

SEXISM IN THE PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF KANSAS

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## CHAPTER I

### THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

#### Introduction

Providing equal educational opportunity for children, both boys and girls, is a challenge facing American education in the 80s. While race equity has been a concern for several years, the issue of gender equity has become a major issue since Congress passed Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Aquila, 1981).

Title IX (P.L. 92-318) is the first comprehensive federal law to prohibit sex discrimination in the admission and treatment of students by educational institutions. Educational institutions covered by Title IX are those that receive federal financial assistance. The Preamble, section 901(a) states:

No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex be excluded from participation in, be denied benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance (Aquila, 1981, p.15).

With enactment of the Women's Education Equity Act (the act which provided the opportunity for women, who were concerned about sexism in education, to meet and to develop plans and strategies for change and develop an effective women's lobby on educational issues) and Title IX, the legislative foundation for a major federal program to end sex bias/discrimination in education has been established. As a result of the passage of these laws, sex discrimination in almost every aspect of

education has been made illegal, and a program has been established to fund projects aimed at hastening the process of change in the treatment by schools of girls and women (Fiskel, 1977).

The question that now arises is whether or not this legislation has ended sex bias or sex stereotyping in the elementary school.

This study will focus on the issue of sexism in the elementary school.

#### Statement of the Problem

The elementary school should be a place where all students can obtain an equal education regardless of their gender. Students have the right to be educated in an environment that is free of inequalities and it is the responsibility of all schools to provide such an atmosphere and education.

The issue to be examined in this study is the problem of discrimination by gender in Kansas public elementary schools. Is a student's treatment and encouragement in the classroom affected by his/her gender?

#### Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to determine whether or not teachers in public elementary schools in Kansas sex stereotype students in their everyday classroom interactions. The determination was made through research of current literature, questionnaires of elementary teachers, both male and female, and classroom observations.

### Research Questions

Q1 - Can sexism be discovered to exist in public elementary schools in Kansas?

Q2 - Does the gender of the teacher influence the amount of sexism shown in student interactions?

Q3 - Who receives more of the teacher's attention; male or female students?

### Limitations of the Study

1. The sample may not be representative because two large urban districts were unable to participate in the study (Topeka, USD #501 and Wichita USD #259).

2. The implications of this study may not be applicable to some schools because the study was limited to elementary schools in Kansas.

3. The results of the inservice activity might have been biased because the author of this study directed the inservice activity. Also, there was no teacher involvement in the planning of the inservice activity.

4. The survey results are subject to the usual limitations applicable to mail-out questionnaires.

### Definition of Terms

Sex Bias - sex differentiated treatment of students. Any behavior which reflects stereotyped expectations, assumptions or behaviors (Saario and Nagy, 1973).

Sexism - prejudice or discrimination based on a person's sex. See Appendix C for ways of showing sexism (New Collegiate Dictionary, 1976).

Sex Discrimination - not providing the same access and treatment to female and male learners within the same context (Saario and Nagy, 1973).

Title IX - 1972 Education Amendment which prohibits sex discrimination in education programs or activities that receive federal financial assistance (Beyond Title IX, 1987).

Hidden Curriculum - the subtle influences on students that are part of the unplanned, unofficial learning that students absorb as they move through school. This hidden curriculum includes: the messages children receive about themselves and others of their gender and race through the illustrations, language, and content of textbooks, films and visual displays; the ways in which administrators, teachers, and other students interact with them; the part they play in important school rituals; and the extent to which they come in contact with influential role models of their own gender and race (Saario and Nagy, 1973).

Sex Equality - receiving of equal benefits from instruction by both male and female students (Klein, 1984).

Sex Equity - the provision of identical classroom environment for boys and girls (Klein, 1984).

Sex-Role Stereotyping - the practice of expecting different behavior from boys and girls. Attributing abilities, motivations, behaviors, values, and roles to a person or group solely because of sex placing groups of people or narrowly defined categories or activities (Kerber, 1983).

### Summary

Chapter I includes relevant information necessary in the development of the problem under consideration of this study. Chapter I also includes the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study and definitions of pertinent terms.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of related literature that lend support to the three research questions that underline the study.

#### Sexism

In the mid 1960s the demand began to be voiced that schools and the federal government bring to bear the same pressure to end sex discrimination as had been brought to oppose race discrimination. The first manifesto of the National Organization for Women, published in 1966, included a demand for equal educational opportunity. The manifesto said it was the right of women "to be educated to their full potential equally with men." It assumed that sex discrimination was generally unwholesome, and it asked for federal and state legislation to eliminate "all discrimination and segregation by sex, written and unwritten, at all levels of education." In 1966 few people acknowledged the pervasive discrimination that existed; by 1972 many studies had documented its existence, and many new statutes, both state and federal, contained provisions that affected women's status (Kerber, 1983).

The passage of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 was perhaps the most significant congressional action of the times (Aquila,

1981). The statute clearly states:

No person in the United State 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.

What has been the impact of title IX on the educational practices within elementary schools since its enactment in 1975? Are girls and boys treated in an equitable manner since the enactment of the statute? The following review of current literature in this area will give some insight into the answer.

In the Sadker and Sadker (1982) Sex Equity Handbook one study showed that teachers gave more active teaching attention to boys than girls in math, a field stereotyped as a male domain; but in the area of reading, stereotyped as female domain, the reverse occurred - girls got more of the teacher's active teaching attention than did boys. Teachers also asked boys more factual questions, more abstract questions, and more open-ended questions.

Detailed observation of the criticisms and praises directed by teachers towards boys and girls has shown that of the many criticisms directed towards boys, only one-third were related to the intellectual quality of their work, as opposed to the two-thirds of the negative evaluations addressed to girls. With expressions of praise, 94 percent of those addressed to boys, but only 79 percent for girls, dealt with the intellectual quality of their work. In addition, teachers attributed poor academic performance to a lack of motivation eight time more often in the case of boys. The impact of this sex differentiated behavior of teachers is that the use of negative evaluation for boys becomes indiscriminate since it is employed more often for non-academic

matters, while for girls, it remains more silent since it is frequently related to the quality of their work. Given that the academic shortcomings of boys, more than girls, are blamed on a lack of motivation and, hence, insufficient application to study and that they are more often praised than girls for good academic performance, these factors lead boys to treat the criticism of teachers as ambiguous and an invalid assessment of their level of ability (Kerber, 1983). Since the inadequacies of girls are attributed in lesser degree to lack of motivation or inadequate study, and they more frequently receive criticisms that refer directly to the poor quality of their work, girls cannot disregard negative evaluations as ambiguous or invalid.

According to Rothschild-Safilious (1982), an explanation of these various ways in which teachers behave differently towards boys and girls has often been assumed to reside in the sex role ideology held by teachers. But structural factors such as the sex ratio in the classroom, the stereotyped gender label of the subject taught, or the traditional gender label attributed to the school have been found to be associated with levels of achievement, attitudes and behaviors.

In a classroom interaction study funded by the National Institute of Education, Sadker and Sadker (1984, 1985) found substantial if often subtle forms of bias. Teachers talked more to boys, questioned them more, gave them more praise and help, criticized them more, and in about 50 percent of the cases, taught their lessons to sex segregated coeducational classes (boy on one side, girls on the other). This research revealed that boys were the central figures in the classroom and girls were regulated to second-class participation (Sadker and Sadker, 1984).



In Shakeshaft's (1986), A Gender At Risk, the previous point is further enforced. According to Shakeshaft, in the classroom, male students receive more attention from teachers than female students do. They are more likely to be praised, but they are also more likely to be reprimanded. Teachers instruct male students in performing a task, but they often do the task for female students. Teachers allow more opportunities for boys to respond to answer questions, help out, etc. The results is a classroom in which boys dominate. They talk more, interact more, receive more teacher time, and have more opportunities to learn. Boys learn to handle criticism because they have opportunities to respond that allow them to grow. Boys also have more opportunities to build self-esteem because they speak more, are more often praised and told that they have ability.

Shakeshaft (1986) continues to say that the average female is ignored, neither reprimanded nor praised. The high achieving female receives the least attention of all students. Both majority and minority girls learn that their opinions are not valued, that their responses to questions are not worthy of attention. Consequently, female students come to believe that they are not smart or important. They learn that, if they do well in school, it is because they are lucky or work hard, not because they are smart or capable. The interactions of teachers with students reinforce the societal message that females are inferior.

Harvey (1986) expounds on a myth shared by parents and educators alike: that elementary schools are hospitable to girls and hostile to boys. However, it is typically the academic and behavioral problems of boys, not those of girls, that are the primary focus of the school's

energy and resources. Thus, what is perceived to be a supportive environment for girls is in reality, one that ignores female learning deficits. What is perceived to be hostile to boys is really an emphasis on early identification of and attention to male learning deficits.

Harvey (1986) continues his article by expounding on the educational myths that male and female students receive equal instructional treatment in classrooms. During the last two decades, considerable emphasis has been placed on generating an awareness of instructional inequities and on creating instructional environments for female and minority students that are as supportive as those provided for males. As a result, educators and parents have come to believe that inequities in classroom instruction have been eliminated.

Harvey (1986) is quick to point out that although this may seem to be a logical conclusion, an extensive body of research disputes it. In the classroom, boys actually receive more instructional attention than girls do; they also receive more praise and criticism. In addition boys are more likely to be given detailed instructions, while girls learn to become "helpless" as teachers solve problems for them. Moreover, the problem is compounded by the fact that most teachers appear to be unaware that they treat students differently according to sex.

Sadker and Sadker (1982) spent six years conducting research on classroom interactions. They found that at all grade levels and in all subjects, male students were involved in more interactions than female students. It did not matter whether the teacher was black or white, female or male; the pattern remained the same. Male students received more attention from teachers.

The Sadker's (1982) research further points out that the quality as well as the quantity of classroom interaction is also distributed inequitable. Teacher interactions involving precise feedback were more likely to be directed to male students. The Sadker's identified three types of precise teacher reactions: praise (positive reactions to a student's comment or work), criticism (explicit statements that an answer is incorrect), and remediation (helping students to correct or improve their responses). A fourth less-specific teacher reaction consisted of simple acceptance of student comments.

The Sadkers (1982) gave several reasons why males capture more and better teacher attention:

1. sex segregation - the majority of classrooms in their study were sex segregated, and the teachers tended to gravitate to the boys' sections, where they spent more of their time and attention.
2. boys demand more attention - Their research showed that boys in elementary and secondary schools are eight times as likely as girls to call out and demand a teacher's attention. However, this is not the whole story; teachers behave differently depending on whether the student called out is a boy or girl. When boys call out, teachers tend to accept their answers. When girls call out, teachers remediate their behavior and advise them to raise their hands. Boys are being trained to be assertive; girls are being trained to be passive (Sadker and Sadker, 1982, p. 10).

The data supporting the fact that teachers treat boys and girls differently are just as solid as those supporting the fact that teacher's expectations vary according to the race of the student. Male students receive more attention, praise, encouragement, and criticism from teachers than do their female counterparts. Boys have more contact with teachers overall than do girls, and those contacts are not likely to relate to their academic work or classroom behavior (Jones, 1986).

It is obvious that students learn other than what they are directly taught in their classroom setting. These extra learnings or "incidental learnings" referred to as the hidden curriculum in Clinical Supervision by Goldhammer (1969), and Spindler (1963), in Education and Culture, indicates that "unintended goals" are often transmitted along with those that are intended.

It is the goal and constant immersion in the hidden curriculum, the repetitious and continual incidental contacts students have with one another, with the teacher, with the rituals and rules of the school, with subtle meanings in textbooks - that have an intensely pervasive and critical impact. McLuhan's (cited in Frazier and Sadker, 1973) popular slogan that applies to so many environments also fits education; in the schoolroom the medium is the message. Students may be learning more from the complex social environment in which they are immersed than from the content matter that is officially taught them.

Thus, when the casual visitor enters an elementary school classroom, (s)he may be told that, according to the official curriculum, (s)he will be observing children learning to read. However, this person might as accurately be informed that (s)he will be seeing children learning lessons in how to get around school rules, in how to steal attention away from 30 classmates, in what it is like to be a member of a minority group, in how to make friends, and in what it feels like not to have any. The visitor may also see children learning that different kinds of behaviors are expected from girls than are expected from boys, that each sex is entitled to a different set of rewards, privileges, and punishments. Every day that girls and boys attend elementary school,

the hidden curriculum functions as a subtle forge in which awareness of the male role and female role is shaped (Frazier and Sadker, 1973).

Frazier and Sadker (1973) go on to expound that sex stereotyping does more than deny access to boys and girls of a wide variety of behaviors and activities that would make their lives richer and fuller. For girls, as they are molded into roles of women, there is a concomitant ebbing away of pride and self-esteem. The loss of dignity, the growing feeling of inferiority that comes of being made female have been documented in numerous studies.

Hidden curriculum aspects of classroom interactions contribute to the images children have of themselves; and yet this area is so vague and undefined that mere documentation of the effects would not serve to change educational policy. The hidden curriculum exerts influence despite policy. Sex role stereotyping pervades every aspect of education and gradually it must be documented and rooted out of each area (Saario and Nagy, 1973). It is obvious that when a classroom environment does not promote sex equity a child's options as far as learning are limited. When messages regarding appropriateness of sex-role activities are communicated to the child on a daily basis, the child develops a clear perception of what constitutes acceptable boy behavior and girl behavior (Mullis and Martin, 1984). Some studies, however, have sought to address student contingencies. For example, it has been reported that girls have received less praise for correct answers (Brophy and Good, 1970); that praise received by girls occurs randomly, while boys are praised for participation in academic activities (Delefos and Jackson, 1972); that girls receive more negative feedback on the intellectual quality of their works (Dweck, Davidson,

Nelson, and Enna, 1978); and that twice the proportion of criticism that girls receive is for "each of knowledge or skill" (Spaulding, 1963). Because these studies have used the teacher as the unit of observation, there remains the question of how sex differences in the frequency of student-initiated behavior toward the teacher come to effect these teacher responses. That is, if one particular boy initiates many contacts with the teacher, the response to him might not be the same as the teacher's general response to boys. To study sex differences in teachers' responses more generally, it is necessary to sample the student behavior of both boys and girls and then observe teacher responses. This was done in a study of 29 fourth and fifth grade classrooms in which the behaviors of six randomly selected students, three boys and three girls, were observed during an entire instructional day (Lockheed and Harris, 1982). Different students were observed for each of eight observation days spread across the school year. Consistent with previous research, more behaviors were recorded for male than female students, and higher proportions of male behaviors were coded as not conforming to the classroom norm, while a higher proportion of female events were coded as normatively appropriate. Few sex differences in teacher responses to student behaviors were found, and no sex differences in teacher responses to student behaviors were found when analyses were conducted separately within nine different subject matter areas, including reading and mathematics (Klein, 1985). Another study of 85 children in seven second-grade and four sixth-grade classrooms shows that teachers may respond to female and male students in the same way even when the behavior initiated by boys and girls is different. Pintrich and Blumenfeld (1982) reported that teachers did

not respond differently to boys and girls during recitation, small group work, or seatwork, even though student behavior varied by sex. In small group settings boys talked more, whereas girls sought help more; in seatwork boys engaged in more social comparison than girls. In general, girls seemed more conforming, behaving more appropriately than boys in recitation and small group settings. In transition, that is, moving from one activity to another - however, boys received more negative feedback than girls, and girls were more often targets of teacher commands. The authors note that these results are interesting because, although boys' and girls' behavior varied in other settings, it was similar in transitions (Klein, 1985, p. 199).

Other teacher behaviors that communicate sex-differentiated exceptions have been summarized by Hall (1982). She noted that teachers may devalue the work of female students relative to males and may encourage female helplessness by solving a problem posed by girls, while explaining to boys how to solve the problems. Hall also notes that in interactions with postsecondary or adult students, teachers call on or make eye contact with male students more frequently than with female students, and that female students are more frequently victims of sexual harassment (Klein, 1985).

#### Summary

Thus, examination of research reveals that, even though Title IX, was passed to end sex discrimination in education, this is not yet the result. It is obvious after reviewing the previous research that teachers are still manifesting sexism in their classrooms.

Through this study, by using various research methods e.g. case study, questionnaire and teacher observations the issue of sexism in Kansas public elementary schools was examined to ascertain whether or not the findings reported are also pertinent to Kansas.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

#### Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the methodology and procedures which are incorporated in this study of sexism in public elementary schools. The chapter will describe the subjects participating in the study, the data gathering method, the instrument, and the case study done to add validity to the survey findings and to increase the writers understanding of the issues at hand. The chapter will end with the analysis techniques utilized.

#### Subjects

The population that was used in this study consisted of male and female elementary teachers in public schools in Kansas. There are 1,047 public elementary schools in Kansas, according to the data contained in the Kansas Educational Directory 1987-88. A 2.4 percent sample of these elementary schools was selected on a random basis using a table of random numbers. A total of 272 surveys were mailed to 25 public elementary schools. All classroom teachers in these sample elementary schools were requested to participate in the study. Of the 128 returned questionnaires 120, (93%) of them were completed by female teachers and eight (7%) were completed by male teachers. A complete analysis of the data relating to the questionnaire distribution is shown in Table I.

TABLE I

## ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTION

Questionnaire Distribution	Number	Percent
Elementary Schools in Kansas	1,047	100%
Elementary Teachers in Kansas	12,787	100%
Elementary Teachers by Gender		
Female	11,386	89%
Male	1,401	11%
Schools Surveyed	25	2.4%
Surveys Mailed Out	272	100
Surveys Returned (Response Rate)	128	47%
Responding Teacher by Gender		
Female	120	93%
Male	8	7%
Students of Responding Teachers		
Female	1,108	50%
Male	1,101	50%

Two school districts did not participate in the survey (Topeka, USD #501 and Wichita, USD #259). Information for the statewide population was provided by the Kansas State Department of Education.

### Instrument Description

The instrument used was a survey comprised of 28 questions dealing with the teacher's interaction with students as well as the classroom, lunchroom, and playground policies established by the teacher.

The questionnaire was divided into two main divisions (See Appendix A). The first section deals with pertinent demographic information while the second section deals with questions relating to activities engaged in by the boys and girls in the particular classroom.

The subjects were requested to respond to the 28 questions by either selecting the option that they believe will best answer the questions or by filling in the appropriate answer.

The questionnaire was mailed to all randomly selected schools. A cover letter and postage paid return self-addressed envelope accompanied the 28 item survey to help ensure the participants' cooperation.

A pilot study utilizing a fortuitous sample was conducted by means of the 28 question survey for the purpose of testing and refining the questionnaire for readability and clarity of content. The questionnaire was pretested in two elementary schools. These schools were excluded from the random sample and were located in an area outside of the locality in which the study was conducted. In addition to the pilot study six professionals in the field of education were asked to review the questionnaire for clarity and item appropriateness. The changes that were suggested were reviewed and incorporated where appropriate.

### Case Study

A case study, involving a qualitative approach, studying the problem of sexism in a single elementary school was undertaken. The

case study was done to improve the accuracy and scope of the study as well as to lend support and provide elements for the questionnaire. The case study was also undertaken to enrich my understanding of the issue.

The case study involved documentation of observations of 17 elementary classroom teachers in one building, before presentation of an inservice to heighten teacher awareness of sexism in the elementary school. It concluded with observations of the same 17 classroom teachers after the inservice. The results of the two observations were compared to determine if the distinction in the treatment of male and female students continued to as great an extent after the teachers had attended the inservice.

#### Subjects

The sample selected for the case study consisted of 17 elementary classrooms, including grades kindergarten through fifth grade. These classrooms are in a public elementary school located in a southcentral district in Kansas. There are 342 full time students in the school dispersed into 17 classrooms. The classrooms are defined as predominately majority - classrooms in which 75-100 percent of the students are not members of a minority group.

Sample diversity in the case study was achieved in relation to grade level and subject matter. The sample included three classrooms of each respective grade one through five and two kindergarten classrooms. In terms of subject matter, a combination of 17 math and science classes were observed during the first observation and another 17 classes which were concerned with other academic subjects were observed during the second observation.

### Inservice Activity

An inservice activity to heighten teacher awareness of sexism in the elementary school was designed by this author. The 17 classroom teachers of grades K through five, who participated in the case study, attended this two hour inservice before the 1988/89 school year began. The inservice was presented by this author and included the following topics:

1. An explanation of what sexism is and how it can exist in the elementary school (see examples in Table II).
2. Examples were shared by the presenter depicting situations which clearly demonstrated sexist actions on the part of students and/or teacher contrasted with examples which depicted non-sexist behavior on the part of the teacher and/or students.
3. Role playing, depicting sexist situations, was performed by the participants of the inservice.
4. Strategies for reducing sexism in the elementary school were discussed and brainstormed. Handouts were provided.

The actual case study consisted of observations of 17 elementary classroom teachers. These 17 teachers were observed on two separate occasions for 40 minutes each. A documentation of the observations was kept on a teacher interaction tally sheet (See Appendix B). The teachers were observed and data were collected:

1. class participation-teacher initiated,
2. interaction with students by the teacher; positive and negative,
3. teacher initiated questions,
4. class interruptions,
5. type and method of explanation given to students, and

TABLE II  
EXAMPLES OF SEXISM THAT WERE  
DISCUSSED IN THE INSERVICE

---

HOW SEXISM CAN EXIST IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

---

1. Separating boys and girls in seating arrangement.
2. Teacher stating that they prefer teaching either boys or girls.
3. Lining up by gender grouping for dismissal or any other activity.
4. Separating boys or girls for certain subjects or activities.
5. Encouraging competition between boys as a group as compared to girls as a group.

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Source: Shakeshaft, Carol. "A Gender At Risk," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 67, No. 7 (March, 1986), pp. 499-503.

6. the age and sex of the teacher.

The first observation of each of the 17 classroom teachers occurred during the spring semester of the 1987/88 school year. The second observation of the same classroom teachers occurred during the fall semester of the 1988/89 school year, after the teachers had attended an inservice on awareness of sexism in the elementary school.

The classroom observations were unannounced, their time was decided by the schedule of the particular teacher to be observed and the subjects being taught. The observation took place from the rear of each classroom. The interaction tally sheet was marked during the lesson as each particular action was demonstrated. Notice was taken as to whether or not the action was initiated by the teacher or by the student. The bottom section of the tally sheet, dealing with background information on each teacher, was filled in after the observation. Each tally sheet was marked on the upper right hand corner with the teacher's name and the number one or two, indicating the first or second observation. The tally sheet was not shown to, or discussed with, the classroom teacher either before or after the observation, to avoid biasing the participating teacher. This procedure was used for both the first and second observation of each classroom teacher.

Primary analysis in this case study was to code, analyze and evaluate classroom interaction. The teacher interaction tally sheet was designed to be used by the observer for the specific purpose of recording teacher comments and reactions to students as well as to record the gender of the student involved in the interaction and whether or not it was initiated by teacher or student.

The instrument not only recorded the sex of each participating student, but the number of boys and girls in the class, the subject being taught and the grade level. The sex of the teacher along with the number of years experience, and marital information was also recorded.

The primary analysis of observational data focused on the nature of interaction patterns and the distribution of interaction between male and female students for: total interaction, participation, questions, conduct interaction, praise, and student initiated interaction (Sadker and Others, 1984).

Overall patterns of classroom interaction were analyzed. Descriptive statistics were compiled for each type of interaction. In addition to standard descriptive statistics (means), an indicator of the distribution of interaction among categories of student, in this case male and female students, called the coefficient of distribution (Sadker and others, 1984) was calculated and examined. Following is a description of the coefficient of distribution and method for its calculation.

For each of the above categories, the mean frequency per (40 minute) observation was calculated. Then a coefficient of distribution was calculated for all boys and all girls. The coefficient characterized the degree to which the boys and girls participate in the interactions proportional to their enrollment in class. For example, the distribution of praise between males and females in one classroom was calculated as follows:

1. Count the total number of students in the class (e.g. 25 students).
2. Count the total number of males present, then the number of females (e.g. 10 males and 15 females).



3. Divide the total number of males by the total number of students, then divide the total number of females by the total number of students. This will yield the expected percentage of interactions for each sex. Example:

10/25 - 40 percent (expected contact for males)

15/25 - 60 percent (expected contact for females)

4. Count the total number of contacts for all students in the category being examined (e.g., the teacher praised students ten times).

5. Count the total number of times teacher praise was directed at females, then count the total number of times teacher praise was directed at males (e.g., the teacher praised males five time and females five times).

6. Divide the number of praises for males by the total number of praises for all students, then divide the number of praises for females by the total number of praises for all students. This will yield the actual percentage of interaction for each sex concerning praise.

Example:

5/10 - 50 percent (actual praise for males)

5/10 - 50 percent (actual praise for females)

7. Compare the result in step three (the expected percentage) with the results in step six (the actual percentage). The difference between the two is called the coefficient of distribution. If the coefficient of distribution is a positive percentage, the total interactions being distributed to that sex is more than expected. If the coefficient of distribution is a negative percentage, that sex is receiving less

attention than expected. Example:

$$\begin{array}{r} 50 \text{ percent actual female praise} \\ -60 \text{ percent expected female praise} \\ \hline -10 \text{ percent female praise than expected given} \\ \text{the number of females in the class} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 50 \text{ percent actual male praise} \\ -40 \text{ percent expected male praise} \\ \hline +10 \text{ percent male praise than expected given} \\ \text{the number of males in the class}^1 \end{array}$$

Individual classrooms were also analyzed as the unit of measure. Based on the results of a significance test of the coefficient of distribution within each classroom, each class was labeled as significantly favoring boys in interaction, significantly favoring girls in interaction or reflecting no bias in favor of either sex in interaction (Sadker and Others, 1984).

#### Analysis of Data

The evidence which was collected from this study, in response to the previously stated research questions, was presented in terms of tables, charts and graphs.

The coefficient of distribution, an indicator of the distribution of interaction among categories of students, in this case male and female students, was calculated and examined. The analysis of the percentage of expected and actual interaction for each gender was used in reference to the participants in the survey as well as those who participated in the case study.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the results of the questionnaire.

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<sup>1</sup>This method was adapted from the Sadker and others 1984 paper on "Teacher Reactions to Classroom Responses of Male and Female Students."

### Summary

Chapter III provided information concerning the method of conducting the study and the means by which the collected data were interpreted. It also dealt with the description of the subjects considered, description of the design, and procedure utilized for implementation and data evaluation of the study.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

#### Introduction

The analysis of the data collected is presented and discussed in Chapter IV. The answers to the questions on the questionnaires are based on what the participating teacher perceived his or her actions to be. The analysis of the data was organized around the three questions formulated in Chapter I. The stated questions are as follows:

Q1 - Can sexism be discovered to exist in public elementary schools in Kansas?

Q2 - Does the gender of the teacher influence the amount of sexism shown in student interactions?

Q3 - Who receives more of the teacher's attention; male or female students?

#### Question One

In the analysis of the percentage of expected and actual interactions for each gender, it was found that there is significant difference between the expected and actual interaction for male and female students. Of the 128 teachers who returned questionnaires, their student population accounted for 2,209 students, 1,101 being female students and 1,108 being male students. The expected interaction for each group of students, male or female, was 50 percent. The actual

interaction percentage for males was 86 percent; for females, it was 14 percent. The coefficient of distribution for the males was a positive percentage (+36%), indicating the total interactions being distributed to that gender are more than expected. The coefficient of distribution for females is a negative percentage (-36%), indicating that girls are receiving less attention than expected. Data related to these interaction are summarized in Table III.

An analysis of the answers to the questions which dealt with sexist actions, e.g. boys and girls in separate lines, etc., provided a different set of results. These results were concluded by dividing the total responses of all these questions (the questions that dealt with sexist actions) into three separate groups, sexist, non-sexist, and no response. The responses in each respective groups were totaled and each group total was analyzed as a single unit, either sexist, non-sexist, and no response. A total of 208 or 20 percent of all the responses to these questions were labeled as sexist, 729 or 71 percent were labeled as non-sexist and 96 or nine percent did not respond. A partial example of this process is demonstrated in the Table IV.

The analysis indicates that the self-reported actions of 20% of the female teachers participating in this survey can be classified as sexist in nature. Conversely, the reported actions of 71 percent of the female teacher participating in this survey are not overtly sexist in nature.

Further analysis utilizing the same procedure as explained above was conducted on the answers of the male teachers who participated in the survey. It was found that, similar to the female teachers, a significant percentage of male teacher, 78 percent, do not report actions that portray a sexist nature. Only 16 percent of the male teachers

TABLE III  
 EXPECTED AND ACTUAL PERCENTAGE OF  
 INTERACTIONS FOR EACH GENDER

	BOYS	GIRLS
Expected Interactions	50%	50%
Actual Interactions	86%	14%
Coefficient of Distribution	+36%	-36%
Total number of students in classes classes of teachers surveyed		2,209
Total number of female students		1,101
Total number of male students		1,108

TABLE IV  
 PROCESS ANALYSIS OF THE ANSWERS

QUESTIONS	SEXIST	NON- SEXIST	NO RESPONSE	TOTAL PARTICIPANTS
9	64	53	3	120
10	31	88	1	120
11	26	73	21	120

All responses to each question were totaled and are listed under the related column.

surveyed say they engage sexist actions and policies in their dealings with students. Data related to these are summarized in Table V.

### Question Two

In analyzing the second question that asked if the gender of the teacher influenced the amount of sexism shown in student interactions, a comparison of the percentage of time devoted to students by female teachers and the percentage of time devoted to students by male teachers, was calculated. Data related to this comparison are presented in Table VI. This comparison was further refined by the use of descriptive statistics.

Descriptives statistics were used to compare the mean of the percentage of the total day which is spent by male teachers in disciplining male or female students as compared to the percentage that is spent by female students as compared to the percentage that is spent by female teachers in disciplining male and female students. On the average, male teachers reported that they spend 1.333 percent of the day disciplining male students and 1.167 percent of the day disciplining female students. In comparison, female teachers reported that they spend 18.00 percent of the day disciplining male students and 18.333 percent of the day disciplining female students. The difference between the average percent of time spent by female teachers disciplining male or female students is less than one percent (.333); the difference spent by male teachers in disciplining male and female students is also less than one percent (.166). Data related to this analysis are presented in Tables VII and VIII.

TABLE V  
 PERCENTAGE OF REPORTED ACTIONS PORTRAYING  
 SEXISM AND NON-SEXISM

SEXISM	FEMALE TEACHERS NON-SEXISM	MALE TEACHERS* NON-SEXISM	NO RESPONSE
20	71	--	9
16	--	78	6

\*Eight male teachers responded, for a total of .6% of the total 1,401 male elementary teachers in the state, therefore, the findings are inconclusive.

TABLE VI  
 PERCENTAGE OF REPORTED TIME  
 DEVOTED TO STUDENTS

	BOYS	GIRLS
Percentage of time devoted to students as reported by female teachers	85%	15%
Percentage of time devoted to students as reported by male teachers	84%	16%

\*Eight male teacher responded therefore, findings are inconclusive.



TABLE VII  
 PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL DAY SPENT AS REPORTED BY  
 FEMALE TEACHERS DISCIPLINING STUDENTS

	S T U D E N T S			
	MALE	NO RESPONSE	FEMALE	NO RESPONSE
N of Cases*	6.000		6.000	
Mean	18.000	12.000	18.333	10.000

\*N of Cases = the total school day separated into different percentage groupings e.g. 0-4%, 5-15%, 16-25%, 26-35%, 36-45%, over 45%.

TABLE VIII  
 PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL DAY SPENT BY MALE  
 TEACHERS DISCIPLINING STUDENTS

	S T U D E N T S			
	MALE	NO RESPONSE	FEMALE	NO RESPONSE
N of Cases*	6.000		6.000	
Mean	1.333	0.0	1.167	1.000

\*N of Cases = the total school day separated into different percentage groupings e.g. 0-4%, 5-15%, 16-25%, 26-35%, 36-45%, over 45%.

The total school day was divided into six different percentage groupings e.g. zero to four percent 0-48%, 5-15%, 16-25%, 26-35%, 36-45%, over 45%. The 120 female teachers and the 8 male teachers who responded to the questionnaire reported which percentage grouping reflected the amount of time spent disciplining male or female students. Data related to this analysis are presented in Table IX.

### Question Three

The third question asked who receives more of the teacher's attention; male or female students. The findings, in an analysis of the survey, indicated that female teachers reported that they devote 85 percent of their time to male students and 15 percent of their time of female students. Male teachers reported that they devote 84 percent of their time to male students as compared to 16 percent to female students. Data related to this analysis are presented in Table XI.

### Case Study

During both observations of the case study overall patterns of classroom interactions were analyzed. An indicator of the distribution of interactions among categories of students, in this case male and female students, called the coefficient of distribution was calculated. If the coefficient of distribution is a positive percentage, the total interactions being distributed to that gender are more than expected. If the coefficient of distribution is a negative percentage, that gender is receiving less attention than expected. If the coefficient of distribution is zero, no reflection is being shown in favor of either

TABLE IX  
 PERCENTAGE OF DAY DAY SPENT DISCIPLINING

PERCENT OF DAY	S T U D E N T S			
	BOYS	NO RESPONSE	GIRLS	NO RESPONSE
REPORT OF FEMALE TEACHERS				
0- 4	35 (25%)	10 ( 7%)	75 (56%)	10 ( 7%)
5-15	43 (36%)		32 (27%)	
16-25	20 (17%)		7 ( 6%)	
26-35	1 (.8%)		2 ( 2%)	
36-45	2 ( 2%)		1 (.8%)	
OVER 45	7 ( 6%)		1 (.8%)	
REPORT OF MALE TEACHER				
0- 4	5 (63%)		4 (50%)	1 (12%)
5-15	2 (25%)		3 (38%)	
16-25	0		0	
26-35	1 (12%)		0	
35-45	0		0	
OVER 45	0		0	

TABLE X  
 COMPARISON OF COEFFICIENT OF DISTRIBUTION BEFORE  
 AND AFTER INSERVICE OF SEXIST ATTITUDE  
 AND TREATMENT OF STUDENTS

GRADE	<u>INSERVICE</u>			
	BEFORE		AFTER	
	BOYS	GIRLS	BOYS	GIRLS
K	0	0	0	0
K	0	0	0	0
First	- 8	+ 8	+ 3	- 3
First	- 6	+ 5	+11	-22
First	+ 5	- 8	+ 2	- 3
Second	+ 2	- 2	+ 9	- 9
Second	- 5	+ 5	+ 4	- 4
Second	- 5	+ 5	+ 4	- 4
Third	+ 9	- 9	+ 3	- 3
Third	+26	- 1	- 5	+ 5
Third	+44	-44	+ 5	- 6
Fourth	+ 1	- 2	+13	-13
Fourth	-13	+13	+11	-11
Fourth	+ 6	-23	+ 9	-42
Fifth	+12	-11	+ 1	- 1
Fifth	- 2	+ 2	+ 1	- 1
Fifth	+ 9	- 9	- 8	+ 8

A positive percentage indicates the total interactions being distributed to that gender is more than expected. A negative percentage indicates the total interactions being distributed to that gender is less than expected. Zeros indicate no reflection is being shown for either gender in interaction.

gender in interaction. The coefficient of distribution for grades K through five, was calculated after the first and second observation, findings are listed in Table X.

Descriptive statistics were used to compare the mean score of the coefficient of distribution before and after the inservice on sexism. Summarization of the Descriptive Statistics is present in Table XI.

The percentage of teachers that favor male or female students was derived from the amount of interactions these teacher had with their students. The data on the interactions indicates what percentage of favoritism was observed during the first observation, in contrast to the second observation which occurred after the teachers' inservice on sexism. There is a significant change in percentage from the first observation to the second observation. This change is shown in Figure 1.

The percentage of teacher favoritism in relationship to the number of years of teaching experience was calculated according to the first and second observation. Summarization of these calculations is presented in Figure 2.

In addition teacher favoritism was analyzed in relationship to teacher initiated student classroom participation, e.g. student called on to work a problem on the board, before and after the inservice. There was no change in the percentage of participation comparing the first and second observation (See Table XII).

The percentage of teacher initiated questions and student initiated questions were analyzed before and after the inservice. There is a significant difference in the percentage of teacher initiated questions from the first observation as compared to the second observation. This difference is shown in Table XIII. The percentages of praise and

TABLE XI  
 ANALYSIS OF COEFFICIENT OF DISTRIBUTION BEFORE  
 AND AFTER INSERVICE ON SEXISM

	Boys 1	Girls 1	Boys 2	Girls 2
N of Cases	17.000	17.000	17.000	17.000
Mean	4.412	-4.059	4.294	-6.412

Boys 1 and Girls 1 = before inservice  
 Boys 2 and Girls 2 = after service  
 N of Cases = number of classrooms being observed

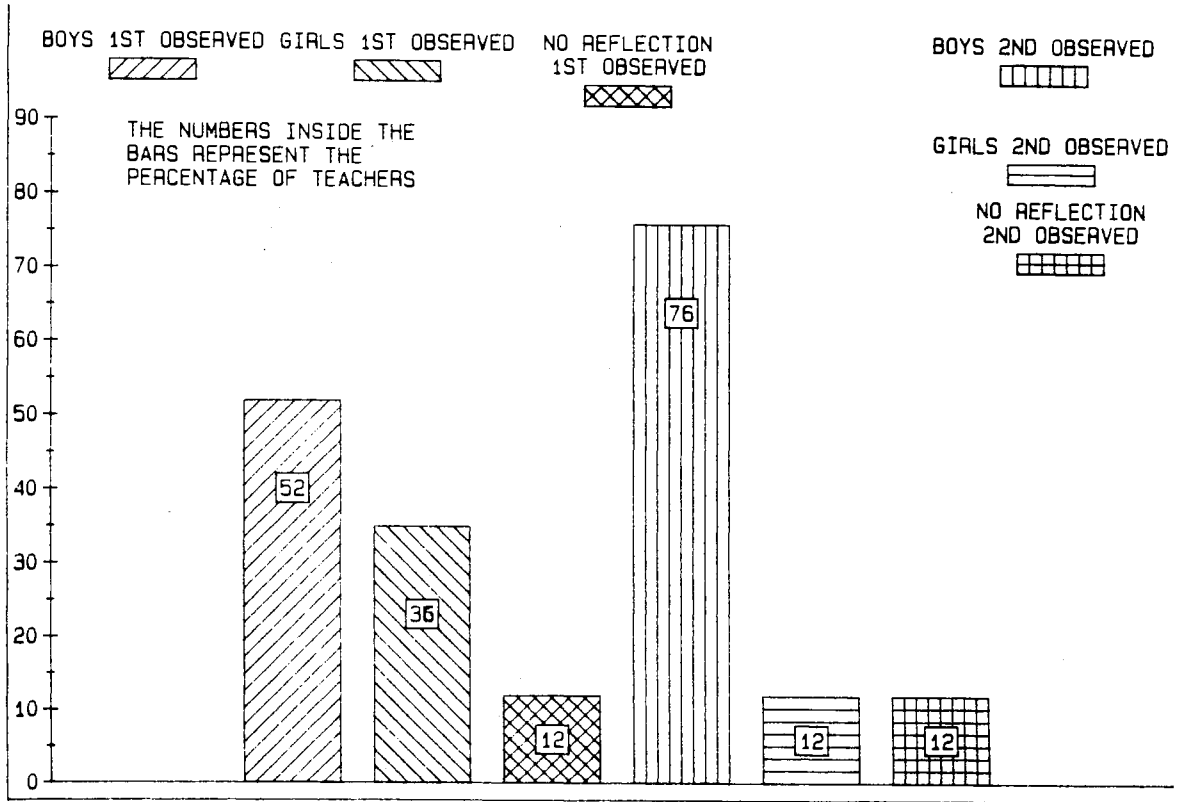


Figure 1. Percentage of Teachers That Favor Boys or Girls As Shown By Amount of Interaction With Boys or Girls

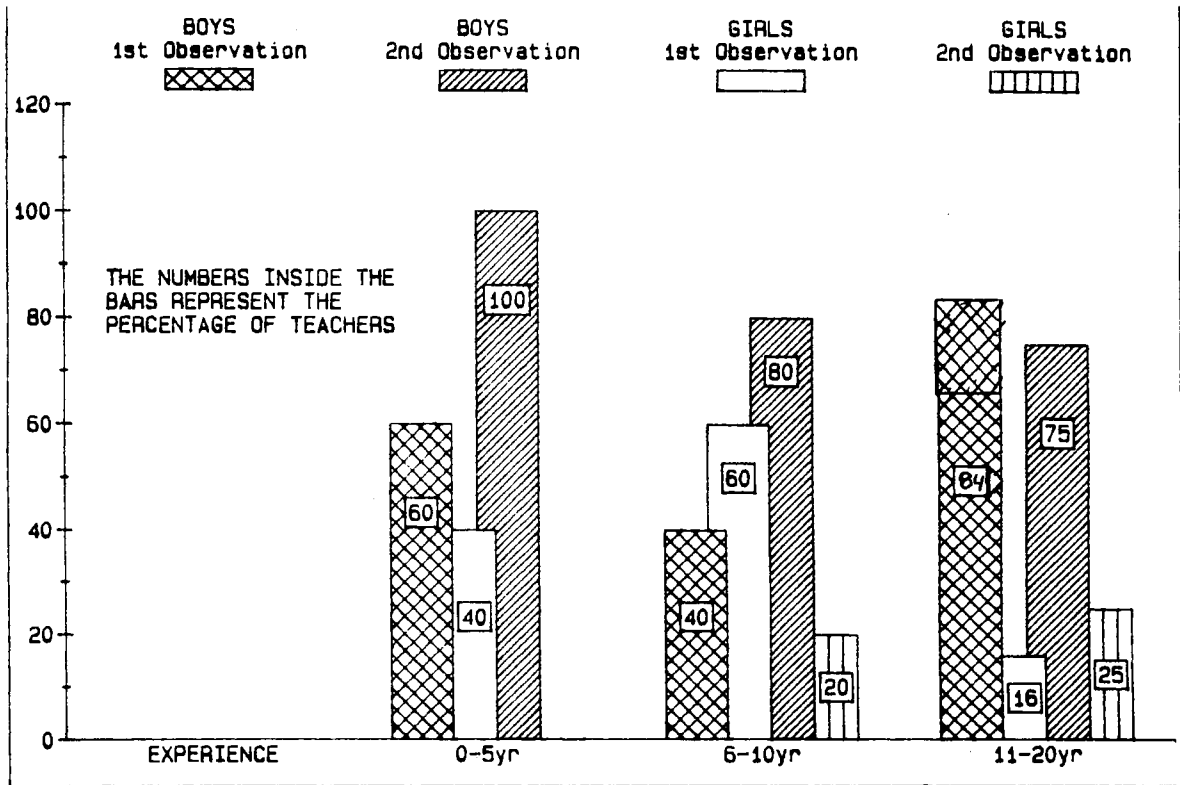


Figure 2. Teacher Preference Boys vs Girls



discipline interactions with students were calculated, as shown in Table XIV and XV.

#### Summary

The findings of the present study and case study have been presented in Chapter IV. Tables, descriptive statistics, charts and graphs, were presented to clarify the analysis of the findings of the questionnaire and case study.

TABLE XII  
 TEACHER INITIATED STUDENT PARTICIPATION  
 AS OBSERVED IN THE CASE STUDY

	GIRLS	BOYS
Before Inservice	45%	55%
After Inservice	45%	55%

TABLE XIII  
 TEACHER INITIATED QUESTIONS IN THE CLASSROOM  
 AS OBSERVED IN THE CASE STUDY

	GIRLS	BOYS
Before Inservice	43%	57%
After Inservice	25%	75%

TABLE XIV  
 AMOUNT OF PRAISE GIVEN TO STUDENT BY  
 TEACHERS OBSERVED IN CASE STUDY

	MALE STUDENTS	FEMALE STUDENTS
Before Inservice	53%	47%
After Inservice	53%	47%

Figures indicate the inservice did not have an effect on the amount of praise given to male or female students.

TABLE XV  
 PERCENTAGE OF TIME DISCIPLINING

	GIRLS	BOYS
Before Inservice	38%	64%
After Inservice	2%	98%

Percentage of time girls are disciplined compared to percentage of time boys are disciplined as observed in case study.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The purpose of the study was to determine whether or not teachers in public elementary schools in Kansas sex stereotype students in their everyday classroom interactions. The determination was made through research of current literature, questionnaires of elementary teachers, both male and female, and classroom observations.

The population that was used in this study was male and female elementary teachers in public schools in Kansas. A 2.4 percent sample, of the 1,047 elementary schools in Kansas, was selected on a random basis using a table of random number. All the classroom teachers in these sample elementary schools were requested to participate in the study.

The instrument, comprised of 28 questions dealing with the teacher's interaction with students along with the classroom, lunchroom, and playground policies established by the teachers, was mailed to all randomly selected schools.

Three research questions relating to the existence of sexism in the public elementary school in Kansas and the effect the gender of the teacher had on the existence of sexism were analyzed. The evidence collected from this study, in response to the previously stated research questions was presented in terms of table, charts, and graphs.

Analysis of the data from the survey was used to answer the following research questions. Question one asked if sexism existed in public elementary schools in Kansas. In the analysis of the percentage of expected and actual interactions for each sex, it was found that there is a noteworthy difference between the expected and actual interactions for male and female students. The expected interaction for male and female students was 50 percent, the actual interaction for male was 86 percent, whereas for female a mere 14 percent. The coefficient of distribution for male students was a positive percentage indicating that gender is receiving more attention than expected. The coefficient of distribution for females is a negative percentage, indicating that gender is receiving less attention than expected.

A comparison of the answers to the questions that dealt with sexist actions, e.g. placing boys and girls in separate lines, etc., was done between the responses of male teachers and the responses of female teachers. The conclusion was that 71 percent of the female teachers and 78 percent of the male teachers reported non sexist attitudes in their everyday classroom dealings.

Question two asked if the gender of the teacher influences and amount of sexism shown in student interactions. In a comparison of the percentage of reported time spent by male and female teachers in disciplining student and in comparing the reported percentage of time devoted to students by male and female teachers, it was concluded that the gender of the teacher does not influence the amount of sexism shown in student interaction. Female teacher spend 18.000 percent of the day disciplining male students and 18.333 percent of the day disciplining female students. The difference between the average percent of time

spent by female teachers disciplining male or female students is less than one percent (.333) whereas, the difference spent by male teachers in disciplining male and female students is also less than one percent (.166). Male and female teachers spend 84 percent and 85 percent of their time respectively devoted to male students and 16 percent and 15 percent respectively devoted to female students.

Question three asked; who receives more of the teacher's attention, male or female students? As stated previously, an analysis of the reported percentage of time devoted by teachers to students revealed that female teachers say that they devote 85 percent of their time to male students and 15 percent of their time to female students. In comparison, male teachers say that they devote 84 percent of their time to male students and 16 percent of their time to female students. The conclusion from these calculations is that male students are likely to receive the greater percentage of the teacher's attention regardless of that teacher's gender.

In an examination of the reported percentage of the total day spent by teachers in disciplining male and female students it was revealed that on the average male students receive the greater proportion of the teacher's time, regardless of the gender of the teacher doing the disciplining. The overall statistics on the comparison of teachers' reported time spend disciplining male and female students indicate that 93 percent of the teachers spend more time disciplining male students than they do female students.

### Case Study

A case study consisting of observations of 17 elementary teachers was undertaken. The 17 teachers were observed on two separate occasions for 40 minutes each. Documentation for each of the observations was kept on a teacher interaction tally sheet. Overall patterns of classroom interaction were analyzed.

The teachers, unaware of the tally observation sheet and its purpose, were first observed during the 1987/1988 school year. In the fall of 1988/89 an inservice on sexism was given to the teachers. The teachers were then observed for a second time using the same tally sheet. The purpose of the second observation was to see if there was a difference in the interactions between teacher and students before and after the inservice on sexism.

During both observations overall patterns of classroom interaction were analyzed. The coefficient of distribution, an indicator of the distribution of interaction among categories of students, in this case male and female students, was calculated. Descriptive statistics were used to compare the means between the coefficient of distribution before the inservice and after the inservice. A difference in mean scores is apparent after the inservice. The mean of the coefficient of distribution before the inservice was 4.412 for boys and -4.059 for girls. After the inservice the mean of the coefficient of distribution was 4.294 for boys and -6.412 for girls. The coefficient of distribution did change after the inservice but it did not change as anticipated, that was, to balance the coefficient of distribution between boys and girls.

Teacher initiated classroom participation e.g. calling on students, was observed and analyzed before and after the inservice. The results of both observations were identical; during each observations boys were encouraged to participate in class activities 56 percent of the time as compared to 45 percent for the girls. It is apparent from these percentages that male students are encouraged to participate, in the class, by the teacher, a greater amount of time.

The amount of time spent disciplining, by the teachers who participated in the case study, was calculated. There is a significant difference in the amount of time spent disciplining boys and girls; girls were disciplined 38 percent of the time before the inservice and two percent after the inservice, as compared to boys who were disciplined 64 percent of the time before the inservice and 98 percent after the inservice. These percentages indicate that male students receive the greater portion of the teacher's time.

Teacher initiated questions to either gender were tallied during the two observations. The results indicated that before the inservice 43 percent of the teacher initiated questions were directed to the female students, 57 percent were directed to the male students. After the inservice a significant change was observed, 25 percent of the questions were directed to the female students as compared to 75 percent directed to the male students.

Teacher bias was further observed in the amount of praise given to either gender by the classroom teacher. The amount of praise given by the observed teacher was calculated before and after the teacher attended the inservice. The results were identical; male students received 53 percent of the teacher's praise as compared to female students who received 47 percent.



It is apparent from these statistics that boys do receive the greater amount of the teacher's attention and that the inservice to heighten the teachers awareness of sexism in the classroom did not accomplish all that it was intended to do.

### Conclusions

It seems appropriate to conclude from the findings of the present study that teachers in public elementary schools in Kansas, regardless of their gender, do interact more often with boys than they do with girls. This conclusion is based on findings of the total teacher interaction analysis, the percentage of reported time spent disciplining and the analysis of the coefficient of distribution. However, the actual open display of sexism, e.g. forming separate lines for boys and girls, etc., is not reported to be prevalent in public elementary schools in Kansas. This can be concluded from the reports of the elementary teachers surveyed. It was indicated that 71 percent of the female teachers surveyed do not portray sexist actions in the daily operation of their classroom, while 78 percent of the male teachers surveyed indicated they do not portray sexist actions in the daily operation of their classroom.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> In answering the questionnaire, the surveyed teachers were reporting their perceptions of their actions.

A further conclusion might be summarized from these findings: teachers, regardless of their gender, report trying to avoid sex stereotyping students in their classrooms. This is apparent by the methods they use to select helpers, line up students, etc. However, in the daily interactions with students in these classrooms the male student does receive the greater percentage of the teacher's attention, whether it be negative, as in disciplining, or positive, as in praise.

Analysis of the classroom observations during the case study revealed similar statistics to those of the questionnaire, and also indicated that a brief inservice effort, to heighten the teachers awareness of sexism in the elementary school, had little apparent positive effect. Results after the first observation indicated that 52 percent of the teachers reflect more interaction with male students, 35 percent of the teachers reflect more interaction with the female students, and 12 percent indicate no reflection of bias in their interaction. During the second observation, 76 percent of the teachers reflected more interaction with male students than female students, 12 percent reflected more interaction with female students, and 12 percent indicated no reflection of bias in interaction.

Further analysis of classroom observations during the case study revealed additional similar findings to those of the questionnaire; on the average teachers who were observed spend 82 percent of their time disciplining boys, 19 percent of their time disciplining girls; an average of 45 percent of the teacher initiated class participation was directed toward girls, compared to 56 percent which was directed toward boys. The results of these observations concur with the results of the questionnaire, that the greater percentage of interaction during a

school day is between the teacher and the male student.

Individual classrooms were analyzed as a unit of measure. Based on calculations of the coefficient of distribution within each classroom, the classes were labeled as significantly favoring boys in interaction, significantly favor girls in interaction or reflecting no bias in favor of either gender in interaction. After the first observation eight classrooms were labeled as significantly favoring boys in interaction, seven classrooms were labeled as significantly favoring girls in interaction, two classrooms was labeled as reflecting no bias in favor of either gender in interaction. At the conclusion of the second observation there is a noteworthy change in these results: 13 classrooms were labeled as significantly favoring boys in interactions, two classrooms were labeled as significantly favoring girls in interaction, two classrooms were labeled as reflecting no bias in favor of either gender in interaction. The conclusion which was drawn from this labeling of classrooms as significantly favoring boys or girls in interaction or reflecting no bias, is that the boys who were observed in this case study do receive more of the teachers' attention.

#### General Discussion

At the conclusion of this study I have come to some realizations about the research project. The following is a discussion of those realizations:

Due to the emphasis on equal rights in our society today I had anticipated finding an almost equal balance of teacher interaction between male and female students. Therefore, I had not anticipated the findings of this study.

During the pilot study 98 percent of the teachers surveyed had indicated the questionnaire was clearly written and easily understood. However, after receiving and analyzing the questionnaire data, I found that several questions were poorly written and that others did not address the information required, I would therefore reword the questionnaire before using it for further data gathering.

Due to the unanticipated small response rate for male teachers (8 participants out of 1,401 male elementary teachers in the state) that were sampled, my results dealing with the replies of the male teachers are inconclusive. In hopes of getting a larger representation of male teachers, I would increase the sampling size.

#### Recommendation

As a result of this study, the following recommendations for educational practice and further research are proposed:

#### For Further Research

1. Since the number of school districts involved in the present study was small, perhaps a study larger in scope would have a higher degree of generalizability.
2. Further research is recommended in the area of sex equality in the elementary classrooms and its relationship to student learning as measured by achievement tests and questionnaires.
3. Further research into the effects of teacher training courses in sexism, at the university level, on the attitude and actions of teachers in their relationship to students is recommended.

## Recommendation

### Education Practice

1. Colleges of education should require a course dealing with sexism in schools for all their graduates.
2. School administrators should be afforded the opportunity to attend workshops to gain insight into observation techniques for detecting sexist interactions within a classroom.
3. General school policies should be written in such a way that sexist practices in the daily treatment of students will not exist.

### Summary

In summary, this study supported the idea that sexism does exist in the daily classroom interactions in Kansas elementary schools, and the gender of the teacher does not influence the amount of sexism shown in student interaction. However, the actual open display of sexism, e.g. separate lines for boys and girls, etc., is not reported to be evident in public elementary schools in Kansas. It further concluded that the results of the case study observations concur with the findings of the analysis of the questionnaire.

The problem of sexism in public elementary schools is of utmost importance because students' social development and academic achievement are influenced by the sexist actions of the classroom teacher. Through these subtle or open sexist actions of the classroom teacher, some students learn that their opinions are not valued, their responses to questions are not worthy of attention and they soon come to believe that they are not smart or important (Shakeshaft, 1986).

The elementary school should be in place where all students can obtain an equal education regardless of their gender. Students have the right to be educated in the environment that is free of inequalities and it is the responsibility of all schools to provide an appropriate atmosphere for such an education.

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**APPENDIXES**

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

## PLEASE RESPOND TO EACH QUESTION BY:

1. Selecting the option that you believe best answers the question.
2. Filling in the appropriate answer.
3. If departmentalized specify the particular class/subject.
4. After answering the following questionnaire please insert the completed questionnaire into the attached envelope, seal and return to the building principal.

## QUESTIONS

## 1. Present Assignment:

K \_\_\_\_\_

1-2 \_\_\_\_\_

3-4 \_\_\_\_\_

5-6 \_\_\_\_\_

other specify \_\_\_\_\_

## 2. What classes do you teach?

\_\_\_ regular classes

\_\_\_ specialized (i.e. art, music, P.E.) specify \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_ special education specify \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_ departmentalized specify \_\_\_\_\_

## 3. Number of years you have taught:

\_\_\_ 0-5

\_\_\_ 6-10

\_\_\_ 11-20

\_\_\_ over 20

## 4. What is your age?

\_\_\_ under 25

\_\_\_ 26-35

\_\_\_ 36-45

\_\_\_ 46-55

\_\_\_ 56-65

5. Your Gender? \_\_\_male, \_\_\_female
6. Principals Gender \_\_\_female \_\_\_male
7. How many boys are in your class?\_\_\_\_\_
8. How many girls are in your class?\_\_\_\_\_

THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS RELATE TO ACTIVITIES ENGAGED IN BY BOYS AND GIRLS IN YOUR CLASSROOM.

9. How are students generally seated in your classroom?
- \_\_\_alphabetically
- \_\_\_alternating boys and girls
- \_\_\_students select own seats
- \_\_\_other seating arrangements: please specify

- 
10. When students enter or leave the classroom in lines, how is their place in line determined?

\_\_\_alphabetically

\_\_\_boys and girls in separate lines

\_\_\_alternate boys and girls

\_\_\_no special order

\_\_\_other arrangements: please specify

- 
11. How are students in your class seated in the cafeteria?

\_\_\_alphabetically

\_\_\_boys on one side of table, girls on the other

\_\_\_separate tables for boys and girls

\_\_\_alternate boys and girls at same table

\_\_\_no particular order

\_\_\_other arrangements: please specify

---

12. When you call on students in the classroom, do you:

- alternate boys and girls  
 call on volunteers  
 go down rows  
 other: please specify
- 

13. When selecting classroom helpers, do you:

- alternate boys and girls  
 randomly select  
 alphabetically  
 accept volunteers  
 other: please specify
- 

14. What percent of the total day do you spend disciplining?

Boys	Girls
0%-4% _____	0%-4% _____
5-15% _____	5-15% _____
16-25% _____	16-25% _____
26-35% _____	26-35% _____
36-45% _____	36-45% _____
over 45% _____	over 45% _____

15. Who needs more individual assistance with daily work?

- boys  
 girls

16. What percent of the total day do you spend giving individual assistance to boys? \_\_\_\_\_ to girls \_\_\_\_\_.

17. Whom do you find it more necessary to discipline?

- boys  
 girls

18. Are boys and girls from your class
- Allowed to play together yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_
  - allowed to work together during classroom activities yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_
19. Do the boys and girls in your classroom
- willingly mix/mingle during classroom activities yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_
  - mingle freely and play games together during recess yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_
20. Regarding computers
- Do you have at least one in your classroom? yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_
  - Is there a computer lab in your school yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_
  - If A or B is yes, do the girls use them more? yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_  
do more boys use them more? yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_
21. Generally, on a given day who might get their name on the board more for disruptive behavior?
- boys \_\_\_\_\_
- girls \_\_\_\_\_
22. Generally, when the class is in transition from one subject to another who appears to be the louder?
- girls \_\_\_\_\_
- boys \_\_\_\_\_
23. Which group of students do you prefer teaching?
- girls \_\_\_\_\_
- boys \_\_\_\_\_
24. Do you foster competition between the boys and girls in your class by use of charts and graphs, etc.
- yes \_\_\_\_\_
- no \_\_\_\_\_
25. Do you think Title IX has had an impact on equity within the elementary classrooms?
- no \_\_\_\_\_
- yes \_\_\_\_\_
- specify \_\_\_\_\_



APPENDIX B

TEACHER INTERACTION TALLY SHEET

## TEACHER INTERACTION TALLY SHEET

TEACHER: Male \_\_\_\_\_ Grade Level \_\_\_\_\_ Sub. (Class) \_\_\_\_\_  
 Female \_\_\_\_\_ # of Boys \_\_\_\_\_ # of Girls \_\_\_\_\_

Boys Girls

1. Question		
a. teacher initiated		
b. student initiated		
2. Praise		
3. Class interruption		
4. Job assignments		
5. Criticism		
a. academic		
b. nonacademic		
6. Academic Help		
a. explanation given		
b. problem solved by teacher		
7. Class participation		
a. teacher initiated		
b. student initiated		
8. Stereotyped comments used in examples		
9. Interaction with teacher		
TOTAL		

## TEACHER INFORMATION:

Married yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_ # of children \_\_\_\_\_

Sex of children \_\_\_\_\_  
                                     male                                   female

# years teaching experience \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX C

SEXISM IS

## SEXISM IS. . .

forming a boys' line and girls' line.

thinking all girls are alike.

asking boys to carry heavy books.

pitting boys against girls in a spelling bee.

saying you prefer teaching boys or girls.

using phrases such as "cute, sweet girls" or "tough, strong, big boys."

saying "she can play as well as a boy can."

punishing boys by making them sit with girls.

meeting a new class of students and assuming the boys will be the leaders and the girls will take notes.

asking only girls to help with attendance.

expecting boys to be president of the student council.

assuming girls' primary function or goal should be motherhood.

forgetting that boys may someday become fathers and husbands.

being proud when a boy gets in a fight and upset when a girl does.

thinking boys talk shop and girls gossip.

believing in a double standard.

always appointing a male teacher to be in charge of the building when the principal leaves.

asking only girls to babysit for school functions.

using "he" when referring to both boys and girls.

Source: Calabrese, Marylyn E. "The Tredyffrin/Easttown Program: A Comprehensive Model for Public School Districts." In Women's Educational Equity Act Program, Washington, DC: US Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1978.

APPENDIX D

COVER LETTER FOR PILOT  
OF QUESTIONNAIRE

May 5, 1988

Dear Principal,

At the conclusion of my Doctoral program in Educational Administration at Oklahoma State University, I am conducting a research study to determine classroom practices of teachers in the elementary school. I would appreciate your assistance in conducting this study. In order to get an accurate picture of how teachers in Kansas conduct activities in their classroom, I am requesting that you pass out the enclosed surveys to your classroom teachers, collect them after completion and return them to me in the enclosed stamped envelope as soon as possible.

I will be pleased to send you a summary of the survey results if you desire.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Liz Bentley  
2106 Linden  
Wichita, Ks. 67207

316-688-0055

APPENDIX E

COVER LETTER FOR SURVEY

March 1, 1988

Dear Educators,

Please critique the following questionnaire for clarity of content and direction.

Feel free to make any comments directly on the questionnaire.

Your evaluation of the questionnaire and the procedural format will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Liz Bentley



VITA<sup>2</sup>

Mary E. Bentley

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

**Thesis:** SEXISM IN THE PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF KANSAS

**Major Field:** Educational Administration

**Biographical:**

**Personal Data:** Born in Orange, New Jersey on March 19, 1941, the daughter of Ben and Mary Geraghty. Married to Larry D. Bentley on November 19, 1966.

**Education:** Graduated from Sacred Heart Academy, Wichita, Kansas, in 1958; received Bachelor of Arts Degree from Lewis University, Lockport, Illinois, in 1962, with a major in Political Science; received the Master of Education degree from Wichita State University, Wichita, Kansas, in 1981, with a major in Secondary Education; received the Specialist in Education degree from Wichita State University, Wichita, Kansas, in 1985, with a major in Educational Administration; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education Degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 1989.

**Professional Experience:** Elementary Teacher 1962 through 1965; Department of Defense Teacher, Philippine Islands; 1965 through 1966; Elementary Teacher 1966 through 1968; Secondary Teacher, 1968 through 1970, Germany; Secondary Teacher 1970 through 1983; Teacher and Acting Assistant Principal, Magdalen School, Wichita, Kansas, 1983 through 1984; Principal, St. Patrick School, Wichita, Kansas, 1984 through 1987; Principal, Bell Plaine Elementary School, Belle Plaine, Kansas, 1987 through present.