JOURNAL OF VOCATIONAL HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION: THE BEGINNING

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In March 1983 the first issue of the *Journal of Vocational Home Economics Education* was in the mail. Its progress was rapid, appearing only a year and a few months after the formal proposal was approved in December 1981. Approval came first from the Policy and Planning Committee of the Home Economics Division of the American Vocational Association (AVA) then from the Division and finally, from the Affiliate group, The National Association of Teacher Educators of Vocational Home Economics.

The need for more and better research in home economics education (including consumer and homemaking education) and for publication of results was acknowledged for years previous to 1983. Formal steps toward meeting the need, however, were not taken until 1978.

Hazel Crain, then President of the Home Economics Division of AVA, appointed an ad hoc research committee late in 1977, with Ruth Hughes as chair. In May 1978 Crain called that committee and others to a meeting at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. The group included not only the ad hoc committee but representatives of the American Home Economics Association, the Home Economics Education Association, and the U.S. Office of Education.

The Nebraska meeting was precipitated by the emerging need for a data base on program effectiveness, for stability of research efforts, and for effective reporting of results. The reporting need led to the initial suggestion for a journal directed to research in home economics education.

Following the Nebraska meeting the research committee became active. Subcommittees were organized, not only to coordinate aspects of home economics education research, but also to consider a journal. Aleene Cross was the chair of that subcommittee which, in 1981, recommended that a journal be initiated. The committee also presented plans for the journal.

The research committee accepted the recommendation of the subcommittee and forwarded it to the Policy and Planning Committee, which accepted the recommendation of the research committee to establish the *Journal of Vocational Home Economics Education*. The action then was approved by the Home Economics Division of AVA.

At a subsequent meeting of the research committee, actions were taken to get the journal published. Betty Ray was named Editor, Twyla Shear Associate Editor, and Aleene Cross Managing Editor. Ray and Shear were at Penn State, Cross at University of Georgia.

To provide initial financial support, the "old guard" were asked to contribute at least $100 each; they provided $2,845.00, enough to solicit manuscripts and prepare the first issue. Dues for the teacher education section were raised $15 to include a subscription to JVHEE; subscriptions were optional for teachers and supervisors.

The editorial board was to have eight members. The chair would be the president of the teacher education group and vice chair would be the president elect. In addition to the three editors, three additional members would be elected. The first chair was Sharon Redick, Ohio State; vice chair was Kay Clayton, University of Texas; the two elected members were Ruth Hughes, Iowa State; Sharon Wallace, Oregon State; and Camille Bell, Texas Tech. The guidelines for manuscripts were determined by the board.

Reviewers of manuscripts were to be tenured professors with a record of publications, or others with equivalent credentials. The first issue listed eleven reviewers. The fourth and final issues of 1983 listed eighteen reviewers, the original eleven plus an additional seven.

At the 1978 Nebraska meeting, topics for research in home economics education were identified. Learners, personnel, subject matter, method, and evaluation were included with personnel and subject matter as priorities. The articles published during the first year reflected that listing, suggesting that researchers were aware of the needs. Of the 28 articles the first year, nine were on some aspect of teacher education, six on program planning, five on evaluation, three on learners, and three on evaluation; two were philosophical.

Increased opportunity to share research with others in the field and to provide for participation by greater numbers of researchers was another aim of that early meeting. The group hoped, too, that the institutions represented would reflect the variety of sizes, locations, and specialties represented by the members themselves.

In the first four issues (Volume 1, Numbers 1-4) there were 48 different authors. Of the 48, only four appeared twice. Twenty institutions or agencies were represented; sixteen were academic institutions and four were agencies associated with home economics professionals.

The fifteen members of the original research committee, along with others who joined the committee or accepted special assignments for JVHEE, hoped for a journal to increase communication and participation across the field of home economics education. It would appear from the above data that, for the first year at least, hopes for the journal were fulfilled.

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PERCEPTIONS ATTRIBUTED BY ADULTS TO PARENTAL OVERINDULGENCE DURING CHILDHOOD

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Overindulgent parents inundate their children with family resources (material wealth, time, experiences) at developmentally inappropriate times. Surveys were collected from 730 subjects of which 124 identified themselves as adult children of overindulgence (ACO). Results indicated that ACOs were: overindulged most often by both parents; overindulged for a significant period of their lives; and overindulged due to parental issues such as poverty, chemical dependency or overwork. ACOs simultaneously felt both positively and negatively about the overindulgence, that is, they felt loved, confused, guilty, bad and sad. Overindulgence was related to physical abuse, sexual abuse, and addiction. ACOs reported being affected by the overindulgence into adulthood, indicated by symptoms such as overeating, overspending, and experiencing problems with child-rearing, interpersonal boundaries, and decision making. Implications for parents and family educators are presented.

Concerned parents often consult family educators and pediatric-care professionals, asking if what they are doing is going to "spoil" their child (Nelms, 1983; McIntosh, 1989; Wilson, Witzke, & Volin, 1981). Nelms (1983) indicated parents experience ambivalence and confusion when they do not know the difference between "nurturing parental behaviors" and "indulgent behaviors." Nurturing behavior leads to healthy attachment between parent and child, while overindulgent behavior on the part of the parent leads to excessive self-centered and immature behavior in the child (Clarke & Dawson 1998; McIntosh, 1989). The construct of overindulgence has not been well represented in parenting research, consequently the authors looked to research in two related areas; the spoiling of children and parenting styles.

In the process of studying the lives of poor, vulnerable, and harassed children, Coles (1977) studied the effects of affluence. The author stated, " 'Privileged' children keep struggling with their perceptions of what life is like in America for others, for the less fortunate. [T]he 'privileged' seem, in fact, frightened and guilty and confused and conflicted - in their own ways, victims" (p. xiv).

Parents and grandparents, friends and relatives, educators and therapists voice similar concerns about today's children. Many believe children now are in a privileged generation which is showered with excess materialism. Hausner (1990), a therapist who has done extensive counseling with parents and children of affluent families, cited numerous problems resulting from affluence: "Just as poverty has a profound influence, so too does affluence. It creates distinct opportunities as well as problems...spoiled children with obnoxious behavior and superior attitudes, unmotivated adolescents who care only for their stereos and clothes, reckless teenagers living delinquent and self-destructive lives" (p. 9).

Spoiling Children

Spoiled Child Syndrome

Swain (1985) and McIntosh (1989), practitioners in the fields of mental health and pediatrics, independently identified the "spoiled child syndrome." Swain (1985) suggested that this syndrome "occurs when the parent indulges the child's every whim or wish" (p. 67). Further, it has to do with a parent relinquishing power to the child and results in children who are "obnoxious, ill-tempered, ill-mannered, selfish, and often immoral" (p. 67). McIntosh (1989) expanded the definition by suggesting that the spoiled child syndrome was:

> characterized by excessive self-centered and immature behavior, resulting from the failure of parents to enforce consistent, age-appropriate limits. Spoiled children display a lack of consideration for others, demand to have their own way, have difficulty delaying gratification, and are prone to temper outbursts. Their behavior is intrusive, obstructive, and manipulative (p. 108).

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*Components of this research were reported at the meetings of the Minnesota Council on Family Relations and the National Council on Family Relations. The authors thank Alison Anderson, Adam Erickson, Kevin Schlieman, and Robert Cullen, Concordia University psychology students who served as research assistants on this project.

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Both definitions highlighted behavioral outcomes resulting from spoiling children. While one definition suggested the spoiled child syndrome resulted from relinquishing parental power to the child, the other believed that it is directly related to the failure of parents to enforce age-appropriate limits.

Spoiled Babies

Solomon, Martin & Cottington (1993) surveyed 303 parents and developed a typology related to parental beliefs and the spoiling of infants. Type 1 parents (56%) in their study did not believe an infant younger than five years old could be spoiled. Type 2 parents (20%) believed an infant should be spoiled, and Type 3 parents (24%) believed infants could be spoiled, but should not be spoiled. In addition to identifying three distinct types of beliefs about spoiling, Solomon et al. found race, income and education differences between parenting types. Type 1 parents were more likely to be Caucasian and have higher incomes and higher levels of education. Type 3 parents were more likely to be African-American and have lower incomes and less education. Type 2 parents held belief patterns that fell statistically between Type 1 and Type 3. This study suggests that there were differences regarding parental attitudes concerning the spoiling of children. These differences were related to socioeconomic and education levels, as well as to ethnic groups.

Wilson et al. (1981) surveyed 531 parents in a rural midwestern state on the subject of spoiling a baby. The survey defined a baby as a child younger than one year of age. Seventy-nine percent of the fathers and 66% of the mothers believed a baby could be spoiled. Parents agreed a baby was spoiled by allowing the child to have its own way (58% mothers; 54% fathers) and not setting limits for the child (53% mothers; 43% fathers). When asked to describe a "spoiled baby," parents most frequently used negative terms: difficult to control, demanding, obnoxious, overindulged, and frustrated, while positive descriptions such as happy, alert, affectionate, pleasant, well-adjusted, sociable, content, and outgoing were used less often. Sixty-one percent of mothers and 56% of fathers indicated that the effects could be seen between the first and fifth year of life. Almost a quarter (23% mothers; 22% fathers) felt that the effects would continue to be seen throughout the teenage years.

Beyond Control Adolescents

Perhaps, as Wilson, Witzke, & Volin's (1981) study suggested, the effects of spoiling a child may last throughout adolescence. Robinson (1978) investigated child rearing and disciplinary methods of parents who identified their adolescent boys as serious control problems. The study matched boys on social and personal characteristics from two family groups: 15 families in which the adolescent boy was on probation with juvenile authorities for failure to obey his parents, and 15 families in which the adolescent boy was reported by his parents to be well behaved. "Parents of the beyond control adolescents were reported to be more inconsistent in setting and enforcing rules, less likely to praise, encourage, and show interest in their adolescents, and to be higher in hostile detachment" (p.109).

Even though Robinson (1978) was not investigating the "spoiling of adolescents" per se, the results of the study lent support to the notion that there may be a link between parenting style and beyond control adolescent behavior. A parenting style that is inconsistent in setting and enforcing rules, hostile, and non-nurturing, may encourage "out of control" or "spoiled children."

Parenting Styles

How and to what extent parents sought to control their children has been one of the most heavily researched aspects of parenting. Baumrind (1966, 1983, 1991, 1996) and Rohner (1986, 1994) identified four parenting styles: authoritarian, authoritative, rejecting-neglecting, and permissive.

These four parenting styles were organized along two dimensions: parental responsiveness to children and parental demandingness of children. "Responsiveness refers to the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's needs and demands"(Baumrind, 1996, p. 410). Salient features of parental responsiveness include warmth, clear communication, reciprocity, and attachment. "Demandingness refers to the claims that parents make on children to become integrated into the family and community by their maturity expectations, supervision, disciplinary efforts, and willingness to confront a disruptive child" (Baumrind, 1996, p. 411). Salient features of demandingness include confrontation, monitoring, and consistent contingent discipline.

According to Baumrind (1996) authoritarian parents were high on demandingness and low on responsiveness, imposed rules and standards and expected obedience and to control their children by using punishment to ensure compliance. Parents who used this style restricted autonomy so that their children's self-will was overcome. Authoritative parents are high on both responsive and demanding dimensions. They set limits and consistently enforced them while explaining the reasons. With older children they encouraged open discussion, valuing both self-will and conformity. Rejecting-neglecting parents were detached from their children. They were not supportive and nurturant, and they placed few, if any, demands on their child's behavior (Rohner, 1986). Permissive parents imposed few demands on their children for orderly conduct. Baumrind (1966) described child-centered permissive parents as high on responsiveness and low on demandingness. They allowed their children to make choices. They were supportive and nurturant, but avoided exercising control over their child's behavior. Research (Coopersmith, 1967; Baumrind, 1983, 1991; Buri, Louiselle, Misukanis, and Mueller, 1988) suggested that warm, concerned, authoritative parents raised children with the highest self-esteem, self-reliance, resilience, optimism, maturity, and social competence, whereas authoritarian, rejecting-neglecting, and permissive parenting were associated with a variety of childhood problems including lack of self-assertion, lower cognitive competence, lower levels of individuation, social consciousness and autonomy, and external locus of control (Baumrind, 1983, 1991). What is overindulgence and when does parenting turn into overindulgence? How does overindulgence differ from spoiling children? Are Baumrind's "permissive parents" overindulgent parents?

Defining Overindulgence

Following a review of the literature and in-depth interviews with individuals who identified themselves as being overindulged as children, the authors developed a definition of overindulgence, which was used to frame this research. Overindulgent parents inundate their children with family resources such as material wealth, time, experiences, and lack of responsibility. They give children too much of what looks good, too soon, too long and at developmentally inappropriate times. Overindulgent parents may overindulge to meet their own needs, not the needs of their children. For example, they may have grown up in poverty and do not want their child to experience the same. When children are overindulged, they develop in an environment which is not realistic since they do not learn skills such as perseverance, coping with failure in effective ways, and compromising. Because overindulgence hinders children from completing their developmental tasks and prevents them from learning necessary life lessons, it can be conceptualized as a form of child neglect.

Overindulgence Compared to Spoiling Children

As reported earlier, there is no one definition of what it means to "spoil" a child (Swain, 1985; McIntosh, 1989). However, some common elements may be found in the existing definitions. Swain (1985) and McIntosh (1989) assumed the process of "spoiling children" stemmed from the child's needs, not the parent's. Both definitions (Swain, 1985; McIntosh, 1989) suggested that "spoiling" resulted in excessive, self-centered, obnoxious, and ill-tempered child behavior. In addition, spoiling a child resulted from the relinquishment of parental power, and the failure of parents to enforce consistent age-appropriate limits.

In contrast, the process of overindulgence stems from the parent's needs, not the child's. Overindulgent parents do not provide their children with necessary structure. In addition, they shower them with family resources at developmentally inappropriate times. This hinders children from completing their developmental tasks. Overindulgence can be considered a form of child neglect.

Overindulgence Compared to Permissive Parenting

At the heart of this investigation is overindulgence. Is Baumrind's "permissive parent" the same as the "overindulgent parent?" We believe not. We assert that not all permissive parents are overindulgent. Baumrind's (1996) permissive parent type focused on the failure to enforce consistent, age-appropriate limits, which more closely fits the definition of "spoiling" children, whereas, the overindulgent parent type focuses on giving an overabundance of resources to children such as attention, material goods, time, and experiences. These actions meet parental needs, and deprive children of completing their developmental tasks.

Purpose

The current study was designed to begin the development of a knowledge base about overindulgence. First, characteristics of adult children who identified themselves as being overindulged (ACOs) are described. Then, the adults' perceptions of overindulgence and its effects are provided. Next, comparisons between adults who were overindulged as children and those who were not are made. Specifically, the two groups are compared on their own parenting styles, their self-indulgence, and the types of relationships they seek out as adults. Using results from these investigations, recommendations for parents and parent educators are made.

Method

Sample Description

Participants for the study were selected through a convenience sampling from four groups: participants attending workshops on overindulgence or other family related topics; trained parent facilitators; parents attending parenting classes; and students in psychology classes at a small private midwestern college. Surveys were completed by 730 subjects (85.5% female and 14.5% male). Participants' ages ranged from 17 to 83 (Mean = 42.8 years). Of the 730 participants, 124 identified themselves as adult children of overindulgence (ACOs). The ACO subsample was 87.7% females and 12.3% males. ACOs ranged from 19 to 80 years of age (Mean = 42.2 years).

Questionnaire and Procedures

The questionnaire for this study was developed by the authors, following a series of in-depth interviews with self-identified ACOs. The survey was then reviewed and field-tested in a workshop setting. Respondents were asked to answer questions on background demographic characteristics and then they read the following definition of overindulgence which the authors had developed from interviews with adult children of overindulgence:

> Overindulging children means giving them too much of what looks good, too soon, too long; giving them things or experiences that are not appropriate for their age or their interests and talents. Overindulgence is the process of giving things to children to meet the adult's needs, not the children's needs.
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> Parents who overindulge give a disproportionate amount of family resources to one or more children in a way that appears to meet the children's needs but does not. Overindulged children experience scarcity in the midst of plenty. They have so much of something that it does active harm or at least stagnates achieving their full potential. Overindulgence is a form of child neglect. It hinders children from doing their developmental tasks and from learning necessary life lessons.

After reading the definition, respondents categorized themselves as being overindulged or not indulged as children. Subjects who identified themselves as overindulged answered both closed and open-ended questions concerning their own overindulgence, then proceeded to general questions on overindulgence. Participants not experiencing overindulgence only answered general questions on overindulgence. Sample closed and open-ended questions included: "Was there physical violence toward you in your family?" "Check all of the following areas in which you experienced overindulgence: love, toys, clothes, privileges, lessons, summer camps, time with parents, holidays, sports, freedom, drugs, entertainment, no consistent chores expected, not having to learn skills that were expected of other children, not having to follow the rules, being allowed to take the lead or dominate the family, and having things done for me that I could or should do for myself."

Results

Descriptive characteristics of the ACO subsample (N=124) and their perceptions of their overindulgence are provided first, followed by comparisons between adults who were overindulged as children and those who were not.

Demographic Characteristics

ACOs reported high levels of education. Their family of origin was most commonly identified as dual parent with a slight trend toward higher levels of family income. See Table 1 for additional demographic information. A substantial percentage (27%) of ACOs indicated that physical violence was present in their childhood homes. Of those reporting physical violence, 30% were spanked, 50% were hit with belts, sticks or other objects, and 20% were beaten.

Table 1

ACO Demographic Characteristics*

Characteristic	**Frequency**
Age	
Mean	42%
Characteristic	**Percentage**
Sex	
Male	12%
Female	88%
Education	
≤ 12th Grade	27%
B.A.	38%
M.A.	29%
Ph.D.	2%
Trade school	3%
Perceived amount of money compared to other Families when growing up	
A whole lot more money	7%
More money	28%
About the same amount of money	44%
Less money	17%
A whole lot less money	5%
Family of origin	
Two-parent	87%
Single parent	7%
Stepfamily	2%
Adoptive parent/Other relative	3%
Number of children in family of origin	
One	6%
Two	21%
Three	28%
Four	22%
Five	11%
Six	12%

*n=124

The following quotes tell their stories. "My father threatened me a lot and beat me until I was temporarily paralyzed when I was young." "My mother would lose control and hit us with objects such as a vacuum cleaner hose, shoes, hair brushes and a yard stick." "Sometimes we were spanked with a strap. A few times I was slapped across the face, and a few times hit until I was black and blue." Seventy-two percent of ACOs reported psychological abuse. Psychological abuse included ridiculing, shaming, discounting and withholding love. Again, narrative data reflect these parent-child interactions: "My dad made fun of me when I made a mistake and called me stupid. I felt shamed." "My father frequently ridiculed my abilities. He also withheld love, while my mother overcompensated in the opposite direction." Finally, 15% of ACOs reported being sexually abused by a family member.

When ACOs were asked if there was addiction in their family of origin, 51% responded "yes." Of those saying "yes," a majority indicated the addiction was based on alcohol (66%), drugs (10%), work (10%), food (9%), perfectionism (2%), codependency (2%), and sex (2%).

Table 2

Areas of Overindulgence*

Percentage	**Area**
53%	Having things done for me that I could or should do for myself
53%	No consistent chores expected
41%	Clothes
36%	Privileges
35%	Toys
32%	Freedom
32%	Being allowed to take lead or dominate the family
32%	Not having to learn skills that were expected of other children
23%	Love
23%	Not having to follow rules
22%	Lessons
18%	Entertainment
17%	Holidays
14%	Summer camps
12%	Time with parents
10%	Sports
8%	Drugs

*n=124. Subjects could select more than one response.

Perceptions of Overindulgence

The largest number of ACOs reported being overindulged by both parents (43%), followed closely by being indulged by mothers only (42%). Far fewer ACOs identified fathers only (11%), grandmothers only (4%), and grandfathers only (1%) as overindulgent. Overindulgence does not stop with the end of childhood. Thirty-nine percent of ACOs reported overindulgence continuing through adolescence, 9% through young adulthood, and 9% through later adulthood; while 22% reported being overindulged throughout life with the indulgence still continuing.

ACOs reported being indulged in a variety of ways. Areas of indulgence cited most frequently included having things done for them (53%), having no consistent chores (53%), being given clothes (41%), being allowed privileges (35%), and being given toys (35%). See Table 2 for additional information.

More than half of the ACOs (57%) indicated that the overindulgence appeared to be related to another life event. Most frequently identified events were parental issues such as chemical dependency or guilt, the death of a family member, and illness or other medical issues relative to the child. See Table 3 for additional information.

Table 3

Life Events Related to Overindulgence*

Percentage	Events
48%	Issue stemming from parent (poverty, guilt, chemical dependency, worked all of the time etc.)
18%	Death of a loved one (sibling, parent etc.)
15%	Illness
10%	Birth order
5%	Holidays
3%	A reward for when I was good
2%	Lack of communication

*n=62.

Perceptions of the Effects of Overindulgence

ACOs exhibited a mixture of positive and negative feelings as a result of being overindulged. A high percentage (48%) reported feeling loved, and 28% reported feeling good because they got everything they wanted, but 44% felt confused, while 31% felt guilty, bad and sad. See Table 4 for additional information.

Overindulgence appears to affect individuals well into adulthood. The great majority (71%) of the overindulged subjects reported having difficulty knowing what is enough, or what is normal as adults. Participants' comments confirm this: "I have extreme difficulty making decisions." "I need praise and material reward to feel worthy." "I don't have to grow up because other people will take care of me." "I feel like I need lots of things to feel good about myself." "I'm unlovable." "I have to buy gifts to be loved." "I constantly need outside affirmation from my friends." ACOs who reported difficulty knowing what is enough were asked to identify the adult situations that cause them the most difficulty. Most subjects reported the area of food (21%), followed by spending money and buying gifts (17%), parenting/child-rearing (17%), feelings of what's normal (14%), conflict with interpersonal boundaries and relationships (12%), decision making (11%), and excessive activities such as working, going to school, exercising, playing and having fun (9%).

Table 4

Feelings Resulting From Overindulgence*

Percentage	Feelings
48%	I felt loved
44%	I felt confused because it didn't feel right but couldn't complain because how can I fault someone who does so much for me
40%	I felt embarrassed because at times I was expected to know some skills that I never had to learn
31%	I felt guilty, bad, sad
29%	I felt good at the time, but later I felt ashamed
28%	I felt good because I got everything I wanted
27%	I felt embarrassed because I knew it wasn't right
23%	I felt bad because other kids didn't get what I did
19%	No matter how much I got I never got enough so I felt sad
15%	I felt good because I got to decide about everything
15%	I felt bad because the other kids made fun of me
14%	I felt embarrassed because other kids didn't have stuff
13%	I felt ignored
13%	I felt confused
11%	I felt embarrassed because other kids teased me
11%	No matter how much I got I never got enough, so I felt mad

*n=124. Subjects could select more than one response.

When asked which skills they feel are deficient because they did not learn them as children, ACOs open-ended responses were coded into the following categories: communication, interpersonal, and relationship skills (31%), domestic and home skills (13%), mental and personal health skills (12%), decision making skills (11%), money and time management skills (10%), and ability to be responsible (8%).

ACOs Compared to Non-indulged Adult Children

ACOs reported significantly greater indulgence of their own children than did the non-indulged subjects ((3) = 40.92, p = ≤ .001). In addition to overindulging their own children, ACOs reported higher levels of overindulging themselves than did subjects who were not overindulged by their parents (X^2 (3) = 39.1, p = ≤ .001). This self-indulgence resulted in gaining weight (16% of ACO respondents), feeling guilty (12%), and experiencing lower self-esteem (6%), poor health (5.6%), and loneliness (4%).

Finally, subjects who were overindulged as children reported being less likely to have had an extended adult relationship with someone who overindulged them than did subjects who were not overindulged (X^2 (1) = 19.57, p = < .001). See Table 5 for additional comparative data

Table 5

Number of Overindulged and Non-indulged Subjects Reporting Tendency to Overindulge Their Own Offspring, to Overindulge Themselves, and to Seek Out Indulgent Relationships as Adults*

	ACO Subsample Frequency/Percentage		**Non-Indulged Subsample Frequency/Percentage**	
Overindulge own offspring?				
Never	3	(3%)	38	(8%)
Seldom	16	(16%)	165	(35%)
Sometimes	60	(60%)	241	(52%)
Often	21	(21%)	23	(23%)
	N =	100	N =	467
Overindulge self?				
Never	8	(7%)	90	(15%)
Seldom	29	(24%)	229	(39%)
Sometimes	61	(50%)	239	(40%)
Often	24	(20%)	33	(6%)
	N =	122	N =	591
Extended adult indulgent relationship?				
Yes	55	(46%)	394	(68%)
No	64	(54%)	189	(32%)
	N =	119	N =	583

*Not all respondents answered all questions.

Discussion

Individuals self-identified as overindulged children reported experiencing negative effects as a result of the indulgence, not only while it was occurring, but also into adulthood.

One of the most consistent findings of this study was subjects attributing overindulgence to inconsistent family environments, including homes in which abuse and neglect were common. Although subjects reported some positive emotions while being indulged, the indulgence produced negative feelings at the same time. Such ambivalent and inconsistent feelings have been found to be difficult for children to interpret and have a tendency to lead to feelings of insecurity and chaos (Sroufe, Fox & Pancake, 1983).

Reports of the high levels of physical and psychological violence in the households where overindulgence occurred were disturbing. More than a fourth of the ACO sample (27%) reported physical violence in their childhood homes. This is substantially higher than reported national figures. The United States Advisory Board on Child Abuse and Neglect (1990) indicated that 2.5 percent of American children are maltreated each year, and child abuse accounts for approximately 14 percent of the reported cases of child maltreatment nationally. Such violence always leaves a mark on its victims (Malinosy-Rummell & Hansen, 1993), but in families where it is coupled with overindulgence, the negative effect may be greater, again because of the difficulty children have in predicting inconsistent parental response.

Since participants in the survey indicated that the overindulgence had negative effects, it is disturbing that they were much more likely to overindulge both their own children and themselves compared to the non-indulged subjects. Clearly, preventative intervention from family and parent education programs for parents who are ACOs is warranted.

One surprising finding was that ACOs reported being significantly less likely to seek out and maintain additional overindulgent relationships in adulthood than did the non-indulged subjects. This may indicate that ACOs are able to recognize the negative impact of indulgent relationships and while they seemingly are unable to avoid overindulging their own children or themselves, they do make efforts to avoid relationships with others who would overindulge them.

Finally, a striking finding of this study was that the majority of the overindulged and non-indulged subjects reported that their parents did not adequately meet their emotional needs as children. This speaks to the importance of broad-based parent education programs for all types of parents.

Implications

The findings of this study have numerous implications for both parents and family educators.

Implications For Parents

It is essential for parents to understand that there is a difference between nurture, structure, and overindulgence. Nurture is unconditional love. "[The] essential contribution to children's growth and well-being [is] nurture" (Clarke & Dawson, 1998, p. 10). "But unconditional love is not enough. Children also need to learn limits, skills, and standards" (Clarke & Dawson, 1998, p.10). This side of the parenting equation, structure, allows parents to set healthy boundaries and limits with children. There needs to be a balance between the two. Overindulgence is misguided nurture and inadequate structure. Nurturing children and providing them with structure is positive and helpful, while overindulgence is not. This is relevant because ACOs report overindulgence is more about "not having things done for them when they could do it for themselves," and "having no consistent chores expected of them" than receiving clothes or toys.

Parents need to realize that continued support for a child's emotional needs without overindulgence is critical to the emotional health of the child. Children experience a variety of feelings from overindulgence; some of them positive, others negative. At the very least, the overindulgent parent leaves a child emotionally confused.

Parents who overindulge miss opportunities to teach their children valuable life skills. Overindulgence appears to inhibit the development of a child's communication and relationship skills, decision making, and time management skills. Further, overindulged children may not know how to take on adult responsibilities. They rely on others to complete tasks for them.

It is important for parents to understand and recognize that overindulgence may have long-lasting effects on children. For example, as adults they may have problems with overeating, and overspending, feel inadequate and overindulge their own children. The negative effects of overindulging can last well into adulthood.

Finally, parents who were overindulged as children frequently grow up and overindulge their own children. There appears to be a "cycle of overindulgence." This could be because families in which overindulgence is occurring do not have a clear understanding of appropriate boundaries or the delicate balance between nurture and structure in the rearing of children.

Implications for Family Educators

It appears that cultural messages to overindulge are pervasive throughout North American culture (Browne & Kaldenberg, 1997) and that overindulging children is a common problem (Clarke & Dawson, 1998). Family educators need to recognize the cultural pressure placed on parents to overindulge children in today's society. Recognizing this, family educators can provide parental support, encouragement and permission not to indulge; for doing so may be harmful to a child's psychological health. Further, family educators can give parents an alternative message which is to balance nurture and structure in childrearing.

This study found that a high percentage of ACOs (51%) grew up in families which had chemically dependent parents, thus family educators should be aware of this connection and its possible effects. Further, because overindulgence of a child is often related to another important life event, such as a death of a sibling or parent, family educators also need to build in support and education for parents who are confronted with or experience these challenging events. Finally, information on overindulgence should be made available to parents through a variety of sources: parenting books, parenting classes, books on marriage and family, and books on child psychology.

Conclusion

This study is a first attempt at overcoming a gap in the literature on overindulgence. Previously, only a few research studies investigated spoiling children, while none investigated overindulgence directly. Further, the concept of overindulgence is quite different from the spoiled child syndrome (Swain, 1985; McIntosh, 1989) and the permissive parent which Baumrind (1966, 1983, 1991, & 1996) described.

This study has several limitations. The first limitation is its sample which, though large, is not representative and is disproportionately female. The issue of overindulgence may have been more salient for the sample than the general population. Second, the coding of open-ended questions is always prone to subjectivity. And third, because the questionnaire provided a description of overindulgence at the outset, it may have inadvertently led respondents to a response set consistent with the definition.

Nonetheless, this study fulfilled its purposes: to describe overindulged persons, their perceptions of overindulgence and its effects, and to compare adults who were overindulged as children and those who were not. Future studies should attempt to replicate these findings with representative samples.

Finally, family educators face important challenges to help parents and families to recognize the societal pressures placed on them to overindulge, and to help them to develop alternative strategies to bring balance into their lives.

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LEARNING ABOUT ETHICAL DILEMMAS THROUGH LITERATURE

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Much of the content of Family and Consumer Sciences offerings, particularly that related to child and family, has an ethical dimension. Three examples of ethical theories are presented to show students how experts have reasoned about ethical principles. The use of stories from literature is suggested as a means for high school and college students to reflect on their own ethical principles and those of others in their world. The development of skills in questioning and dialogue as well as a critical thinking disposition are seen as useful tools to enhance the ethical reasoning process in the discussion of stories.

As the society in which our learning takes place becomes more heterogeneous and less homogeneous, controversial family life issues can become even more divisive than they have been in the past. Often multiple points of view can be accepted in theory, but real-life decisions by individuals, families, communities, or nations require action. Action is not neutral. Choosing appropriate action after considering multiple points of view is not easy.

As students in Family and Consumer Sciences (FACS) classes continue to reflect the diverse economic, ethnic, and religious backgrounds of the society as a whole, teachers are challenged to model a critical thinking perspective with an ethical dimension. Students in these high school and college classes need to reflect on their own ethical principles and to explore a range of possible actions related to those principles (Shermis, 1992). They need to appreciate the diverse ethical thinking of their peers and significant adults and to evaluate different actions proposed or undertaken. A thoughtful non-threatening way to encourage this assessment of action is through the eyes of the characters in literature. Fictional characters provide plentiful ethical dilemmas as well as the safety of literary distancing.

Childhood, adolescent, and adult literature is full of works centered around family issues from multiple points of view. The stories can be chosen according to interest and reading level of the students and for the topics important in the curriculum. Most family issues, such as relationships, sexuality, care of the dependent young and elderly, and distribution and use of resources, have an ethical dimension.

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Ethical Moral Dimensions

Schooling has always involved teaching values, both overtly and covertly. Whoever instructs persons gives ideas about values (Lipman, 1987). Thus the question is not whether or not to teach ethics or values, but how to develop appropriate learning experiences involving them. As teachers struggle with accommodating diversity, the current debate on values centers on questions of national identity and culture, as well as the values themselves. Nowhere is that more obvious than in the areas of family issues and public education. Two questions, what role ethics should play? and what values are important?, need further exploration. The conversation can begin in appropriate classrooms with the discussion of well chosen literature.

Autonomous critical thinkers are needed in a democratic society because problems are difficult and diverse, and their solutions affect not only those involved but the society as a whole (Paul, 1984). In order for groups to live together to the fullest, decisions need to be made after considering the voices of all involved. If only some interests are considered, others will be left out.

Some understanding of examples of philosophical theory can be helpful in reasoning about principles for action. The three ethicists chosen here - Aristotle, Mill, and Rawls - offer different perspectives for looking at ethical choices. It is suggested that students and teachers explore the concepts of these theorists before beginning the study of ethical dilemmas. The approaches provided by these three ethical theories help students evaluate multiple conflicting criteria.

Aristotle

Ethical theory in Aristotle's framework is about how to lead a good life; this life combines emotion and reason. For Aristotle, ethics included attitudes, sensibilities, and beliefs that affected how a person sees, acts, and lives (Ostwald, 1962).

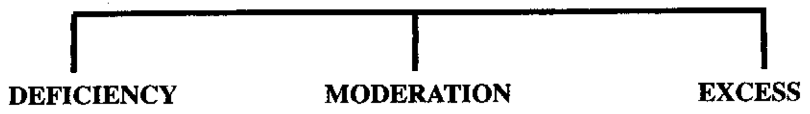
Aristotle believed that it was a hard task to be good. It was easy to be angry, to give away money or spend it, to display courage, "but to do any of these to the right person, to the right extent, for the right reason, and in the right way was not something easy that anyone can do" (Ostwald, 1962, p. 50).

The aim of ethics is to act in a good way. Virtues for Aristotle included the generosity of the benefactor, the bravery of the citizen, the goodwill and attendance of friends, and the moderation of lusts and vices of persons. Virtues were pictured on a continuum ranging from deficiency to excess, with moral virtues aiming at the median or the "golden" mean or median. "Virtue aims at the median" (p. 43).

Aristotle gave a number of illustrations to help clarify the continuum (Figure 1). Using the value of giving or taking of material goods or money, Aristotle labeled the three points from left to right as stinginess, generosity, and extravagance. A second example related to honor labeled the extremes and center as small-mindedness, high-mindedness, and vanity (p. 45). It is important to keep in mind that a virtue can be any place on a continuum. Some aspects of the virtue generosity or honor may be deficient or excessive depending on contextual factors, e.g., the person's motive for action.

Figure 1

Continuum of Moral Virtues



Students could consider how Aristotle might discuss contemporary ethical issues such as abortion. That the extreme of deficiency would be no abortion in any case and the extreme of excess would be unlimited abortion seems possible. Harder to define would be the golden mean – abortion in only some cases. How could those cases be defined? What different ideas of moderation are presented by different students? Does Aristotle's list of virtues offer help?

Mill

Another ethical theory, with a different approach, is Utilitarianism. John Stuart Mill, one of the theory's most eloquent defenders, defines it in this way:

> *The creed which accepts as the foundation of morals, Utility, or the Greatest Happiness Principle, holds that actions are right in proportion as they tend to promote happiness, wrong as they tend to produce the reverse of happiness. By happiness is intended pleasure, and the absence of pain; by unhappiness, pain, and the privation of pleasure. (Mill, 1991, p. 137)*

Mill elaborated important qualifications of what was meant by the happiness standard. For instance, "that standard is not the agent's own greatest happiness, but the greatest amount of happiness altogether" (p. 142). Mill stressed that we should all try to include all individuals and all groups in those benefits which we desire for ourselves. The quality of pleasure was considered as well as quantity: "It is quite compatible with the principle of utility to recognize the fact, that some kinds of pleasure are more desirable and more valuable than others" (p. 138). Mill assigned "to the pleasures of the intellect, of the feelings and imagination, and of the moral sentiments, a much higher value as pleasures than to those of mere sensation" (p. 138).

Helping students apply Utilitarianism to ethical issues involves several tasks. First, students need to consider all who might be affected, might experience pain or pleasure from an action. Second, students need to consider long-term, societal consequences as well as their own personal consequences. Third, consequences for everyone – both short-term and long-term – need to be weighed. Finally when all the consequences are considered and weighed, what results in the greatest happiness for the greatest number?

When these steps are applied to a specific issue such as abortion, certain questions will arise. How will the mother be affected? Her relatives? The father? His relatives? What consequences might the act of abortion have on society? How can the mother's inability to care for a baby be weighed against the possible good that a new person could do for the world? Might the act of abortion make society less reverent of the gift of life? But shouldn't society grant women the control of their own bodies? Are there ways society could help the biological mother, or an adopted mother, care for the baby? What actions will result in the greatest good for the greatest number? Obviously Utilitarianism, like other ethical theories, is not going to provide easy answers. However, it can encourage students to expand their thinking about the issues involved.

Rawls

A third ethical theory, with yet another approach for students, is the ethical theory of distributive justice proposed by John Rawls in his book, A Theory of Justice (1971). Rawls wanted to develop a just society, where the principle of justice tells the moral community how to distribute fair shares of primary goods in short supply, such as wealth, power, education, and other opportunities. Rawls applied rules of justice through the original position, a group of representative, rational humans who are creating this society behind a veil of ignorance.

> *Among the essential features of this situation is that no one knows his place in society, his class position or social status, nor does any one know his fortune in the distribution of natural assets and abilities, his intelligence, strength, and the like. . . . This insures that no one is advantaged or disadvantaged in the choice of principles by the outcome of natural chance or the contingency of social circumstances. (p. 12)*

Since everyone would be similarly handicapped by ignorance of their own standing in this new society, Rawls believed two principles of justice and fairness would arise. First, "each person is to have an equal right to the most extensive basic liberty compatible with a similar liberty for others." Second, "social and economic inequalities, for example inequalities of wealth and authority, are to be arranged so they are (a) reasonably expected to be to everyone's advantage and (b) attached to positions and offices open to all under fair equality of opportunity" (p. 60). Under Rawls' theory, discussions of abortion would take on a new slant in that students would not know whether they would be the mother, father, relative, or doctor of the fetus; in fact they could even be the fertilized egg or fetus itself.

These three philosophers are all concerned with questions of justice and right. They all stress considering the rights and needs of others. They also have specific overlaps and differences. For instance, in his first principle, Rawls agreed with Mill (rights, or happiness, are to be available), but in his second he explicitly disagreed (Instead of Mill's good for the greatest number, Rawls stressed equal distribution of goods, e. g., wealth, power). In his introduction, Rawls stated that "justice denies that the loss of freedom for some is made right by a greater good shared by others. It does not allow that the sacrifices imposed on a few are outweighed by the larger sum of advantages enjoyed by many" (pp. 3-4).

The three approaches presented emphasize different questions in an ethics discussion. Aristotle's golden mean or median would help students seek positions of moderation – abortion but only under which conditions? Mill's greatest happiness principle would encourage students to ask which solution would benefit the most people over time? Rawls' veil of ignorance will encourage them to wonder how they would feel about abortion if they were the mother about to have a child to support for eighteen years. It will encourage them to wonder how they would feel about abortion if they were the fertilized egg or the fetus itself.

As students discuss ethical issues and make decisions for actions for their characters from literature, they could refer to an ethical theory. Only three examples were presented here; others more familiar to the teacher will work as well. A study of some of the respected thinkers (authorities) related to ethics can help students feel that they are not just basing an argument for action on their own opinion. This learning serves as a basis for the expansion of students' critical thinking processes.

Acts of Thinking Critically

When exercising critical thinking skills, people will need to support their opinions with facts. This is particularly challenging when dealing with ethical dilemmas. Critical thinkers attempt to state a case from a particular point of view, to use rational reasoning, to seek rightness which can be judged by others (Brown, 1993; Nelson, 1994).

Critical thinkers are able to ask appropriate questions that lead to the pertinent facts needed. These facts generate insight into meanings and allow interpretations of issues. Critical thinkers imagine and discuss alternatives before making decisions and they continually evaluate their decisions. When critical thinkers reason rationally about ethical problems, such as, who should receive the limited supply of organs for transplants?, should gays and lesbians be allowed to marry?, should euthanasia be legal?, they understand the assumptions and biases, even their own, that underlie particular positions. Critical thinkers are able to present a position (hopefully several different ones will be explored), both orally and in writing, with credible, concise, and convincing evidence (Brookfield, 1987). Learning to think critically about ethical issues in the classroom can be enhanced by developing the skills of questioning (Coomer, Hittman, & Fedje, 1997) and dialogue (Tannen, 1998).

Questioning

The transition and acquisition of numerous and specific facts does not necessarily involve thinking. Thinking begins with awe, need, wonder, or curiosity to ask a question (Brookfield, 1987; Browne & Keeley, 1994; Paul, 1993; Siegel, 1997; Shermis, 1992; & Simon, 1992). Questions help people focus their inquiry on the many facets of the problem that needs to be solved.

While answers often terminate thinking, questions stimulate thinking (Barrell, 1991). How should gay persons be treated in our society? Is sexual orientation inherited or acquired? Seeking answers to these questions requires thought. Accepting the statement (answer), gay and lesbian marriages are illegal, can be the end of thought on this subject, at least at this time. Questions define tasks, express problems and delineate issues. Only when an answer generates further questions does thought continue its life as such.

Socratic questioning refers to the types of questions asked by the philosopher, Socrates. It is based on the idea that all thinking has a logic or structure. This type of questioning allows students and teachers to elicit and probe each others' thinking. Students and teachers translate their curiosity about the status quo into probing questions. They ask each other what they mean when they say something, such as, the drinking age should be lowered. They might ask the speaker to elaborate on the meaning of "lowered." They may ask, of what significance is the statement, lowering the drinking age, to you, how does it relate to your other beliefs, and how does it make sense or not make sense to you?

To learn how to participate in Socratic questioning, one has to learn how to listen carefully to what others say, to look for reasons and evidence, to recognize and reflect upon assumptions, to discover implications and consequences, to seek examples, analogies, and objections, to seek to discover. In short, one has to determine what is really known (based on research as much as possible) and of value in coming to consensus on an issue and to distinguish it from the different beliefs of the members of the group. What do we actually know about when life begins or ends and what do we believe about the beginning and ending of life? What is our concept of life?

Browne and Kelley (1994) in Asking the Right Questions provided the following list of questions as a guide for classroom exploration of issues, particularly in reading written material or hearing verbal presentations.

What is the issue and conclusion?
What are the reasons?
What words or phrases are ambiguous?
What are the value conflicts and assumptions?
How good is the evidence?
What significant information is omitted?
What alternative conclusions are consistent with the strong reasons?

Being able to answer these questions in relation to arguments either written or oral can facilitate "a mode of mental integration, as a synthesized complex of dispositions, values, and skills necessary to becoming a fairminded rational person" (Paul, 1993, p. 257). Students are asked to analyze their own ethical perspectives, compare them accurately with other perspectives, and examine the facts they put forth in the ethical domain with the same care required in any other domain of knowledge (Paul, 1988).

Dialogue

Discussion and dialogue are vital in developing critical thinking skills (Tarule, 1992). Discussion, while good, can allow some class members to avoid participation, whereas dialogue is a conversation between two or more persons and involves active participation by all. Dialogue facilitates greater understanding of the issue, yourself, and others (Tannen, 1998). True dialogue takes place more easily in supportive groups than in adversarial ones (Brookfield, 1994). Encouraging the development of a network of persons trying to facilitate critical thinking in themselves and others can make a crucial difference in the development of skills useful in this type of thinking (Qualley & Chiseri-Strater, 1994).

Dialogue is different from debate. Some thinkers are quite skilled in giving the appearance of entering another viewpoint, but do so only in an attempt to refute or negate opposing knowledge or beliefs. These individuals argue to score points, defeat the other person, and to make their knowledge, beliefs, and/or themselves look like they have the best answer. They experience dialogue as a battle, not a mutual or cooperative search for a better grasp of what is so (Andrews, Paschall, & Mitstifer, 1993).

In dialogue, the meaning of another point of view is expanded; finding common ground is the goal. Debate, on the other hand, defines one's own position as best. Dialogue is examining another's ideas; it assumes that others have pieces of the answer and together the pieces can form a workable solution. Debate is challenging another point of view; it often sets up discussion as presentations of polarized views (Tannen, 1998). Dialogue remains open-minded; debate implies a conclusion (Andrews, Paschall, & Mitstifer, 1993). Dialogue is more cooperative while debate is more competitive. Dialogue focuses on the process while debate is more focused on the end results. Public dialogues and discussions require making an argument for a point of view, not having an argument – as in a fight (Tannen, 1998).

Few persons in a newly formed classroom group doing dialogue will initially want to put forth ideas they feel will not be accepted by the group (Brookfield, 1994). But if members of the group do not challenge each others' thinking then skill development is not as likely to occur. One way of establishing an atmosphere where students can challenge each others' thinking, yet be supportive, is expressed by one current student as she questioned a former student of a class which featured the process of developing critical thinking skills: "Did you make enemies in this class?" The reply was, "Nobody made fun of you because everyone else had to do it [ask probing questions]." It was a class expectation.

Being able to reason on emotional issues in front of one's peers takes practice in a trusting environment (Thayer-Bacon, 1993). The group needs to be one in which persons are confident that their ideas will be listened to. Individuals need to believe that they will be accepted as persons; their ideas and their ability to express them can be questioned, but not ridiculed. The group members accept each other for who they are; they like each other and look forward to spending time together.

Critical Thinking Disposition

In addition to being able to dialogue about ethical issues, a person needs certain attitudes, dispositions, habits of mind, and character traits to engage in critical thinking (Siegel, 1988, 1997). A critical thinking disposition has been defined as an attitude of equity and justice, a disposition of openness, analytical habits of mind, and the character traits of empathy and mercy (Facione, Sanchez, Facione, & Gainen, 1995; Siegel, 1997). A critical attitude encompasses not only an ability to listen to other points of view and seek reasons for one's own point of view, but a commitment to do so even when new evidence may run counter to self-interest or current common belief.

If appropriate, teachers of critical thinking could have their high school and college students respond to the California Critical Thinking Dispositions Inventory (CCDI) (Facione, Sanchez, Facione, & Gainen; 1995; Murphy, Conley, & Impara, 1994). This instrument was based on a national survey of educators, employers, and policy-makers to determine the most important critical thinking skills and dispositions for college students. The CCDI contains 75 Likert type items on the seven scales of inquisitiveness, open-mindedness, systematicity, analyticity, truth-seeking, critical thinking self-confidence, and maturity.

The inquisitiveness scale was defined as measuring "one's intellectual curiosity and one's desire for learning even when the application of the knowledge is not readily apparent" (How interested are you in pursuing the ethical question posed?). The open-mindedness scale pertains to "the ability to reserve judgment on others' views and acknowledging one's own biases" (Does your view make any sense in relation to mine? How do my own desires influence my ethical code?). "Being organized, orderly, focused, and diligent in inquiry" (Can I pursue the answer to this ethical question with the same diligence as I would a chemistry question?) is the measurement of the systematicity scale. The analyticity scale targets "prizing the application of reasoning and the use of evidence to resolve problems, anticipating potential conceptual or practical difficulties, and consistently being alert to the need to intervene" (Can I put emotion and belief aside temporarily to pursue the problem using the rules of reason?).

The truth-seeking scale measures the disposition of "being eager to seek the best knowledge in a given context, courageous about asking questions, and honest and objective about pursuing inquiry even if the findings do not support one's self interests or one's preconceived opinions" (Am I open to committing time and effort to pursuing as many avenues as possible to find relevant information on the topic?). The critical thinking self-confidence scale "allows one to trust the soundness of one's own reasoned judgments and to lead others in the rational resolution of problems" (Do I believe in my ability to come to a reasonable conclusion in answer to ethical questions?). The maturity scale measures how well the student "approaches problems, inquiry, and decision making with a sense that some problems are necessarily ill-structured, some situations admit of more than one plausible option, and many times judgments must be made based on standards, contexts, and evidence which preclude certainty" (Am I willing to withhold judgment until action must be taken?) (Facione, et. al., 1995, pp. 6-9).

Facione, et. al. (1995) summarized their research findings related to the CCDI by saying that the entering freshmen college students that responded to the CCDI were positively disposed toward the scales of open-mindedness and inquisitiveness. The scales of critical thinking confidence, analyticity, and maturity were varied but in the positive direction. Students in this study were not inclined toward focus, diligence or persistence in inquiry. Additionally, they opposed knowledge that threatened their perceptions or interests.

The authors indicated that a disposition was not a skill, but it was thought that the disposition toward critical thinking reinforced the use of critical thinking skills and visa versa. If appropriate, teachers of critical thinking with an ethical focus could use the scores as a means of determining the emphasis a particular group needs to take. For example, if teachers see a need to develop greater objectivity and fair-mindedness on the part of students, they could choose to spend class time on fact-finding, objective analysis, and risk-taking questioning. Teachers could adjust grading criteria so that presenting a winning argument is less important than presenting a factual and fair-minded argument.

Students might choose to work independently on activities that feature the dispositions on which they scored particularly low. Each student would identify a personal goal to expand their critical thinking disposition. For example, the student might work with other students, or with others outside of class, to practice being more systematic in her/his approach to ethical problems, or practice the use of reason and evidence to resolve problems. Students might keep documented evidence of their work in a journal, a recorded tape, etc. and evaluate their own work at the end of the term. This exercise could, then, become a part of the assessment process for a grade.

Authors writing about thinking believe that critical thinking (about ethical dilemmas) begins with an attitude of being disposed to consider in a thoughtful, perceptive manner the problems and subjects of one's life. There is a difference between having a critical thinking disposition and being able to use critical thinking skills such as questioning and dialogue. The skills can be used to support prejudices and narrow-mindedness unless we are open to other points of view and testing the assumptions in our own point of view.

Ethical Issues

The focus of the classroom inquiry related to ethical issues is on problems that need to be solved or issues of interest to the group. A real problem or issue, not a pseudo-problem or issue, stirs up puzzlement, tension, and confusion. The source of the problem or issue can be varied, but what is needed are students and teachers who will define, sense, feel, and internalize the problem or issue and make it their own.

Ethical issues abound. They encompass such areas as individuality and identity, human sexuality, abusive behavior, child and elder care, and many others. Using literature to begin the dialogue on issues related to areas of interest can form the beginning of a structured dialogue and lead to renewed critical thinking on controversial issues (Kloss, 1994; Winslow & Mische, 1996).

Siegel (1997) furnished an example of how we learn from literature and understand more after reading the selection. His example, The Brothers Karamazov, tried to answer these questions, "How can a work of fiction teach us contradictory lessons, as when different characters express contradictory viewpoints: How are the lessons of ... literature... different from more usual sorts of lessons?" (p. 40).

Sponheim (1997) illustrated how "literature offered me a perspective on my world, revealing things in the normal that were usually never seen" (p.184). She indicated that in her dialogue with the main character in the fiction, Housekeeping, she was able to articulate her underlying frameworks of meaning and purpose.

Three examples of stories from literature are provided here to illustrate their use in teaching about ethical issues. Because literature offers such a wealth of examples, teachers can choose materials particularly appropriate for their own situation.

Excellent material for ethics discussions centered around family issues is presented in Tennessee William's play, Cat on a Hot Tin Roof (Williams, 1955). The play is an intensive presentation of such issues as alcoholism, homosexuality, cancer, death, jealousy, marriage, love. The play presents artistic questioning. It offers few, if any, answers. In fact, Williams states,

> *The bird that I hope to catch in the net of this play is not the solution of one man's psychological problem. I'm trying to catch the true quality of experience in a group of people, that cloudy, flickering, evanescent – fiercely charged! – interplay of live human beings in the thundercloud of a common crisis. Some mystery should be left in the revelation of character in life, even in one's own character to himself. This does not absolve the playwright of his duty to observe and probe as clearly and deeply as he legitimately can; but it should steer him away from "pat" conclusions, facile definitions which make a play just a play, not a snare for the truth of human experience. (p. 85)*

Because it is a play, students can begin their quest for insight by choosing and then performing key scenes from the play. When two or more groups present the same key scene, different interpretations of issues and personalities become apparent. These differences serve as good stimuli for both class discussions and individual writing. A good starting place is differing enactments of key scenes in the characterizations of the more ambiguous characters, such as Maggie, Gooper, or Big Daddy. Where did each performance put them on the continuum between warm, caring family member and cold, calculating manipulator (Aristotle)? What lines particularly shape their character? What principles seems to guide their behavior (Which ethicist's theory more nearly fits the principles chosen)? How do the individual students view these characters (a good question for individual writing)? What questions would the students ask the characters in an interview? How would the characters answer? These interviews would make good opportunities for role playing, an acknowledged technique for expanding students' awareness of issues (Smagorinski, 1991; Smith, (in press); Wolf, Wright & Imhoff, 1994).

A logical step toward considering the full complexity of the play is to consider the relationships between pairs of characters. What elements exist in the relationship between Brick and his father, Big Daddy? Maggie and her mother-in-law, Big Mama? Which relationships in the play are paralleled by another couple? What insights do these parallels provide (another good question for individual writing)? Students can role play their own alternatives to key scenes in the play, such as the great talk between Brick and Big Daddy, and then discuss how the role plays differ. Do they use different ethical principles (How do the principles relate

to the ethical theorists)? Students can also role play scenes that never happen in the play. What might a great talk between Gooper and Big Daddy be like? How might a marriage counselor work with Brick and Maggie or Big Mama and Daddy? What values is the marriage counselor preferencing (again refer to theorists)?

The play treats some highly controversial issues: homosexuality, alcoholism, death. But it also portrays other less controversial topics, nature of love, marriage, and communication. These issues all offer ethical questions. William's play asks about the role of truth between husbands and wives, between fathers and sons. Should Brick have told Big Daddy he has terminal cancer? Should Maggie have forced Skipper and Brick to confront their homosexual feelings? Is either Brick ("being friends is telling each other the truth" p. 94) or Maggie ("Venomous thought and words! Venomous thoughts and words!—In hearts & minds! That's poisons!" p. 113) right?

The second piece of literature focuses on immigration. Amerika and I (Eagleton, 1988) is the story of a young Russian immigrant who comes to this country to work and become a part of America "a land of living hope" (p. 158). After the story is read, a first exercise might be to write a descriptive paragraph of the main character (she has no name in the story, but each class member might give her a name) using both physical and mental attributes. These could be shared by reading aloud. What role did language play in their description? A discussion of name could then be initiated. Why did they choose the name they did?

The main character's "first job was as a servant in an Americanized family" (p. 158). Describe this family and this work. Discuss the role of wages as this story unfolds. What ethical obligation did this family have or not have to their servant? Students describe their point of view. What would Rawls say about justice in this instance? Discuss the interpretation of Mill's happiness principle in relation to this story.

The second job was in "a sweat-shop of a Delancey Street basement" (p. 160). Describe the main character's experiences in this work, what it meant to her and her feelings toward it. What does the story tell about the relationship of the hand and the heart in work? Discuss John Stuart Mill's concept of liberty as it relates to this incident.

Then the main character joins one of the social clubs of the Women's Association ("A group of American Women who are trying to help the working-girl find herself" p. 162). Describe the lecture she attended and how it seemed through her eyes.

A visit to the Vocational-Guidance Center comes next. Students could role play the conversation of the woman there and the main character. The role play could be done more than once, from different points of view. What ethical questions are raised? Are other ethical questions not raised? Students could try to answer these questions through the veil of ignorance as Rawls suggests.

A second description of the main character could be written as she studied American history in the final paragraphs of the story. Has she changed? In what way? Compare this with earlier descriptions of the main character.

Finally, students could write a paragraph on what new ideas the story holds. If the students were to write this story, how would they change it? What are the ethics involved in this story? Relate them to each of the three theorists discussed earlier.

The third example involves a very short piece of science fiction. Ursula Le Guinn's, The Ones Who Walk Away from Omalas (Variation on a Theme by William James) (1975) is the story of the citizens of Omelas. Much is left to imagination. The first exercise might be a description of the citizens of Omelas. How will students describe joy? Or happiness? What would Mill have to say about happiness in this situation?

The author says that people have a bad habit and consider "happiness as something rather stupid. Only pain is intellectual, only evil is interesting" (p. 278). Students could think about what that means. Then, one person could role play an interview with a pair of Omelas citizens about these concepts.

How does the author see sexual desire in the community of Omelas? What does she say about the offspring of "these delightful rituals" (p. 279)? Why does Omelas have religion but no clergy? Why does the author picture the people of Omelas without guilt? What role do "shoulds" play in this society?

Describe feelings about the scene (room) "In the basement under one of the beautiful public buildings of Omelas, or perhaps in the cellar of one of its spacious private homes" (p. 281) where the single child is so horribly treated. Compare personal feelings to those of the citizens of Omelas.

The author says, "They [the citizens of Omelas] know that it [the child] has to be there. Some of them understand why, and some do not, but they all understand their happiness, the beauty of their city, the tenderness of their friendship, the health of their children, the wisdom of their scholars, the skill of their makers, even the abundance of their harvest and the kindly weathers of their skies, depends wholly on this child's abominable misery" (p. 282). Can students think of analogies in society where a similar scene might appear? Or where and when a case could be made for a similar action?

Discuss the citizens' reluctance "to throw away the happiness of thousands for the chance of the happiness of one" (p. 282). How would Mill and Rawls react to this paradox? The same or differently? Explain. Suppose more children are being tortured. Is five a number that citizens can still tolerate? How many children have to be tortured before all students in the class would walk away from Omelas? How many might Mill or Rawls say? Think of similar dilemmas faced by persons today.

Describe the kinds of persons, young or old, whom you think walk down the street alone, keep walking, and walk straight out of the city of Omelas. Students could role play an interview with one or two of them about their thoughts as they are leaving, and after they have been gone for a few days or months.

Conclusions

Introducing philosophical theories about ethics and fictional ethical problems can help students clarify their own thinking on these issues. Three possibilities for both ethical theories and literature pieces are presented here; many others abound.

Most students come with their own feelings and ideas about the concepts, but few have questioned them. Being able to do so can strengthen their own ideas as well as enabling them to better express them to others.

The use of stories to learn about family relations, communication, and other (FACS) related topics is possible at any educational level as long as the appropriate stories, such as, children's stories, adult novels, are chosen. The examples given here were visualized as part of an 11th or 12th grade family living course or an early college level course on family issues.

The use of stories in a variety of ways to educate students has been documented elsewhere (e.g., Rose, 1995; Siegel, 1997; Sponheim, 1997). Because stories allow students to practice the skills of reasoning from a point of view that does not have to be labeled their own, fiction provides an excellent way of helping students and teachers expand their thinking about ethical issues. In addition, work with stories can facilitate practice in the skills of reading and writing.

It is sometimes easy to condemn others for past atrocities, but stories allow students to get into real situations themselves. What would they do? Students can learn more about the situations and characters described through the use of questions and being able to dialogue with each other. Fiction allows them, maybe even forces them, to use their imagination, a skill often not developed to the fullest as so much is shown now in living color on television. Developing their own scenes, character portrayals, and in some cases outcomes is a superior exercise in critical thinking about ethical issues related to family life.

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IRREGULAR CERTIFICATION: A POTENTIAL SOLUTION TO THE CRITICAL SHORTAGE OF FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES EDUCATION TEACHERS

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The purpose of this study was to determine factors which influenced irregular certification students' achievement of their family and consumer sciences teaching certification. The subjects were non-traditional female students who were typically 30 years of age or older. The majority had degrees in family and consumer sciences, although not in education; however, over half were already teaching secondary family and consumer sciences full-time. Respondents reported difficulty in scheduling the college classes required for teaching certification and therefore felt flexible course scheduling was extremely important. Particularly appealing to them were compressed courses offered in two- or three-week sessions, especially during the summer. Evening, correspondence, and independent study courses were also desirable. Respondents were also encouraged by enthusiastic, helpful, understanding faculty; acceptance of appropriate community college or continuing education credit; courses offered off-campus, more convenient to their homes; college credit for prior life experiences; and support from administrators at their local schools.

There is a critical shortage of qualified secondary family and consumer sciences (FACS) teachers for North Carolina public schools, as well as other public schools in the nation. A recent national supply and demand study reported North Carolina as one of the top four states in need of large numbers of FACS teachers by the year 2000 (Miller & Meszaros, 1996). North Carolina Department of Public of Instruction consultants anticipated a shortage of 500 secondary FACS teachers over the next five years (Payne, 1995). Family and consumer sciences education enrollments in North Carolina secondary programs continue to increase, due in part to the implementation of block scheduling. As more middle and high school students enroll in FACS courses, the dilemma of finding sufficient numbers of qualified FACS teachers poses critical problems for school administrators.

In the past, the majority of secondary FACS sciences teachers in North Carolina were supplied from family and consumer sciences education undergraduate programs at state universities. However, Miller and Meszaros (1996) reported that the total undergraduate enrollment in FACS education programs in 1993 in the United States was 2,088, while the demand for FACS teachers was 7,903. The nation wide trend of lower FACS undergraduate enrollments was characteristic of North Carolina enrollments, as well. Fewer than 25 FACS education students graduated from North Carolina collegiate programs during each of the 1995-96 and 1996-97 academic years, numbers which will never provide the 500 teachers needed by the early 2000's. State consultants anticipated that some secondary FACS programs in North Carolina will be closed in the near future if qualified family and consumer sciences teachers were not located.

A potential solution to address the critical need for FACS education teachers is the irregular certification process, as it is called at the author's institution, through which individuals with bachelor's degrees become certified to teach FACS at the secondary level. At other institutions, the irregular process might also be called "alternative certification" or "lateral entry," but in this study is referred to as the process of completing the undergraduate requirements for FACS teaching certification. It does not involve the option of working toward a Master's degree while obtaining that certification.

Recently, substantial numbers of individuals have indicated significant interest in becoming certified to teach FACS education. While these individuals may be an excellent source of secondary FACS teachers, they are typically non-traditional students, and, therefore, present a challenge to teacher educators who facilitate the irregular certification process.

These students are likely to be 25 years of age or older and have a family, job, and other obligations which must be considered as well as their educational pursuits (Woodruff & Mollise, 1995). Therefore, they need programs that respond to their particular needs and provide services that are easily accessible (Coughlan, Rounds, & Scriber, 1993).

The literature suggests several practices which facilitate adult learners' achievements of their educational goals. Convenient course scheduling, which takes into account the limited time of adult students, is one important consideration (Culver, 1993; Davis, 1994; Kasworm, 1993; Woodruff & Mollise, 1995). Whereas traditionally scheduled daytime courses often hinder adults who work during the day or must travel a substantial distance to attend class (Cross, 1981), flexible course scheduling can complement adults' work schedules and still provide effective learning experiences (Caskey, 1994). Alternative course formats may include evening classes, week-end classes, and compressed-format courses such as two-week summer sessions.

Awarding credit for previous life and work experiences can be an effective tool for facilitating adults' return to higher education and the achievement of their teaching certification (Culver, 1993; Davis, 1994; Kasworm, 1993). Through mechanisms such as portfolio assessment, returning students are afforded the opportunity

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*This research was supported by a grant from the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction.

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to receive credit for relevant and appropriate learning and work experiences. Not only does this enable the student to complete a degree or certification requirements more quickly, but it also integrates workplace learning with the college curriculum.

Opportunities for completion of course credits through correspondence and independent study can also facilitate adults' achievements of their educational goals (Culver, 1993; Kasworm, 1993). Such courses are most successful when they are not "carbon copies" of the traditional undergraduate course offering but instead are based on the andragogical model (adult learning model) which recognizes the value of adult life experiences and the fact that adults are self-directed with their learning. Therefore, individual study and correspondence courses could be designed to connect the adult learners' workplace and college curriculum.

Additional factors which may facilitate adults' attainment of their educational goals include support from faculty and staff, admissions and registration policies which support adult access, distance education, and innovative instructional strategies (Carpenter, 1992; Davis, 1994; Kasworm, 1993; Rountree & Lambert, 1992; Swenson, 1995).

The preceding discussion has centered on desirable program features which facilitate adults' return to higher education and the attainment of their teaching certification. Frequently, however, non-traditional students encounter barriers which hinder their progress. For example, they are expected to attend traditionally scheduled classes which are geared to the 18-23-year-old student who can fully focus on being a student. Individuals who aspire to obtain their FACS teaching certification face challenges. Many are already in the classroom teaching FACS with a temporary certificate. Therefore, their access to traditionally scheduled required college classes is limited. Their time for travel to the university is also a problem. In addition, they typically receive no credit for their previous life experiences as they struggle to manage work, parental, and student roles. What can be done to facilitate their attainment of their FACS teaching certification?

Purpose

In view of the severe shortage of FACS teachers, there is a critical need to determine factors which enhance and hinder the certification process, in order to assist non-traditional students in obtaining their FACS teaching certification. The purpose of this research study was to determine factors which influenced irregular certification students' achievement of their FACS teaching certification. Specific objectives included the following:

(1) To identify primary reasons irregular certification students seek FACS teaching certification

(2) To identify factors which encourage irregular certification students in obtaining their FACS teacher certification.

(3) To identify factors which hinder irregular certification students in obtaining their FACS teacher certification.

Methodology

The target population for this study was individuals in North Carolina who were seeking their FACS teaching certification through the irregular certification. To identify these individuals, teacher educators at each of the seven North Carolina FACS education programs were contacted for the names and addresses of their irregular certification students. From these sources, 84 individuals were identified as actively seeking their FACS teaching certification through the irregular certification process and comprised the sample for this study.

Selected FACS irregular certification students were contacted and interviewed concerning reasons for their desire to achieve their teaching certification, as well as factors which encouraged and hindered them in obtaining that certification. With that information, and a review of the literature, a survey instrument was developed. A panel of educators reviewed the instrument, and their suggestions were incorporated.

The Irregular Family and Consumer Sciences Certification Survey consisted of four sections. Section one requested demographic information, including gender, age, undergraduate degree, and employment status in relation to teaching. Individuals were also asked to identify their primary reason for seeking FACS teaching certification.

Section two asked individuals to rate the extent to which various factors encouraged them to pursue their FACS teaching certification, while section three asked them to rate the extent to which various factors hindered them. These sections consisted of a listing of factors to which individuals responded using a five-point Likert scale which ranged from "1" (little, if any encouragement) to "5" (a great encouragement) in section two, and "1" (little, if any hindrance) to "5" (a great hindrance) in section three. Section four contained two open-ended questions: "What would or does most encourage, motivate, and/or enable you to obtain your family and consumer sciences teaching certification?" and "What would or does most hinder you in obtaining your family and consumer sciences teaching certification?" Additional comments were also requested.

The survey was mailed in October, 1996 to the 84 individuals who were identified as seeking FACS teaching certification through the irregular certification process. Follow-up questionnaires were mailed to non-respondents in November, 1996.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe respondents' characteristics, as well as their ratings of factors which had encouraged and discouraged them in obtaining their FACS teaching certification. Open-ended questions and comments were analyzed for additional descriptive information.

Results

Characteristics of Sample

Questionnaires were returned by 42 of the 84 members of the sample for a response rate of 50%. All of the respondents in this study were female (Table 1). Most were 30-49 years of age (79%), while eight (19%) were in their 20's and one was older than 50.

Of the 42 respondents, 26 (62%) had completed an undergraduate degree in FACS, though not in FACS education, while 15 (36%) had completed their undergraduate degrees in other programs. One respondent was currently completing another FACS undergraduate program while simultaneously taking a few courses to obtain teaching certification. Twenty-four (57%) of the respondents were teaching full-time, while three (7%) were teaching part-time. Eight (19%) reported they were working full- or part-time but were not teaching, while three (7%) were unemployed.

Table 1

Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percent*
Gender		
Female	42	100
Male	0	0
Age		
20-29 years	8	19
30-39	17	41
40-49	16	38
50-59	1	2
Undergraduate Degree		
In family & consumer sciences	26	62
Not in family & consumer sciences	15	36
Other	1	2
Current teaching status		
Teaching full-time	24	57
Teaching part-time	3	7
Working full-time, but not teaching	6	14
Working part-time, but not teaching	2	5
Unemployed	3	7
Other	4	10

*Unequal to 100% due to missing cases.

When asked for the primary reason they were seeking or considering FACS teaching certification, most of the individuals responded that certification would provide them the opportunity for a new career (48%) (Table 2). Eight (19%) reported that self-satisfaction was their primary reason for seeking certification, while five (12%) mentioned that obtaining certification and securing a teaching position would result in working hours more conducive to family life. Only two (5%) mentioned "higher pay" as their primary reason for seeking FACS teaching certification. Seven mentioned other reasons for seeking their teaching certification, most related to requirements necessary for retaining their present positions.

Table 2

Respondents' Primary Reasons for Seeking Family and Consumer Sciences Teaching Certification

Reason	Frequency	Percent*
Opportunity for a new career	20	48
Satisfaction of receiving teaching certification	8	19
Opportunity for work hours more conducive to family life	5	12
Opportunity for high pay	2	5
Other	7	17

Factors Influencing Respondents' Certification Decisions

Using a 5-point Likert scale, respondents ranked the extent to which various factors encouraged them in obtaining their FACS teaching certification (1= little, if any, encouragement; 5=a great encouragement). Their responses are provided in Table 3. Factors ranked as most encouraging by respondents included the following: enthusiastic, helpful, understanding faculty (mean=4.67); courses offered in compressed 2- or 3-week sessions, typically during the summer (mean=4.41); acceptance of community college or continuing education credit (mean=4.33); courses offered off-campus, more convenient to home (mean=4.24); correspondence or independent study courses (mean=4.19); evening classes offered by universities (mean=4.17); college credit for prior life experiences (mean=4.12); and encouragement from school administrators and/or supervisors at work (mean=4.10). Less influential were opportunities for electronic correspondence with other students (mean=3.00); opportunities for electronic correspondence with instructors (mean=3.38); and opportunities for collaboration with other certification-only students (mean=3.43).

Respondents also used a 5-point Likert scale to rank the extent to which various factors hindered them in obtaining their FACS teaching certification (1= little, if any, hindrance; 5=a great hindrance). Those responses are listed in Table 4. Factors reported to hinder respondents most in obtaining their FACS teaching certification included their inability to attend university classes which were scheduled during the day and their work hours (mean=4.48); distance from the certification program/university (mean=4.10); and lack of time to pursue studies (mean=4.00). Additional factors which discouraged respondents were the financial costs associated with teaching certification (mean=3.93); work responsibilities (mean=3.82); and family responsibilities (mean=3.78). Reported as less of a hindrance were respondents' lack of personal desire to acquire their teaching certification (mean=1.75) and lack of support from their families (1.82).

When asked in an open-ended question what one factor most encouraged, motivated, and/or enabled them to obtain their FACS teaching certification, respondents most frequently answered "enjoyment of their present FACS teaching

Table 3

Mean Values of Factors Encouraging Respondents to Obtain FACS Teaching Certification

Factor	Mean*
Enthusiastic, helpful, understanding faculty	4.67
Courses offered in compressed 2- or 3-week sessions, typically during the summer	4.41
Acceptance of appropriate community college or continuing education credit	4.33
Courses offered off-campus, more convenient to your home	4.24
Correspondence or independent study courses	4.19
Evening classes offered by universities	4.17
College credit for prior life experiences	4.12
Encouragement from school administrators and/or supervisors at work	4.10
Innovative course work and instructional methods	3.93
Release time from work to attend university classes	3.80
Instructional methods which encourage self-direction and reflection	3.67
Week-end classes offered by universities	3.64
Opportunities for collaboration with other certification-only students	3.43
Opportunities for electronic correspondence with instructors	3.38
Opportunities for electronic correspondence with other students	3.00

*Scale: 1=Little, if any, encouragement; 5=A great encouragement.

Table 4

Mean Values of Factors Hindering Respondents in Obtaining FACS Teaching Certification

Factor	Mean*
Inability to attend university classes which are scheduled during the day and work hours	4.48
Distance from the certification program/university	4.10
Time to pursue studies	4.00
Financial costs	3.93
Work responsibilities	3.82
Family responsibilities	3.78
Amount of course work required to achieve FACS teaching certification	3.51
Support from school administrators and/or work supervisors	2.23
Lack of support from my family	1.82
Lack of personal drive/desire	1.75

*Scale: 1=Little, if any, hindrance; 5=A great hindrance.

positions" (29%) or "personal drive" (17%). When asked what one factor most hindered them, respondents most frequently answered "distance to campus" (29%), "time for studies" (17%), and "classes inconveniently scheduled during work hours" (14%). Additional comments made by respondents are discussed in the following section.

Discussion and Recommendations

The subjects in this study were non-traditional female students who were typically 30 years of age or older. Two-thirds were actively working on their FACS teaching certification, while one-third had inquired about the process. The majority had degrees in FACS, although not in FACS education; however, over half were already teaching secondary FACS full-time.

In general, these respondents reflected the typical non-traditional learner as they juggled families, jobs, and educational demands. For half of these respondents, achieving their FACS teaching certification would offer opportunities for a new career that would better complement their family lives. Several of those already teaching FACS noted positive impacts their new position had made on their present family life and therefore were driven to complete the necessary certification requirements which would allow them to retain their temporary positions.

Although comments from the majority of those already teaching FACS full-time indicated they enjoyed their new positions, some appeared to be overwhelmed by the demands of teaching, family, and completion of certification requirements. As one noted, "I am teaching full-time, catering on the side, and assisting my husband . . . This [certification program] may prove to be more than I can handle. I have three small children and will not do this at their expense."

The challenge of balancing several roles was further aggravated by the traditional course delivery systems utilized by most universities. Respondents reported difficulty in scheduling the college classes required for teaching certification as most were typically offered during their work days; few were offered during the late afternoons or evenings. This posed a problem not only for those who were already teaching secondary FACS, but also for respondents who were employed in other areas, especially as many had to commute long distances to campus for their classes. Respondents frequently reported having 20 to 70-mile, one-way drives to campus, while one reported having a 2½-hour, one-way drive to a campus.

With such demands and circumstances, it is not surprising that the individuals in this study felt flexible course scheduling of college classes was extremely important. Particularly appealing to them were compressed courses offered in two- or three-week sessions, most likely during the summer. Correspondence and independent study courses, as well as classes offered during the evenings, were also desirable. Less appealing were week-end courses. While some contend that alternatively scheduled, time-compressed courses compromise academic standards due to time constraints (Pollack, 1984), Woodruff and Mollise (1995) conclude from their study that such scheduling does not disadvantage students and in fact is a viable solution for accommodating non-traditional students.

Because of non-academic priorities such as jobs and family responsibilities, traditionally scheduled, day-time classes may not be an option for most FACS irregular certification students. Therefore, FACS teacher educators who facilitate the irregular certification process should consider alternative delivery systems for the courses they teach and encourage other faculty members to do the same. This may include offering some courses during the late afternoons or evenings, as well as during teachers' summer breaks. It may also include offering courses in time-compressed formats and as independent studies, or directing students to programs which have developed such course offerings. For example, the University of Kentucky offers five FACS content courses as correspondence study courses. With recent technological advances, FACS teacher educators should also consider developing courses which could be offered on-line to students, as well as corresponding electronically with students.

A frequent theme among several respondents' comments was their dissatisfaction with the amount of course work required to obtain FACS teaching certification. For those with an undergraduate degree in FACS other than education (such as clothing and textiles or housing and interior design), respondents typically needed 30-35 semester hours to obtain teaching certification; for those with degrees outside FACS sciences, several more course hours were required. These requirements generally included 12 hours of student teaching which were frequently waived for those already teaching upon the receipt of satisfactory teaching evaluations from a school administrator. Even so, respondents tended to feel they were required to take too many courses for certification and particularly disliked having to take lower level content courses which had not been required for the major they had completed. For example one respondent with an undergraduate degree in history felt that since she had married and cared for her family and three children, she should not be required to complete courses in nutrition and child development. Others expressed that their successful teaching of secondary FACS courses, for which they had no college preparation, indicated ample proficiency in those areas, and, therefore, related college course work should be waived for them.

Comments such as these indicate the need for improved communication between irregular certification students and teacher educators who facilitate the irregular certification process. Perhaps there are instances when irregular certification students have achieved certain competencies through their life experiences and, therefore, need not complete the typical required course work. When this can be clearly documented, students should be given credit for those competencies and not be required to complete needless course work. At the same time, life experiences alone do not necessarily equate to students' achievement of competencies. In such cases, students should complete required courses to obtain the required level of competence. Hopefully clear communication between irregular certification students and teacher educators can appropriately facilitate those determinations.

Family and consumer sciences teacher educators, other faculty, and state personnel must continue to clarify the term "irregular certification" in order to minimize misconceptions. One respondent reported being offended by being referred to as "irregular" as she described herself as "one of the most regularly dedicated individuals who works in the North Carolina school system!" Perhaps using the term "lateral entry" might be just as effective as "irregular certification" and yet less offensive.

Finally, these respondents viewed enthusiastic, helpful, understanding faculty as the factor which most encouraged them to obtain their FACS teaching certification. While this can be perceived by teacher educators as complimentary, there seemed to be an expectation among these respondents that the university, rather than their local school systems, should take the lead in facilitating the irregular certification process. For example, respondents requested that universities and FACS departments offer evening and summer classes, as well as independent studies, provide classes locally, and award credit for prior life experiences. Yet their comments provided no indication that they were willing to ask their local school systems for release time to attend classes and complete certification requirements. The tone of some comments indicated the absence of a sense of empowerment, perhaps resulting from a lack of preparation for their present teaching assignments or a lack of understanding regarding their roles as professionals. It is imperative that such teachers begin working immediately on their educational requirements, thus building their competence and sense of empowerment and enabling them to provide effective learning environments for students. Teacher educators and state consultants must insist that irregular certification students gain the cooperation of their local school administrators as they pursue their FACS teaching certification. The irregular certification process must be jointly facilitated by both the university and the local school system.

Based upon the results of this study, the following recommendations are offered.

1. Family and consumer sciences teacher educators who facilitate the irregular certification process, as well as other faculty, should consider utilizing alternative delivery systems for their courses, particularly in time-compressed two- and three-week summer sessions. Such offerings will facilitate course completion by students who are already teaching secondary FACS full-time and must commute a substantial distance to campus.
2. Faculty should consider offering independent studies when appropriate, integrating this instruction with students' present teaching assignments when possible. Relating course work to students' specific situations should enhance students' academic experiences by offering innovative, relevant learning opportunities.
3. Effective communication systems should be established between irregular certification students and faculty, especially FACS teacher educators who facilitate the irregular certification process. In order to facilitate rapport and prevent misunderstandings, such communication is especially crucial if courses are offered through alternative delivery systems. One potentially

cost-effective means for maintaining contact with irregular certification students is through electronic correspondence.

4. When appropriate, irregular certification students should be given credit for prior life experiences. When it can be clearly documented that students have achieved desired competencies, related course work required for FACS teaching certification should be waived.
5. Universities and local school systems must work together to facilitate the irregular certification process for those who are simultaneously teaching and completing certification requirements. This may include the university's willingness to offer courses through alternative delivery systems when appropriate, as well as local administrators' cooperating with teachers to enable them to attend university classes when necessary.

In light of the present critical shortage of FACS teachers, the irregular certification process provides a potential means for supplying needed secondary FACS teachers. However, for most successful results, teacher educators and other university faculty, irregular certification students and local school administrators must work together to enhance students' achievement of their FACS teaching certification.

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CAREER CHOICE DECISIONS OF FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES EDUCATION RECENT GRADUATES: RECRUITMENT IMPLICATIONS

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This study examined career motivations of recent graduates of family and consumer sciences (FACS) teacher licensure programs in 14 southern states to determine target audience and marketing strategies for recruitment to address the teacher shortage. Differences between first and second career graduates were included. A survey instrument developed by Serow (1994) was adapted for use in this study. The average age of respondents was 30. Forty-three percent indicated teaching as a second career and a total of 31% of the respondents were currently not teaching. Interest in FACS subject matter, enjoyment of working with young people, interest in families, helping people, professional satisfaction, and creativity were the reasons most often given as influencing career choice decisions. Cluster analysis of graduates' responses on career choice factors revealed five groupings. The five groups were those influenced by: (a) altruism, (b) interest, flexibility, and variety of career, (c) secondary school experience, (d) social consciousness and friendships, and (e) college experience.

Several studies have been conducted in recent years both at state and national levels that indicate a family and consumer sciences (formerly home economics) teacher shortage in secondary schools (Jackman & Rehm, 1994; McInnis, 1992; Miller & Meszaros, 1996; Mimbs, 1995; Morse, 1988). The current and future need for teachers is so great that the Family and Consumer Sciences Education Division of the American Vocational Association (AVA) held a pre-conference session in November 1995 to address the teacher shortage crisis and recruitment strategies. The session participants recommended the collection of data that would provide a descriptive profile of recent graduates. The purpose would be to identify recruitment audiences to target.

Purposes and Research Questions

The purposes of the study were to examine career motivations of recent graduates of family and consumer sciences (FACS) teacher education programs and to determine target audiences for marketing and recruitment strategies. The critical issues addressed in this research project were focused around the following five research questions:

1. What personal, educational, and employment demographics characterize recent graduates of FACS teacher education programs?
2. What factors influenced graduates to choose teacher certification for their career preparation?
3. What factors influenced graduates to choose FACS as a teaching discipline?
4. At what stage(s) in their personal, family, and work lives did graduates make their career choice decisions to prepare for teacher certification in FACS?
5. How do the demographics, career choice factors, and life stage factors differ between those graduates who identified their teacher certification preparation as their first career and those for whom it was a second career?

Persons choosing teaching as a career are influenced by a variety of motivational factors. Determining which factors most influenced the recent graduates' career choices may help address the teacher shortage. Identifying the factors will help FACS teacher educators, administrators, and others in determining a target recruitment audience. As career choice decisions are not made in a vacuum, it is necessary to examine other motivational factors such as personal values, attitudes, and beliefs, and the influence of others. In addition, life-stages, and family circumstances also affect career choice.

Related Literature

A key motivational factor for choosing teaching as a career, identified from a profile study of new educators, was the desire to improve their lives and the lives of their students (Berg, 1992). Su (1993) indicated intrinsic rewards over extrinsic rewards as an important motivation for entering the teaching profession. Being empowered by ideals was characteristic of those choosing teaching as a career. Others have also found intrinsic rewards to be more important than extrinsic ones for career motivations of teachers (Daniel & Ferrel, 1991; Marso & Pigge, 1994; Serow, 1993). This may be described as wanting to help people. This was a common motivation for those seeking careers in teaching. It was described as "caring" by Powell and Weaver (1993).

An additional career influence for choosing to become a teacher was through the example of others. These examples included their own teachers and family members who were teachers (Bullough, 1989). A recurring theme, found through the National Study of Educators, was the effect of the students' positive socialization by their own teachers as a strong influence (Su, 1993). Kidder (1989), for example, described a teacher who was inspired by a former teacher and who continually inspired her own students. Some chose teaching as a way to "give back" to those teachers who helped them (Bogue, 1991).

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In a study of 377 preservice education students, influences of other people including former teachers and family members were found to be the significant motivations for choosing teaching as a career (Marso & Pigge, 1994). Family was shown to be an influence for most of those who chose teaching as a career in the study by Su (1993). Some women also indicated their own state of motherhood became an influence as they felt teaching tied well to a mothering role, and some felt they could teach better than the teachers in their own children's schools (Su, 1993). Vincenti (1993) noted females traditionally have been and continue to be the primary caretakers of the multiple household and family responsibilities. A career in teaching fits daily and year round schedules of the school age child and is more compatible for those teachers who are parents, compared with most other careers.

Method

Subjects

The population for this study consisted of graduates of family and consumer sciences (FACS) teacher education and licensure programs from academic years 1992 through 1995 in fourteen southern states designated as Regions 2 and 4 by the American Vocational Association (AVA). The states in Region 2 are Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, North and South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. The states in Region 4 are Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. Names and addresses of graduates were obtained from teacher-education institutions that have a family and consumer sciences teacher-education and licensure program in Regions 2 and 4. Names and addresses of the teacher educators were obtained from the 1993-94 National Directory of the Home Economics Division of AVA (Weis & Pomraning, 1993). A teacher educator at each of the 92 institutions was asked to submit names and the most current addresses available for graduates. Seven of these responded that their programs had closed and 39 others did not respond to the request. Names and addresses for a total of 494 graduates were obtained from the 46 institutions that responded to the request. After the invalid returns were accounted for, 396 graduates made up the total sample.

The states in this study represent about a third of the total number of graduates and enrollment of preservice teachers in FACS education nationally. A total of 541 bachelor's degrees were awarded in FACS education in all schools of FACS in the United States in 1991-92 as reported by the Food and Agricultural Education System (FAEIS, 1993). Of those, the 224 degrees awarded in FACS education in institutions in the 14 states in this study, constituted about 41% of the total degrees granted (FAEIS, 1993). For fall 1995, the institutions that participated in this study had an enrollment of 449 students, about 31% of 1452, which was the total national baccalaureate enrollment in FACS teacher education (FAEIS, 1996).

Survey Procedures

A survey instrument developed by Serow (1994) was adapted for use in this study. Serow examined the career decision factors and personal values of preservice teacher-education students. The survey instrument for this study had three parts. The first part of the survey, modeled after Serow's instrument, asked graduates to indicate which career decision factors and personal values influenced their choices of teaching as a career. Respondents were directed to indicate three of the factors and three of the values that influenced them. Possible factors influencing choice of FACS as a teaching discipline, and whether teaching was their first full-time career were added. If teaching was their second full-time career, graduates were asked to indicate their first career and length of time in that career. A question asking when graduates made their initial career decision was also included. The second part of the survey instrument was designed to gather employment data such as type of teaching position or description of other occupation if not teaching, and satisfaction with their current position. The third section was designed to obtain personal demographic data. The sections as described above are similar to those used in other studies that examined career choice motivations for teachers (Marso & Pigge, 1994; Serow, 1994; Sweeney, et al 1990; Su, 1993). In addition, Serow's (1994) testing of the survey items over a 10-week interval with a sub-sample population produced a .50 average test-retest reliability.

The survey instrument was field-tested with eight graduates of a FACS licensure program at a large land-grant university in the southeast to determine the clarity of the survey instrument and test the procedure for data collection. These graduates were from the academic years 1989 through 1991, the three years prior to those used for this study. Minor adaptations to the instrument were made upon recommendations from field test participants and from two teacher educators who reviewed the survey. These adaptations included clarifying the wording of some of the questions and improving the visual design and layout of the survey.

Three mailings of the survey and two reminder postcards were sent from May to August 1996 and resulted in a total of 262 useable responses. This was a 66% response rate.

Data Analysis

Primary analyses for the respondent characteristics were frequency distributions, and for the career decision factors were frequency distributions, chi square, and cluster analysis. The .o5 level was used for all tests of significance. The cluster analysis identified categories of respondents based on factors influencing the decision to seek teacher certification for career choice, factors influencing FACS as a field of study, and personal values that influenced career choice. In addition, career choice motivations and group profiles based on responses to career choice factors are discussed and first and second career graduate responses are compared.

Findings

Respondents were asked to indicate if teaching was their first full-time career and if not what that career was. In addition, they were asked to indicate how long they were in their previous career and whether or not they were a full-time homemaker or parent before seeking a teaching career. Personal, educational, and employment data of first and second career respondents were compared (See Table 1). There were 113 second career graduates, which was 43% of the sample. While 85% of the first career responders were under 30, only 42% of those in their second career were in this age group.

Table 1

Differences Between First and Second Career Graduates on Selected Personal, Educational, and Employment Demographics

Selected Demographics	Percent of Respondents	
	First Career (n=149)	**Second Career (n=113)**
Age		
Under 30	85	42
31-40	6	27
41-50	8	27
> 50	<1	4
Type of Certification Program		
Bachelor's	95	80
Post Bachelor's	3	12
5th Year	0	3
Master's	2	4
Other	0	1
When Career Decision Was Made		
While in College	60	45
While in Secondary School	27	15
After Work in Another Occup.	3	30
After Bachelor's	7	5
Other	3	5
Satisfaction of Career Choice*		
Very Satisfied	54	54
Somewhat Satisfied	37	32
Somewhat Dissatisfied	6	12
Very Dissatisfied	3	2

*Three persons did not respond to this question

The initial careers reported by the second career respondents were varied. The largest number (n = 19) had careers in the category of retailing, marketing, and sales, followed closely by the category of secretarial, office management, bookkeeping, and related jobs (n = 17). A third group (n = 15) indicated time spent in a cooperative extension career. Length of time in previous careers was also varied. Of those who marked this item on the survey (n = 97), 27 persons were in their first careers from 2 to 4 years, with 23 persons indicating 9 to 19 years. There were 29% of the respondents who indicated they chose to teach after being a full-time homemaker and/or parent. Forty-one percent of second career graduates fell into this group, while only 20% of first career graduates did.

Most graduates completed their certification in a bachelor' degree program. However, of those who completed a different type of program, more were second career graduates.

Graduates were asked to indicate when they made their initial decision to pursue teacher certification in FACS. Only 27% of first career and 15% of second career respondents made their decision while in middle or high school. The majority of first career respondents (60%) made their decision while in college. As would be expected, more of the second career respondents made their decision to prepare for teaching after working in another occupation (See Table 1).

Another question asked respondents to report their job satisfaction with their current career choice. Of both the first and second career respondents, 54% of each indicated that they were very satisfied with their career choice (See Table 1).

In addition to demographic information, respondents were asked to indicate factors influencing their decision to seek teacher certification, factors influencing choice of FACS as a field of study, and personal values influencing their career decision. The factor most often chosen as influencing graduates' career decisions to seek teacher certification was "I like working with young people," followed by "The schedule is attractive," "The example of my own teachers inspired me," "I like helping people," and "I feel that teaching is my calling in life." The factor which was chosen the least by graduates as an influence on their choice to seek teacher certification was "My fellowship/scholarship required it."

The reason most often indicated for influencing choice of FACS as a field of study was "I am interested in FACS subject matter." This was followed by "I want to help families," and "My secondary FACS teacher(s) influenced me." It is interesting to note that although secondary FACS teachers influenced career choice, the factor least often chosen to affect graduates' career decision to choose FACS subject area was "my high school counselor influenced me."

The value most often indicated by graduates as influencing choice of teaching as a career was "helping other people," followed closely by "family," "professional satisfaction," and "creativity." The values which received the fewest number of responses were "material comfort and wealth" and "recognition from others."

Because 43% of respondents chose teaching as a second career, it was important to determine if their responses to career choice factors differed significantly from those who chose teaching as their first career. Regarding the factors, which influenced graduates' decisions to become a teacher, chi square statistics showed significance only on "The example of my own teachers inspired me." This was chosen significantly more often by first career graduates than by second career graduates (See Table 2). Second career graduates more often indicated "attractiveness of teaching schedule" than first career graduates.

First career graduates chose "My secondary FACS teacher(s) influenced me,"

Table 2

Differences Between First and Second Career Graduates on Influencing Factors for Seeking Teacher Certification

Influencing Factor	**Percent of Respondents**			
	First Career	**Second Career**	**x^2**	**p**
I like working with young people.	63	58	.75	.39
My own teachers' example inspired me.	42	20	14.32	.00***
The schedule is attractive.	40	50	2.77	.10
I like helping people.	36	31	.80	.37
I feel that teaching is my calling in life.	28	31	.27	.60
Teachers can bring about social change.	27	27	.00	.10
Family members were teachers.	19	17	.16	.69
Teaching is a relatively secure job.	15	17	.23	.63
Teaching is a job I can fall back on.	12	15	.52	.47
Other	10	17	2.71	.10
I needed a major and this was available.	3	3	.00	.94
My fellow/scholar-ship required it.	1	2	.62	.43

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Table 3

Differences Between First and Second Career Graduates on Influencing Factors for Choosing Family and Consumer Sciences

Influencing Factor	**Percent of Respondents**			
	First Career	**Second Career**	**x^2**	**p**
Interested in FACS subject matter	84	85	.04	.84
Secondary FACS teacher(s) influenced me	45	24	11.73	.00***
Want to help families	42	51	2.15	.14
College instructors influenced me	27	22	.85	.36
Already in a FACS major and decided to be a teacher	22	27	.82	.37
Experience in FHA/HERO influenced me	21	10	5.60	.01**
Members of my family influenced me	13	11	.20	.66
Other	10	19	4.79	.03*
Friends influenced me.	8	8	.02	.90
Family member is/was a FACS teacher	8	5	59	.44
Participation in FACS professional organization(s) influenced me	6	4	.08	.67
Received scholarships or grants specifically for FACS education	5	2	1.83	.18
High school counselor influenced me	2	2	.04	.85

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

and "My experience in FHA/HERO influenced me," significantly more often than second career graduates in response to reasons for choosing FACS as a teaching subject. Second career graduates chose "others" significantly more than first career graduates. Some of the "other" reasons listed by the respondents included: "love the life skills it teaches," "my experience in 4-H or extension influenced me," "needed in schools (to teach) values, and morals," and "important job to teach teens for their future" (See Table 3).

When asked to identify values which influenced their career decisions, "friendship" was chosen significantly more often by first career graduates (See Table 4). Although not statistically significant, 10% more second career graduates indicated the values of "creativity" and "religion and spiritual fulfillment" than did first career graduates. There were no significant differences between first and second career graduates for any other factors. However, some distinct profiles of the respondents emerged through cluster analysis.

Table 4

Differences Between First and Second Career Graduates on Personal Values Which Influenced Decision to Seek Teacher Certification

Influencing Values	**Percent of Respondents**			
	First Career	**Second Career**	**x^2**	**p**
Helping other people	71	60	3.44	.06
Family	61	62	.05	.82
Professional satisfaction	55	54	.01	.94
Creativity	43	53	2.75	.10
Pleasure, new experiences	21	23	.16	.70
Religion, spiritual fulfillment	11	19	3.34	.07
Friendship	11	3	6.73	.01**
Working for peace, reconciliation	5	3	.29	.59
Other	4	4	.01	.94
Recognition from others	3	3	.15	.70
Social justice, equality	3	5	1.04	.31
Material comfort, wealth	2	5	1.89	.17

*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

Cluster analysis was used to identify groups of respondents by how they shared similar responses to the multiple career choice variables. This analysis established which variables distinguished groups of graduates from one another and whether specific profiles of graduates could be identified. Through the first stage of cluster analysis, three variables common to nearly all respondents were identified as "interest in FACS subject matter," "family," and "helping people." After accounting for these variables, the second stage of cluster analysis revealed five differentiated groups.

The following labels and descriptions were developed to describe the characteristics of the group profiles:

1. Altruistic (33% of respondents)- characterized by their willingness to help people, specifically, families and young people. They indicated that the teaching schedule was attractive, and they valued creativity and professional satisfaction. This group included 29% of the first career graduates and 40% of the second career graduates.
2. Interest, Flexibility, and Variety of Career (29% of respondents)- characterized by pleasure and new experiences. Twenty-five percent of first career graduates and 33% of second career graduates were in this group. They also indicated that attractiveness of teaching schedule, creativity and professional satisfaction were important.
3. Secondary School Experience (27% of respondents)- characterized by their enjoyment of working with young people, and the influences of their own teachers, FACS teachers, and FACS student organization experiences in secondary school. They also indicated that creativity and professional satisfaction were important influences on their career decision. Thirty-six percent of the first career graduates and 15% of second career graduates fell into this group.
4. Social Consciousness and Friendships (10% of respondents)- characterized by influence of friends and the feeling that teachers can bring about social change. They also indicated that the attractiveness of the schedule, enjoyment of working with young people, and professional satisfaction were important factors. Nine percent of first career graduates and 10% of second career graduates were in this group.
5. College Experience (1% of respondents)- this small fifth group included only three persons. These persons also indicated that their college instructors influenced them, they were already in a FACS major, their fellowship or scholarship required teaching, and they saw teaching as a job to fall back on. Less than 1% of first career and 2% of second career graduates were in this group.

Discussion

The data clearly provide evidence that persons who choose teaching as a career and FACS as a teaching field cannot be described as fitting one typical profile. There are two different groups to target for marketing and recruitment: those who select teaching as their first career, and those for whom it is a second career choice. The results of this study show differences between first and second career graduates on personal, educational, and employment demographics. The first career graduates were younger, had fewer children living in their homes, more often made their career decision in secondary school, were more likely to be currently teaching in secondary FACS programs, and were more active in professional organizations than second career graduates. Second career graduates more often financed their education through their own earnings and spousal support than first career graduates.

An overwhelming interest in and commitment to the importance of FACS subject matter strongly influenced both first and second career graduates' career choices. This may be related to the integrated nature of FACS. Although varied in foci, scope, and breadth of the discipline, a common theme was the well-being of individuals and families, as described in the Conceptual Framework for the 21st Century, "We believe in families as the fundamental social unit" (American Home Economics Association, 1994). It appears that the interest in the subject matter, combined with the recognition of the value of teaching FACS and how it helps young people and families, made the majority of respondents in this study satisfied with their career choice.

The factors most often chosen by respondents across all profiles as important influences generally reflected an altruistic motivation with a concern for families and helping people. This was similar to the findings from the National Study of Educators reported by Su (1993), which indicated intrinsic rewards as more important than extrinsic rewards for career motivation. The present study's findings support those found by Serow (1993, 1994). Nearly 70% indicated one of the reasons they chose teaching was because they wanted to help people. Study respondents' overwhelming interest in FACS subject matter, combined with the values of "helping other people" and "family" follows Serow's (1993) extenders and subject-oriented groupings. Many of the second career respondents with diverse first career backgrounds could be seen as rectifiers, and many also indicated an appreciation for the teaching schedule, which could be classified as practical (Serow, 1993).

A person's age, related to life-stages, as indicated by this study, seems to have made a difference in career choice motivations. One respondent wrote, "I believe you need to reach out to the age 30 to 50 women to enter into the FACS field. Women in this age group have begun to take a stand for principles and beliefs. They also have the fortitude to follow through." Several respondents indicated their career choice was a complement to their expectations of themselves as a parent and a homemaker.

Because of the increase in responsibilities for many women as they move further through the life span, it was not surprising to find a recognition of the flexibility of a teacher's work schedule as an important influence on career choice. This may be a result of gender role expectations and responsibilities, as 99% of respondents were female and 40% had children living in the home. Older, second career graduates indicated twice as often as first career graduates that their career choice decision was made after being a full-time homemaker or parent. Examples of the motivation described in the written comments of those who were teaching and balancing family responsibilities included: "the needs of my own children," "it's a job I could do and be home with the kids in the summer," "nurturing," "after years as a parent," and "natural place to go... homemaker and parent for 14 years." These comments verify the importance of the attractive schedule as a career motivation. They also indicate a need to nurture as a career motivation for teachers. This was also found in other studies (Bullough, Knowles, & Crow, 1992; Kidder, 1989).

Therefore, a career choice to teach FACS seems to be a natural fit for some respondents as it facilitates their own balancing of work and family responsibilities.

Over half of the second career graduates and almost one-third of the total respondents, although certified to teach, were currently not teaching. Given the national scope of the teacher shortage and the demand being much greater than the supply (Jackman & Rehm, 1994; McInnis, 1992; Miller & Meszaros, 1996; Mimbs, 1995), it was surprising to find that so many recent graduates were not teaching.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Developing strategies for recruiting FACS teachers to help address the teacher shortage will require two separate foci. The first is to recruit those persons who are seeking teaching as a second career. With 43% of respondents indicating this as a second career choice, and with the need to get teachers prepared quickly to address the teacher shortage, this should be the primary focus for short-term recruitment efforts. Many of these persons may already have a degree or some education toward a degree. Some may be working in related industries or businesses. Some may be homemakers and/or parents who value the flexibility of the teaching schedule and would like a career to help other families.

Another target group for recruitment of second career persons are those in FACS cooperative extension as 15 graduates indicated this as their first career. These persons already have a commitment to the FACS profession, most likely have similar educational preparation, and could be easily prepared for classroom teaching.

Timing for recruitment is also important. As this study shows, most graduates made their career choices while in college. Targeting students in college programs with majors related to the jobs they described as their first careers may be helpful. Additionally, as this study indicated, retailing, marketing, and sales were the types of first careers most often indicated by second career respondents, they would be another likely group to target. It is interesting to see that so many persons from a business-focused first career have chosen a family-focused second career. This may be a result of changes in their own personal life that makes teaching more appealing.

The second focus of recruitment efforts should be from more traditional paths, such as those represented by the cluster who were influenced by their secondary school experience. This finding supports those of the National Study of Educators, which indicated that socialization by their own teachers was an important influence (Su, 1993). This may be accomplished by strengthening recruitment efforts through current FACS teachers, programs, and student organizations.

A review of current recruitment programs and placement strategies would facilitate the development of more productive recruitment efforts. The teacher shortage and related impact this has on the profession and on the individuals and families it serves cannot be ignored. The modes of recruitment of the past, especially the core class requirements for colleges or departments of FACS, may need to be reexamined. As Moran (1993) suggested, there may be a need for an identifiable common body of knowledge for all students. The results of this study indicated that respondents had an interest in FACS subject matter and a commitment to helping families. Colleges of FACS and related disciplines have a concentrated number of possible candidates for recruitment into FACS teacher-certification programs. The results of this study clearly show that most FACS education graduates made their initial career choice while in college. Re-configuration of programs to allow easy access for students into certification programs might include add-on licensure. Some school districts have used retraining, or lateral movement for teachers, to provide qualified teachers more quickly in times of shortages (Ancarrow, 1991; Carr, 1995).

There is a national trend to move to fifth year or master's degree programs for teacher certification (Mimbs & Stout, 1997; Orr, Park, & Thompson, 1997). In times of serious teacher shortages, however, adaptations may need to be made including alternative means of certification. Fifth-year or master's degree programs provide opportunities for quick preparation for either second career graduates, who already have a related undergraduate degree, or for recent graduates of FACS programs. The disadvantage is that fifth year programs require a full time focus on coursework and clinical experience during the single year of preparation. Although bachelor's degree programs were most often indicated by recent graduates as the type of program through which they were certified, such degree programs typically have classes only in the daytime and may not be conducive to older, second-career graduates who have to support themselves and their families while getting a degree. This is especially difficult during the student teaching or internship experience, which typically includes a semester or even a full academic year of practice teaching without pay before receiving certification. This may be a considerable barrier to second career graduates with families.

Further research of a qualitative nature to determine why many recent graduates are not teaching may help FACS teacher educators and administrators develop placement and retention strategies. Such research might also facilitate development of better professional support and continuing education programs for new teachers and provide suggestions for alternative certification programs. Other suggestions for research include longitudinal studies of these graduates' career development over their life-span including career preparation; number of careers; job satisfaction; length of time in careers; and influences of personal, family, and life stage factors. In addition, research that seeks to identify reasons why some individuals who were formerly majors in FACS education later changed their majors may provide additional insight to career motivations.

In summary, based upon the outcomes of this study, specific recommendations for the field are: (a) development of focused recruitment plans marketed to specific target audiences, of individuals either in their first or second career, (b) development of a positive image of FACS at the secondary level, (c) development of alternative or adapted teacher education programs to be receptive to the needs of students seeking licensure, (d) further examination into why nearly one-third of recent graduates are not currently teaching, and (e) for new FACS educators, strengthening placement and retention efforts and providing on-going professional development so that their entry into the profession is positive and their experiences are successful and satisfying.

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ASSESSMENT OF NUTRITION EDUCATION OF SECONDARY TEXAS TEACHERS

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A statewide evaluation was conducted to: assess the knowledge, attitudes, and behavior of 8th and 11th grade teachers of nutrition; identify availability of and use of nutrition education resources by teachers; and to determine teachers' preferences for continuing education. Content validity was established by a two-phase Delphi technique. The research instrument was field-tested and revised. Teachers' scores on knowledge and food choices were identified. Their attitudes were also quantified. Resources to support nutrition education were identified and a high interest was reported for continuing education. The need for strengthening teacher preparation, certification and Family and Consumer Sciences Educators' involvement was addressed.

Childhood may be the optimal time to learn healthy eating habits and to establish good diet and exercise patterns for a lifetime. Yet, children seem to lack information and skills to practice healthy food choices for their well-being. Over the past half-century, the health profile of American children has shifted from threats of major infectious diseases to consumption excesses and imbalances of food components in their diets (USDHHS, 1991). To help children learn good eating habits that will continue into adulthood, nutrition education, at all levels of schooling, was found to be critical for improving the over-all health of Americans (National Research Council Committee on Diet and Health, 1989; Society for Nutrition Education, 1995; USDHHS, 1991). Effective nutrition education is of great importance, since it may prevent or delay premature chronic diseases. Families and policy makers look to schools and teachers to provide the learning

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This research was funded by the Texas Department of Human Services and the U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1992 - 1995.

environment for youth to increase their knowledge, form attitudes, and develop skills to plan, prepare, and select healthy foods (Crocket, & Sims, 1995; Woodson, Benedict, & Hill, 1995). Johnson and Johnson, (1985) however, stated that "nutrition education is qualitatively more complex than many other subject areas taught in schools. Besides the short-term mastery of facts and information, nutrition programs have to be concerned with the achievement of a wide variety of short-term and long-term goals" (p. 2).

School-based nutrition education was found to be an initiative in all states (USDA, 1990). In the USDHHS (1991) document Healthy People 2000, a goal was set for nutrition education to increase so that it was taught in at least 75% of all schools, preschool through 12th grade, in the United States. To reach this objective, quality school health education was needed. Quality programs are more likely to be achieved when qualified teachers, who are knowledgeable about nutrition, have access to references and resources (Woodson, et al., 1995) and demonstrate positive nutrition behaviors (Rutz, 1993). For quality programs, education teachers should be trained in nutrition education and in the criteria for selecting appropriate curricula and programs (Lytle & Achterberg, 1995).

Teacher preparation in nutrition education was likely to have positive outcomes for their attitudes, behaviors, and improved commitment to nutrition instruction (Contento, Manning, Shannon, 1992; Kalina, Phillips, & Mims, 1989; Rutz, 1993; USDA, 1991). Teachers likely to be responsible for subject matter that most directly addressed nutrition-related content included Family and Consumer Sciences (FACS), health, physical education, and science teachers (Woodson, et al., 1995). To prepare competent nutrition teachers, teacher certification and education was required. Although the requirement varied among states, 39 states required FACS teachers to take course work in nutrition.

A random sample of over 1300 secondary teachers reported that 8th grade students were most likely to be taught nutrition in health-physical education classes; 11th grade students were usually taught nutrition in a FACS classroom (O'Connell, Shannon & Sims, 1981). When a nutrition course competed with other academic courses in the scheduling process, teachers of nutrition reported that they favored nutrition education for students in junior and senior high. Another posture of nutrition teachers was to integrate nutrition into existing courses (O'Connell, et al., 1981).

In recent decades, two different approaches have been taken toward goals (outcomes) for nutrition education. The first approach used goals to promote knowledge, attitudes, and behavior (KAB) needed by children to comprehend general food and nutrition issues, and to practice healthy food intake by using a food-group approach. Program outcomes focused on children's demonstration of changes in knowledge, attitudes and/or dietary intake. This approach appeared to be based on the theoretical framework of KAB. This was effective when motivation was derived from knowledge, then was implemented to change attitudes and behavior (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

In the 1980s, a second approach to nutrition education began with the linkage

of dietary intake to chronic diseases, the thought being that by reducing risk of disease, health would be enhanced. The goals were demonstrated through behavioral changes, such as lowering sodium or fat intake, or increasing fiber in one's eating habits. A behavioral-oriented program was sometimes a component of a comprehensive health education program, and was linked to social learning theory (SLT) based on Bandura's social cognitive theory (1986). A major element of SLT was an interactive nature involving the effects of knowledge, personal factors, and environmental events on behavior (Perry, Baranowski, & Parcel, 1990).

These two approaches to nutrition education appear to have similarities. Both approaches embrace a central theme of using behavioral change as a criterion of effectiveness in teaching. Behavior has been generally accepted as the true test of effective nutrition education. Some programs were equated by improved paper-and-pencil scores as the expected and accepted assessment outcomes. One way that teachers helped youth learn about healthy food behavior was through helping students to identify nutrition goals in class and then helping students establish good food-choice habits outside the classroom (Kalina, et al., 1989). This strategy of incorporating behavior into the learning process was fundamental to nutrition education, as defined by Lansing (1995) as "any set of learning experiences designed to facilitate the voluntary adoption of eating and other nutrition-related behaviors conducive to health and well being" (p. 279).

Teachers of nutrition may have a large number of nutrition education programs available. Some programs are school-developed, and others are developed by external agencies to promote health (Gillespie, 1984). For example, the Guide to Teaching (Texas Education Agency, 1988) serves as the foundation for planning FACS programs, including nutrition. The curriculum guide, Education for Self-responsibility IV (TEA, 1992) also serves as a reference. When teachers must make decisions about curricula and teaching plans, existing materials may not be implemented as intended. Norton, Falciglia, and Wagner (1997) suggested that this type of judgement was due to teachers' different preparation and experiences regarding appropriate nutrition education programs and learning activities. Regardless of the large availability of food and nutrition materials, teachers have still expressed a need for additional materials to enhance their teaching nutrition in the classroom (Norton, et al., 1997; Soliah, Newell, Vaden, & Dayton, 1983).

Numerous studies have been conducted to describe effectiveness of teaching nutrition and to assess the needs of children for nutrition education. Recent recommendations, however, stated that to meet the needs of youth, teachers needed to provide instruction that would "develop new and more accurate methods to assess nutritional status; monitor dietary intake, and energy expenditure, and nutrition behavior, attitudes, and knowledge" (McPherson, Montgomery, & Nichaman, 1995, p. 231).

Purpose

To identify the needs for nutrition assessment in Texas, the Texas Department of Health and Human services sponsored a comprehensive three-year study. This research was part of the larger study and focused on 8th and 11th grade teachers responsible for teaching nutrition education. This subject matter is part of FACS, yet other teachers may be including nutrition in their classes. The primary objectives were to: (1) identify the knowledge, attitudes, and behavior of teachers; (2) assess the availability, use, and satisfaction of nutrition and resources of teachers of nutrition; and (3) determine nutrition teachers' needs for content and format in continuing education programs.

Methodology

Instrument Development

Goals and goal indicators were developed from an extensive literature review using computer databases such as AGRICOLA, MEDLINE, ERIC, NHLBI, as well as manual searches. Major goals of the Nutrition Education and Training Program (USDA, 1977) provided an important foundation for the formulation of the primary list of goals and goal indicators. Support for the major goals was also provided by the Surgeon General's Report on Nutrition and Health (United States Department of Health & Human Services, 1989), Nutrition and Your Health: Dietary Guidelines for Americans (USDA & USDHHS, 1990), and Healthy People 2000: National Health Promotion and Disease Prevention Objectives (USDHHS, 1991). In addition, goals, and indicators were reinforced by examining them with the FACS references and Education for Self-Responsibility IV: Nutrition Education (Texas Education Agency, 1992, and Guide to Teaching (1988, Texas Education Agency).

To establish content validity, a Delphi panel, consisting of members of the Texas Interagency Council on Nutrition (N=40), were asked to serve as a panel of experts in a two-phase Delphi technique. The Delphi technique was a method developed for structuring a group communication process so that a group of individuals, as a whole, was allowed to deal with a complex problem (Linstone & Turoff, 1975). In the first phase the participants, selected on the basis of professional involvement and commitment to nutrition education, responded to the goals and goal indicators by rating these on a 5-point scale. (Of the 40 instruments mailed, six were not accepted due to personnel changes; the total number was reduced to 34 respondents). The goals and goal indicators were listed in the order of agreement, and were then given back to the same panel of experts who rated those remaining goals and goal indicators again. Consensus from the 34 participants (85% response rate) achieved as a result of the second round of ratings was used to determine the final goal and goal indicators for the nutrition assessment (KAB) of teachers.

The validated goals and goal indicators were used by the authors for the table of specifications for the instrument (Grounlund, 1994). The goals and goal indicators for the teachers were:

Goal 1. Educators' nutrition knowledge enables them to effectively communicate nutrition concepts to children. Indicators were nutrition knowledge assessment scores of educators on: healthy food choices, nutrition and health/fitness, self-responsibility for food selections, nutrition and scholastic

achievement, nutritional needs, DGA, food safety/sanitation, and effective methods of teaching nutrition.

Goal 2. Educators' nutrition attitudes enable them to communicate positive nutrition attitudes to children. Indicators were attitude inventory scores of educators on: healthy food choices, nutrition and health/fitness, self-responsibility for food selection, nutrition and scholastic achievement, nutritional needs, DGA, food safety/sanitation, functions of nutrients in maintaining health, and nutrition education.

Goal 3. Educators model acceptable nutrition behaviors to children. Indicator was consistency between food choices of educators and DGA as assessed by healthy food choices (sugar, sodium, fat, fiber, variety, and alcohol).

Evaluation principles were followed in the development of assessment devices for each goal and goal criteria on knowledge, attitudes, and behavior. A multiple-choice format was selected for the knowledge concepts, a Likert-type scale for the attitudinal inventory, and a multiple-choice format for behavior; all multiple-choice questions had 4 options. The behavior questions focused on hypothetical healthy-food choices wherein teachers responded first, as if the student was present, and second, as if the student was absent. The attitudinal inventory (Likert-type scale) responses ranged from 5 "strongly agree" to 1 "strongly disagree". Test banks were developed for each criterion. A panel of nutrition education and education specialists reviewed the items and appropriate revisions were made prior to field testing.

A list of nutrition references and resources was developed. The researchers and members of the Home Economics Curriculum Center and nutrition faculty at a Southwest university reviewed the list for accuracy and completeness. The identified references were developed into a checklist for the research instrument. Demographic information was developed from the literature (Salant and Dillman, 1994).

Field Test

The instrument was field tested with 45 secondary school teachers. Based on the results of the field test, appropriate revisions were made. For example, the nutrition criteria were reduced from nine to eight because "healthy food choices" and "healthy snack choices" were perceived as redundant. Item analysis was used to select multiple-choice questions based on discrimination, difficulty index, and distracters. Reliability for the knowledge instrument was .64 and .92 for the attitudinal inventory. The research instrument was prepared for administration; the final version included 32 multiple-choice questions (4 questions per criterion), 27 attitudinal statements (3 questions per criterion), and 24 behavioral practices (4 questions per 6 criteria) multiple-choice items. The instrument was prepared in booklet form for the study.

Sample Selection

Grades 8 and 11 were selected for this study because: two different ages from early (junior high) and later (high school) adolescence could provide insights about two maturation levels of students; FACS courses, including nutrition can be taught in secondary schools (7-12); and fewer studies on nutrition education have been conducted in secondary schools than elementary schools (Woodson, et al; 1995). Selection of schools was determined by the variables of the student's ethnicity composition, family income, and scholastic achievement. Ethnicity referred to: schools with more than 50% white students; schools with more than 50% Hispanic students; and other schools that had no dominant ethnic group. Family income was determined by schools with more than 50% students from low-income families based on free and reduced meals, and schools with less than 50% of students from low-income families based on free and reduced meals. Scholastic achievement was categorized by schools with more than 34% of students identified as students at-risk, and schools with less then 34% of students identified as students at-risk.

Twelve sub-populations constituted the classification of the three variables (three levels of ethnicity x two levels of family income x two levels of scholastic achievement). This 3x2x2 stratification schema was constructed for the populations of junior high and high school. The schema also provided a sampling frame for the list of schools in each sub-population. The sample size was determined through a formula proposed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), with consideration of a known population size, specified confidence level (e.g., 95%), and a degree of accuracy as reflected by the amount of sampling error that can be tolerated (e.g., ± 0.05, or ± 5%). The state education agency assisted with the sample selected by following specified selection requirements and then, a statistician randomly selected the schools.

Among the 5,731 schools in the state (18% junior high; 20% senior high), 87 junior high and 97 senior high schools were randomly drawn. Administrators of these randomly selected schools (N=87 JH; N=97 SH) received letters of invitation to participate in the assessment. Communication with the individual schools within the randomly selected school districts included letters, guidelines for selecting teachers, and questionnaires. Because teachers of nutrition may be from either family and consumer sciences or other subjects such as health, physical education, or sciences, participating administrators served as facilitators to select the teachers most likely to teach nutrition-related content in their classes. This method was more likely to achieve a valid sample because no state list of nutrition teachers was available. A letter emphasizing the importance of nutrition education and assessment directions was sent to each teacher. Non-respondents received a follow-up letter after two weeks.

Data Analysis

Analysis conducted included central tendency and ANOVA. ANOVA was applied to determine if differences ($p < .05$) were present between variables and knowledge, attitudes, and behavior.

Results and Discussion

Demographics

There were 184 schools in the sample. The response rate was 32%. In the 8th grade, 34 teachers were surveyed. In 11th grade, 24 teachers responded to the

survey. Almost 30% of junior high teachers held advanced degrees. Three-fourths of the 8th grade teachers had studied nutrition in high school. Two-thirds of the 11th grade teachers had studied nutrition in high school; almost 30% of them had advanced degrees. One-third of the teachers of nutrition in this study were FACS teachers, the remaining nutrition education was integrated into health, sciences, and physical education. This finding was supported by O'Connell, Shannon and Sims (1981).

Status of Nutrition Education

Teachers of nutrition in grade 8 reported that FACS and science were the most common school subjects where nutrition concepts were taught. These findings differed from Cunningham and Burge (1985) who reported that health was the most prevalent course where nutrition education was taught in Virginia. In Texas, FACS was the high school class with the highest response (46%) for teaching nutrition. This finding also concurs with Nevada researchers (Woodson, et al., 1995) where nutrition was primarily taught in FACS life skills courses.

In a telephone survey of 50 state health-related agencies, researchers Shannon, Mullis, Bernardo, Erwin, and Poehler (1992) reported that nine states mandated nutrition be taught and another 21 states mandated nutrition education be incorporated into classroom instruction, grades K-12. The remainder of the states required nutrition to be included as a topic within other subject content. O'Connell, Shannon, and Sims (1981) found similar results. Although 39 states identified nutrition was included to some degree in FACS courses, few states required students to take FACS. If students do enroll in FACS, they may or may not be taught nutrition, due to the content of the particular FACS class.

Improving the health of Americans through school-based nutrition education for students K-12, requires that teacher preparation and teacher certification be addressed. For example, a nutrition course was not required for elementary certification in 47 states; teacher certification in 48 states did not specifically list nutrition as a requirement for teaching FACS or health education (Shannon, et al., 1992).

Nutrition Knowledge of Teachers

Table 1 displays the results of teachers' responses to knowledge questions. Teachers correctly answered 60% of the knowledge questions. The reliability estimate for the knowledge assessment for 8th grade teachers was .43, for 11th grade teachers .47. In measuring teacher performance, 70% was the acceptance level designated because this percentage was consistent with the public school policy of the state as well as other researchers (Briley, Coyle, Roberts-Gray & Sparkman, 1989). Although between one-third and two-thirds of the teachers had studied nutrition in high school and over 40% had taken nutrition in college, they lacked knowledge to achieve the 70% level identified as acceptable in this study.

In the Peccolo, Cunningham, and Banta (1987) study, teachers answered correctly 61% of the knowledge items. Although their test was shorter than this research instrument, the results were very similar. The highest mean scores for Texas teachers was on the sub-scale, self-responsibility for food selection and the

Table 1

Nutrition Knowledge of Teachers

Nutrition Knowledge Concepts	# of Items	Grade 8 Mean/S.D. (n=160)	Grade 11 Mean/S.D. (N=24)
Healthy Food Choices	4	1.88/1.09	2.08/1.14
Nutrition and Health/Fitness	4	2.68/1.01	2.71/0.95
Self-responsibility for Food Selection	4	3.06/0.78	3.29/0.75
Nutrition and Scholastic Achievement	4	2.29/0.84	2.46/0.83
Nutrition Needs	4	2.24/0.85	2.58/0.97
Dietary Guidelines for Americans	4	2.18/.094	2.08/0.91
Food Safety and Sanitation	4	2.38/1.13	2.00/1.04
Nutrition Education	4	2.26/0.99	1.61/1.03
Total Nutrition Knowledge Assessment	32	18.97/3.32	18.67/3.93
Percent Correct Answers		59.3	58.3

lowest mean scores were healthy food choices (8th grade) and nutrition education (11th grade) sub-scales. The lowest achievement of teachers by grades was in healthy food choices for 8th grade, and nutrition education for 11th grade. The second lowest achievement of teachers by grades was in Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 8th grade, and food safety and sanitation, 11th grade.

Nutrition Attitudes of Teachers

The teachers perceived nutrition education very positively (4.25 on a 5.0 scale) (Table 2). The reliability coefficient was .88. Overall, the teachers of both grades 8 and 11 held the same high value for the nutrition education with a mean of 4.3. The least positive attitude of all teachers was the sub-scale, self-responsibility for food selection, with a mean of 3.79 on a 5-point scale.

Table 2

Nutrition Attitudes of Teachers

Nutrition Attitudes	# of Items	Grade 8 Mean/S.D. (n=34)	Grade 11 Mean/S.D. (N=24)
Healthy Food Choices	3	4.11/0.37	4.09/0.53
Nutrition and Health/Fitness	3	4.66/0.36	4.63/0.43
Self-responsibility for Food Selection	3	3.73/0.77	3.76/0.57
Nutrition and Scholastic Achievement	3	4.52/0.55	4.61/0.39
Nutrition Needs	3	4.47/0.49	4.56/0.41
Dietary Guidelines for Americans	3	4.15/0.53	4.36/0.52
Food Safety and Sanitation	3	4.33/0.51	4.44/0.41
Nutrition Education	3	4.23/0.61	4.32/0.56
Total Nutrition Attitude Assessment	27	4.26/0.62	4.33/0.49

Nutrition behavior of teachers

Teachers responded to a 24-item assessment of their hypothetical food choices based on the Dietary Guidelines for Americans (USDA and USDHHH, 1990) and USDHHS (1990). The reliability estimate for 8th grade teachers' behavior with children present was .71, and without children present .69. For 11th grade teachers' behavior, the reliability estimate for children present was .78, without children .63. When children were assumed present (Table 3), 8th grade teachers (57%), made fewer correct food choices than high school teachers (62%) (Table 3). When children were assumed absent, teachers made hypothetical food choices from the same list; they made less accurate food choices with 53% for junior high and 55% for high school. The teachers perceived less restriction on food choices when students were absent.

Table 3

Food Choices of Teachers Relative to the DGA Students Present/Absent

		Present		Absent	
Food Choices	# of Items	Grade 8 Mean/S.D. (n=34)	Grade 11 Mean/S.D. (N=24)	Grade 8 Mean/S.D. (n=34)	Grade 11 Mean/S.D. (N=24)
Sugar	4	1.71/1.19	1.88/1.03	1.41/1.16	1.54/0.78
Sodium	4	1.68/1.04	2.04/0.95	1.38/0.99	1.71/0.86
Fat	4	2.09/1.31	1.88/1.36	1.91/1.29	1.50/1.14
Fiber	4	2.26/0.99	2.54/1.02	2.24/0.92	2.29/1.12
Variety	4	2.24/1.05	2.50/0.93	2.09/0.93	2.29/0.91
Alcohol	4	3.74/0.67	4.00/0.00	3.62/0.85	3.96/0.20
Total Food Choice Assessment	4	13.71/3.51	14.83/4.06	12.65/3.32	13.29/3.13
Percent Correct Answers	24	57.0	61.8	52.7	55.4

The Texas teachers reported almost 60% food choice accuracy whereas Tennessee teachers identified 68% correct food choices (Cunningham, Skinner, Cagle, Miller, & Teets, 1981). Both Texas and Tennessee teachers had performance levels below the achievement expectation of 70%. The food choices assessment mean and the individual sub-scale means indicated that Texas teachers would make more appropriate food choices with students present; this was consistent for all of the evaluated food choices (sugar, sodium, fact, fiber, and variety). Alcoholic beverages would be limited to 1-2 drinks or less at a social event. When students were perceived present, teachers indicated that they would be less apt to drink alcohol. Skinner and Woodburn (1986) researched secondary health education and FACS teachers of nutrition as to their dietary practices. They reported that teachers were applying their nutrition knowledge to personal dietary practices and served as role models to their students (Rutz, 1993).

Analysis of variance was used to determine if significant differences were apparent due to the teachers' education level, level of experience, and nutritional background in relation to knowledge, attitudes, and food choices. No significant differences were found for these variables.

Table 4
Resources used by Teachers to Learn about Nutrition

Resources and References	**Teachers Grade 8 (n=34) %**	**Teachers Grade 11 (n=24) %**
Family Members	66	70
Friends	78	80
School Cafeteria employee	3	11
School nurse	23	15
Teachers	44	26
Books	91	91
Clubs (4H, Scouts)	3	0
Magazines, papers	91	96
TV, Radio	85	86

Resources and References

Teachers identified resources that they used most to learn about nutrition. The highest responses were magazines and papers, books, and television/radio (Table 4). Over 65% of the teachers reported that they referred to family members and friends for nutrition information. Seeking family and friends may be due to these nutrition teachers not being cognizant of any available nutrition education agencies or systems. Family and friends may be readily available and may be perceived as less threatening than a nutrition specialist.

For over 650 teachers in Idaho, a major source of nutrition information was health texts (Thomas, Long, Zaske, 1994). More than one-half of the Idaho teachers (53%) used television and newspapers. In the Texas study, the results were higher: 93% of the teachers used magazines and newspapers and over 85% of the teachers used television and radio for nutrition information.

Public agencies and community training sources that helped teachers acquire nutrition knowledge were identified (Table 5). The American Heart Association received the highest percentage of responses by teachers (52%) of junior high and (71%) high school (tied with American Cancer Association). In second place was the American Cancer Society (45%, junior high). The third highest agency used was the American Dairy Council for junior high (38%) and Cooperative Extension Service for high school (60%). The state education agency received 25% or more responses as a source of help.

Table 5
Teacher's Report of Agencies and Training Sources Used to Help Educators Acquire Nutrition Knowledge

Agencies & Training Sources	**Teachers Grade 8 (n=34) %**	**Teachers Grade 11 (n=24) %**
American Cancer Society	45	71
American Dairy Council	38	43
American Heart Association	52	71
American Milk Producers	21	24
Cooperative Extension Services	2	60
In-service Training	25	30
NET Resources Materials	4	0
NET Workshops	4	0
TEA workshops/materials	33	25

Table 6
Nutrition Education Curriculum Guides Available to Teachers

Nutrition Education Curriculum Guides	**Teachers Grade 8 (n=34) %**	**Teachers Grade 11 (n=24) %**
Changing the Course (American Cancer Society)	8	13
Education of Self-Responsibility IV Nutrition Education (TEA)	15	22
Guide developed for your school system	32	42
Heart Smart (American Heart Association) Getting to Know Your Heart	28	49
Project TEACH (Texas Education & Agriculture Cooperating for Health)	0	10

The curriculum guide, Heart Smart: Getting to Know Your Heart (American Heart Association, 1988) received the highest percentage of availability (Table 6) by teachers of high school (49%) and junior high (28%). In second place, high school (42%) and junior high teachers (32%) indicated that the most available resource was a guide developed for the school system. In the Tennessee survey of nutrition teachers, Zemal, Brokaw, Huntsinger, and McMichael (1993) found that 75% of their participants made their educational materials.

When 8th grade teachers identified the curriculum guide that they used (Table 7) for nutrition education, a tie (17%) resulted between a guide developed for their school systems and Heart Smart: Getting to Know your Heart (1988). Teachers of 11th grade (25%) used Heart Smart: Getting to Know Your Heart (1988) most, followed by the state education agency curriculum guide (15%), Education of

Table 7

Teachers' Report of Use of Nutrition Education Curriculum Guides

Use of Nutrition Education Curriculum Guides	Teachers Grade 8 (n=34) %	Teachers Grade 11 (n=24) %
Guide developed for your school system	17	10
Heart Smart (American Heart Association) Getting to Know Your Heart (1988)	17	25
Education of Self-Responsibility IV Nutrition Education (TEA, 1992)	7	15
Changing the Course (American Cancer Society)	10	10
Project TEACH (Texas Education & Agriculture Cooperating for Health)	0	0

Self-responsibility IV - Nutrition Education (1992). This latter curricula guide was distributed in 1993 to every school district in Texas; however, fewer than 25% of the teachers were aware of this guide.

Continuing Nutrition Education

When teachers indicated their interest in learning about nutrition (Table 8), over 50% of all teachers responded positively to 13 nutrition concepts. Over 85% of the teachers expressed wanting to learn more about the relationship of nutrition and health, nutrition and physical fitness, and nutrition and scholastic achievement. Topics selected by teachers for continuing education (Table 9) indicated response rates ranging from 66% to over 90%. Development of teaching activities received the top priority by 8th grade (88%) and 11th grade (90%) teachers. Teachers of 8th grade placed teaching methods in second order of importance; 11th grade teachers identified nutrition content for specific ages as second for topics.

The type of format preferred by teachers for continuing education of both grade levels was video cassettes/media over all other choices. The least preferred method was panel discussion followed by lecture. When teachers had the opportunity to indicate other preferred types of format, no responses were elicited.

Implications

Interpretation of these survey findings should recognize the limitations related to the methodology and the sample. Given preliminary reviews and field testing, interpretation of the instrument may have differed, been misread, or left unanswered. Reliability for the knowledge assessment should be improved. A response rate of over 30% is within the 30% to 50% range frequently reported as acceptable (Perkin, 1992). The selection of teachers responsible for nutrition education (by the respective school administrator) may have introduced a response bias. It is also possible that teachers more interested in nutrition education would be more motivated to respond than the non-respondents.

Table 8

Interest of Teachers in Learning About Nutrition

Nutrition Concepts	Teachers Grade 8 (n=34) %	Teachers Grade 11 (n=24) %
Consumer Skills	67	70
Dietary Guidelines for Americans	82	92
Food Preferences	64	68
Food Safety/Sanitation	79	65
Food Traditions	71	52
Function of Nutrients to Maintain Health	85	83
Healthy Food Choices	91	87
Nutrition and Health/Fitness	82	96
Nutritional Needs	85	83
Self-responsibility for Food Selection	88	87
Relationship: Nutrition & Health	91	92
Relationship: Nutrition & Physical Fitness	91	92
Relationship: Scholastic Achievement	91	92

Table 9

Continuing Education Topics Selected by Teachers

Continuing Education Topics	Teachers Grade 8 (n=34) %	Teachers Grade 11 (n=24) %
Development of teaching activities	88	90
Nutrition content for specific grades	78	88
Information on nutrition as a science	69	80
Curriculum development for specific grades	66	83
Teaching methods	81	79

Although these teachers had positive attitudes toward nutrition education and continuing education, they were lacking in knowledge of nutrition concepts and pedagogy. An important implication of this study may be that the current teachers of nutrition education programs in Texas secondary schools fail to meet the goals established by the state Nutrition Education and Training program and the national goals identified in Healthy People 2000 (1991). A recommendation for intervention is to increase the awareness, and importance of nutrition concepts, and the Dietary Guidelines for Americans (1991). A need exists for consistent intervention by increasing the academic preparation of nutrition teachers.

According to these Texas teachers of nutrition, inhibitors to teach nutrition included lack of education, time to plan and teach, and coordination and collaboration of efforts. Family and Consumer Sciences teachers educators and FACS teachers need to be proactive in increasing the academic preparation of nutrition teachers, forming of a holistic approach to and support of nutrition education, and recruiting more students who will become qualified to teach nutrition. In keeping with teachers' identified needs and their existing materials, continuing education sponsored by professional educators could provide an introduction to a broader base of expertise and motivation to promote coordination within the subsystems of nutrition education and related personnel.

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SELECTION OF EVIDENCES THAT ASSESS MASTERY OF TEACHING PROFICIENCIES: A DELPHI PROCESS MODEL

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National and state efforts to establish teaching standards for teacher preparation have prompted concern about appropriate assessment strategies. As part of a research and development study, a two-round Delphi process sought consensus on evidences for assessing mastery of five learner-centered teaching proficiencies adopted for educators in Texas. Seventeen evidences were judged to be useful.

School reform has assumed nationwide proportions. America 2000: An Education Strategy (Doyle, 1991) was a culmination of the efforts of the nation's governors to adopt a set of educational performance goals for the nation's schools that would make the U.S. globally competitive. *America 2000*, then-President Bush's educational plan for the nation, supported an innovative reform of education that included restructuring of the following elements of the teaching/learning process: target achievements for students, assessment and accountability, and knowledge and skills for the teaching profession.

Background

Assessment reform across the nation has focused on methods that provide closer relationships between teaching, learning, and assessment and allow all constituencies to clearly understand and be involved in the assessment process (Darling-Hammond, 1991; Marzano, 1992; Simmons, 1994; Herman et al., 1992). One theme in assessment reform has been a move from the traditional pencil-and-paper and standardized testing to an emphasis on the ability to put knowledge into practice through a performance or a product (Wiggins, 1992; Popham, 1993).

Alternative assessment proponents argued that assessment strategies that ask students to perform, create, produce or do something (Herman et al., 1992), or that show the process(es) by which students work, benefit the teaching/learning/assessment process by capturing a richer array of what students know and can do (O'Neill, 1992; Worthen, 1993).

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It was clear from the review of literature that performance assessment and authentic assessment were championed by researchers advocating assessment reform. Performance assessment has been described as reflecting real-life situations and challenging students to demonstrate what they have learned (Wiggins, 1992; Rayborn, 1993). Authentic assessment, on the other hand, required that the learner demonstrate a desired behavior (knowledge or skill) in a real-life context (Arter, 1993). "The aim of authentic assessment is to engage students in challenges that better represent what they are likely to face as professionals and as responsible citizens" (Wiggins, 1992, p. 23). Authentic assessment requires that the learner be actively involved in the assessment process through selection of evidences and timing of the assessment (Grady 1992).

The use of portfolios as a form of alternative assessment has generated research studies about students' learning from kindergarten through university. A portfolio has been defined as a focused, systematic collection of papers, works, and artifacts about a person, project, and/or topic (Feuer & Fulton, 1992; Paulson & Paulson, 1990; Valencia et al., 1994). Portfolios were generally considered an authentic assessment (Betts, 1994; Worthen, 1993). Teacher education programs are beginning to use portfolios as an authentic strategy for assessing teaching proficiencies.

In 1993, in the wake of national school and assessment reform movements, Texas conducted a statewide series of focus groups to discuss proficiencies that educators of the future, both teachers and administrators, should demonstrate. The Commission on Standards for the Teaching Profession (CSTP) and the Consortium of State Organizations for Teacher Education (CSOTE) cosponsored the focus groups.

Five learner-centered proficiencies for teachers were developed through a consensus process and adopted by the Texas State Board of Education in 1994. The proficiencies served as performance-based standards for Texas educators and an accountability system for educator preparation programs in Texas. The set of proficiencies, published as Learner-Centered Schools for Texas: A Vision of Texas Educators (1994), are learner-centered knowledge, learner-centered instruction, equity in excellence for all learners, learner-centered communication, and learner-centered professional development (Table 1).

Purpose

With the Texas educator proficiencies in place in 1994, the need for assessment strategies was evident. The purpose of this study was to identify portfolio evidences that would authentically assess mastery of the five learner-centered teaching proficiencies adopted for Texas educators and that could be utilized in assessment of Texas home economics preservice teachers. In Texas, most universities have adopted the name *family and consumer sciences education*, however, the program at the secondary level is still known as home economics education.

Table 1

Learner-centered Teaching Proficiencies for Texas

Proficiency	Proficiency Statement
Learner-centered Knowledge	The teacher possesses and draws on a rich knowledge base of content, pedagogy, and technology to provide relevant and meaningful learning experiences for all students.
Learner-centered Instruction	To create a learner-centered community, the teacher collaboratively identifies needs and plans, implements, and assesses instruction using technology and other resources.
Equity in Excellence for All Learners	The teacher responds appropriately to diverse groups of learners.
Learner-centered Communication	While acting as an advocate for all students and the school, the teacher demonstrates effective professional and interpersonal communication skills.
Learner-centered Professional Development	The teacher, as a reflective practitioner dedicated to all students' success, demonstrates a commitment to learn, to improve the profession, and to maintain professional ethics and personal integrity.

Method

Selection of Subjects. The participants for this study, conducted in 1995, were three distinct groups of stakeholders in providing quality education in Texas: home economics preservice teachers, home economics teacher educators, and personnel administrators. The population of home economics preservice teachers consisted of home economics preservice teachers engaged in student teaching in Texas during the spring 1995 semester. The list of preservice teachers (n = 40) was provided by nine home economics teacher education programs in Texas. All home economics teacher educators employed in home economics teacher education programs in Texas (n = 26) were surveyed.

Texas public school personnel administrators comprised the third group of the study. A random sample of all school districts in Texas was obtained, using a table of random numbers from Gay (1992). Telephone calls were made to each of the 30 randomly selected school districts to secure the name of the personnel administrator responsible for hiring home economics faculty for the school district.

Delphi Process. A two-round Delphi process was utilized in obtaining a list of evidences that would authentically assess the five learner-centered teaching proficiencies. The Delphi process is a group surveying procedure consisting of sequential probing phases that solicit information on a specific topic. Useful for consideration of a complex topic by an expert group without the time and expense of bringing them together and for reaching consensus in a systematic manner (Sackman, 1975; Todd & Reece, 1989; Linstone & Turoff, 1975), the Delphi process was deemed appropriate for this study. Three distinct groups of experts were asked to reach consensus on the multi-faceted problem of selecting evidences to authentically assess mastery of five teaching proficiencies.

Each round of questioning or probing in the Delphi process is followed by a summarization of the responses and a controlled feedback to the panel of those items that have the highest consensus (North & Pyke, 1969). The process continues until sufficient information is gained to test the solution (Sackman, 1975) or to develop an operational plan (Eason, 1992).

Instrument Design. The instruments for this study were two researcher-developed checklists mailed to participants in May and September 1995. The following is a list of 31 evidences appropriate for assessment of teaching proficiencies. It was gathered from a review of literature and a panel of experts representing two Texas state universities. It was used in the round-one checklist (Neill, 1996).

- Achievement Awards/Certificates
- Class Projects Related to Teaching Field
- Classroom Procedures/Discipline Plan
- Creative Activity
- Evidence of Community Service
- Evidence of Computer Skills
- Description of Teaching Strategy Used
- Documentation of Field Experiences Prior to Student Teaching
- Entrepreneurship Plan
- Evaluation Devices (Teacher Designed)
- ExCET Scores
- FHA/HERO or 4-H Activities Log
- Instructional Materials (Teacher Designed)
- Leadership in Professional Associations
- Letters of Recommendation
- Membership in Professional Associations
- Philosophy/Goals Statement
- Photographs of Teaching Activities
- Professional Development Activities (i.e., Meetings Attended)
- Public Relations Project
- Pupils' Evaluations
- Reflective Journal of Student Teacher
- Research Project
- Resume
- Samples of Pupils' Work
- Self-assessment Checklist/Essay
- Student Teaching Evaluations (from Supervising Teacher, University Supervisor, etc.)

- Transcript
- Unit/Lesson Plans
- Video/Audiotape of Lesson

Participants in the study were asked to check the evidences that would authentically assess mastery of each of the five teaching proficiencies. Participants were encouraged to submit additional authentic evidences of mastery to be considered in round two.

Responses to the round-one questionnaire shaped the questionnaire developed for round two. Based on the work of Cyphert and Gant(1970) and Dodge and Clark (1977), evidences achieving 70% agreement were deemed to have achieved consensus; while evidences receiving less than 20% consensus were deleted from the round-two questionnaire. The following eleven additional evidences suggested by round-one respondents were presented for consideration in round two:

- Ability to Use a Variety of Telecommunications
- Evidence of Use of Appropriate Software
- Mentorships
- Pupil Projects as a Result of Lesson
- Evidence of Collaboration on Projects
- Evidence of Knowledge of Models of Teaching, Learning Styles, etc.
- Evidence of Attendance at Admission, Review, and Dismissal Meetings (ARD - placement of Special Education Students) or Knowledge of Individual Education Plans (IEPs)
- Evidence of Outside School Activities During Student Teaching
- Evidence of Parental Contact in Student Teaching
- Evidence of Teaching Experience in Volunteer Efforts (i.e., Church, Community Agency)
- Case Study of Ethical Dilemma

A 63% return was achieved for each round of the Delphi process with an effective response rate of 40%. In round one there was a total of 60 responses (preservice teachers = 20; teacher educators = 19; personnel administrators = 21). Round two had a total of 38 responses (preservice teacher = 12; teacher educators = 17; personnel administrators = 9).

Results

From a list of 30 initial evidences and 11 suggested evidences generated in round one, the three participant groups in this study reached consensus in round two on 17 different evidences for the five learner-centered teaching proficiencies for Texas educators. Four evidences, instructional materials (teacher designed), class projects related to teaching field, unit/lesson plans, and evidence of computer skills, achieved consensus for two or more proficiencies as noted in Table 2 (Neill, 1996).

Participants had difficulty reaching consensus on evidences for the proficiency Learner-centered Communication. No evidences in either round of the Delphi process achieved the desired 70% consensus for the communication proficiency. In order for there to be at least one evidence for each proficiency, the researchers

Table 2

Evidence Achieving Consensus using the Delphi Process

Proficiency	Round 1 at 70% Consensus	Round 2 at 60% Consensus
Learner-centered Knowledge	Instructional Materials (Teacher Designed)	[2] Ability to Use a Variety of Telecommunications Class Projects Related to Teaching Field Evidence of Computer Skills Unit/Lesson Plans
Learner-centered Instruction	Class Projects Related to Teaching Field Creative Activity Instructional Materials (Teacher Designed) Unit/Lesson Plans	Evidence of Computer Skills Evaluation Materials (Teacher Designed) [2] Evidence of Knowledge of Models of Teaching, Learning Styles, etc.
Equity in Excellence for All Learners	Class Projects Related to Teaching Field Instruction Materials (Teacher Designed) Pupils' Evaluations Unit/Lesson Plans	[2] Evidence of Attendance at ARD Meetings or Knowledge of IEPs Samples of Pupils Work
Learner-centered Communication	[1]	[2] Evidence of Parent Contact in Student Teaching
Learner-centered Professional Development	Leadership in Professional Associations Membership in Professional Associations Philosophy/Goals Statement Professional Development Activities	Achievement Awards/Certificates

[1] No evidences reached 70% consensus for Learner-centered Communication.

[2] Evidences suggested by round-one respondents and added to the round-two checklist which reached consensus at 60%.

accepted the evidence for the communication proficiency with the highest consensus level (60%). Any evidences of the other four proficiencies reaching at least 60% consensus in round two were also accepted. Four evidences suggested by round-one respondents achieved consensus in round two (Table 2).

Of the 41 evidences used in the instruments for the Delphi process, 24 evidences failed to achieve consensus for any of the teaching proficiencies. Among these were the more traditional evidences such as transcript, resume, letters of recommendation, and teaching evaluations.

The results of this study must be interpreted cautiously, due to limitations of the investigation. A low return rate from personnel administrators limits generalizability.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Seventeen evidences were judged to authentically assess the learner-centered teaching proficiencies for Texas educators. The evidences included instructional and evaluation materials; class projects related to teaching field; creative activity; unit/lesson plans; pupils' evaluations; leadership/membership in professional organizations; philosophy/goals statement; professional development activities; use of a variety telecommunications; computer skills; knowledge of models of teaching and learning styles; attendance at ARD meetings or knowledge of IEPs for special populations students; and parental contact in student teaching.

The Delphi process was successfully used to collect data from groups separated geographically: home economics preservice teachers, family and consumer science teacher educators, and Texas public school personnel administrators who are responsible for hiring home economics teachers. The anonymity of the Delphi process enabled participants to consider evidences of learner-centered teaching proficiencies on merit and not on personality or status. The methodology of this study was an appropriate model for reaching consensus on evidences for authentic assessment of teaching proficiencies.

The researchers recommend replication of the study with a larger sample size to support the use of inferential statistics and samples of teachers in other curriculum areas. While the methodology of this study was applied to preservice home economics teachers, the model would be appropriate for reaching consensus on initiatives such as the assessment of national standards for family and consumer sciences students at the secondary level.

Summary

The nationwide demand for educational reform has focused on curricula, programs, and, more recently, assessment. Alternative and authentic assessment have emerged as themes of assessment reform. A two-round Delphi process sought consensus on authentic evidences for mastery of five teaching proficiencies for educators in Texas: learner-centered knowledge, learner-centered instruction, equity in excellence for all learners, learner-centered communication, and learner-centered professional development. Seventeen evidences were judged to authentically assess mastery of the teaching proficiencies. The findings of this research and development study served as a foundation for a researcher-developed portfolio prototype.

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JOB SATISFACTION OF FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES TEACHERS: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER SHORTAGE, TEACHER EDUCATION AND IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

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The major purpose of this research study was to examine and compare the job satisfaction of two contrasting kinds of Family and Consumer Sciences (FACS) teachers in Ohio: Work and Family Life (WFL) educators and Job Training educators (JT). WFL teachers deliver the traditional consumer homemaking (FACS) curriculum. JT teachers are known in most states as occupational education training. On the Satisfaction with Teaching subscale, WFL teachers were generally satisfied with their teaching experience, but JT teachers were even more satisfied with teaching. Findings from the comparison of WFL and JT teachers have implications for addressing the shortage of FACS teachers, teacher preparation and in-service education.

Concern over the shortage of Family and Consumer Sciences (FACS) teachers has become a subject of interest within the profession. By the year 2000, Miller and Meszaros (1996) have projected a severe national shortage of FACS teachers will occur. In Ohio, for example, the Department of Education has reported that most program areas in secondary vocational education including FACS were experiencing a shortage of qualified teachers (Bowers, 1991; Redick, 1992). Teacher shortage can be attributed to fewer students entering undergraduate teacher education programs, retirements, and attrition. A comparison study on the experience distribution of secondary vocational teachers (Ohio Department of Education, 1993) indicated that fewer FACS teachers were entering the profession as revealed by the small number of teachers in the first three to five years of teaching.

One variable that may be related to teachers remaining in the field was job satisfaction (Berns, 1990; Tinto, 1987). While facets of job satisfaction shift with the times and fluctuate with the mores, Shreeve, Norby, Goetter, Stueckle, Midgley, and Goetter (1987) warned that opinions, theories, and survey results vary as much as the personalities, places, and instruments involved. In spite of these variations Shreeve et. al (1987) believed that certain patterns emerged with enough consistency to warrant consideration when teacher job satisfaction and adequate staffing were in question.

Job satisfaction has been an extensively researched topic. Its relevance to life may account for its popularity as an area of study, according to Jorde-Bloom (1986). While a plethora of studies on the topic exists in business and industry, the study of job satisfaction in the field of education is a relatively new phenomenon. Lester (1987) pointed out that it is important to explore the nature of the educational work setting and the characteristics of teachers to understand what contributed to their satisfaction.

The current shortage of FACS teachers, coupled with fewer teachers entering the profession, indicates the seriousness of the situation that is complicated by retirement and attrition. Since satisfaction on the job is a big factor in teacher retention, there is a need to study the satisfaction of FACS teachers. As one factor in the teacher shortage discourse, this study investigates the job satisfaction of FACS teachers.

Purpose

FACS educators are cognizant that Work and Family Life (WFL) and Job Training (JT) teachers serve the profession in distinctly different roles. Although it is anticipated that some similarities and differences exit between the two groups of teachers, this has never been explored. Therefore, the major purpose of this research study was to examine and to compare job satisfaction between WFL and JT teachers in Ohio. Specifically, the objectives of this study were to: determine the job satisfaction of FACS teachers (WFL and JT) regarding satisfaction with teaching, satisfaction with teaching FACS, satisfaction with school and co-workers, and satisfaction with their principal; and to determine if the satisfaction levels of FACS teachers (WFL and JT) differed significantly.

According to Holland (1973), job satisfaction depended on the congruence of personal type and environmental type. These two concepts were studied, with the assumption that satisfaction with teaching and satisfaction with teaching FACS were tied to personal satisfaction with the environment of the school, co-workers and principals.

Review of Literature

The theoretical framework for this study was grounded in John L. Holland's Vocational Choice Theory (1973). Holland's theory was primarily concerned with personality types and environmental types, and the outcomes of pairing the two to achieve vocational stability. The personality types and model environments used in Holland's theory were titled: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, or conventional. According to Holland, one of several methods can be used to estimate a person's personality type: a person's scores on selected scales from interest or personality inventories such as the Vocational Preference Inventory, their choice of vocation or field of training, their work history or history of preemployment aspirations, or some combination of these sources of information. Holland also stated that people who resemble a particular personality type are more likely to seek out occupations representative of that type. In his classification of personality types and occupations, teaching was classified as a social occupation. Holland stated that members of an occupation have similar personalities and respond to situations and problems in similar ways. They also created characteristic interpersonal environments.

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Studies reviewed for this study on job satisfaction were either national, vocational, or occupationally specific. The national studies involved K-12 teachers. The vocational studies included teachers in any vocational area. The occupationally specific studies contained only FACS teachers.

The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher (1989), conducted with 2,000 public school teachers in grades K-12, used a telephone interview. The sample was proportionally and randomly selected by state. As a measure of job satisfaction, the question was asked: "All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with teaching as a career - very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, somewhat dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied?" The results showed 86% of the teachers were very satisfied or somewhat satisfied with teaching as a career. The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher (1995) was repeated several years later and found most teachers were more satisfied with their jobs then than they were a decade before. Two years later, 1997, findings from the Schools and Staffing Survey (1997) conducted by Henke, Choy, Chen, Geis and Alt, revealed that 82% of the teachers were very or somewhat satisfied with teaching.

Studies using vocational teachers as participants were conducted by Bruening and Hoover (1990), Grady and Burnett (1985), and Grady (1985). Using the Brayfield and Rothe Job Satisfaction Index (1951) which had been modified by Warner (1973), Bruening and Hoover (1990) the job satisfaction of secondary vocational educators in Pennsylvania was studied. The stratified random sample included secondary agricultural, automotive, carpentry, and occupational FACS teachers. The possible scores ranged from 14 to 70. Findings showed a mean score of 59 on the summated scale, a high level of satisfaction. A high level of satisfaction was found by Grady and Burnett (1985) and Grady (1985) when they sampled vocational agriculture teachers in secondary institutions in Louisiana. A mean general satisfaction score of 77 on the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was achieved.

Several FACS researchers have investigated job satisfaction (Kluckman and Brands, 1991; St. John and Pestle, 1992; & Weiner and Clawson, 1984). Kluckman and Brands' (1991) study with South Dakota FACS teachers analyzed factors that contributed to teacher work satisfaction. The researcher-developed instrument contained three parts. Part Two of the instrument, Work Satisfaction, contained nine factors. One of the nine factors was overall job satisfaction. Analysis of the data related to overall job satisfaction indicated 84% of the respondents were moderately to very satisfied with their jobs. Results of the St. John and Pestle (1992) study of FACS teachers in Florida were in agreement with the Kluckman and Brands findings. Results showed the grand mean for all items on the scale was 5.2, on a 7 point scale which indicated a high degree of satisfaction. Weiner and Clawson (1984) also found FACS teachers in North Carolina to be moderately satisfied on the Job Descriptive Index (JDI).

On the other hand, two studies revealed dissatisfaction by teachers. The National Education Association (1980), one of the largest teacher organizations, conducts a survey of its teachers every 5 years. The 1980 survey dealt with teacher job satisfaction and other facets of teaching. The findings from 2,165 teachers revealed more than one-third (35%) of the teachers were dissatisfied with their current jobs. Of the dissatisfied teachers, 9% of those were very dissatisfied with teaching. Miller (1991) found the above findings similar to those of FACS teachers in Indiana. The 58-item questionnaire included questions on administrators, other faculty, school, students, and general environment. The range of dissatisfaction scores was 1-5 with low scores indicating dissatisfaction. Data analysis revealed a mean score of 1.8.

Methodology

Subject Selection

In Ohio, Work and Family Life (WFL) constitutes the traditional consumer homemaking (FACS) curriculum. Job Training (JT) is known in most states as occupational education training. Nationally, WFL and JT are the two most common classifications of FACS teachers. WFL programs prepare students for competence in the important, challenging, and ever-changing work of the family. By contrast, occupationally specific JT programs prepare students for paid employment in occupations requiring FACS related knowledge and skills. Thus, WFL and JT teachers represented clearly contrasting teaching paradigms.

WFL and JT teachers were selected by subject codes from the list of Family and Consumer Sciences teachers in Ohio. Although JT teachers are generally located in vocational schools, sometimes JT options are taught in regular high schools. In that case, FACS teachers are assigned to teach both WFL and JT courses. The names of teachers who were categorized as both WFL and JT were removed from the list. The frame consisted of a total of 671 WFL teachers and 267 JT teachers. Based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size table, a simple stratified random sample of 248 WFL and 159 JT teachers was selected. Of the 407 possible participants, 336 (83%) responded; 209 (84%) WFL and 127 (80%) JT teachers.

Questionnaire

Data were collected through a mailed questionnaire. The questionnaire for this study contained four subscales. The "Satisfaction with Teaching" subscale of the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire (PTO) was selected to measure satisfaction with teaching. The Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire was designed specifically as a measure of teacher morale and/or satisfaction. Developed by Bentley and Rempel (1980), the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire contains 100 items with 10 subscales. The "Satisfaction with Teaching" subscale used here consisted of 20 items and pertained to teacher relationships with students and feelings of satisfaction with teaching.

The second subscale was occupationally specific and dealt with FACS. The items on this scale were developed by the researcher and were titled "Satisfaction with Teaching Family and Consumer Sciences." This subscale measured factors such as classroom management, student/class liability, service orientation, image of the profession, student enrollment, and youth organization. Items for this section were developed from a review of literature and a discussion with a focus group of 20 current and former secondary FACS teachers. Both WFL and JT trained teachers attended the focus group meeting.

During the focus group interview, participants were asked to relate difficulties they had encountered as FACS teachers. They were also asked about past problems and about future problems the profession may experience. The responses were recorded and later analyzed and categorized into main topics. That categorization and the review of literature formed the basis for the 12 items regarding satisfaction with teaching FACS.

The third and fourth areas studied measured a teacher's perception of organizational climate. The "Teacher Perceptions of Teacher Group Behavior" and "Teacher Perceptions of Principal Behavior" were used in this study. There are 16 questions on these two instruments; eight classified as administration, and eight dealt with school and co-workers. These two scales emerged from Deer's (1980) validation of Finlayson, Banks, and Loughran's (1971) earlier work measuring the organizational climate of British secondary schools.

The instrument was reviewed for clarity and content validity by prospective teacher educators and faculty experts and revised as necessary. A pilot study was conducted to test the final draft with 21 respondents similar to those who participated in the study. Cronbach's Alpha was run and the reliability coefficient was .76 for both WFL and JT teachers on the four satisfaction scales.

To respond to the items on the four subscales, respondents used a 4-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1-disagree to 4-agree to express their levels of satisfaction. The scale was anchored at each point. The anchors and values are disagree=1, tend to disagree=2, tend to agree=3, and agree=4. Satisfaction findings were reported as mean ratings. Mean ratings of 1.0 to 1.50 represented disagree, 1.51 to 2.50 tend to disagree, 2.51 to 3.50 tend to agree, 3.51 to 4.0 agree.

Findings

For objective 1, to determine the satisfaction of WFL and JT teachers on the Satisfaction scales, means and standard deviations were calculated. On the Satisfaction with Teaching subscale, WFL teachers were generally satisfied with teaching (M = 3.3) and JT teachers were more satisfied with teaching (M = 3.5). Both WFL and JT teachers were somewhat satisfied (M = 2.7 and 2.8, respectively) on the Satisfaction with Teaching FACS scale. Somewhat satisfied was the rating for WFL and JT teachers on the Satisfaction with School and Co-Workers scale; those means were (M = 2.6 and 2.7) for WFL and JT, respectively. A mean of 2.8 was attained for both groups of teachers on the Satisfaction with Principal scale, representing a rating of somewhat satisfied.

Table 1

Comparison of Work and Family Life (WFL) and Job Training (JT) Teachers on Satisfaction Scales

Teacher Group	**Mean**	**SD**	t	p
Teaching Scale				
WFL^a	3.3	.42	-3.34	.001
JT^b	3.5	.41		
Teaching Family and Consumer Sciences Scale				
WFL^a	2.7	.41	-1.51	NS
JT^b	2.8	.43		
School and Co-Workers Scale				
WFL^a	2.6	.46	-2.15	.03
JT^b	2.7	.49		
Principal Scale				
WFL^a	2.8	.69	.18	NS
JT^b	2.8	.70		

$^a n = 209$; $^b n = 127$

Note: Likert type scale ranging from 1 = disagree to 4 = agree

For objective 2, to determine if the satisfaction levels of WFL and JT teachers differed significantly, t-tests were applied. When a t-test was used, the results showed a statistically significant difference (p = .001) (see Table 1) on Satisfaction with Teaching between WFL and JT teachers with JT teachers indicating more satisfaction. Regarding the Satisfaction with Teaching FACS subscale, analysis revealed no statistically significant difference between WFL and JT teachers. However, the t-test showed a statistically significant difference (p = .03) (see Table 1) between WFL and JT teachers on Satisfaction with School and Co-Workers with JT teachers more satisfied. A t-test showed no statistically significant difference on Satisfaction with Principal between WFL and JT teachers. The differences between the two groups of teachers that were significant (Satisfaction with Teaching and Satisfaction with School and Co-workers) were quite small (.2 and .1 respectively).

The findings on the Satisfaction with Teaching scale in this study are consistent with the St. John and Pestle (1992) study of consumer homemaking and occupational FACS teachers in Florida. On a 7 point scale, the overall mean for Satisfaction in their study was 5.16. This mean reflects a fairly satisfied rating. However, no studies were found that compared WFL and JT teachers on job satisfaction. This study made that comparison and indicated differences between the two types of teachers.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn. These two groups of teachers were similar on their Satisfaction with Teaching FACS and Satisfaction with Principal. However, they were different on Satisfaction with Teaching and Satisfaction with School and Co-workers; in both cases JT teachers were more satisfied than WFL teachers.

According to Holland (1973), in order to achieve job satisfaction there should be a match between the individual's personality and the person's type of environment. Apparently, a match was achieved for both WFL and JT teachers; they are somewhat satisfied with their jobs.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for further study. First, make minor revisions to the instruments, particularly the school and co-worker and principal scales. The short form of Deer's "Perception of School and Co-workers and Perception of Principal should be replaced with the long form. The short form contained eight items, whereas the long form consisted of 28. When Cronbach's alpha was run on each subscale separately, a lower reliability was achieved on both scales of the short form. Deer's (1980) factor analysis was used to reduce the number of items. Thus, the eight items were not repetitive but were rather broad in scope. However, low reliability may be overcome if the long form was used. Next, conduct a longitudinal study to track job satisfaction over time, particularly when secondary curriculum revision is taking place as it was in Ohio. Lastly, compare levels of satisfaction with teaching to years of teaching experience. This measure would determine whether teachers who have taught longer enjoy higher levels of job satisfaction.

Implications

The overall ratings on the Satisfaction with Teaching given by both groups of teachers is evidence that FACS teachers enjoy teaching and are satisfied with teaching. A lower satisfaction with Teaching and School and Co-workers, rather than the highest level of satisfaction, may indicate that WFL teachers may feel devalued in traditional high schools, since emphasis in such settings is placed on academic disciplines. In an educational environment where greater attention is given to required courses and preparation for post-high school education, students tend not to value FACS highly. FACS teachers in this same environment, may not feel their area is as highly valued as some other areas. Many college-bound students may not elect to take FACS.

In this study, JT teachers had higher Satisfaction with Teaching, and Satisfaction with School and Co-workers than WFL teachers. JT teachers are concentrated in Joint Vocational Schools; that may be a factor in higher satisfaction levels. Those teachers work toward one goal: preparation of their students for entry-level jobs. Their students may see more direct applications to their future careers than the students in a more general high school program which is not as directly job oriented. These teachers may also receive more positive responses from parents and community who value their role as preparing students for the workplace. The contrast in different purposes for vocational education and traditional high school may lead toward JT teachers feeling more important and valued by their fellow teachers as well as by school administers.

Additionally, work-based initiatives have become an increasingly important part of FACS. Therefore, the higher job satisfaction level of JT teachers parallels the growing focus on careers in FACS in particular and in education generally. This study is not promoting the JT or WFL program, however, since teacher shortage is a concern and the knowledge that Ohio JT teachers enjoy a higher job satisfaction could be used positively to recruit prospective teachers in FACS generally and occupational FACS (JT) specifically. Although findings from this study indicate that FACS teachers are satisfied with teaching as a profession, Miller and Meszaros (1996) maintain that the profession must face the reality that a national problem in the incoming supply of FACS teachers exists. In order to attract preservice teachers and retain inservice teachers in their early years of teaching, it is important to promote the aspects of teaching that contribute to job satisfaction. Those aspects that seemed to satisfy teachers more pertained to their relationships with students and feelings of satisfaction with their role as a teacher.

The projected need for teachers and the competition it will take to supply and keep them in school make it essential to study the research regarding teacher job satisfaction (Shreeve et al., 1987). According to Miller and Meszaros (1996), by the year 2000, the national demand for family and consumer sciences teachers can be expected to be approximately four times the supply of undergraduates preparing to enter the field of FACS education. Therefore, as teacher educators and state supervisors of FACS education seek avenues to address the growing problem of teacher shortage, the findings from this study may be used in the discourse.

In Ohio, FACS secondary enrollments are increasing while the number of FACS teachers is declining. Ohio has revised its FACS curriculum to make it relevant to today's society. The relevance of the curriculum may be attracting students. Our challenge is to find and retain capable teachers to prepare these interested students for tomorrow's living.

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MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCES TEACHING AS A CAREER

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This study sought to assess middle school students' perceptions of Family and Consumer Sciences (FACS) teaching as a career by surveying eighth grade students enrolled in Exploring Life Skills classes, the state-approved course for North Carolina middle school students. Usable surveys were returned by 1297 eighth grade students. The majority (84%) were 13 to 14 years old; 59% were female. Most students (81%) held positive attitudes regarding their middle school FACS classes, while only 8% expressed negative opinions of their classes. Slightly over half of the students (52%) reported positive perceptions of the career, "family and consumer sciences teacher," and 16% expressed interest in pursuing that career, primarily because they wanted to help others or felt they would enjoy the job responsibilities. Those who found the career undesirable most often mentioned problem students and job duties related to cooking and sewing as primary factors for not wanting to be FACS teachers themselves.

Currently, there is a critical need to prepare secondary family and consumer sciences (FACS) teachers for North Carolina public schools, as well as for schools across the USA. A recent national supply and demand study reported North Carolina as one of the top four states in need of large numbers of FACS teachers by the year 2000 (Miller & Meszaros, 1996). Likewise, Rebecca Payne (1995), Chief Consultant of Family and Consumer Sciences Education in the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, envisions a shortage of 500 secondary FACS teachers over the next five years. FACS education enrollments in secondary programs have increased in recent years, due in part to the implementation of block scheduling. As more high school students enroll in FACS courses to learn critical life management skills, how will sufficient numbers of qualified FACS teachers be located?

In the past, adequate numbers of college students chose to major in FACS/home economics education and eventually become secondary FACS teachers. In recent years, however, the number of students who majored in FACS education declined dramatically across the nation (Miller & Meszaros, 1996; Weis & Pomraning, 1993). According to Hotta and Meszaros (1995), the total undergraduate enrollment in FACS education programs in 1993 in the United States was 2,088, while the demand for FACS teachers was 7,903. The nationwide trend of lower FACS undergraduate enrollments was characteristic of North Carolina enrollments, as well. During the 1994-95 academic year, only 26 FACS education majors graduated from North Carolina undergraduate programs, and even fewer in 1995-96, numbers which will never provide the 500 teachers needed by the early 2000's. While some of the current vacancies were being filled by substitute teachers, this was not seen as a permanent solution. Rebecca Payne (1995) anticipated that some secondary FACS programs would be closed in the near future if qualified teachers were not located.

In view of the critical shortage of secondary FACS teachers, there is an obvious need to recruit students into this area. However, to successfully recruit these young people, it is first necessary to determine the factors which motivate or deter potential applicants from selecting FACS teaching as a career. For many students, perceptions of various careers as desirable or undesirable become substantial during middle school. Middle school students' perceptions may be influenced by their FACS classes, their friends' opinions of these classes, and their FACS teacher (Callahan, 1993; DeWald-Link & Lester, 1985; Smith, 1995). Middle school students often enter the FACS classroom with a traditional, stereotypical view that FACS involves cooking and sewing (LeBleu and Smith, 1994). Through the class, this perception may be reaffirmed or broadened to include such concepts as nutrition, relationships, housing, consumer education, child development, and clothing selection.

Middle school students' perceptions of FACS can influence their decisions to explore or rule out certain careers. Recruitment studies have been conducted, but most appear to be targeted toward older students, especially undergraduates majoring in FACS or education, or recent graduates (Aadland, Dunkelberger, Molnar, & Purcell, 1983; Callahan, 1993; LeBleu & Smith, 1994; Morales, 1994; Young & Johnson, 1986). Some of these studies have reported the importance of the FACS teacher in students' perceptions of FACS teaching as a career choice (Callahan, 1993; DeWald-Link & Lester, 1985; Smith, 1995). Others have noted that a frequent reason given by students majoring in secondary education or FACS teaching was their desire to help others (Callahan, 1993; Morales, 1994). Education students reported that they looked forward to positively influencing young people's lives during their teaching careers. While a profile of these students will undoubtedly provide valuable information about motivations to enter FACS education, the number of such students is extremely small at present.

A large group of potential FACS teachers exists among the middle school level students, yet few of these students ultimately choose to become FACS teachers. What are their perceptions of FACS teaching as a career? What influences them to consider or reject FACS teaching as a career? What influences their decisions to

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*This research was supported by a grant from the North Carolina Association of Family and Consumer Sciences, Katherine B. Lyons Fund.

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enroll in high school FACS classes? In order to encourage students' consideration of FACS teaching as a potential career, as well as their enrollment in high school FACS classes, it is important to seek answers to questions such as these.

Purpose and Objectives

In view of the critical shortage of family and consumer sciences (FACS) teachers in North Carolina, as well as across the country, this study sought to assess middle school students' perceptions of FACS teaching as a career. Specific objectives included the following:

(1) To determine middle school students' perceptions of FACS programs at their schools, as well as their perceptions of the career of "family and consumer sciences teacher."
(2) To identify factors which may influence students' decisions regarding enrollment in FACS courses at the secondary level.
(3) To identify factors which may influence students' selection of FACS teaching as a career.

Procedures

Following a review of the literature, factors possibly related to students' perceptions of FACS were noted. Questions related to these factors were constructed, and a survey instrument was developed. Selected North Carolina family and consumer sciences (FACS) middle school teachers were contacted to critique the instrument, and their suggestions were incorporated.

The Family and Consumer Sciences Survey for Middle School Students sought information concerning eighth graders' positive and negative perceptions of both FACS teaching as a career and FACS programs at their schools. An initial screening question verified that students were enrolled in the state-approved, eighth grade FACS class, Exploring Life Skills. In open-ended questions, students were asked:

(1) How do you feel about the *Exploring Life Skills* class at your school?
(2) How do you think other students at your school feel about the *Exploring Life Skills* class?
(3) What do you think of the career, "family and consumer sciences teacher?"

Students were then asked if, as an adult, they would like to be a FACS teacher, and why they responded as they did. Students were also asked if they planned to take any FACS classes in high school, as well as the reason for their answer. Demographic information related to age and gender was also collected.

Twenty copies of the survey were mailed to each of 175 randomly selected middle/junior high school FACS teachers in North Carolina. A cover letter which explained the purpose of the study and requested teachers' assistance in collecting the data was included. Teachers were asked to administer the surveys to one of their eighth grade *Exploring Life Skills* classes. To insure that surveys were appropriately administered, teachers were asked to share with their students that participation was voluntary, the survey was anonymous, and questions should be answered as honestly as possible. After students completed the surveys, teachers were asked to collect and return them to the researcher.

The surveys were mailed in February, 1996 to the randomly selected middle school FACS teachers. No follow-up surveys were sent. Descriptive statistics were used to describe respondents' characteristics, as well as their plans for taking FACS classes in high school and their plans for considering a career as a "family and consumer sciences teacher." Open-ended questions regarding students' perceptions of FACS classes and their perceptions of the career, "family and consumer sciences teacher," were content analyzed and categorized as "positive," "negative," or "neutral." Other open-ended questions were analyzed for additional descriptive information.

Findings

Characteristics

Usable questionnaires were returned by 1297 eighth grade students who were currently enrolled in the *Exploring Life Skills* class. Respondents included 757 females (58%) and 537 males (41%); three students did not reveal their gender (Table 1). Students ranged in age from 12-16 years old. The majority of the students (84%) were 13 to 14 years old, while 5% were age 12 and 10% were 15 to 16 years of age. Sixteen students did not provide their ages.

Table 1

Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Number	Percent*
Gender		
Female	757	58
Male	537	41
Age		
12	59	5
13	521	40
14	571	44
15	115	9
16	15	1

*Unequal to 100% due to missing cases.

Middle School Students' Perceptions of Family and Consumer Sciences

Table 2 presents middle school students' perceptions of the state-approved, eighth grade FACS course in which they were enrolled, *Exploring Life Skills*. The majority of students (81%) held positive attitudes regarding the class, while only 10% expressed negative opinions of the class. A greater percentage of female students (85%) reported positive perceptions of the *Exploring Life Skills* class than males (75%).

More than half of the students (57%) felt their friends, whether or not they were enrolled in the *Exploring Life Skills* class, also viewed the class positively (Table 3).

Table 2

Middle School Students' Perceptions of Their FACS Class

Perception	Number	Percent*
Positive	1044	81
Female	641	85
Male	401	75
Negative	102	10
Female	40	5
Male	62	11
Neutral	128	10
Female	68	9
Male	60	11

*Unequal to 100% due to missing cases.

Table 3

Students' Perceptions of their Friends' Opinions of FACS Class

Perception	Number	Percent*
Positive	739	57
Negative	196	15
Neutral	320	25

*Unequal to 100% due to missing cases.

Table 4

Students' Perceptions of "Family and Consumer Sciences Teaching" as a Career

Perception	Number	Percent*
Positive	670	52
Female	461	61
Male	207	39
Negative	358	28
Female	172	23
Male	186	35
Neutral	113	9
Female	56	7
Male	57	11

*Unequal to 100% due to missing cases.

Only 15% felt their friends held a negative attitude toward the eighth grade FACS class at their school.

When asked what they thought of the career, "family and consumer sciences teacher," slightly over half of the students (52%) provided a positive response (Table 4). Approximately one-fourth of the students (28%) responded negatively. A greater percentage of females (61%) than males (39%) viewed the career positively.

Students' Plans Regarding Family and Consumer Sciences Classes and Careers

When asked if they planned to enroll in any FACS classes in high school, more than half (60%) responded "yes," while approximately one-third (35%) said "no" (Table 5). A greater percentage of females (69%) than males (47%) planned to take a secondary FACS class.

Table 5

Middle School Students' Plans to Enroll in High School FACS Classes

Decision	Number	Percent*
"Yes"	773	60
Female	519	69
Male	252	47
"No"	447	35
Female	200	26
Male	247	46

*Unequal to 100% due to missing cases.

Both males and females reported most often that they planned to enroll in future FACS classes because their present class was interesting and enjoyable, as well as helpful preparation for their future lives as adults (Table 6). Females who did not plan to enroll in high school FACS classes were most likely to cite, as their reason for that decision, their plans to take other classes rather than FACS. Males, on the other hand, were most likely to report their dissatisfaction with their current class as their reason for not enrolling in future FACS classes.

Students were asked if, as adults, they would like to become a FACS teacher. As Table 7 indicates, the majority (82%) did not want to become FACS teachers; however, 16% were interested in pursuing that career. Not surprising, more females (19%) than males (12%) expressed interest in teaching FACS.

When asked why they would or would not consider a career as a FACS teacher, both females (43%) and males (52%) most often described the occupation as undesirable (Table 8). Fewer responded that they had already decided to pursue another career. While the majority of students had previously reported positive perceptions regarding the career of "family and consumer sciences teacher," only 13% viewed it as an enjoyable career for themselves.

Table 6

Students' Reasons for Enrollment Decisions Regarding FACS Classes

Reason	Number	Percent*
Will not enroll in high school FACS class		
1. Present middle school class is not helpful	56	4
Female	29	4
Male	27	5
2. Present middle school class is not enjoyable	159	12
Female	59	8
Male	100	19
3. I plan to take other classes and won't have room in my schedule to FACS class.	142	11
Female	84	11
Male	58	11
Will enroll in high school FACS class		
1. It will help prepare me for the future	353	27
Female	252	33
Male	101	19
2. Present middle school class is interesting and enjoyable.	339	26
Female	228	30
Male	110	21
3. Present middle school class is "easy."	18	1
Female	6	1
Male	12	2

*Unequal to 100% due to missing cases.

Table 7

Middle School Students' Plans to Consider FACS Teaching as a Career

Decision	Number	Percent*
"Yes"	208	16
Female	145	19
Male	62	12
"No"	1057	82
Female	594	79
Male	462	86

*Unequal to 100% due to missing cases.

Table 8

Middle School Students' Reasons for Career Decisions Regarding FACS Teaching

Reason	Number	Percent*
Would not like to be a FACS teacher because:		
1. I have other career plans.	217	17
Female	156	21
Male	61	11
2. Pay is low.	58	5
Female	36	5
Male	22	4
3. Career is undesirable to me.	607	47
Female	328	43
Male	279	52
Would like to be a FACS teacher because:		
1. Career appears enjoyable & desirable to me.	167	13
Female	130	17
Male	36	7

*Unequal to 100% due to missing cases.

Discussion and Implications for Educators

Overall, the majority of these North Carolina middle school students held positive perceptions regarding their eighth grade family and consumer sciences (FACS) classes, with many describing their classes as "fun," "enjoyable," and "cool." Their positive comments concerning their *Exploring Life Skills* courses revealed a range of content and activities included in their classes. The most frequent concepts that appeared to be taught and that students appeared to enjoy related to cooking and sewing. The following statements represent the majority of the positive comments students made regarding their FACS classes:

> "It's a really good class because it teaches us how to cook a meal." "I enjoy getting to cook stuff." "It teaches me how to cook better." "I like it because it teaches me to cook, clean, and use manners." "We get to cook and eat the food we make." "I like it because of the cooking and sewing." "It's a good way to learn to be a good housekeeper – to sew, cook, and clean." "It helps people learn about the kitchen and sewing." "The best thing is you get to eat."

Although most students' positive comments about their FACS classes related to cooking and sewing, some students' statements revealed broader views of the course content. It appeared that these students were gaining important life skills related not only to food preparation and clothing, but also family relations, parenting, problem-solving, self-esteem, consumer education, communication, and career education as illustrated by the following statements:

> "I like the class because it teaches you to deal with your problems." "It teaches you how to deal with stress." "I learn about basic life skills which will be useful as I get older." "It teaches you how to feel good about yourself." "It's a good way to learn about how to take care of yourself and others." "It gets you ready for the real world." "It helps you to become a responsible consumer and budget your money." "It teaches you many things which can help to keep your family together." "It helps me to decide what I want to do in the future."

More than half of the middle students in this study planned to enroll in high school FACS classes, and these plans appeared to be directly related to their middle school FACS experiences. Both males and females reported most often that they reached this decision because their present middle school *Exploring Life Skills* class was interesting and enjoyable, as well as good preparation for their future lives as adults. Only a few students stated they planned to take a high school FACS course because it was an "easy" class.

Students not planning to enroll in high school FACS classes provided a number of reasons for their decisions. Some reported that their present middle class was not enjoyable or interesting, providing comments such as "My *Exploring Life Skills* class is boring. All we do is a bunch of worksheets." Others felt they had learned enough "homemaking skills" in their middle school FACS class and therefore further FACS classes in high school would not be helpful, for example, "I already learned how to cook and sew this year, so I don't need it in high school." Some were planning to take other elective courses in high school, such as foreign language, computer classes, advanced math and science, and would have no room in their schedules for FACS classes. One student remarked, "In high school, I need to take classes in important things."

Some students appeared to be confused by the term, "family and consumer sciences." For example, several students remarked, "I don't like FACS because I don't like science." Several others indicated they did not know what FACS was. It appeared that students identified their classes and the FACS profession itself more narrowly by the individual specializations which they studied, e.g., nutrition, child development, interior design, etc., rather than identifying it in its broader sense.

Approximately half of the middle school students in this study reported positive perceptions of the career, "family and consumer sciences teacher," and 16% said they would like to be FACS teachers. When asked why the career was desirable to them, several students reported they would like to help others:

> "I'd like to help other people learn things they need in life." "It would be fun teaching younger people about what they're going to face in the future." "I want to help people plan their lives." "I'd like to teach people good ways to live."

Most of those expressing interest in FACS teaching reported they would enjoy the various responsibilities of the job, although they perceived those responsibilities rather narrowly:

> "I'd like to be an FACS teacher because I love to cook." "I admire my teacher and I love to cook." "I'd like to teach kids to cook and sew." "It would be fun because you get to cook."

Although more than half of the students in this study held positive perceptions of an FACS teaching career, most were not interested in becoming FACS teachers themselves. It is interesting that several, though they did not plan an FACS teaching career, were positively influenced by their FACS teachers:

> "My teacher tries to make us responsible like the way we will be in life at a job – but I don't want to be a teacher like her." "Mrs. – is cool and nice. Her job is very important – but not something I want to do." "My teacher does a great job teaching, but I am interested in something more challenging."

Several students reported they were not interested in becoming FACS teachers because they already had other career plans. Their occupational goals included various vocational trades and professional specialities, such as mechanic, beautician, receptionist, businessman, pediatrician, lawyer, computer programmer, artist, musician, pharmacist, social worker, nurse, interior decorator, pilot, plastic surgeon, veterinarian, electrical engineer, and chemist. Some students reported no specific career plans, but simply did not want to pursue any kind of teaching career. One student remarked, "I would not enjoy teaching," while another stated, "I do not want to be a teacher of any kind."

When asked why FACS teaching was an undesirable career for them, some students mentioned that teaching salaries were insufficient. One male noted, "I wouldn't want to be an FACS teacher because I don't think that it would pay near enough to support my future family." One female stated, "My mother is a teacher, and she is always complaining about how much paper work you have to do and how you don't get paid as much as you should." Several students reported that FACS teaching would be "boring." Some of the male students reported that FACS teaching was "a woman's job," while a few described the career as "unchallenging."

By far, the most frequent responses students provided regarding why FACS teaching was undesirable to them related to student discipline and teaching responsibilities. Many students indicated they would find it difficult and stressful to manage students in the classroom:

> "I couldn't put up with the kids." "I just don't think I could tolerate all the kids yelling, screaming, and making a mess." "I don't think I could handle all those kids." "The students would get on my nerves." "I couldn't put up with kids that back talk." "The kids today don't listen." "I don't think I could handle the stress." "Some kids would drive me crazy." "I don't have enough patience to teach kids."

A large number of students viewed FACS teaching as undesirable because they disliked what they perceived as the responsibilities of FACS teaching:

> "I don't like to sew, wash clothes, or cook." "I don't like sewing or cooking." "I would not like to teach people how to cook and sew." "I don't like to clean up the kitchen." "I'm not into cooking." "I would prefer not to teach sewing and cooking every day." "I am not a great cook or sewer." "I can't cook very well." "I don't really know a lot about cooking or mainly sewing."

What do these middle school students' perceptions of their eighth grade FACS classes and teachers reveal? Do the curricula reflect diverse life skill preparation, or do students learn only to "cook and sew?" Are educators helping students to grasp a full understanding of the FACS profession, or are they simply reaffirming the stereotypical notion that FACS relates only to housekeeping skills? Are middle school FACS educators helping their students visualize the important life skills and occupational training they can obtain through high school FACS classes, perhaps initiating in some the desire to become FACS educators themselves? Or instead, are educators painting a narrow picture of what it means to be a FACS teacher?

While this study sought information regarding students' general impressions of their FACS classes and FACS teaching as a future career in order to direct effective recruitment efforts, it unexpectedly obtained some other, rather disturbing, findings. Although it is commendable that the majority of these students enjoyed their eighth grade FACS classes, was it learning about challenging life skills or eating the food they prepared that accounted for their satisfaction? It is encouraging that a number of these students viewed high school FACS courses as helpful preparation for their adult lives, but do they anticipate that preparation includes the development of consumer, management, parenting, and problem-solving skills, or primarily advanced food preparation and clothing construction skills? This limited vision of FACS further impacts students' perceptions regarding the desirability of FACS teaching as a career. Whether or not students view FACS teaching as a desirable career, they almost always equate it with cooking and sewing, a narrow job description which is not only inaccurate and incomplete, but also unattractive to many young adults.

While it appears that some middle school FACS teachers in this study provided a diverse curriculum that addressed important life skills, far too many appeared to perpetuate an outdated program comprised primarily of "stichin' and stewin.'" Although contemporary textbooks, curriculum guides, and teaching resources emphasize preparation for adult life and professional careers, a substantial number of FACS educators apparently continue to focus on housekeeping skills. Whether or not it is their intent to equate FACS with household competence, these educators certainly appeared to have left that impression with the majority of their students.

It is unfortunate that many students appear to reject FACS teaching as a result of classroom discipline concerns. This could be due to the number of special needs and problem students placed in vocational classes, but there could also be other factors, such as the way the classes were taught.

Further research utilizing middle school students from different geographic regions of the country should be conducted to provide comparisons and contrasts. Such studies might survey middle school students who are interested in attending college, as opposed to a random sample of students, to provide more meaningful information for recruitment purposes.

In view of the critical shortage of FACS teachers, consideration should be given to these students' perceptions of their middle school FACS classes. It is important to reflect upon what's being modeled to students, as well as to parents, colleagues, counselors, administrators, legislators, and communities. Curricula and instructional objectives need to be examined to assure they address critical life skills and issues. Presentation methods and professional outlooks need to be critiqued to assure they communicate the value and importance of what is being taught. FACS educators must be competent, resourceful, and joyful in their approaches to teaching if they are to effectively impact students, and encourage the students to acquire additional life and occupational skills from high school courses, and to pursue a FACS teaching career. The new name, "family and consumer sciences," needs to be clarified to assure it connotes the meaning intended, and that FACS is meaningfully communicated and promoted to others. Never has the need been greater for the current field of FACS educators to exemplify a professional image. The future of the FACS teaching profession depends upon it!

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BOOK BRIEFS

Inquiry into Thinking, Yearbook 18, Educational and Technology Division, American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (1998). Ruth G. Thomas & Janet Laster, Editors. Peoria, IL: Glencoe/McGraw-Hill.

Reviewed by **Sally Yahnke***

> *The 1998 Family and Consumer Sciences Yearbook is the second yearbook in a two-volume series that explores thinking in family and consumer sciences (FACS) education. Editor Thomas states, The purpose of this yearbook is not to provide a review of recent research on thinking in family and consumer sciences (FACS) education. Such a review was done in a prior yearbook (Thomas, 1996). Instead, the purpose of this yearbook is to provide deep glimpses into some of the research referred to in that review and into FACS educators' experiences and struggles to integrate a thinking focus into their professional practice. (p.ix)*

In the introduction to this yearbook, Thomas (1998) identified three goals: to bring together scholarly efforts concerning the conceptualization, facilitation, and assessment of thinking in FACS; to reflect on what has been learned about thinking and its implications for FACS programs, professionals, and clients; and to extend of the current state of knowledge in these areas through further inquiry. The yearbook provided answers to several questions. Thomas identified these as possible answers, not definitive "right" answers. More important, Thomas asserted, are the questions that guided the inquiry. These questions included, "What is the nature of thinking relevant to the interests and mission of FACS?" and "How can such thinking be studied, facilitated and assessed" (p. x)? The yearbook was divided into two sections, each attempting to answer these questions.

Section I - Practical Reasoning: An Integrated Intellectual, Social and Contextual Process

The first section of the yearbook focused on the nature of practical reasoning as it related to the mission of FACS; ways of studying, facilitating and assessing practical reasoning; and challenges presented by practical reasoning.

In chapter one, Marsha Rehm explored practical problems as aesthetic wholes, discussed aesthetic qualities in relation to practical problems, related aesthetic qualities to imaginative and critical thinking, and suggested implications for FACS educators and researchers. She concluded the chapter by presenting ways for FACS educators to enrich and enhance individual's thinking about practical problems through the use of an aesthetic perspective. Rehm identified the need for empirical, interpretive and critical studies to further explore the role of the aesthetic perspective when solving practical problems.

Deb Knippel took the reader on a journey in chapter two as she and her family experienced and worked to resolve a problem using practical reasoning. She discussed the challenges of using practical reasoning in families as they learn new ways of thinking and communicating. Knippel also encouraged family and consumer sciences professionals to promote practical reasoning by applying it in their professional and personal lives.

In chapter three, Cheryl Fedje described approaches and strategies she used in her undergraduate family and consumer education classes to help students understand the use of practical reasoning in classrooms. Fedje also discussed specific challenges she encountered when teaching the practical reasoning process. Fedje was very candid in this chapter, and her account of the processes she used with her students will help all educators as they continue to work with students and explore practical reasoning.

Janet Laster, in chapter four, provided insight into the inquiry she and her students made as they probed issues involved in assessing reasoning and related decision making processes revealed in students' responses to open ended practical problems. Discussion of how practical reasoning should be assessed, issues surrounding such assessment, and a sample assessment model for practical reasoning were included in the chapter. Laster concluded the chapter by providing questions for further inquiry.

In chapter five, Judy Martin discussed a study she conducted to determine the effectiveness of Laster's practical reasoning instruction model (chapter four) for improving the decision making skills of 10th grade FACS students. Her research findings indicated implications for teachers and others interested in helping students improve decision making through the use of practical reasoning.

Jeanette Daines concluded the first section of the yearbook in chapter six. She discussed, synthesized and critiqued each author's exploration the complexities of practical reasoning. Daines concluded the chapter by offering questions for further examination and encouraged continued learning, testing, and sharing of issues connected to practical reasoning.

Section II - Context and Thinking

The second section of the yearbook addressed the relationship between thinking and context and the implications for teaching, learning, and assessing within the contexts of family and consumer sciences.

In chapter seven, Kathryn Rettig examined thinking in relation to the family context. She reviewed research on the aspects of practical reasoning, problem solving, and decision making in families and the challenges researchers face when examining thinking processes in families. She also discussed what was unique about thinking in families, the problems families encountered and how they were solved. The chapter concluded by offering implications for educators as they work with students to improve the processes and products of family thinking.

Betty Cooke discussed knowledge as a context that influences the thinking of parents in chapter eight. The chapter presented an overview of a research study that examined the thinking and knowledge fundamental to parenting expertise. The findings and implications for parenting education were discussed. The chapter concluded by applying research to evaluate a statewide parent education program.

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The thinking professionals do concerning challenges in practice was discussed in chapter nine by Michelle Englund. The challenge posed to professionals was to engage in reflective practice as they restructured their knowledge of child development into professional practice when working with children. Recommendations for educational practice and suggestions for further research were also included in the chapter.

In chapter ten, Julie Johnson examined research on teacher thinking and conditions that foster teacher change. Johnson also presented a model for teacher transformation in this chapter. Specific findings concerning changes in FACS teachers toward the development of a critical science orientation were discussed. Johnson encouraged readers to continue to challenge their thinking, persist in their research efforts to examine change in thinking and to analyze research in FACS and education to help to understand and reach goals.

Ann Vail examined her thinking as a teacher educator by reflecting on her personal history in chapter eleven. Vail shared her experiences as a child on her family's farm in Colorado, primarily time spent hoeing in an onion field. This reflection provided Vail with the opportunity to examine her role as a teacher educator and the impact personal history plays in the development of professional lives. Reading Vail's chapter may prompt others to examine their personal history and the impact of it on professional practice.

In chapter twelve Ruth Thomas discussed the need for developing assessment that will accurately document student learning of higher order thinking processes. Specifically, the chapter focused on the development and evaluation of a FACS relevant tailored response test. Thomas identified the need for continued development and evaluation of assessments to document student learning.

Wendy Way and Susan Nitzke explored subject matter as a context in chapter thirteen. They reported on several nutrition related critical thinking projects. Way and Nitzke concluded the chapter by identifying unresolved technical, conceptual and epistimological issues and made recommendations for further inquiry.

Francis Smith examined the concerns of development as a context that influenced thinking in chapter fourteen. Smith focused on early adolescent cognitive development and cited research and theories related to this development. She concluded the chapter by discussing the role FACS education can play in creating an environment that encourages the development of thinking in young adolescents.

In chapter fifteen, Maxine Rowley identified why it was important to teach thinking in FACS secondary classrooms. She discussed the interdisciplinary and integrative perspective of FACS that teaches, supports and engages students in thinking.

Connie Ley synthesized the second section of the yearbook in chapter sixteen. She identified the themes that were presented in this section and made recommendations for further inquiry into the role of context in teaching thinking in family and consumer sciences.

The 1998 Family and Consumer Sciences Yearbook, Inquiry into Thinking, provided insight into the experiences the chapter authors have had as they've integrated thinking into their practice, the challenges they've faced during this journey, and personal reflections about these experiences. The yearbook will be a valuable resource for FACS professionals. The yearbook can be used with undergraduate and graduate students as they attempt to understand the role thinking plays in FACS educational settings. Inservice teachers will find the yearbook helpful as they develop curriculum that focuses on thinking and assess the impact of teaching thinking. Professionals in FACS content areas will benefit from the yearbook as they develop educational programs for students and clients. Finally, the yearbook provides professionals the opportunity to examine their personal reflections about thinking and the impact on professional practice.

BOOK BRIEFS

Thinking for Ethical Action in Families and Communities Yearbook 17. Education and Technology Division. American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences. (1997). Janet F. Laster and Ruth G. Thomas, Editors Peoria, IL: Glencoe Publishing Company.

Reviewed by **Norma Bobbitt***

> *This book, the seventeenth in a series, continues the exploration of issues significant to family and consumer sciences education. Thinking for ethical action in families and communities is explored from multiple perspectives — teacher roles, student roles, community and society leader roles and family as educator roles. The yearbook is divided into four sections, and each focuses on a different dimension of thinking for ethical action. Seventeen authors have contributed to the yearbook.*

Philosophical and Conceptual Foundations for Thinking for Ethical Action

The focus of section I is the Philosophical and Conceptual Foundations for Thinking for Ethical Action. Margaret E. Arcus in chapter one, reviewed alternative theories of ethical thought. She identified the beginnings of concern for ethics by professionals of family and consumer sciences as occurring at the turn of this century. She accepted the definition of ethics and morality for being "centrally concerned with the nature of human conduct and character, that is, with the kind of people we are (our character) and how we related to each other and to the world around us (our conduct)." This definition is influenced by the writings of Ladd (1980), Franken (1973), and Thiroux, (1986). Two major schools of ethical thought were divided by teleological theories and deontological theories. Teleological theories deal with consideration of consequences of their actions. Some versions of this theory are act-utilitarianism, rule-utilitarianism and ethical egoism. Deontological theories deal with non-consequentialist acts. These theories include divine command theory, Kant's theory of duty ethics, intuitionism and emotivism. In implications for ethical action, it was noted that theories do not provide specific answers but guide thinking about ethical questions.

In chapter 2, Ruth Thomas reviews family and consumer sciences literature to determine what was meant by "thinking for ethical action for families." The review supported three primary components of an other-orientation or disposition which included respect for persons, caring and altruism.

Margaret M. Bubolz and Margaret Conery Clifford in chapter 3 discussed a framework for creating a shared moral ecology in family and consumer sciences. This framework is influenced by the mission which should be based on the development of social-ethical character more responsive to genuine human needs. Knowledge and practice by professionals must be grounded in interpretive and critical perspectives in science to achieve this mission. A four component model of ethical development by James Rest (1986) is presented as a means for creating moral behavior. The components included moral sensitivity, moral judgement, moral motivation, and moral character. To achieve a shared moral ecology, professionals in family and consumer sciences need to work with other professionals concerned with helping families to achieve human betterment.

In chapter 4, Nel Noddings discussed caring which required interpersonal reasoning and skill. Attention has been focusing on caring, especially in consideration of feminist ways of thinking and acting. She considers the link between an ethical orientation and caring and one's experiences as an individual and as a family and community member.

Jerrold R. Coombs in chapter 5 asked what is practical reasoning and how can it be enhanced? Coombs defined practical reasoning as any reasoning about desirability of actions, practices, polices and programs of action. He investigated what sort of inquiry was required for identifying justified standards in three different contexts – deciding among morally acceptable alternatives, resolving moral uncertainty and deliberating as a member of a group. He stated that it is the task of professionals in family and consumer education to help students to see why and how they should modify their existing practices of practical deliberation and criticism.

Katherine Whybrow considers in chapter 6, intersubjectivity in relation to establishing an understanding. She believed that an understanding of intersubjectivity was integral to the study of human development. Intersubjectivity is a word that described a process in which meaning was derived from interactions (cognitive, social and emotional) among individuals.

In chapter 7, Carol Morgaine discusses reflection and ethical action as critical to the theory of self formation. She identified the ideal functioning of professionals in family and consumer sciences which required attention to the development of the moral, cultural and social dimensions of human and family relationships in addition to the physical, biological and economical aspects of life. A theory of self formation was proposed by Morgaine which evolved from the interrelationship of the stages of authenticity, power, abandonment, shame, defenses, addictions, prejudice, and oppression.

Edith E. Baldwin in the final chapter (8) of the section on philosophical and conceptual foundations for thinking for ethical action considered the role of critical theory in shaping ethical action for policy affecting families. Policy making as an emancipatory praxis involves critical thinking developed dialectically and dialogically with citizens and intellectual and moral leadership provided by professionals.

Developmental Foundations Underlying Thinking & Ethical Action

Section II provided an overview of developmental foundations underlying thinking for ethical action. Nancy Eisenberg in chapter 9 considered prosocial moral reasoning and its development. A historical view of prosocial development identified a shift toward understanding of social development with a pro perspective in the 60s and 70s rather than the traditional anti view. Five levels of prosocial moral reasoning were presented as adapted from the work of Eisenberg (1986). The five levels included Hedonistic, self-focused orientation, needs-orientation, approval and interpersonal orientation and/or stereotyped orientation, self reflective, empathic orientation, transitional level, and strongly internalized stage.

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Barbara A. Wilson in chapter 10 considered the intellectual and ethical development and implications for critical thinking, ethical action and education. Ethical action required critical thinking but critical thinking may not result in ethical action. Critical thinking involved the ability to question one's own view and to consider other views and paradigms plus reasoning dialectically to identify strengths and weaknesses of one's own and other's views. William Perry's (1968, 1981) Scheme of Intellectual and Ethical Development was embraced as a framework for finding meaning and involved four positions – dualism, multiplicity, relativism, and commitment. Excellent considerations were given to educational implications and applications of utilizing Perry's scheme of intellectual and ethical development.

Curriculum and Instruction for Thinking for Ethical Action in Families and Communities

Section III gives consideration to curriculum and instruction for thinking for ethical action in families and communities. Linda Peterat and Annabelle Slocum in chapter 11 provided a historical overview of teaching critical thinking in family and consumer sciences education. The point was made that this field has always partially justified itself as a school subject which fosters intellectual development. Several eras in education and family and consumer sciences education have highlighted critical thinking.

Amy Jean Knorr and Doris E. Manning in chapter 12 shared their experiences with a funded project that identified reasoning and acting associated with practical problems faced by families. Knowing has to be supplemented with the capacity and inclination to reason critically and to act responsibly. An ethical framework strengthened reasoning and acting abilities while considering ends sought and means used.

In chapter 13, Jerry McClelland discussed critical pedagogy as a guidepost for ethical action in family and consumer sciences education. To achieve ethical action required exposing power relations and making caring central to actions.

The authors, Donna Coomer, Laurie Hittman and Cheryl Fedje provided insights about how questioning can be used as a teaching strategy as well as everyday life strategy. Three kinds of questions – technical, conceptual and critical were reviewed from the perspectives of function, knowledge and truth.

In chapter 15, Sonja C. Sponheim muses about housekeeping as a means to critical reflection utilizing literature, Critical reflection is considered a means to emancipation and transformation.

Orienting Professional Practice Toward Ethical Action

Section IV highlights ways of orienting professional practice toward ethical action. Eleanore Vaines in chapter 16 provided a map to guide ethical action in professional practice and in our personal lives. Technical rational practice, reflective practice and no choice practice were explored as territories and boundaries for modes of practice.

Patricia Copa considered keeping critical company as way of enriching through reflective communities our ethical action orientation. The idea of critique and how it can perform a role in fostering growth is debated. Encounters as with a significant person, a special book or writing, and/or a group of colleagues have potential for fostering reflection and ethical action.

This book is an excellent resource for teachers and teacher educators. It provides a clear, concrete and understandable discussion of an abstract topic–thinking for ethical action. A variety of tables, charts and figures further explain the concept. It would have been helpful to have included in the book a listing of states that have produced curriculum guides with a thinking for ethical action orientation.