Authors
Barbara Barrett, Carolyn Baxter, Camille G. Bell, Donna Couchenour, Renee Chreech, Charlene Crocker, Sue E. Butts, James M. DiNucci, Gloria E. Durr, Mack Hall, Lynn Luther, Melodie McDonald, Douglas Prewitt, Frank Smith, and Connie Spreadbury
STEPHEN F. AUSTIN STATE UNIVERSITY

REGENTS

Dan Haynes .................................................. 1991 .............................................. Burnet
Lavoy Moore .................................................. 1989 .............................................. Conroe
Homer Bryce ................................................... 1987 .............................................. Henderson
A. Nelson Rusche ............................................ 1989 .............................................. Houston
Mrs. Willa Murphy Wooten ................................. 1989 .............................................. Crockett
Richard Hyle .................................................... 1991 .............................................. Jasper
Mr. M. M. Stripling ......................................... 1991 .............................................. Nacogdoches
Mrs. Peggy Wright .......................................... 1993 .............................................. Nacogdoches
Mr. Kelly Jones ................................................ 1993 .............................................. Arlington

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

William R. Johnson ........................................... President
Baker Pattillo .................................................. Vice President for University Affairs
James Reese ..................................................... Vice President for Academic Affairs
Don Henry ....................................................... Vice President for Administrative and Fiscal Affairs
Eugene R. Barbin ............................................... Registrar
Clyde Iglinsky ................................................... Director of Admissions

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

W. Langston Kerr ............................................... Dean
Leon Young ..................................................... Agriculture
Bill W. Hamrick ............................................... Counseling and Special Education
Thomas D. Franks ............................................. Elementary Education
Carl Ray Kight ............................................... Health and Physical Education
Gloria Durr ...................................................... Home Economics
William Heeney ............................................... Secondary Education
TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. RESEARCH
CORONARY RISK FACTORS AMONG MIDDLE SCHOOL BOYS AND GIRLS ......................................................... 1
Sue E. Butts and James M. DiNucci
MALE OPINIONS OF CONSUMER AND HOMEMAKING EDUCATION ......................................................... 16
Camille G. Bell and Gloria E. Durr

II. HUMAN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT
CHILDREN IN CRISIS - AN APPLICATION OF THEORIES .............................................................................. 24
Nina Baxter
SINGLE PARENT FAMILIES: AN OVERVIEW ...................................................................................................... 29
Lynn Luther
TEACHERS AND PARENTS OF THE HANDICAPPED ...................................................................................... 35
Melodie McDonald
THE LITTLE RED-FACED FOSTER PARENT (A PARODY OF THE LITTLE RED HEN) .................................. 37
Carolyn Baxter

III. CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION
CLIMATE CAN SPELL SUCCESS ..................................................................................................................... 39
Charlene Crocker
DEAR OLD GOLDEN RULE DAYS .................................................................................................................. 44
Frank Smith
FABULOUS FRIDAY: A ONE DAY ENRICHMENT PROGRAM FOR GIFTED CHILDREN .............................. 46
Connie Spreadbury
ADAPTING TEACHING STYLES TO MEET THE NEEDS OF INDIVIDUAL LEARNERS ............................ 52
Barbara Barrett and Donna Coughenour
THE HOBBIT: OUT OF THE HOLE AND INTO THE CLASSROOM ................................................................ 58
Mack Hall

IV. LEADERSHIP
TEACHER ACCOUNTABILITY ........................................................................................................................... 60
Douglas Prewitt and Renee Creech

CONTRIBUTORS .............................................................................................................................................. 65

GUIDELINES FOR CONTRIBUTORS ................................................................................................................. Inside Back Cover
FOREWORD

The Stephen F. Austin State University Journal of Education is published by the University’s School of Education in Nacogdoches, Texas. Our purpose is to provide a forum for the interchange of ideas concerning the improvement of educational opportunities for the citizens of the State of Texas as well as the nation.

The editor solicits for publication manuscripts of any length which will assist in the improvement of education at all levels. Personal experiences, descriptions of techniques, research, theory development, reviews of research and books, or position papers may be submitted.

Submitted manuscripts will be reviewed by the editor and three committee members. Editing rights are reserved by the Journal. Manuscript requirements are outlined on the inside of the back cover.

The Journal is published annually courtesy of the School of Education. Views expressed are not necessarily those of the editor or the University.

Editor:
Duke Brannen
Journal of Education
Box 13018. SFA Station
Stephen F. Austin State University
Nacogdoches, Texas 75962-3018

Editorial Advisory Committee:
Mary Appleberry
Barbara Barrett
Sandra Cole
Charlene Crocker
David Grigsby
Sherry Rulfs

Cover Design:
Cindy Sebern, Interior Design Student
Coronary Risk Factors Among Middle School Boys and Girls

Sue E. Butts and James M. DiNucci

Introduction

Many studies have been conducted concerning the factors associated with coronary heart disease and atherosclerosis. Scientists now believe that coronary artery disease may actually have its roots very early in life, and any attempt to reduce premature deaths from heart disease should begin shortly after birth.

Atherosclerosis is defined as a disease of the blood vessels resulting from the interaction of multiple factors of heredity and environment (1). It is a disease in which cholesterol and other fats accumulate in the walls of the arteries and is directly responsible for the great majority of severe disabilities and deaths in the United States and other affluent societies. In the United States, cardiovascular disease is the leading cause of death, killing more people than all other causes combined (2).

Atherosclerosis is found universally in our population from adolescence onward (3). It begins in the first decade of life and develops gradually. Researchers are becoming more and more aware that pathologic changes which lead to atherosclerosis begin in infancy and progress through childhood. Fatty streaks are present in the aortas of virtually all children regardless of geographic location or diet by the age of three years (4). These fatty streaks may remain unchanged, disappear, or develop into atherosclerotic plaques. The fatty streaks found in coronary arteries in these early years may be related to subsequent atherosclerotic plaques later in life (5). The fact that atherosclerotic plaque is present in the coronary arteries of apparently healthy young men has been documented by research conducted during the Korean and Vietnam conflicts (6,7).

A number of risk factors have been proposed for coronary heart disease. Those identified as major risk factors include heredity, serum cholesterol level (affected by diet), elevated blood pressure, obesity, smoking, and a number of electrocardiogram abnormalities. Each of these has been clearly implicated and shown to make an independent contribution to risk (8,9,10).

Environmental risk factors which influence the rate of progression and frequency of cardiovascular disease are known to be influenced by dietary habits and life-style (4).
Researches have stressed that prevention or delay of complications of atherosclerosis is dependent on the ability to alter environmental factors early in life. It is recommended that efforts to alter nutritional, physical activity, and smoking habits should begin in infancy and childhood. Others (11) in discussing hypertension in children recommend simple prevention measures, especially for children at risk, which include reduction of fat and salt intake, well-balanced diet, enough physical activity, and avoidance of unnecessary stresses. These recommendations in principle are those compatible with healthy living.

The overall objective of this research project was to contribute to the body of knowledge concerning risk factors for coronary heart disease among children. Through this effort, greater emphasis can be placed on the education of parents and young children in the hope of drastically reducing the incidence of heart disease in the future.

Objectives

The primary purpose of the study was to identify the extent of coronary risk factors in a random sample of sixth, seventh, and eighth-grade boys and girls. Specific objectives were:

1. To develop and administer a questionnaire to investigate dietary and life-style habits of the subjects in order to determine the possible presence of factors that could lead to a high coronary heart disease risk factor profile.

2. To determine physical measurements by a battery of tests administered to each child individually to detect present and future risk of coronary heart disease.

3. To examine the data through statistical analysis, using primarily descriptive techniques, to determine differences due to age, sex, or race.

4. To determine the risk factor profile for coronary heart disease among this group of children based on the factors identified in the study.

Methods

Working through school administrators, permission was obtained for students to participate in the study. A questionnaire was developed to examine such factors as incidence of heart disease and related illnesses in each subject's family, the subject's life-style and level of physical activity, attitudes towards smoking, and dietary habits. In addition, some questions relative to the health habits of the parents were included.

Foods were grouped according to content of saturated fat, unsaturated fat, cholesterol, salt, refined carbohydrate (sugar), complex carbohydrate, and natural sugars. Subjects were asked to indicate the frequency of eating each food according to the following: usually two or more times each day, usually once each day, usually every other day, usually once or twice a week, usually once or twice a month, and rarely or never. Composite scores were used to determine frequency of intake of each category of foods.

Each student in the middle school was assigned a number, and a table of random numbers was used for subject selection. Initially, 30 boys and 30 girls were selected from
each of the three grades. In order to participate, each subject was required to participate in the physical testing and to complete the questionnaire. When the data were compiled, 150 students had completed the required tests including 76 boys and 74 girls.

Subjects were tested by grade on consecutive days. The physical testing was completed first. The measurements included standing height, body weight, subcutaneous body fat or skinfold measurements, and resting systolic and diastolic blood pressure readings. Measurement of height and weight, without shoes, was made with calibrated Heathometer physician's scales. Body weight was recorded to the nearest one-fourth pound. Lange skinfold calipers were used for measurement of skinfold thickness of the triceps and subscapular areas. The median score was recorded. Blood pressure was recorded using the left arm, and at least two readings were completed. A child-size blood pressure cuff was used.

Data were analyzed at the university computer center through the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (12). Standards for height and weight were adapted from Stuart (13), taken from Nelson's *Textbook of Pediatrics*. These standards provide a means of placing the subject in the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th, or 95th percentile, depending on the stage of growth. The subject was considered overweight if the weight fell 20 percent or more above the average for his/her height.

The standards of skinfold measurements were taken from F.E. Johnson et al., "Skinfold Thickness of Children 6-11 Years" (14) and "Skinfold Thickness of Youth 12-17 Years" (15). The measurement was considered excessive if it fell above the 75th percentile for the age and sex of the subject. Total skinfold values of 22, 21, 22, and 20 millimeters were the 75th percentile values for males ages 11, 12, 13, and 14 years respectively. For females of these same ages, the values were 25, 27, 30, and 32 millimeters. If the tricep and subscapular skinfold measurement exceeded these values, the subject was classified as overweight. The standards for the evaluation of systolic and diastolic blood pressure were taken from Sidney Blumenthal et al., "Report of the Task Force on Blood Pressure Control in Children" (16).

**Results and Discussion**

Data were analyzed for 150 subjects from the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. Participants included 76 boys (50.66 percent) and 74 girls (49.33 percent). Of the 11-year-olds, 14 (9.33 percent) were male, and 13 (8.66 percent) were female. Of the 12-year-olds, 29 (19.33 percent) were male, and 31 (20.66 percent) were female. The 13-year-olds included 23 males (15.33 percent) and 21 females (14 percent). There were 10 (6.66 percent) males and 9 (6 percent) females among the 14-year-olds.

In the three grades, the number of participants was well distributed, and the division by sex was similar. Forty-seven subjects were in the sixth grade, 23 males (15.33 percent of the total group) and 24 females (16 percent). In the seventh grade, 53 subjects accounted for 27 of the males (18 percent) and 26 of the females (17.33 percent). Of the 50 subjects in the eighth grade, 26 were male (17.33 percent), and 24 were females (16 percent).
The sample was representative of the races present in the community. Ninety-nine (66 percent) of the subjects indicated that they were Anglo or white, 45 (30 percent) were black, three (2 percent) were Hispanic, two (1.33 percent) were Oriental, and one (.66 percent) was Asian.

**Physical Measurements**

The anthropometric measurements revealed that five subjects (3.33 percent) had blood pressure readings above normal. Of these, one was a black male. Of the four females, one was Anglo, and three were black. This finding corresponds to those of other researchers who have found a higher incidence of hypertension among black children and youths than among similar white populations (17). Of the subjects with high blood pressure readings, only the male was not overweight. All five indicated that they had a low level of activity, and three of the five had a family history of heart disease and hypertension. A diet high in fat and/or sugar was a factor for four of the five subjects. The finding of elevated blood pressure in a child indicates that the child may be at increased risk for future hypertension (18).

In the total group, 36 percent had skinfold measurements above normal. Almost 45 percent of the boys and 27 percent of the girls were identified as having high skinfold measurements. Higher measurements were shown for 12 and 13-year-old boys and for 13-year-old females than for other age groups.

More than 45 percent of the subjects were overweight, based on standards for their age and sex. Forty-nine percent of the males and almost 42 percent of the females fell in this group. More females reported as overweight than were shown to have high skinfold measurements. Statistics for both boys and girls show the 12 and 13-year-old age groups to have the highest number of overweight subjects.

The role of obesity in producing cardiovascular disease is a matter of some controversy, but it is clear that obesity promotes multiple atherogenic traits, including elevation of blood lipids, elevation of blood pressure, impairment of glucose tolerance, and elevation of uric acid values (19). The environmental factor most often identified as contributing to hypertension is obesity (18).

**Exercise Habits**

The questionnaire included several questions concerning after-school activities of the subjects in order to determine their level of physical activity. The overall level was determined by a composite score. Activity was considered light or very light if the subject checked that the favorite after-school activity was watching television; listening to the radio, records or tapes; studying or reading; playing indoors; or talking on the telephone and if more than two hours per day were spent in sedentary activities after school in addition to hours spent sitting in the classroom. Table 3 shows the type of after-school activities
reported. Students were asked to check only one answer, indicating the most frequent after-school activity. More boys and girls watched television than any other activity with almost 33 percent of the boys and 35 percent of the girls checking this answer. However, 26 percent of the boys play outdoors, and 13 percent practice a sport. Almost 15 percent of the girls study or read, and 13.5 percent play outdoors.

The level of very light activity among the children was investigated. When asked how many hours daily were spent watching television, 27.6 percent of the boys and 39 percent of the girls checked the highest level of five hours or more. This was the highest percentage indicated in each group. Only 7.89 percent of the boys and 9.45 percent of the girls checked one hour or less.

When asked about other sedentary activities such as studying, reading, or talking on the telephone, 38 percent of the boys checked one hour or less, and 30 percent checked two hours. Females checked two hours most frequently (28.37 percent) with 20.27 percent checking five hours or more.

Subjects were also given the opportunity to report more strenuous activities, such as basketball, baseball, bicycling, bowling, frisbee, golf, jogging or running, jumping rope, skating, skateboard, soccer, swimming, tennis, and volleyball. They reported the hours per day for these activities. The most frequently checked answer for males was three hours (26.31 percent); however, 71 percent indicated only one to three hours of activity daily. Female subjects checked two hours most frequently (37.83 percent). One-half to two hours of activity accounted for 68.9 percent of the female subjects. It should be noted that researchers studying the cardiac response to exercise in children ages six to ten report a positive trend with increasing physical activity and age (20).

History of Personal and Family Health

Data concerning the personal and family health history were obtained from the questionnaire which asked about the incidence of cardiovascular and related diseases. Outstanding among illnesses checked for parents by both boys and girls was high blood pressure with 14.66 percent of the boys and 16 percent of the girls checking this category. For grandparents, the most frequently checked was heart attack (14 percent of the boys and 13.33 percent of the girls), high blood pressure (12.66 percent of the boys and 14.66 percent of the girls), and stroke (7.33 percent of the boys and 11.33 percent of the girls). Information concerning all family members and the subjects was tabulated.

Although we cannot control such risk factors as age, sex, and heredity, detection is possible. Blood pressure screening may be the most useful single factor for detecting persons at high risk for cardiovascular disease. A large body of evidence indicates that elevated blood pressure is the most potent antecedent to many diseases of the cardiovascular system (10).
Smoking

Information concerning smoking habits of parents is encouraging. Forty-three percent of both boys and girls indicated that neither parent smokes. However, both parents smoke in many homes as indicated by 21.05 percent of the boys and 25.67 percent of the girls. If only one parent smokes, it is most frequently the father (30.26 percent for the boys and 18.91 percent for the girls).

Almost 20 percent (19.73) of the boys and 23 percent of the girls have friends who smoke. Three subjects (one 11-year-old, one 12-year-old, and one 13-year-old) already smoke, and one subject indicated an intention to begin smoking. Although this is a very small percentage of the total group, it is a concern that children of these ages have already begun a health-endangering habit.

Dietary Habits

Subjects were asked how many meals they usually eat on a school day. A majority of the boys (67.10 percent) and of the girls (52.70 percent) indicated that they eat three meals daily. However, a large number eat only one meal (14.47 percent of the boys and 16.21 percent of the girls) or two meals (11.84 percent of the boys and 24.32 percent of the girls) each day. Over five percent in each group reported eating more than three meals daily, and 1.3 percent of both boys and girls ate no regular meals.

Snacks may be replacing some meals for the children. When asked how many snacks they have per day, only 3.94 percent of the boys and 5.4 percent of the girls reported having no snacks. The most frequently indicated number of snacks for both boys and girls was two per day (36.48 percent of the girls and 27.63 percent of the boys). However, one, two, and three snacks were all checked frequently. Over 10 percent of the boys and more than 5 percent of the girls had five or more snacks daily.

The children were asked to recall the number of times specific foods were eaten. The foods were grouped according to their content of total fat (including fried foods), saturated fat, polyunsaturated fat, cholesterol, sugar, alcohol, salt, complex carbohydrate (grain products and vegetables), and natural sugars. This division of foods enabled the researchers to get a total picture of the dietary habits of the children.

The exact cause of atherosclerosis is unknown, but during the last 50 years, medical science had identified a number of factors thought to increase an individual's chances of developing this condition. Among the dietary risk factors identified by Hui (22) are the following:

High caloric intake
High fat intake, especially saturated fat; insufficient polyunsaturated fat intake
High cholesterol intake
High sucrose intake
Although the study examined the total diet, this paper will treat only the intake of dietary fat, sugar, and salt. Dietary factors have been shown to affect blood lipids, and serum cholesterol has been shown to be a major risk factor for coronary heart disease; populations with high intakes of dietary sodium show a greater frequency of hypertension.

**Dietary Fat.** Diets were evaluated for content of fat based on 26 foods which were either fried foods or food sources of saturated fat. Examples of the latter are bacon, sausage, luncheon meats, hot dogs, pork or ham, beef (steaks, ribs, chops, roast), hamburger, butter, cheddar cheese, whole milk, and pizza. If there were three or more checks in column one and/or two combined, the subject had the equivalent of 21 to 42 servings of these foods per week. Columns one and two stated that the food was eaten “usually two or more times each day” and “usually once each day.” Sixty-six percent of the total group had diets high in fat when using this method of evaluation. This is not an unusual percentage since the average diet in the United States is excessively high in fat kcalories, but it is a cause for concern. The trends are similar regardless of age or sex of the children.

The children were asked about their consumption of fish, poultry, nuts, and peanut butter, all of which contribute some polyunsaturated fats and much less saturated fat to the diet. Levels of consumption of these foods were much lower than those for foods containing saturated fats (chiefly meats and cheeses). Only 11 percent of the boys and fewer than 8 percent of the girls indicated that these foods were included in the diet daily or two or more times a day. About 20 percent in each group indicated that they are included once or twice a week (20.3 percent of the boys and 18.72 percent of the girls). Patterns of consumption among the four age groups were similar.

Foods listed as sources high in cholesterol included eggs, organ meats (liver, brains, chitterlings), shrimp, lobster, oysters, and other shellfish. Milk was not listed in this group. Except for eggs, the children ate these foods infrequently. Almost 57 percent of the boys and 60 percent of the girls rarely or never ate the foods listed. This is not reassuring, however, since saturated fat, shown to be abundant in their diets, is the chief source of cholesterol manufactured in the body.

The evidence linking diet to lipid values is broadly based on animal experiments, metabolic studies in humans, autopsy data, radioisotope studies, tracing cholesterol and fat from the diet into lesions, and prospective epidemiologic studies relating lipids to the development of atherosclerotic diseases (21). There is evidence showing that alteration in the diet does in fact reduce the potential for disease.

**Dietary Sugar.** A high level of refined sugar in the diet has been suggested as a dietary risk factor in atherosclerosis (22). Common food sources of sugar were listed in nine categories in the questionnaire and included ice cream, sundaes, banana splits, malts, milkshakes, candy, cookies, cakes, pies, donuts, sweetrolls, jams, jellies, syrups, fruit punch or juice, regular soft drinks, and coffee or tea with sugar. If a minimum of 14 to 28 servings per week was checked, the diet was evaluated as high in refined sugar. Almost 68 percent of the girls and 64 percent of the boys had at least that number of servings.
Although some of the foods were not eaten by some of the children, all of the subjects had some source of refined sugar in the diet.

A high dietary sugar intake is often accompanied by excessive kcallories. It has been suggested that children be instructed in rational intake of kcallories beginning in infancy and childhood since long-term kcalloric imbalance which results in obesity increases proneness to hypertension, hyperlipidemia, and hyperglycemia (3).

The chief sources of natural sugars are fruits and milk, both desirable components of a balanced diet. The children were asked to recall the frequency of consuming 10 common foods containing natural sugars. Eighteen percent of the boys and almost 21 percent of the girls had these foods daily or two or more times a day. Some of the foods in this group were rarely or never eaten by 37 percent of the boys and 39 percent of the girls. Fourteen-year-olds of both sexes tended to have these foods less often than other age groups.

Dietary salt. Subjects were asked if they usually salted their food at the table. Thirty-eight percent of the boys and almost 57 percent of the girls indicated that they do. In both groups, 12 and 13-year-olds most often answered this question affirmatively.

Seven types of food high in salt were listed in the questionnaire. Examples are chips, all kinds; crackers, all kinds; pickles and olives; cold cuts and weiners; bacon, sausage, and ham; pretzels and cheese-twists; and salted nuts. Over 27 percent of the girls and 21 percent of the boys had diets consistently high in salty foods as indicated by checking the food as eaten once a day or two or more times a day.

Researchers have suggested that the time of life when an individual is exposed to high level of sodium in the diet may be of importance (18). Animal studies indicate that the ingestion of a high sodium diet immediately after weaning may cause the development of much more severe and lethal hypertension; thus, a high salt intake early in life may be especially harmful.

Differences Due to Race

Some differences due to race were expected in the risk factor profile for coronary heart disease. As previously noted, of the five subjects with high blood pressure (3.33 percent of the population), four were black, and one was white. This is consistent with the findings of other researchers (17).

Other differences may be noted. The primary difference among those with skinfold measurements above normal was the higher percentage of white males (48 percent) as compared to black males (11 percent). There was a similar difference in those with weight above average (35 percent and 6 percent respectively). These percentages refer to the populations with those risk factors. Although the total population included three times as many white males as black, this is a disproportionate percentage. In contrast, there were slightly higher proportions of black females than white in both these categories. Black female subjects most frequently engaged in light activity. Outstanding differences in eating patterns, as evaluated in this study, were not noted due to race.
Risk Factors for Cardiovascular Disease

Risk factors for cardiovascular disease as defined in this study are summarized for this sample by age and sex in Table 1. Risk factors identified were the following: blood pressure above normal, excessive subcutaneous fat levels, weight above normal for height, personal and/or family history of illness related to the cardiovascular system, light physical activity, diet high in refined sugars, diet high in saturated and total fats, and smoking.

As expected in a group of 11 to 14-year-old children, few had high blood pressure. Only five (3.33 percent) of the total group, including one male (1.31 percent) and four females (5.4 percent) had this risk factor. Smokers were also few in number with a total of three (2 percent), two boys (2.63 percent), and one girl (1.35 percent).

Fifty-four (36 percent) had skinfold measurements above the 75th percentile, including 34 boys (44.73 percent) and 20 girls (27.02 percent).

Subjects with weights above normal totaled 68 (45.33 percent), with 32 boys (42.1 percent) and 36 girls (48.64 percent) in this group.

The risk factor found most frequently in both groups (131 subjects or 87.33 percent) was family history of cardiovascular disease. Sixty-two boys (81.57 percent) and 69 girls (93.24 percent) reported this factor. Physical activity was determined to be light for 84 (56 percent) of the subjects, with 35 boys (46.05 percent) and 49 girls (66.21 percent) reporting this activity level.

Dietary factors related to increased blood lipid levels and serum cholesterol were a frequent finding among these subjects. Ninety-nine subjects (66 percent) were reported to have diets high in refined sugar, and the same number (66 percent) had diets high in saturated and total fat.

A risk factor profile for the total population is presented in Figure 1. Although the highest risk factor is genetic, the five other factors which are high are subject to some environmental control.

Risk Factor Profile

Risk factor profiles were determined for the individual subjects. The study was designed to identify eight risk factors in the subjects. The greatest number of risk factors to be identified in an individual was seven, found in an 11-year-old black female who exhibited all the factors except smoking. Eight of the subjects (5.33 percent) were found to have six risk factors; five of these were female (6.75 percent), and three were male (3.94 percent). More boys than girls had five risk factors (26.31 percent and 16.21 percent respectively). Four risk factors were identified in 39.18 percent of the female subjects and 17.1 percent of the males. Three risk factors were present for 26.31 percent of the males and 22.97 percent of the females. Twenty percent of the subjects had fewer than three risk factors. Only one subject was found to have no risk factors. The incidence of risk factors in the total population is presented in Figure 2.
### TABLE I. Risk Factors for Cardiovascular Disease by Age and Sex

#### RISK FACTORS FOR CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE BY AGE AND SEX: MALE SUBJECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those With High Blood Pressure</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those With Skinfold Above Normal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.78</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those With Weight Above Normal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.78</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal/Family History of Illness</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.78</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31.57</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity Light</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.78</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diet High in Refined Sugars</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14.47</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26.31</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diet High in Saturated Fats</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14.47</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23.68</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who Smoke</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### RISK FACTORS FOR CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE BY AGE AND SEX: FEMALE SUBJECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those With High Blood Pressure</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those With Skinfold Above Normal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.45</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those With Weight Above Normal</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20.27</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal/Family History of Illness</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16.21</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40.54</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity Light</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.81</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25.67</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diet High in Refined Sugars</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.51</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22.97</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diet High in Saturated Fats</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25.67</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Those who Smoke</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIGURE 2: Incidence of Risk Factors in Total Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Risk Factors</th>
<th>Number of Subjects</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.00 *****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.33 *******</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>24.66 ********************</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>28.00 ********************</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.33 ********************</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.33 *****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary

Possible risk factors related to cardiovascular disease which were identified in the study are the following: blood pressure above normal, skinfold measurements above normal, weight above normal for height, personal and/or family history of illness related to cardiovascular system, light physical activity, diet high in refined sugars, diet high in saturated and total fats, and smoking. A summary of the findings follows:

1. In the random sample of 11 to 14-year-old boys and girls tested, 3.33 percent or five subjects had high blood pressure.
2. Four of the five children with high blood pressure were black.
3. Four of the five subjects with high blood pressure were overweight females.
4. Thirty-six percent of the subjects had skinfold measurements above the 75th percentile, including 44.73 percent of the boys and 27.02 percent of the girls.
5. Subjects with weights above normal accounted for 45.33 percent of the total group (42.1 percent of the boys and 48.64 percent of the girls).
6. More white male subjects had above average weight and skinfold measurements than did black males.
7. The risk factor found most frequently in the group was a family history of cardiovascular disease (87.33 percent).
8. Physical activity levels were light for 56 percent of the subjects.
9. Girls were more sedentary than boys (66.21 percent reported light activity as compared to 46.05 percent of the boys).
10. A sharp decrease in physical activity was noted in 14-year-old females.
11. Sixty-six percent of the subjects reported having diets high in refined sugars.
12. Sixty-six percent of the subjects had diets high in saturated and total fat.
13. In this group of 11 to 14-year-olds, 2 percent are smokers.
14. The risk factor profile for cardiovascular disease compiled from the data indicated that 86.45 percent of the subjects had three or more risk factors.
15. The most prevalent profile identified was the four risk factors; 39.18 percent of the subjects fell in this group.
16. Five risk factors were present in 16.21 percent of the population, and six risk factors were found in 6.75 percent of the group.
17. The highest risk profile identified was for seven risk factors, found in one black female with all the risk factors except smoking.
18. Only one subject had no risk factors.

Some conclusions may be drawn from the study:

1. Risk factor profiles can be determined for possible prediction of coronary heart disease.
2. Children are at risk for cardiovascular disease.
3. Environmental risk factors can be identified and attempts made to alter them.
4. Environmental risk factors in need of alteration include overweight; overfatness; low levels of physical activity; dietary excesses of sugars, total fat, and saturated fat; and the habit of smoking.

Recommendations of the researchers reflect and reinforce those of previous studies:

1. Efforts to form good nutrition habits, encourage higher physical activity levels, and discourage smoking should begin in infancy and childhood.
2. Greater emphasis should be placed on the education of parents of young children concerning risk factors for heart disease.
3. Intervention programs should be encouraged as part of the education process in schools and communities.
4. Risk profiles for coronary heart disease should be used more widely as a tool for predicting future problems.
5. Public awareness should be increased through the efforts of physicians, educators, and researchers.

References

Males Opinions of Consumer and Homemaking Education
Camille G. Bell and Gloria E. Durr

Secondary home economics programs have been described by persons inside and outside the profession as a stronghold of sexist attitudes relating to roles of men and women. The problem of attitudes toward vocational homemaking education for males was addressed in a statement prepared by a coalition of representatives from the American Vocational Association, the American Home Economics Association, and the Home Economics Education Association. These organizations are concerned with home economics education. The following quotation is from the Coalition Statement:

Society generally has viewed homemaking as female's work and home economics as a field for females. Male students, therefore, may not be enrolled in homemaking courses and miss the opportunities for preparation in parenting, consumer decision-making and nutrition, however, when sexism is eliminated it is possible for homemaking education courses to serve everybody. Homemaking education cannot reach all students when the following conditions exist: facilities and number of teachers are limited, the program is not truly a vocational program and the curriculum includes specific skills of interest only to a part of the school population, and any group is discouraged from enrolling.

A review of literature revealed that vocational homemaking education has slowly emerged from a predominantly female-oriented discipline to one that is meaningful to both males and females. There is a need to liberate the male from the consequences of stereotyping. Barriers that prevent males from enrolling in home economics at the secondary level must be removed and equity of homemaking curriculum for males should be established.

The mission of home economics emphasizes participation by males in all areas of the discipline. The degree of participation by males in home economics education at the secondary level has increased steadily throughout the first half of the 20th century. A dramatic upswing in enrollment in the last decade is a result of the federal legislation, Title IX and Public Law 94482.
Legislators have recognized that increasing inflation has influenced a greater number of women to work outside the home. With approximately one-half of all adult women in the work force, there is an unprecedented need for education of both men and women to assist in sharing child-rearing, shopping, financial management and meal preparation and other family responsibilities. The increasing complexity and changing character of homemaker roles and tasks seem to require that organized opportunities for learning these responsibilities be enhanced and expanded.

Another important reason for teaching the above responsibilities is that over six million males were living alone in 1978 as reported by the Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce. Of this number, almost 45 percent were single and almost 14 percent were under 25 years of age. These data appear to indicate a growing need to prepare young men to manage a home as a single person. Added to this is the small but growing number of single fathers and the greatly increasing number of husbands sharing homemaking responsibilities with working wives.

**Purpose**

The major purposes of the study were: 1) to determine the perception of males regarding Consumer and Homemaking Education to categories of sex-stereotyped problems and attitudes toward the importance of subject matter areas of home economics, and 2) to determine whether significant background variables affected males' perception of problems relative to participation in homemaking education as well as their attitudes toward the importance of each homemaking subject area content.

**Development of Instrument**

A rating scale questionnaire was designed to collect data. Demographic items were developed to obtain information about the male student in the first part of the instrument. The next part of the rating scale questionnaire was developed around problems perceived by males in taking vocational homemaking education. Content validity was obtained by a literature review and by consulting homemaking teachers and male students enrolled in vocational homemaking classes. Items were developed for each of the following categories:

- Attitudes toward vocational homemaking as an appropriate course for males.
- Perceptions of the usefulness of vocational homemaking education in achievement of personal and career goals.
- Acceptance of male-female role-meshing in family responsibilities.
- Provision of facilities and instructional material suitable for male learners.

The third part of the instrument was designed to determine males' perception of the importance of concepts taught in subject matter areas of homemaking education. The
instrument was field tested in Texas secondary homemaking classes in Lubbock, Nacogdoches, and Lewisville areas. Ninety-four male homemaking students in grades 9-12 completed the questionnaire. Ethnic background of students completing the questionnaire was varied. Of the total, seven were Mexican-American, 31 were black, 53 were white-non hispanic, two were German-American and one was native American. Average completion time for the questionnaire by students was thirty minutes.

The questionnaire was revised according to comments from students and observations of researchers and teachers who administered the instrument. Substantial revisions were made in the background information sections to clarify directions and items.

**Methodology**

**Sample**

The project sample was selected using simple randomized selection procedures. Selections were made from the computer by print-out list entitled “Teacher Summary by Assignment Code” obtained from the Texas Education Agency. Responses were received from 185 teachers who collected data from 1979 male students. A description of the males involved in the study can be found in Table I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Profile of sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 1,979</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 - 10</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 12</td>
<td>1495</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A - B</td>
<td>1079</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C - D</td>
<td>861</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglos</td>
<td>623</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1326</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment of student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>923</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not employed</td>
<td>1038</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment of mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>1838</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not employed</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Some sub-totals do not equal 1,979 due to some students omitting this item.
Analysis of Data

The data were analyzed by computers using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) sub programs Frequencies and Cross Tabs. The method of analysing was primarily descriptive, using means, medians, frequencies and relative percentages to describe both individual and categorical items pertaining to the various research questions. Chi-square analysis yielded a measure of significant differences to provide support information.

Results and Discussion

Problems perceived by males taking vocational homemaking education were analyzed to determine differences between groups within each significant background variable for the categories of problems. The category concerning attitudes toward vocational homemaking as an appropriate course for males — had higher mean scores for those in grades 11-12, who had a grade point average of A-B, who were Anglos, who were employed, and who had non-employed mothers.

| TABLE 2 |
| Categories of problems related to background variables |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Attitudes</th>
<th>Usefulness</th>
<th>Role meshing</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 - 10</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>12.99**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 12</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>5.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A - B</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C - D</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglo</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment of student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not employed</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment of mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not employed</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* indicates significance at the 5 percent level
** indicates significance at the 1 percent level
*** indicates significance at the 1 thousandth level
Chi square values also shown in Table 2 indicate significant differences at the .05 level for the variables of grade point average, ethnic group, and student employment.

Data pertaining to perceptions of the usefulness of vocational homemaking education in achievement of personal and career goals are presented in Table 2. Mean scores indicate that males exhibit a more favorable perception when they are enrolled in grades 9-10, have a grade point average of A-B, belong to the Anglo ethnic group, are not employed and whose mothers are employed. Significant differences are noted in Table 2 in the categories of grade level (.05 level), grade point average (.01 level) and ethnic group (.001 level).

The male-female role meshing in family and occupational responsibilities was accepted more favorably by males in grades 11-12, who had a grade point average of A-B, who were not employed and whose mothers were not employed. The mean scores of Anglos and minority students were identical in this category. Chi square values revealed a significant difference at the .05 level in the area of students not employed (Table 2).

Data describing attitudes toward facilities and instructional materials as being suitable for male learners and presented in Table 2. Mean scores indicate that a more favorable attitude is held by males who were in grades 11-12, had a grade point average of A-B, were Anglo, were not employed, and whose mothers were not employed. A significant difference is noted only in the ethnic group variable at the .01 level.

The last sections of the rating scale questionnaire pertained to the attitudes of male students toward six curriculum areas of vocational homemaking education. The areas surveyed included:

a. home management and consumer education
b. family living
c. child development
d. housing and furnishings
e. foods and nutrition
f. clothing and textiles

The rank order of the importance of subject matter content is presented in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject matter</th>
<th>Rank order</th>
<th>Overall mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home management and consumer education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family living</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods and nutrition</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing and home furnishings</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing and textiles</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.676</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall mean scores in Table 3 indicate that males rated all subject matter areas of homemaking as somewhat important on a five-point scale with five being the highest rating. The rank order of importance shown in Table 3 places child development as the highest in importance and clothing and textile as the lowest. Home management and consumer education ranked second, family living third, foods and nutrition fourth and housing and home furnishings fifth.

A comparison of subgroups in selected background variables for males' opinions of six homemaking subject matter areas can be found in Table 4.

**TABLE 4**

Male opinions of child development, management and consumer education, and family living

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Child development</th>
<th>Management consumer ed.</th>
<th>Family living</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grade level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 - 10</td>
<td>4.06**</td>
<td>3.84**</td>
<td>3.83**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20.67</td>
<td>24.50</td>
<td>15.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 12</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GPA</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A - B</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>3.98*</td>
<td>3.95**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.53</td>
<td>15.88</td>
<td>15.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C - D</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnic group</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglo</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.85**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.83</td>
<td>23.27</td>
<td>14.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment of student</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>3.98*</td>
<td>3.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>12.82</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not employed</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment of mother</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not employed</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*indicates significance at the 5 percent level  
** indicates significance at the 1 percent level

In the area of child development, the data indicate greater acceptance by males in grades 11-12, who had a grade point average of A-B, in the minority ethnic group, employed and whose mothers were employed. A highly significant difference (.001 level) is noted in the variable of grade level.
Data pertaining to home management and consumer education show that mean scores are higher for male students who are in grade 11-12, have a grade point average of A-B, in the minority group, are employed and whose mothers are employed. Significant differences at the .05 level are observed for the background variable of grade point average and student employment while highly significant differences (.001 level) are rated for grade level and ethnic categories (Table 4).

Mean scores indicate greater acceptance by males for the family living area in the categories of grade point average, of A-B, minority ethnic group, employed student, and students with employed mothers. Significant differences for the background variables of grade level (.05 level), grade point average (.01 level) and ethnic group (.01 level) are rated in Table 4.

In the area of food and nutrition, higher mean scores are observed for male students in grades 11-12, have a grade point average of A-B, who are Anglo, who are not employed, and whose mothers are not employed. Table 5 shows that no significant differences in subgroups of background variable were found.

**TABLE 5**

**Male opinions of food and nutrition, housing and home furnishings, and clothing and textiles**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Food-nutrition</th>
<th>Housing-furnishings</th>
<th>Clothing-textiles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 - 10</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 12</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A - B</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C - D</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>5.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglo</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>5.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment of student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not employed</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment of mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not employed</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* indicates significance at the 5 percent level
** indicates significance at the 1 percent level
Data pertaining to opinions of males regarding the housing and home furnishings area indicate greater acceptance by males in grades 11-12, who have a grade point average of A-B, who are Anglo, employed, and whose mothers are employed. Table 5 shows that no significant differences in subgroups of the background variables were found.

Anglo males and those in grades 9-10 had higher mean scores in their rating of clothing and textiles. Significant differences are noted in the background variables of grade level (.05 level) and ethnic groups (.01 level). Table 5.

Summary

The findings of this study add new dimensions to teaching Consumer and Homemaking Education to males. The majority of males surveyed did not perceive that problems were encountered. However, the one-third who have concerns about all categories of sex stereotyped problems, presents a challenge to homemaking teachers. Now that they have been identified, methods of eliminating them can be established. The results of this study give evidence that certain background variables seem to affect males' perception of problems. Teachers making an effort to eliminate sex-stereotyped problems should determine the most prevalent background variables of students and try to eliminate problems accordingly.

This analysis indicates that male students are basically interested in all subject matter areas of Consumer and Homemaking Education. However teachers need to adjust some of the least popular areas to make them even more relevant to males. Provocative findings were found in the effect of subject matter areas in Consumer and Homemaking Education. Generally, students in the 11th and 12th grades viewed subject matter more important than those in the 9th and 10th grades. Grade point averages and ethnic group were significant in some of the subject matter areas. Particularly subject matter and learning experiences should be for males with varying abilities who are from different ethnic groups and who are enrolled in all grades of high school. Thus, the innovative teacher can become more alert to meeting the needs of males in our dynamic American culture.
Children in Crisis — An Application of Theories

Nina Baxter

During a period of ten years spent working directly with children in crisis situations — children abused and/or neglected by their parents or caretakers; the youths held in a juvenile detention facility for breaking society’s rules — many patterns were observed. This paper is not presented as a scientific study of those children and their families, but rather as an attempt to present a possible explanation for the behavior of the parents and children based on information known about the brain, and to suggest a method of working with these individuals.

The abused and neglected children ranged in age from birth through eighteen years of age. In cases where the physical or emotional abuse or neglect were severe, the children were removed from their parents and placed in foster care. Whether the children were returned to their parents or legally freed by the court for adoption depended upon the success of our work with the parents. In cases where the abuse or neglect was not judged to be severe enough to require removal of the child from the home, ongoing work with the family was the means for improving the situation while attempting to strengthen the family as a unit.

The detained youths ranged in age from ten through sixteen years of age. Their offenses included truancy, runaway, theft, auto theft, burglary, assault, rape, and murder. They were classified as delinquent or children in need of supervision (CHNS) based on the nature of the offense.

The characteristics listed below, while not evident in all cases, were repeated in many instances:

- Parents who abused their children had been brought up in a family where discipline was physical and often harsh.
- The abusing parents had been abused themselves as children.
- Parents who neglected their children had been brought up in families where physical and/or emotional attention and involvement had been minimal.
- Neither the abused/neglected children nor the abusing/neglectful parents had a good self image.
- The youths detained for breaking the law were making poor grades in school.
- The detained youths were from broken homes or homes in which there were serious family problems.
- The detained youths had a poor self image.

Consider the behavior of the abused child and the abusing parent and the behavior of the delinquent/CHNS youth while examining the components and development of a healthy personality as set out by Erik H. Erikson, and the Proster Theory of Leslie A. Hart. In the discussion of both personality development and Proster Theory, the actual subject is development of the brain.

The first five of Erikson’s phases (1) are significant in considering the areas set out in this paper:

- Phase I: Acquiring a Sense of Basic Trust While Overcoming a Sense of Basic Mistrust.
- Phase II: Acquiring a Sense of Autonomy While Combating a Sense of Doubt and Shame.
- Phase III: Acquiring a Sense of Initiative and Overcoming a Sense of Guilt.
- Phase IV: Acquiring a Sense of Industry and Fending Off a Sense of Inferiority.
- Phase V: Acquiring a Sense of Identity While Overcoming a Sense of Identity Diffusion.

The sense of trust develops during the first year of life. Erikson explains that trust requires physical attention “and a minimum experience of fear or uncertainty” (2). In the Fact Finding Report to the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, the evidence is that:

Psychiatrists find again and again that the most serious illnesses occur in patients who have been sorely neglected or abused or otherwise deprived of love in infancy (3).

The development of the sense of autonomy begins at twelve to fifteen months and continues for approximately the next two to three years. As the child is developing and demonstrating his independence based on his physical and psychological development, the parent is faced with the difficult responsibility of allowing and fostering this development while providing only the necessary regulations and limits. According to Erikson:

The degree and type of behavior permitted the child, and the way in which the control of his behavior is handled, will have direct bearing upon the individual’s attitude toward social organization and ideals later in his life (4).
The sense of initiative develops around ages four to five, and is a period of imagination and learning. This stage is also characterized by a very active — sometimes overactive — conscience. Children at this stage enjoy success in competition, and want to believe in their abilities for future success. The identification with the parent of the same sex is strengthened during this period.

The industry phase extends from approximately age six for the next five or six years. This is a period of growth which is more steady and successful if the three previous stages have been successfully developed. Children want to learn and want to be involved in "real tasks." Hass states:

Despite its unspectacular character, this is a very important period, for in it is laid a firm basis for responsible citizenship. It is during this period that children acquire not only knowledge and skills that make for good workmanship but also the ability to cooperate and play fair and otherwise follow the rules of the larger social game.

The identity phase begins with the onset of puberty. During this period of physical and psychological growth and change, the individual seeks to determine who he/she is and what his/her place is. It is difficult for the youth to assimilate his/her knowledge of self, beliefs, fears, concerns, successes, and failures into a clearly defined identity. In describing the youth in this stage who becomes delinquent, choosing a negative response, Erikson says that his identity presents "... a desperate attempt at regaining some mastery in a situation in which available positive identity elements cancel each other out."(6)

With the stages of personality development in mind, turn now to Leslie Hart's work in which he organizes the processes of the brain into programs. A collection of related programs is a proster, a term coined by Hart from "program structure."

In its most elemental terms, Proster Theory sees human behavior as resting on a two-step cycle.

1. Choosing, from an existing repertoire, a program that best seems to fit the observed situation.
2. Putting the program into effect (7).

Knowledge gained through any means is channeled by the brain to the appropriate programs.

So far as this main concept is concerned, it does not matter whether the programs composing a proster are long or short, few or many, simple or complex through subordinates. What counts is visualizing the brain not merely as a mass of neurons but as neurons organized into this basic system of prosters having billions of interconnections (8).
It follows then, that the appropriate program must be available for the appropriate action to take place.

In examining the behavior of the abused/neglected child who becomes an abusing/neglectful parent, two factors may be considered. One, the child did not, could not, develop the sense of trust required for a healthy personality. Two, because the only means of discipline learned as a child was physical abuse, there is no prosor for the parent to select to feel, act, respond in the manner necessary for the positive nurturing of her (his) child.

The poor self image said to characterize many abused/neglected children may result from mistreatment continuing during the period of development of the sense of autonomy. Physical and emotional abuse could, based on knowledge of development, cause a child to feel shame and worthlessness.

The lack of a sense of accomplishment brought about by failures in school or home during the industry phase could be responsible for the poor self image of the delinquent. In many instances, a youth with few successes in school will turn to areas where he can feel accomplishments — being “good” at breaking the rules.

Further insight into the youth’s failures in school may be gained through the theories of John Holt in *How Children Fail* (9), and Leslie Hart in *How the Brain Works* (10). Holt describes “fear” and Hart uses the term “threat” to explain children’s failures in school. According to Hart, the brain does not learn well under threat and “unless the learner feels at ease and secure, everything except the barest rote learning is inhibited.”11 This threat may be brought about by the conventional schools as described by Hart, which are structured around right answers. The child who cannot always respond with the right answers may be a failure in the conventional school although his talents and abilities are many and varied.

Because the individuals this paper focuses on cannot return to the original stages of personality development, and cannot develop appropriate prosters without input, the principles of Dr. William Glasser’s reality therapy could be productive.

Reality therapy is based upon the theory that all of us are born with at least two built-in psychological needs: (1) the need to belong and be loved and (2) the need for gaining self-worth and recognition (12).

The principles of reality therapy emphasize the importance of what an individual is doing now and for the future, without placing emphasis of the past. As presented in Naomi Glasser’s book of case studies, *What Are You Doing?* (13), the principles are effective for young people in and out of school settings as well as for adults.

The principles, briefly stated, are as follows:

1. Make friends — become involved with the individual in a sincere way.
2. Focus upon the individual’s daily activity and ask what he or she is doing now.
3. Ask the question "Is what you are doing helping you?"
4. Help the individual make a plan to do better.
5. Expect commitment to the plan.
6. Accept no excuses for failure to follow through with the plan.
7. Do not interfere with reasonable consequences of not doing better.
8. Don't give up easily. Start over.

The need for involvement is great, and the principles set out in reality therapy have been proven effective. The next step is implementation through schools, social agencies, and correction/detention facilities dealing with the individuals described.

References

2. Henry W. Maier, p. 31
4. Henry W. Maier, p. 43.
5. Glen Hass, p. 113.
8. Leslie A. Hart, p. 76.
Single-Parent Families: An Overview

Lynn Luther

Introduction

The traditional two-parent family that today's Baby Boomers grew up with is fast giving way to a single-parent household in which one adult must deal with the immense demands of making a living, raising children and getting the most out of their own lives.

Objectives, Functions, and Structure

A single-parent family consists of a parent, either male or female, single by choice, unwed mother or father, divorced, or widowed. Their major purpose is to serve as a family unit, providing a happy, healthy, normal environment for their children and themselves.

Building a happy home life is the number one priority of single-parent families. It takes a lot more than the mere presence of an adult to insure a happy, healthy, normal environment. Among the traits most common are:

* A willingness to speak and listen thoughtfully to each other. Close attention also is paid to "body language," signs, touches, periods of silence.

* The ability to bring quarrels to a quick and satisfying conclusion--without bearing grudges.

* Cooperation among family members in helping each other maintain a secure and positive self-image.

* An atmosphere of playfulness and humor but without sarcasm or put-downs.

* Clear parental guidelines on right and wrong.

* A system for sharing responsibility, particularly important in single parent families.

* Creation of a strong sense of unity and a respect for family traditions.

* Easy interaction among all family members. Everyone is encouraged to participate in events, and creation of factions is discouraged.

* The sharing of some common religious or ethical core, though not necessarily tied to an established church or denomination.
* Respect of each others' privacy.
* Development of a spirit of voluntarism and community service beyond the families' immediate needs.
* A desire to share some leisure time, but not all.
* A willingness, when serious problems can’t be solved, to go outside the family for help.

The day-to-day matters that two-parent families might take for granted can be major concerns for the single-parent. Single-parents must make arrangements for child care when they are at work. The child care needs will vary depending on the age of the child, parent’s vocation, salary, and most importantly availability and affordability. Another area that is a must in a single-parent household is the handling of daily needs. When it comes to taking care of the family chores: make a list of what must be done daily, eliminate or limit the unnecessary. decide who does what and when, establish a routine (and stick to it), set rewards and punishments. Next obstacle, the finances. Managing your budget may not be a concern unique to single-parent families but it is another that requires careful planning and examination.

Special concerns held by single-parent mothers are:

* **Working** - Can I work and still be a good mother? Can I get a job that pays enough to support my family?
* **Chores** - How can I possibly get all this housework done and go to work? Who’s going to cook when I have to work late? Who’s going to fix this or that when it no longer works right? Can I do it?
* **Relationships** - Am I ready for a relationship? What will my children think of my new friend? Where do we go when we want to be alone?

Single-parent fathers share the same concerns of single-parent mothers and have one more.

* **Expressing Feelings** - How can I let my children know I love them? How can I show physical affection towards my children without them or someone else thinking I’m strange?

Many parents have questions about what rules they should make, what they should expect of their children and how they should handle misbehavior. Single-parents may have more questions, not because their children cause more problems, but because they cannot share the responsibility with another parent.

Discipline is more than punishment. It is all the activities and techniques for helping a child grow into a responsible individual. It includes teaching, explaining, rewarding and punishing. Some forms of discipline are more likely to help a child learn. Generally speaking, the forms of discipline that make children feel good about themselves encourage learning. The forms that make children angry or feel inadequate get in the way of learning. Some helpful hints to getting along with each other are:
* Provide good discipline.
* Reward good behavior.
* Teach the consequences of behavior.
* Limit physical punishment.
* Know when to intervene.
* Have realistic expectations.
* Be a good listener.
* Recognize what your child is saying.
* Show your affection by touching.
* Provide privacy.
* Spend time together.

Evaluation of Structure & Means to Achieve Objectives

Due to the enormous increase in divorce and unwed parenthood over the last decade, there are over 7 million single-parents in the U.S. today and 90 percent of them headed by women.

According to the 1980 Census 12.2 million children in this country (one in every five) live with one parent. The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights recently reported that there are 6 million more single-parent families today than there were a decade ago - 20 million women and children - and they, more than any other Americans, are more likely to suffer from malnutrition, joblessness, lack of education and shortened life spans.

More than 3 million single-parent families live in poverty. The biggest burden falls on households headed by women. Nearly one-half of these families are below the poverty line. These families receive 40 to 80 percent of the benefits in various welfare programs that cost the government, and indirectly the taxpayer, a total of 40 billion dollars a year.

Whether on welfare or not, single-parent mothers and fathers often are surprised at the difficulty of being the sole providers, housekeepers and comforters for their children. For many single-parents there are problems with holding a fulltime job and finding responsible child care they are able to afford. Many times the only solution is to give up their job and stay home with their children. Often times the salaries they would receive just aren’t enough compared to what they would save staying home. In small towns child care costs are often $200 a month and are much more in big cities. Those expenses come on top of other job-holding costs, such as transportation and clothes.

Another contributing factor to single-parent poverty is the fact that only two-thirds receive any kind of financial support from the other parent. More than half of the 8 million who are obligated to pay child support and do not have been served with a support order from a judge. 1 in 8 ignores the order and 1 in 7 sends only part of the amount. Former spouses who do get support receive an average of $40 a week, less than the amount needed to keep one child above the federal poverty level.

All single-parent situations are different, but no matter how they came about, the first reaction is likely to be emotional shock. In most cases, no matter how good a parent the
single-parent is, the child or children of such a relationship will suffer to some degree, physically or psychologically. The most serious danger, these children can suffer, lies in depriving them of the emotional support they need. A child in a single-parent home can be deprived of all material luxuries, even of many physical comforts and yet grow to wholesome maturity if their emotional needs are met. A child can endure almost anything as long as he or she is sure they're loved.

One place deficiencies can surface is school. Children from single-parent families are more likely to drop-out than children from traditional two-parent families. A study by the National Institute of Education shows single-parent children to have IQ's as much as 7 points lower than their classmates and several months behind on achievement tests.

The National Institute of Education also reports: "Children in divorce or one-parent families tend to be more disruptive in the classroom, have less efficient work or study habits, and tend to be absent, truant or tardy more often. These behaviors may interfere with application of knowledge as evidenced in poorer classroom work."

Juvenile delinquency rates are twice as high for youth from single-parent homes. These same youth even though they comprise just over one-fifth of their age group, commit 55 percent of its crimes. The main causes for these problems are psychological disturbances and lack of parental supervision.

These problems, though common among single-parent families, cannot be blamed on single-parenthood itself but on related factors, including poverty, anger, and loneliness.

The children are not the only ones who suffer some form of physical or psychological damage. Most single-parents are plagued by anger and loneliness, sometimes even coupled with a severe sense of guilt or failure. Parents as well as children should not hesitate to ask for and accept help when they need it. Professional counseling can help families understand their feelings. Support groups of all kinds are a source of strength, including some that provide social outlets for lonely parents. The key to how well the child comes through the single-parent situation depends on how well the parent copes with the situation. Parents who take care of themselves and their social, physical, and personal needs are best able to take care of their children's needs.

Parents and children alike should do their best to recognize self-defeating guilt and do their best or whatever is necessary to overcome the feeling. Children must and will make their own adjustments to single-parenthood. The most helpful thing a parent can do is to express openly their feelings of anger, fear, or disappointment and above all allow their children to do the same. An open-line of communication is the best ally you can have on your side.

Even with all its drawbacks single-parenthood does have some advantages. Often times it is better to be a single-parent than to have your child brought up in a troubled home. A greater bond of need, trust, and support will develop between the parent and child, a kind of co-op support group each looking after the others needs as well as their own. A child in a single-parent household learns to be responsible sooner than a child in a traditional two-parent home. With this new responsibility comes improved self-respect, self-worth, and self-esteem not to mention parental pride, respect, and trust.
Recommendations to Improve Structure

Many divorced couples today are trying to eliminate some of the hazards of single-parenthood by reaching joint-custody agreements in which each parent takes a more equal share in all aspects in child rearing. Where joint-custody isn’t possible increased visitation rights and an increase in financial support is becoming customary. When the parent who does not have custody, for whatever reason, fails to hold up their end of the settlement the single-parent has to look for other options to meet their families' needs. One source is business. More than 200 companies now provide day care on site and many more are developing programs that allow flexible hours so single-parents can be home when their children are home. As an incentive Congress has passed legislation guaranteeing tax breaks for companies that pay for employee’s child care.

When the options mentioned above don’t meet all the single-parents' needs there is the Judicial System. The federal government, using computer systems, is cracking down on the spouse who does not pay required child support. More often now than in the past the court is responding with stricter laws and harsher punishments concerning child support.

Another option available to single parents who want to improve their situation is one of the many single-parent support groups and low cost counseling services that now exist. These community services are there to help. The radio, television and newspaper regularly run advertisements for such agencies as part of their community awareness programs. What they are doing is adequate, but more visibility would be better. It is important that those in need be made aware of the resources that are available in their communities.

Summary and Conclusion

A 1983 Gallop Poll showed 90 percent of the American public wanted “more emphasis on traditional family ties” while only one-fourth favored “more acceptance of sexual freedom.” These changing attitudes may help to curb the increase in single-parent households and high illegitimate birth rate of over 700,000 annually. Also in recent years there has been a slight drop in the number of divorces.

Even so, the single-parent family is here today and most likely will be here in the future. The single-parent family may or may not be one of choice but it does serve a valuable service. Raising a child alone is much better than the child being on his own, and though it may not be an easy task, it need not be a solemn one. There are government, community, professional, and private services out there that can provide insurmountable amounts of aid or just a listening ear. And let’s not forget the children, these same agencies can also meet the childrens' needs.

References


Teachers frequently complain that their jobs would be much easier if they did not have to deal with the students' parents. Occasionally parents of handicapped students create special problems for teachers. One of the major problems is that some of the parents tend to be overprotective because they do not understand that the child is probably capable of doing some things for himself. They do not realize that it is important for the child to do as much as he can for himself and that they are only increasing the level of the child’s disability by not allowing him to attempt new things. Often parents of handicapped children are afraid that their child’s self concept will be damaged if he fails when he tries to do things for himself. Sometimes it is left up to us as teachers to help the parents realize that all children need to be challenged and must learn to deal with failure in order to be successful in life.

It is important for teachers to establish a good rapport with the parents at the beginning of the school year and make them feel like a welcome partner in their child’s education instead of an unqualified intruder. The teacher only spends a few hours each day with the child, but his parents have spent years with him and often possess very valuable insight into his behavior. It often helps to meet with the parents at the beginning of the year either on an individual or group basis. This gives the teacher and the parents a chance to become familiar with each others' attitudes and expectations for the year and to discuss potential problems before they become serious.

The first meeting is very important because it establishes the pattern for all of the other contacts with the parents. It provides a chance for the teacher to listen to the parents, to ask questions, and to answer questions. When talking with parents it is important to use precise descriptions and nontechnical language. It is a good idea to ask questions occasionally to make sure the parents understand the meaning of what has been said. (1)

Lichter suggests that when communicating with parents it is helpful to keep the following points in mind:

1. “Many parents either anticipate or actually experience social rejection, pity, ridicule, and the related loss of self esteem and social prestige.”(2)
2. "The process of helping another person begins by accepting the total person in a nonjudgemental manner and communicating an attitude of acceptance as clearly as possible."

3. It is not the teacher's "duty to help parents accept or adjust to their handicapped child by giving advice or direction." But it is more helpful for the teacher to actively listen to the content and feelings implied by questions such as "What would you do if you were I?"

4. To be effective the teacher must want to hear what the parents have to say, be willing to take the time to listen, want to be helpful, be able to accept the parents' feelings even if they are different from your own, and believe in the parents' ability to solve their own problems.

It is beneficial to keep these points in mind when dealing with any parent whether their child is handicapped or not.

Most parents are protective of their children and occasionally become overprotective even if their children are "normal." When the child is handicapped the tendency to be overprotective and to want to do everything for the child becomes even greater. When this happens the teacher may have to point out to the parents that the child may frequently need their assistance or supervision but that he is capable of doing some things for himself and although it usually requires some extra time for him to complete a simple task for himself, it will be worth the effort when they see the child's look of accomplishment as he realizes that he has done something for himself. Lois Wencil, who grew up blind, has this suggestion for parents of handicapped children, "Love, Lead, and Let Go" (3).

References

The Little Red-Faced Foster Parent
(A Parody of the Little Red Hen)

Carolyn Baxter

One summer day, a new and eager foster parent was brought a foster child that nobody wanted. "Such a confused and frightened child!" said the little red-faced foster parent. "I will take care of him. I will love him." And she did.

She asked the Department of Human Resources (DHR), "Will you reimburse me 100% of the cost for rearing this child?" "Not I!" said DHR. "I'll help you about 60%." She asked the County Child Welfare Board, "Will you help me by allotting 100% of the cost for taking care of this child?" "Not I!" said the Board. "I've got to be advised that it is a top priority of DHR first." She asked the Texas legislature, "Will you see that I am reimbursed 100% of the cost of rearing this child?" "Not I!" said the legislature. "Then I will see that he gets the rest by myself!" she said. And she did.

The child had many emotional problems, which showed up in numerous ways, including bedwetting. "Who will pay the counseling fees to get help for this child?" asked the red-faced foster parent. "And who will help me purchase mattress covers and wash the bed linens every day?" "Not I!" said DHR. "Not I!" said the judge who had placed him there. "Not I!" said the community. "You asked for it!" said the extended family. "Then I will do it myself!" And she did.

When Fall came and school began, the little red-faced foster parent said, "Who will help me buy school clothes and school supplies for this lad?" "And who will help me tutor him each night?" "Not I!" said DHR. "Not I!" said the natural parent. "That isn't my job," said the judge. "He'll never catch up with the others!" said the community. "Not I!" said the Child Welfare Board. "Then I will do it myself." And she did.

As the child grew older, he took on a paper route to earn money and learn responsibility. "Who will help me buy a bicycle for this child?" she asked. "And who will help me throw papers at 4:30 a.m. when he is sick or it is raining?" "Not I!" said DHR. "No way!" said the neighbors. "Are you kidding?" said the natural parent. "Not I!" said the judge. "Not I!" said the extended family. "Then I will do it myself." And she did.

Then the mixed-up child got involved in drugs. He was destructive at home and stole things from the little red-faced foster parent. She asked in distress, "Who will help me take him to the drug abuse program regularly?" "And who will compensate me for the damages
to my home?” “Not I!” said the DHR. “Not I!” said the judge. “We’re sorry!” said the Child Welfare Board. “You knew it wouldn’t be a bed of roses,” said the community. “Then I will do it myself.” And she did.

The little red-faced foster parent worried about the child, but she still believed he deserved another chance. “Who will help me enhance the child’s self-concept?” she asked. “Who will help me hold him when he needs it and nudge him forward when he doesn’t? And who will sit up late at night with me while I try to cope with my fears and heartaches over this child?” “Not I!” said the neighbors. “Not I!” said the natural parent. “Not I!” said DHR. “Not I!” said the judge. “It’s not worth it!” said the extended family. “Then I will do it myself.” And she did.

In time and with much love, the child grew stronger in body, mind, and spirit. Others began to notice that he had changed. Then the little red-faced foster parent asked, “Who will help me take credit for helping this child?” “I will, since I am the legal guardian,” said the DHR. “I will, since he is a Texas statistic,” said the legislature. “I will, since I gave him birth,” said the natural parent. “I will, since I let him play with my children once,” said the neighbors.” “I will, since I made the important decision on where the child lives,” said the judge. “I will, since I gave him a Christmas and birthday gift every year,” said a member of the extended family.

“Hmmmmmmmmmm,” mused the little red-faced foster parent. “I think I will take the credit myself.” And she did.
Climate Can Spell Success

Charlene Crocker

No matter which research is read or whose classroom is visited, it is apparent that classroom climate is important. Defining or describing climate has not been simple because climate is a complex variable with a multiple of factors. This article addresses climate in three ways. First, seven important factors from a variety of research studies will be examined. Second, the results of a survey in which classroom teachers rated the importance of these factors will be described. Thirdly, suggestions for improving classroom climate will be made.

Current research on effective teaching indicates that the learning environment observed in the more effective teachers' classrooms differed from the learning environment observed in less effective teachers' classrooms (2). Medley in his review of research on teacher effectiveness noted that in fourteen studies with a total of 613 significant correlations, the dependable correlations seemed to pertain to three aspects of teacher's classroom performance. One of these is the learning environment which the teacher creates and maintains and another is the use the teacher makes of pupil time (4).

Because classroom climate is often a matter of perception, that is, how does one feel about this classroom or how does one feel in this classroom, the question that both classroom teachers and classroom observers often ask is "What determines this thing called climate and how will I know it when I see it?" The answer might be found in seven factors which not only spell climate, but can also spell success.

The "C" in climate stands for communication. Communication can be verbal or non-verbal. In positive climates teachers communicate genuine praise and expectations. Berliner believes that achievement is affected by a teacher's ability to communicate academic expectations. His literature reviews cite that there are powerful affects on performance when teachers set high but attainable goals and communicate those goals (1). Good communication includes the teacher who listens, asks good questions, and waits for responses. Good communication must include two-way as well as one-way interactions. Purkey believes communicating to a person that they have potential and are worthwhile affects the way people perceive themselves and consequently the way they are able to perform (6).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLIMATE</th>
<th>COMMUNICATION</th>
<th>LEVEL OF CONCERN</th>
<th>INVOLVEMENT</th>
<th>MANAGEMENT &amp; ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>ATMOSPHERE</th>
<th>TIME ON TASK</th>
<th>EVALUATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verbal and Non-Verbal - of Expectations: Praise Listening; Two-Way</td>
<td>Raise or Lower; Focus on Learning; Challenge</td>
<td>Involved with Materials at Appropriate Level; High Success Rate; Active Learning, Question, Interaction</td>
<td>Safe and Orderly; Routines, Rules; Monitoring</td>
<td>Pleasant Feeling Tone - Best; Pleasant Surroundings; Clean; Attractive; (Free from Fear)</td>
<td>Focus on Academics; Transitions; Emphasis on Learning; Academic Learning Time; Engaged Time</td>
<td>Corrective Feedback; Reteach; Success; Helping</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The "L" stands for "level of concern" which must be present for learning to occur. The level may need to be raised or lowered depending upon the student, the class, or the situation (3). Students may need to have the time frame shortened or to be told that they will be held accountable for the information being presented which raises their concern. In situations where students are over-anxious the teacher needs to lower the concern by reassurance, by testing on smaller segments of information, by allowing students additional time for completing a task, or by providing additional assistance in mastering a task. Challenge, a critical factor in climate, needs to be present but not so much challenge that a student does not feel free to try, even if he might fail. Failure at new challenging tasks must be viewed as an opportunity for growth, not defeat (5).

"I" in climate is involvement. Learning occurs when a person interacts with the idea or process. Berliner's emphasis on a high amount of involvement with the appropriate learning materials with a high success rate, termed academic learning time (ALT), stresses the fact that high success with learning is crucial (1). A teacher behavior that has emerged from the various teacher effectiveness studies is that of questioning. Teachers who ask questions and pitch these questions at a variety of thinking levels produce more learning and the classroom climate is one of excitement and interest. Involvement then needs to include the variable of appropriate materials, questions, challenge, but also high success rates.

"M" is the ever present management and organization that creates an environment in which there are routines, rules, safety, and order. Whether the setting is a laboratory activity, a lecture, or a group project, there must be a structural framework in which the activity takes place. Berliner found that a business like manner, a focus on achievement, with rewards for achievement are evidences of order and create a climate where student achievement is high (1). Purkey and Smith found evidence also exists indicating that clear, reasonable rules, fairly and consistently enforced promote not only a safe, orderly environment but promote feeling of pride and responsibility that are related to achievement (5). A teacher's classroom management and organization is another climate factor which she can control and which can be a positive force. A warning may be in order, because over control and too strict an academic focus can produce negative debilitating results. Teachers must seek a balance of power where the student is able to work successfully.

"A" stands for atmosphere which includes attractive, clean, pleasant surroundings as well as a pleasant feeling tone. Feeling tone is a prime motivator (3). Teachers have control over feeling tones and should strive for pleasant feeling tones and avoid tactics designed to create fear. Fear is only a temporary measure which may be harmful to achievement. Part of feeling tone is praise, encouragement, and an agreement that making mistakes will be a natural consequence of trying new things. Making a mistake is only an opportunity to learn not a reason for embarrassment or humiliation.

"T" can only stand for the source of much concern and research, time on task. Time on task means that when students spend time on a given task the student is more likely to achieve or master the task. It is not the time itself that makes the difference but the way
the time is spent. The students should spend time working on material at an appropriate level and at a high success rate. Teachers should carefully structure any practice and monitor closely early experiences to make sure that students understand and are able to perform the assigned task. Teachers who emphasize an atmosphere of work and maintain a strong academic focus create a climate in which time is spent more effectively (7).

Teachers who emphasize effective use of class time plan transitions that flow from one activity to another and limit the number of transitions per class. Time on task means using class time productively and sponging up every precious minute possible for student involvement in learning.

“E” in climate is evaluation. To create a positive climate teachers check frequently for understanding and use corrective feedback during instruction and during initial practice. Then teachers reteach when students are having difficulties. These teachers strive for student success in evaluation areas. Evaluation is not an event but a process used for assisting students to learn; not designed to discover how much a student has learned. Evaluation is ongoing and should be a daily activity which helps teachers determine student needs.

When a group of fifty teachers were asked to rate the seven factors in importance, “Communication” was a decided first choice. “Management and Organization” and “Time on task” were ranked first by equal numbers but with only half the support of “Communication.” Receiving the greatest support or a second choice were “Involvement,” “Time on task,” and “Communication” next. Analysis of the data indicate that when ranking these seven factors, the majority of the sample place “Communication” in the top three. Respondents also felt that “Time on task” and “Involvement” were crucial. “Management and Organization” and “Evaluation” also received significant notice. Although teachers do not agree on which is most important, comments suggest that determining which was most important was not an easy task. The teachers surveyed agreed that all factors are important but it is significant that overall these teachers ranked “Communication,” “Time on task,” and “Involvement” in the top three more than the remaining four. These four factors are under the control of teachers and a teacher can improve her skills in these areas.

Suggestions for these areas should include a planned, consistent communication of expectations which could include telling students the objectives and purpose of daily or weekly lessons. Teachers need to praise good performance and improvement. Try listening and responding to both questions and other clues that say a student is uncertain or confused. Start class on time, plan careful transitions between activities, and monitor initial practice carefully. Plan activities that provide successful practice. Ask questions, allow time for answers and provide prompts when necessary. Provide short, intense practice on new material and review often.

Climate, when spelled out with these seven factors, can spell the difference in a successful or non-successful classroom. Spelling classroom climate with these factors points out that teachers have control over classroom climate. Teachers need to take control and spell out the kind of climate in the classroom that creates an environment in which learning is expected and success is ensured.
References


Bibliography


Brophy, J.E. "Teacher behavior and it's effects." Journal of Educational Psychology. 1979, 71, 733-750.


Dear Old Golden Rule Days

Frank Smith

Speaking at a recent meeting of the Stephen F. Austin Chapter of Phi Delta Kappa, Dr. M. Scott Norton of the Arizona State University said, "At one time, if you were in a reform school you were in trouble. Today, if you are not in a reformed school you are in trouble."

Anyone born before 1940 remembers reform schools and reformed schools can be remembered by anyone ever born. To what extent should reform take place? Have all the reforms that have occurred in recent years been beneficial? Is the thinking that leads to reform always thorough and complete?

To continually examine methods of instruction and to change those procedures which prove unfruitful is accepted by most. To examine materials with an eye towards improvement is likewise subscribed to by the majority.

But do we ever look back to those methods, procedures, and materials that were abandoned in the name of reform or progress? Could it be that decisions were made too hastily or the band wagon was boarded too quickly?

The last generation or two has witnessed many changes such as the trend from metal to plastic and styrofoam replacing dinnerware. Many of these changes are seeing a reversal today similar to the return of woodburning fireplaces, ceiling fans, and the convertible automobile. Cheaper is not always better and newness is not necessarily a reason to change.

There are probably many examples in the field of education to indicate we may have been too anxious to make a change. Many times we use the wrong solution to solve a problem. Let's look at one questionable and annoying change, the furniture of elementary school classrooms.

Fifty years ago most classrooms for grades one through eight had rows of desks screwed or nailed to a hardwood floor. More recently the desks, in groups of four or six, were attached to runners instead of the floor. As a result, some flexibility in room arrangement became possible. This gave way to desks and chairs or tables and chairs.

Perhaps there were good reasons for making these changes such as lack of flexibility in room arrangement and the fact that all desks were usually the same size and did not fit all the children. But, there may also be good reasons for returning to the former method of seating children.
I do not think anyone can visit a classroom with chairs on an asbestos tile floor without witnessing at least one child tipping over in his chair. If it does not actually happen, you will most likely be amazed at how some child defies gravity as he leans back on two (or maybe one) leg. If a child does not fall over, then an empty chair is likely to be knocked over sometimes during the visit.

Through use (and abuse) the tips of chair legs have become worn or damaged to the point of imbalance. So, many children are constantly rocking, to the annoyance of classmates and the teacher, when they should be otherwise occupied.

Because of the condition of the tips of the chair legs, there is a grating sound every time a child adjusts his position at his desk or table. When several do this at the same time, the noise is distracting, disquieting, and causes loss of time on task.

Carpeting would solve some of the problems but the initial cost factor is difficulty to justify during this time of economic stress. Since tables and chairs have to be replaced occasionally, why not consider a return to desks? Were they really a deterrent to learning? Most adults over fifty years of age sat in desks that were arranged in rows. And they learned.
Fabulous Friday: A One-Day Enrichment Program for Gifted Children

Connie Spreadbury

One of the responsibilities of universities is to provide leadership to the public schools in their local region. Many of these schools are currently striving to develop programs for their gifted students, and this is an area in which colleges and universities are well suited to help.

In the past, public schools have generally confined their educational efforts to the instruction of the average child, and have devoted little effort to providing programs for their talented children except for short sporadic efforts in the 1920’s, 1940’s, and again in the 1960’s (after Sputnik) (7, 10). It has always been assumed that these children will learn on their own, but this assumption is not necessarily true; gifted children require just as much attention and effort as the “less bright” children. Tuttle and Becker say that if they do not receive it, many of them do not continue their education beyond high school; some will even drop out of high school (10). This fact means that some of the brightest and the best students do not go to college. Universities, therefore, not only have a moral responsibility to provide leadership to the public schools to help them develop programs which will challenge gifted children enough to keep them in school, but they also have a vested interest in the education future of these students (5).

The purpose of this paper is to describe a program which Stephen F. Austin State University developed in order to help public schools in the East Texas area.

The Model

Stephen F. Austin State University, located half-way between Houston and Dallas in Texas, is a university of about 12,000 students and 400 faculty members. It is surrounded by rural communities with small schools which, in 1981 when the program called Fabulous Friday was begun, did not have any programs for their gifted children, although a handful of schools had identified these students.

In 1981, the Vice President for Academic Affairs called together nine faculty members from a variety of disciplines on the campus to form the nucleus of the Committee on Programs for Gifted and Talented Children.
The Committee began by studying existing programs in the United States and found a wide diversity of programs. Some are on-going programs such as the Major Work Program in Cleveland, founded in 1922 with the goal to identify the brightest children and train them to become community leaders (3); some programs are cooperative programs between universities and public schools such as the Portland Project, founded in 1952 as a joint venture between the public schools and Reed College, providing enrichment programs conducted by the homeroom teacher and supervised by the university faculty (1); some programs are summer programs such as the one at Texas Tech University (9) and the one at Arizona University designed for high-ability, low-achieving Indian children (8); some are weekend programs such as the Super Saturday program at Purdue University which provides special six-week courses on Saturday mornings for gifted children in grades two through nine (2).

None of these programs met our needs. We did not have the resources nor the budget to begin anything on such a grand scale. We wanted to start small and give ourselves time to grow into this new role. The objectives which the university had in mind were (1) to play its role as cultural and educational leader in the local area, (2) to supplement the regular school curriculum with activities not generally provided by the schools, (3) to reach the gifted at a time when they begin to make career decisions (around the 5th grade), and (4) to provide gifted children with the opportunity to interact with each other. The long term objective for the university was to have these gifted and talented children select our university when it came time for them to go to college. The objectives led to the development of Fabulous Friday, a one-day-enrichment program for gifted 5th grade students in the East Texas area.

The remainder of this paper will be devoted to an explanation of the issues involved in developing and implementing such a program.

Implementation of the Program

Coordination of the Program

There are several levels of coordination involved in starting a program like this. First, someone must address the need for such a program. This person can be an administrator, a faculty member, a teacher, or even a parent. Once the need has been established, the responsibility for the program must be located somewhere on the administrative ladder, either with a vice president's office or a dean's office. Either one of these offices will be appropriate because the Dean of Education has contact with the public schools while the Vice President of Academic Affairs has contact with the faculty members who will teach the instructional sessions. Second, several coordinators must be identified — one person from the school of education who knows the teachers, the principals, the school schedules, vacation dates, etc. and one person from the university who knows the faculty, the staff, the schedule for campus activities, etc.
Costs

The cost for a program like this is surprisingly low. This year we had sixteen instructional sessions and 265 children. Each session cost an average of $50.00 or a total cost of approximately $800.00 for the program. We charged the schools a small registration fee ($4.00) which covered the cost of lunch, transportation, and instructional materials.

Selection of topics

The topics that a university offers are important. We have found several types of topics to be in great demand. Almost anything in the area of science and computer science will be selected because few small schools have science or computer laboratories. Sessions which offer career opportunities tend also to be very popular. Medicine, law, and business are viable career options for these special children who are likely to obtain the necessary education for these professions. Sessions in the fine arts and humanities are not as much in demand but, with good teachers, they are successful.

Departments should be encouraged to offer joint instructional sessions. This cooperation is good for morale and also produces more innovative sessions. For example, the departments of theatre and English can develop a session on literature and acting; sociology and political science can develop a program on the police/courts/law; biology and chemistry can offer a session on the use of computerized equipment in research; economics, finance, management and marketing can offer a session which teaches the skills necessary to all four fields.

Selection of Faculty

Probably the most important variable in the success of the program is the selection of the faculty members who teach the instructional sessions. Selection should be based on several criteria. First, instructors should be able to work with children: not everyone can establish rapport with 11-year-olds in the limited time available. The second criterion is the ability to work with gifted children. These children are different: they catch on quicker, ask more questions, give more creative answers, exhibit a high degree of exploratory behavior, and demonstrate more determination than most children (4, 10). Not everyone feels comfortable with this type of student (6). Most of us in college teaching have very average students and may not be able to adapt to these brighter students. As one professor said, “I feel intimidated by these kids. They ask questions I can’t field; they give answers I do not expect. I feel that I am out of my element.”

A third criterion is that faculty members must have something worthwhile to teach and be able to teach it with enthusiasm. They should be able to provide hands-on experience, give lots of individual attention, and do as little lecturing as possible. Some faculty members cannot translate their topic into experience and thus are not successful with this type of program.
Selection of Schools and Children

We send invitations to all the public school systems within a 100 mile radius of the university. Most of these are small rural schools. In 1981, when we first began the program, we contacted the superintendents of the various school districts who then informed the principals at their schools. Now that the public schools provide special teachers for their gifted programs, we send the list of topics being offered directly to them and tell them the number of children they can bring based upon the size of the school. They select the children they will bring, ask them to identify the three sessions they would most like to attend, and have them rank the sessions from first to third. We try to place the children in their first choice, but we also want to keep each session small (about 10), and we want the children to interact with gifted children from other schools; therefore, it is sometimes necessary to place them in their second or even third choice.

Sharing Session for Teachers/Sponsors/Parents

It is also important to offer special sharing sessions for the teachers. It was through these sharing sessions that we were able to play our leadership role and help the schools develop their own programs. The topics for the sharing sessions have to change as their programs develop. For example, the first year, the topic is likely to be concerned with the identification process and criteria; the second year, the topic should be related to the development of the program; the third year, the topic may be expanded to include ways in which parents can help their children, etc.

Selection of Time, Space and Lunch

Although a one-day program can be offered at any time of the year, we offer it in late spring because teachers are looking for extra-curricular activities at this time of the year, the weather is warm for sessions which are conducted outside, and the campus is beautiful as the azaleas come into bloom.

The ideal location for the program is the University Center, if it is centrally located. A large room that can accommodate all of the children, teachers and parents, and faculty members is essential. The instructional sessions, however, should be taught in regular classrooms. The advantage of this strategy is that the children can be in the actual classroom or laboratory that the college students and faculty use for lectures and research.

The University Center is also the ideal location for lunch. Feeding a large number of children and adults can be quite a challenge, both in providing something that both groups enjoy eating and in feeding them within the allotted time. Full meals are too heavy for the children, but sandwiches are not sufficient. We have had success with a make-your-own-hamburger lunch. The children love hamburgers, the lines move rapidly, and we can get all 350 people fed in a half-hour period.
Types of Problems to Anticipate

Avoiding A Bad First Impression

The University has only one day to make a good impression with the children whom it hopes will return as college students in seven years. If a faculty member or anyone else on campus is unfriendly; or if the coordinators are disorganized and do not seem to know what they are doing; or if the sessions are boring and the professors are long-winded, the university may not get another opportunity to correct that impression. To avoid this problem, let everyone know via the school newspaper or faculty bulletin what is going on, plan your program well, get everything organized, and get lots of help to pull it off. It is a good idea to have the top administration of the university open and close the program because it shows that the university is interested in the public schools and this makes a good impression with the teachers.

Making A Lasting Impression

The hope is that the children will remember their experience at the university for a long time so give them something by which to remember the school. Some examples of what we have given over the years are a T-shirt with “FABULOUS FRIDAY” imprinted on it, a drinking cup with the school logo, and a notebook with the school emblem on the cover. The children love souvenirs and the souvenirs give them something by which to remember this special day.

Pressure From The Schools To Add More Children

You will often receive phone calls from the schools requesting to bring additional children. Decide ahead of time the number of extra children you can absorb.

Faculty Members' Children

Some faculty who participate in your Fabulous Friday program will have their own children invited to participate in the program. This coincidence is good for faculty morale, but it is best if they are not assigned to their parent’s session.

Selection Of Only One Topic

Although you ask each child to select several sessions, some will select only one session, hoping thereby to ensure their selection for that session. If you cannot place the child in the session requested, notify the teacher immediately and ask for a second and third choice.

Legal Responsibilities

A university, of course, is legally and morally responsible for the safety of the youngsters on the campus. Make sure they are supervised at all times. When they move from the
University Center to the classrooms, they should be accompanied by at least two faculty members or graduate students. If the group has to take a bus to the instructional site, make sure that the driver is competent and drives safely. Make sure that you know where the children are at all times in case parents need to get in touch with them. Also have the parents' phone numbers in case you have an emergency and need to notify them.

Transportation

One of the biggest headaches is transportation for the field trips. Use school vehicles rather than faculty automobiles because of the legal responsibility. If you use school buses, be prepared for almost anything to happen — getting flats, running out of gas, or getting lost. You have to decide if the programs requiring transportation are sufficiently valuable to justify the added anxiety.

Conclusion

We have been very happy with the progress of our one-day-enrichment program for 5th graders. The first year we had 120 children from 20 school districts, offered 9 topics provided by 9 departments of the university, and involved 40 faculty members. This year, five years later, we have expanded to 264 children from 32 school districts and offered 16 topics involving 24 academic departments and 80 faculty members.

Our faculty members are excited by the prospect of working with younger students and willingly participate in the program year after year, calling themselves the "Gifted Committee," a title which, I think, indicates their enthusiasm about working with bright children.

References

Adapting Teaching Styles To Meet The Needs Of Individual Learners
Barbara Barrett and Donna Couchenour

Introduction

Eight-year-old Holly has been assessed as having an above average IQ, possesses a charming personality, and her family is active in community and school affairs. The third grade teacher does not understand why Holly poses so many difficulties in the classroom. Her attention span is short and she is always moving.

Steven, eleven years of age, is in the sixth grade. He is a math whiz and displays an enthusiastic interest for computers, but cannot seem to finish assignments in other school subjects. Steven suffers failing grades in all subjects except math. Additionally, he has been described as impatient and remote.

When teachers are faced with dilemmas such as these, parents are often asked for a conference. Typically, during the conferences, parents confirm the observations of teachers. With this agreement, both sets of adults begin to plan for a program that will yield "appropriate" behaviors from the child.

In the case of extreme behavioral problems, both physical and psychological assessments are required. When this route has been exhausted without success, or when the students' behaviors cannot be classified as extremely disrupting, teachers and parents can look to stylistic differences in children as partial explanation for classroom difficulties.

The emphasis on conformity in the classroom situation is an apparent factor in overlooking differences in style among children. Even the proponents of programs which affirm the importance of individualizing characteristically focus on differences related to levels of achievement or academic performance. Because of this, the very same or similar teaching methods and techniques are employed with all children, albeit at different rates. There is empirical evidence in support of the notion that children with differing styles, or temperaments, may in fact, learn best in a variety of ways.

Current research and theory explain temperament differences as responses that are characteristic of individuals on several separate dimensions of personality (1). Since 1956
the research group of Thomas, Chess, and Birch has conducted a series of studies examining temperament differences in infants. One of the major outcomes of these endeavors has been the determination that temperament is genetically-based. It is strongly believed, however, that this constitutional part of humans is a predisposition to certain characteristic responses, indicating that environmental influences are critical to the healthy development of temperament.

Carl Jung (2) has delineated various psychological types based on four dimensions of personality or temperament. His typology was further refined by Isabel Myers (6). The conceptual framework of Myers provides a scheme for studying and comprehending similarities and differences among people. Subsequent to study and understanding, acceptance of various types is the requirement for dynamic utilization of this theory. The following section of this paper presents a description of the four dimensions of temperament employed by both Jung and Myers.

**Description of the Four Dimensions**

*The Introversion-Extraversion Preference.* One of the basic preferences in personal style is the individual's relative interest in the inner and outer worlds. Introverts (I) prefer the inner world of ideas and concepts whereas extraverts (E) prefer the outer world of people and things. No one is limited to just one sphere. All people are called on to deal with both the inner and outer worlds, however, when possible, (I) people prefer to turn inward to work with ideas and (E) people prefer to turn outward to people and things. Well-developed extraverts are able to deal quite skillfully with ideas, but will do their best work in the external world; and well-developed introverts are just as able to deal with the external world, but will do their best work internally. The preferred part of this dimension of temperament is more energized; therefore, people gain energy from their preferred world. Although introverts often like people and social events, they gain energy from solitary endeavors, such as reading and participating in activities which involve few or no people. Extraverts gain energy from interaction with people or objects.

Introverts are territorial by nature; they want and need private places: physically, emotionally and intellectually, to do their best work. (I) people enjoy concentration and intensive work. They are usually conservative with their own energy and limited in the number of relationships they cultivate. (E) people are sociable by nature, enjoying interaction with an extensive number of others. They delight in the unfamiliar, in poking around looking for new ways to expend energy. (E) types are usually not able to hide their immediate response to events, so even though they may be able to keep their mouths shut, their faces are "open books."

*The Sensing-Intuitive Preference.* The sensing (S)-intuitive (N) preference is the way people prefer to gather information from the outer world about them. Sensing types prefer to describe themselves as practical, sensible and down-to-earth. They trust facts and past experience. They like to deal with problems for which a standard solution has been developed. (S) types use their senses to collect data and are usually accurate in observing
details. Sensible types are firmly rooted in the reality of the present, while deeply prizing the past.

Intuitive (N) types prefer to describe themselves as ingenious, imaginative and even fascinating. Intuitives gather information by scanning the environment, picking up bits of information and piecing them into a pattern. (N) people often find complex ideas and concepts coming to them as a whole they “just know,” but are unable to explain how they know. Intuitive types are future-oriented; the future with its possibilities draws the intuitive ever forward. Tomorrow has a charm for the intuitive that the present and past can never have. Surely, Martin Luther King, Jr.’s “I Have a Dream” speech is an eloquent example of an intuitive’s anticipation of what may be.

The sensing-intuitive preference can be a source of misunderstanding between people. (S) people, being firmly rooted in the here and now, with great appreciation for sensibleness and facts are apt to view intuitives as fuzzy-headed dreamers. (N) people, with their fascination for what is yet to be, and appreciation for imagination and creativity are apt to view sensing people as slaves to tradition. It is only through a conscious desire to understand and accept the opposing preference that individuals will learn to value the contributions that each make.

The Thinking-Feeling Preference. The basis on which decisions may be made is either thinking (T) or feeling (F). When decisions are arrived at on an impersonal, objective basis, the thinking preference has been used. When decisions are made on the basis of how they will affect people or on the basis of values, the feeling preference has been exercised.

Thinking (T) types are most comfortable making decisions based on rules, laws or principles. (T)’s like to describe themselves as objective, logical and analytical. People preferring this type have a great interest in justice.

Feeling types value harmony in relationships and use a personal approach to life. (F)’s like to describe themselves as humane, warm and sympathetic. Feeling types tend to be more interested in mercy than justice.

Myers (S) found that the thinking-feeling preference is the only dimension to have sex differences. About sixty percent of women are feeling types, and about sixty percent of men are thinking types. This sex difference is relatively minor and probably is indicative of sex-role expectations in our society.

It is important to note that thinking people react with deep emotions, and feeling people think logically. When these facts are understood, people of both preferences are able to relate to each other in a positive way. Persons with opposite preferences give a balance to each other. People with a (T) preference need (F) people to present the values perspectives: whereas (F) persons need (T) persons to present the impersonal, logical perspective. Groups made up of only (T) persons tend to appear cold and impersonal, whereas groups consisting of only (F) persons may be viewed as overly emotional.

The Judging-Perceiving Preference. The fourth preference in determining temperament type is the judging (J)—perceiving (P) dimension. This preference indicates how people prefer to deal with the world around them. Perception and judgment are used by all
people; however, both cannot be used at the same time. It is possible to shift very quickly between the two — for example, when a teacher who allows much spontaneous activity in the classroom decides that the limit has been reached.

Judging (J) type people are most comfortable after a decision has been made. They like things to be closed, decided and finished. (J)’s enjoy having a plan, and they want to finish one project before starting another.

Judging types like to be right and usually have their minds made up about most things. The (J) person lives by standards and schedules which are not easily changed. They believe that work must be finished before they can play; play must be earned.

Perceiving (P) types are spontaneous, flexible and open-ended. They are uncomfortable after a decision is made since they prefer to keep their options open. (P)’s enjoy situations where they can cope with problems as they arise without the restrictions of a fixed plan. (P) types are often heard saying, “Let’s wait and see what happens.” They believe that something will turn up. Perceiving types believe the rights to work and play are equal rights. They can plan anytime, not only when the work is done.

Implications

The natural human questions arises: “Is there a best type?” The answer is, “Yes, there is a best type — whatever you are!” Jung (2) and Myers (5) indicate that people should develop their own preferences. Jung suggests potential danger in trying to force children to live out types that are not their own. Each person has a uniqueness to express, a song to sing, which is that person’s alone. Keirsey and Bates (3) say that it is not the role of the teachers or parents to play Pygmalion or Henry Higgins, shaping children to meet the adults’ specification. The role of teachers and parents is rather to aid, encourage and guide children in developing their own uniqueness.

Temperament influences personal and professional behaviors. In the classroom, teachers may be observed as teaching according to type. The (I) teachers may plan the classroom schedule so that students have periods when all is quiet “so the students can really study.” (E) teachers may encourage students to move around the room and talk to each other so that “we can learn from each other.” (S) teachers emphasize memorization of facts whereas (I) teachers design activities to enhance imagination. (T) teachers encourage students to develop logical thought processes, to analyze and evaluate. (F) teachers encourage students to see the human side of the question at hand. (J) teachers organize classrooms so that “things get accomplished” while the (P) teachers facilitate spontaneous exploration. All of these objectives are of significant importance in a well-rounded program.

Pedagogists have long advocated using a variety of teaching methods, and even the most brief study of temperament leads to the conclusions that:

1. Teachers are likely to teach in a way that reflects their individual temperaments.
2. Students learn in ways that are unique to their individual temperaments.
Therefore, it is essential that teachers use the methods with which they are most comfortable as well as those that are favored by students with opposing styles. Teachers are then able to satisfy their own needs for self-expression, and simultaneously offer students a learning environment which is favorable to their unique needs.

The key to successfully utilizing temperament in the classroom is held by teachers. Until teachers choose to unlock the portals of individuality through study, understanding and acceptance of their own temperament types, work with students' temperament types cannot begin. As with most other areas of emotional development, an understanding and acceptance of self is prerequisite to the understanding and acceptance of others.

One area of concern relates to the idea that students with a feeling (F) preference may have an advantage in developing their less preferred thinking (T) dimension, whereas (T) preference students have no similar opportunities for developing their less favored (F) dimension. Due to the education system's strong emphasis on the (T) area of development (T) students gain an even stronger thinking preference.

Another current issue dealing with temperament and teaching is the idea that teachers favor students who display the same or similar styles as the teachers. Holly and Steven, the students cited earlier, possess styles that oppose those of most teachers. In order to employ information about temperament in these cases, teachers must:

1. study, understand and accept their own preference;
2. observe characteristic responses of the students in question;
3. reach tentative decisions about probable styles of these students; and
4. plan and implement learning activities based on information gathered in the first three steps.

Assuming that steps 1 and 2 have been accomplished in the cases of Holly and Steven, the next step is to decide on the styles of these children. Several references are recommended by the authors for further study. They are:


After some study and observation, it becomes clear that two of Holly's preferences are the (S), sensing vs intuitive and the (P), perceiving vs judging. Some of Steven's predilections are the (N), intuitive vs. sensing and the (T), thinking vs feeling. The final step of planning and implementing involves the creation of active, sensory experiences for Holly. Planned activities for Steven will enable him to be involved with a challenging problem to solve. This problem must be based on clear logic, not one dealing with human relationships, and an adequate allowance of time to fully explore the problem must be included for successful
implementation. The evaluation process would involve observation of students. Success by both teachers and students can be measured through observation of student successes and fewer student difficulties in the classroom.

Conclusion

It is important to realize that students learn not only at different rates, but also through different styles. When teachers utilize a variety of techniques in the classroom, students with opposing learning styles will have the opportunity to progress in their preferred modes. Teachers’ understanding and acceptance of both their own styles and those of their students is the essential component for the successful adaptation of teaching style to meet the needs of individual learners.

References

The Hobbit:
Out of the Hole and Into the Classroom

Mack Hall

What is the use of a story? In socialist societies stories must be made to serve the purpose of the state. In free societies the first essential of a good story is that it must be entertaining, although almost all stories reflect some philosophical point-of-view.

In our society a person chooses a book to read because he feels it does something good for him. If the latest Barbara Cartland wallow provides an hour of relaxation in our busy world then it has made the reader a better person. More serious novels, such as those of Ayn Rand, have a serious philosophical basis but are still entertaining.

The novel, loosely defined as a long story, is the most popular form of literature today. The short story has found its way into television, and poetry has been effectively killed off by radio, television, and modern poets. In bookstores, supermarkets, and airport gift shops, however, the novel continues to be much in demand by the American public.

Young children usually first experience the novel in their school or public libraries. Most of the literature taught in the classroom is in the form of short stories. We thus have an archaic literature form mandated in the classroom while in the library, where the student can exercise freedom of choice, the most popular books are novels. We can effectively capitalize on this enjoyment of novels in order to accomplish some of our goals in teaching English.

The Hobbit is a classic children's novel by J.R.R. Tolkien. When I say children's novel, I do not mean to imply that it is shallow in plot or characterization. The book is centered around the traditional quest theme: a rather ordinary individual with whom the reader can readily empathize is suddenly pulled from his quiet, rural life, and thrust into great events in the outside world.

This novel is an outgrowth of stories Tolkien told his own children in the 1930's. He was a professor of English languages and literature at Oxford, and drew upon traditional European and English themes, myths, and epics for his story. His language use was precise, and his development of the plot conventional. Tolkien was interested in telling a good story rather than in playing pseudo-intellectual word games.

What will the student gain from an intense study of The Hobbit? The benefits are many:

1. He will learn the structure of a conventional novel.
2. He will learn to follow a basic plot through a lengthy narrative.
3. He will learn something of himself, for the hero is a seemingly insignificant individual who must leave his tranquil country life and risk his life to achieve a great good. He is not a superhero, and suffers cold, hunger, fear, and pain. He calls upon reserves of strength and courage he never knew he had.
4. The student will gain an understanding of how an individual must sometimes voluntarily suppress his own desires for the good of the group. We already teach this as teamwork.
5. He will acquire a broad overview of the epic themes in European literature.
6. He will be exposed to language usage that is not only correct, but also is lively and expressive, in contrast to the bland, unimaginative, modern basal reader.
7. He will observe the development of character and be made aware that, unlike television stereotypes, people change and grow throughout their lives.
8. He will gain a rudimentary knowledge of symbolism, and will learn to relate a fictional world to his own real one for a deeper understanding of his own life experiences.
9. He will learn to budget his time wisely, for the bulk of the reading will be outside the classroom.
10. He will gain self-confidence and a sense of accomplishment from completing a difficult and lengthy task.
11. He will, I earnestly hope, truly enjoy reading a good book.
Teacher Accountability

Douglas Prewitt and Renee Creech

American education today is the object of nationwide attention and discontent. It's safe to say the economic, social and political views of schooling have been more negative than positive during the past ten to twelve years (4). To say that American education is in trouble is a commonly heard statement. Is this a prediction for our future? To find out where we are going and how to get there, we first have to establish where we are.

What's happening in schools across our nation? School opponents see: plummeting achievement scores, rising disruption and conflict, children who are safer on the streets than in the schools, lower scores on college entrance exams, more money spent on vandalism than on textbooks, the public's growing concern and unwillingness to provide financial support to a shaky enterprise, and graduation of functional illiterates. Typists can't spell, job seekers can't fill out an application form, and clerks can't give the correct change. Due to the fact that many high school graduates can't read, there is a string of lawsuits on appeal across the country. These suits symbolize the growing public concern that today's schools are not teaching children the basic skills.

There are those who do not believe that students today are more illiterate than they used to be. They support this conviction with some of the following arguments. S.A.T. scores are designed to measure aptitude for college, not the bare basics of literacy. Concerning functional literacy tests, the criterion for being classified as functionally illiterate is an arbitrary cut-off point. Wayne Martin of the National Assessment of Education Progress states that, "If you missed one or two more than the cut-off point, I certainly wouldn't call you functionally illiterate" (1).

It's difficult to compare high school graduates of today with high school graduates of the past because far fewer people drop out of high school today. In the early 1900's, only 6% finished high school; now 75% do (1). To say schools are as good as they ever were is not the answer. Too many parents refuse to believe it.

Public concern and evidence that schools were in trouble mounted until it was too impressive to be ignored. It would be impossible to list all of our problems but here are three of the most serious: 1) A decline in basic competencies. To correct this, the understanding of other vital subjects should be improved and time wasted on unnecessary electives that
gradually sneaked into the curriculum should be eliminated; 2) The endless chain. In a sense, education is like an endless chain. When children aren’t sufficiently trained during the elementary years, they will have difficulty handling secondary school work. Then the problem is carried on to either college or the job market. At college this results in time and money wasted on remediation. In the job market it results in a competitive disadvantage. Some of these even go on to teach. At this point the chain has completed a full circle; 3) No Effort + No Accountability = No Results. Once schools and teachers placed a premium upon effort and encouraged it by rewards and penalties. In the 1970’s, rather than be rigid in a time when flexibility was one of the highest virtues, we relaxed our standards and then abolished them. Homework, honest grading, demanding courses, required courses and earned promotion went out. We leveled the field so that all could pass without labor or frustration. A student quickly discovers that not much effort is needed to get by. If everyone but the very worst will pass, be promoted, and receive a diploma, why knock yourself out? To be sure, educators had some help. Top psychologists convinced many that grades were responsible for various mental problems and complexities. Schools were used to demonstrate all the latest experiments, hardware and software. A hidden truth that educators could never publicly admit was: It was simply easier that way. There was no monitoring - i.e., teachers monitoring students, principals monitoring teachers, superintendents monitoring principals. There was no accountability. When teachers reduce their efforts and demand less from students and when teachers and school are not held accountable, the outcome is obviously a loss of educational quality.

Today accountability seems to be the catch word. Business and government are being held accountable for their operations. Society’s concern about the goals and performance of today’s schools is resulting in a demand for school and teacher accountability. The rising costs of education have also intensified the demand for a valid method of auditing the operations of the schools.

As it pertains to education, accountability embodies two notions: 1) At designated levels, students should be able to demonstrate a certain standard of achievement; and 2) Schools and teachers must show that, with the money they receive, they are producing the product for which that money was intended—educated students (6).

One tool schools are using to determine accountability is minimum competency tests. Strict teacher accountability partisans argue that doctors validate their work by cured patients, lawyers by protected clients, and engineers by functioning structures. So, why shouldn’t educators be required to validate their roles by producing students who are indeed educated (6). In most lines of work, if you perform incompetently, you lose prestige or money or even your job. If some teachers fail to do what they are paid to do, some people argue, why should they be paid in full (8)? They feel that student failure equals teacher failure. In some communities around the country, people are insisting that teachers specify objectives and be held strictly accountable for their achievement.

Some top administrators are calling for schools to move beyond using minimum competency testing to measure accountability. One problem is that we’ve never been skillful at
developing ways to measure teacher accountability. Carl Marburger, former New Jersey Commissioner of Education, cautions against turning accountability into a teacher vendetta (1). Standardized tests may be useful in measuring cognitive skills, but it's questionable whether they are appropriate for assisting the less tangible but more significant outcomes of schooling (9).

The art of teaching is unique in that teacher effectiveness cannot be judged by his words or actions or by the student's responses at any given moment. It must await final evaluation until an imminent or distant future, and even then by criteria that are difficult to define (9).

Student achievement is an important criterion by which teachers should be evaluated but it's certainly not the only criterion to be used. An array of factors make up the quality of a student's education. Teacher behavior is one but there are also various others such as: the schools sense of mission, the principal, policies and directions of the central office, parental interest and support, traditions, environment, the stability of the faculty and student body, student aptitude and others.

Parents once lent a hand in education by backing up the schools in discipline matters, enforcing proper study habits, and when asked giving their kids guidance on their work. Today public schools lack some of this support. For whatever reasons, education needs all the friends it can get, its solid base of support in the public has been seriously eroded (5).

Schools who have grappled with the accountability problem have had more success with systems of mutual accountability and rewards in place of "the circle irresponsibility", the endless finger pointing that characterizes public education (4). Education is a shared responsibility between parents, teachers, and students; between home and school; between school systems and communities. Learning is not a commodity or a service that can be delivered to people. It's a process of human development that can be helped by teachers, but that requires the initiative of those who want to be developed. Teachers should work hard to turn students on and pull them into the learning process but students are the prime workers (2).

There is no question that schools must be accountable to their constituents and the link between student accountability and teacher accountability is what makes professional educators feel less secure in their jobs. Parents and the public will demand and get better student and teacher performance. The important question is not whether there will be more emphasis on teacher accountability, but how the issue will be handled.

Accountability mobilizes everyone involved. It requires effort not only from administrators and teachers, but from parents too. It involves sensitivity, cooperation, and fairness. Without leadership and foresight both from the profession and the public, our schools will be turned into political arenas, headed toward increased confrontation (1).
References

Periodicals

Books
CONTRIBUTORS

Barbara Barrett, Assistant Professor, Home Economics, Stephen F. Austin State University.

Carolyn Baxter, Teacher, Huntsville I.S.D., Huntsville, Texas.

Camille G. Bell, Professor and Chairperson, Home Economics, Texas Tech University.

Donna Couchenour, Assistant Professor, Home Economics, Stephen F. Austin State University.

Renee Creech, Teacher, Elysian Fields I.S.D., Elysian Fields, Texas.

Charlene Crocker, Assistant Professor, Secondary Education, Stephen F. Austin State University.

Sue E. Butts, Professor, Home Economics, Stephen F. Austin State University.

James M. DiNucci, Professor, Health and Physical Education, Stephen F. Austin State University.

Gloria E. Durr, Professor and Chairperson, Home Economics, Stephen F. Austin State University.

Mack Hall, Teacher, Kirbyville Junior High, Kirbyville Texas.

Lynn Luther, Teacher, C.E. King Junior High, Houton, Texas.

Melodie McDonald, Teacher, Lufkin State School, Lufkin, Texas.

Douglas Prewitt, Professor, Education Administration, Stephen F. Austin State University.

Frank Smith, Professor, Elementary Education, Stephen F. Austin State University.

Connie Spreadbury, Associate Professor, Sociology and Assistant Dean of Liberal Arts, Stephen F. Austin State University.
Guidelines for Contributors

Three (3) copies of manuscript should be submitted to the editor.

Typed double spaced on 8½" x 11" white paper.

Reviewers do not receive the names of people submitting manuscripts, consequently a cover sheet is needed indicating the title, author(s), degrees, professional title or rank, employment address, telephone number, and date.

Also on the cover sheet, indicate your understanding of the Copyright Revision Act of 1976 by including the following statement:

“In consideration of the SFASU Journal of Education action in reviewing and editing my submission, the author(s) undersigned hereby transfer, assign, or otherwise convey all copyright ownership to the SFASU Journal of Education in the event such work is published by the Journal.”

Authors should strive for brevity, readability, and grammatical accuracy. The title of a manuscript should be succinct and lend itself to indexing.

Citations and bibliography should follow the style of the Journal of Educational Research. Briefly, that includes the following:

a. place references at the end of manuscript,
b. arrange references in alphabetical order,
c. number each reference in sequential order, and
d. citations within the manuscript refer only to the number of the reference and should use page numbers only when appropriate.

Charts, graphs, and tables should be camera-ready on separate pages.

All accepted manuscripts are subject to copy editing.

Additional copies of an issue are available to the authors of articles appearing in the Journal.

Manuscripts will be returned to those authors who include a stamped, self-addressed envelope.