A STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE SEX

EQUITY WORKSHOPS DESIGNED FOR VOCA-

TIONAL EDUCATORS IN OKLAHOMA

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Occupational choices are among the most critical choices people make. The primary role of vocational education has been to prepare people for occupations through training programs and cooperative arrangements with business and industry. Historically and legislatively, this has been the mandate of vocational education (Harrison et al., 1979).

There was a time in our society when female employment was not socially acceptable. Presently, however, gainful employment for females is becoming increasingly important. Economic conditions, changing family patterns, and a more flexible societal standard are catalysts for female entry into the labor market.

Traditional family patterns are changing. What was once considered the "typical" American family in which the father was employed outside the home and the mother worked inside the home caring for two children, now constitutes only seven percent of all families in the nation (Bombay, 1979).

According to the U.S. Department of Labor's statistics of 1982, a majority of women work because of economic need. This need is reflected by both the two parent and the female head of household patterns. For a two parent family to survive or to maintain the standard

of living that they desire, a second income is often necessary in
order to cope with inflation. For the single parent head of house-
hold, employment is necessary for survival. Eighty-seven percent
of all single parent families are headed by women (Rich, 1980).
With three out of every ten marriages ending in divorce, women are
supporting an increasing proportion of all families. About one out
of six (16%) families was maintained by a woman in 1982, compared with
more than one out of eight (12%) in 1972 (U.S. Department of Labor,
1982). Two out of every five single parent families live below the
poverty level; the majority of these were headed by women (Waldman
et al., 1979).

There are other reasons for women working outside the home. The
women's movement has raised social consciousness by enhancing the so-
cial acceptability of work outside the home and fostering the view
that through work women can find additional intellectual and personal
fulfillment (Reider, 1977).

In addition, scientific and technological advances and the elec-
tronic revolution have done much to free women to work outside the
home. Furthermore, more jobs are available in new and emerging fields
as a result of new technology. These technological advances, in turn,
have created sociological changes which further stimulate and accel-
erate female entry into the employment market.

Educational Levels Relating to Salary
and Occupation

Despite tremendous increases in women's participation in the paid
work force, sex role stereotyping and bias still exist. Statistical

evidence relating educational levels to salary and distribution by occupations are presented in the paragraphs which follow.

The average female worker is as well educated as the average male worker, both having completed a median of 12.7 years of schooling. However, fully employed female high school graduates (with no college) had less income on the average than fully employed men who had not completed elementary school. Women with four years of college or more also had less income than men with only one to three years of high school (U.S. Department of Labor, 1982).

A comparison of salary by gender provides additional support to the theme of bias. According to the U.S. Department of Labor statistics of 1980, women are earning 59 cents for every dollar that a man earns in the same or comparable job. Traditionally, a job considered a "woman's job" has had earnings far below that of a "man's job." The connotation is that work done by women is not worth as much as work done by men.

Women are not well represented in the status professions. According to a 1978 issue of the U.S. News and World Report, even though women constitute 41 percent of the total labor force, as of 1977, only one in six working women was in a profession or occupation associated with higher status and earnings. The rest still held jobs in the traditional fields, i.e., the fields in which women had heretofore sought employment and been employed.

.Federal legislation has been enacted to overcome sex stereotyping and bias in education. Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in all federally funded educational institutions. Eliminating sex discrimination, sex bias,

and sex stereotyping from all vocational education programs is mandated in Title II, Vocational Education, of the 1976 Education Amendments. Title II also requires that each state set forth policies and procedures that will assure equal access to vocational education for both men and women (Vetter et al., 1979).

To implement Title II legislation and to assure itself that funded programs would be accessible to both sexes, Congress required each state to employ a person full time to coordinate the development and implementation of special programs and activities for overcoming sex bias and sex stereotyping. This sex equity coordinator was obligated by the Education Amendments of 1976, Title II, Section 104.72, to carry out certain functions. This action was designed to reduce sex bias and sex stereotyping. In complying with this mandate, Oklahoma began a series of "awareness" workshops for vocational educators in which activities to help reinforce nonbiased attitudes would be implemented. Participants in three of these workshops offered in 1981 constitute the sample for this study.

Statement of the Problem

It is not known if such workshops are effective in altering the attitudes of workshop participants. If not, continued improvement and changed methods will be necessary to make the educators more aware of sex role stereotyping and bias.

The purpose of this study is twofold. First, it is to determine if workshops designed to increase awareness of sex-role stereotyping and sex bias are of immediate effectiveness in changing attitudes of vocational educators. A second purpose is to test for any lasting attitudinal changes among the sample.

Objectives of the Study

The objective of this study is to evaluate the attitude change of workshop participants. In order to accomplish this objective, the following questions will be answered:

1. Did the participants' expectations of males and females on the level of employment and decision making responsibilities increase from the pre-test to the tests immediately following the workshop?

2. Did the participants' expectations of males and females on the level of employment and decision making responsibilities increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

3. Did the participants' expectations on the importance of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

4. Did the participants' expectations on the importance of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

5. Did the participants' expectations on the types of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

6. Did the participants' expectations on the types of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

7. Did the participants' expectations on how well males and females will perform in a work setting increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

8. Did the participants' expectations on how well males and fe-
males will perform in a work setting increase from the pre-test to
the post-test given three months following the workshops?

9. Did the participants' expectations about the basic abilities
and potentials of males and females increase from the pre-test to the
test immediately following the workshops?

10. Did the participants' expectations about the basic abilities
and potentials of males and females increase from the pre-test to the
post-test given three months following the workshops?

11. Did the participants' general sex-role stereotyping beliefs
about careers and job opportunities of males and females increase from
the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

12. Did the participants' general sex-role stereotyping beliefs
about careers and job opportunities of males and females increase from
the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the work-
shops?

Limitations of the Study

The study included administrators, counselors, librarians, and
vocational teachers in Oklahoma who voluntarily enrolled in one of
three sex-equity workshops held either in May, June, or July of 1981.

Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, the following assumptions were
made:

1. The sample is representative of educators who would attend
future workshops dealing with sex equity.

2. The instrument is valid and does measure attitudes.

3. The participants were able and willing to respond to the survey honestly.

Definition of Terms

The Final Regulations for Title II, Vocational Education, of the Education Amendments of 1976 provides the following definitions which are adopted by this researcher for the study:

Sex Bias: Behaviors resulting from the assumption that one sex is superior to the other.

Sex Stereotyping: Attributing behaviors, abilities, interests, values, and roles to a person or group of persons on the basis of their sex.

Sex Discrimination: Action which limits or denies a person or a group of persons opportunities, privileges, roles, or rewards on the basis of their sex.

Other definitions pertinent to this study include:

Decision Making Responsibilities: Refers to the degree or number of decisions that an individual may make in an organization.

Level of Employment: Refers to the position that an individual holds in an organization and the amount of authority and responsibility associated with the job.

Expectations: Operationally defined by scores on the instrument utilized in this study. "Expectations" are indicators of underlying attitudes regarding the various components measured.

Component: The different subdivisions or clusters of items grouped according to content. For this study there are six components.

The word "component" is used in this study instead of the word "sub-division" that is identified by Trent (1979) in his study.

Significance of the Study

Because individual potential is ignored through sex stereotyping, women of high ability often work at jobs which do not tap their talent. As a result, the society-at-large loses the potential resources of half of its population. Accordingly, the development and training of the total labor resources are of prime importance to both the individual and the society.

Continuing sex segregation in work is an economic disadvantage to both the women and those who depend on them. Female-headed families are more likely than others to live below the poverty level with diminished access to housing, health care, education, and job opportunities (Matthews, 1980). Consequently, the children in female-headed families often do not receive the nutritional, medical, and child care that is required to meet their physical, mental, and emotional needs. Ultimately then, the underemployment of women affects untold numbers of humanity's future generations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature related to this study is presented in three cate-
gories. The categories include sex role stereotyping, the process of
changing attitudes, and the effectiveness of the workshops.

Sex Role Stereotyping

There is an abundance of literature pertaining to the effects of
sex-role stereotyping on the general careers pursued by men and women.
The research on sex equity and career choices in vocational education,
however, is hardly abundant. Nevertheless, the research on women in
the general work force is relevant to the particulars of vocational
careers. The review of the literature pertinent to this study will
therefore be divided into two sections: women in the labor force and
sex equity in vocational education.

Women in the Labor Force

The overall labor force is usually defined as the total number
of workers who are either employed or are actively seeking employment.
Looking at women in the labor force, here are a few of the Twenty
Facts on Women Workers which are of interest to this study:

> Women accounted for nearly three-fifths of the increase
> in the civilian labor force in the last decade--about
> 13 million women compared with more than nine million
> men.
>
> The more education a woman has, the greater the likeli-
> hood she will seek paid employment. Among women with
> four or more years of college, about two out of three
> were in the labor force in 1979.
>
> The average woman worker is as well educated as the aver-
> age man worker; both have completed a median of 12.6
> years of schooling.
>
> Women were 80 percent of all clerical workers in 1979
> but only 6 percent of all craft workers; 62 percent of
> service workers but only 43 percent of professional and
> technical workers; and 63 percent of retail sales work-
> ers but only 25 percent of nonfarm managers and admin-
> istrators (U.S. Department of Labor, 1981, n.p.).

It should be noted further that by 1979 over half of all American

women over the age of 16 were part of the labor force. The actual

number of working women has more than doubled since 1950. It is esti-

mated that by 1990 nearly 50 percent of the work force will consist

of women, compared to a 1978 figure of 42.1 percent; there will be an

additional 12 million women in the labor force by that date, with more

than 70 percent of all women working (Laitman-Ashley, 1979). Between

1950 and 1976, women accounted for over 60 percent of the total in-

crease in the work force; the percentage of male participation here

dropped from 86.8 to 78.1 percent, while the proportion of females in-

volved went up from 33.9 to 47.4 percent (Ginzberg, 1977).

The reasons for this increase in women's participation in the

labor force are varied. First of all, the shift in such tasks as the

production of food and clothing from the home to industry resulted in

a parallel shift in the activity of women (Mixer, 1974). Secondly,

new jobs in areas such as data processing, health fields, and govern-

ment service resulted in women taking advantage of this opportunity

to increase their household income (Steele, 1974). Further, in more recent times, significant changes in general sex-role attitudes have made it more socially acceptable for women to seek career employment (Waite, 1977). The marriage age among women is also rising, as is their control over their participation in the birth process; this too has contributed to the more pronounced presence of women in the labor force (Greene, 1976). In addition, as the number of females who have working mothers goes up, so does the likelihood of their future involvement in the work force (Macke et al., 1979).

Despite the increasing numbers and percentages of women in the labor force, sex-role stereotyping continues to have an impact, and the pattern of job segregation persists. In her review of the literature on the school's role in the stereotyping of girls, for example, Levy (1972) found that children's consciousness of "appropriate" sex-role behavior increases with age. She also reported that traditional sex-role behavior characteristics such as obedience, docility, and dependence are reinforced by school personnel themselves. Stereotypical characteristics of females include talkativeness, tactfulness, gentleness, sympathy, a need for security, quietness, and religious and artistic tendencies, while male characteristics include aggression, independence, rationality, directness, self-confidence, and ambition (Naffziger and Naffziger, 1974).

Further, it has been determined that textbooks used in the schools often portray women as passive, cowardly, and incompetent, while men are shown to be active, brave, and resourceful (Stacey et al., 1974). By the time they are in high school, then, young men and women exhibit pronounced differences in their educational and occupational

aspirations (Ott et al., 1980). Here it has been found that adolescent boys aspire to a higher educational level than do their female peers and that the occupational selections made by each group are highly stereotyped (Marini and Greenberger, 1978).

The continuing trend in sex-role stereotyping has resulted in an aggravation of the problem of occupational segregation. Of the 440 occupations listed in the Census Occupational Classification System, for example, the majority of working women can be found in only 20 job categories, including typist, bank teller, secretary, telephone operator, bookkeeper, and nurse (Freedman, 1976); moreover, the dominant characteristics of these occupations are the specificity of the tasks and an absence of promotional ladders. The findings reported by Reider (1977) are of interest in this connection:

> More than 40 percent of all women in the work force are employed in ten occupations: secretary, retail sales, bookkeeper, household worker, elementary school teacher, waitress, typist, cashier, nurse and seamstress. Only 20 percent of males, on the other hand, are concentrated in the top ten occupations employing men.
>
> Nearly 70 percent of working women are employed in three occupational groups: clerical (35 percent), service (18 percent) and professional and technical (15 percent). By comparison, only 50 percent of working men are employed in the top three occupational groups employing men: skilled crafts (21 percent), professional and technical (14 percent) and managerial (14 percent).
>
> Of all women employed in non-agricultural positions, 63 percent are concentrated in services (25 percent), retail (20 percent) and government (18 percent, largely teachers). In contrast, only 43 percent of employed men are found in the top three industries employing men: manufacturing (19 percent), retail (14 percent) and government (12 percent).
>
> In medicine women are over represented in pediatrics, psychiatry, anesthesiology and pathology but greatly under represented in surgical areas.

> In law, very few women are to be found in the upper eche-
> lons of law firms or occupying judicial benches.
>
> In education, women account for nearly 85 percent of ele-
> mentary teachers but less than 50 percent of secondary
> teachers and only 25 percent of college teachers. At
> the adminisntrative level, women account for only 10 per-
> cent of elementary principals, 1 percent of secondary
> principals and .1 percent of school superintendents
> (pp. 2-3).

The Bureau of the Census has reported that in 1981 the mean annual

income for women working full-time was $12,172, while for men it was

$20,682 (U.S. Department of Labor, 1982).

These facts clearly indicate a need for sex equity in the occupa-

tions and careers available to women. The next things to be consid-

ered for the purposes of this study, then, is sex equity in vocational

education.

Sex Equity in Vocational Education

Looking at the historical pattern in vocational education, it may

be observed that programs in vocational education have failed to help

women develop significant wage-earning skills. By the beginning of

the 1960s, however, vocational programs brought about a shift in en-

rollments, yet here too women were to be found in largely sex-

stereotypical roles. The Vocational Education Study: The Final Re-

port (1981) reveals information for 1977 and 1980 (Table I).

It is also important to note that there are parallel statistics

on the sex distribution of personnel in vocational education. One

study (Basualdo, 1975) reports that of the female vocational faculty,

47.2 percent teach home economics, 41.0 percent business and office

skills, 3.4 percent health education, 2.2 percent distributive educa-

tion, 1.8 percent trade and industrial education, and 0.2 percent

agricultural education. According to Basualdo (1975), as of 1975, not one female was teaching in technical education. Thus, as dismal as the statistics are for student enrollment, the picture for adult women serving in vocational education fields is darker still.

TABLE I

ENROLLMENTS BY PROGRAM BY SEX

	1977		1980	
Program	Percent Male	Percent Female	Percent Male	Percent Female
Agriculture	85.1	14.9	80.4	19.6
Distributive Education	50.3	49.7	45.3	54.7
Health Occupations	21.8	78.2	21.0	79.0
Consumer and Homemaking	18.4	81.6	22.0	78.0
Occupational Home Economics	16.1	83.9	21.4	78.6
Office Occupations	24.9	75.1	26.3	73.7
Technical Education	83.0	17.0	78.9	21.1
Trade and Industry	85.6	14.4	81.5	18.5

Source: The Vocational Education Study: The Final Report (1981).

Since vocational education personnel are part of the labor force for which they are training students; a change in the traditional career choices among students may eventually be reflected here. Before such a change can come about, however, certain elements associated with sex-role stereotyping in vocational education must be examined and brought to light. Some researchers, for example, have

shown that the lack of occupational role models for young women have

a self-perpetuating effect on the problem (Mitchell, 1977).

Family background is also an important variable. Here research

has indicated that, although parental occupation and education have

a positive effect on the career aspirations of young men, young

women from similar backgrounds continue to have more narrow, more

traditional occupational goals, despite their higher educational as-

pirations (Marini and Greenberger, 1978). In addition, it has been

indicated that mothers have a greater influence on their daughters'

career choices, so that non-traditional attitudes among mothers, where

they exist, are generally reflected in their daughters (Kane et al.,

1976).

Peer influence should also be considered in looking at vocational

career choices. For example, Lewis and Kaltreider (1976) have found

that when peers do have a negative influence, they are usually male

friends who become the source of criticism. Trigg and Perlman (1976),

however, found that women making non-traditional career choices found

more support among peers of both sexes than did women pursuing the

traditional occupations.

With respect to school personnel, it has been found that teachers

have little influence on non-traditional vocational career choices as

compared to the influence of the immediate family (Lewis and Kaltreider,

1976). When teachers are named as an influence, however, they are most

often male (Kane et al., 1976). Kane and Frazee (1978) also report

that female students in vocational programs do not feel that counselors

are of much help in assisting them with their career choices. On the

other hand, Mitchell (1977) has found that counselors are usually more

aware of sex bias than teachers, and they may therefore have a more supportive influence on non-traditional career choices among young women.

At this point, the question of what can be done to achieve sex equity in vocational education must be considered. In the Education Amendments of 1976, Congress mandated that in order to receive federal funds, vocational education institutions must take steps to overcome sex bias, stereotyping, and discrimination. Under the provisions of these amendments, a sex equity coordinator for each state was designated who must do the following:

a. Take action necessary to create awareness of programs and activities in vocational education designed to reduce sex bias and sex stereotyping in all vocational educational programs, including assisting the state board in publicizing the public hearings on the state plan.

b. Gather, analyze and disseminate data on the status of men and women students and employees in vocational education programs of the state.

c. Develop and support actions to correct problems brought to the attention of these personnel through activities carried out under paragraph (b), including creating awareness of the Title IX complaint process.

d. Review the distribution of grants and contracts by the state board to ensure that the interests and needs of women are addressed in all projects assisted under this Act.

e. Review all state vocational education programs (including work-study programs, cooperative vocational education programs, apprenticeship programs and the placement of students who have successfully completed vocational education programs) for sex bias.

f. Monitor the implementation of laws prohibiting sex discrimination in all hiring, firing, and promotion procedures within the state relating to vocational education.

g. Assist local educational agencies and other interested parties in the state in improving vocational education opportunities for women.

h. Make information developed under this section avail-
able to the state board, the state advisory council,
the National Advisory Council on Vocational Educa-
tion, the state commission on the status of women,
the commissioner, and the general public, including
individuals and organizations in the state concerned
about sex bias in vocational education.

i. Review the self-evaluations required by Title IX.

j. Review and submit recommendations with respect to
overcoming sex bias and sex stereotyping in voca-
tional education programs for the five-year state
plan and its annual program plan prior to their sub-
mission to the commissioner for approval (Final
Regulations for Public Law 94-482, 1977, p. 53831).

As if these tasks were not difficult enough, many people inside and
outside vocational education institutions view sex equity coordinators
as hostile representatives of alien interests (Evans, 1981).

There are, however, strategies and systems to assist sex equity
coordinators and other interested parties. Lewis and Kaltreider
(1976), for instance, offer innumerable strategies for tackling prob-
lem areas. In addition, Trent et al. (1979) have developed a self-
confrontation manual to assist school personnel in modifying attitudes
toward sex stereotyping in vocational education.

One of the biggest areas in achieving sex equity in vocational
education lies in the development of recruitment strategies. Project
EVE (Lerner et al., 1976), which uses the slide-tape presentation,
All About Eve, and a student handbook, What's in Your Future . . .
Will You Plan it or Just Let it Happen?, is one example of the ef-
forts to recruit high school women into non-traditional vocational ed-
ucation programs. Major components of the EVE recruitment model
includes:

1. needs assessment and project evaluation

2. analysis of non-traditional job opportunities

3. advisory committee

4. initial recruitment and monitoring of non-traditional
    enrollees

5. development of recruitment materials and procedures

6. community-wide publicity campaign

7. enlistment of support from school personnel, parents
    and community

8. fostering linkage with industry and unions (Lerner
    et al., 1976, pp. 51-52).

Identifying the following target groups can also aid recruitment ef-
forts: displaced homemakers, women needing improvements in job skills,
women seeking non-traditional career changes, and women with special
education needs, including the handicapped, economically disadvantaged,
ethnically disadvantaged, rurally isolated, disruptive youth, and
school-age parents (Evans, 1981). The development of in-service train-
ing systems has also been found to be a valuable aid to recruitment
and to increasing the general awareness of the sex equity problem.
In-service strategies have evolved in several ways: (1) increasing
the focus on both sexes in dealing with sex equity, (2) accenting
positive attitudes, (3) stimulating involvement in sex equity activi-
ties, and (4) providing pertinent materials and resources (Vetter
et al., 1979).

Contribution of Vocational Education to Change

In order for vocational education to effect positive changes in
sex equity, certain aspects of vocational education itself must
change. Disagreements between male and female perceptions of the
problem within the ranks of vocational education personnel must be
overcome. Here, for example, most men in vocational education feel

that the problem is not too serious, while women are painfully aware of it (Harrison, 1977). One reason for this may be the fact that, as of 1975, males occupied 90.29 percent of the positions held by vocational school directors (Sites, 1975).

Although changes in the law represent a step in the right direction, this is not enough. Above and beyond this there must be evaluations of advisory committees, recruitment and admission policies, hiring practices, counseling efforts, curriculum materials, and teaching practices.

<div align="center">Process of Changing Attitudes</div>

Allport (1935) first formulated one of the most widely used definitions of attitude. He said that an attitude was a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience. He goes on to say that it exerts a direct or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to situations with which it is related. More recently, Triandis (1971) has enhanced the definition of attitude by dividing attitude into three interrelated components: (1) the cognitive component or the idea shaping an attitude, (2) the affective component or the emotion charging the idea, and (3) the behavioral component, or the action resulting from the idea.

Examining Allport (1935) and Triandis (1971) together, it may be seen that attitudes are closely aligned with values. Like values, attitudes bring into play the emotional and intellectual faculties which generate responsive action within a given situation. They help people to organize and simplify their environment, thus enabling them to better understand the world around them. Attitudes help people

to position the signposts and points of reference that tell them
which path to follow and what to expect. Such knowledge fosters a
sense of security and self-esteem, providing people with the convic-
tion that their fundamental values are indeed well grounded. But
as the paths followed become more worn, the attitudes and values at
work become more deeply rooted within the individual and therefore
more difficult to change.

Even though changes in attitudes may be difficult, they are not
impossible. Indeed, as time goes on, the rate of change seems to
accelerate. The expansion of the media, the broadening of research,
and the development of forums for discussion all contribute to change.
Fabun (1967) points out in this regard that change had both a quanti-
tative and qualitative aspect. An increase in the number of computers,
for example, goes with society's greater willingness to accept them.
As the outer fixtures of the environment change, so does the inner
attitude toward them. The interplay must be considered when develop-
ing techniques and strategies for quantitative and qualitative change.

Triandis (1971) has noted that there are various means of bring-
ing about changes in attitudes. First of all, attitudes can be
altered through direct contact with the object of concern. A posi-
tive experience with a woman occupying a position in management, for
instance, may create a more favorable attitude toward women in man-
agement. Further, as the number of women in management increases,
there should be a corresponding qualitative change in the attitudes
toward them.

Legislation promoting changes of this nature may also affect the
attitudes that govern behavior. Such legislation may run counter to

certain existing attitudes, but may nonetheless alter those attitudes by controlling those events which shape attitudes. Here Triandis (1971) has pointed out that attitudes do indeed change to conform with events which have taken place. As an example, Triandis cites a study conducted by Cole, Hartry, and Brebuer in 1962 in which they analyzed students' attitudes toward Caryl Chessman, who was executed in 1960. More students felt that he deserved the death sentence after his execution than before the execution.

Whether change in attitudes occur as the result of personal experience, legislation, or conformity with an event, openness or resistance to change is still critical. In this connection, Nies and LaBrecque (1980) have indicated that openness or resistance to change will depend on: (1) the source of change, (2) the nature of the proposed change, and (3) the means of bringing about the change. The source of a change in attitude may be a person, a group, or the object of concern. People will be more receptive to the nature of the change if they are involved in the planning and implementation of it and if it is clear that they will benefit from it. Such clarity can be achieved through discussion designed to eliminate possible misconceptions. It should also be noted that if the proposed change is open to revision, then the people involved will be more open to the change itself.

Jarrett (1973) has identified certain knowledge, skills, and commitments which are necessary to facilitate the process of changing attitudes. First, it is essential that the people involved understand the purpose and function of their organization. Secondly, the agent of change must be able to develop and carry out a plan of

action with positive interpersonal skills. Finally, the facilitator must be committed to working with and actively involving others in the change process.

Effectiveness of Workshops

Few studies on the effectiveness of workshops in the process of changing attitudes have been conducted, but there are some notable examples. A study done by Butler (1979) on the effectiveness of an academic workshop indicated highly significant changes in the responses to a questionnaire distributed before and after the workshop. The change reflected a better understanding of college-level academics and a greater insight into the academic transition from high school to college.

In a study of the effectiveness of a workshop on beliefs and attitudes, Coan (1976) found that there were significant changes among participants, but there was no strong indication that the workshop had an impact on subsequent behavior. Coan suggests that program planners arrange for participants to perform specific on-the-job tasks following the workshop.

A study conducted by Sic and Robinson (1981) for the Aerospace Corporation supports Coan's (1976) suggestion that some follow-up work be done after a workshop is given. Evaluating the results of a two-day Equal Opportunity Workshop, they gave tests before and after the workshop; the test results showed no significant change in attitudes. Sic and Robinson concluded that agents influencing change must extend beyond the workshop itself in order to achieve changes in attitudes.

In a study of staff development and in-service programs, Lawrence (1981) reported that in-service programs most successful in accomplishing their objectives were those which:

- involved teachers actively in initiating, planning, and conducting the program;

- were designed as a collective effort of a faculty, with common purposes and directed toward general faculty development rather than focusing on the separate goals and needs of individual faculty members;

- were funded in ways that permitted the teachers and administrators of individual schools to sponsor them, to design activities, and to select inside and outside leadership as appropriate to the plans (Programs led by school supervisors, teachers, and college personnel met their objectives better than those led by state department of education personnel, school district staff, or other outside consultants);

- were scheduled at times (evenings, summers) that did not compete with but complemented other professional obligations of the participants (Programs scheduled during work hours were considerably less successful in achieving objectives);

- had diverse program patterns that seemed to emphasize teacher responsibility--self instruction, peer study groups, college courses, one-to-one consultation (The formats loosely labeled as workshop and staff meetings were considerably less successful in achieving objectives);

- involved participants in both receptive and active roles--receiving new ideas and putting them into action--rather than one type without the other;

- had sequences in which participants could try out new things in their classrooms (or in simulations) and then receive appropriate feedback from a skilled person (Programs in which participants were expected to store up new ideas and behavior prescriptions for a future time were distinctly less successful in achieving objectives);

- had leaders who were linkers with a university or other center concerned with professional development;

- had opportunities for participants to see demonstra-
  tions of exemplary practices, and to learn the skills
  of observing the practices in themselves and others;

- did not rely on lecture presentations as the main
  activity;

- were conducted at the school site if the programs em-
  phasized affective or skill performance objectives
  (pp. 4-5).

Lawrence also indicated that the question of whether participation in

the programs was mandatory or voluntary had no bearing on the differ-

ences in the success of the program.

Summary

The literature reviewed shows that the sex role stereotyping

which plagues the labor force exists in vocational education as well.

Since attitudes toward women are generated from the roles assigned

to them, and since the roles assigned to them are generated from

attitudes toward them, the problem is self-perpetuating. Sex role

stereotypes are part of the fundamental values and attitudes accord-

ing to which people organize the environment. The process of chang-

ing attitudes then is a slow and arduous one, entailing a fundamental

rearrangement of the surrounding world. One way to bring about such

a change in the structure of the world and in the attitudes toward it

is through the development of the effectiveness of workshops designed

to promote changes in attitudes. In order to enhance workshop ef-

fectiveness, members of the target group--faculty and administrators

in vocational education, for example--must actively participate in

the planning and implementation of the program. Effectiveness is

further increased by assigning appropriate on-the-job tasks following

the workshop itself. The literature indicates that the study and development of such procedures may facilitate the process of changing attitudes, so that sex role stereotyping in vocational education may be overcome.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the implementation to achieve the purposes
of the study that is the procedure used to select the sample, the
treatment, the instrumentation, the collection of the data, and the
analysis of the data obtained.

The purpose of the study was twofold. First, it was to determine
if workshops, designed to increase awareness of sex role stereotyping
and biases, were effective. A second purpose was to test for any
lasting attitudinal changes among the sample.

This study is classified as a pre-experimental design; more spe-
cifically, it involves one group that is pre-tested, exposed to a
treatment, and then post-tested. Comparing pre-test and post-test
scores determines the success of the treatment (Gay, 1981).

Selection of Sample

The Educational Equity Division of the Oklahoma State Department
of Vocational and Technical Education sent information to all Oklahoma
vocational educators concerning a workshop to be conducted to modify
existing attitudes relating to sex role stereotyping and biases of
school personnel. A copy of this notice can be found in Appendix A.

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The group of educators who attended represented the sample; accept-ance or refusal of the extended invitation was the criterion for this self selection sampling procedure.

The population consisted of approximately 2,164 Oklahoma voca-tional educators employed during the fiscal year 1980-81, to whom information concerning the workshop was sent. These were in the areas of home economics, agriculture, business and office, trade and industrial education, distributive education and marketing, in-terdisciplinary cooperative education, industrial arts, health, special programs, and administration.

A total of 67 educators participated in one of the three work-shops. The first was held in Tulsa, Oklahoma, on May 26-27, 1981; the second was held in Stillwater, Oklahoma, on June 3-4, 1981; and the third workshop was held in Wagoner, Oklahoma (Western Hills State Lodge) on July 14-16, 1981.

Demographic information about the workshop participants is used in the statistical treatment of the data. For a breakdown of the sample by gender, age, occupational classification, total years in the teaching field, attendance in other sex equity seminars, level of education attained, community in which they live, and the type of school in which they work, see Appendix B.

Treatment

The workshops averaged about 18 hours in length. The May and June workshops lasted two days, beginning in the morning and contin-uing until 5:00 p.m. on the second day. Because of the traveling distance to the location of the July workshop, it began at 1:00 p.m.

on the first day and concluded at noon on the third day. The agenda in Appendix C is divided by sessions according to the differences in the starting time for the workshops.

The workshops were opened by the Educational Equity Coordinator who was the workshop coordinator and the author of this dissertation. A welcome address was extended by an administrator from the Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education. This helped to set the tone of the workshop in a positive manner and also established the fact that the Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education was behind the effort of the Educational Equity Division in their efforts to reduce sex stereotyping and bias.

Most of the activities completed in these workshops were taken from the Oklahoma Educational Equity curriculum guide. Prior to the first activity, the pre-test was given. The first activity, "Three Things," which is detained in Appendix D, was an activity in which participants could get acquainted with each other as well as learn what other participants liked to do that are or are not typical of their sex.

Following this was the slide/tape presentation, "The Tale of 0," which explores the consequences of being different. In "The Tale of 0," people were either "X's," or "0's," with "0's" being different from the majority of the group members in any particular dimension. After the introduction and presentation of this show, discussion took place with regard to the feelings of the participants when they were in a position of being different and how they felt about it.

The "Healthy Adult" activity provided opportunities for the participants to examine their ideas of a "healthy adult" (see Appendix E).

They compared their idea of a "healthy adult" with their idea of a male or a female.

Session two began with "Stimulus Response," an activity which introduces stereotyping. The panel following this activity consisted of the four people who were selected prior to the workshops for the panel. Prior to the panel, they participated in "Stimulus Response." These panel members were not introduced to the workshop participants. Instead, they were numbered panelist one, two, three, and four. The workshop participants were to answer the following questions on a sheet of paper for each panelist: Is the panelist married? Does this panelist have any children and, if so, how many? What kind of vehicle does the panelist drive? What is the highest level of education obtained by this panelist? What is their occupation? After these are answered, each panelist gives the correct answer to the questions. Comparisons were made with the workshop participants on how they had stereotyped the panelist. Following this, the panelist described their non-traditional careers and discussed why they selected the careers they did. Also discussed were the problems they encountered and the benefits they obtained because of their choice of careers.

A skit was presented on "The Story of Baby X" in which a child was born and was not identified as either male or female (see Appendix F). The story brought out the problems and anxieties of the parents, teachers, and other children when this child could not be labeled as male or female. In the story, this child developed with fewer social problems than the others. The sex of the child was never revealed and discussion followed.

Also in session two was "Continuum" (Appendix G). This activity involved taking a stand on issues concerning men and women. The "Homework" activity evaluates how people learn sex-role stereotypes (see Appendix H).

Session three began with a speaker whose topic was "Sex Equity." After this presentation, there was interaction with the audience. The film Men's Lives was shown which brought out the way men are affected negatively by sex role stereotyping.

Reports were given on "Homework," beginning with session four. Then the film Bias: A Four Letter Word was shown (Appendix I). This film points out how one's biases can often be unfounded and harmful.

Analyzing the advantages and disadvantages of being male or female was the goal of "Role Reversal" (Appendix J). "Language" was the next activity in which the participants were given a list of words and phrases and were asked to change them so that they would not be sexist words or phrases (Appendix K).

The final session began with "Title IX: Questions and Answers" (Appendix L). Up to this point the participants dealt mostly with values. This session presented the facts on Title IX. In-service skills were discussed and the participants wrote out a plan describing how they could use the information presented with their own students or with the other teachers in their school system as part of staff development. Following this, the post-test was given to the participants.

Instrumentation

The instrumentation used in this study was developed by Trent

et al. (1979) to measure attitudes in the area of sex role stereotyping and sex biases. After extensive research in this area, Trent et al. developed an instrument which would measure attitudes in the area of sex role stereotyping and sex biases. This instrument is the "Self-Administered Survey of Sex Stereotypes," and was taken from Project MASSIVE (Modifying Attitudes of Sex-Role Stereotyping in Vocational Education) (Appendix M). Author permission to use the instrument in this study was given by telephone and also in writing (Appendix N). The 60-item instrument incorporates a Likert-type statement style with five scaled responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Items with similar content were clustered into six factors.

Overall, the instrument reflects good face validity. The test was validated three ways: by content, construct, and empirical validity. Trent et al.'s (1979) findings were varied. The instrument reflects high content validity. When the instrument was tested for construct validity, it was less valid. When a factor analysis was computed, there was no support for the groupings. The alpha coefficient and the test-retest correlations for each factor and for the total survey were calculated to establish reliability. The alpha coefficient estimates were based on the scores of all 203 participants in the pre-test. This provided an estimate of internal consistency. The test-retest correlation coefficient was based only on the results from the control group. This provided an estimate of score stability in which no treatment was given. The reliability estimates were very satisfactory except for the factors with the fewest items and the smallest variance (Trent et al., 1979). Table

II summarizes the alpha coefficient and the test-retest correlation
of this instrument from Trent et al.'s (1979) study.

TABLE II

ALPHA COEFFICIENT AND TEST-RETEST
RELIABILITY ESTIMATES

	Items	Alpha Coefficient	Correlation
Subdivision 1*	14	.93	.79
Subdivision 2	8	.86	.77
Subdivision 3	14	.89	.67
Subdivision 4	11	.89	.74
Subdivision 5	7	.84	.73
Subdivision 6	6	.65	.67
Total	60	.97	.80

Source: R. E. Trent et al., Modifying Attitudes Toward Sex Stereo-
types in Vocational Education: Final Report (1979).

*The term "subdivision" used by Trent et al. (1979) means the same
as "component" in this study.

Although a total score was not obtained for this study, six
components were measured for each respondent. Those components or
subdivisions are: level of employment and decision-making responsi-
bilities, importance or purpose of employment, type of employment,
functioning in a work setting, an individual's basic abilities and

beliefs about what should exist. The items in each component can be found in Appendix O.

Component one, consisting of 14 items, measures how the respondent perceived that an individual's level of employment and decision making responsibilities in a career are influenced by that person's sex. An example of a test item in this subdivision is as follows: "Men, more than women, evaluate all of the facts before making a decision."

Component two, consisting of eight items, measures the participant's perception about how an individual's sex determines how important a career is to that individual's life. An example of a test item in the subdivision is as follows: "A wife's career is not as important to the family as her husband's."

Component three, consisting of 14 items, measures how the participant's perception of an individual's sex determines the type of career the person will have. An example of a test item in this subdivision is as follows: "There are certain jobs and roles which only men should have and the same is true for women."

Component four, consisting of 11 items, measures degree of participant's perception relating to gender influence on ability to function in a work setting. An example of a test item in this subdivision is as follows: "Women cost their companies more than men because of a higher turnover and absenteeism rate."

Component five, consisting of seven items, measures the participant's perception of sex influences on males' and females' basic abilities and potentials. An example of a test item in the subdivision is as follows: "Few architects are women because women typically do not have enough spatial ability."

Component six, consisting of six items, measures how the participant's perceived males' and females' career choices and opportunities. An example of a test item in this subdivision is as follows: "Women as well as men should prepare to support their families financially."

Collection of Data

Sixty-seven workshop participants completed a pre-test at the beginning of the workshop and a post-test at the conclusion. There was a 100 percent response to both of these questionnaires; however, not all responded to every item. Because names of participants were not used, the pre-test and post-test were matched by comparing the demographic information requested on the questionnaires.

Three months following each workshop, the follow-up test, along with a stamped, self-addressed envelope, was mailed to the sample population. Twenty-nine completed questionnaires were returned, a rate which represents 43 percent of the sample. Because of the three month time used for the follow-up test, a second mailing was not sent to get a larger response.

Analysis of Data

The questionnaire consisted of 60 statements to which the participants in the study responded on a Likert-type scale. Responses were assigned numerical ratings for calculation purposes as follows:

Strongly Agree   = 1
Agree   = 2
Neutral   = 3
Disagree   = 4
Strongly Disagree = 5

The data from the questionnaire were prepared by the research division of the Oklahoma State Department of Vocational and Technical Education.

Each group was given a pre-test, post-test, and a follow-up test. For each group, a mean score was computed and a chi square procedure was applied to the means to see if there was a significant difference between the pre-test, post-test, and follow-up test scores. A .05 level of probability was established to determine whether differences in means or medians were significant.

A chi square value was computed for the pre-test and post-test median scores for each component. For the follow-up surveys that were returned, the chi square value was computed between the pre-test and follow-up test for each component. The chi-square test was used to test the differences of the sample between the pre-test and post-test and the pre-test and follow-up test. It is used to compare frequencies occurring in different categories or components to see if they are significantly different. This non parametric technique was used since the data was not normally distributed. If a respondent did not answer every item associated with a component, no component score could be calculated; therefore, there may be a slightly different number of responses among components.

The median test, described by Siegel (1956), was used to test the hypotheses that pre-test subscores would not differ significantly from post-test subscores or follow-up subtest scores. The median test is simply a technique to dichotomize scores as "high" or "low," after which the chi square statistic is used to test the hypothesis. In order to make an even distribution between high and low scores, the median is used as a breaking point. In this study, distributions of scores were such that a number of scores in each distribution were at the median. Since the purpose of using the median is to divide the

scores into approximately equal halves, one must arbitrarily decide what to do when a number of scores are equal to the median. One approved technique is to simply eliminate those scores from the analysis, since they fall neither below or above the median; however, this practice does reduce the size of the sample. A second technique is to arbitrarily change the labels, e.g., "number at or above the median" and "number below the median." In this study, the scores at the median were cast in the group which had the smaller number of scores so that the number of "high" and "low" scores would be as equal as possible.

The mean score was computed for each component by specific demographic characteristics for the entire group to compare the pre-test and the post-test scores. A mean score was also computed for each component for those who participated in the pre-test and follow-up study. The descriptive statistics were used to show how the different components do compare but does not show significance. A significance test was not computed for the components among the demographic characteristics because the number of subjects grouped by demographic categories was too small to conduct any meaningful analysis. The demographic categories and their units used in this study were grouped by: sex, divided by male and female; age, categorized by age spans of 24-34, 35-44, and 45 and over; race, divided by Caucasian and minority; and attendance at other equity seminars, divided by no previous attendance and previous attendance.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction and Data Analysis

There were two purposes of this study. First, it was to deter-
mine if workshops designed to increase awareness of sex-role stereo-
typing and sex bias were effective. A second purpose was to test for
any lasting attitude changes among the sample between the pre-test
and post-test, and the pre-test and follow-up test. The analysis and
findings as they relate to each research question will be discussed in
the paragraphs which follow.

1. Did the participants' expectations of males and females on
the level of employment and decision making responsibilities increase
from the pre-test to the tests immediately following the workshops?

With regard to expectations of the level of employment and deci-
sion making responsibilities, Table III indicates that there was a
significant increase in the number of people who responded favorably
between the pre-test and the post-test.

2. Did the participants' expectations of males and females on
the level of employment and decision making responsibilities increase
from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the
workshops?

Between the pre-test and the follow-up test in Table IV, there
seems to be no difference in the number of people who responded

favorably to the component dealing with expectations of the level of
employment and decision making responsibilities.

TABLE III

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS OF LEVEL
OF EMPLOYMENT AND DECISION MAKING
RESPONSIBILITIES

	Pre-Test	Post-Test	
Below the Combined Median	40	23	X^2 = 6.88
Above the Combined Median	27	42	p = .0087*

*Significant at .01.

TABLE IV

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS OF LEVEL
OF EMPLOYMENT AND DECISION MAKING
RESPONSIBILITIES

	Pre-Test	Follow-up	
Below the Combined Median	17	13	X^2 = .62143
Above the Combined Median	12	16	p = .4305

3. Did the participants' expectations on the importance of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

According to the results recorded in Table V, there was not a significant improvement in the expectations of the participants toward their expectations on the importance or purpose of employment between the pre-test and the post-test.

TABLE V

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS OF THE
IMPORTANCE OR PURPOSE OF EMPLOYMENT

	Pre-Test	Post-Test	
Below the Combined Median	40	30	$x^2 = 2.17$
Above the Combined Median	27	36	$p = .1411$

4. Did the participants' expectations on the importance of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

Again, there was not a significant improvement in the expectations of the participants toward their expectations on the importance or purpose of employment of males and females (Table VI).

TABLE VI

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS ON THE
IMPORTANCE OR PURPOSE OF EMPLOYMENT

	Pre-Test	Follow-Up	
Below the Combined Median	18	12	X^2 = 1.72619
Above the Combined Median	11	17	p = .1889

5. Did the participants' expectations on the types of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

There was a significant difference in the results of the pre-test and post-test scores (Table VII) toward improved expectations. Apparently, the participants changed their perceptions of the types of careers that are suitable for men and women.

TABLE VII

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS OF THE
TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT

	Pre-Test	Post-Test	
Below the Combined Mean	41	23	X^2 = 7.38
Above the Combined Mean	26	41	p = .0066*

*Significant at .01.

6. Did the participants' expectations on the types of employ-
ment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-
test given three months following the workshops?

Even though there was a significant difference between the pre-
test and post-test, there was not a significant difference between
the pre-test and follow-up test. According to data in Table VIII,
the follow-up test given three months following the workshop indi-
cates that the participants reverted to the pre-test scores in their
expectations of the types of employment suitable for individuals re-
garding their sex.

TABLE VIII

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS OF THE
TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT

	Pre-Test	Follow-Up	
Below the Combined Median	18	10	$X^2 = 3.38$
Above the Combined Median	11	19	$p = .0659$

7. Did the participants' expectations on how well males and fe-
males will perform in a work setting increase from the pre-test to the
test immediately following the workshops?

Differences were noted in the expectations of the participants be-
tween the pre-test and post-test, as indicated in Table IX. The

participants appear to increase their expectations of how well indi-
viduals, regardless of their sex, will function in a work setting.

TABLE IX

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS ON HOW
WELL INDIVIDUALS WILL FUNCTION IN
A WORK SETTING

	Pre-Test	Post-Test	
Below the Combined Median	42	21	X^2 = 10.54
Above the Combined Median	25	43	p = .0012*

*Significant at .01.

8. Did the participants' expectations on how well males and fe-
males will perform in a work setting increase from the pre-test to
the post-test given three months following the workshops?

Table X indicates that there were no significant differences in
the participants' expectations on how well individuals, regardless
of their sex, would function in a work setting between the pre-test
and follow-up test.

9. Did the participants' expectations about the basic abilities
and potentials of males and females increase from the pre-test to the
test immediately following the workshops?

TABLE X

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS ON
HOW WELL INDIVIDUALS WILL FUNCTION
IN A WORK SETTING

	Pre-Test	Follow-Up	
Below the Combined Median	20	12	X^2 = 2.95461
Above the Combined Median	9	16	p = .0856

Table XI indicates that there was not a significant difference
in responses between the pre-test and the post-test in relation to
the participants' expectations of males' or females' basic abilities
and potentials.

TABLE XI

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS OF
INDIVIDUALS' BASIC ABILITIES

	Pre-Test	Post-Test	
Below the Combined Median	44	32	X^2 = 3.75
Above the Combined Median	22	34	p = .0527

10. Did the participants' expectations about the basic abilities and potentials of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

As indicated in Table XII, there was not a significant difference in responses between the pre-test and the follow-up test. It appears that, unlike the post-test responses, the follow-up responses reverted to the pre-test ones in regard to the participants' expectations of males' or females' basic abilities and potentials.

TABLE XII

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF EXPECTATIONS OF
INDIVIDUALS' BASIC ABILITIES

	Pre-Test	Follow-Up	
Below the Combined Median	15	14	X^2 = 2.95461
Above the Combined Median	14	15	p = .0856

11. Did the participants' general sex-role stereotyping beliefs about careers and job opportunities of males and females increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

Table XIII indicates that there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test on how the participants perceived males' and females' career and job opportunities.

TABLE XIII

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF GENERAL BELIEFS ABOUT
WHAT SHOULD EXIST

	Pre-Test	Post-Test	
Below the Combined Median	35	35	χ^2 = .00011
Above the Combined Median	32	30	p = .9916

12. Did the participants' general sex-role stereotyping beliefs about careers and job opportunities of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

Table XIV indicates that there was no significant difference between the pre-test and the follow-up test scores. Evidently, the participants' perceptions of males' and females' career and job opportunities were not changed.

TABLE XIV

CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS OF GENERAL BELIEFS ABOUT
WHAT SHOULD EXIST

	Pre-Test	Follow-Up	
Below the Combined Mean	13	13	χ^2 = 0
Above the Combined Mean	16	16	p = 1

Additional Data Obtained

Even though all the questions for the study were addressed, more demographic data were obtained and analyzed. As noted in Table XV, it was found that females were more positive and had gained between the pre-test and post-test with respect to all of the six components. In the follow-up test for the females, there was a slight increase in the gains for the three components on the level of employment and decision making responsibilities, the type of employment, and general beliefs about what should exist. The males remained more constant throughout all areas of the survey than the females, who had more dramatic changes. The females and males all rated much higher for the component on general beliefs about what should exist than they did on the other components in the pre-test, post-test, and follow-up test. As may be seen in Table XVI, it appears that age had no appreciable impact on responses. Scores remained somewhat constant among the three age groups. Table XVII shows that race appears to have no appreciable impact on responses. Scores remained somewhat constant between the Caucasions and the minorities.

TABLE XV

MEAN RESPONSES FOR COMPONENTS BY SEX[a]

Component	Pre-Test (n=67)	Post-Test (n=67)	Pre-Test (n=29)	Follow-Up (n=29)
Expectations on Level of Employment and Decision Making Responsibilities				
Female[b]	3.89	4.21	3.89	4.29
Male[c]	3.35	3.36	3.20	3.50
Expectations on the Importance or Purpose of Employment				
Female[b]	4.00	4.30	3.84	4.26
Male[c]	3.44	3.40	3.52	3.36
Expectations on Type of Employment				
Female[b]	3.89	4.15	3.85	4.19
Male[c]	3.59	3.52	3.62	3.70
Expectations on How Well Individuals Will Function in a Work Setting				
Female[b]	3.93	4.28	3.90	4.24
Male[c]	3.47	3.43	3.38	3.30
Expectations of Individual's Basic Abilities				
Female[b]	4.00	4.26	3.94	4.14
Male[c]	3.51	3.49	3.41	3.61

TABLE XV (Continued)

Component	Pre-Test (n=67)	Post-Test (n=67)	Pre-Test (n=29)	Follow-Up (n=29)
General Beliefs About What Should Exist				
Female[b]	4.55	4.65	4.56	4.70
Male[a]	4.23	4.23	4.31	4.45

[a]Highest mean score = 5.

[b]For pre-test and post-test: n = 53. For pre-test and follow-up: n = 22.

[c]For pre-test and post-test: n = 14. For pre-test and follow-up: n = 7.

TABLE XVI

MEAN RESPONSES FOR COMPONENTS BY AGE[a]

Component	Pre-Test (n=60)	Post-Test (n=60)	Pre-Test (n=28)	Follow-Up (n=28)
Expectations on Level of Employment and Decision Making Responsibilities				
Age:				
24-34[b]	3.77	4.10	3.67	4.37
35-44[c]	3.78	3.99	3.67	3.94
45 and over[d]	3.66	3.86	3.79	3.98
Expectations on the Importance or Purpose of Employment				
Age:				
24-34[b]	3.90	4.26	3.82	4.34
35-44[c]	3.91	4.13	3.65	3.91
45 and over[d]	3.73	3.90	3.80	3.84
Expectations on Type of Employment				
Age:				
24-34[b]	3.85	4.08	3.84	4.26
35-44[c]	3.77	4.01	3.65	3.84
45 and over[d]	3.76	3.85	3.87	4.07
Expectations on How Well Individuals Will Function in a Work Setting				
Age:				
24-34[b]	3.83	4.16	3.85	4.23
35-44[c]	3.76	4.07	3.48	3.96
45 and over[d]	3.77	3.91	3.94	3.90

TABLE XVI (Continued)

Component	Pre-Test (n=60)	Post-Test (n=60)	Pre-Test (n=28)	Follow-Up (n=28)
Expectations on Individuals' Basic Abilities				
Age:				
24-34[b]	3.90	4.22	3.84	4.27
35-44[c]	3.82	4.03	3.60	3.90
45 and over[d]	3.86	3.96	3.94	3.91
General Beliefs About What Should Exist				
Age:				
24-34[b]	4.71	4.72	4.72	4.67
35-44[c]	4.40	4.51	4.44	4.68
45 and over[d]	4.28	4.48	4.38	4.55

[a]Highest mean score = 5.

[b]For pre-test and post-test: n = 18. For pre-test and follow-up: n = 9.

[c]For pre-test and post-test: n = 22. For pre-test and follow-up: n = 9.

[d]For pre-test and post-test: n = 20. For pre-test and follow-up: n = 9.

TABLE XVII

MEAN RESPONSES FOR COMPONENTS BY RACE[a]

Component	Pre-Test (n=67)	Post-Test (n=67)	Pre-Test (n=67)	Follow-Up (n=67)
Expectations on Level of Employment and Decision Making Responsibilities				
Caucasian[b]	3.79	4.04	3.77	4.10
Minority[c]	3.70	3.91	2.36	3.93
Expectations on the Importance or Purpose of Employment				
Caucasian[b]	3.88	4.08	3.79	4.05
Minority[c]	3.88	4.36	2.88	3.63
Expectations on Type of Employment				
Caucasian[b]	3.83	4.01	3.82	4.08
Minority[c]	3.79	4.03	3.14	3.86
Expectations on How Well Individuals Will Function in a Work Setting				
Caucasian[b]	3.83	4.10	3.80	4.06
Minority[c]	3.86	4.03	3.00	3.64
Expectations of Individuals' Basic Abilities				
Caucasian[b]	3.88	4.08	3.83	4.02
Minority[c]	4.00	4.18	3.29	3.86

TABLE XVII (Continued)

Component	Pre-Test (n=67)	Post-Test (n=67)	Pre-Test (n=67)	Follow-Up (n=67)
General Beliefs About What Should Exist				
Caucasian[b]	4.49	4.57	4.51	4.65
Minority[c]	4.46	4.48	4.17	4.50

[a]Highest mean score = 5.

[b]For pre-test and post-test: n = 59. For pre-test and follow-up: n = 28.

[c]For pre-test and post-test: n = 8. For pre-test and follow-up: n = 1.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purposes of this study were: (1) to determine if workshops designed to increase awareness of sex-role stereotyping and sex biases were effective, and (2) to test for any lasting attitudinal changes among the sample. The specific objective was to evaluate the attitude change of workshop participants. The following questions were answered in order to accomplish the objective:

1. Did the participants' expectations of males and females on the level of employment and decision making responsibilities increase from the pre-test to the tests immediately following the workshops?

2. Did the participants' expectations of males and females on the level of employment and decision making responsibilities increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

3. Did the participants' expectations on the importance of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

4. Did the participants' expectations on the importance of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

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5. Did the participants' expectations on the types of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

6. Did the participants' expectations on the types of employment of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

7. Did the participants' expectations on how well males and females will perform in a work setting increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

8. Did the participants' expectations on how well males and females will perform in a work setting increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

9. Did the participants' expectations about the basic abilities and potentials of males and females increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

10. Did the participants' expectations about the basic abilities and potentials of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

11. Did the participants' general sex-role stereotyping beliefs about careers and job opportunities of males and females increase from the pre-test to the test immediately following the workshops?

12. Did the participants' general sex-role stereotyping beliefs about careers and job opportunities of males and females increase from the pre-test to the post-test given three months following the workshops?

The phases conducted to achieve the purposes and objective of the study consisted of the procedure used to select the sample, the

treatment, the instrumentation, the collection of the data, and the analysis of the data.

The population for this study consisted of all vocational educators employed in Oklahoma during the fiscal year of 1980-81. Sixty-seven educators participated in the pre-test and post-test, while 29 participated in the follow-up test which constituted 43 percent of the sample.

Three workshops were used to introduce the instrument to the participants, give the pre-test, apply the treatment, and give the post-test. A follow-up test was mailed to all participants three months following the workshops.

For the pre-test, post-test, and follow-up test, a median score was computed and a chi square procedure was applied to the means to see if there was a significant difference between the pre-test, post-test, and follow-up test scores. A .05 level of probability was established to determine whether differences were significant.

Findings of the Study

Even though there was a significant difference at the .01 level between the pre-test and post-test scores on the component concerning the expectations of the level of employment and decision making responsibilities, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and follow-up scores.

There was no significant difference for the participants between either the pre-test and post-test scores or the pre-test and follow-up scores for the component on the importance or purpose of employment for males and females.

The participants did have a significant difference at the .01 level on the component concerning the expectations of the type of employment for males and females. Again, the difference between the pre-test and follow-up scores was not significant. Even though the participants did change their perception of the types of employment that are suitable for men and women immediately following the workshops, they did not perceive a difference three months later.

A significant difference of .01 was noted between the pre-test and post-test for the components on how well individuals will function in work settings. The comparison of the pre-test and follow-up test indicated no significant difference.

There was not a significant difference between either the pre-test and post-test and between the pre-test and follow-up test on the component concerning the participants' expectations of males' or females' basic abilities and potentials.

And finally, there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores and between the pre-test and follow-up scores on the component concerning the participants' general beliefs about what should exist for men and women in the job market.

Conclusions

Post-test scores in three areas indicated a positive shift in participants' attitudes. The regression reflected on the follow-up test, however, suggests a decline in the participants' sensitivity to the issues. This decline might be explained by the fact that the workshop was not held during the school year, so that the participants did not have the opportunity to immediately translate theory into

practice; it will be recalled that such a conjunction of receptive and active roles was a learning principle emphasized by Lawrence (1981) in his study of staff development and in-service programs.

A larger sample may also have yielded different results. Since only 67 educators took the pre-test and post-test, with only 29 responding to the follow-up survey, generalizing the results of the study to the population is severely limited.

Although the results of the study did not coincide with those anticipated, the workshop did have certain positive features. Participants responded favorably, for example, on evaluation forms and in informal discussions; the participants' interest in activities and materials also led the Educational Equity Division to conclude that they had accomplished their mission.

This expressed interest might also explain why the test scores did not indicate that the participants were very biased in their attitudes. Although they received college credit and a stipend for their enrollment in the workshop, the educators' participation was voluntary and was therefore consistent with an interest in the subject matter. Hence, it should not be surprising that despite the decline in significance on the follow-up survey, there was not necessarily a decline in scores. Finally, looking at the discrepancy between post-test and follow-up scores, it should be pointed out that the workshop environment encourages a change in attitude, while this may not be the case in the educators' home or work setting.

Discussion

Workshops may be categorized into two areas: those focused on

the development of skills and those dealing with attitudes. Develop-
ing and improving skills can be more easily achieved than changing
attitudes, since skills are concerned primarily with the surface of
things, with the visible, observable features of an environment;
professional skills are acquired relatively late in one's educational
life and are focused more on how things are done than on why they are
done.

Workshops dealing with attitudes, on the other hand, are con-
cerned with elements of the personality which run deep beneath the
surface; they are concerned with a fundamental framework of values and
reference points which shape an individual's entire world. Attitudes
develop very early in life, from the time the male infant is wrapped
in a blue blanket; attitudes are shaped by parents, molded by teachers,
and polished by a society operating according to very old traditions.
While skills involve the language of "correct and incorrect," atti-
tudes are voiced in terms of "good and bad."

Workshops addressing the question of sex equity, then, deal with
values rooted in an individual's religion, culture, family, environ-
ment, past experience, and even political views. A two-day workshop
cannot do much in changing attitudes that are 20 years in the making,
but it can create an awareness of some of the problems that sex bias
and sex stereotyping can create.

Recommendations

Since participants involved in the workshop did not have the
opportunity to immediately translate principles into practice, one
recommendation would be to present the workshop at or near the

beginning of the school year; this would make it possible to apply Lawrence's (1981) learning principle that participants must play both receptive and active roles in the process of change. Another method to enhance future studies would be to hold a workshop for one day, followed by assignments to be carried out by participants in their work settings over a specified period of time; perhaps three months. Then the participants could be brought back together to report their findings and complete the workshop. The instrument could still make use of a pre-test, post-test, and follow-up test. If the participants' involvement could be extended over a longer period of time in this manner, regression on the follow-up test may decrease.

The effectiveness of other delivery systems in changing attitudes should also be explored. One approach would be to make use of some fundamental principles of marketing and advertising. For example, studies might examine the effectiveness of public service messages in the print and broadcast media. Here the question to be examined is whether the media which often reinforces certain attitudes could also be used to change attitudes. Other possibilities include the use of drama and film portraying the problems concerned with sex stereotyping, the involvement of educators in role playing, and the encouragement of educators to keep up with professional journals addressing the issue of sex bias.

Researchers undertaking future studies are faced with a formidable task. The methods for changing deeply rooted attitudes are as numerous and complex as the influences which shape those attitudes. The process is still in its infant stages, but a beginning has been made.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

BROCHURE ADVERTISING WORKSHOP

EQUITY FOR THE EIGHTIES
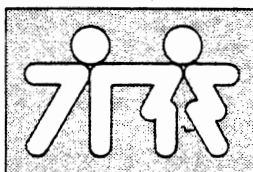
Seminar for Vocational Educators
Graduate Level Credit Available

Educational Equity
Curriculum In-service

  May 19-20 Stillwater
  May 26-27 Tulsa
  June 3-4 Stillwater
  July 14-16 Western Hills
       (Wagoner)

Teacher Training for
Educational Equity Curriculum In-service
    August 3   Stillwater

Leadership and Educational Equity
    August 3   . Stillwater

Sponsored by the Educational
Equity Services Division of the
State Department of Vocational and
Technical Education and Oklahoma
State University Extension
Candy Gray, Carol Davis, and Beulah
Hirschlein, Program Facilitators

The following seminars will be available through the Educational Equity Division of the Oklahoma State Department of Vo-Tech in conjunction with Oklahoma State University Extenstion; graduate credit is available ($33 per hour). Selection of participants will be made within one week after the deadline of application. All seminars have limited enrollment of 30 each. A stipend will be paid to the selected participants soon after the seminar; however, a seminar fee is required prior to the workshop.

EDUCATIONAL EQUITY CURRICULUM IN-SERVICE

When	Where	Stipend	Seminar Fee
May 19-20, 1981	Stillwater	$ 70	$10 (includes dinner on 19th)
*May 26-27, 1981	Tulsa	$ 70	$10 (includes dinner on 26th)
June 3-4, 1981	Stillwater	$ 70	$10 (includes dinner on 3rd)
*July 14-16, 1981	Western Hills (Wagoner)	$125	$12 (includes dinner on 14th)

* OSU extension credit for these seminars is pending approval of the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education.

LEADERSHIP AND EDUCATIONAL EQUITY

When	Where	Stipend	Seminar Fee
August 3, 1981	Stillwater	$35	$10 (dinner included)

Additional hours of independent study TBA.

TEACHER TRAINERS FOR EDUCATIONAL EQUITY WORKSHOPS

When	Where	Stipend	Seminar Fee
August 3, 1981	Stillwater	$35	$10 (dinner included)

Additional hours of independent study TBA.

Prerequisite: Participation in prior Educational Equity Curriculum In-Service Workshops.

SEMINAR OBJECTIVES:

- To provide social and personal awareness of sex bias and sex-role stereotyping.

- To train participants in activities designed for use with students and faculty to help reduce sex bias and stereotyping.

- To provide awareness of male issues related to sex equity.

- To provide awareness of past educational experiences of people who are currently employed in nontraditional occupations.

Application Deadline for May & June Seminars: April 24, 1981

Application Deadline for July & August Seminars: June 15, 1981

WORKSHOP APPLICATION FORM

Please check the seminar of your choice for which you are making application:

EDUCATIONAL EQUITY CURRICULUM IN-SERVICE

☐ May 19-20   Stillwater

☐ May 26-27   Tulsa

☐ June 3-4   Stillwater

☐ July 14-16   Western Hills State Lodge (Wagoner)

LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATIONAL EQUITY

☐ August 3   Stillwater

TEACHER TRAINER FOR EDUCATIONAL EQUITY WORKSHOPS

☐ August 3   Stillwater

Name: _____

School Address: _____

_____

School Phone: ( ) _____

Home Address: _____

_____

Home Phone: ( ) _____

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION GRADUATE CREDIT

☐ 1 credit hour

☐ 1 additional credit hour of Independent Study is available on May, June, and July seminars. Check if interested.

CHECK OCCUPATIONAL AREA

☐ Home Economics

☐ Distributive Education

☐ Business and Office

☐ Health Occupations

☐ Trades and Industrial Education

☐ Industrial Arts

☐ Interdisciplinary Cooperative Education

☐ Agriculture

☐ Special Programs

☐ Other

Please mail application forms to:

Candy Gray or Carol Davis
Educational Equity Services
State Department of Vo-Tech
1515 West Sixth Avenue
Stillwater, OK 74074
(405) 377-2000

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR THE EDUCATIONAL

EQUITY WORKSHOP

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR THE EDUCATIONAL EQUITY WORKSHOP*

Summer, 1981

Sex:	Number of Participants	Percent
Male.	14.	26.42
Female.	53.	73.58

Age:
24-34	18.	30.00
35-44	22.	36.67
45 and over	20.	33.33

Race:
Caucasion	59.	92.64
Minority.	8.	7.36

Total Years in Teaching Field
1-5	9.	14.06
6-10.	19.	29.68
11-15	18.	28.12
16-20	6.	9.38
21-25	6.	9.38
over 25	6.	9.38

Occupational Area:
Agriculture	4.	5.97
Business and Office	9.	13.43
Trade and Industry.	6.	8.96
ICE	2.	2.99
Health.	6.	8.96
Special Programs.	3.	4.47
Home Economics.	19.	28.35
Counselor	7.	10.45
Administrators.	6.	8.96
Other	5.	7.46

Attendance at other Educational Equity Seminars:
Zero.	43.	55.81
Other Seminars Attended	24.	44.19

Highest Level of Education Attained:
Less than Bachelors	5.	7.57
Bachelors Degree.	23.	34.85
Masters	19.	28.79
Masters plus 30 hours	19.	28.79

Type of School Teaching In:
Comprehensive High School	45.	70.31
Area Vo-Tech School	18.	28.12
Other	1.	1.57

*Totals are not the same because not all respondents completed all demographic items.

APPENDIX C

AGENDA

AGENDA

Summer 1981

Session One 30 minutes	Registration Enrollment for College Credit (Those enrolling for credit must arrive by 8:00 a.m.)
Three and one-half hours	Welcome: Dr. Arch Alexander (May and June) Deputy State Director State Department of Vocational and Technical Education

Dr. Charles O. Hopkins (July)
Assistant State Director
State Department of Vocational
and Technical Education

Three Things

Slide-Tape Presentation
"Tale of O"

Break (15 minutes)

Healthy Adult

Session Two (May and June) **Session Three (July)** Four hours	Stimulus Response

Panel Non-traditional Careers

Break

"The Story of Baby X"

Continuum

Homework

Session Two (July) **Session Three (May and June)**	Lunch Dinner Speakers Topic: "Sex Equity May - Dan Baker June - Dr. Jeanine Rhea July - Dr. Pam Cummings

Film: "Men's Lives"

Session Four
Three and one-half hours

Homework Report

Film: "Bias: A Four Letter Word"

Break

Role Reversal

Language

Title IX Questions and Answers

Personnel from Oklahoma State
Department of Vocational and
Technical Education (May, June)

Personnel from Oklahoma State
Department of Education (July)

Session Five
Three hours

In-service Skills
Candy Gray, Education Equity
Coordinator, State Department of
Vocational and Technical Education

Evaluation and Wrap-up

APPENDIX D

THREE THINGS

THREE THINGS

1. INTRODUCTION

    Stereotyping is something that is "done to" all of us. We may be stereotyped because of our sex, race, area of the country in which we live, or the kind of work we do. Nevertheless, these are labels all of us have to deal with. Whatever the case, we all do things that are "typically" female and/or "typically" male, regardless of our sex. The important thing is that we feel good about who we are and the things we like to do.

    In the following activity, you will be asked to fill out a card, telling some things about yourself. You will then be asked to introduce another participant based on the information on his or her card.

2. APPROXIMATE TIME -- 30 minutes

3. MATERIALS NEEDED

    a. Pencils, enough for all participants

    b. Enough 3 x 5 unlined note cards for each participant

    c. Straight pins, if you decide to use the cards for name tags

4. PREPARATION--Write the following "three things" on newsprint or on the chalkboard before you begin the workshop.

    (NOTE: You may want to give the examples orally, although writing them down may eliminate some confusion.)

    a. One thing about yourself you like or like to do that is typical of your sex.

        Examples: If you are female, you might like to cook, which is thought to be typical of females.

        If you are male, you might like to work on cars, which is thought to be typical of males.

    b. One things about yourself you don't like or like to do that is typical of your sex.

        Examples: If you are female, you might not like to sew.

        If you are male, you might not like to play football.

    c. One thing about yourself you like or like to do that is typical of the opposite sex.

        Examples: If you are female, you might like to hunt and fish, activities which are thought to be typically male

> If you are male, you might like to cook, an activity that is thought to be typically female

5.   PROCEDURE

a.   Give each participant a card and a pencil.

b.   Display the instruction in front of the participants, asking participants to write these "three things" on one side of their card.

c.   Allow participants time to complete their cards, approximately 3-5 minutes

(NOTE: You might tell participants to briefly label their "three things" to avoid confusion later on.)

d.   Collect all of the cards and place in a box or on the floor in the middle of the group.

e.   Ask participants to pick a card and then to go around the group to determine the person who matches the card.

(NOTE: In order to find a match each person must ask questions from the card. When the participant has found a match, he or she should write the person's name on the wrong side of the card. They should also find out where the person works, what he or she does, and any other interesting facts they have time to discover.)

f.   Ask participants to return to the total group when all participants have found the people who match their cards.

g.   Ask participants to introduce the person they found to the total group, using the information on the card.

(NOTE: If the group is too large, the introduction should include only the name and one idea about the person found on the card. Another option with a large group, over 20, is to divide the group into smaller groups. In this second instance, you may need someone to help you with one of the smaller groups.)

h.   Ask participants to return cards to the originators.

(NOTE: At this time, you may want participants to wear these cards as name tags for a portion of the day.)

6.   CLOSING REMARKS

Through this activity we hope you have learned that everyone like to do things that are not "typical" of their sex. Some of the ideas have been amusing, others have been real "eye-openers." In any event, we all do things that are typical of each sex and things which are not. We hope you have learned more about the people here and will get to know then even better as the workshop/class continues.

Source: S. Mussett, Oklahoma Educational Equity (1981).

APPENDIX E

HEALTHY ADULT

HEALTHY ADULT

1. INTRODUCTION

   We are all guilty of generalizing about people. Mary Jones is a teacher so she must **love** kids. Miss Smith is fat and all fat people are jolly. Jim Henson is black, bet he's a good dancer. Bud Jones is thin and wears glasses; probably a bookworm, too. Sally Brown has blonde hair; she's probably dumb. We are all guilty of stereotyping others. We are going to confine our stereotypes in this exercise to those about men and women; stereotypes that label one or the other sex on the basis of generalities without first finding out about the **person.**

2. APPROXIMATE TIME -- 1 hour

3. MATERIALS NEEDED

   a. Sufficient copies of "Male," "Female," and "Healthy Adult" sheets for one-third of the participants to each have one

   b. Pencil for each participant

   c. Three sheets of newsprint

   d. Three dark-colored, wide felt-tipped markers

   e. Masking tape

   f. Enough copies of "Me" sheet for each participant

4. PREPARATION

   a. Duplicate enough copies of "Male," "Female," and "Healthy Adult" sheets for one-third of the participants to each have one.

   b. Duplicate enough copies of "Me" sheet for each participant.

5. PROCEDURE

   a. Have participants complete their "Me" sheet by checking the space that best describes them.

      (NOTE: They will not share this sheet with anyone but should work quickly, indicating their first responses. Allow 3 to 5 minutes for participants to complete their sheets. Have them put these sheets aside.)

   b. Break participants into three groups; the groups should not work near each other.

      (NOTE: You may have to divide participants into six groups if there are more than 20 people.)

c.   Instruct participants that they should not let the other small groups see their sheet.

      (NOTE: Remind participants that this time they will have to generalize about people which is something that we're trying to learn not to do, but something that we actually do every day.)

d.   Give the "Male" sheet to each participant in one group; each participant should complete the sheet as he or she feels most nearly describes males in general; do the same for the "Female" sheet and the "Healthy Adult" sheet; allow participants enough time to complete their sheets (about 10 to 15 minutes).

e.   Give each small group a sheet of newsprint and a felt-tipped pen; on this sheet of newsprint the group should come to a consensus on ten words which best describe the word at the top of their sheet; have participants write the ten words on the newsprint so that the can share it later with the total group.

f.   Bring participants back to the total group when they have finished.

g.   Allow each group to share their list of ten words; they should not disclose whether their list describes males, females, or healthy adults; post the newsprint lists around the workshop space.

h.   Ask participants to identify which list describes a male, which one describes a females, and which one describes a healthy adult; when the lists are identified, ask someone from each group to label their lists.

6.   CLOSING REMARKS

Ask the follow question: "According to our own study, is our idea of a healthy adult more like our idea of a male or female? What do these results mean?"

Ask participants to get out their "Me" sheets. Allow them enough time to compare their ideas about themselves with the group's ideas of a male, female, and healthy adult. Allow, but do not require, comments.

(NOTE: Two friends may want to follow up on this activity for homework. One person checks her "Me" sheet for herself. Her friend checks the "Female" sheet that reflects his view of her in particular. When the sheets are completed, the woman can find out if her friends sees her as she sees herself.)

Source: S. Mussett, Oklahoma Educational Equity (1981).

ME

	+3	+2	+1	0	+1	+2	+3	
Aggressive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Nonaggressive
Independent	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dependent
Emotional	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unemotional
Subjective	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Objective
Submissive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dominant
Excitable	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not excitable
Active	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Passive
Competitive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not competitive
Logical	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Illogical
Home-oriented	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Worldly
Indirect	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Direct
Feelings easily hurt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Feelings not easily hurt
Adventurous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Cautious
Cries easily	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Never cries
Leader	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Follower
Self-confident	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unsure
Ambitious	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not ambitious
Handles ideas	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Handles feelings
Concerned about appearance	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not concerned about appearance
Talkative	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not talkative
Blunt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Tactful
Aware of others' feelings	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unaware of others' feelings
Neat	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Sloppy
Loud	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Quiet
Tender	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Tough

FEMALE

	+3	+2	+1	0	+1	+2	+3	
Aggressive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Nonaggressive
Independent	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dependent
Emotional	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unemotional
Subjective	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Objective
Submissive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dominant
Excitable	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not excitable
Active	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Passive
Competitive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not competitive
Logical	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Illogical
Home-oriented	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Worldly
Indirect	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Direct
Feelings easily hurt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Feelings not easily hurt
Adventurous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Cautious
Cries easily	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Never cries
Leader	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Follower
Self-confident	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unsure
Ambitious	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not ambitious
Handles ideas	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Handles feelings
Concerned about appearance	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not concerned about appearance
Talkative	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not talkative
Blunt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Tactful
Aware of others' feelings	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unaware of others' feelings
Neat	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Sloppy
Loud	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Quiet
Tender	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Tough

MALE

	+3	+2	+1	0	+1	+2	+3	
Aggressive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Nonaggressive
Independent	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dependent
Emotional	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unemotional
Subjective	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Objective
Submissive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dominant
Excitable	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not excitable
Active	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Passive
Competitive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not competitive
Logical	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Illogical
Home-oriented	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Worldly
Indirect	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Direct
Feelings easily hurt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Feelings not easily hurt
Adventurous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Cautious
Cries easily	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Never cries
Leader	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Follower
Self-confident	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unsure
Ambitious	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not ambitious
Handles ideas	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Handles feelings
Concerned about appearance	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not concerned about appearance
Talkative	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not talkative
Blunt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Tactful
Aware of others' feelings	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unaware of others' feelings
Neat	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Sloppy
Loud	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Quiet
Tender	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Tough

HEALTHY ADULT

	+3	+2	+1	0	+1	+2	+3	
Aggressive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Nonaggressive
Independent	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dependent
Emotional	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unemotional
Subjective	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Objective
Submissive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dominant
Excitable	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not excitable
Active	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Passive
Competitive	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not competitive
Logical	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Illogical
Home-oriented	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Worldly
Indirect	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Direct
Feelings easily hurt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Feelings not easily hurt
Adventurous	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Cautious
Cries easily	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Never cries
Leader	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Follower
Self-confident	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unsure
Ambitious	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not ambitious
Handles ideas	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Handles feelings
Concerned about appearance	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not concerned about appearance
Talkative	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Not talkative
Blunt	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Tactful
Aware of others' feelings	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Unaware of others' feelings
Neat	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Sloppy
Loud	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Quiet
Tender	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Tough

APPENDIX F

THE STORY OF BABY X

THE STORY OF BABY X

Objective: To explore sex-role stereotyping in the context of child development and child rearing practices in the United States.

Rationale: Sex-role stereotyping begins at birth when girls are tagged with pink cards and blankets, while boys are given blue ones. Most people react immediately to the baby as a male or female.

Students can examine this phenomenon and become aware of it in their families or as they prepare to have families of their own.

Materials: Story of Baby X (attached).

Activity: Read the following story about Baby X. Discuss the implications or have a group of students read the story and then role play the story for the rest of the class.

"X: A FABULOUS CHILD'S STORY"

BY LOIS GOULD

Once upon a time, a baby named X was born. This baby was named X so that nobody could tell whether it was a boy or a girl. It's parents could tell, of course, but they couldn't tell anybody else. They couldn't even tell Baby X, at first.

You see, it was all part of a very important Secret Scientific Xperiment, known officially as Project Baby X. The smartest scientist had set up this Xperiment at a cost of exactly 23 billion dollars and 72 cents, which might seem like a lot for just one baby, even a very important Xperimental baby. But when you remember the prices of things like strained carrots and stuffed bunnies, and popcorn for the movies and booster shots for camp, let alone 20 shiny quarters from the tooth fairy, you begin to see how it adds up.

Also, long before Baby X was born, all those scientists had to be paid to work out the details of the Xperiment, and to write the Official Instruction Manual for Baby X's parents and, most important of all, to find the right set of parents to bring up Baby X. These parents had to be selected very carefully. Thousands of volunteers had to take thousands of tests and answer thousands of tricky questions. Almost everybody failed because, it turned out, almost everybody really wanted either a baby boy or a baby girl, and not a Baby X at all. Also, almost everybody was afraid that a Baby X would be a lot more trouble than a boy or a girl. (They

were probably right, the scientists admitted, but Baby X needed parents who wouldn't **mind** the Xtra trouble.)

There were families with grandparents named Milton and Agatha, who didn't see why the baby couldn't be named Milton or Agatha instead of X, even if it **was** an X. There were families with aunts who insisted on knitting tiny dresses and uncles who insisted on sending tiny baseball mitts. Worst of all, there were families that already had other children who couldn't be trusted to keep the secret. Certainly not if they knew the secret was worth 23 billion dollars and 72 cents--and all you had to do was take one little peek at Baby X in the bathtub to know if it was a boy or a girl.

But, finally, the scientists found the Joneses, who really wanted to raise an X more than any other kind of baby--no matter how much trouble it would be. Ms. and Mr. Jones had to promise they would take equal turns caring for X, and feeding it, and singing it lullabies. And they had to promise never to hire any baby-sitters. The government scientists knew perfectly well that a baby-sitter would probably peek at X in the bathtub, too.

The day the Joneses brought their baby home, lots of friends and relatives came over to see it. None of them knew about the secret Xperiment, though. So the first thing they asked was what kind of a baby X was. When the Joneses smiled and said, "It's an X!" nobody knew what to say. They couldn't say, "Look at her cute little dimples!" And they couldn't say, "Look at his husky little biceps!" And they couldn't even say just plain "kitchy-coo." In fact, they all thought the Joneses were playing some kind of rude joke.

But, of course, the Joneses were not joking. "It's an X" was absolutely all they would say. And that made the friends and relatives very angry. The relatives all felt embarrassed about having an X in the family. "People will think there's something wrong with it!" some of them whispered. "There **is** something wrong with it!" others whispered back.

"Nonsense!" the Joneses told them all cheerfully. "What could possibly be wrong with this perfectly adorable X?"

Nobody could answer that, except Baby X, who had just finished its bottle. Baby X's answer was a loud, satisfied burp.

Clearly, nothing at all was wrong. Nevertheless, none of the relatives felt comfortable about buying a present for a Baby X. The cousins who sent the baby a tiny football helmet would not come and visit any more. And the neighbors who sent a pink-flowered romper suit pulled their shades down when the Joneses passed their house.

The Official Instruction Manual had warned the new parents that this would happen, so they didn't fret about it. Besides, they were too busy with Baby X and the hundreds of different Xercises for treating it properly.

Ms. and Mr. Jones had to be Xtra careful about how they played with little X. They knew that if they kept bouncing it up in the air and saying how **strong** and **active** it was, they'd be treating it more like boy than an X. But if all they did was cuddle it and kiss it and tell it how **sweet** and **dainty** it was, they'd be treating it more like a girl than an X.

On page 1,654 of the Official Instruction Manual, the scientist prescribed: "plenty of bouncing and plenty of cuddling, **both.** X ought to be strong and sweet and active. Forget about **dainty** altogether."

Meanwhile, the Joneses were worrying about other problems. Toys, for instance. And clothes. On his first shopping trip, Mr. Jones told the store clerk, "I need some clothes and toys for my new baby." The clerk smiled and said, "Well, now is it a boy or a girl?" "It's an X," Mr. Jones said, smiling back. But the clerk got all red in the face and said huffily, "In **that** case, I'm afraid I can't help you, sir." So Mr. Jones wandered helplessly up and down the aisles trying to find what X needed. But everything in the store was piled up in sections marked "Boys" and "Girls." There were "Boys' Pajamas" and "Girls' Housekeeping Sets." Mr. Jones went home without buying anything for X. That night he and Ms. Jones consulted page 2,326 of the Official Instruction Manual. "But plenty of everything!" it said firmly.

So they bought plenty of sturdy blue pajamas in the Boys' Department and cheerful flowered underwear in the Girls' Department. And they bought all kinds of toys. A boy doll that made pee-pee and cried, "pa-pa." And a girl doll that talked in three languages and said, "I am the Pres-i-dent of Gen-er-al Mo-tors." They also bought a storybook about a brave princess who rescued a handsome prince from his ivory tower, and another one about a sister and brother who grew up to be a baseball star and a ballet star, and you had to guess which was which.

The head scientists of Project Baby X checked all their purchases and told them to keep up the good work. They also reminded the Joneses to see Page 4,629 of the Manual, where it said, "Never make Baby X feel **embarrassed** or **ashamed** about what it wants to play with. And if X gets dirty climbing rocks, never say, 'Nice little Xes don't get dirty climbing rocks.'"

Likewise, it said, "If X falls down and cries, never say 'Brave little Xes don't cry.' Because, of course, nice little Xes **do** get dirty, and brave little Xes **do** cry. No matter how dirty X gets, or how hard it cries, don't worry, it's all part of the Xperiment."

Whenever the Joneses pushed Baby X's stroller in the park, smiling strangers would come over and coo: "Is that a boy or a girl?" The Joneses would smile back and say, "It's an X." The strangers would stop smiling then, and often snarl something nasty--as if the Joneses had snarled at **them.**

By the time X grew big enough to play with other children, the Joneses' troubles had grown bigger, too. Once a little girl grabbed X's shovel in the sandbox, and zonked X on the head with it. "Now, now Tracy," the little girl's mother began to scold, "Little girls musn't hit little. . ." and she turned to ask X "Are you a little boy or a little girl, dear?"

Mr. Jones, who was sitting near the sandbox, held his breath and crossed his fingers.

X smiled politely at the lady, even though X's head had never been zonked so hard in its life. "I am a little X," X replied.

You're a **what**?" the lady exclaimed angrily. "You're a little b-r-a-t, you mean!"

"But little girls mustn't hit little Xes, either!" said X, retrieving the shovel with another polite smile. "What good does hitting do, anyway?"

X's father, who was still holding his breath, finally let it out, uncrossed his fingers, and grinned back at X.

And at their next secret Project Baby X meeting, the scientist grinned, too. Baby X was doing fine.

THE END

Source: L. Gould, "X: A Fabulous Child's Story," Ms. (1972).

APPENDIX G

CONTINUUM

CONTINUUM

1. INTRODUCTION

   With any issue, especially one that involves people's values, there is a real need to listen to what other people are saying in regard to the issue. In this activity you will be given the change to not only clarify and examine your own attitudes towards issues concerning women and men, but also to listen to how the others in the group feel about these issues. It will be important in this activity to maintain an atmosphere of openness, honesty, acceptance, and respect. If others in the group feel that something they say about their own beliefs and behavior is going to be ridiculed by their peers or frowned upon by the facilitator, they will not want to share their thoughts and feelings about the issues. Keep this in mind when you begin responding to the statements.

2. APPROXIMATE TIME -- 1 hour

3. MATERIALS NEEDED

   a. List of statements for continuum, provided at end of assignment sheet

   b. Six sheets of construction paper or tagboard

   c. Dark-colored, wide, felt-tipped marker

4. Preparation

   a. Mark the six sheets of construction paper or tagboard with the following: +3, +2, +1, -1, -2, -3.

   b. Select ten or more statements from the list to use in the activity.

      (NOTE: Factors to consider when selecting the statements are appropriateness to your particular group: a balance of feminist and traditional statements, and a balance of male and female statements.)

5. PROCEDURE

   a. Put the place cards in a row on the floor, leaving adequate space between each card.

      (NOTE: The line of cards should stretch the length of the room.)

   b. Explain to the group that you will make a statement; if they strongly agree with the statement, they should stand on the card labeled +3. If they agree with the statement, they should stand on +2. If they agree, but not very strongly, stand on the card labeled +1. The same strategy should follow with the "minus" statements, 3 being strongly disagree.

   c. After they have "taken their stand," give them a few seconds to notice where other people are standing.

d.   Give those who want an opportunity to defend their stand.

(NOTE: Emphasize that this is an opportunity to listen to how others in the group feel about this issue. You should let at least one person in each area tell his or her feelings about the statement.)

e.   Give participants the option to change their stand if they want.

(NOTE: Tell participants that they may want to notice who is standing directly opposite of them and talk with this person later.)

f.   Read another statement, giving participants enough time to change positions if necessary, and then ask for comments.

g.   Repeat the procedure with three or four more statements.

(NOTE: It is very important that you do not let the participants begin heated arguments. Remind participants to keep an open mind and respect the other person's point of view. Also, do not allow this activity to drag on too long. The number of statements you offer will depend on the amount of discussion involved with each statement.)

6.   CLOSING REMARKS

It is important that we listen to each other, not only on this issue but in everyday conversation. There are many personal values associated with this issue, so it is even more important that we hear what each of us is saying. I hope this activity has not only given you a chance to clarify some of your own values, but to listen to how others feel about these issues concerning men and women.

Source: S. Mussett, Oklahoma Educational Equity (1981).

SAMPLE STATEMENTS FOR THE CONTINUUM

1. Women are too emotional to hold responsible positions.
2. Men will have to change their attitudes first for sexism to be eliminated.
3. Women deserve equal pay but they ought to be treated like ladies.
4. Men are not sensitive and caring enough to provide care for small children.
5. If men had babies, safe birth control methods would have been invented long ago.
6. Men are naturally more intelligent than women.
7. Boys are naturally better in science and math; girls are naturally better in English and art.
8. A woman can't have a career and a family.
9. Men and women should be equal partners in household chores.
10. We should teach our daughters it is all right to ask a boy for a date.
11. We should teacher our sons that it is okay to express a full range of emotions, including crying.
12. Men have the most to gain from the Women's Movement.
13. The Women's Movement is an effort to defeminize the American woman.
14. Men who dance ballet are sissies.
15. Women are naturally superior to men.
16. The way things are now, it's better to be a man than a woman.
17. Women shouldn't want to change things because they have the best deal now
18. It's okay for a girl to play on a male team if she's a good athlete.
19. Men should make the important decisions because men think, while women act on their emotions.
20. A woman should not compete with a man because this damages his ego.
21. Women need more encouragement and approval than men to work effectivel
22. A woman should be willing to leave her job to follow her husband's job.
23. A man should be willing to leave his job to follow his wife's job.
24. It's a woman's responsibility to take time off from her job to raise children.
25. It's a man's responsibility to take care of his wife and children.
26. When there are a limited number of jobs, a married woman should not hold a job in business or industry when her husband is able to support her.
27. It is possible for a woman to successfully combine a career with the bearing and rearing of children.
28. A working mother can establish just as secure and warm a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.
29. It is more important for a wife to help her husband's career than to have one herself.
30. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in bringing up the children.
31. Raising children should be more a mother's job than a father's.
32. Parents should encourage their children in activities and roles that are not necessarily traditional to their sex.
33. Parents should encourage just as much independence in their daughters as in their sons.
34. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeships in various trades.
35. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over equally qualified women in being hired and promoted.
36. There are some professions and types of businesses that are more suitable for men than for women.

37.   Men have more of the top jobs because they are born with more drive to be ambitious and successful than women.
38.   Many women who do the same work as their male colleagues actually earn substantially less money.
39.   Men are better leaders than women.
40.   Men are better able to reason logically.
41.   Women are more sensitive to the problems of the poor and underprivileged than men are.
42.   Men have more physical stamina than women.
43.   Unattractive women are the most ambitious.
44.   Men enjoy action and excitement more than women do.
45.   A woman can live a full and happy life without marrying.
46.   A man can live a full and happy life without marrying.
47.   Sometimes there are good reasons why a woman should be paid less than a man for doing exactly the same. job.
48.   Women are usually less reliable on the job than men because they tend to be absent more and quit more often.
49.   Often a woman will do the real work and a man will take the credit.
50.   Qualified women should be given more opportunities in the job market than equally qualified men.

APPENDIX H

HOMEWORK

HOMEWORK

1. INTRODUCTION

   People learn sex-role stereotypes in a variety of ways--some are very blatant while others are extremely subtle. The following "homework" problems will give you experience in evaluating some of the ways people learn sex-role stereotypes.

2. APPROXIMATE TIME -- Will vary with activity selected

3. MATERIALS NEEDED--It is impossible to provide all the materials needed for each of these topics. Some materials you may have on hand from the other activities you have conducted. Others are readily available at minimum expense. You may wish to collect some of the materials over a period of time and then "loan" them to participants to complete the assignment.

4. PREPARATION

   a. Duplicate enough copies of "Homework Ideas" for each participant.

   b. Display any materials you have gathered.

5. PROCEDURE

   a. Hand out "Homework Ideas" to each participant.

   b. Ask participants to choose one of the topics listed and be prepared to report their findings to the entire group.

      (NOTE: Participants may work in groups of two or three if they would like. If none of the ideas appeal to them, have participants come up with their own ideas for projects which show how people learn sex-role stereotypes.)

   c. Give participants overnight to complete their assignments.

   d. Ask participants to report on their findings.

      (NOTE: You may not have enough time for all participants to report back to the group. Ask for volunteers who wish to share their findings. Set a time limit of 3-5 minutes so as many as possible can share. You will find that participants are usually eager to share what they discovered, so try and let as many people as possible report.)

6. CLOSING REMARKS

   Summarize what the groups found. Draw some conclusions about the various ways people learn sex-role stereotypes. It's important that participants see that there was a definite point to this activity.

Source: S. Mussett, Oklahoma Educational Equity (1981).

"HOMEWORK IDEAS"

1. Greeting Cards--Do an informal study of greeting cards. How are males/females (including animals) portrayed? Design a series of greeting cards showing men and/or women in unusual situations (unusual for them because of gender).

2. Houses--Houses are traditionally designed by men for women. Interview one or more professional homemakers about the kind of houses they would like. Design a workable living space for the professional homemaker. What changes did you make? Why?

3. People Watchers--Sit in a public place and observe male/female actions, movements, interactions. Do the same for male-female couples. Did you notice any patterns? Did any pattern offend you? Why or why not? How do people learn about this behavior? Which would you like not to have? Places to "people watch" include a laundromat, grocery store, street corner, or airport.

4. Poster--Make a poster selling one "feminine" quality. Do the same for a "masculine" quality.

5. Dolls--Examine Barbie/Ken. Construct an anatomy lesson using only the facts you can get from baby dolls. What do children learn from dolls? Is that what you want them to learn?

6. Toys/Games--Make a list of toys/games which are intended for boys and another list of toys/games intended for girls. How do you know which kinds of toys/games are sold to boys? Girls? What is the difference in toys/games? You might use a catalog or go to a toy store.

7. Sexist Collages--Put together the most sexist male collage you can. Do the same for female. What do these collages tell us about the way men/women are viewed by society?

8. Before/After Advertising--Glue advertisements that are sex biased on one poster. On another poster glue advertisements which are not sex biased. What makes advertisements sex biased? What is the stereotype used in advertising? How does it relate to reality? What could you do to eliminate stereotyping in advertising?

9. Photographs--Collect photos of children which are representative of how they learn their sex roles.

10. Write an autobiographical essay on your own education. Include the critical turning points, either events or decisions, that determined your future and analyze those people who influenced you to make whatever decisions you made.

11. Make a presentation on women and the Constitution with an emphasis on the 9th, 13th, 14th, and 19th Amendments.

12. Make a pro-con presentation on the Equal Rights Amendment.

13. Rewrite a fairy tale, such as, <u>Sleeping Beauty</u>, Cinderella, or <u>Little Red Riding Hood</u>, and tell it to the group.

14. Make a collage of males in non-traditional roles, for example, taking care of babies, sewing, or cooking. Make another collage of females in non-traditional roles, for example, fixing cars, fixing the plumbing, or playing football.

15. Examine two or more religions and describe their different attitudes toward the role of women.

16. Collect comic strips that have girls and/or women as characters in them. Choose one or two examples to show the group. Explain how females are portrayed in your examples.

17. Cut out several ads about motions pictures which are currently showing. Go see, read a review, or talk with people who have seen several of the movies. How do they depict women?

18. Bring the record or the words to <u>I Am Woman</u> by Helen Reddy. Prepare discussion questions about the song.

19. Bring quotations by Sigmund Freud, about women, to share with the group.

20. Bring the following records to the group: <u>Just Like A Woman</u> by Bob Dylan, <u>Look at That Stupid Girl</u> by the Rolling Stones, <u>Miss Black America</u> by Curtis Mayfield, and <u>Where You Lead</u> by Carol King. Discuss what the "hip" and Black culture's views of how women are. Analyze how females are portrayed.

21. Prepare a "Biography Bee" for your group. Select five women, outstanding in any field. On separate cards, write three sentences about each woman. For your presentation, divide the group into two teams. Read out the first sentence on a card. The team which correctly identifies the outstanding woman it describes gets three points. If no one can identify the person, read the second sentence, for which a team can get two points. If no team can still identify the woman, read the third sentence, for which a team will get one point for correct identification.

22. Write a speech for a woman announcing her candidacy for President of the United States. Include a description of her qualifications, her platform, and the reasons she is running for office.

23. Make a presentation of American women poets. Possible resource: <u>No More Masks: An Anthology of Poems by Women</u> by Florence Howe and Ellen Bass, editors; Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1973.

24. Read <u>The Total Woman</u> by Marabel Morgan, available in paperback for $1.95, Pocket Books, 1975. Give an oral book report to the group. Use illustrations and/or charts in your presentation.

APPENDIX I

FILM DESCRIPTIONS

FILMS

Men's Lives

The film uses interviews with children and men who discuss what is means to be a man. an excellent presentation which reveals a range of values and expectations. Uses famous movie and television film clips and advertisements to demonstrate societal versions of the ideal male. Also, discusses the impact of society's economic structure on men's lives.

This 45 minutes color film was produced by New Day Films in 1977.

Bias: A Four-Letter Word

The film questions the rationality of our society. it shows how our so-called civilized way not only accepts but encourages conditions that nourish self-prejudice, snap judgements of people, and tendencies to stereotype on basis of appearance and occupation, as well as conflicts such as male vs. female (vice versa), old vs. young, tall women vs. short men.

This 22 minutes color film was produced by the Malibu Corporation in 1977.

Both films can be order by Oklahoma Vocational educators from:

Curriculum and Instructional Materials Center
Oklahoma State Department of Vo-Tech Education
1500 West Seventh Avenue
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74074

APPENDIX J

ROLE REVERSAL

ROLE REVERSAL

1. **INTRODUCTION**

    We often assume that "the grass is greener on the other side of the fence." But when we get across that fence we realize that things aren't so rosy over there after all. This could also be true in regard to our sex. A woman might say, "I really wish I could be a man and have control over my life. I could do what I want and wouldn't have to worry about the house and kids all the time." On the other hand, a man might say, "The women now have it so easy--all the modern conveniences. And if they don't want to be full-time homemakers, they can go out and get a job. They have a choice. We don't." How many times have you thought that it would be nice to be a member of the opposite sex? Why? In this activity you will be given the chance to imagine you are a member of the opposite sex, to think of advantages of being a member of that sex.

2. **APPROXIMATE TIME** -- 1 to 1 1/2 hours

3. **MATERIALS NEEDED**

    a. Pad of newsprint, enough sheets for each small group

    b. Dark-colored, wide, felt-tipped markers

4. **PREPARATION** -- None needed

5. **PROCEDURE**

    a. Divide the total group into same-sex groups of three to four people each.

    b. Explain to the total group that each small group should imagine that they are the opposite sex.

        1) Brainstorm advantages of being that sex.

        2) Record these advantages on your newsprint and star the two that seem the best.

        (NOTE: Give the group 15 minutes to complete their lists.)

    c. Give each group a sheet of newsprint and a felt-tipped marker.

    d. Ask the groups to be ready to report their top two advantages to the entire group.

    e. Call the groups back together.

    f. Ask each small group to share with the total group the top two advantages of being the opposite sex.

    g. Ask for feedback from the sex being described

Example: If the small group is all female and they are reporting on what they think are the advantages of being male, turn to a group of males and ask: "What is your reaction to that? Do you consider those to be advantages of being male? What are the costs of those advantages? What disadvantages are there to that?"

h.   Ask the reporting group, "Is there any reason you can't have the advantage you described?"

i.   Follow the same procedure for each small group

(NOTE: Be ready for some lively exchanges and some pretty straight-forward talk. However, don't let the discussion get too out of hand. Be ready to intervene if things get too heated.)

6.   CLOSING REMARKS

To summarize, ask some of the following questions for discussion.

a.   "Does a society with differentiated sex roles have to remain that way?"

b.   "What sex-role differentiation is biologically rooted and unchangeable?"

c.   "What sex-role differentiation results from the assumption that since males and females are biologically different, they should behave differently and be treated differently?"

d.   "In what ways do women gain from abandoning their traditional sex role?"

e.   "What advantages or privileges of the traditional female role might they have to give up as sex discrimination is eliminated?"

f.   "In what ways do men gain from abandoning their traditional sex-role?"

g.   "What advantages or privileges of the traditional male role might they have to give up as sex discrimination is eliminated?"

(NOTE: You may want to put these questions up around the room, written on "paper dolls" of men and women.)

Source: S. Mussett, Oklahoma Educational Equity (1981).

APPENDIX K

EXPANDING LANGUAGE

EXPANDING LANGUAGE

Letting students practice expanding biased passages in textbooks will help overcome their influence, while at the same time increasing students' critical skills and general language facility. Example:

Exclusive: "Little by little, man learned to change his world and the way he lived in his world. It took many lifetimes."
> (From Man Changes His World, L.W. Singer Company, Syracuse, Chicago, 1963. P. 16)

Inclusive: "Little by little men and women learned to change their world and the way they lived. It took many lifetimes."

This does not change the content of the paragraph. However, it does given an expanded image and does not leave any doubt that it includes both sexes.

PRACTICE IN EXPANDING LANGUAGE

Divide the class into groups of 2 to 4 and pass out the list of words and sentences. Ask each group to decide if the item needs changing, if so why, and to write alternative expanded phrases. They should discuss the items, rather than "translating" individually.

Remind them that language is poetry, and that simply replacing "man" with "person" may come up with atrociously awkward neologisms - they should keep playing with alternatives until they find expressions they would feel comfortable saying. If time is short, you may stagger where each team begins the list, so that all items are covered for the discussion.

1. Chairman

2. Congresswoman

3. Fireman

4. Everyone should turn in his report.

5. Every nurse should turn in her report.

6. Man and his world.

7. Mr. McAllister runs the garage in partnership with his wife, a striking blonde who mans the pumps.

8. The pioneers headed west, taking their wives and children to unknown territory.

9. Poetess

10. Man-sized job

11. Old Maidish

12. Sissy

13. I'll have my girl xerox this for you.

14. Dear Sir:

15. John Jones and Miss Harriet Hopkins organized the fund drive.

16. Mrs. Ricardo Rodriquez

17. Henpecked

18. Your better half

19. The lady plumber did a surprisingly good job.

20. The students roared when the football team came running out on the court during awards night with their jerseys stuffed with forty inch bosoms. (Actual quotation from a textbook!)

When the groups have finished rewriting the list, have them share their opinions as to what needed changing, and why.

Below are some possible alternatives, with comments about their implications which you may add if they don't come out in the discussion.

If you have a relaxed group you may find some comments verging on the "risky." If it suits your personal style, the more laughter here the better!

1. <u>Chairman</u>, <u>chairwoman</u>, <u>chairperson</u>, may all be acceptable.

   " -person" should be used if the gender is unknown. "We will elect a chairperson." Some people prefer it to be the universal term, others prefer to use chairman or chairwoman when the sex is known. Both allow for expanded images if the usage is consistent. Look out for the pitfall of calling men "men" and women "persons": "Mister Chairman" but "Madam Chairperson." it is perfectly respectable to be female: "Madam Chairwoman." Some prefer to avoid the entire issue "Madam/Mister Chair."

2. <u>Congresswoman</u>, <u>Congressperson</u>, or <u>Representative</u>. See above.

3. <u>Firefighter</u>. This word illustrates the importance of playing with words until you find something you are willing to say, rather than simply substituting "person" for man. No one could bear "fireperson!" also, the expanded word is often stronger and clearer - "fighter" is more graphic and more specific than "man."

   Other examples which could easily become a language exercise for students: police <u>officer</u>, mail <u>carrier</u>, business <u>executive</u>, sales <u>clerk</u>, or <u>agent</u>. In all cases if there is some reason to specify sex, it may be acceptable. "The YWCA will honor the business women of the community."

4. His or her report. Her or his report. The report. A report. Their report. Or recast the sentence. "All students should turn in their report." "All reports are due . . . ."

    Our prediction for the future: "They" in the singular will become accepted, as the "editorial we," is already used to be impersonal. (The use of "you" in the singular is so common that "thee" has become archaic.) See attachment on singular they.

5. His or her report, with above solutions also acceptable. It is possible by heavy use of the plural and by avoiding pronouns to write entirely neutrally. Neutral writing does not discriminate but it does nothing to make an affirmative statement. In any situation where one sex might be assumed to dominate, specifying both at least once is more expansive. "Every nurse should turn in his or her report."

6. Humanity . . . their, People . . . their. This usage gives a distorted view of history and what society is and was really like.

7. Have fun with this one. Principles to look out for: the partners should have equal power and comparable physical descriptions, and Ms. McAllister will have to do something else to those pumps!

8. Pioneer families, or pioneer men and women. This usage lumps the women and children in with the baggage.

9. Poet. -Ess, -ette, -ix, -enne endings imply that the woman is smaller or a special case. Other examples: usherette, stewardess, Jewess, Avaiatrix, comedienne. Two usages, actress and waitress, are generally accepted as being fairly comparable to actor and waiter.

10. Big job, important job. If the remark is being made to a girl, "woman-sized job," to expand her recognition that women are competent adults. If remark is being made to a boy, praising his adult efforts, it may be OK as is.

11. Fussy? prim? cautious? What is really meant by old maidish? You may discover that the people in your group have many different meanings, showing that the phrase not only demeans unmarried women, it is also unclear. Married women and men of all descriptions are also capable of being fussy, prim or cautious.

12. Cowardly? Effeminate? Afraid of getting dirty? The comments in #11 apply here too. The history of this word is interesting. In time past, it was more customary than now to call people by relationships: "Cousin Mason." "Sissy" was baby talk for "Sister." The short term for "Brother" was "Buddy." Look at what has happened to those originally parallel terms - they are now the greatest insult and the greatest compliment.

13. Secretary, assistant or whatever she is. We have all heard of rigorous event which "separate the men from the boys" but has anyone ever said "separate the women from the girls?" Our culture doesn't. it is "flattering" for a woman to be called a girl, implying it would somehow be better if she were 17 and pattable than 47 and competent. "Girl" should be used only on those occasions when "boy" would be used for a men. "A night out with the . . . ."

14. Dear Sir or Madam is the old-fashioned correct term. It is now common to address a title or function: Dear Editor, Teacher, Colleague, or Friend. Sometimes Dear Gentlepeople has graced letters that come to our office!

15. John Jones and Harriet Hopkins. . . . or Mr. John Jones and Miss Harriet Hopkins. . . . or Jones and Hopkins. . . . or John and Harriet. Courtesy titles should have parallel usage. It is accepted expanded language to use a woman's last name alone: "Hopkins took charge of the door-to-door canvass."

16. Ms. Maria Rodrequez, Mrs. Maria Rodriquez, or correct as it stands, depending on her preference. Incorrect is Ms. Ricardo Rodrequez unless the woman's name is Ricardo. The objection to Mrs. Ricardo Rodrequez is that the woman loses her identity. There is also the practical problem that Mrs. Ricardo Rodriquez may be a different person next year. Some women are choosing to retain their family name when they marry, either hyphenated with their husband's name or standing alone.

17. Pushed around? Dominated? The word has an additional untranslatable implication that it is much worse to be dominated by a woman than by a man. An additional exercise: make a list of all the words that insult men and that insult women. (You will have to be uninhibited, many are unprintable.) Henpecked, bastard, sissy, s.o.b., broad, chick, dog. . . Which list is longer? Which the more unprintable? How many of the male insults actually referred to their relationship with a woman or to a woman in their life? How many female insults were sexual or compared them to animals or things? In fact, the language tortures a woman's sexuality so badly that it is difficult to describe her sexual nature without prejudicing her person.

18. Your wife. This word illustrates the paradox that women, though treated as inferior to men, are supposed to be superior at the same time, a situation guaranteed to produce resentment on both sides. It is part of the whole problem of the pedestal. ("Who wants to spend her life on a fancy shelf?") In some regions this phrase is equally used to refer to husbands, in which case there is no problem with it.

19. The plumber did a good job. If for some reason it is essential to specify her sex, call her a woman. We wouldn't say "Gentlemen nurse." Inappropriate use of the word "lady" is another manifestation of the pedestal problem.

20. There are only two ways to handle this one: omit it entirely, or provide a parallel sentence, such as one about a girls' team running out with their shorts stuffed with 14 inch penises. Most people will find the second suggestion obscene in print, but your small groups may get some good giggles as they grabble with this sentence. The point is that women's bodies are public property, freely discussed. Also, as in "Womenless Weddings," we find humor in disguising high status people (men) as low status people (women). The reverse is shocking rather than humorous, because men's bodies are private, not to be laughed at, and because women parodying men would be seen by some to be raising their status. Most of us would probably agree that neither sentence belongs in a text book.

Your group may well come up with other words or phrases they've had trouble with. If so, let the group brainstorm on finding graceful and acceptable solutions.

Source: A. Smith, "New Pioneers," Seminar Leaders' Handbook (1978).

APPENDIX L

TITLE IX QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

TITLE IX QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

I. GENERAL INFORMATION

1. **What is Title IX?**

   Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (P..L. 92-318) states: "No person. . . shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance. . ."

2. **What is covered by Title IX?**

   Every school district in the United State which receives any type of federal assistance is required to comply with the Title IX regulations; failure to do so can result in the loss or delay of federal funds. The final Title IX implementing regulations were issued in 1975. The deadline for total implementation of the regulations at all grade levels was July of 1978.

3. **What are the basic steps for school district compliance?**

   The five basic steps for school district compliance are: 1) Publish a legal notice of nondiscrimination on the basis of sex, 2) Appoint a Title IX coordinator for your district, 3) complete a self-evaluation to identify any discrimination regarding boys and girls, 4) Adopt and publish a district grievance procedure and 5) Sign an "Assurance of Compliance with Title IX" (HEW Form 639A) as required by Office for Civil Rights.

4. **Does Title IX cover textbooks and instructional materials?**

   Section 86.42 of the Title IX regulation specifically exempts texts and instructional materials from coverage. This was done in order to avoid possible conflict with the First Amendment guarantees of freedom of expression. The preamble to the regulation does, however, acknowledge the significance of the problem of sex bias in textbooks, particularly at the elementary and secondary levels. It encourages agencies and institutions to take action to combat the problem, and many have incorporated efforts to secure nonbiased supplementary materials and to develop nonsexist instructional activities within a general Title IX compliance program.

5. **What Federal agencies have responsibility for Title IX activities?**

   The Office for Civil Rights, HEW, is responsible for the actual enforcement of Title IX in education agencies and institutions. The

Office for Civil Rights investigates complaints of Title IX violations which are filed with it; it may also undertake a general compliance review of an education agency or institution with or without the filing of a specific complaint. If the Office for Civil Rights finds noncompliance it first attempts to achieve voluntary compliance through negotiations. If this is not successful, OCR may terminate eligibility for Federal financial assistance until compliance is attained.

6. Won't Title IX lead to a confusion of students' natural biological roles?

Title IX does not require any activities that would suggest changes in those roles which are determined by the physical gender of the individual. Title IX is directed toward providing students with opportunities to learn work and survival roles traditionally assigned on the basis of sex. Males should be provided opportunities to learn how to take care of their own personal maintenance and the maintenance of a home. Females need opportunities to be adequately prepared for participation in the paid work force and to learn home, personal, academic, and career options which are nontraditional for their sex, and to select from a full rage of both traditional and nontraditional options on the basis of their individual interests, abilities, goals and resources. Title IX is a step in this direction.

7. Does Title IX regulations have anything to do with sexuality?

The Title IX regulation does not require that schools offer courses or instruction in human sexuality. It does require that any such courses offered be made available to both females and males, but they may be provided on a sex separated basis. The Title IX regulation also provides that students may be separated by sex during those portions of health classes which deal exclusively with human sexuality (86.34(e)).

8. What is Title IX conflicts with the values of our community?

Schools have a responsibility to prepare young people to function both within and outside their own community. With the high mobility rate in this country, boys and girls need to function as effective adults regardless of where they are living. Furthermore, the purpose and intent of Title IX is to ensure equal educational opportunities for both sexes. If that does indeed exist, young people may make educational choices on the basis of their needs, interests, abilities, and values.

II. ADMISSIONS

1. Are elementary and secondary schools covered by the admission requirements of Title IX?

The only elementary and secondary schools which are subject to the admissions provisions of Title IX are schools of vocational education (86.21(a)). Vocational schools may not treat females and males differently for purposes of school admission.

III.   COURSE ACCESS

1.   Does opening all courses to both females and males ensure compliance with Title IX?

The opening of the programs, courses, or classes to students without regard to sex is the first step in complying with Title IX requirements for nondiscrimination in access to courses.   Other necessary steps include:

revising all course descriptions, course catalogs, or student handbooks to reflect this policy (86.9(b))

ensuring that counselors and counseling tests and materials used in the course selection or placement process do not differentiate on the basis of sex (86.36)

taking action to ensure that any sexually disproportionate course enrollments (enrollments which are 80% female or 80% male) are not the result of sex discrimination in counseling (86.36(c))

2.   Is there any obligation to encourage enrollment of students in courses which are nontraditional for their sex?

Title IX requires that when education agencies and institutions have, in the past, discriminated against person on the basis of sex, they take remedial action to eliminate the effects of the past discrimination (86.3(c)).   Agencies and institutions must design and undertake remedial actions which are appropriate to their own unique situations.   If an agency or institution has, in the past, restricted course enrollment on the basis of sex, a variety of remedial actions might be appropriate to encourage students to explore previously closed options:

..   special recruitment efforts

..   provision of "mini courses" or course "open house" days in which all students attend introductory presentations on a variety of courses

..   revision of course curricula to meet the interests and needs of students of both sexes

..   compensatory activities or programs in areas where one sex has been traditionally excluded

..   provision of special support for students first entering classes or programs nontraditional for their sex

These remedial actions can encourage students to consider the range of options which is consistent with their changing options in work and life roles.

3. Must students be allowed to enter advanced courses (e.g., Clothing Construction II, Advanced Auto Body) if they do not have the prerequisites?

Title IX requires that courses be open equally to qualified males and females (86.34). If students do not have the prerequisites for advanced courses because introductory or intermediate courses were previously closed to student of one sex, equal opportunity could be assured by permitting students to take a proficiency test in order to demonstrate their qualifications for course entry. Course prerequisites may be imposed, but any which function to "screen out" students of one sex must be demonstrated to be related to student safety or performance in the course involved.

4. May health courses or classes be sex-segregated?

Portions of health courses or classes which deal exclusively with human sexuality may be conducted separately for male and female students (86.34(e)). Students should be separated only during those sessions or parts of sessions which deal with human sexuality, they may not be separated for an entire health course because several days are devoted to human sexuality.

5. Does Title IX make any requirements for course content? For example, does it mean that history courses must devote "equal time" to women and men?

No, Title IX makes no requirements for particular course or instructional content. Schools committed to providing equal educational opportunities for females and males will, however, probably want to review curriculum content to provide equitable representation of the roles and contributions of women and men in history and other courses.

6. May programs such as vocational education programs be maintained separately for males and females (e.g., may a school provide boys' auto mechanics and girls' auto mechanics?

No, sex separation in vocational education courses is expressly prohibited by the Title IX regulation (86.34). Many vocational education program have traditionally justified sex separation by reference to a need for privacy in restroom or changing facilities. Sex separation may not be justified in any program because of limited facilities; Title IX requires that provisions be made to ensure access by both males and females to whatever facilities exist.

IV. PHYSICAL EDUCATION

1. Do physical education classes have to be coeducational?

Yes, the Title IX regulations state that physical education classes may not be conducted separately on the basis of sex. However, they do contain the follow qualifications:

.. Students may be separated by sex within physical education classes for participation in the contact sports of wrestling, basketball, boxing, football, rugby and ice hockey.

.. Ability and skill grouping within classes is permitted if it is based on objective standards. These groupings within a class may result in groups composed predominately of one sex.

.. Different fitness and skill test standards may be used in cases where a single evaluation standard would have adverse impact on students of one sex. For example, if the tenth grade physical fitness test requires a two meter broad jump as a minimum for passing and most boys can surpass this standard and most girls cannot, then separate standards should be adopted for boys and girls.

2. Where a school can provide only one instructor for a coed physical education class, who will be responsible for the locker room supervision of students of the opposite sex in case of an accident or a fight?

Locker room supervision need not be the responsibility of physical education teachers; paraprofessionals might be assigned, or locker room supervision duties might be rotated among all staff members, as is frequently the case with hall or cafeteria supervision duty.

3. May boys and girls be separated within physical education classes for special interest activities such as modern dance for girls and weight lifting for boys?

Schools may permit students to select physical education courses or activities on the basis of their interest; all options must, however, be open to boys and girls according to the same criteria (86.34).

V. COUNSELING

1. How do you recognize illegal sex bias in counseling instruments or test--career interest inventories, aptitude tests, etc?

Sex bias can occur in many ways in counseling instruments or tests; some of the "warning signals" of bias include:

.. sex-separated testing forms, response forms, or scoring forms, unless procedures for nondiscriminatory use are clearly specified.

.. sex-separated norms or scoring profiles, unless the rationale for such norms is clearly stated.

.. sex-separated interpretive information, unless procedures for its nondiscriminatory use are specified.

.. gender-labeled occupations (e.g., salesman rather than sales worker or person) in career interest inventories.

The issue of bias in instruments is a fairly technical one; detailed information on this subject may be obtained from the National Institute of Education.

2. What are some indicators of discrimination in a counseling program?

    Possible sex discrimination in counseling programs may be indicated by a variety of circumstances:

    .. sexually disproportionate course enrollments.

    .. sex "tracking" within various programs--advanced placement program, programs for learning disabilities, remedial reading program, or programs for the educable mentally retarded.

    .. provision of career counseling primarily to boys and provision of personal counseling primarily to girls.

    The presence of any of these circumstances does not necessarily indicate discrimination, but it would indicate that this possibility should be carefully examined.

    Discrimination in counseling is, of course, prohibited in such forms as:

    .. assignment of students to counselors on the basis of sex.

    .. the use of sex-differentiated counseling materials, unless they are used in a nondiscriminatory manner.

    .. the use of sex-differentiated counseling procedures, unless they are used in a nondiscriminatory manner (86.36).

VI. TREATMENT OF STUDENTS

1. Does Title IX abolish dress codes?

    No, Title IX does require that if a dress code is maintained, its rule must be the same for females and males. For example, if there is a restriction upon hair length for males or the waring of jeans by females, these requirements must be the same for students of the opposite sex (86.31(b-5)).

2. May a school maintain policies regarding the treatment of students who are married or students who are parents?

    Yes, a school may establish policies regarding student marriage or parenthood providing that these policies are applied without regard to sex. It would not be permissible, for example, to restrict the participation of married females in extracurricular activities unless the participation of married males is also restricted (86.40).

3. Do schools have to do anything special for pregnant students?

Schools may provide separate programs for pregnant students if participation in these programs is at the option of the student. Agencies and institutions are not obligated to provide special programs; they are required only to provide pregnant students access to the on going education programs (86.40).

4. May schools restrict the curricular or extracurricular activities of pregnant students?

Yes, but only for medical reasons. Schools may require certification by a physician of a pregnant student's ability to participate in education programs or activities only if a certification is also required for students with other temporary physical or emotional disabilities. Schools may not implement general policies restricting the activities of pregnant students (86.40(b-2)).

5. May standards of discipline or behavior be different for females and males?

Standards which differentiate between males and females (either in stated policy or in application) in discipline for the same offense are in violation of Title IX (86.31(b-4)). For example, to detain girls for smoking while suspending boys for the same offense would not be permissible.

VII. ATHLETICS

1. May athletic programs be conducted separately on the basis of sex?

No, however, there are two exceptions to this regulation:

a) Separate play and contests by sex may be conducted in the contact sports of football, boxing, rugby, ice hockey, basketball, and wrestling. (Note: This definition does not apply to softball or baseball.)

b) Separate competitive skill programs for both sexes are permissible and acceptable if the interests and abilities of both sexes are effectively accommodated.

2. What factors should be considered when assessing equality?

The factors should include equipment and supplies, training, travel, coaching, and other facilities. (When a school has a team for a non-contact sport for one sex but not for the other, then the sex for which there is no team may be allowed the opportunity to try out for the team. The determining factor is whether or not overall athletic opportunities for that sex have been previously limited.)

3. If interscholastic athletics are provided intermediate school boys, must they be provided for girls also if the girls are offered intramural athletics?

    Yes, if there are enough girls interested to make up a team. Athletic opportunities should be comparable for females and males, and level of competition is one factor which must be considered in assessing comparability. Other factors include:

    .. whether the interests and abilities of girls and boys are effectively provided for.

    .. availability of facilities and equipment.

    .. availability of coaching, tutoring, and medical services.

    .. availability of necessary financial resources (86.41(c)).

4. If the state athletic association's policies or regulations conflict with Title IX , which has priority?

    Title IX. According to 86.58, the Federal statute supersedes State or local law or other requirements.

5. If young women can participate on young men's teams, why can't young men play on young women's teams?

    The Title IX regulation does not require that all males' teams be open to females while all females' teams remain closed to males. What it does require is that where overall athletic opportunities for students of one sex (male or female) have been limited in the past, students of that sex must be permitted to try out for membership on teams provided for students of the other sex, unless the sport involved is a contact sport (86.41(b)). In most education agencies and institutions, overall athletic opportunities have been greater for males than for females; thus females would now be entitled to try out for males' teams. In any case where females' overall opportunities have exceeded those of males, males would be permitted to try out for females' teams. This requirement is not intended to discriminate against males; rather it is intended to give those students who have previously suffered discrimination an opportunity to "catch up."

6. May a school district maintain separate letter clubs for male and female athletics?

    No, offering separate letter clubs for males and females would be a violation of 86.2(a). That section prohibits excluding students on the basis of sex from participating in extracurricular activities operated by the institution.

7. Should girls' athletic awards be the same as those awarded to boys'?

    The automatic awarding of a letter of boys and a charm to girls would clearly be in violation of Title IX requirements (86.41). Where

schools or districts wish to accommodate possible differences in student preferences, all athletes, male and female, should be offered a choice of awards. For example, all qualifying athletes could be offered a choice of a letter jacket or a letter sweater, rather than routinely providing a jacket for males and a sweater for females.

8. What is required for the provision of equality in the scheduling of facilities for practice or for competitive events?

The scheduling of the use of athletic facilities for practice and for competitive athletic events must be done in a manner which does not discriminate on the basis of sex (86.41(c-iii)). To consistently provide female athletes or teams the use of a gym or other practice facility before school, while consistently providing male athletes or teams access to the same facility after school would not be sufficient to constitute equality. To consistently schedule athletic competition by males on Friday or Saturday nights while consistently scheduling females' competition on Wednesday afternoons would also not constitute equality. Times for use of facilities for practice and for competition need to be scheduled so as to provide equal access, convenience, and visibility for female and male athletes. For example, girls' and boys' basketball teams might both play on Friday nights and alternate early and late time slots over successive events (e.g., week one: girls--6:30, boys--9:00: week two: boys--6:30, girls--9:00).

9. Suppose that equipment for boys' interscholastic teams is donated by individuals and community groups. Does the school district then have to purchase equipment for girls' teams?

Title IX requires that boys' and girls' teams must have equal access to comparable equipment. If a district accepts gifts of equipment for boys' teams, then the district must ensure that comparable equipment is provided for girls' teams. It may solicit donations of additional equipment but, if these are not available, the district must purchase or obtain comparable equipment for girls' teams.

10. Should the girls' basketball coach receive the same pay as the boys' basketball coach?

Payment for coaching services may not be differentiated based on the sex of the students coached or on the sex of the coach. Salary differentials for coaching services may be based on such objective factors as the number of games played, the number of coaching assistants, and the length of the season for a particular sport. They may not be based on subjective factors such as community pressure or technicality of the sport involved.

VIII. EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES

1. Must a school grant paternity leave to male employees?

If female employees are granted leave for childrearing purposes (leave without pay granted after the birth of a child when a woman is physically able to return to work), then the same benefit must be extended to male employees. A school or school district is not required

to grant childrearing or parental leave to employees of either sex; but if it is granted to members of one sex, it must be granted to members of the other.

2. Does the employment section refer only to faculty members?

No, the employment section 86.51 - 86.61 cover all employees of an education institution, including student employees.

3. May a school hire a social studies teacher on the basis of a job description which pairs the social studies teaching assignment with responsibility for coaching the football team?

Although the Title IX regulation does not specifically prohibit the pairing of such unrelated job assignments as social studies teacher and football coach, it does prohibit any hiring practice which results in a systematic denial of employment opportunities to members of one sex. Court action regarding this specific hiring situation has been brought under other Federal antidiscrimination laws, and the courts have held such paired job descriptions to be illegal because they have a discriminatory impact on the employment of females.

OKLAHOMA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
LESLIE FISHER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT

FEDERAL PROGRAMS DIVISION
SEX DESEGREGATION PROJECT
GLENDA BARRETT, COORDINATOR

APPENDIX M

INSTRUMENT

Self-Administered Survey of Sex Stereotypes*
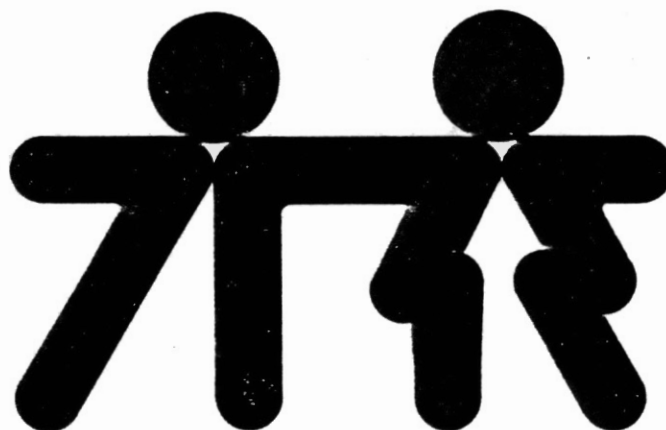
Directions: The scoring system will be explained by the facilitator. For each item in the survey, circle:

SA — if you STRONGLY AGREE
A — if you AGREE
N — if you are NEUTRAL
D — if you DISAGREE
SD — if you STRONGLY DISAGREE

* Taken from Project MASSIVE (Modifying Attitudes of Sex-role Stereotyping In Vocational Education)

Dr. Roger Trent, Project Director
Ohio Department of Education
Columbus, Ohio

Self-Administered Survey of Sex Stereotypes

Name_____Check one: pretest _____post-test_____

	Circle ONE response:				

1. Outdoor jobs should be performed by men rather than women. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

2. Men handle active jobs better than women. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

3. Important decisions should be made by men rather than women. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

4. Women operate best behind the scenes. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

5. Men. unlike women. generally act in an open, honest manner. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

6. Women are better counselors than men because women show more empathy. | SA | A | N · D | SD |

7. Men make decisions based on sound logic more often than women. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

8. Women generally perform better than men in cosmetology or dental hygiene because women have better finger dexterity. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

9. Women as well as men should be prepared to support their families financially. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

10. Women care more about the feelings of others than men do. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

11. All jobs should be open to both men and women. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

12. Men are smarter than women in science and math as proved by comparing test scores. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

13. Women in the work force prefer a subordinate role more so than men. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

14. Most married women who work do so to keep from being bored at home. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

15. Money spent educating a woman is as well spent as money spent educating a man. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

16. Jobs requiring skills in caring for other people are performed best by women. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

17. Women are naturally better at interior decoration than men. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

18. Men have fewer original ideas than women. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

19. Women like to gossip more than men. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

20. Women cost their companies more than men because of a higher turnover and absenteeism rate. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

21. Women are generally too dependent on others to handle top administrative jobs. | SA | A | N | D | SD |

Circle ONE response:

22. Few architects are women because women typically do not have enough spatial ability.

SA A N D SD

23. Men relate to others in a more direct way than women.

SA A N D SD

24. Men are naturally more insensitive to others.

SA A N D SD

25. Jobs such as loading or unloading trucks can be managed only by males.

SA A N D SD

26. If a male and female candidate have about the same qualifications for a high school principalship, the male should get the job.

SA A N D SD

27. Men usually do not care when others are hurt.

SA A N D SD

28. Since they are less emotional than women, men are more objective.

SA A N D SD

29. Men should expect to bear the major responsibility for supporting a wife and family.

SA A N D SD

30. Men, more than women, evaluate all of the facts before making a decision.

SA A N D SD

31. Standards for promotion and hiring should be the same for men and women.

SA A N D SD

32. To work effectively, women need more encouragement and approval than men.

SA A N D SD

33. Because men and women have basic psychological differences, they are suited to fill different roles.

SA A N D SD

34. Men are better chemists or mathematicians than women.

SA A N D SD

35. A wife's career is not as important to the family as her husband's.

SA A N D SD

36. Usually women work only for spending money, while men work to support their families.

SA A N D SD

37. Men and women should share equally the responsibility of rearing children.

SA A N D SD

38. Jobs requiring skills in making high-level administrative decisions are performed best by men.

SA A N D SD

39. Men make better authority figures than women.

SA A N D SD

40. Men are more dependable than women.

SA A N D SD

41. Women who work generally prefer passive jobs.

SA A N D SD

42. Women prefer to rely upon others to make important decisions.

SA A N D SD

43. Women are generally content to give in to males.

SA A N D SD

44. Women usually cannot perform jobs requiring much mechanical aptitude.

SA A N D SD

45. Women are usually more underhanded than men.

SA A N D SD

Circle ONE response:

#	Question	Responses
46.	People typically prefer to work for a male rather than for a female.	SA A N D SD
47.	When under stress, women are naturally more emotional than men.	SA A N D SD
48.	Jobs requiring logical thinking should be filled by men rather than women.	SA A N D SD
49.	Men are harder to place as typists because they generally do not perform as well as women.	SA A N D SD
50.	Men, more than women, are doers and providers.	SA A N D SD
51.	Stressful jobs should be filled by men rather than women.	SA A N D SD
52.	Men and women should be paid the same for equivalent work.	SA A N D SD
53.	There are certain jobs and roles which only men should have, and the same is true for women.	SA A N D SD
54.	Women, more than men, prefer to take directions, not give them.	SA A N D SD
55.	After marriage, women should quit work to devote themselves to their husbands and families.	SA A N D SD
56.	Women expect to spend what men earn and to use what men build.	SA A N D SD
57.	Women don't like to get dirty because they are more concerned with their appearance than men.	SA A N D SD
58.	Women are typically more imaginative than men.	SA A N D SD
59.	Men rather than women should perform jobs likely to require courage.	SA A N D SD
60.	The time and money spent on training women for high-level jobs are largely wasted.	SA A N D SD

Number _____

Age _____

Race_____

Occupational
Area_____

Total Years
Teaching Field _____

_____ In what type of area do you teach in?
   a. rural
   b. urban

_____ In what type of school do you presently teach?
   a. local district
   b. area vocational-technical school

_____ Sex a. female b. male

_____How many conferences, workshops, or seminars have you attended in which the subject matter dealt with sex equity?
    a. zero   c. 4-16   e. 11 or more
    b. 1-3   d. 7-10

_____What is the highest level of education you have completed?
    a. high school
    b. 30 hours of college
    c. 60 hours of college
    d. 90 hours of college
    e. bachelor's degree
    f. master's degree
    g. master's degree plus 30 hours
    h. doctorate

APPENDIX N

CORRESPONDENCE

Candy Gray, Coordinator
Educational Equity Services
Oklahoma State Department of
  Vocational-Technical Education
1515 West Sixth Avenue
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74074

Dear Ms. Gray:

   We are pleased to give you permission to use the products of
Project MASSIVE in your workshops and dissertation research provided
appropriate credit is given.

   We would also appreciate receiving a copy of your summary (at
least method and results).

                              Sincerely yours,

                              E. Roger Trent, Ph.D.
                              Project Director

ERT:pr

APPENDIX O

COMPONENTS AND THEIR ITEMS

COMPONENTS AND THEIR ITEMS

Component 1: Expectations on Level of Employment and Decision Making Responsibilities

3. Important decisions should be made by men rather than women.

7. Men make decisions based on sound logic more often than women.

13. Women in the work force prefer a subordinate role more so than men.

21. Women are generally too dependent on others to handle top administrative jobs.

28. Since they are less emotional than women, men are more objective.

30. Men, more than women, evaluate all of the facts before making a decision.

38. Jobs requiring skills in making high-level administrative decisions are performed best by men.

39. Men make better authority figures than women.

42. Women prefer to rely upon others to make important decisions.

46. People typically prefer to work for a male rather than for a female.

47. When under stress, women are naturally more emotional than men.

48. Jobs requiring logical thinking should be filled by men rather than women.

51. Stressful jobs should be filled by men rather than women.

54. Women, more than men, prefer to take directions, not give them.

Component 2: Expectations on the Importance or Purpose of Employment

14. Most married women who work do so to keep from being bored at home.

29. Men should expect to bear the major responsibility for supporting a wife and family.

35. A wife's career is not as important to the family as her husband's.

36. Usually women work only for spending money, while men work to support their families.

50. Men, more than women, are doers and providers.

55.   After marriage, women should quit work to devote themselves to their husbands and families.

56.   Women expect to spend what men earn and to use what men build.

60.   The time and money spent on training women for high-level jobs are largely wasted.

Components 3: Expectations on Type of Employment

1.   Outdoor jobs should be performed by men rather than women.

2.   Men handle active jobs better than women.

6.   Women are better counselors than men because women show more empathy.

10.   Women care more about the feelings of others than men do.

16.   Jobs requiring skills in caring for other people are performed best by women.

17.   Women are naturally better at interior decoration than men.

18.   Men have fewer original ideas than women.

24.   Men are naturally more insensitive to others.

26.   If a male and female candidate have about the same qualifications for a high school principalship, the male should get the job.

27.   Men usually do not care when others are hurt.

41.   Women who work generally prefer passive jobs.

43.   Women are generally content to give in to males.

53.   There are certain jobs and roles which only men should have, and the same is true for women.

58.   Women are typically more imaginative than men.

Component 4: Expectations on How Well Individuals Will Function in a Work Setting

4.   Women operate best behind the scenes.

5.   Men, unlike women, generally act in an open, honest manner.

19.   Women like to gossip more than men.

20.   Women cost their companies more than men because of a higher turnover and absenteeism rate.

23.   Men relate to others in a more direct way than women.

32.   To work effectively, women need more encouragement and approval than men.

33.   Because men and women have basic psychological differences, they are suited to fill different roles.

40.   Men are more dependable than women.

45.   Women are usually more underhanded than men.

57.   Women don't like to get dirty because they are more concerned with their appearance than men.

59.   Men rather than women should perform jobs likely to require courage.

Component 5: Expectations of an Individual's Basic Abilities

8.   Women generally perform better than men in cosmetology or dental hygiene because women have better finger dexterity.

12.   Men are smarter than women in science and math as proved by comparing test scores.

22.   Few architects are women because women typically do not have enough spatial ability.

25.   Jobs such as loading or unloading trucks can be managed only by males.

34.   Men are better chemists or mathematicians than women.

44.   Women usually cannot perform jobs requiring much mechanical aptitude.

49.   Men are harder to place as typist because they generally do not perform as well as women.

Component 6: General Beliefs About What Should Exist

9.   Women as well as men should be prepared to support their families financially.

11.   All jobs should be open to both men and women.

15.   Money spent educating a woman is as well as money spent educating a man.

31.   Standards for promotion and hiring should be the same for men and women.

37.   Men and women should share equally the responsibility of rearing children.

52.   Men and women should be paid the same for equivalent work.

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VITA

Candace Foster Gray

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: A STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE SEX EQUITY WORKSHOPS DESIGNED FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATORS IN OKLAHOMA

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Norman, Oklahoma, September 24, 1950, the daughter of Robert L. and Mary Jo Foster.

Education: Graduated from Chandler High School, Chandler, Oklahoma, in May, 1968; received Bachelor of Science from Oklahoma State University in 1972; received Master of Education degree from Northeastern Oklahoma State University in 1974; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 1983.

Professional Experience: Vocational Home Economics Teacher, Wagoner High School, Wagoner, Oklahoma, 1972-74; Vocational Home Economics Teacher, Muskogee High School, Muskogee, Oklahoma, 1974-79; Vocational Department Chairman, Muskogee High School, 1979; Assistant Educational Equity Coordinator, Oklahoma State Department Vo-Tech, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1980; Educational Equity Coordinator, Oklahoma State Department Vo-Tech, Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1980-81; Vocational Home Economics Supervisor, Oklahoma State Department Vo-Tech, 1981 to present.

Professional Organizations: American Vocational Association; Oklahoma Vocational Association; American Home Economics Association; Oklahoma Home Economics Association; American Association of University Women; National Council of Local Administrators of Vocational; Technical and Practical Arts Education; Oklahoma Council of Local Administrators of Vocational, Technical and Practical Arts Education.

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