

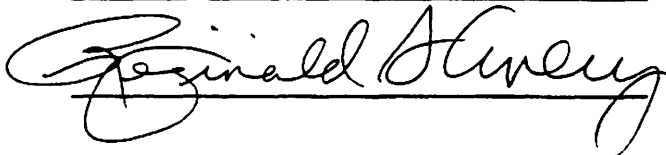
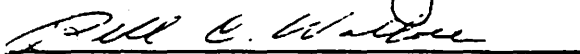
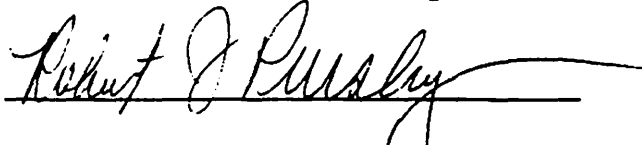
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Gilbert W. Gipson entitled "The Effects of Viewing Episodes of Violence on the Level of Felt Hostility Among African American College Students." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.



Robert H. Kirk, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:



Accepted for the Council



Associate Vice Chancellor and
Dean of the Graduate School

THE EFFECTS OF VIEWING EPISODES OF VIOLENCE
ON THE LEVEL OF FELT HOSTILITY AMONG AFRICAN
AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Gilbert Wade Gipson

May 1996

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DEDICATION

To Jesus Christ whose constant encouragement throughout my life has given me the confidence to go further than I could have ever thought, hoped, or dreamed. Also to my mother, Josephine Gipson, who has always made me feel she was pleased to be my mom. I am grateful to be your son.

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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to assess the effect of viewing episodes of video violence on the level of felt hostility among African-American college students at an historically black college. A secondary purpose was to assess whether differences existed among this population with regards to levels of extrapunitive and intrapunitive hostility.

One hundred and thirty students divided into four groups participated in this study. The instrument used to measure hostility levels of the students was the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (Caine, Foulds, and Hope, 1967). The Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire examines the following five various forms of hostility: the urge to act out hostility (AH); criticism of others (CO); projected delusional (paranoid) hostility (PH); self criticism (SC); and guilt (G).

A video tape consisting of twenty minutes of violence from two movies was used as the treatment. The Solomon Four-group Design, a very powerful experimental statistical procedure, was utilized to control for all threats of external validity. Two groups were treatment groups and two groups were control groups. A total of 48 students were in the control group, while 82 students made up the treatment

group. Results showed a pretest treatment effect among those who were in the pretest groups. There was also a treatment effect in which those who saw the violent video registered a decrease in hostility levels. Results also indicated that males on average have significantly higher hostility levels than females within this student population.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Violence and its most catastrophic aftermath, homicide, if not epidemic is at least endemic in metropolitan black areas with low socioeconomic indicators. Those mostly affected are young and male (Prothrow-Stith, 1985). Homicide within the African American community has been concentrated historically among black males. Since 1914, when data by race were first available, official records show that African American males run a much higher risk of victimization than any other race-sex group (Klemen, 1977). Delany (1968) reported that according to the President's Commission on Civil Disorders, up to and including World War II, violence (acting out) involved whites destroying, physically attacking, and burning blacks and black property. Following World War II, and partially during it, the pattern of racial conflict changed. Black violence emerged, in which almost all attacks on blacks were initiated by other blacks.

Violence in the United States has come to the forefront of attention today. Violent acts are most common among African Americans in our inner cities and suburban neighborhoods. Violent outbursts are often a result of felt inner frustration. Dollard (1946) studied the relationship between frustration, aggression, and violent behavior. This

classic study indicated that frustration often begets aggression which then may manifest itself in violent behavior. This, however, does not mean that every violent act is triggered by frustration in all individuals. African American males are more likely to die as a result of violence than any other ethnic group in the United States. Berkowitz (1969) reported that witnessed violence can weaken one's tolerance level and encourage violent behavior. Many African Americans living in impoverished environments witness violent behavioral outbreaks on a daily basis.

Each year Americans observe numerous violent assaults on television. During 1993 many of the major networks agreed to begin policing themselves due to public pressure because violence on television had reached an all-time high. A popular trend sweeping across the nation is family-sensitive news in which local newscasts all across the United States have eliminated the showing of violent acts and their aftermath.

Television violence and its effect on viewers has been under investigation for more than thirty years. Several studies have shown that introducing television programming to an audience of viewers unfamiliar with television has resulted in an increase in the incidence of aggressive acts because a large number of televised programs are devoted to violence (Signiorelli, Gross, & Morgan, 1982; Williams, Zabrack, & Joy, 1982). While numerous studies support the

idea that viewing violence can have an effect on acting out violently, others have reported findings to the contrary. Roberts (1981) reported that a survey given to fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children assessing attitudes towards viewing television violence was in part a reflection of their parents' attitudes of violence. Roberts' (1981) survey reported that parental perceptions of violence correlated positively with their children's viewing. Doob and Macdonald (1979) however suggest that the relationship between television viewing and apprehension of violence may be artifactual. Their study found that people who lived in a high crime area and reportedly viewed a great deal of television, reported a greater fear of violence, possibly because their heavy use of television was a justifiable way of avoiding real violence. The effects of media violence may depend upon how individuals perceive the violent presentation. Sawin (1981) found that the lowest levels of aggression in boys exposed to television violence was when the television program was described as fantasy and the highest levels of aggression were when the programs were described as being real. These findings indicate that when children even as young as five or six are provided with information about the nature of the content of televised violence along the fantasy-reality dimension, their aggressive responses may be influenced. Green and Thomas (1986) reported on several studies that have shown that when

violence in the media is perceived as being lifelike it invokes more aggression than does similar violence regarded as fictitious (Feshbach, 1972; Hoyt, 1970; Meyer, 1972). The evidence from laboratory experiments indicates that viewing violence, at least temporarily, increases aggressive behavior (Green, & Thomas (1986).

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The primary purpose of this study was to assess the effect of viewing episodes of violence on the level of felt hostility among African-American college students at a historically black college. A secondary purpose was to assess whether differences existed among this population with regards to levels of extra- and intrapunitive hostility.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

An analysis of the purposes of this study revealed the necessity to address the following research questions:

1. Does a pretest effect on hostility and direction exist among the subjects who took the pretest?
2. Utilizing the Solomon Four-group Design, is there a treatment effect present among subjects who saw the video

depicting violence?

3. Utilizing the Solomon Four-group Design, is there a treatment by testing interaction among the participating subjects?

4. What reported effect does the viewing of episodes of violence have on the level of total hostility among African-American college students?

5. What reported effect does the viewing of episodes of violence have on African American college students' extrapunitive hostility level?

6. What reported effect does viewing episodes of violence have on African American college students' intrapunitive hostility?

7. Do male subjects' hostility levels differ significantly from female subjects' hostility levels?

8. Do male subjects who watched the video depicting violence register a change in hostility levels?

9. Do female subjects who watched the video depicting violence register a change in hostility levels?

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Several studies and "experts" from various disciplines have focused on violence among young (15 to 34 year old) African American males; however, no known studies examining the relationship between viewing episodes of depicted

violence and hostility levels among African American college students have been recorded.

Conducting research among African Americans at a historically black college concerning their hostility levels as a result of viewing media violence is important for a number of reasons. Williams (1995) reported on two pilot studies that indicated that viewing violent films and TV programs may promote heart disease and impair immune function. Violent programs also significantly raised blood pressure and heart rates of subjects participating in the pilot study. Williams (1995) reported on a third pilot study which found that watching violent films or programs increases the level of three stress hormones that can do both cardiovascular and immune system damage. If hostility levels increase as a result of viewing depicted violence, stress hormone levels might also increase which may eventually lead to cardiovascular or immune system damage.

African Americans are often the victims as well as the perpetrators of violent acts. The assessment of factors that influence hostility (extrapunitive, intrapunitive and overall hostility) among African Americans may assist in preventive measures being instituted to lessen violence among this population. Foege (1991) believes that the prevention of violence must include focusing public attention on the problem. Violence is a problem of society, therefore, society holds the key for making prevention

efforts work.

A study which also involves young African Americans in the pursuit of higher learning will also add significantly to the literature, which mainly focuses on non-college attending African Americans. Utilizing college students may yield significantly differing opinions than those of the general population of African Americans. If the college population of African Americans registers high levels of hostility yet refrains from committing many violent acts, it would be important to investigate the causes of this difference if the opposite occurs among non-college-attending African Americans within the same age category.

A study investigating violence among African American males and joblessness indicated a strong correlation. Herbert (1994) makes mention of a research project headed by Elliott of the Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence at the University of Colorado which concluded that during adolescence the rates of violence for African American and Caucasian young men are virtually the same. But as the study tracks the same group as they mature, the statistics show that black men between 25 and 30 years of age are four times as likely to be involved in violent crimes as white men the same age. The difference is employment, according to Elliott. Employed black males and employed white males have almost the same level of violent behavior. Therefore, since the employment rates of black

males with a college degree is higher, those attending college should have a more positive outlook for their future, and possibly lower levels of hostility than black males of the same age not attending college and unemployed. The results of this study will expand the body of knowledge pertaining to the overall plight of young African Americans. Also, if a significant relationship is found to exist between viewing episodes of violence and felt hostility among African American college students, corrective measures might be developed and implemented that will assist in improving the overall health and well being of young African Americans who are influenced and affected by viewing television violence.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

The basic assumptions related to the purpose of this study were as follows:

1. The instrument utilized in this study was valid and reliable.
2. Subjects responded truthfully and accurately to the measuring instruments.
3. The various forms of hostility could be defined and measured.

DELIMITATIONS

The major delimitation distinctive to this investigation was as follows:

1. The study was delimited to African American undergraduate students enrolled at Knoxville College located in Knoxville, Tennessee during the Spring semester, 1995.

LIMITATIONS

The following major limitations of this investigation were as follows:

1. This study was limited to the extent that the respondents were willing to volunteer.
2. This study was limited in that there was no control over the amount of actual violence that subjects had witnessed or personally experienced prior to the time they viewed the videos.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms are defined as they were operationally used for this study;

African American - For the purposes of this investigation African American is operationally defined as an American whose origin is one of African ancestry and who have

historically been referred to as Negro, colored, black, or Afro-American.

Violence - An act carried out with the intention or perceived intention of causing physical pain, injury, or death to another person.

Historically Black Colleges and Universities - Colleges and universities that were originally founded to provide advanced education for African American citizens in the United States.

Total Hostility-The total score obtained on each of the five tests measured by the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HDHQ).

Extrapunitive Hostility-Hostility measured by the score that was derived from the three extrapunitive measures [urge to act out in a hostile way (AH), criticism of others (CO), and projected delusional hostility (PH)] on the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HDHQ).

Intrapunitive Hostility-Hostility measured by the score that was derived from the two intrapunitive measures [self criticism (SC), and guilt (G)] on the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HDHQ).

SUMMARY

Violence in the African American community is the number one cause of death among African American males ages

fifteen to thirty-five and is also increasing among African American women at an alarming rate. Numerous studies attempting to evaluate the relationship of violent behavior displayed by young African Americans have been published by several reputable health science journals. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effect of viewing episodes of violence on the level of hostility among young African American college students at a historically black institution. This study was organized as follows:

Chapter I includes the introduction, statement of problem, research questions, need for the study, basic assumptions, delimitations, limitations, definition of terms, and summary.

Chapter II consists of a review of the literature.

Chapter III presents the research methodology and includes sample selection, selection of the instruments, experimental study design, collection of data, analysis of data, and summary.

Chapter IV includes the data analysis.

Chapter V contains the summary, findings, conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter VI includes observations about the study, strengths and weaknesses of study, and future directions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes a review of writings and research of significance in the field of violence among African Americans. The history of violence was examined among African American males and females in the United States. Since homicide may be the ultimate result of violent behavior, several studies focusing on and incorporating homicide have been included in this literature review.

Violence in the African American community has reached epidemic proportions. Homicide is the leading cause of death among African American men 15 to 34 years of age (Fine et al, 1994). Today perpetrators and victims of violent crimes do not consist of only the male gender. Leslie and Biddle (1993) reported that in many of our cities violent crimes committed by females have more than doubled. While moderate efforts have been made to improve the health of the American people, there is still a marked disparity in the burden of death and illness borne by "Minorities" compared with the white population (Houk, 1991). If averting death and injuries from violence is to be addressed, we must consider at the same time several extremely explosive

political and social issues such as poverty, unemployment, racism, and lack of educational opportunity (Houk, 1991).

Violence has plagued our inner cities for many years. Cities such as Birmingham, Alabama; Dallas, Texas; Cleveland, Ohio; Jackson, Mississippi; and Indianapolis, Indiana reported homicide rates among black men ranging from 107/100,000, to 57/100,000 as far back as the 1920s. Therefore, it cannot be said that homicide is new to the black community.

The United States has the highest homicide rates of all industrialized nations. Fingerhut and Kleinman (1990) reported that while many European countries (and Japan) average about one homicide per one-hundred thousand individuals, the United States averages about thirteen homicides per one-hundred thousand individuals.

Violence has been established as an important public health problem. However, just a few years ago, it was seen only as a criminal justice issue. Today, several disciplines are working together to address violence with a holistic approach. Violence affects more African American young men than all other ethnic groups. Now is the time for tangible actions to prevent youth violence in African American communities (Houk, 1991).

LITERATURE RELATED IN CONTENT

Media and Violence

Mortimer (1994) reported on a longitudinal study by Eron and Huesmann which indicated a range of time in which viewing violence may have a greater impact in one's life. The study (lasted over thirty years) evaluated the same male subjects at eight years, nineteen years and thirty years of age. A correlation between violence at age eight and how aggressive the individual was at nineteen was higher when watching violence at eight and behaving aggressively at that same age. These same subjects were evaluated again at age thirty and it was discovered that the individuals who were most aggressive at eight had more arrests for violent crime and drunk driving, were more abusive to their spouses, and had more aggressive children.

Harris (1992) questioned 416 college students concerning aggression and television viewing and found a slight correlation ($r = .16$, $p < .01$) between the preference for violent programs and aggression. African American males also reported watching more television than the other participants. The author suggested that the findings may indicate that viewing TV violence may encourage people to act out aggressively; however, this influence may be less of an influence when sex, ethnicity, and education are

controlled for among subjects.

Glenn and Ogles (1990) studied the relationship of television viewing and the fear of violence among 101 respondents by a telephone survey. The relationship between TV viewing and fear of violence in his study appeared to be moderate.

Wahl (1989) investigated the possible impact of a prime-time TV movie portraying a mentally ill killer. Two groups of college students were shown the movie, one with and one without a film trailer which reminded the viewers that mentally ill persons are rarely violent. A control group viewed a film unrelated to mental illness. Respondents' responses showed that individuals who saw the target film expressed significantly less favorable attitudes toward mental illness and the care for mentally ill persons regardless of whether or not a trailer was attached to the movie. Results indicated that media depictions promote mental illness as disgraceful and accompanied corrective information may not be enough to neutralize the stigmatizing influence of such audience-involving mass media portrayals.

Berkowitz (1986) examined the short-term effects of media violence on behavior. It was noted that adults and children were more likely to aggress shortly after viewing violent programming. The factors which determined whether an individual will have a violent reaction after watching violent programs were dependent on some of the following

situational conditions: whether the observers considered the scenes they were watching as authentic or fictional, and what features of the movie were given greatest attention.

Green and Thomas (1986) reviewed three decades of experimental studies and short-term field investigations aimed at evaluating the influences of violence in the media on aggressive behavior in the viewer. The authors concluded that the cognitive-neoassociationist hypothesis serves as the best explanatory model for the overall findings.

Comstock (1986) reviewed research concerning the relationship of sexual aggression to movie and TV violence. Real-life evidence from surveys were addressed. It was concluded that new films and television programs that depict aggression, hostility, and assaults may expand the frequency of aggressive acts committed by those who are exposed to such entertainment.

Blanchard (1986) had 296 (176 males and 120 females) community college male and female students rate short segments of five violent programs. Men significantly differed from women on the following sequences; seeing the violence portrayed in the films as more enjoyable, amusing, emotional and realistic.

Eron (1986) explored successful interventions that lower the negative effects television violence has on young children. Only two programs were identified that were specifically aimed at lowering the effect of violent

television. Interventions aimed at decreasing hostile conduct without reference to television were also examined.

Eron et al (1983) conducted a longitudinal study that lasted three years with two large samples of elementary school youngsters. The authors concluded that a sensitive period exists when the effect of television can be especially influential on children's behavior. Also, since the correlation between viewing violence and aggression tends to rise until 10-11 years, a cumulative effect beyond the sensitive period was suggested.

Huesmann et al (1983) selected 169 first and third graders who were exposed to excessive amounts of television violence and he randomly divided them into an experimental and control group. Over a period of two years the experimental group received two treatments that were supposed to lower the possibility of emulating the aggressive behaviors shown on television. The control group was provided with similar neutral treatments. At the end of the second year, peers rated the experimental subjects as significantly less aggressive, and the connection between violence and aggressiveness was reduced in the experimental group.

Churchill (1981) evaluated the effect parents' viewing habits had on their children's perception of violence and vice versa. Churchill found that to a limited extent parents' viewing behavior and perspectives toward violence

was related to the viewing behavior and attitude of their children.

Sawin (1981) exposed fifth-grade and kindergarten boys and girls to a violent televised program that was introduced as a news broadcast (reality condition) or as a fictional program (fantasy condition). Control groups were not given information (no-instructional-set condition) pertaining to the violent stimulus or were not subjected to the violent episode (no-TV condition). The results of the experiment revealed that boys were most aggressive in the non-fiction and no-TV conditions. They were less aggressive in the no-instructional-set condition and least aggressive in the fantasy condition. Girls were most aggressive in the fantasy and no-instructional-set conditions and least aggressive in the non-fiction and no-TV conditions. These facts were consistent for both older and younger children.

Fenigstein (1979) examined the hypothesis that physical aggression and fantasy aggression leads to a preference for viewing violence. In experiment one, undergraduate women and men were induced to express nonaggressive, aggressive, or no fantasies and then given the opportunity to select film clips to watch. Men choose to watch the more violent films. Also, the aggressive fantasies in men, compared to nonaggressive fantasies, elevated the desire for viewing violence. Experiment two replicated experiment one, however, all subjects were males. Again it was found that

men who were given an opportunity to aggress physically, compared to those who did not have an opportunity to aggress physically were more likely to choose to view films of a violent nature. The author concludes that a relationship may exist between the desire of aggressive individuals to view violence, just as the viewing of violence may increase aggression.

Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire

Maiuro et al (1989) used the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HDDHQ) to assess assaultive behavior in 82 subjects, 60 of whom were white male psychiatric patients who exhibited either assaultive (n = 22) or suicide-attempting behavior (n = 20), and 22 age matched controls. Both assaultive and suicidal subjects exhibited higher levels of hostility and depression, as indicated by significantly higher scores than control subjects on almost all measures.

Maiuro et al (1988) examined hostility, anger and depression among four groups of men (n = 129): two samples of more generally assaultive men, a clinical sample of domestically violent men, and a nonviolent control group. The Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire and the Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory were used to assess the hostility levels of the subjects. The generally assaultive

men and the domestically violent men registered significantly higher levels of anger and hostility than the control subjects. The findings strengthen the idea that domestically violent men experience uncontrolled anger as a major facet of their psychological profiles and indicate the need for clinical attention to depression as well as anger.

McPherson (1988) tested for female norms of the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire with two samples of normal women (200 tested in their home and 85 tested in a Health Center) to determine the general level of hostility. The scores of the two samples were similar to one another; however, they were significantly higher than those of the normative samples reported in the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire Manual.

Biaggio and Godwin (1987) examined the relation of depression to anger and hostility constructs among 112 university students. The subjects were administered the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Depression scale, the Anger Expression Scale, and the State-Trait Anger Scale. Results indicated more intense hostility among depressed subjects, especially inwardly directed hostility and a decreased sense of control over anger or an aversion to manage anger.

Hayworth (1982) used the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire to assess the attribution of blame

among 40 college students and 163 expectant mothers. Direction of blame was measured by subtracting the last three subscales of the HDHQ which comprise an externally directed measure of blame from the first two subscales which measure an internally directed measure of blame. The overall score was in the direction of internal blame (negative scores indicated external blame and positive ones internal blame). Students' scores on the attribution of control to external sources inclined to be incongruently related to internal attribution of blame. For the pregnant subjects, scores on the two measures were unrelated.

Crawford (1977) used the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HDHQ) as part of a routine psychological assessment prior to training prisoners. The results of the questionnaire were analyzed in terms of the prisoners' present and past criminal and institutional conduct. Results indicated that the sample of long-term prisoners had a significantly higher total hostility score than normals but did not vary significantly in the direction of their hostility. Also, non-violent offenders scored significantly lower on extrapunitive hostility than did the violent offenders.

Henderson et al (1977) conducted a epidemiological survey study consisting of 6,709 male and female students ranging from 13 to 18 years of age. Intrapunitiveness and extrapunitiveness of the subjects were determined by

administering the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire. Extrapunitiveness and intrapunitiveness decreased between the ages of 15 and 17 years in both males and females. Female subjects were found to be more intrapunitive and less extrapunitive than boys. All subjects were high school students.

Gossop (1977) used the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire to evaluate the hostility of male drug addicts in a treatment program. Convicted addicts scored higher on measures of hostility than did non-convicted addicts. The authors suggest that hostility appears to act as a personality factor which predisposes people toward criminal behavior.

Philip (1973) used the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire on 440 normal subjects, 428 psychiatric patients and 328 patients in the admission ward of a mental hospital to assess their overall level of punitiveness. Normative data scores by age and sex were documented. There was no difference in mean scores across age groups when tested by an analysis of variance. No difference was found between scores on total hostility (Ho), but men scored significantly higher on extrapunitive and lower on intrapunitive hostility than did the women.

Murthy (1973) divided 70 female subjects who had attempted suicide into extrapunitive and intrapunitive groups using the Hostility and Direction of Hostility

Questionnaire. The characteristics of the suicidal attempt were subsequently analyzed. The results showed that intrapunitive subjects made serious suicidal attempts while extrapunitive subjects did not.

Weapons and Violence

Each year, more than 24,000 Americans are killed with handguns in homicides, suicides and accidents (Center to Prevent Handgun Violence, 1992). Handguns were used to murder 12,090 individuals in the United States in 1991--up 14 percent from 1990 (Center to Prevent Handgun Violence, 1992). Every day 12 children aged 19 and under die from handgun injuries (Center to Prevent Handgun Violence, 1992). There are an estimated 200 million firearms in the hands of private citizens in this country (Center to Prevent Handgun Violence, 1992). Firearm injuries result in lifetime costs of 14.4 billion dollars (The Center to Prevent Handgun Violence, 1992). In 1985, 50 percent of the households in this country had guns, and one in five had a handgun (Baker, 1985). These figures are several years old, and handgun production has since increased in the United States. Guns are still very accessible.

The Centers for Disease Control (1991) reported that more than 11,000 persons died in the United States as a result of murders committed by high school aged youth using

firearms, blunt objects or cutting instruments. Firearm associated homicides accounted for more than 65 percent of these deaths. O'Carroll et al (1991) reported that the city of Detroit adopted a strict gun policy in 1987 that imposed a mandatory \$100 to \$500 fine and a 30 to 90 day jail sentence on anyone convicted of unlawfully concealing a handgun or carrying a firearm in the city. Although the study was initiated with good intentions, the mandatory sentencing was never enforced. Consequently, the annual results registered minimal improvement.

Kleck and McIlrath (1991) assessed the influence of weapons, chiefly firearms, as: 1) a threatening situation escalates to an actual physical attack, 2) the attack is completed (results in injury), 3) the injury inflicted results in death. Data from the National Crime Surveys and Supplementary Homicide Reports were evaluated. It was concluded that the overall effect of the availability of guns on the likelihood of the victims' demise was inconsequential.

Immediate access to a potentially lethal weapon, primarily a firearm, may increase the likelihood that a deadly event would occur from an altercation. Today many middle and high school students are carrying guns and other weapons into the classroom. African American high school males in a recent report by the CDC (1990) found that of those who carried weapons to school, approximately 54

percent brought firearms.

During the period of 1978 through 1987, firearms accounted for 78 percent (15,781) of homicides among young African American males. From 1984 to 1987 firearms accounted for 96 percent of the increase of homicides among young African American males.

Lester (1988) studied the affiliation of the magnitude of gun ownership and the strictness of gun control laws to suicide and homicide rates in the nine primary geographic regions of the United States. Gun ownership, not the strictness of gun control laws, yielded the strongest correlation of the number of suicides and homicides by guns. Therefore, to successfully lower homicide rates in this country, firearms possession must be reduced.

Williams et al (1984) examined characteristics of casualties of gun abuse using data from five surveys by the National Opinion Research Center. Factors, in addition to sex and race, were general violence experience, arrest status, and alcohol use.

Drugs and Violence

The effects of alcohol and other drugs have been attributed to increases in violent outbursts for many years. Alcohol is the substance which is blamed more, than any other drug, for violent behavior. A study undertaken by the

New York Medical Examiner's Office during the 1970s indicated that about one-half of the violent deaths in the city were associated with alcohol use (Habherman and Baden, 1978).

Inciardi (1990) interviewed 611 subjects (12 to 17 years old) to examine the types of violence associated with crack use and crack distribution in Dade County, Florida. Individuals that were involved in crack distribution had greater levels of crime commission.

Black (1986) surveyed the perceptions of 409 adults raised in an alcoholic home compared with those of 179 adults raised in a nonalcoholic home on alcohol related differences in the home, violence, sexual abuse, communication, and interpersonal differences experienced as adults. Subjects raised by alcoholic parents reported more physical and sexual abuse as children, and had more emotional and psychological problems in adulthood.

Nurco (1985) found that much of the violence is only indirectly associated with drug use. Violence seems to be more often associated with acts designed to ensure access to drugs than to drug consumption and its effect upon behavior (Nurco et al., 1985).

Powers and Kutash (1978) indicated to researchers that in their striving to assess the role of drugs on aggressive behavior, the following factors should be taken into consideration: drug type, pre-morbid personality, dosage,

expectations, and environment.

Wolfgang (1958), in a study conducted in Philadelphia, also illustrated that more than one-half of both victims of violence and violent offenders had been drinking at the time of the violent incident. The relationship between other drugs and violent behavior is more tentative than that between alcohol and violence (Rose, 1990).

Family Influence on Violence

It comes as no surprise that poor neighborhoods have higher rates of violent crime. During 1990, 56.2 percent of all African American households were headed by females (Hacker, 1992). Hacker reported that in 1990 56 percent of black single mothers and 38 percent of their white counterparts were trying to clothe and feed their children on incomes below the poverty line. The African American community is plagued by single-parent families, and single parent families are much more likely to exist in poverty (Hacker, 1992).

Gelles (1992) concluded in his study that social factors are related to maltreatment and that abuse and neglect are more likely to occur in low income households. These data are confounded by the labeling bias that makes poor families more likely to be publicly identified for deviance or for criminal behavior. Gelles explored the

relationship between poverty and violence among children, drawing on data collected in national family violence surveys. More than 8,000 households were surveyed, and the results showed abusive violence was more likely to occur in poor homes.

A report by the Criminal Victimization in the United States (1991) found that individuals earning less than \$7,500 a year committed more violent crimes among strangers, casual acquaintances, and well known acquaintances.

A study involving Ohio children found that having an unmarried mother increased the risk of murder about fivefold. Having a mother who had not graduated from high school, a teenage mother, being of African decent, or low birth weight each increased the chance of homicide approximately threefold (Winpisinger et al, 1991).

Roper, et al (1991) reported homicide among African American males is seven to eight times higher than among white males.

Mangold (1990) examined the relationship between sibling and nonfamily violence and parental violence (as witnessed by the child) for 156 male and female university students. Results suggested that the association between gender and sibling violence may be connected with nonfamily violence.

Roses (1990) report declared that the life styles of aging men relegated to living in an environment of excessive

poverty, which included immoderate drinking, games of chance, and friction between the sexes, often led to death.

Bell (1987) believed that parenting classes, family therapy, and group family therapy are all methods that would help to prevent family violence before it begins.

Vocational programs and activities for community residents are primary intervention methods that may also lead to lower homicide rates in African American communities.

Society's Relationship to Violence

Allen (1981) concluded that primary homicide prevention is the most difficult, multifarious and expensive of any of the methods of diminishing the homicide rate. Prevention would involve improving the human condition: being brought into this world as a desired person, living in a decent environment, having the assurance of a good education, meaningful employment, and good health.

Schools and Violence

Garrison, McKeown, Valois et al. (1993) used the Youth Risk Behavior Survey to analyze the frequency and correlates of suicidal behaviors among 57 schools in South Carolina. Seventy-five percent of the students reported no suicidal behaviors during the preceding 12 months. Eleven percent

reported having serious suicidal thoughts, 6.4 percent reported making a specific plan concerning how they would attempt suicide, 5.9 percent reported making an attempt not demanding medical attention, and 1.6 percent reported suicide attempts that required medical treatment. The Centers For Disease Control (1991) surveyed 11,631 students in 9-12 grades from all 50 states and the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands using the Youth Risk Behavior Survey. It was reported that 20 percent of all students in grades 9-12 carried a weapon at least once during the 30 days preceding the survey. Males were more likely to carry weapons (31.5 percent) than female students (8.1 percent).

In 1990 The Center to Prevent Handgun Violence (1990) reported that California schools confiscated 200 percent more guns between 1986 and 1990, and experienced a 40 percent increase of students carrying guns between 1988 and 1990.

The Center To Prevent Handgun Violence (1990) reported a 61 percent increase in gun incidents in Florida schools between 1986-87 and 1987-88, and 86 percent of the weapons traced came from the students' residences.

Burke (1990) surveyed 480 college students who read a domestic violence scenario where illustrations of the defendant and victim were varied according to their physical attractiveness. No meaningful dissimilarities were

discovered in a juridic decision-making process of domestic violence, but, there were significant differences between male and female subjects in the sentencing of the defendant.

Today many inner city schools have installed metal detectors to cut down on the handguns and other weapons that many students are bringing to school. However, technology has introduced to the marketplace plastic guns that cannot be detected by most metal detectors.

Violence in Cities and States

Many inner cities with predominately African American populations in the United States have experienced an annual increase in the number of violent crimes. In Chicago (Gergen, 1991) the use of crack cocaine has been implicated as a factor in increasing homicide rates to 700 per 100,000. Homicides are also escalating rapidly in midsize cities. Today, one stands a greater chance of being murdered in Memphis, New Orleans, and Baltimore than in New York City (Gergen, 1991). Homicide rates have also risen dramatically in St Louis, Kansas City, Missouri, Charlotte, and Milwaukee.

Homicide rates for young African American males from 1978 to 1987 were studied by the Centers for Disease Control (CDC, 1991) in 1991. During this period 20,315 young Black males were murdered, for a yearly rate of 73.1 per 100,000.

In 1987, 14 states had murder rates that were higher than the 1990 health objective of <60 per 100,000. Frequencies exceeded 100 per 100,000 in California, Florida, Michigan, Missouri, New York, and the District of Columbia. In 1987, homicide accounted for 42 percent of deaths among young African American males. This was the highest rate for the decade and 40 percent higher than the 1984 figure.

Rose (1990) reported that during the 1920s homicide rates in many cities were very high among African American men. During the 1920s Jackson, Mississippi recorded 113/100,000; Birmingham, Alabama recorded 107/100,000; Cleveland, Ohio, 101/100,000; Dallas, Texas 99/100,000; and Indianapolis, Indiana 57/100,000 African American males killed by homicide during that period (Rose, 1990). Homicide rates among African American males have remained excessively high for decades and at present are continuing to escalate.

Racial Issues and Violence

Racism is another important contributing factor to violence, both directly through the anger incited by the experience of racial discrimination, and indirectly, by depriving certain segments of society of the chance to be prosperous at work and in school (Warren, 1991).

Thomas (1987) gathered psychohistorical data which

supported the controversy that racial pride is an effective means for regulating intragroup tensions.

In 1985, Margaret Heckler, Secretary of the Department of Health and Human Services, delivered a report from the Task Force on Black and Minority Health that verified about 59,000 excessive deaths among black Americans between 1979 and 1981. While African Americans continue to lead all ethnic groups in the number of homicides, black Americans have the lowest number of suicide rates. It is thought that the low suicide rate of black females may be attributed to their connection with community institutions like the church (Griffith and Bell, 1989).

Unemployment and Violence

Greenburg and Schneider (1992) reported that black males tend to commit a large percentage of homicides and suicides on the weekend. It was also discovered that an unusually high percentage of young black males committed murder on Thursdays, possibly because of the lack of money as a result of unemployment, and probable early weekend partying. White American males did not commit a statistically significant percentage of homicides on Thursdays.

Brownfield (1987) examined the effects of father-son relationships on violent behavior among African American and

white adolescent males, using questionnaire data gathered from 2,500 junior and senior high boys. Individuals whose fathers had a history of unemployment were more likely to engage in violent behavior than sons of fully employed fathers.

The prevailing view today is that public health efforts to prevent deaths and injuries due to youth violence should be expanded and more attention should be directed toward the larger social context in which violence arises. Numerous economic and social discrepancies among Americans are related to the cause of violence in essential ways. Poverty, joblessness, and underemployment promote violence by generating a sense of futility, low self esteem, and hopelessness about the future.

Prevention of Violence

Over the years many writers have written extensively on the prevention of violence and homicide (Allen, 1981; Bell, Bell, 1987; Lester, 1988; O'Carroll et al, 1991; Roper, 1991; Prothrow-Stith, 1991; Boruch, 1991; Cairns, 1991; Mason, 1991; Sullivan, 1991; Wilson-Brewer, 1991; Northrop, 1991; and O'Donnell, Cohen, & Hausman, 1991). Authors from various disciplines have addressed the problems of violence among young African Americans. Hammond (1991) discusses the Positive Adolescents Choices Training (PACT), a health

promotion/risk reduction program developed in response to the need for violence prevention programming targeted specifically for African Americans. The PACT program improved the participant's problem solving and negotiating skills.

College Students and Violence

Lederman (1995) reviewed violent crime reports from 796 college campuses with enrollments over 5,000. Seven hundred and ninety-six institutions reported that robberies were up 2.2 percent and aggravated assaults had climbed 2.7 percent from 1992 to 1993. They also reported a 11 percent rise in arrests for weapons violations and a 34 percent increase in the number of arrests for violations of drug laws. Although violent crime is dropping elsewhere it is on the upswing on college campuses (Lederman, 1995).

Lawrence and Joyner (1991) investigated the effects of sexually violent music on seventy-five undergraduate white males. Acceptance of violence against women, attitudes toward women, and self-reported sexual arousal were evaluated. Subjects were exposed to sexually violent heavy-metal rock music, Christian heavy-metal rock music, or easy-listening classical music. The results indicated that heavy-metal rock music, regardless of lyrical content, increased males' negative attitudes toward women.

Caprara (1989) administered a Likert scale test designed to measure tolerance toward violence to more than 3,000 university students. An analysis of the data correlating measures of aggression such as irritability and dissipation-rumination, as well as cross-national comparisons, were the principle components. These correlations supported the validity of the scale.

Velicer and Huckel (1989) utilized 340 undergraduate volunteer subjects, 212 women and 128 men in evaluating how attitudes toward violence may have an important mediating role in the translation of hostile feelings into aggressive behaviors. The authors constructed a test to this end.

O'Neal and Taylor (1988) utilizing 160 male college students tested the following two hypotheses: (1) provoked persons will express less interest in seeing video violence than will those not provoked, unless they anticipate an opportunity to retaliate against their provocateur; and (2) when provoked persons anticipate an opportunity to retaliate against a provocateur who is not high status, they will express greater interest in seeing video violence than will those not provoked. After the male subjects were provoked by a high or low status experimenter, half of the 160 males were led to believe that their evaluation of the experimenter would decide the experimenter's grade for conducting the research, and the other half were not given any reason to expect an opportunity to evaluate him.

Results of the first hypothesis indicated that provoked subjects who did not anticipate occasion to retaliate expressed less interest in seeing aggressive material than did those not provoked. The second hypothesis showed that provoked subjects had the greatest interest in aggressive video material when they expected an opportunity to retaliate against a low status provocateur.

Chemicals of the Brain and Violence

Many scholars are currently doing research on the motivation to engage in violent behavior. Psychologists, psychiatrists, sociologists, criminologists, and health educators have studied violence and its causes and effects for a number of years. Several theories and beliefs are held by various individuals in differing fields when violence is the topic of discussion. Some psychiatrists, including Bell, (1987) think there may be a physical malformation of the brain of individuals that commit homicide. Although Bell (1990) does not attribute all homicides to chemical imbalances and injuries to the brain, he does advocate further research in this area and believes that many homicides and acts of violence that take place in the United States may be a result of a serious traumatic injury that may have taken place during one's childhood.

Today, Virkkunen and Linnoila (1993); and Volavka,

Martell, and Convit 1992; have concluded that there may be a difference in the brains of violent individuals. This research links aggressive acts with chemicals in the brain. Among the important findings are: violent persons may have a significantly lower level of serotonin (Virkkunen and Linnoila 1993). Another study (Gottschalk et al, 1991) showed unusually high levels of minerals like manganese in the hair of some individuals who often act out violently. Volavka, Martell, and Convit (1992) also explored the possible connection between violence and aggression and children's head injuries. Volavka, Martell, and Convit (1992) reported that children who have had brain injury develop an especially elevated predisposition for violent behavior.

LITERATURE RELATED IN METHODOLOGY

The Solomon Four-Group design is not widely used in educational research, however it is considered to be a highly prestigious experimental design (Huck, Sandler, 1973).

Braver and Braver (1988) stated that one reason the Solomon Four-group Design has been under-used may be the lack of complete details for the statistical analysis. The major issue previously unaddressed was how to "combine an analysis of the effect of the treatment in the posttest-

only groups with the same effect in the pre and posttest groups (after an earlier phase of the analysis has shown no evidence of pretest sensitization)." Braver and Braver (1988) proposed a meta-analytic solution for this problem. The meta-analysis was shown to have adequate statistical power even if the total N was not increased from that of a posttest-only design.

Franklin et al (1985) used the Solomon Four-group Design to examine whether the instructions for the Woodcock Reading Mastery Tests-Revised (which uses three formats for testing word comprehension, one of which is the analogies format) was adequate for word comprehension (WC) with a learning-disabled population. The Solomon Four-group design examined the effect of presenting 15 additional sample items before administering the analogies items. Significant increases in WC analogies standard scores were obtained with analysis of covariance.

Sabers and Franklin (1985) used the Solomon Four-group Design and ANOVA because it is a very powerful experimental design. With the combination of an effective design and a vigorous statistical analysis technique, the results yielded a significant finding utilizing only 44 learning disabled students.

Dow et al (1983) used the Solomon Four-group Design to investigate the effects of instructional demand, pretesting, and the possible interaction of self-report and the overt

behavior of socially anxious males. Approximately half of the sample of all male college students were assessed in a low-demand pretest social interaction assignment. One week later, all students participated in a posttest social interaction where low and high-demand instructions were crossed with the pretest-no pretest component. Posttest data indicated that there were not significant interaction effects, testing, or instructional demand.

Foulds and Hannigan (1977) used the Solomon Four-group Design to study the outcome of Gestalt workshops on the assessment of self-actualization of college students. A 2x2 analysis of variance indicated a significant treatment effect beyond the .005 level on an overall measure of self-actualization and past the .05 level on 10 of 12 subscales.

Huck and Sandler (1973) in examining the Solomon Four-group Design investigated Campbell and Stanley's (1963) claim that it is advantageous to reanalyze data from the two pretested groups with an analysis of covariance if the analysis yielded non-significant F ratios for both the main effect of pretesting and the pretesting-treatment interaction. Huck and Sandler (1973) found that covariance is completely valid even if there is a true main effect for pretesting.

Solomon (1949) presented a paper of an existing experimental design where a control group and experimental group are usually employed. Solomon showed how the use of a

four group design has potentialities for revealing and weighting certain interaction effects. These interaction effects may yield light on attitudinal, perceptual, and attentional factors which are many times important in the following types of experimentation: 1) opinions and values-induced changes in attitude; 2) transfer of training; and 3) the effects of controlled experience or skills, responses, or performances which are already present in the behavior repertoire.

Summary

This chapter substantiates the fact that violence among young African Americans is indeed a topic that deserves a serious research effort. Violence that results in homicide among this population is stealing the lives from some of our most gifted and talented citizens. Studies relating to and involving young African Americans have been addressed in this chapter.

Although homicide has only recently received a good deal of attention in the media, it has plagued African Americans ever since records have been kept on the issue. During the early 1900s when somewhat accurate homicide records were recorded, it was noticed that homicide rates among black Americans were abnormally high, when compared to the overall U.S. homicide rate.

Until recently little attention has been given to this often preventable cause of death that takes the lives of so many young black men and women in the United States of America. Today homicide in the African American community has become a topic that has attracted the attention of many eminent researchers and writers.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The primary purpose of this study was to assess the effect of viewing episodes of violence on the level of felt hostility among African-American college students at a historically black college. A secondary purpose was to assess whether differences existed among this population with regards to levels of extrapunitive and intrapunitive hostility.

This chapter addressed the methodology employed in conducting the research project. The methods and procedures that were used in this study are described in the following sections in this chapter: Population and Sample Selection, Treatment Protocol, Instrumentation, Experimental Study Design, Analysis of Data, and Summary.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE SELECTION

All participants utilized in this study were students enrolled at Knoxville College, an historically black

institution located in Knoxville, Tennessee. During the spring of 1995, 468 students were enrolled at Knoxville College. All subjects participating in this study were enrolled in Psychology, English, Health and Sociology courses and were voluntary participants in the study. Members of the athletic teams were also sought to voluntarily participate in this study to ensure that enough male participants were obtained. The Head of the Psychology department and the Head of the Social Sciences department were first contacted for approval of this research project. A letter was also drafted and sent to the research committee of Knoxville College outlining the purpose and procedures of the study. Once approval was received, the department heads identified the most appropriate courses to be utilized for this study. Class size and male to female representation were the major concerns employed in selecting the subjects. Courses with an enrollment of 25 or greater were initially sought. This, however, was not a viable option due to a decrease in enrollment at the college. It was therefore necessary to choose courses with an enrollment as close to the initial number of 25 that were available. Instructors of the largest courses on campus were approached for permission to use their class in the study. All instructors petitioned granted permission to conduct the research investigation in their classroom.

Demographic information which included gender, age, and class year was collected from all participants. All participants were eighteen years of age or older and were of African descent. After the instructors of each class in this research project allowed their students to participate, the controlled sample selection was obtained by trying to reach a somewhat balanced male to female ratio within each of the four groups. Classes consisting of a majority female population were grouped with classes with a sizable male population, in an attempt to obtain a fairly balanced representation of male to female subjects. On the day data collection began, the researcher provided verbal information pertaining to the purpose of the study to the student subjects that agreed to participate. A human subjects research release form was also approved by the University of Tennessee for the subjects of this research project. All participants were informed of the purpose of the study. Participation was strictly voluntary and subjects could withdraw at any time during the investigation. Permission for this study was obtained from the Committee on Research Participation at the University of Tennessee and the Knoxville College Research Committee.

TREATMENT PROTOCOL

Students were recruited from two general sociology classes, two health education classes, two English classes, one physical education class, one general psychology class, and sixteen volunteers from the football team during the middle part of the spring semester (1995) at Knoxville College. Data were collected over a two week period. Arrangements were made with the instructors in advance for participation of the classes so as to solicit volunteers. Volunteers from the football team were solicited because of the need for greater male representation. Students were asked at the beginning of the class period if they would like to participate in a research project. For consistency they were told the study concerned attitudes and feelings of black college students toward television viewing in our society. Those students who agreed to participate in the research project, depending on what class (group) they were in, completed the following in their respective groups: the pretest (HDHQ), the treatment (videos), and the posttest were completed in Group One; participants in Group Two completed the pretest and posttest; participants in Group Three were assigned the treatment and posttest; and participants in Group Four were assigned the posttest only. Groups One and Three were the experimental (watched the video tape) groups while Groups Two and Four were the

control groups.

The research began with Group One. The subjects in Group One were told that the purpose of the research was to examine black college students' attitudes and feelings toward television viewing in our society. Students were then encouraged to ask any questions they had concerning any aspects of the study. After all questions were answered the participating students were issued the personality questionnaire. Detailed instructions relating to the proper method of completing the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire were provided within the questionnaire. A short period of time was given to the students to read the directions for the personality questionnaire and to read and sign the student consent form (see Appendix E). The participating students in Group One were then given pencils and asked to complete all 51 items on the personality questionnaire and return the questionnaire to the researcher upon completion. One week later Group One was shown the video recordings of violent episodes (the treatment) and immediately afterwards given the posttest. The posttest was the same personality test administered a week earlier as the pretest. Collection of the posttest brought to an end the experimental purpose of Group One. The following day research began with Group Two. After the preliminary procedures (introduction of study etc...) were completed, the students were given the pretest

and one week later were given the posttest. During the second week of the experiment research began with Group Three. Group Three was presented with the same preliminary information as Group One and then asked for voluntary participation. Those who chose to participate were shown the video depicting violence. Immediately afterwards the subjects were given the personality questionnaire to complete. Completion of the personality questionnaire concluded Group Three's experimental purpose of the study. The preliminary procedures of Group Four were the same as the previously mentioned groups. After the students were introduced to the purpose of the study, they were asked for their voluntary participation. Those who chose to participate were then presented with the posttest. Completion of the Posttest concluded Group Four's role in the experiment.

The following is a brief description of the above-mentioned groups utilized in this study. Group one first received the pretest. One week later they were shown two videos of violent episodes and immediately afterwards given the posttest. Group two was given the pretest and one week later was given the posttest. Group three was first shown the videos and then immediately took the posttest. Group four took the posttest on the last day of data collection.

The two videos used in this research were about ten minutes long. One video showed two white men fighting,

concluding with one getting stabbed to death. Another showed a black man getting shot to death in a alley. A retaliation scene followed showing the three black males who killed the man in the alley being shot and killed.

INSTRUMENTATION

The Hostility and Direction of Hostility

Questionnaire (HDHQ) is a self report instrument developed and tested for reliability and validity by Caine, Foulds and Hope (1967). The instrument has been used in many research projects to assess the level of hostility of the participants. The (HDHQ) is a 51-item true/false test which measures five differing aspects of hostility. The five various aspects of hostility measured by the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire are as follows:

- AH Urge to act out hostility
- CO Criticism of others
- PH Projected delusional (i.e. paranoid) hostility
- SC Self criticism
- G Guilt

The level of hostility of an individual is determined by the simple sum of all five tests. Direction of hostility is the combination of intrapunitive tests (with SC counted twice over) less the sum of the extrapunitive tests:

Total Hostility=AH+CO+PH+SC+G

Direction of Hostility= $(2SC+G) - (AH+CO+PH)$

Extrapunitive Hostility= $AH+CO+PH$

The students' scores were derived from the five tests. The experimental subjects' hostility levels were calculated according to total hostility, direction of hostility, intrapunitive and extrapunitive hostility. To respond to the research questions, the study data sample was classified as follows:

1. total hostility;
2. effects of extrapunitive hostility; and
3. effects of intrapunitive hostility.

Tables summarizing the data on the aforementioned categories of hostility and effects of viewing episodes of violence on the level of hostility of the participants were constructed.

An administrative time of 15 to 20 minutes is generally considered sufficient to complete the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire.

Test-retest correlations for normals for a one year period range from .23 to .70 for the subtests, and .75 and .51 for Hostility and Direction of Hostility (Buros, 1972). Test-retest correlations over a six week period for a neurotic sample split into failures and successes were higher for the failures (.85 and .68) than for the successes (.33 and .43) (Buros, 1972). For purposes of validation, neurotics, normals, melancholics, paranoids and nonparanoid

schizophrenics were contrasted with respect to their Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire scores (Buros, 1972). To evaluate concurrent validity, the HDHQ scores in two samples were correlated with the K scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) the MPI and the HOQ (Buros, 1972). A significant relationship was obtained with the K scale of the MMPI (-.58 and -.65), which was attributed to item overlap (Buros, 1972). A discriminant function analysis of combined neurotic samples versus normals exhibited that the Direction score contributed 50 percent of the predictive power (Buros, 1972). Caine, Foulds and Hope (1967), in their manual referred to Guilford (1956) who reported that assuming Hostility has a reliability of .75 and a standard deviation of 6.5, and that Direction has a reliability of .50 and a standard deviation of 5.0, one can calculate the standard error of measurement for both measures as approximately 3.5.

EXPERIMENTAL STUDY DESIGN

The Solomon Four-group Design was used for this research endeavor. Although the Solomon Four-group Design has not been widely used in educational research, it is considered to be a highly useful quasi-experimental design (Solomon, 1949.). The Solomon Four-group Design is a very useful and powerful procedure because it controls for most

threats to internal validity (maturation, history, etc.) and it allows one to establish whether there is a pretest-treatment interaction (Huck, Sandler, 1973). The Solomon Four-group Design also adds a higher degree of external validity along with its internal validity strength, thus making it "the most desirable of all the ...basic experimental designs" (Helmstadter, 1970, p. 110).

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Subjects: Subjects consisted of members of the football team and eight different classes which included the following; two sociology classes, two English classes, two health classes, one psychology class and one physical education class, at Knoxville College were utilized in this study. Each class was randomly assigned to one of the four groups that make up the Solomon Four-group Design.

Design: The Solomon Four-Group Design was utilized in this study because it is considered to be a extremely useful quasi-experimental design that controls for all threats to internal validity (maturation, history, etc.) and further allows one to determine whether or not there is a pretest-treatment interaction effect (Huck and Sandler, 1973.).

The procedural steps of the Solomon Four-Group Design involved four phases. First, the eight classes were divided into four groups according to gender representation needs of

each group. Two classes were combined for each of the four groups. For example, if one class in group one had an overabundance of females, class two of group one ideally would consist of more males. However, due to the serious inequity of the male to female ratio among the students attending class at Knoxville College, it was still not possible to acquire gender balance. Secondly, two of the groups received the pretest. Third, the treatment was administered to two groups, one of which was given the pretest and one of which did not receive the pretest. Finally, a posttest was given to all four groups. A diagram to illustrate this design is as follows:

R	O1	X	O2
R	O3		O4
R		X	O5
R			O6

Analysis: Data obtained from the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire were utilized to accomplish the objective of the study. A program was developed to analyze the results of the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire by the University of Tennessee Computing Center. First, the data was evaluated with regard to the subject's own personal hostility rating as measured by the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire. The four groups of subjects were compared. All individual responses to the posttest were recorded and classified. A

2X2 factorial analysis of variance was applied to the posttest scores, with scores on the pretest being disregarded. The 2X2 ANOVA was chosen because the literature indicates this analysis to be the most appropriate way to analyze the Solomon Four-group Design. The two factors of this analysis were a.) pretest vs. no pretest, and b.) treatment vs. no treatment. The two-way ANOVA yields three F-ratios, one for the treatment main effect, one for the main effect of pretesting, and one for the pretest-treatment interaction. Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was used on the F ratios to compare the means of the four groups. A sample of convenience was employed in selecting the study classes. The Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire utilizes interval data for analysis. A two-way ANOVA was chosen for the statistical analysis because previous research indicates that the two-way ANOVA will expose the threat of external validity of a pretest treatment interaction (Huck, Sandler, 1978.).

SUMMARY

This study sought to examine the relationship of viewing episodes of violence on hostility levels of African American students. The sample was taken from students attending Knoxville College in Knoxville, Tennessee, during the spring semester of 1995. The instrument used to measure

hostility was the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire. Statistical procedures used were the Solomon Four-group Design, a two way analysis of variance, and the Duncan's New Multiple Range Test. Data were collected and analyzed using The Computing Center, University of Tennessee, Knoxville. This chapter reviewed the methodology chosen for the implementation of this research study. The statistical treatments applied to the data generated by the HDHQ was also presented.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

INTRODUCTION

The primary purpose of this study was to assess the effect of viewing episodes of violence on the level of felt hostility among African-American college students at an historically black college. A secondary purpose was to assess whether differences existed among this population with regards to levels of extrapunitive and intrapunitive hostility.

This chapter presents findings based on the analysis of collected data. The data were collected by administering a 51-item paper and pencil test instrument, the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire. The participants were undergraduates attending Knoxville College during the spring semester of 1995, a school with an enrollment of four hundred and sixty-eight students.

The Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire consists of 51 items grouped into five dimensions of hostility: (I) urge to act out hostility (AH); (II) criticism of others (CO); (III) projected delusional (i.e. paranoid) hostility (PH); (IV) self criticism (SC) ; and guilt (G).

After the subjects' responses to the HDHQ were collected on scan forms the data were coded and given to the State of Tennessee Evaluation and Testing Center to be scanned. The University of Tennessee Computing Center using the SAS program computed the data. The statistical analyses included: frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, Duncan's New Multiple Range Test, and the two-way analysis of variance. The level of significance chosen to indicate acceptance or rejection of the research questions was an alpha of .05.

Percentage computations were made by gender and level by exposure to violent behavior via video recordings. A two way analysis of variance was employed to ascertain whether the hostility levels of those exposed to 20 minutes of video violence would differ from those who were not exposed to the video. In order to ascertain hostility levels of the subjects the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire was administered to all subjects. Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was used to make post-hoc comparisons of the means if there was an overall significant F ratio. Findings are presented under the following categories: selected demographic characteristics of the sample, pretest and posttest scores of the HDHQ, hostility and direction means for all groups, intrapunitive and extrapunitive hostility means for all groups, mean scores for the five areas that make up the HDHQ for each group,

implementation of the Solomon Four-group Design with hostility and direction as the dependent variable, t test results for extrapunitive and intrapunitive hostility of those who took the pretest, hostility and direction of hostility comparisons of males with females, and hostility comparisons of male subjects who had the treatment with males who did not have the treatment, and comparisons of female subjects who received the treatment with females who did not receive the treatment.

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Sex of Subjects

A total of 130 of 468 students attending Knoxville College participated in this research study. The study population consisted of about 28 percent of the total college population. The description of sample by sex is presented in Table 4.1. The population of students used in this study consisted of 72 males or 55.4 percent of the total number of participants and 58 females or 44.6 percent of the total numbers of participants.

TABLE 4.1
POPULATION SAMPLE BY GENDER

SEX	FREQUENCY	PERCENT
MALE	72	55.4
FEMALE	58	44.6
TOTAL	130	100

Class Distribution

Table 4.2 presents the distribution of the participants in the study by class (Freshman, Sophomore, Junior and Senior) and gender. Twenty-four males or 19.2% and 10 females or 8% of the students were freshmen. Thirty-four or 27.2% of the total sample were freshmen. Fifteen males or 12% and eight females or 6.4% of the students were sophomores. Twenty-three or 18.4% of the total sample were sophomores. Twelve males or 9.6% and 15 females or 12% of the students were juniors. Twenty-seven or 21.6% of the sample were juniors. Seventeen males or 13.6% and 24 females or 19.2% were seniors. Forty-one or 32.8% of the sample were seniors.

TABLE 4.2

FREQUENCY AND PERCENT OF SUBJECTS
BY GENDER AND CLASS

CLASS	MALES	FEMALES	TOTAL	PER
FRESH	24	10	34	27.2
SOPH	15	8	23	18.4
JUNIOR	12	15	27	21.6
SENIOR	17	24	41	32.8
TOTAL	68	57	125	
PERCENT OF TOTAL	54.4	45.6		

Five students' class year and ages (four male and one female) are not accounted for in the above table because they failed to include them on the instrument.

Forty-one or 32.8% percent of the total sample were Seniors. Seventeen or 41.5% of the 41 Seniors were males and 24 or 58.5% of the 41 Seniors were females. Twenty-seven or 21.6% of the total sample were juniors. Twelve or 44.4% of the 27 were males and 15 or 55.5% of the sample were females. Twenty-three or 18.4% of the sample were Sophomores. Fifteen or 65% were males and eight or 34% were females. Thirty-four or 27.2% of the sample were Freshmen. Twenty-four or 70.6% were males and 10 or 29.4% were females. The description of the sample by grade distribution is presented in Table 4.2

Video

The number of subjects that watched the video depicting violence was forty-eight or 36 percent of the 130 subjects. Twenty subjects or 41.7 percent of the forty-eight completed both the pretest (one week before watching the video depicting violence) and the posttest (immediately following the video), while twenty-eight or 58.3 percent of the forty-eight subjects received only the posttest. Twenty of the forty-eight subjects were male (41.7 percent) while twenty-eight (58.3 percent) were female.

HOSTILITY AND DIRECTION OF HOSTILITY QUESTIONNAIRE

All 130 subjects completed the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire as a posttest. Thirty-six students completed the HDHQ twice, once in the form of a pretest and once in the form of a posttest. A total of ninety-four students received the HDHQ only as a posttest. Tables 4.3-A to 4.3-F shows the hostility and directional mean, standard deviation, the intrapunitive and extrapunitive scores and the minimum and maximum scores of all four groups. The HDHQ pretest and posttest scores for subjects in group one are recorded in Tables 4.3-A and 4.3-B respectively. Hostility, direction of hostility, intrapunitive, and extrapunitive scores were documented. Participants in group one recorded lower hostility in the posttest (17.80) than in the pretest (18.50) after viewing the video depicting violence. Tables 4.3-C and 4.3-D shows the pretest and posttest scores for subjects in group two. Hostility, direction of hostility, intrapunitive, and extrapunitive scores are recorded. Participants in group two recorded lower hostility scores in the posttest (20.06) than in the pretest (22.12) although they did not see the video depicting violence. A HDHQ posttest score of 20.42 for subjects in group three was recorded in Table 4.3-E. Direction of hostility (-2.67), intrapunitive (11.17), and extrapunitive (13.85) scores were also recorded. The HDHQ

posttest scores for subjects in group four were recorded in Table 4.3-F. Hostility (22.39), direction of hostility (-3.65), intrapunitive (11.81), and extrapunitive (15.46) scores were recorded.

TABLE 4.3

THE HDHQ PRETEST RESULTS OF GROUP ONE

VAR	N	MEAN	S.D.	MIN	MAX
A. GROUP ONE, TEST ONE					
HOST	20	18.50	7.47	7.00	32.00
DIR	20	-1.20	4.11	-9.00	6.00
INTRA	20	10.95	4.51	2.00	20.00
EXTRA	20	12.15	5.45	5.45	22.00

TABLE 4.3

THE HDHQ POSTTEST RESULTS OF GROUP ONE

VAR.	N	MEAN	STD. DEV	MIN	MAX
B. GROUP ONE, TEST TWO					
HOST	20	17.80	7.85	5.00	30.0
DIR	20	-1.65	4.72	-14.00	8.00
INTRA	20	10.25	5.10	2.00	22.0
EXTRA	20	11.90	5.65	2.00	23.0

TABLE 4.3

THE HDHQ PRETEST RESULTS OF GROUP TWO

VAR.	N	MEAN	S.D	MIN	MAX
C. GROUP TWO, TEST ONE					
HOST	16	22.12	6.85	12.00	36.00
DIR	16	-4.56	5.05	-12.0	3.00
INTRA	16	10.93	5.14	-2.00	21.00
EXTRA	16	15.50	4.50	8.00	26.00

TABLE 4.3
THE HDHQ POSTTEST RESULTS OF GROUP TWO

VAR.	N	MEAN	STD. DEV	MIN	MAX
D. GROUP ONE, TEST TWO					
HOST	16	20.06	8.48	7.00	35.00
DIR	16	-3.31	5.88	-17.0	6.00
INTRA	16	10.50	5.01	2.00	18.00
EXTRA	16	13.81	6.35	5.00	24.00

TABLE 4.3

THE HDHQ POSTTEST RESULTS OF GROUP THREE

VAR.	N	MEAN	STD. DEV	MIN	MAX
E. GROUP THREE, TEST TWO					
HOST	28	20.42	6.32	8.00	37.00
DIR	28	-2.67	5.00	-10.0	11.00
INTRA	28	11.17	3.83	5.00	19.00
EXTRA	28	13.85	4.89	5.00	25.00

TABLE 4.3

THE HDHQ POSTTEST RESULTS OF GROUP FOUR

VAR.	N	MEAN	STD. DEV	MIN	MAX
F. GROUP FOUR, TEST TWO					
HOST	66	22.39	7.03	6.00	35.00
DIR	66	-3.65	5.48	-15.0	7.00
INTRA	66	11.81	4.91	4.00	24.00
EXTRA	66	15.46	5.17	3.00	27.00

In Table 4.4 posttest hostility and directional means and standard deviations are shown of all four groups. Group four registered the highest hostility mean at 22.39, while group one's score of 17.80 registered the lowest mean.

Table 4.5 shows the mean scores and standard deviation scores of the four groups on intrapunitive and extrapunitive hostility. Group four registered the highest intrapunitive (11.82) and extrapunitive (15.46) hostility scores. Group one registered the lowest intrapunitive and extrapunitive hostility score.

Table 4.6 shows the results of each group's mean score on the five individual tests that make up the HDHQ (AH, CO, PH, SC, G). Group four scored the highest mean average in each category. A high score in the five subsets that make up the HDHQ are indicative that subjects registered high hostility. Group one had the lowest mean score in each category with the exception of self criticism (SC) in which it had the next to the lowest score. Low scores on the five subsets that make up the HDHQ will result in overall low mean hostility scores.

Table 4.7 shows the hostility and directional means and standard deviations for the two groups that took the pretest (group 1 and group 2) in comparison with the two groups that did not take the pretest (group 3 and group 4). Whether a pretest effect existed was under investigation. A total of 36 students took the pretest, while 94 students did

TABLE 4.4

HOSTILITY AND DIRECTION MEANS AND
STANDARD DEVIATION FOR ALL GROUPS

				HOST		DIRECT	
G	PT	V	N	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD
	Y	Y	20	17.80	7.8514	-1.650	4.727
	Y	N	16	20.06	7.4465	-3.313	5.885
	N	Y	28	20.39	6.2972	-2.679	5.004
	N	N	66	22.39	7.0337	-3.652	5.591

TABLE 4.5

INTRAPUNITIVE AND EXTRAPUNITIVE HOSTILITY MEANS
AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ALL GROUPS

G	N	INTRA	S.D.	EXTRA	S.D.
	20	10.25	5.1080	11.90	5.6559
	16	10.50	5.0199	13.81	5.0000
	28	11.18	3.8399	13.86	4.8968
	66	11.82	4.9175	15.47	5.1716

TABLE 4.6

MEAN SCORES OF TOTAL HOSTILITY AND DIRECTION OF HOSTILITY
AND ALL FIVE INDIVIDUAL TESTS THAT MAKE UP THE HDHQ

GROUP #	AH MN	CO MN	PH MN	SC MN	G MN	TH MN	DH MN
GROUP 1 (PTP)	4.7	5.6	1.6	4.4	1.6	17.8	4.43
GROUP 2 (PP)	5.3	5.6	2.9	4.3	2.0	20.1	5.89
GROUP 3 (TP)	5.6	6.0	2.3	4.6	2.0	20.4	5.00
GROUP 4 (P)	6.1	6.5	2.9	4.9	2.0	22.4	5.49

TABLE 4.7

PRETEST EFFECT FOR HOSTILITY

PRET	N	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD
YES	36	18.53	7.8721	-2.389	5.261
NO	94	21.92	6.9044	-3.362	5.342

not take the pretest. The hostility and direction means for the students who took the pretest were 18.53 and -2.39. The hostility and direction means for the students who did not take the pretest were 21.92 and -6.91 respectively.

The analysis of variance for pretest effect on hostility resulted in a sum of square score of 233.09. The mean was 20.97, the F-value was 4.48, and the probability of the F was 0.0362 (see Table 4.8). The level of significance chosen to accept or reject the pretest effect was .05. Based upon the .05 level of significance, it is probable that a pretest effect exists among those subjects that were exposed to the pretest. Therefore the analysis of data suggests that the individuals in the pretest groups differed with the individuals who were not in the pretest groups.

Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was used to determine if a significant difference in hostility and direction of hostility existed. Table 4.9 shows that a significant difference in hostility means did exist between those who took the pretest compared to those who did not.

TABLE 4.8

ANOVA TEST FOR PRETEST EFFECT ON HOSTILITY

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQ	F VALUE	Pr > F
MODEL	1	233.07846	4.48	0.0362
ERROR	128	6660.7985		
COR TOTAL	129	6893.8769		
	R-SQUARE	C.V.	HOST MEAN	
	0.033809	34.40136	20.9692	
SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	Pr > F
PREEFFECT	1	233.07846	4.48	0.0362
SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	Pr > F
PREEFFECT	1	233.07846	4.48	0.0362

TABLE 4.9

DUNCAN'S MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR DEPENDENT
VARIABLE: HOSTILITY
PRETEST EFFECT FOR HOSTILITY

DUNCAN GROUP	MEAN	NUMBER	PRETEST EFFECT
A	21.798	94	NO
B	18.806	36	YES

ALPHA = 0.05, DF = 128, MSE = 22.12825

HARMONIC MEAN OF CELL SIZES = 52.06154

NUMBER OF MEANS = 2

CRITICAL RANGE 2.798

Means with the same letter are not significantly different

The analysis of variance for pretest effect on direction of hostility found a sum of square score of 5.32. The mean was -6.54, the F-value was 0.27, and the probability of the F was 0.6067. Based upon the .05 level of significance, subjects' direction scores in the pretest groups did not significantly differ with the direction scores of subjects in the posttest only groups. All four groups registered more extrapunitive than intrapunitive scores in direction. See Table 4.10.

TABLE 4.10
ANOVA TEST FOR PRETEST EFFECT ON DIRECTION

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQ	F VALUE	Pr > F
MODEL	1	5.8922077	0.27	0.6067
ERROR	128	2832.4155		
COR TOTAL	129	2838.3077		
	R-SQUARE	C.V.	DIRECT MEAN	
	0.002076	-71.94455	-6.538462	
SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	Pr > F
PREEFFECT	1	5.8922077	0.27	0.6067
SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	Pr > F
PREEFFECT	1	5.8922077	0.27	0.6067

Table 4.11 shows the mean and standard deviation scores of those students who were in the treatment groups (group 1 and group 3) and non-treatment group (group 2 and group 4). The mean for hostility was 19.33 and the directional mean was -2.25 (treatment group). For those in the non-treatment group the mean for hostility and direction was 21.94 and -3.59 respectively.

TABLE 4.11

TREATMENT EFFECT OF HOSTILITY DIFFERENCES FOR VIDEO VIEWERS
AND NON-VIDEO VIEWERS (NO TREATMENT)

		HOSTILITY		DIRECT	
TREAT	N	MEAN	SD	MEAN	SD
YES	48	19.333333	7.04192	-2.25000	4.866
NO	82	21.939024	7.34065	-3.58537	5.533

The treatment effect is shown in Table 4.12. The analysis of variance was run on the data with the results as follows: the sum of square score was 208.90, the mean was 20.97, F value was 4.00, and the probability of the F value was 0.048. Based upon the .05 level of significance, a significantly different hostility level existed between those who saw the video compared to those who did not. Those who saw the video had a significantly lower hostility level score compared to those who did not see the video.

TABLE 4.12
TREATMENT EFFECT FOR HOSTILITY

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQ	F VALUE	Pr > F
MODEL	1	208.896301	4.00	0.0476
ERROR	128	6685.00762		
COR. TOTAL	129	6893.87692		
	R-SQ	C.V.	HOST MEAN	
	0.03029 8	34.46382	20.96923	
SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	Pr > F
TREAT	1	208.869301	4.00	0.0476
SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	Pr > F
TREATMENT	1	208.8963011	4.00	0.0476

The Duncan's New Multiple Range test was used to compare the mean hostility scores of the treatment and non-treatment groups. The groups that saw the video were significantly different from the groups that did not see the video. See Table 4.13.

TABLE 4.13

DUNCAN'S MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR VARIABLE; HOSTILITY
TREATMENT EFFECT FOR HOSTILITY

DUNCAN GROUPING	MEAN	NUMBER	TREATMENT (VIDEO)
A	21.939	82	NO
B	19.313	48	YES

Alpha = 0.05, DF = 127, MSE = 50.12736,
Number of Means = 2
Critical Range 2.546

Means with the same letter are not significantly
different

The analysis of variance for the treatment by testing interaction is shown in Table 4.14. The sum of squares and mean square scores for those who took the pretest was 164.07995, the F value was 3.10 and the probability of F was 0.0808. The sum of square and mean square scores for those who saw the video was 185.91217, the F value was 3.51, and the probability of F was 0.0633. For those who took the pretest and saw the video the sum of square and mean square scores were 0.8493931, the F value was .02 and the probability of F was 0.8994. Based on the .05 level of significance, the treatment by testing interaction was not significant.

TABLE 4.14

ANOVA TREATMENT BY TESTING INTERACTION FOR HOSTILITY

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQ	MEAN SQ	F	Pr > F
PRE	1	164.07995	164.079	3.10	0.0808
SAWVIDEO	1	185.91217	185.912	3.51	0.0633
SAWVIDEO* PRE	1	0.8493931	0.84939	0.02	0.8994

The t test for the difference of the mean's independent sample was used to determine whether significant changes in intrapunitive and extrapunitive hostility (as measured by the HDHQ) occurred among those subjects who took the pretest. The mean for extrapunitive hostility scores were 11.95 and 14.13 for group one and two respectively (see Table 4.15). The standard deviation and degrees of freedom for group one was 5.58 and 27.7. Group two's standard deviation and degrees of freedom was 6.45 and 33.0. The alpha level chosen to accept or reject that significant changes in subjects extrapunitive hostility took place was 0.05. The computed probability of F was 0.30 for group one and 0.29 for group 2. Based on the .05 level of significance, subjects' extrapunitive hostility levels did not significantly change after watching episodes of video violence.

TABLE 4.15

t TEST ON EXTRAPUNITIVE SCORES FOR GROUPS ONE AND TWO

GROUP	N	MEAN	S.D	DF	Pr > F
1	20	11.95	5.58	27.7	0.3029
2	15	14.13	6.45	33.0	0.2914

Table 4.16 reports the t test scores for intrapunitive hostility for groups one and two. The mean was 10.15 and 10.93 for group one and two respectively. The standard deviation and degrees of freedom for group one was 5.23 and 31.4. The standard deviation and degrees of freedom for group two was 4.88 and 33.0. The computed probability of F was 0.65 for group one and 0.66 for group two. Based on the .05 level of significance, subjects intrapunitive hostility levels did not significantly change after watching episodes of video violence.

TABLE 4.16

t TEST ON INTRAPUNITIVE SCORES FOR GROUPS ONE AND TWO

GROUP	N	MEAN	SD	DF	Pr > F
1	20	10.15	5.23	31.4	0.6518
2	15	10.93	4.88	33.0	0.6550

Table 4.17 shows the mean and standard deviation hostility and directional direction of hostility scores of all students by gender. The mean hostility and direction score for females was 18.98 and -5.74 and the mean hostility and direction score for males was 22.58 and -7.11, respectively. Based on the .05 level of significance, male subjects' hostility levels were significantly higher than females.

TABLE 4.17

DIFFERENCES OF HOSTILITY BY SEX

Mean and Standard Deviation scores of all males and females

S	NUM	MEAN H	SD H	MEAN D	SD D
F	58	18.9828	7.619	-5.741	5.145
M	72	22.5833	6.688	-7.097	4.276

The analysis of variance for gender differences in hostility found a sum of square and mean square score of 416.45. The mean was 20.977, the F-value was 8.22 and the probability of the F was 0.0048. Based upon the .05 level of significance, there is a significant difference in hostility scores between males and females (see Table 4.18).

TABLE 4.18

ANOVA TEST FOR HOSTILITY DIFFERENCES BY SEX

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQ	MEAN SQ	F VALUE	Pr > F
MODEL	1	416.45	416.45	8.22	0.0048
ERROR	128	6484.5	50.660		
COR TOTAL	129	6900.9			
	R- SQ	C.V.	ROOT MSE		HOS MEAN
	0.06035	33.931	7.1176		20.977
SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	MEAN SQ	F VALUE	Pr > F
SEX	1	416.45	416.45	8.22	0.0048
SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SSS	MEAN SQ	F VALUE	Pr > F
SEX	1	416.45	416.45	8.22	0.0048

The Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was used to compare male to female hostility differences. Male subjects registered a significantly higher hostility score than female subjects (See Table 4.19).

TABLE 4.19

DUNCAN'S MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR VARIABLE: HOSTILITY BY
SEX DEPENDENT VARIABLE: HOSTILITY

DUNCAN GROUPING	MEAN	NUMBER	TREATMENT (GENDER)
A	22.583	72	MALE
B	18.966	58	FEMALE

Means with the same letter are not significantly different

Alpha = 0.05, DF = 127, MSE = 50.12736,
Number of Means = 2
Critical Range 2.472

The analysis of variance for gender differences in direction comparing male and female subjects found a sum of square score of 59.05217. The mean was -6.492, the F-value was 2.69, and the probability of the F was 0.1033. Based upon the .05 level of significance, male and female subjects did not differ significantly among direction scores (see Table 4.20).

TABLE 4.20

ANOVA TEST OF DIRECTION DIFFERENCES BY SEX

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQ	MEAN SQ	F VALUE	Pr > F
MODEL	1	59.05217	59.05	2.69	0.1033
ERROR	128	2807.440	21.93		
COR TOTAL	129	2866.492			
	R-SQUARE	C.V.	ROOT MSE		DIRECT MEAN
	0.0206	-72.1359	4.683		-6.492
SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	MEAN SQ	F VALUE	Pr > F
SEX	1	59.05217	59.05	2.69	0.1033
SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	MEAN SQ	F VALUE	PR > F
SEX	1	59.0521	59.05	2.69	0.1033

Analysis of variance for all female subjects in all four groups was conducted to determine whether female subjects who received the treatment had significantly different hostility scores. The sum of square score was 39.885796, the mean was 18.966, the F-value was 0.69, and the probability of the F was 0.4112. Based on the .05 level of significance, those female students who saw the video did not register a hostility score that differed significantly with those female students who did not see the video (See Table 4.21).

Duncan's New Multiple Range Test for differences in hostility among females in the experimental groups and those in the control groups were found to be not significant at the .05 level. (See Table 4.22).

Analysis of variance for all male subjects in all four groups were conducted to determine whether male subjects who watched the video tape registered significantly different hostility scores. The sum of square score was 69.42, the mean was 22.58, the F-value was 1.56, and the probability of the F was 0.22. Based on the .05 level of significance, male students who saw the video did not register a hostility score that differed significantly with those male students who did not see the video (See Table 4.23).

TABLE 4.21

TREATMENT EFFECT FOR HOSTILITY: FEMALES ONLY

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQ	F VALUE	Pr> F
MODEL	1	39.885796	0.69	0.411
ERROR	56	3258.0452		
COR TOTAL	57	3297.9310		
	R SQ	C.V.	HOST MEAN	
	0.0121	40.217963	18.966	
SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	Pr> F
TREAT	1	39.885796	0.69	0.4112
SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	Pr> F
TREAT	1	39.885796	0.69	0.411

TABLE 4.22

DUNCAN'S NEW MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR VARIABLE: HOSTILITY-
FEMALES ONLY

DUNCAN GROUPING	MEAN	N	TREATMENT (video)
A	19.767	30	NO
A	18.107	28	YES

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

ALPHA = 0.05, DF = 56, MSE = 58.17938,
HARMONIC MEAN OF CELL SIXES = 28.96552
NUMBER OF MEANS 2
CRITICAL RANGE 4.015

TABLE 4.23

TREATMENT EFFECT FOR MALES ONLY

SOURCE	DF	SUM OF SQ	F VALUE	Pr > F
MODEL	1	69.42308	1.56	0.2152
ERROR	70	3106.0769		
COR. TOTAL	71	3175.5000		
	R-SQ	C.V	HOST MEAN	
	0.02186	29.49640	22.5833 3	
SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	Pr > F
TREAT	1	69.423077	1.56	0.2152
SOURCE	DF	TYPE III SS	F VALUE	Pr > F
TREAT	1	69.423077	1.56	0.2152

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for differences in hostility among males in the experimental groups and those in the control groups were found to be not significant at the .05 level (See Table 4.24).

TABLE 4.24

DUNCAN'S MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR VARIABLE:
HOSTILITY MALES ONLY

DUNCAN'S GROUP	MEAN	N	TREATMENT
A	23.192	52	NO
A	21.000	20	YES

Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Alpha = 0.05, DF = 70, MSE = 44.37253,
Harmonic Mean of cell sizes = 28.88889
Number of Means 2
Critical Range 3.496

SUMMARY

This chapter presented the process of data collection, analysis, and findings. It included the following sections: introduction, demographic characteristics of the sample, grade distribution, video viewer participants, HDHQ standard deviation, mean, minimum and maximum scores for the four groups, testing results on the Solomon Four-group Design on hostility and direction, t test results for extrapunitive and intrapunitive hostility among all participants, analysis of variance and Duncan's New Multiple Range Test for gender differences in hostility and direction, analysis of variance for male subjects only in all four groups, and analysis of variance for female subjects only in all four groups.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to assess the effect of viewing episodes of video violence on the level of felt hostility among African-American college students at a historically black college. A secondary purpose was to assess whether differences existed among this population with regards to levels of extrapunitive and intrapunitive hostility. This investigation examined information obtained through the administration of a personality questionnaire called the "Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire" developed by Caine, Foulds, and Hope, (1967).

Importance of the Study

Violence in the United States has reached epidemic proportions. In 1990 more than 18,298 murders were committed in the United States. Many people are attempting to find the answers as to why homicide rates are so high in this country. Experts have mentioned several factors that

may influence escalating rates of violence which include poverty, poor education, lack of a father figure, alcohol and other drugs, mental illness, child abuse, low self esteem, the proliferation of guns, and violence viewed in films and on television. By no means is the rise in violence in the United States a result of only one factor. Many of the things mentioned above combine to assist in the rapid rise in the number of violent acts committed in this country. Many studies have pointed to violence in the media as one of the culprits which influence some individuals to commit violent acts. Although more than 3,000 studies addressing violence have been conducted, only a small percentage have been of the truly experimental type. This study is one such study. A major reason this study is important is the universality of violent programs and movies in the United States. Violent programming has greatly increased since the 1950s and so has violent crime. This study examined if there was a correlation between watching depicted media violence and changes in hostility levels. If research supports the theory that viewing violence is part of the etiology of criminal violence, monitoring it may be an important approach to primary prevention.

Another important element of this study was the population and the methodology used in this investigation. While several studies have investigated the effects of video violence among white Americans, few studies exploring the

effects of video violence on black Americans have been documented. With the use of the Solomon Four Group Design a strong statistical framework was utilized to detect if viewing violence registered a significant change in hostility levels. This is important because several studies have documented that people who registered above average on the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HHDQ) had a history of acting out violently. Therefore, if viewing violence causes an increase in hostility levels, and hostile people are more prone to act out violently, it may be safe to say that viewing violence can influence some to act out violently. The single most important question this study sought to answer was whether viewing video violence (as a single factor) affected hostility levels, which in turn might lead to violent behavior.

Gender

Fifty-eight females and 72 male subjects were utilized for the completion of this study. Female hostility and direction means were compared with male hostility and direction means by way of the analysis of variance and the Duncan's New Multiple Range test. Female hostility means significantly differed from male hostility means at the .05 level of significance on both the analysis of variance and the Duncan's New Multiple Range test.

Procedure Followed

A total of 130 students divided into four groups completed the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire. Advanced classes as well as general classes were utilized in attempt to have a representative balance between freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors. All participants completed the 51-item paper and pencil Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HDHQ) within a twenty-five minute period of time. The Solomon Four-group Design in which two control and two experimental groups were used was employed. The experimental groups consisted of the two groups that viewed episodes of violence on the video tape. The two control groups did not watch the video tape. A total of 48 students participated in the experimental group, while 82 students participated in the control group. Testing began on April 19, 1995 and concluded May 9, 1995. Information obtained from the personality questionnaire (HDHQ) was scanned by the State of Tennessee Computing Center.

FINDINGS

Based on the analysis of the data in this study, the findings were as follows:

Descriptive Findings

Age

1. The majority of the respondents were between the age of 18-21.

Gender

2. In the sample group, men, outnumbered women by the percentage of 55.4 to 44.6.

Marriage Status

3. In the sample group all participants that responded to the marital status question indicated that they were single.

Class Distribution

4. In the sample group the senior class made up the largest percentage of participants (32.8). Freshmen were second with 27.2 percent, followed by Juniors and Sophomores with 21.6 and 18.4 respectively.

Race

5. All participants were of African Descent.

The following research questions were tested:

Results of the Research Questions

Question 1--Does a pretest effect on hostility and direction exist among the subjects who took the pretest? A total of 130 students were used to test for the pretest effect on hostility and direction. Thirty-six students took the pretest, and 94 students did not take the pretest. After using the analysis of variance and the Duncan's New Multiple Range statistical procedures on the pretest groups, it was accepted that a pretest effect on hostility existed at the .05 level of significance. A pretest effect limits the generalizability of the study, therefore findings from this study may not be generalized. Table 4.8 shows that the participants in the groups that were administered the pretest for hostility significantly differed from the participants that were not administered the pretest. The pretest effect for direction was not significant at the .05 level of significance (see Table 4.10).

Question 2--Utilizing the Solomon Four-group Design, is there a treatment effect on hostility present

among subjects who saw the video depicting violence?

A total of 48 students who watched the video were compared to 82 students who did not watch the video to investigate the treatment effect. Analysis of variance and the Duncan's New Multiple Range test at the .05 level of significance resulted in acceptance that the treatment (video) significantly affected the hostility levels of those who watched the video compared to those who did not. Those who saw the video actually recorded lower hostility scores than those who did not watch the video. Some researchers argue that, for some, observing violence may incite aggressive thoughts; however, at the same time, viewing violence may reduce emotional reactions to the negative consequences of aggression for those who fear being a victim of violence. Some individuals may thus become restrictive emotionally to the display of aggression, although their general fear of crime and violence may become enhanced. This might be the reason why students in the treatment group who saw the video recorded the lowest hostility scores of all four groups. Another explanation could be the low percentage of male subjects (30%) in experimental group one. Female subjects had consistently lower hostility scores than male participants in this study. Therefore, the common high male hostility scores in experimental group one was overridden by the average low hostility score of female participants in the same group. Subjects who watched the

video depicting violence registered significantly different hostility scores when compared with those who did not watch the video. Subjects that saw the video registered significantly lower hostility scores compared to those who did not see the video (see table 4.12).

Question 3--Utilizing the Solomon Four-group Design, is there a treatment by testing interaction among the participating subjects?

Treatment by testing interaction examined the interaction of testing with the treatment. All 130 subjects were utilized to test for the treatment by testing interaction. After implementing the analysis of variance on the cell means within the Solomon Four-group Design, it was determined that interaction between testing and treatment was not significant at the .05 level. Thus one can presume that pretest sensitization was not present.

Question 4-What reported effect does the viewing of episodes of violence have on the level of total hostility among African-American college students?

Table 4.12 indicates that watching violence resulted in a decrease in hostility scores among the African American college students that participated in this study.

Question 5-What reported effect does the viewing of episodes of violence have on African American college students' extrapunitive hostility level?

Table 4.15 shows that when examining extrapunitive

hostility alone, no significant change exists as a result of observing episodes of media violence.

Question 6--What reported effect does viewing episodes of violence have on African American college students' intrapunitive hostility level?

Table 4.16 shows that when examining intrapunitive hostility alone, no significant change exists as a result of observing episodes of media violence.

Question 7--Do male subjects' hostility levels differ significantly from female subjects' hostility levels?

The two way analysis of variance was used to determine whether hostility means between males and females significantly differed. Based upon the .05 level of significance, there is a significant difference in hostility scores between males and females (see Table 4.18).

Question 8--Do male subjects who watched the video depicting violence register a change in hostility levels?

The analysis of variance and the Duncan's New Multiple Range test was used to compare the hostility means of males in the treatment groups (20) to males in the control groups (46). Based on the .05 level of significance, hostility scores of males in the treatment groups did not significantly differ from males in the control groups. Thus, the treatment (video) did not significantly increase or decrease male participants' level of hostility.

Question 9--Do female subjects who watched the

video depicting violence register a change in hostility levels?

The analysis of variance and Duncan's New Multiple Range test was used to compare the hostility means of females in the treatment groups (28) to females in the control groups (30). Based on the .05 level of significance, hostility scores of females in the treatment groups did not significantly differ from females in the control groups. Thus, the treatment (video) did not significantly increase or decrease female participants' level of hostility.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions are based on the findings of this research study:

1. A pretest effect existed indicating that subjects who were in the pretest group differed significantly from subjects in the non-pretest groups. For this reason generalization of the results from the pretested sample cannot be made.

2. There was a significant change in the hostility levels of subjects as a result of watching violent scenes recorded from movies. Those who saw the violence on video recorded a significantly lower hostility score than those who did not see the video violence.

3. Males differed significantly from females in levels of hostility. Males on average registered much higher hostility levels than did females.

4. Exposure of the video to female participants did not significantly alter their hostility levels. Hostility scores of females in the experimental groups did not significantly differ from those in the control groups.

5. Males in the experimental groups did not register significantly different hostility scores than males in the control groups. Exposure to the violent video did not significantly alter hostility levels of male participants in this study.

6. The viewing of episodes of violence had no significant effect on extrapunitive levels of hostility.

7. Viewing episodes of violence did not significantly affect intrapunitive levels of hostility.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations result from the findings and conclusions based on the data produced by the study and the review of the literature:

1. First of all, there is a need to develop further research on the extent of the effects of visual media violence on "minorities", particularly African Americans.

2. Further research on the effects of viewing media

violence needs to be based on experimental methods of research.

3. Additional studies focusing on the effects of viewing violence among African Americans should be conducted. Most of the literature focuses on the effects of viewing violence on middle class white people.

4. African American male hostility levels were significantly higher than their female counterparts. Studies addressing this issue could prove to be very beneficial in understanding why males commit more violent acts than females.

5. Although those who watched 20 minutes of video violence resulted in a significantly lower hostility score, more research is needed to assess if, indeed, watching video violence would have the same effect on African Americans who do not attend college.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1. A study comparing hostility levels of college students at a historically white institution with those at a historically black institution would be valuable in evaluating similarities and differences of the results.

2. Implementing this same type of study with a population of inner-city non-college-attending African American 18-to-26-year-old participants could be compared to

this study's results to compare and contrast any similarities and differences.

3. Studies should also be conducted regarding male and female differences in response to viewing different kinds of video violence.

4. More experimental research on the effects of viewing depicted video violence on hostility levels with implementation of the Solomon Four-group design is needed. The Solomon Four-group Design is a powerful procedure in detecting or ruling out pretest effect, treatment effect, and testing by treatment interaction.

CHAPTER VI

The Study in Retrospect

PROBLEMS IN METHODOLOGY

The primary purpose of this study was to assess the effect of viewing episodes of violence on the level of felt hostility among African-American college students at an historically black college. A secondary purpose was to assess whether differences existed among this population with regards to levels of extrapunitive and intrapunitive hostility.

The conduct of any research involving human subjects is destined to meet a myriad of problems. This study was no exception to that rule. Approval of this project had to be obtained from the Dean of Knoxville College, the Head of the Psychology Department, the football coach at Knoxville College, and the instructor of every class that agreed to participate. After Knoxville College granted permission to conduct this research project, the appropriate forms had to be submitted to the University of Tennessee for approval. Once the researcher had permission from the administration of Knoxville College, and approval from the University of Tennessee, permission from the instructors at Knoxville College was sought. Although most instructors at Knoxville

College were very supportive of this project, few classes contained enough male and female students to be utilized in this study. It was then realized that there was a need to combine two or more classes in each one of the four groups of the Solomon Four-group Design to secure enough male to female subjects for completion of the project. Finally, after getting permission from all those in authority at Knoxville College and the University of Tennessee, the researcher began in earnest.

OBSERVATIONS ABOUT THE STUDY

Examining the effects of video violence on hostility levels by administration of the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire was a study worth the time and effort. Few studies examining the effects of viewing violence on African American males and females of college age have been performed. No violence studies utilizing the stringent Solomon Four-group Design have been documented. A significant correlation between those who viewed the video violence and decreases in hostility levels were substantiated. This indicates that the video tape contributed to significantly altered hostility levels of those subjects in the treatment groups, albeit a lowering of hostility levels.

One of the unexpected problems encountered was the low

turnout of male participants in group one. Although two classes were combined to make up group one, only six males attended both the pretest class meeting and the video/posttest class meeting. The low percentage of male participants in group one had a significant effect on the low hostility mean of the group.

A future study with a sample of subjects either from an inner-city population or an historically white university might make a good comparison study.

Although the study had more male participants than females in this study, the minuscule number of male students in group number one (a treatment group) was a truly disheartening occurrence. For reasons unknown, the male students in the experimental groups did not attend class as regularly as their female counterparts. Although most male students attended class when the pretest was distributed, not many returned one week later to complete the posttest.

Although this research project did not find any positive correlation between viewing video violence and rising hostility levels, one should not conclude that watching violence doesn't incite hostile feelings in some viewers. The movie *Boyz n the Hood* was used because of its violent content. Several documented violent eruptions occurred at movie theaters all across the nation during its initial release in 1991. One possible reason why viewers in this study did not register an increase in hostility

levels after watching the video depicting violence was the fact that the movie was four years old and all viewers had previously seen it at least once. Instead of stimulating feelings of hostility, the video might have been boring to those who were in the treatment groups.

Another possible argument as to why hostility levels significantly lowered among those in the treatment groups after watching the video depicting violence could be the environment (college classroom) in which the experiment took place. Some experiments on the effects of viewing violence found that the environment in which one watches the violent program can influence feelings and behavior. Both of the videos used in this experiment were scenes depicting justified violence. When the violence is seen as being "justified", hostility levels might remain constant or even lessen because the viewer may feel that justice has been carried out. College students may be better critical viewers of violence, accurately distinguishing between senseless acts of violence and justified violence.

Male and female students that participated in this study registered higher hostility levels on the HDHQ than what is generally obtained with a population of "normal" subjects. The reason for higher hostility levels in this population might be related to the school's morale during the time in which the research was being conducted. The President of Knoxville College, during the time of this

research project, had just resigned and the school was also experiencing major financial difficulties. The threat of the school closing down was a real stressor that many students dealt with. Several teachers mentioned that the financial state of the school seemed to translate into a general attitude of anger among the students. The administrative problems may have effected the emotional state of the students causing an increase in hostility scores as measured by the HDHQ.

The Population

The population was a self contained group of students enrolled during the spring semester at Knoxville College. Class size was small due to low enrollment for the spring semester, therefore participants from the football team and eight classes instead of four were used and doubled to obtain the 130 participants of this study. Only one student stated that he did not wish to participate in the study. A few subjects turned in blank answer sheets which automatically withdrew them from the study.

The Instrument

The instrument used in this study was the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HDHQ). A total of 51

items make up the HDHQ. It takes approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete the instrument. The HDHQ has been used to assess the hostility and direction levels of normal and abnormal subjects. The items that make up the HDHQ were taken from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.

Every effort was made to ensure that the administration of the instrument was uniform. The one student who verbally chose not to participate was asked to wait outside the classroom until the experiment was completed. Instructors were asked to remain in the classroom while subjects watched the video and completed the HDHQ. This was to ensure regular classroom etiquette during the testing/video period.

Little variation was made in administering the instrument. After an explanation of the purpose of the study was given, all students received a packet which included the HDHQ, an answer sheet, one pencil, and two informed consent forms (one to keep and one to sign and return).

Each participant's packet was collected upon completion of the HDHQ. A few students failed to answer the last question on the HDHQ, probably not realizing that the HDHQ consisted of fifty-one, not fifty items.

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF STUDY

One of the strengths of this study was the use of the Solomon Four-group Design which controls for most threats to internal validity. Not a single study in the review of literature dealing with violence which employed the Solomon Four-Group Design was found. Use of the design, which incorporates a pretest, strongly enhances the strength of one's research results. Research involving the effects of viewing violence on attitudes, feelings, or behavior might strongly be enhanced by using a quasi-experimental design that measures whether a pretest effect exists in one's results. The results in the outcome of this research project found that a pretest effect was present. This study recorded significant hostility differences between males and females. Male students at Knoxville College registered much higher hostile feelings than female participants. This finding is consistent with other research addressing this topic. A major weakness of this study was a failure to obtain more male subjects than were acquired in the pretest-treatment-posttest group. This was very disheartening; however, after trying on several different occasions to utilize additional classes without success, it was necessary to settle for the results obtained in the two classes that were used.

Today many people from politicians to professors are

talking about the effects of watching violence on television and in theaters on our culture. This study was an attempt to address this question in a very sound experimental approach. Although this study won't end the debate concerning the effects of viewing violence, it has certainly addressed the problem in an very original and significant manner. This project, with its successes and failures, has substantially added to the body of knowledge pertaining to the effects of viewing depicted video violence.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Although no changes would be made in the structure of this study if it were to be undertaken again, this study could be strengthened with a few minor alterations. A larger sample size with an equal number of males to females in each group would allow for better comparisons between genders and groups. It would also be beneficial to use more recent movies for the treatment. Every individual in the treatment group claimed to have already seen *Boyz N the Hood* at least once prior to seeing the edited version constructed for this research project. Although the literature supported the use of *Something Wild*, and *Boyz N the Hood*, as movies that possibly encourage hostile feelings, current violent releases would probably be more likely to result in significant increases in the participants' hostility levels.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
STUDY INSTRUMENTS

P. AND P.I. QUESTIONNAIRES

HOSTILITY AND DIRECTION OF HOSTILITY QUESTIONNAIRE
PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE

by T.M. CAINE

and G.A. FOULDS

SURNAME
CHRISTIAN NAMES
SEX
OCCUPATION
MARITAL STATUS
DATE

INSTRUCTIONS:-

Please fill in this form by putting a circle round the "True" or the "False" after each of the statements overleaf. If you decide, ask yourself whether you think the statement is on the whole true or false and put a circle around the appropriate word.

Remember to answer each statement.

- | | | | |
|-----|--|-------------|--------------|
| 1. | Most people make friends because friends are likely to be useful to them. | True | False |
| 2. | I do not blame a person for taking advantage of someone who lays himself open to it. | True | False |
| 3. | I usually expect to succeed in things I do. | True | False |
| 4. | I have no enemies who really wish to harm me. | True | False |
| 5. | I wish I could get over worrying about things I have said that may have injured other people's feelings. | True | False |
| 6. | I think nearly anyone would tell a lie to keep out of trouble. | True | False |
| 7. | I don't blame anyone for trying to grab everything he can get in this world. | True | False |
| 8. | My hardest battles are with myself. | True | False |
| 9. | I know who, apart from myself, is responsible for most of my troubles. | True | False |
| 11. | Some of my family have habits that bother and annoy me very much. | True | False |
| 12. | I believe my sins are unpardonable. | True | False |
| 13. | I have very few quarrels with members of my family. | True | False |
| 14. | I have often lost out on things because I couldn't make up my mind soon enough. | True | False |
| 15. | I can easily make other people afraid of me, and sometimes do for the fun of it. | True | False |
| 16. | I believe I am a condemned person. | True | False |
| 17. | In school I was sometimes sent to the principal for misbehaving. | True | False |
| 18. | I have at times stood in the way of people who were trying to do something, not because it amounted to much but because of the principle of the thing. | True | False |

	fear of being caught.	True	False
20.	Sometimes I enjoy hurting persons I love.	True	False
21.	I have not lived the right kind of life.	True	False
22.	Sometimes I feel as if I must injure either myself or someone else.	True	False
23.	I seem to be about as capable and clever as most others around me.	True	False
24.	I sometimes tease animals.	True	False
25.	I get angry sometimes	True	False
26.	I am entirely self-confident.	True	False
27.	Often I can't understand why I have been so cross and grouchy.	True	False
28.	I shrink from facing a crisis or difficulty.	True	False
29.	I think most people would lie to get ahead.	True	False
30.	I have sometimes felt that difficulties were piling up so high that I could not overcome them.	True	False
31.	If people had not had it in for me I would have been much more successful.	True	False
32.	I have often found people jealous of my good ideas, just because they had not thought of them first.	True	False
33.	Much of the time I feel as if I have done something wrong or evil.	True	False
34.	I have several times given up doing a thing because I thought too little of my ability.	True	False
35.	Someone has it in for me.	True	False
36.	When someone does me a wrong I feel I should pay him back if I can, just for the principle of the thing.	True	False
37.	I am sure I get a raw deal from life.	True	False
38.	I believe I am being followed.	True	False

39.	At times I have a strong urge to do something harmful or shocking.	True	False
40.	I am easily downed in an argument.	True	False
41.	It is safer to trust nobody.	True	False
42.	I easily become impatient with people.	True	False
43.	At times I think I am no good at all.	True	False
44.	I commonly wonder what hidden reason another person may have for doing something nice for me.	True	False
45.	I get angry easily and then get over it soon.		
46.	At times I feel like smashing things.	True	False
47.	I believe I am being plotted against.	True	False
48.	I certainly feel useless at times.	True	False
49.	At times I feel like picking a fist fight with someone.	True	False
50.	Someone has been trying to rob me.	True	False
51.	I am certainly lacking in self-confidence.	True	False

APPENDIX B
HDHQ MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF
TWO SAMPLES OF NORMAL SAMPLES

Means and standard deviations from the HDHQ of two samples of normal subjects

S	n		AH	CO	PH	SC	G	HOST	DIR
M	16	<u>MN</u> SD	4.1 2.3	4.6 2.4	1.3 1.3	3.7 2.2	1.3 1.3	14.8 7.6	-1.3 3.0
F	31	<u>MN</u> SD	3.4 1.8	3.3 2.0	0.5 0.6	3.7 2.1	1.2 1.2	12.1 5.1	+1.5 5.1
M+F	47	<u>MN</u> SD	3.6 2.0	3.7 2.2	0.8 1.0	3.7 2.1	1.2 1.3	13.0 6.2	+0.5 4.6
M	15	<u>MN</u> SD	3.6 2.3	3.1 2.2	0.6 0.7	2.7 1.5	1.3 0.9	11.5 6.2	-0.6 7.3
F	15	<u>MN</u> SD	3.8 2.1	3.0 2.3	0.6 0.7	3.3 2.3	0.7 1.1	11.3 6.7	-0.2 5.6
M+F	30	<u>MN</u> SD	3.7 2.2	3.1 2.2	0.6 0.7	3.0 1.9	1.0 1.1	11.4 6.5	-0.4 6.6

APPENDIX C

LETTER TO KNOXVILLE COLLEGE

Gilbert W. Gipson
1611 Laurel Ave. Apt 513
Knoxville, Tn 37916
974-5041, work
523-6562, home
Feb. 22, 1995

Dear Dr. Bill Jon Wells,

Hello, my name is Gilbert W. Gipson. I am a former student and former instructor of Knoxville College and am currently completing my doctorate at the University of Tennessee. One of the requirements in completing the doctoral program in health education is that of a research project otherwise known as a dissertation. This is where your importance lies.

My research is with African American males and the effects of viewing episodes of media violence on their hostility levels. Having conversed with Dr. Wells, my plan is to obtain all participants from the Social Sciences Department. Approximately ninety African American male students divided into four groups will be needed to complete this research project. Two groups will watch a 15 (approximation) minute video tape of individuals who were perpetrators and/or recipients of violence. Participants will also complete a 15 minute true/false test entitled the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire, which determines various types of hostility. All participants will have complete anonymity and all information will be confidential. Participants can withdraw at any time during the research project. The purpose of the study is to assess the effect of viewing episodes of violence on the level of felt hostility among African American male college students at a historically black college.

This entire research project will take two weeks to complete. Three of the four classes used will complete the research in one class setting. Two class periods will be needed for subjects who will take the pretest, watch the video, and take the posttest. Data will be collected only on students with approved student informed consent forms.

If you have any questions regarding this request, please feel free to contact me at home or work.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Gilbert W. Gipson

APPENDIX D

LETTER TO PARTICIPATING INSTRUCTORS

Gilbert W. Gipson
1611 Laurel Ave. Apt. 513
Knoxville, Tn 37916
523-6562, home
974-5041 ,work

Dear Dr.

My name is Gilbert W. Gipson and I am writing to request your permission to utilize your class in a dissertation research study I am conducting among black college students. I would greatly appreciate your consent in this endeavor. Attached is a letter which explains in greater detail the specifics of the study. I hope you and your class can assist me in this very important project. If I can be of assistance to you please feel free to contact me by letter or phone.

Thank you

Gilbert W. Gipson

APPENDIX E

STUDENT INFORMED CONSENT FORM

STUDENT INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I, the below signed, understand that I am participating in a dissertation study to determine the attitudes and feelings of Black college students concerning television viewing in our society. A total of approximately 120 students will be take part in this study. I am participating voluntarily and anonymously and may withdraw at any time without any penalty. I have received no monetary incentives for participation in this study. My consent form will be stored in a locked file cabinet located in the Health, Leisure, and Safety Sciences department for a total of three years after the completion of this project. My data obtained from the questionnaire will be discarded once it has been analyzed and utilized. I further understand that under no circumstance will my personal identification be reported in any form.

(If you have any questions, ask them before you sign.)

Please print your name

Signature of student

Gilbert W. Gipson
Researcher
Division of Health,
Leisure, and Safety
Sciences University
of Tennessee,
Knoxville

VITA

Gilbert Gipson was born in Saint Louis, Missouri and raised in Burlington, Iowa where he received his early education in the Burlington City school system. Upon graduating from high school he entered Southeastern Community College, Burlington, Iowa where he received his Associate's in Science in 1981.

He received his Bachelor's of Science degree in Biological Sciences in the fall 1984. In 1987 He attended Knoxville College in Knoxville, Tennessee to pursue a degree in Piano Performance and complete his secondary teaching certification. During his stay at Knoxville College he applied to two graduate programs at the University of Tennessee, one in experimental psychology and the other in rehabilitation counseling. After confirming that his interests did not lie in experimental psychology he entered the Masters of rehabilitation counseling program in the spring of 1989, graduating in the fall of 1990.

In 1991 Gilbert received a Black Student Fellowship at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, and the following year became a Graduate Teaching Associate in the Health, Leisure, and Safety Sciences Department. He was awarded the Doctor of Philosophy in Education with an emphasis in Health Education in May of 1996.