Nondrinkers |
| C. Hispanic Americans | U. Smokers |
| D. American Indians | V. Nonsmokers |
| E. Internationals | W. Christians |
| F. Orientals | X. Born Again Christians |
| G. Arabs | Y. Jews |
| H. Africans | Z. Muslims |
| I. Indians (from India) | AA. Frat./Sorority Members |
| J. Europeans | BB. Rural Students |
| K. South/Central Americans | CC. Urban Students |
| L. Russians | DD. Football Players |
| M. Iranians | EE. Basketball Players |
| N. Black South Africans | FF. Wrestlers |
| O. White South Africans | GG. Swimmers |
| P. Nicaraguans | HH. Gymnasts |
| Q. Homosexuals | II. Track/Field Athletes |
| R. Drug Users | JJ. Tennis Players. |
-

SOCIAL DISTANCE RESPONSES

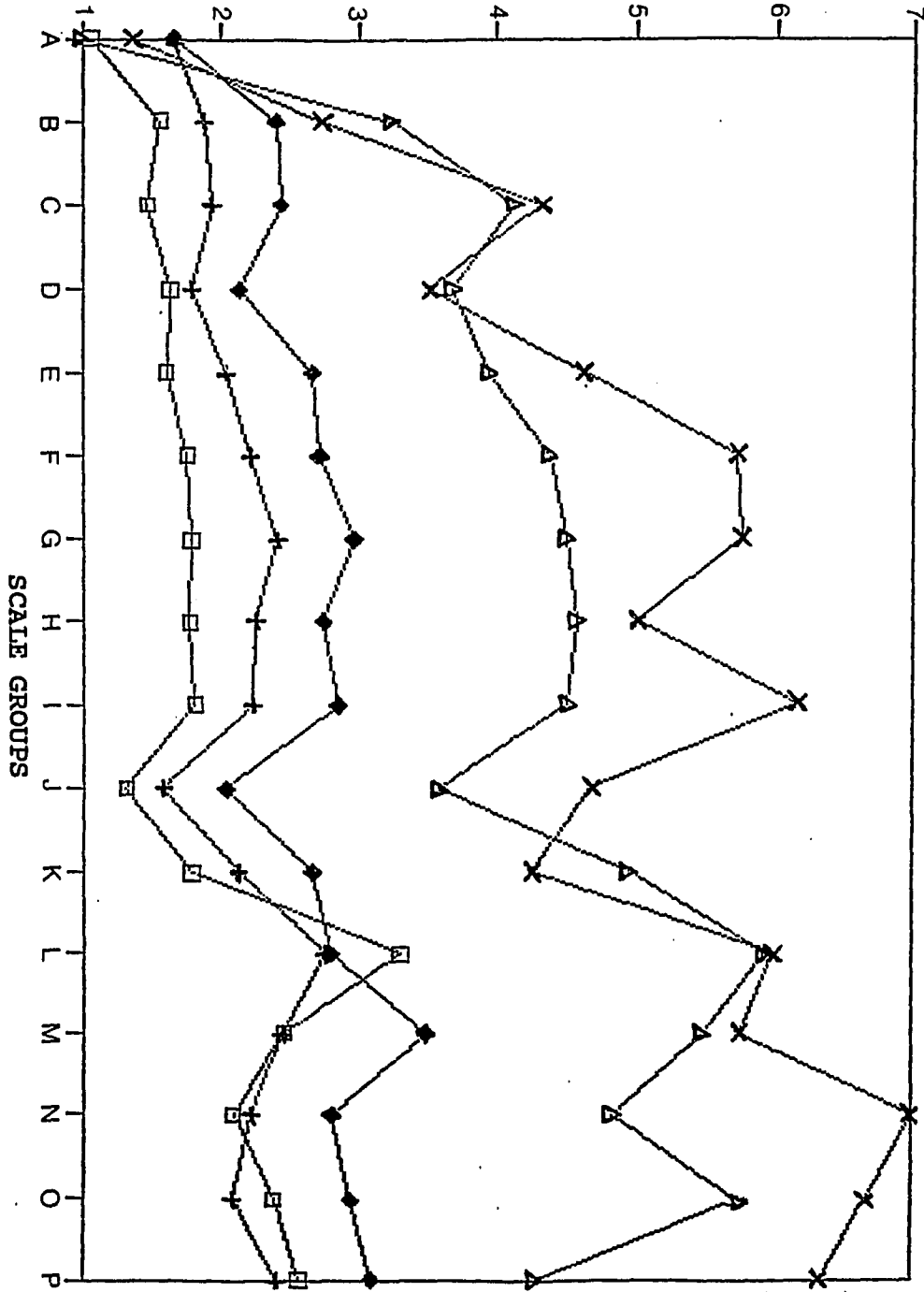
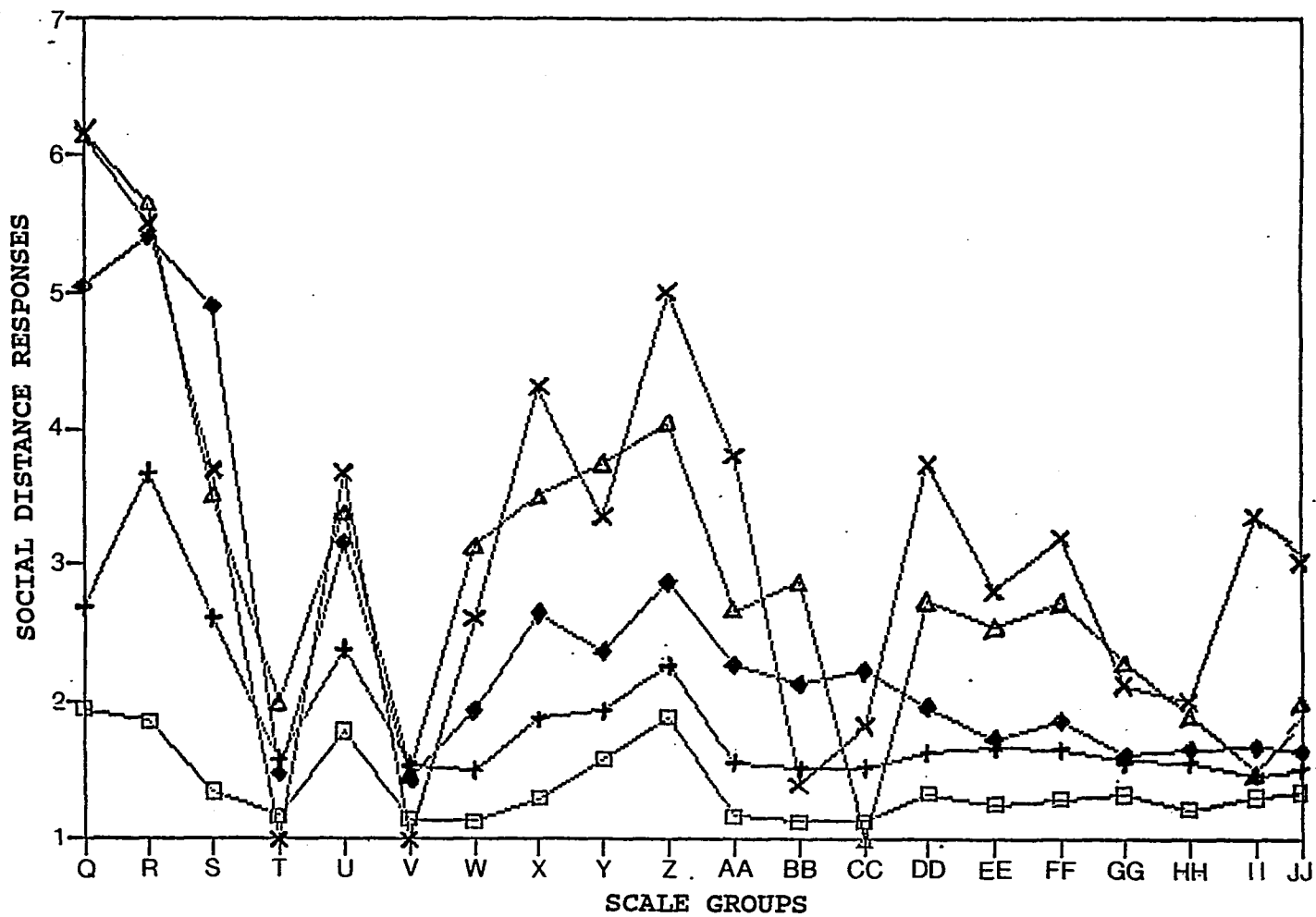


Figure 1. continued



CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Boyer (1987), in his study of the undergraduate college experience, found most students to be inadequately informed about the interdependent world in which they lived and most colleges and universities failing to instill a sense of a world community in their students. He challenges colleges and universities to utilize both the academic and nonacademic experience to assist students in developing a global perspective. Boyer states that in order to develop the sense of global community, it is imperative that colleges introduce students to values and cultures other than their own. This opportunity to interact with others whose viewpoints differ from one's own has been associated with an increase in tolerance and respect for others (Dalton, 1985; Chickering, 1981).

This study had two purposes. The first was to assess the degree of tolerance held by residence hall students towards groups having ethnic backgrounds and behaviors similar to those found in the residence hall setting. The second purpose was to determine the effect of previous contact with these groups on residents' levels of tolerance.

The Bogardus (1925) social distance scale, modified to include groups reflective of the cultural backgrounds and behavior characteristics typically found in the residence hall setting, was used to measure the degree of tolerance,

or social distance, felt toward those groups. The lower the social distance score, the more intimate the relationship the student was willing to have with the groups or the higher the degree of tolerance expressed.

Previous favorable or unfavorable contact with the group was measured with a contact scale developed by Crull and Bruton (1985). The lower the contact scale score, the more favorable the previous contact had with the group.

Both scales were included as part of a survey designed to measure the degree of satisfaction with the residence hall environment at Iowa State University. This survey was distributed all residents whose ethnic backgrounds were either American minority or International (708 residents), and a twenty per cent sample of all white American residents (1444 residents).

This chapter includes a summary of the findings; the implications of these findings for residence hall practitioners; and recommendations for future research.

Summary

Men and women were expected to express equal tolerance towards the scale groups, this finding was not supported. The mean social distance scores of women were lower, or indicated more tolerance, for all thirty-six of the scale groups and this difference was statistically significant for twenty-four of the groups. While these findings were

consistent with those of Crull and Bruton (1979, 1985), their 1985 study showed an increase in women's social distance scores indicating that the scores of women might eventually equal those of men

The length of time students lived in the residence hall did not result in differences in either their social distance or contact scores. Students who lived in the halls longer were expected to have lower social distance scores or express more tolerant attitudes than newer residents. Longer term residents were also expected to have had the opportunity for more contact with the groups studied and thus have lower contact scores than shorter term residents. These findings support the theory that equates interaction with more tolerant attitudes (Bogardus, 1967; Chickering, 1981).

As expected, the social distance scores of the students were lowest for those scale groups which were most reflective their ethnic background. This was consistent with the findings of Bogardus (1967). However, American minority respondents had lower social distance scores than did white Americans for scale groups combined into an ethnic category. This is not consistent with previous social distance findings in which white American scores were lower (Owen et al. 1981; Gray and Thompson, 1953; Fagan and O'Neill, 1965).

A low, but positive relationship was found between scores on the social distance scale and scores on the contact scale. This indicates that at least part of the respondents' tolerance levels may be attributed to favorable contact had with the group. When the mean social distance scores were compared by the responses on the contact scale, those selecting response 1, "favorable, close personal contact," generally had lower social distance scores than those selecting any of the other four contact scale responses. Those selecting response 5, "unfavorable, close personal contact," generally had the highest social distance scores.

Implications for Practitioners

In order to determine the usefulness of this study in the residence hall setting, the relationship between level of tolerance and degree of contact will be explored based on the sex, length of time in the residence halls and heritage of the respondents.

Implications by sex

Women expressed a higher level of tolerance toward more of the scale groups in this study than did men. However, women did not differ from men in the favorableness of the contact they had with a number of scale groups, particularly those related to ethnic background and athletics. There are a number of possible explanations for this finding.

Women may tend to give more socially acceptable responses than men, particularly towards groups singled out as different than the norm among the residence hall population. Women, who face discrimination because of their gender, may empathize with other groups singled out because of race or other traits. Women are also socialized to give a high importance to the relationships between people and may thus give more accepting responses than men.

The predominantly male populations of International students and athletes in the residence halls may also have contributed to the difference in social distance and contact responses between men and women. Because these groups are predominantly male, women in the residence hall setting are more able to choose whether or not they wish to interact with these groups. They are less likely to be assigned an International student or athlete as a roommate or have one on their residence hall floor. Their social distance responses are less likely to be challenged by incongruent behavior later. The white American men which constituted the majority of the male sample in this study, are more likely to have members of these groups as roommates or floor members. They may view these groups as competitors for relationships with women, for jobs prospects, for grades and may be less accepting of these groups.

Implications by length of residence .

Probably one of the most significant findings in this study was that no differences were found in the social distance attitudes or degrees of contact among residents who had lived in the halls differing lengths of time. The residence halls have been associated with providing the opportunity for students with diverse values and beliefs to interact and develop higher levels of respect for each other. This does not appear to be the case for the students living in the residence hall setting studied.

A number of the scale groups in this study constitute a very small percentage of the residence hall population. International students, for example, make up four per cent of the undergraduate enrollment, not all of that four per cent live in the residence halls. Twelve of the scale groups were international populations. Athletes constitute an even smaller number and are housed according to sport in specific areas of the residence halls. Thus the opportunity for contact with some of these groups is very minimal.

However, if opportunity for contact with some of the scale groups is minimal, the possibility of avoiding contact is great. Students who don't want to interact with International and minority students probably can avoid all but the most minimal interactions. Social and educational programs in the residence halls are elective. Liberal room change policies allow students to easily move out of

uncomfortable situations. The freedom of choice afforded by the residence hall environment also allows for the choice of not interacting.

It should be noted that no difference among the social distance and contact scores by length of time in the halls should not be equated with no change in those attitudes. This study did not measure change over time but differences at the time of this study.

A number of students move out of the residence halls. Students who move out of the halls may be doing so to avoid contact with some of the groups included in this study. However, it is also possible that the students who leave the residence halls feel able to cope with others of diverse backgrounds and values as a result of their residence hall experience. They may feel comfortable moving into an environment where there are no staff members to mediate conflicts for them. These former residents might express more tolerant attitudes towards the scale groups studied than those students currently living in the residence halls.

Implications by heritage

A comparison of the social distance and contact scores of the white American, American minority and International students reflects several interesting trends. White Americans had less contact with and were less tolerant of scale groups reflective of the ethnic background of

residence hall students than were either American minorities or Internationals. As discussed earlier, the low percentage of minority and international students in the population may explain in part, the contact scores. Internationals expressed the most contact with these groups but American minorities expressed the highest tolerance toward these groups. Because a number of the international students come from countries in the Mid-East and Africa where the political climates are relatively volatile, it is possible that tolerance attitudes are effected by cultural reactions rather than contact.

White Americans had the most contact with and were the most tolerant of scale groups reflective of behaviors found in the residence halls. Internationals had the least contact with and expressed the least tolerance toward these same behavior related scale groups as well as the athlete scale groups. These scale groups are representative of the American culture, perhaps the white American culture, which is the predominant group in the residence hall environment studied. Internationals may not be familiar with these behaviors or athlete groups in their own culture. The terms used to describe these groups on the scales may have been unfamiliar causing Internationals to give more neutral responses. It is also possible, considering the scores of white Americans towards ethnic groups, that Internationals have felt less opportunity to interact with these elements

of the typical university environment. These findings suggest that the problems expressed by foreign students at other predominantly white campuses, adjustment to cultural differences, and social interaction with other students, may be occurring in the residence halls.

Future Directions for Research

The findings of this study indicate that tolerance may in part be related to the favorableness of the previous contact had with the group. However, there are several limitations which preclude immediate application of the findings and provide direction for further research.

Since this study examined only one residence hall population (Iowa State University) the results of this study must be generalized cautiously. This study should be replicated at other colleges and universities to determine if the results may be generalized. The scale groups included in this study were specific to this residence hall environment. The scale groups and the terminology used to refer to the scale groups may differ for other settings.

This study was not a longitudinal study. Although no difference in tolerance level or contact was found among the four groups who had lived in the residence halls for varying lengths of time, this study was not designed to measure change in attitudes over time. Longitudinal data need to

be collected to more accurately determine the effect of residence hall living on attitude change over time.

The scale groups used in this study were unidimensional but appear in combinations among the residence hall population. The attitudes and contact levels of students were determined for nondrinkers, Christians and football players but not for a nondrinking Christian football player. Combinations of variables could result in differing responses and deserve further exploration.

In this study because of low populations, American minorities and International students were studied as two groups. This assumes a general agreement in attitudes and contact levels that may not be the case. The attitudes of specific ethnic and racial groups need to be more closely examined to better meet the needs of these populations in the residence hall setting.

A further area for exploration is that of determining how attitudes on the social distance scale relate to behaviors exemplified in the residence hall. For example, can it be assumed that persons who indicate that they would marry a member of a group included on the social distance scale, would also select a member of that group for a roommate? If people would exclude a member of a group from the country, would they elect a member of the group to a leadership position? Because intolerant behaviors exhibited in the residence halls are an impetus for much of

the concern of developing respect for others, this type of study would be very valuable.

Conclusions

In his examination of the undergraduate experience, Boyer (1987) expressed the importance of developing a sense of community with its concomitant standards of tolerance and respect for others. The importance of developing community extends to the residence hall setting. The results of this study can be applied to the critical conditions of excellence to improve the sense of community in the residence halls: high expectations and standards, student involvement, and assessment and feedback (N.I.E., 1984).

First, residence hall administrators must decide what the standards of tolerance are for their residence hall environment. Most administrators would agree that they want students to be able to get along with others. However, if administrators want to increase the level of tolerance students express towards others then the environment needs create conditions for student involvement.

This study showed that student's involvement with others was responsible, in part, for an increased level of tolerance. Residence halls need to create conditions where students are likely to interact with others different from themselves. This can be difficult when minority and International students constitute a small percentage of the

population. However, many conflicts occur in the residence halls because of differences in behavior and values. By creating an environment where conflicts are worked out instead of moved away from, residents may come to better understand and respect the differences that occur among people.

One of the traditional groups called upon to resolve differences are student staff members. While this study did not measure the social distance attitudes of this particular groups, it should be noted that staff members are usually upperclass students and no difference was found in levels of tolerance based on the length of time in the residence halls.

One of the traditional ways to prepare staff to deal with difference among others and to acquaint them with the need of minority and International students is through training programs. Many of these programs attempt to raise tolerance levels towards these special populations by informing staff about these populations rather than requiring interaction with these populations. These are the same types of programs presented to residents in order to develop more tolerant attitudes. What is not known is if these programs are making any difference.

A major purpose of this study was to develop a way to assess levels of tolerance in the residence hall setting. Administrators need to do a better job in determining

whether or not the programs and practices they develop are doing what they intended them to do. If administrators are spending hours training staff to respond to diverse populations, they need to know if staff members are becoming more tolerant of others. If programs on diversity are not impacting the respect residents have toward others, then time could be better spent elsewhere.

If developing attitudes of tolerance and respect for others are to be important goals of the residence hall experience, baseline data need to be obtained to set the conditions for involvement in learning. The impact of interventions to create tolerance need to be assessed to determine if these practices are meeting the desired goals. And, finally outcomes of the residence hall experience need to be assessed to determine if this type of environment can have a part in creating the sense of community important to the undergraduate experience.

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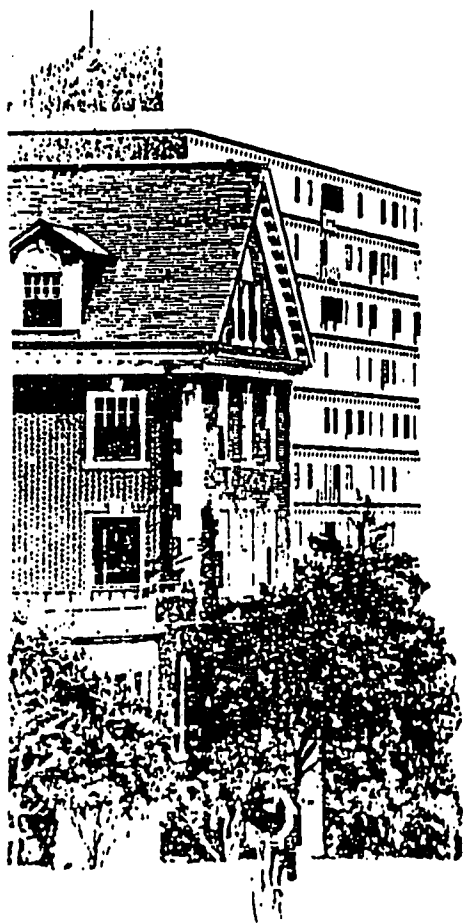
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APPENDIX: QUALITY OF LIFE SURVEY

Quality of Life Survey

A measure of residents' satisfaction with their living environment.



Conducted by:
The Department of Residence
Iowa State University

Iowa State University *of Science and Technology* Ames, Iowa 50012



Department of Residence

February 1987

Dear Resident,

You have been chosen as part of a sample of residents to complete the attached survey on the Quality of Life in the Residence Halls at Iowa State University. The purpose of this survey is to provide the Department of Residence with some measure of your satisfaction with the residence halls system, and to provide you with the opportunity to comment on the areas that you feel need to be improved.

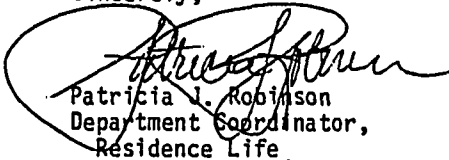
This survey will take you only about 15 minutes. Please do not write your name on the survey booklet. The information on the cover which identifies your survey will be removed when the information is put into the computer to assure you of anonymity.

The results will be used in maintaining or improving the quality of services offered. The results will be tabulated as soon as possible and should be available in April. This survey has been reviewed by the University Human Subjects Committee and the Inter-Residence Hall Association.

Your survey should be completed within the next week and returned to your R.A. or your Post Office. The validity of these results depends on a high response rate.

I hope you will take the time to participate in this evaluation. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at 294-5636.

Sincerely,


Patricia J. Robinson
Department Coordinator,
Residence Life.

PJR:sjb

Quality of Life Survey

ENVIRONMENTAL CLIMATE

This section includes questions about the general atmosphere of your living area and your satisfaction with that atmosphere.

1. PLEASE INDICATE TO WHAT EXTENT YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH OF THE STATEMENTS IN THIS SECTION.

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>somewhat disagree</i>	<i>neutral</i>	<i>somewhat agree</i>	<i>strongly agree</i>
	1	2	3	4	5
a. Your house is quiet enough for you to sleep when you want to.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Your house is quiet enough for you to study when you want to.	1	2	3	4	5
c. There are enough educational activities in your house.	1	2	3	4	5
d. There are enough recreational activities in your house.	1	2	3	4	5
e. There are enough social activities in your house.	1	2	3	4	5
f. The quality of the social atmosphere in the residence halls is more important than the quality of the educational atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5
g. Residents in the house show respect for those around them by considering how their own actions may effect others.	1	2	3	4	5
h. If you are having a conflict with your roommate, it is your responsibility to try and work out the problem before you go for assistance.	1	2	3	4	5
i. Residents are able to formulate and enforce their own rules within the current residence hall guidelines.	1	2	3	4	5
j. House members try to include American minority house members in house activities.	1	2	3	4	5
k. House members try to include house members from other countries in house activities.	1	2	3	4	5
l. The quality of the educational atmosphere in the residence halls is more important than the quality of the social atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5
m. There is enough opportunity for you to interact with house members who are culturally or racially different from you.	1	2	3	4	5

2. PLEASE INDICATE HOW SATISFIED OR DISSATISFIED YOU ARE WITH THE FOLLOWING:

	Very dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Neutral	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied
a. The overall environment of your house.	1	2	3	4	5
b. The opportunity you have to provide input into house decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
c. The overall environment of your dining hall.	1	2	3	4	5
d. The number of social activities in your house.	1	2	3	4	5
e. The number of educational activities in your house.	1	2	3	4	5
f. The number of recreational activities in your house.	1	2	3	4	5
g. How quiet it is in your house.	1	2	3	4	5
h. The opportunity to interact with house members who are culturally or racially different from you.	1	2	3	4	5

CONTACT SCALE

3. Using the following scale, please assign the whole number (1-5) that best describes the type of contact you have had with each group below:

1. Favorable close personal contact
2. Favorable but not close personal contact
3. No contact
4. Unfavorable but not close personal contact
5. Unfavorable close personal contact

Favorable close	Favorable but not close	No contact	Unfavorable but not close	Unfavorable close
1	2	3	4	5
a. _____	White Americans		s. _____	Drinkers
b. _____	Black Americans		t. _____	Nondrinkers
c. _____	Hispanic Americans		u. _____	Smokers
d. _____	American Indians		v. _____	Nonsmokers
e. _____	Internationals		w. _____	Christians
f. _____	Orientals		x. _____	Born-Again-Christians
g. _____	Arabs		y. _____	Jews
h. _____	Africans		z. _____	Muslims
i. _____	Indians (from India)		aa. _____	Fraternity/Sorority members
j. _____	Europeans		bb. _____	Students from rural areas
k. _____	South/Central Americans		cc. _____	Students from large urban areas
l. _____	Russians		dd. _____	Football players
m. _____	Iranians		ee. _____	Basketball players
n. _____	South Africans (blacks)		ff. _____	Wrestlers
o. _____	South Africans (whites)		gg. _____	Swimmers
p. _____	Nicaraguans		hh. _____	Gymnasts
q. _____	Homosexuals		ii. _____	Track/Field athletes
r. _____	Drug users		jj. _____	Tennis players

POLICIES

This section includes questions about the rules and procedures of the Department of Residence and your satisfaction with them.

4. PLEASE INDICATE TO WHAT EXTENT YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH OF THE STATEMENTS IN THIS SECTION.

- a. Residence hall policies are explained so that you can understand decisions even if you don't necessarily agree.
- b. The Department of Residence is doing a satisfactory job of communicating with you about contracts, deadlines and changes in procedures.
- c. The policies established by the Department of Residence seem fair and reasonable.
- d. The Guide to Residence Hall Living does a good job explaining the policies and procedures within the department.

strongly disagree
 somewhat disagree
 neutral
 somewhat agree
 strongly agree

1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5

5. PLEASE INDICATE HOW SATISFIED OR DISSATISFIED YOU ARE WITH THE FOLLOWING:

- a. The preferencing system used to make room assignments for returning students.
- b. The visitation policies passed by your house.
- c. The quiet hours policy passed by your house.

very dissatisfied
 somewhat dissatisfied
 neutral
 somewhat satisfied
 very satisfied

1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5

FACILITIES AND SERVICES

This section includes questions about the facilities and services provided in the Residence Halls.

6. PLEASE INDICATE TO WHAT EXTENT YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH OF THE STATEMENTS IN THIS SECTION.

	<i>strongly disagree</i>	<i>somewhat disagree</i>	<i>neutral</i>	<i>somewhat agree</i>	<i>strongly agree</i>
	1	2	3	4	5
a. The custodians do a good job of keeping the dens, bathrooms and hallways clean.	1	2	3	4	5
b. The maintenance staff responds to repair requests in a reasonable amount of time.	1	2	3	4	5
c. You have the opportunity to suggest changes or improvements in residence hall facilities.	1	2	3	4	5
d. The food service facilities are maintained in a clean and sanitary condition.	1	2	3	4	5
e. There are enough study facilities in your residence hall.	1	2	3	4	5
f. There are enough recreational facilities in your complex.	1	2	3	4	5

7. PLEASE INDICATE HOW SATISFIED OR DISSATISFIED YOU ARE WITH THE FOLLOWING:

	<i>very dissatisfied</i>	<i>somewhat dissatisfied</i>	<i>neutral</i>	<i>somewhat satisfied</i>	<i>very satisfied</i>
	1	2	3	4	5
a. The security of your residence hall.	1	2	3	4	5
b. The overall condition and cleanliness of your residence hall.	1	2	3	4	5
c. The services you have received from the post office in your area.	1	2	3	4	5
d. The services you have received from the complex office.	1	2	3	4	5
e. The variety and types of food offered in the food service.	1	2	3	4	5
f. The amount of space in your room.	1	2	3	4	5

SOCIAL ATTITUDE

8. Using the following scale, please assign the whole number (1-7) that best describes the closest relationship you would be willing to have with each group below. The numbers form a continuous scale from the closest relationship (1:marry) to the furthest relationship (7:exclude). Make sure that your reactions are to each group as a whole, not to the best or worst members you may have known.

1. Would marry or allow family member to marry
2. Would have as a good friend
3. Would have as my neighbor
4. Would have in the same work group
5. Would have as a speaking acquaintance only
6. Would have as a visitor to my country only
7. Would exclude from my country

<u>marry</u>	<u>friend</u>	<u>neighbor</u>	<u>co-worker</u>	<u>acquaintance</u>	<u>visitor</u>	<u>exclude</u>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| a. _____ White Americans | s. _____ Drinkers |
| b. _____ Black Americans | t. _____ Nondrinkers |
| c. _____ Hispanic Americans | u. _____ Smokers |
| d. _____ American Indians | v. _____ Nonsmokers |
| e. _____ Internationals | w. _____ Christians |
| f. _____ Orientals | x. _____ Born-Again-Christians |
| g. _____ Arabs | y. _____ Jews |
| h. _____ Africans | z. _____ Muslims |
| i. _____ Indians (from India) | aa. _____ Fraternity/Sorority members |
| j. _____ Europeans | bb. _____ Students from rural areas |
| k. _____ South/Central Americans | cc. _____ Students from large urban areas |
| l. _____ Russians | dd. _____ Football players |
| m. _____ Iranians | ee. _____ Basketball players |
| n. _____ South Africans (blacks) | ff. _____ Wrestlers |
| o. _____ South Africans (whites) | gg. _____ Swimmers |
| p. _____ Nicaraguans | hh. _____ Gymnasts |
| q. _____ Homosexuals | ii. _____ Track/Field athletes |
| r. _____ Drug users | jj. _____ Tennis players |

STUDENT GOVERNMENT AND STAFFING

This section deals with the operation of House, Association and Inter-Residence Hall governments and your satisfaction with the performance of these groups.

9. PLEASE INDICATE TO WHAT EXTENT YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE STATEMENTS IN THIS SECTION.

- a. The house government responds to your needs and solicits your input.
- b. The association government solicits enough student input on how the association funds should be spent.
- c. The hall advisor of your building is usually available when he/she is needed.
- d. The student judicial system is an effective way to handle discipline problems in the residence halls.

strongly disagree
somewhat disagree
neutral
somewhat agree
strongly agree

1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5

10. PLEASE INDICATE HOW SATISFIED OR DISSATISFIED YOU ARE WITH THE FOLLOWING:

- a. The performance of your association government.
- b. The performance of the Inter-Residence Hall Association (IRHA).
- c. The overall performance of your Resident Assistant (RA).
- d. The overall performance of your Hall Advisor (HA).
- e. The way policies are enforced in your house.

very dissatisfied
somewhat dissatisfied
neutral
somewhat satisfied
very satisfied

1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5

STUDENT PATTERNS






Please choose the single answer that best describes your situation.

11. Where do you usually study?
1. in your room
 2. somewhere in your hall
 3. in a library on campus
 4. study room in complex
 5. in an academic building on campus
 6. off campus
12. Where would you prefer to study?
1. in your room
 2. somewhere in your hall
 3. in a library on campus
 4. study room in complex
 5. in an academic building on campus
 6. off campus
13. Where was your first choice for a living situation this year?
1. residence hall
 2. university student apartments
 3. fraternity/sorority
 4. apartment
 5. other off campus arrangement
14. Select the main reason you chose to live in the residence halls.
1. location on campus
 2. friends that live here
 3. your parents insisted
 4. cost
 5. to meet people
 6. activities and facilities available to you
 7. food service is provided
 8. other: _____
15. If you could live in any complex you chose, which one would it be?
(circle one)
1. Richardson Court Residence Halls
 2. Towers Residence Halls
 3. Union Drive Residence Halls
 4. University Student Apartments

16. Select the three most important reason for your choice above. Put a "1" by your first choice, a "2" by your second choice, a "3" by your third choice.

- proximity to most classroom buildings
- social atmosphere
- academic atmosphere
- active student government
- proximity to library
- proximity to campus town
- proximity to community
- availability of intramural space
- availability of parking
- diversity of architecture
- type of people who live there
- other _____

17. Where do you think you will live next fall?

- 1. residence halls  GO TO 18
- 2. university student apartments 
- 3. fraternity/sorority  GO TO 20
- 4. apartment or other off campus arrangement 
- 5. will not be at university next fall  GO TO 21

18. What is the main reason you would return to the residence halls?

- 1. location on campus
- 2. friends that live here
- 3. my parents would insist
- 4. cost
- 5. to meet people
- 6. activities and facilities available to you
- 7. food service is provided
- 8. other: _____

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING BY CIRCLING "2" FOR YES; "1" FOR NO.

19. Would you be interested in living in a special interest house such as:

	No	Yes
a. A house where quiet hours are expanded?	1	2
b. An international house (50% international students, 50% American students)?	1	2
c. Academic major house (all residents in the same major)?	1	2
d. Language house where residents all speak the same foreign language?	1	2
e. House where the use of alcohol is prohibited?	1	2
f. House where visits by opposite sex are restricted or prohibited?	1	2
g. House where smoking is restricted or prohibited?	1	2
h. House where only people of legal drinking age are allowed to live?	1	2
i. House that is open 12 months of the year?	1	2

↓
GO TO 21

20. What is the main reason you plan on leaving the residence halls?

1. to be with friends
2. less expensive
3. roommate problems
4. quieter environment
5. more privacy
6. next year's alcohol policies
7. too many regulations
8. other: _____

STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

The following information will help us analyze the survey results in terms of student background.

21. What is your sex?

1. Female
2. Male

22. What is your classification?

1. Freshman
2. Sophomore
3. Junior
4. Senior
5. Graduate Student

23. What is your age?

_____ years

24. Are you:

1. An American citizen → 25. If you are an American citizen, ethnic/racial group do you belong?
2. Not an American citizen

1. American Indian/Eskimo
2. Asian-American
3. Black-American
4. Caucasian (white) - American
5. Hispanic - American

26. If you are not an American citizen, which world region best describes your nationality?

1. Western Europe, Australia, Canada or New Zealand
2. Central or South America
3. Middle East (Syria, Egypt, Iraq, Iran, Saudi Arabia)
4. Far East (Japan, China, Korea, Malaysia, Thailand)
5. India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka
6. Africa
7. Other

27. How large was the community in which you grew up?

1. less than 1,000
2. 1,000-4,999
3. 5,000-9,999
4. 10,000-49,999
5. 50,000-99,999
6. 100,000-299,999
7. 300,000+

28. In which residence hall complex do you live?

1. Richardson Court Residence Halls
2. Towers Residence Halls
3. Union Drive Residence Halls

29. How many semesters have you lived in the Iowa State University Residence Halls including this semester?

_____ semesters

30. How many people (including you) live in your room?

_____ people

Iowa State University *of Science and Technology* Ames, Iowa 50012



February 23, 1987

Department of Residence

Mary
Iowa State University
Friley 3489 Obryan
Ames, Iowa 50012

Dear Mary:

A few days ago you were sent a Quality of Life Survey. If you have already completed the survey, I'd like to thank you for taking the time to do so.

If you haven't returned the survey, you still have time. Please complete it and return it to your Resident Assistant or your residence hall post office as soon as possible.

The more responses that are returned, the more validity the survey will have. Your responses will be important when the Department of Residence staff considers the results in making plans for the future.

We will begin analyzing the survey during spring break in hopes of having the results available in April. Your participation in this project is very much appreciated.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Patricia P. Robinson".

Patricia P. Robinson
Department Coordinator,
Residence Life

PJR:sjb