

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Phyllis Martin Davidson entitled "Fears in Middle Childhood: Peer Acceptance, Self Perception, and Coping Strategies of Rural Children." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Home Economics.

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FEARS IN MIDDLE CHILDHOOD: PEER ACCEPTANCE,
SELF PERCEPTION, AND COPING STRATEGIES
OF RURAL CHILDREN

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to (a) determine the relationship between fearfulness of children in middle childhood and peer acceptance and self-perception, (b) to determine gender and grade differences in content and intensity of self-reported fears, and (c) to investigate the coping strategies used by children in middle childhood. The subjects were 137 rural fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children.

The Children's Fear Survey Schedule (Ryall & Dietiker, 1979) was used to determine the content and intensity of children's fears. The MacB Personal Competence Inventory (McDougal & Brown, 1971) was used to measure peer acceptance and self-perception. Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used to ascertain the relationship between fearfulness and peer acceptance and self-perception. A two-way analysis of variance was used to determine grade and gender differences in the self-reported fear of children. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the content and intensity of fears and the reported coping strategies.

The results indicated that children's fearfulness was related to self-perception but was not related to peer acceptance. Children's self-reports of fear varied by gender but not by grade.

Content of fears was similar for boys and girls, but girls reported higher levels of intensity of fear responses. Personal and social resources were both coping strategies used by children in response to fear stimuli. The results indicated the need for

future research to investigate numerous variables influencing the development of fear in children, to determine intensity levels of fear responses, and to find strategies used by children in response to fear stimuli.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Fears in children have been studied from infancy to adolescence. Limited research was conducted before 1930. However, at that time a series of studies were conducted by Jersild and his associates that have formed the basis for much of what is known today about children's fears (Jersild & Holmes, 1935a; Jersild & Holmes, 1935b; Jersild, Markey & Jersild, 1933). Most researchers have been psychologists, although, in the past two decades, educators and mental health professionals have also shown an interest in the study of children's fears.

Interviews, parental records, questionnaires and projective techniques predominately have been used to assess the school-age children's fears. Questionnaires have been used far more frequently than any other method in conducting research and have dealt with identifying the content of fears with little concern for intensity of either the fear stimuli or the fear response.

Findings have suggested that there is a sequential development of children's fears which parallel the changes in children's perception of reality and cognitive growth as described by Piaget (1955). Bauer (1976) suggested that as children acquire a more elaborate set of verbal skills, their fears become more realistic and specific.

Although various implications have been drawn by past researchers, some generally accepted findings can be summarized. As children progress from birth to the twelfth year of age, their fears become more varied, more realistic, and better articulated. Individual differences influence the development of fears as children mature, and these differences arise from a number of variables. Further research is needed to understand better the ways in which these differences are associated with children's fears during middle childhood.

Rationale for This Study

Pratt (1945) conducted a study which provided a description of the fears of rural children. Since that time a rural sample of children has not been used in studying children's fears. Orton (1982) did include rural children in her sample, but they were subsumed in the total sample without being analyzed as a special sub-group of the sample. Textbook authors continue to base their information on studies which are 30 to 40 years old (Croake & Hinkle, 1976). New technology in mass media and communications, increased mobility, and social change which have influenced values and attitudes, create a need for more recent data in order to ascertain fears of rural children. Current research is needed to provide a basis for comparing the fears of rural and urban children.

Middle childhood is a neglected stage of development in

research which has been conducted on children's fears. Some studies have grouped children together in age groups which are too broad and varied (Jersild et al., 1933; Pratt, 1945). Beyond the primary years, fear provoking stimuli do change (Angelino, Dollins & Mech, 1956; Bauer, 1976; Croake, 1969; Miller, Barrett, Hampe & Noble, 1972) with some earlier fears becoming less important and other fears becoming more important. Angelino and Shedd (1953) and MacFarlane, Allen, and Honzik (1954) found a sharp increase in the number of fears of children around the ages of 9 to 11. However, few attempts have been made to identify factors that are associated with these changes.

Angelino et al. (1956) questioned 9- to 18-year-olds and found that worries about social relations tended to increase with age. Hartup (1984) reported that recurrent themes in contemporary research on peer relations in middle childhood are issues such as reciprocity, fairness, equity, mutuality, and intimacy. Richmond, Stevenson and Graham (1982) reported that social difficulties in early childhood were not predictors of social difficulties in middle childhood. However, individual problems in middle childhood were correlated with adjustment later in life. Coie and Dodge (1983) found that social rejection among children in middle childhood tends to indicate a continuation of it in later life. Research is needed which provides multidimensional examinations of social-emotional processes during the time of social development when outcomes seem to be predictors of later adjustment.

Blyth (1983) expounded upon this idea by suggesting that future research needed to focus on the question of how social relationships help a child to survive in their social world. One suggestion for accomplishing this was to expand our awareness of all components of the child's social world and to become more sensitive to the child's perceptions of that world. A second suggestion was to take a developmental approach so that a more comprehensive framework could be developed. Lastly, studies should recognize the role of both physical and social environmental factors associated with the sociometric status of children. The present study of children's fears examined the relationship of fear to both peer acceptance and self perception. There has been little research done which has focused on the dimensions of children's fears and social processes, although the need for such research has been identified (Blyth, 1983). This information could be used by parents and teachers to assist children in coping with their fears and in facilitating accepting social relationships with peers. If positive adjustment can be achieved during middle childhood, it would provide the basis for it to continue during adolescence and adulthood. It is particularly important to understand and deal with these issues before children enter junior high school where they must cope with an influx of new peers and the challenges of developing new relationships.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships

between children's fears and (1) peer acceptance and (2) self perceptions of rural boys and girls in middle childhood. In addition, descriptive information concerning the content of the fear stimuli, the intensity of fear responses, and exploratory information on children's coping strategies were also examined.

Objectives

The primary objectives of this study were:

1. To determine the relationship between peer acceptance and fears of rural fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children.
2. To determine the relationship between self perception and fear of rural fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children.
3. To examine the gender differences of fears among rural fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys and girls.

The secondary objectives of this study were:

1. To describe the content of the fear stimuli of rural fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys and girls.
2. To provide some exploratory information about the coping strategies used in response to fears by rural fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children.

Assumptions

This research study was based on four primary assumptions. The first assumption was that developmental factors influence children's fear responses in a variety of ways. Scholars have reported in

reviews of research that there appear to be differences across developmental stages in content of fears and intensity of fear responses (Bauer, 1976; Croake & Knox, 1973; Graziano, DeGiovanni & Garcia, 1979; Miller, 1979; Morris & Kratochwill, 1983; Smith, 1979).

The second assumption was that fear responses are comprised of both cognitive and social-emotional elements. Maccoby (1983) posited that there is little uniformity in the stimuli that are stressful for individuals in the same circumstances because of individual differences in social-emotional development. Derevensky (1979) contended that fears are learned dependent upon intellectual and maturational level.

A third assumption was that children's perceptions are a valid source of information. Burr, Leigh, Day, and Constantine (1979) discussed the concept of "definition of a situation" which is a central concept in symbolic interactional literature. This concept basically refers to the idea that what is perceived to be reality is in truth reality for that individual.

The last assumption to form the basis for this research was that peer acceptance and self perception are resources that children draw upon in coping with their fears. Maccoby (1983) explained the declining attachment to parents and the increasing dependency on peers as significant others during middle childhood. The importance of social integration and social support in coping with stresses throughout life recently has been well documented (Cobb, 1982; Caplan, 1982).

Theoretical Model

The theoretical model for this study was based on an integration of a set of sequential progressions in an individual's response to stressors proposed by Maccoby (1983) and an analysis of specific variables influencing a child's reaction to fear described by Graziano et al. (1979). Maccoby referred to the set of sequential progressions as a "chain of events." The chain begins with an arousing event which disrupts the equilibrium of an individual. The next link in the chain is a response which an individual makes to the arousing event. The response is usually accompanied by strong affect. The specific affect results in the individual engaging in some problem solving activities to achieve adaptation. This adaptation may be either positive or negative. This chain of events which describes stress occurs in the same sequence across situations.

Graziano et al. (1979) also reported that children's fears proceed through complex processes, and that these processes are further complicated by many variables and their interactions. It was suggested that further research focus on examining these variables. The process begins as a child encounters a fear stimuli which is the first source of variation in the process since it can have either an internal or external source of origin or a combination of both. Fear stimuli may also vary in terms of content or type, number, intensity, and duration. These variables evoke a response that may be physiological, cognitive, and/or behavioral. This response may

vary in terms of latency, intensity, and duration. Social settings are another source which contribute to variation; as a result, any part of the process can be changed. Past research has focused mainly on identifying fear stimuli and on modifying overt fear responses, and most of these other variables need to be examined empirically.

Davidson, Poppen, Smith, and White (1984) refined the processes and variables identified by Maccoby (1983) and Graziano et al. (1979) and integrated them into a theoretical model of children's fear. This model is shown in Figure 1. Definitions of the terms used in the model were developed jointly by Davidson and Smith (1985) and are found in Appendix A. The model begins with the individual and follows a circular flow of conditions. Each step in the process has a set of variables which may influence the quality of the child's responses. Each individual child brings to fear producing situations characteristics which influence their perceptions of fear stimuli. Developmental characteristics, gender, age, constitution, subculture or socio-economic status and past socialization all impact on the type of stimuli that will evoke fear. Past research has provided information on some of these variables; however, empirical investigations have attempted to relate them primarily to content and number of fears, and few have focused on intensity, duration, familiarity, and predictability.

Conflicting conclusions have been drawn about many of the variables. For example, many studies have reported that girls

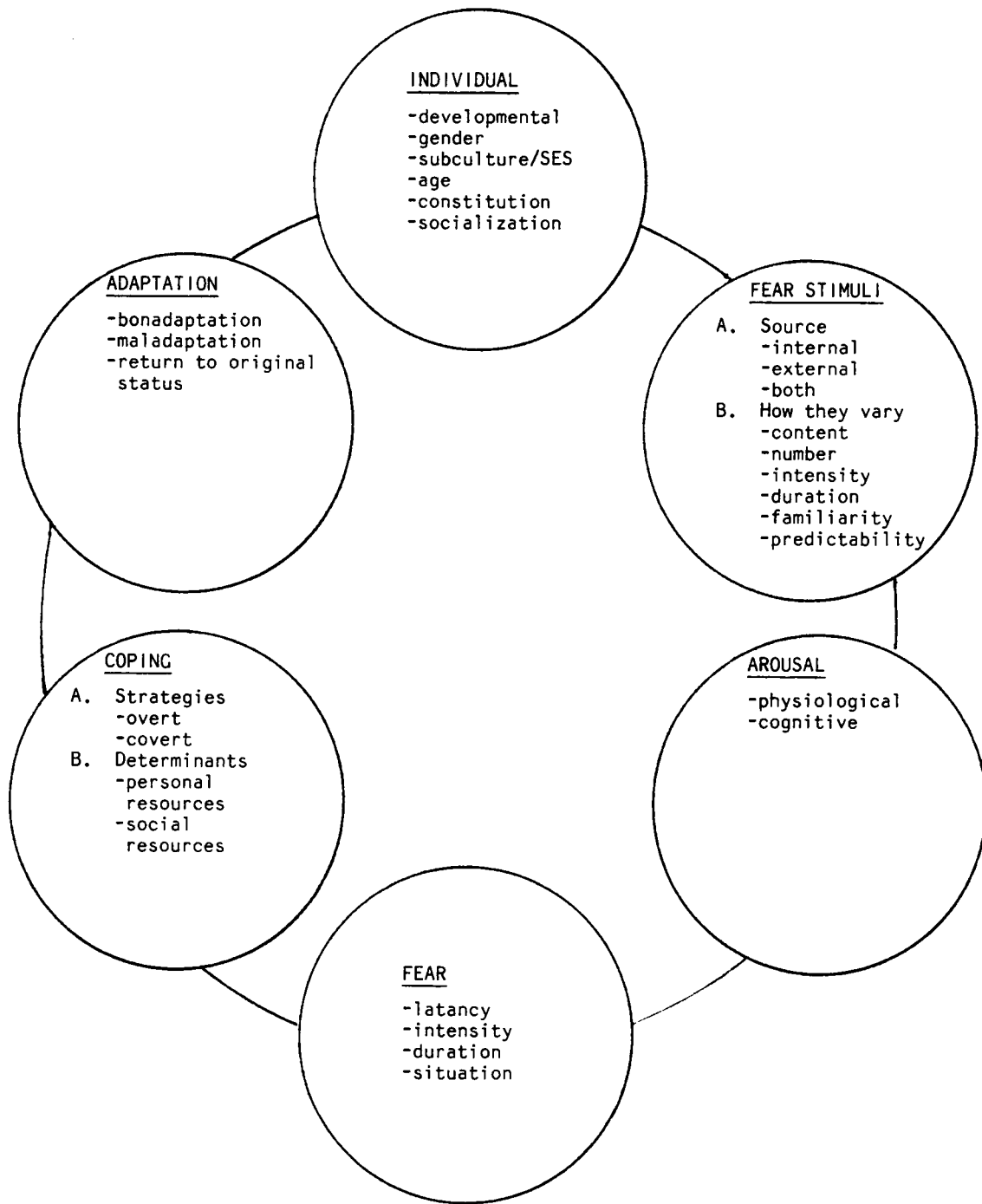


Figure 1. Integrative Model of Children's Fear

are more fearful than boys (Angelino et al., 1956; Croake, 1969; Croake & Knox, 1973; Lapouse & Monk, 1959; Orton, 1982; Pratt, 1945; Russell, 1967; Winker, 1949), whereas, other studies found no significant differences in fears of boys and girls (Eme & Schmidt, 1978; Maurer, 1965; Miller, Barrett, Hampe & Noble, 1972; Nalven, 1970). Croake (1969) reviewed several studies (Holmes, 1935; Jersild, Golman & Loftus, 1941; Jersild & Holmes, 1935; Lapouse & Monk, 1959; Pratt, 1945) and reported inconsistent findings about the age of subjects and the number of fears. A review of Angelino and Shedd (1953), Jersild et al. (1933), Lapouse and Monk (1959), and Pintner and Lev (1940) did not provide unanimous agreement about the most prevalent types of fears. Future research on these variables could clarify these findings and provide new information about the types of the fear stimuli as well as the intensity and duration of fear stimuli.

Arousal, which is the next step in the model, occurs almost simultaneously with exposure to the fear stimuli but for purposes of the model would need to be separated in order to be examined. Since arousal can be described as being both physiological and cognitive, further understanding of the circumstances which determine whether a child labels their arousal or emotional state as fear or as some other affective state is needed. Research with adults has indicated that the situational context has much to do with how emotional states are labeled by individuals (Dutton & Aron, 1974). Past research in this area has focused on physiological

changes such as palmer sweating, changes in heart rates, and respiratory irregularities. Most of the work has been done with infants and younger children, and few investigative efforts have been conducted with preschool or middle childhood age children.

The affective state of fear which is a normal reaction to a real or perceived threat, differs in terms of latency, intensity, duration, and situation. Instruments used in the measurement of children's fear are limited (Ryall & Dietiker, 1979), and an even fewer number of them are designed to measure any of the variables listed above. A study of any of these variables would provide a clearer understanding of the nature of fear reactions.

The extent of the fear reaction determines whether a child will engage in overt or covert coping strategies. The presence of variables listed previously in this model as well as the availability of personal and social resources will determine what the child does in response to experiencing fear. The ways in which children cope with fear reactions further influence the type of adaptation they achieve. A child may return to the previous state of equilibrium, make some effective modification in an attempt to adjust to the fear (bonadaptation), or make ineffective modifications which result in maladaptation.

This study was an attempt to investigate some of the variables presented in this model. More specifically, the present study compared fearfulness of children in terms of gender. The relationships between fear and the personal resources of self

perception and the social resources of peer acceptance also were examined. Further contributions to the understanding of fears during middle childhood were made by providing descriptive information on the content of fear responses, and coping strategies used in dealing with fears.

Nominal Definitions

The following definitions which define anything about fear were based on Graziano, DeGiovanni, and Gracia (1979).

In this study fear referred to a normal developmental reaction to a real or perceived threat.

Peer acceptance referred to a child's status as perceived by age mates.

Self perception referred to a child's perception of personal status.

Content of fear stimuli referred to the child's description or type of fear response.

Intensity of fear referred to the degree of severity of the fear response.

Coping strategies referred to what an individual does as a result of experiencing a stressful situation.

Middle childhood referred to boys and girls in fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classes in an elementary school.

Rural children referred to a group of children who resided in the least density populated county in the area in which they lived, thereby

making the group distinctive enough to distinguish it from others within the same culture.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Well designed studies on children's fears are not prevalent in the literature. This statement was made in the 1960's (Berecz, 1968), a decade later in the 1970's (Graziano et al., 1979), and continues to be true in the 1980's. Overall, the research has yielded mainly suggestive results. More empirical examination in this area is definitely needed. At the present time there are only tentative findings that fears are related to age, social class, and patterns of pathological behaviors when fears are extreme. One problem with research in this area has been the limited development of appropriate instrumentation. Further, limited longitudinal studies are available. To date there is almost no information available about intensity of fear responses at various ages.

Another problem which has plagued this area of research has been the diverse foci and theoretical orientations used in studies. Derevensky (1979) noted that fear research evolved from interest in three types of processes: innate, learning, and maturation. The theoretical perspectives used to explore these options have been divergent. One is the psychoanalytic or Freudian theory which suggested that fears are firmly rooted in early interactions with parents. Another theory which has been used is learning theory which focuses on the modification of behavior through environmental contingencies and experiences. A third theoretical perspective is

maturational theory which suggested that as children grow and mature, cognitive capabilities increase, and changes in fears result.

Empirical studies have supported aspects of each of these theoretical positions. For example Jersild and Holmes (1935) found that infants were afraid of loud noises, falling, strange objects, situations and persons, and pain. Maurer (1965) conducted a study with a sample of 112 children, ages 5 through 14, and found 80 percent of the younger children (ages 5 and 6) reported fears of specific kinds of animals; 60 percent of those ages 7 through 12 feared animals, but after 12 these responses occurred less frequently. It was also found that things which young children are supposedly taught to fear like kidnappers, germs, and traffic were seldom mentioned. Conclusions were that as a child matures, fears become more realistic, based more upon experiential learning rather than instruction.

Derevensky (1979) used the same fear question that was used by Maurer and reported different results. From a study with 106 normal children, ages 6 to 12 and 133 EMR, TMR, and SLD children ages 7 to 9, it was concluded that the majority of the responses were real rather than imaginary and that children did report fears of things about which they had been taught. Conclusions were that fears are dependent upon intellectual and maturational level, and are a result of personal experiences and also lessons taught by parents or teachers.

The very earliest studies on children's fears which were prior to the seminal work by Jersild were conducted to determine the innate nature of fears. Hebb (1946) presented a developmental view that

challenged both the innate and learning approaches. He cited a large number of fear responses that could not be accounted for by innate predisposition nor by conditioning and imitation. He contended that experiences were necessary for fears to develop. Almost 40 years later these varying arguments continue. Delprato (1980) reported after reviewing the literature that the ontogeny of any behavior cannot be approached as "innate vs. learned," but that a developmental approach would be more appropriate. This approach would take into account the organism's developmental history which begins at conception and in which genetic and experiential factors work together. It would also provide a comprehensive perspective for integrating past research. For this reason, a review of developmental factors associated with children's fears was used as the basis for the review of research in the present study.

Following the context of developmental factors, literature in terms of reports of children's fears during middle childhood was reviewed. The issues examined were the content of the fear stimuli, gender differences in the fear responses, and intensity of fear responses. The importance of peer acceptance and self perception in middle childhood and a summary of the few studies which have considered the relationship between these two variables and fears in middle childhood comprised another foci of the review of the literature.

The final emphasis in the review was on findings about how children cope once they have experienced the affective state of fear.

Peer acceptance and self perceptions were examined as resources for coping.

Developmental Factors

During the years of middle childhood, there are many distinctive developmental characteristics. Piaget (1955) has identified the ages of 6 or 7 to 11 as a new stage of cognitive development termed concrete operations. Children in middle childhood develop new mental abilities such as the formation of concepts of classes, relations, and numbers. This stage of cognitive development signals the beginning of logical thinking, the extension of moral development, and the social progress of cooperation. The child thinks in terms of cause and effect and things which are real or concrete.

The stage of formal operations supposedly begins at the age of 11 and continues until 15 at which time the individual has the mental operations of adult cognition. Instead of having to think in concrete terms, it is now possible to think in abstractions. This entails the ability to combine all factors involved in a situation so all possibilities are recognized. Maccoby (1983) reported that there is considerable evidence that many children develop some of these skills much earlier than Piaget had reported. This means that children in middle childhood can be in either of these stages or can have some characteristics of both stages.

Only a small number of studies have been conducted in the past 40 years in which structure and developmental sequences were analyzed

(Angelino, Dollins & Mech, 1956; Bauer, 1976; Derevensky, 1979; Jersild, Markey & Jersild, 1933; Maurer, 1965; Winker, 1949). The results suggested that the development of children's fears reflected a change in children's perceptions of reality as described by Piaget. Global and undifferentiated fears such as ghosts and monsters expressed by younger children are replaced with more realistic and specific fears among older children such as bodily injury and physical danger. These changes indicate increased differentiation of internal representations from objective reality. Poznanski (1972) suggested that childhood fears could relate to children's ability to comprehend their environment since some research has shown that younger children have more fears as compared to older children.

Piaget said that children progressed from egocentric perceptions of causality which involve realism, animism, and dynamism to physical cause-effect perceptions. Bauer (1976) concluded that this was the reason sixth graders reported fewer fears of animals than did kindergartners and second graders. The fact that sixth graders reported fewer bedtime fears, when darkness hides visual images, was consistent with the idea that older children's perceptions of reality are less imaginary than those of younger children. Reports of fewer frightening dreams by sixth graders could also have been the result of the perception of separation of fantasy from reality.

Language development was thought by Piaget to contribute to a differentiation of egocentric perceptions. Stevenson (1972) reported that the development of language abilities assisted children in

structuring their perceptions by increasing the distinctive qualities of the stimuli. This increase in linguistic ability resulted in the ability to better distinguish objects or reality. This viewpoint could be an explanation for Maurer's (1965) findings that older children tended to qualify their answers with phrases such as "dogs with rabies."

Another developmental issue of importance in middle childhood is the importance of peer relations. During the elementary school years, children's interactions with their peers become increasingly significant. As a result of these interactions, new perceptions of self are formed (Elkind & Weiner, 1978). School age children become keenly aware of the mental, physical, and personality characteristics of one another and are quick to identify members of the peer group according to their prominent traits. An analysis of research studies has confirmed a close relationship between school age children's conception of self and perceptions of them by their classmates (Bradley & Newhouse, 1975).

In summary, children in middle childhood are functioning at a higher cognitive level which enables them to have more realistic and specific fears. The proximity-maintaining phase of attachment behavior has waned. There is a decline in fear of perceptual incongruity, noise, and strange people or events. There is an increase in fears related to social or conflict relations with peers. There is also the realization of incongruities between beliefs and behavior. This results in some changes in fears.

Reports of Children's Fears

Content of fear stimuli has been studied in conjunction with numerous variables. However, little research has been conducted with rural samples. Pratt (1945) has been the only researcher to study specifically rural children. Using a sample of 570 children, ages 4 to 14, children were asked to write down all of the things they were afraid of. Findings were that 75 percent of the children listed being afraid of animals with the highest frequencies being reported for bears, snakes, and bulls. Next came dogs, lions, tigers, fire, wolves, elephants, and horses. Only 3 percent specified a fear of World War II. Conclusions were that rural children's fears were stereotyped and unrealistic because of the number of fears of wild animals which were not found in the state (Michigan) and therefore presented no real hazard.

Zill (1977) in a national sample of 2,200 children included rural children. However, findings on rural children were not reported in detail. It was concluded that children in rural areas were less likely to report fears related to victimization experiences than other children, especially those in the inner city areas. People are becoming more aware of the fact that rural populations are different. Evidence for this was provided by Benson (1985) in a recent article stressing the difference in the practice of psychology and the implementation of educational services in rural areas.

Pintner and Lev (1940) stated that every culture has social and personal problems unique to its people in a specific period of time.

In addition, there will always be differences due to age, sex, and social and economic conditions. The content of fears which are age-specific has been characterized by conflicting findings. Jersild et al. (1933) and Winker (1949) reported that older children showed a greater frequency of fears of bodily injury, and younger children showed fear of animals more frequently. Pratt (1945), Hagman (1936), and Angelino and Shedd (1953) also found that age was an important factor in the reporting of fears. On the other hand Lapouse and Monk (1959) found age to be an unimportant variable.

Generally, the content of fear has been found to differ for different socio-economic levels (Angelino et al., 1956; Croake, 1969; Jersild & Holmes, 1935; Jersild et al., 1933). Pintner and Lev (1940) with a sample of 540 reported no differences in socio-economic groups. The problem with examining results across studies is that different methods were used to obtain data initially. Most of the researchers reported above used fear checklists or questionnaires. However, Angelino et al. (1956), Maurer (1965), and Nalven, (1970) and others used projective type techniques where children were asked to list the fears they thought children their age felt.

Results of studies are not always clear. The work of Angelino et al. (1956) provides a good example of this problem. At one point, it is reported that if you viewed the data "quantitatively," then the result was that school children reported the same number of problems in each fear and worry category regardless of socio-economic level. In another section of the report, a positive relationship

between socio-economic background and the number and kinds of fears were reported when the "qualitative" nature of data was considered.

Content of fears has been discussed by some researchers who looked at yet different kinds of populations. Derevensky (1979) examined the content of fears of EMR, TMR, and SMR children in middle childhood and found that EMR and TMR children exhibited a greater percentage of responses in categories of animals and a smaller percentage of responses indicating fear of people or natural hazards as compared with normal children. They were actually very similar to normal children, especially when mental ages were calculated for them.

Poznanski (1972) looked at a population described as other than normal. His sample was based on 28 children who had been diagnosed as having excessive fears by virtue of the fact that they mentioned in an interview two or more fears. Some researchers have concluded that children do not have excessive fears with seven or more reported fears. A control group of 28 children was also taken from children who were being treated in an outpatient psychiatric clinic. A non-clinical group of children were not used as a control group even though it is often reported as such in the literature. The most common type of fear was fear of abandonment (80 percent).

Angelino et al. (1956) questioned 9 to 18 year olds and found fears or worries about school to be prominent. Worries about safety and animals declined with age, and worries about social relations and economic or political matters tended to increase. A review of

Angelino and Shedd (1953), Croake (1969), Jersild et al. (1933), Lapouse and Monk (1959), and Pintner and Lev (1940) on the literature from age eight to adolescence found mixed results. The types of fears which did seem to be mentioned most often were fears related to school, bodily injury or punishment, animals, supernatural events and beings, and political fears. Nalven (1970) found the greatest difference in the content of fears to be the specific responses of children in the inner city about "rats and roaches" as compared to suburban children who listed more generic categories like "dangerous animals or poisonous insects."

Angelino and Shedd (1953) found evidence of political fears. This study appeared to be the first time this particular fear was identified. Croake (1969) found the prevalence of political fears subsequently and wondered if the emergence of such fears was the result of television and mass communication.

Gender differences recorded in the reports of fear stimuli have also been inconsistent. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), in a general review of sex differences concluded that observational studies usually showed significant sex difference in fear, but studies based on self-report or teachers rating did not. This conclusion is hard to evaluate during middle childhood because almost all of the studies have used self report data. Earlier studies have reported that girls appeared to have more fears than boys (Jersild & Holmes, 1935; Lapouse & Monk, 1959; Pratt, 1945; Winker, 1949). However, Nalven (1970) and Eme and Schmidt (1978) found no significant sex differences.

Pratt (1945) reported that girls had more fears, but boys had a greater variety of fears.

Poznanski (1972) found girls to be generally more fearful of strangers, and boys to be more fearful of dangerous activities although the number of fears was comparable. Two more recent studies have given additional insight into gender differences and fears (Abe & Masui, 1981; Orton, 1982). Abe and Masui (1981) conducted their study in Britain with fifth and sixth grade children. Girls consistently had more fears related to lightning, going out of doors alone, blushing, and being looked at. Boys had more prevalence of psychogenic evidence of fears such as enuresis and talking.

Orton (1982) replicated the study conducted by Pintner and Lev (1940) and found some differences. Girls in the 1930's worried more about home and family. Girls in the recent sample still worried about this but also worried more about losing friends, saying the wrong thing, having people telling lies about them, something sad happening to them, and someone dying in their family. Boys in both studies had many of the same worries, but there was a difference in the fears that ranked lowest. In the 1930's boys did not worry about strange people following them, being taken away by strangers, robbers, father going away, and kidnappers. However, in the recent study, all of these fears were cited more frequently and none of them appeared in the 10 least worrisome items. Additional studies such as this one are needed to determine the influence of social change and the influence of television and other forms of mass media.

Intensity of the fear stimuli was briefly examined in 1945 by Pintner and Lev, again in 1969 by Croake, and in 1973 by Croake and Knox; but intensity of the fear response was not investigated in any of these studies. The first study to get at the intensity of the fear response was Pratt (1945). An unsophisticated procedure was used whereby the rural students were asked to list all of the things they were afraid of and then to draw a box around each of the three things they were most afraid of and a wavy line under each of the three things they were least afraid of.

Maurer (1965) explained that intensity was determined by clues such as long pauses, changes of volume or pitch of voice or facial expressions as well as replies of "nothing." Other attempts have been made to assess strength of responses based on the frequency with which they occurred. A problem with this approach is that subjects may not have listed their fears comprehensively. These attempts influenced Russell (1967) to develop a scaling technique to assess the strength of the response. A scale of zero to nine was used ranging from not afraid to extremely afraid. Findings were that females reported a greater intensity of fear responses than did males.

Miller, Barrett, Hampe, and Noble (1972) developed reliability and validity on the Louisville Fear Survey Schedule using a sample of 249 children ages 7 to 12 years. Intensity levels were rated as "no fear," "normal or expected fear" and "excessive or unrealistic fear." Findings were that generally less than 5 percent of the sample had extreme fears. The most typical response was to mark "no fear."

To summarize the reports of children's fears, it is necessary to say that varied results have been found probably because various methods have been used to collect the data. Some general impressions would be that the content of fear changes with age but is effected to some degree by gender and socio-economic status. Girls have been reported to have more fears than boys in the majority of the studies. There is some consensus that this finding is an outcome of sex role stereotyping. It is more acceptable for girls to admit to having fears than boys. Little is known about the intensity of the fear response, and past efforts to examine this issue have been subjective and limited.

Peer Acceptance and Self Perception

A factor analysis of parent ratings on the Louisville Fear Survey for Children revealed three classes of children's fears (Miller, Barrett, Hampe & Noble, 1972). They were fears of physical injury, fears of natural or supernatural phenomena, and fears related to intra-psychic stress. The last classification of fears, psychic stress, would seem to be the focus of peer relations and self perceptions. Johnson (1979) reported that 25 percent of children referred to child mental health clinics fit a description of anxious, socially isolated, hypersensitive, self-conscious, and reclusive. Factor analytic studies of behavioral and emotional characteristics of disturbed children have continually clustered a group of symptoms labeled as "personality problems," "withdrawn," "disturbed," "neurotic," "overinhibited," or "manifest anxiety."

Other investigators (Evers & Schwarz, 1973; O'Conner, 1972) reported that 10 to 20 percent of a school population are excessively withdrawn. However, such information has resulted in inconclusive interpretations about the debilitating effects of these characteristics on success in the school setting. Johnson (1979) stated that children who are isolated because of peer rejection need more help than youngsters who are accepted but rarely interact with peers. Thus, children who are accepted by peers but have low levels of interactions may need only to develop more effective social skills. Gottman (1977) expressed the belief that children who interact with peers infrequently are not necessarily suffering from social isolation but rather are attempting in counterproductive ways to manipulate their environment.

At the present time there is little data available which differentiates the isolate child from such non-isolate peers. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly (1983, Vol 29, No. 3) recently published an invitational issue expanding upon ways to make the child's school world more clearly understood. Measurement, use, causes, and correlates of peer sociometric status from preschool through middle childhood were examined. Blyth (1983) wrote an article in a later publication of the same quarterly and suggested that the current focus of research should be on how social relationships help children to survive and to thrive in their social world rather than focusing only on sociometric status among peers. A specific suggestion for accomplishing this task was to investigate more broadly children's perceptions of their social relationships.

It has already been noted that during the elementary school years children's interactions with their peers become of increased importance. Because of these interactions, new perceptions of themselves are being formed as they become more concerned about their popularity with the peer group (Elkind & Weiner, 1978). These experiences may lead to either a sense of alienation or social belonging and can impact on individuals in ways which may be carried through adolescence and into adulthood.

Albert and Beck (1975) reported that research studies have confirmed that a close relationship exists between elementary school children's concept of themselves and how they are perceived by their peers. Pintner and Lev (1940) found that fifth and sixth graders were very worried about problems of personal and social adequacy. When Orton replicated the study in 1982, it was found that boys and girls still have worries about social adequacy, but personal adequacy seemed to be more of a concern of the girls. Obviously, it seems likely that fears during middle childhood are associated with aspects of the child's social acceptance and perceptions of their social competence.

Lazer (1969) believed that the manner in which children perceive their peers probably has an effect on the way they relate to their peers. It was further stated that this perception of others may also have an effect on the way they feel about themselves since they use their perceptions of others as a standard to evaluate themselves. To investigate this in an empirical way, Lazer conducted a study to

determine if subjects felt their fears were unique to themselves or if their fears were seen as being similar in kind and number to other children's. She also looked at whether perceptions of similarity or dissimilarity were related to the closeness of the relationships. Using 43 members of like sexed twins and 104 singletons between the ages of seven and nine, it was found that all children assumed more similarity with others than actually existed and that children generally did not regard themselves as having unique problems in the area of fear. It was concluded that closeness of relationship did not appear to be related to the accuracy of predicting others' fears.

The relationship of fears to peer acceptance and self perception has not been investigated. What has been investigated, however, is the relationship of anxiety to sociometric status (Johnson, 1958; McCandless, Castaneda & Palermo, 1956). Negative correlations were reported in both studies. Croake and Hinkle (1976) stated that there is a relationship between fear and anxiety, but that there are differences as well. Perhaps anxiety is the experience of something very similar to fear responses without being able to specify clearly the stimulus that evokes the response. Studies are therefore needed to determine if there is a relationship between peer acceptance, self perception, and the fears of children. Such research would facilitate a more wholistic view of the multiplicity of factors involved in how children function and develop.

How Children Cope

Poznanski (1972) in a study comparing children with excessive fears to those without excessive fears, found that the ability of a child to handle or cope with fear producing stimuli seemed to be an important aspect in the development of excessive fears. The role of the ego also was found to be important as was evidenced by more fears at night when there was diminished ego control. It was suggested that this could be the reason epidemiological studies have found younger children to have more fears than older children. Ego development would provide greater personal resources for the child to use in coping with fear.

Smith (1979) discussed the more observable aspects of fear and suggested that children cope by avoidance or withdrawal behaviors, freezing, or inhibition of approach. These activities suggest some cognitive response because they represent a perception of a potential or actual dangerous situation which could cause harm and attempts to avoid it. MacFarlane, Allen and Honzik (1954) noted that mood swings were greater for boys and girls from 10 to 14 with a peak at age 11. Shyness also peaked at age 11 for girls and age 12 for boys. It was suggested that these behaviors were actually patterns of withdrawal and represented attempts for coping with internal problems.

Since the feeling of control over fears appears to be important in the coping abilities of children, it seems reasonable to conclude

that children who are more self-confident and more independent have a feeling of control over their environment. Control over fears means the child is able to grasp, interpret or control the feared object (Yanni, 1982). Parental interactions which develop early in family relationships may influence children's fearfulness because of the role they play in the development of the child's self-concept and independence or dependence. Researchers have supported this conclusion. Baumrind (1965) posited that parental influence affected a child's personality and socialization. Parental support, acceptance, warmth, and encouragement of autonomy are related to self concept and self acceptance (Gecas, 1971), and extreme punishment or restrictiveness impact negatively on the child's self-concept (Coopersmith, 1967).

Yanni (1982) conducted a study to determine the relationship between general fearfulness and fifth and sixth grade girl's perceptions of parental support, punishment, control, and encouragement. Significant correlations were found among perceptions of parental punishment and parental encouragement and general fearfulness. Yanni suggested that support of peer groups might be a more important factor than perceived parental support in understanding fearfulness in children ages 10 and 11 because of the salience of the peer group for children of this age. Children in this age range appear to be more influenced by their peer group and those who have higher peer status tend to feel more secure (Brenda, 1950; Hartup, 1984; Higgins & Parsons, 1983). Studies

are needed to determine in what ways peer groups and parents are used as resources for children in coping with fears. Little is known about the ways in which peers and parents provide support for children in fear producing circumstances.

Limited information is available on determining how children in middle childhood cope with fears. Having control over some aspect of the fear, being able to engage in problem solving activities, and a positive self-concept and independence seem to contribute to the process. Information on children's perceptions of the ways in which significant others assist them is needed.

Summary

Children's fears have been investigated through the use of numerous methods. Comparisons are hard to make because of this multiplicity of methods as well as because of the lack of a universal acceptance of a definition for fear. Content of fear has been examined in relationship to several variables. Some of these variables have been age, geographic areas, socio-economic status, and gender. Findings are varied but general statements can be made about some aspects of children's fears. The content of fears change as a child grows older, some fears are specific to certain environments, content of fears are effected by socio-economic status, and findings on the association of gender and fear are inconclusive.

Studies specifically investigating the intensity of the fear response are negligible, and the few which have attempted to examine intensity have used varied means of obtaining information. General statements cannot be made about the intensity of fear responses presently. The development of instruments which measure this variable are needed as well as further refinement of those instruments which do exist.

A relationship has been established between the self concept of children in middle childhood and how they are perceived by their classmates. Research has also shown that children in this stage of development are very concerned about personal and social adequacy. However, limited knowledge is available about the relationship between these concerns. Even less information is available on the interrelationships of children's fears, peer acceptance, and self perception.

Instruments have not been developed to ascertain the coping strategies used by children in middle childhood to deal with fear. Some assumptions have been made based on observations and other more subjective measures that these children do engage in some problem solving efforts. Self-confidence, an element of control, and independence to seem to facilitate effective coping. However, further information about the role of personal and social resources in coping with fears is needed.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Hypotheses

The primary objectives of this study were to determine the relationship between children's fears and (1) peer acceptance and (2) self perception of rural children in middle childhood. An additional primary objective was to compare boys and girls in terms of their fearfulness.

The null form of the hypotheses to be tested were:

1. There was no relationship between rural children's reports of fears in middle childhood and classmates reports of acceptability.
2. There was no relationship between rural children's reports of fears in middle childhood and their self perception in the school setting.
3. There were no gender or grade differences in the reported fears of rural children in middle childhood.

Subjects

The subjects which provided the sample for this study were fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys and girls who attended an elementary school in a rural county in middle Tennessee. Since that elementary school used was the only elementary school in the county, the sample represented all of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys and girls in that rural county.

There were two classes for each grade level with the following gender composition. Fourth grade had 25 boys and 28 girls; fifth grade had 26 boys and 29 girls; sixth grade had 29 boys and 33 girls. The total number of students enrolled in these grades were 80 boys and 90 girls.

Thirty-three boys and girls were absent or out of the room when the data were collected. Therefore, data were collected on 20 fourth grade boys and 23 fourth grade girls; 23 fifth grade boys and 27 fifth grade girls; and 20 sixth grade boys and 24 sixth grade girls. Data were collected from a total of 63 boys and 74 girls which comprised the sample of 137 children.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in a fourth grade classroom with 14 boys and 10 girls. The purpose of the pilot study was to identify the appropriateness of the measures for use with the youngest age children in the sample. More specifically, the pilot study was used to ascertain whether or not the reading level of the questionnaire was appropriate and whether or not children could complete the questionnaire independently. There was also a need to know the approximate length of time it took to administer the instrument in a classroom setting. Specific instructions and procedures were written so that the administration of the measures would be consistent. Information from this pilot study provided direction that allowed for standardization of the instructions

used. The data from the sample of children utilized in the pilot study were not used in the final analysis of this study.

Two people went into the classroom used in the pilot study to administer the questionnaire. Several items of importance were noted. It was learned that there was no need for the use of an overhead projector since verbal directions provided to be sufficient. It was found that the approximate time to administer the questionnaire was 30 to 40 minutes. It was decided that a cover sheet was needed to insure confidentiality since children seemed to be concerned about what was marked by their classmates even though they had been asked to keep their eyes on their own paper and to refrain from sharing information. Attention spans proved to be long enough, and the vocabulary was appropriate for that age level. The children understood the directions and could follow them independently. Further it appeared that only one person was needed to administer the instrument to groups of classroom size.

Items number 24, "big bullies" and number 41, "being bawled out" in the Children's Fear Survey Schedule had previously been changed to "mean kids" and "being bawled out" because a previous pilot work with preschoolers revealed ambiguity about the meaning of these phrases. Additionally, items 51 and 52 were added to the original CFSS in order to determine coping strategies utilized by children. It was determined that a further breakdown was needed in number 52, "Do your classmates help you when you are afraid?" to a rating of always, sometimes, or never and a second

part which allowed for an explanation of how classmates helped them cope with fear. This pilot study was helpful in providing information about procedures to be used when collecting data with the three instruments used in this study.

Instrumentation

Three instruments were used to collect the data in this study. The three instruments were put together in questionnaire form as an economical and practical way of obtaining the desired information. The first of these instruments was the Peer Acceptance Index and the second was the Self Perception Index which together form what is called the Personal Competence Inventory (McDougal & Brown, 1971). The third instrument was the Children's Fear Survey Schedule (Ryall & Dietiker, 1979). Because the subjects were required to complete these three instruments at one time, the instruments were chosen for their clarity, brevity, and interest as well as their validity and reliability.

The Peer Acceptance Index contained a listing of all students in the classroom, and each individual student was asked to rate each of their classmates as to whether they would like that pupil to be (1) Never my friend, (2) Just a little friendly, (3) Sometimes my friend, (4) Almost my best friend, or (5) My best friend. A copy of this questionnaire is in Appendix B. The Self Perception Index contained 31 specific items related to interactions in a school setting. Students were asked to rate them according to

the extent to which the statement described themselves; (1) Never, (2) A little, (3) Sometimes, (4) Very often or (5) Always. A copy of this questionnaire is in Appendix C.

McDougal and Brown (1971) provided information about the Self Perceptions Index and its relationship to the Peer Acceptance Index with regard to face validity, construct validity, and test sensitivity. Face validity was based on personal, social, and cultural factors. Investigations were conducted in an urban elementary school in Virginia with a sample of 400 students. Racial balance was 50% black and 50% white, and socio-economic levels were lower (54%) and middle (42%). The tests were administered once, an intervention strategy was initiated, and post-tests were given. Test-retest reliabilities ranged from .60 to .84.

Conclusions were that the Self Perceptions Index and the Peer Acceptance Index were interrelated and that socio-cultural and psychological aspects of behavior are measurable through the use of these instruments. Further support for this was provided by a factor analysis with items loading into self to others, self to culture, and self to self factors. A multivariate analysis was run, and it was found that teacher ratings and peer acceptance were major contributors to the self perception of a child.

The Children's Fear Survey Schedule (CFSS) was the instrument used to assess the fear level of children in this study (Ryall & Dietiker, 1979). This instrument (Appendix D) was designed to measure the specific content of fear stimuli in children as well

as to determine the intensity of the fear response. The CFSS contains a list of 48 specific fear stimuli and two open-ended items which were for the purpose of eliciting idiosyncratic stimuli. For purposes of the present study, two additional open-ended questions were added to try to determine coping strategies used by children in response to fear and perceptions of help from classmates in fearful situations. The 48 specific fear stimuli which were listed were to be marked according to how afraid each thing made them feel. The three choices were (1) Not afraid, (2) A little afraid, or (3) Very afraid.

The CFSS was designed specifically to be used with children between the ages of 4 and 12 years. This is one of the few instruments developed specifically for use with children. Most instruments for measuring children's fears have been developed for use with adults and then adapted for use with children. Length of the questionnaire was also a concern. Use of the Louisville Fear Survey was considered, but it contained 90 items and would have been too time consuming in combination with the other questionnaires used in this study.

Reliability was evaluated through the use of a sample of 128 children in California who ranged from nursery school to sixth grade. One week intervals were used to conduct a test-retest score. The test-retest correlation across all subjects was .85.

Concurrent validity was evaluated by comparing the fear scores of 24 non-referred public school children with 24 children who were referred because of emotional and behavioral difficulties

as outpatients to a diagnostic and treatment center. A completely randomized factorial analysis of variance found significant differences between the clinical and the public school samples ($F = 5.30$, $d.f. = 1, 45$, $p < 0.05$).

Ryall and Dietiker (1979) were encouraged with these results but did suggest that future research needed to be conducted to qualify the use of the instrument in a clinical setting. At this point it qualifies as an experimental or research tool.

Procedures

This study was a part of a larger on-going research project under the direction of Priscilla White and William Poppen. Approval of the project was granted by the University Committee on Human Subjects. Permission was also granted for this particular part of the study by the superintendent of schools in the rural county where the data were collected (Appendix E).

One researcher, who had 16 years of experience working with children, preschool through grade four, spent one day in the rural school. Prior conversations with the principal had established a convenient day for the school visit. Names of students in each classroom were obtained earlier in order that names of classmates could be placed on the peer acceptance forms in advance to facilitate expediency of administration.

Classrooms were turned over to the researcher, and she began by explaining the purpose of her presence to the children. The

same directions were given in each of the six classrooms (two fourth, two fifth, and two sixth). These directions are found in Appendix F. The things which were stressed were that the information was strictly confidential and in no way would they be assigned a grade on it. Students were asked to keep their eyes on their own papers, and cover sheets were provided for that purpose.

The first instrument to be administered was the Peer Acceptance Index, and the children were asked to stop after they had marked the appropriate response for each of their classmates. The second instrument which followed in the packet was the CFSS. Students were asked to decide how afraid each thing made them feel and to put a check in the box which best described that feeling. Directions were given to stop after question number 48 so that additional instructions could be given. Items 49 through 52 were dealt with separately with the entire class answering them at the same time. Students were told at that time that they were almost finished; and if they would turn to the last page, directions would be given for completion of the questionnaire. After all students had folded the questionnaire so that the last page was showing, directions were given for the Self Perception Index.

Before leaving the classroom the children were given a small gift as a way of saying thank you for helping with this research. Each fourth grader was given a pencil sharpner, and each fifth and sixth grader was given a ball point pen. In addition each homeroom teacher was given a felt tip pen.

Statistical Analysis

The relationships tested in hypotheses one and two were analyzed by use of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, more commonly called the Pearson r (Kerlinger, 1973). This analysis was chosen because of the adequate sample size and because the data from the three questionnaires were considered to be interval level data. This parametric statistical procedure results in the most reliable estimate of association between variables (Gay, 1981). An alpha level of .05 was used to determine significance of correlations.

Hypothesis three was tested through the use of the two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine if there was a significant difference between the means of boys and girls, and grades four, five, and six. This statistical procedure was chosen because there were multiple levels for each of the two independent variables (Couch, 1982). Gender had two levels of male and female, and grade had three levels of fourth, fifth, and sixth. The factorial design was therefore called a 2×3 since there were two levels for variable A and three levels for variable B. An alpha level of .05 was used to determine the significance.

Percentages were obtained for the open-ended questions on the CFSS after each response was placed in a category. Categories for each area were determined from a list of all responses with the objective being to group two or more responses into a category.

All responses for the additional items of "write in anything else you are afraid of" were grouped into the following categories;

- (a) war and weapons--anything related to political violence or turmoil between countries or weapons used in such transactions;
- (b) school related--items specific to a school setting, e.g., teachers and principals;
- (c) animals--any kind with the exception of farm animals;
- (d) natural phenomena--acts of nature, e.g., storms and floods;
- (e) heights--anything at a high elevation, e.g., ladders;
- (f) accidents--unforeseen injury to self or others;
- (g) aggressive behavior--someone responding in a physical or violent manner;
- (h) supernatural--imaginary or cult, e.g., monsters and devil;
- (i) disruption of attachment--being away from parents or authority figure;
- (j) medical--being sick or taking medicine or shots;
- (k) family--fear of any relative;
- (l) farm animals--any animal normally found on a farm;
- (m) people--any non-related person;
- (n) water--water or anything related to it, e.g., drowning;
- (o) other--anything which did not fit into any category above.

Percentages were reported from the highest to lowest frequency of responses.

Grouping for the coping question "What do you do when you are afraid?" was accomplished by placing each response into the following categories:

- (a) retreat/withdrawal--attempts to physically escape source of fear;
- (b) seek assistance--purposeful attempts to seek help from others;
- (c) aggression--attempts to harm source of fear;
- (d) non-verbal fear response--coping strategies which do not involve the use of language, e.g., crying or screaming;
- (e) distraction--mental withdrawal from feared item;
- (f) cognitive--mental or verbal explanations of the situation;
- (g) other--anything which did not fit into any category above.

Results were reported by the percentage of responses in each category.

Coping question "Do your classmates help you when you are afraid?" was reported by the percentage of children who said always, sometimes, and never. The responses to the question "How do your classmates help you when you are afraid?" were grouped into categories of:

- (a) reassurance--physical or verbal comforting;
- (b) seek assistance--plans to seek help from others when the child is afraid;
- (c) aggression--responding in a physical or violent way;
- (d) problem-solving--taking control and handling the situation;
- (e) distraction--attempts to cause the child to mentally withdraw from the source of fear;
- (f) cognition--attempts to provide logical explanations for the situation;
- (g) other--anything which did not fit into any category above.

Results were reported by the percentage of responses in each category.

The computer work for this research project was compiled at the University of Tennessee Computer Center. The Statistical Analysis System was the statistical program used to analyze the data. This program was utilized also to provide other kinds of descriptive data in the form of means, medians, and modes as well as frequencies.

Operational Definitions

For purposes of this study fear, peer acceptance, and self perception were operationally defined as follows:

1. Fear was the score obtained when summing the scale judgments of intensity across all 48 specific fear items. "Not afraid" was one point; "A little afraid" was two points; and "Very afraid" was three points.
2. Peer Acceptance was a score that consisted of the frequencies which occurred in each of the five categories that were then multiplied by the numerical value of each category. The numerical values for each category were five for "My best friend," four for "Almost my best friend," three for "Just a little friendly," two for "Sometimes my friend," and one for "Never my friend." The scores for each of the five categories were then summed for one peer acceptance score.
3. Self Perception was a score obtained from summing the numerical values of each item by factor categories. The three factor categories were "Self to others" (items 1, 2, 5, 10, 11, 12, and 19), "Self to culture" (items 3, 4, 7, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 21,

27, and 28), and "Self to self" (items 6, 8, 9, 13, 14, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, and 29). Adjustment of numerical values had to be made on items 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, and 29. On those items a score of five is recorded as one, a score of four is recorded as two, a score of three remains as three, a score of two is recorded as four, and a score of one is recorded as five.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient were the statistical procedures used to determine the relationship between children's reports of fears in middle childhood, peer acceptance, and self perception. A two-way analysis of variance was used to determine gender and grade (fourth, fifth, and sixth) differences in the children's degree of fearfulness. The probability level of .05 was used as a criterion for the rejection of the three null hypotheses. Descriptive information on the content and intensity of children's fears was provided through an analysis of the results obtained from measures of central tendency and frequencies.

Description of Fears in Middle Childhood

The Children's Fear Survey Schedule (CFSS) was used to collect data on the content and intensity of fears in fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children. A copy of the percentages on each item on the CPSS are in Appendix G. From an analysis of this questionnaire, it was revealed that certain items received the greatest frequency of responses in the "very afraid" category and other stimulus items received the greatest frequency of responses in the "not afraid" category.

When analyzed as a total group, the highest percentage of the fourth, fifth, and sixth graders in this study responded to the items with "very afraid" that were "being in a fire" (80%) and "kidnappers" (79%). Other fear stimuli which also received a high number of responses for this intensity level were "war," "to die," "poison," "snakes," "sharks," "earthquakes," "strangers," and "fire." These results are reported in Table 1.

Cats (99%) and brothers (93%) were mentioned by the greatest majority of the children as being stimuli of which they were "not afraid." Other stimuli in the most frequently rated items for "not afraid" were "dad," "shadows," "the dark," "teachers," "the principal," "loud noises," "dogs," and "bugs." The percentages of responses for these items are listed in Table 2.

The fearfulness of children did not prove to differ greatly from grade to grade. A breakdown of the content and intensity of fear by grade level is appended (Appendix H).

Gender Differences

A total fear score was obtained by summing the rates of intensity of responses across the 48 fear items. Different point values were assigned to each level of intensity ratings (1-3), and a score of 84 was the mean score for the total sample. When the sample was subdivided into groups of boys and girls, it was found that girls had an average fear score of 92 and boys had an average fear score of 76.

Table 1

Percentage of Responses to "Very Afraid" Level of FearIntensity on CFSS

Fear Stimulus Items	Percentages
(n = 137)	
Being in a fire	80
Kidnappers	79
War	64
To Die	60
Poison	57
Snakes	50
Sharks	48
Earthquakes	47
Strangers	47
Fire	41

Table 2

Percentage of Responses to "Not Afraid" Level of FearIntensity on CFSS

Fear Stimulus Items	Percentages
(n = 137)	
Cats	99
Brothers	93
Dad	79
Shadows	75
The Dark	71
Teachers	68
The Principal	66
Loud Noises	65
Dogs	65
Bugs	64

Some content differences also were apparent. A list of the ten most frequently rated fears in the "very afraid" category for both boys and girls revealed the most striking differences were in terms of animal fears. Boys reported more intense fears of lions and tigers, and girls reported more intense fears of bears. Other differences such as earthquakes reported in the top ten by boys and fire reported in the top ten by girls were not actually notable differences because each of these items were reported in the top 15 items by both sexes. Similarities in the content of "very afraid" items were evident. The mutually rated top ten items were "kidnappers," "being in a fire," "to die," "war," "poison," "sharks," "strangers," and "snakes." These items and percentages by gender are reported in Table 3.

Even though the content of the reported fears of children was very similar across genders, the frequency of the responses varied greatly. For every comparable item, a higher percentage of girls rated the intensity of their response as "very afraid" than did boys.

There were fewer similarities between boys and girls in the "not afraid" category. The content items which were similar were "cats," "brothers," "Dad," "shadows," "loud noises," and "dogs." However, in this intensity level of responses, boys had a higher percentage of responses than did girls in every case except "cats." The greatest difference in boys and girls in this intensity level was in "guns." Boys rated guns as generally "not afraid," but

Table 3

Percentages of Ratings on CFSS by Boys and Girls in "Very Afraid" Intensity Level

Fear Stimulus Items	Percentage
Boys ($\underline{n}$ = 63)	
Kidnappers	32
Being in a Fire	31
To Die	25
War	24
Earthquakes	23
Poison	19
Sharks	16
Strangers	14
Lions and Tigers	13
Snakes	12
Girls ($\underline{n}$ = 74)	
Being in a Fire	49
Kidnappers	47
War	40
Snakes	38
Poison	38
To Die	35
Strangers	33
Sharks	32
Fire	30
Bears	25

NOTE: $\underline{n}$ equals the number of boys and girls who responded to the stimulus items.

girls rated guns as the twelfth highest item for the "very afraid" level of response. Another difference was in the fact that boys rated monsters as one of the ten things they were least afraid of, and girls did not. Boys also rated "bugs" and "seeing other kids fight" as items of which they were not afraid. Girls did not list these two stimulus items as high as boys, but they were in the top 15 responses in the "not afraid" group. Other top items rated by girls as "not afraid" were "the dark," "teachers," and "the principal." These ratings did not represent notable gender differences because the same items, although not in the top ten, were in the top 15 items rated by the boys as "not afraid." "Going to the dentist" received high frequencies from girls but not from boys. These "not afraid" items and percentages for boys and girls are reported in Table 4.

Additional Stimuli

When asked to list "anything else you can think of," there were two blanks to be used to write in answers. Responses were classified into 15 categories. These categories and percentages are reported in Table 5. The highest frequency of responses were in the category of animals which included all animals except farm animals. Farm animals were an additional category which received a larger frequency of responses as well. Other categories which received high frequency of responses were accidents and natural phenomena.

Table 4

Percentages of Ratings on CFSS by Boys and Girls in "Not Afraid"Intensity Level

Fear Stimulus Items	Percentage
Boys (<u>n</u> = 63)	
Cats	48
Brothers	48
Dad	46
Shadows	41
Bugs	39
Guns	38
Loud Noises	38
Monsters	37
Seeing Other Kids Fight	36
Dogs	36
Girls (<u>n</u> = 74)	
Cats	50
Brothers	46
The Dark	37
Shadows	33
Dad	33
Teachers	32
The Principal	31
Dogs	29
Loud Noises	28
Going to the Dentist	26

NOTE: n equals the number of boys and girls who responded to the stimulus items.

Table 5

Percentages of Ratings on CFSS by Boys and Girls for "Anything Else
You Can Think Of?"

Categories	Boys	Girls
(n = 77 for boys and 94 for girls)		
Wars and Weapons	3	1
School Related	1	1
Animals	5	10
Natural Phenomena	6	6
Heights	2	4
Accidents	6	9
Aggressive Behavior	5	4
Supernatural	2	2
Disruption of Attachment	1	4
Medical	1	3
Family	1	3
Farm Animals	4	6
People	1	2
Water	1	1
Other	5	2

NOTE: n equals 77 additional responses for boys and 94 additional responses for girls.

The highest frequency of written responses for boys were natural phenomena and accidents, followed closely by animals. Girls most frequently cited responses in the category of animals, followed closely by accidents, natural phenomena, and farm animals. Boys reported a higher frequency of responses for being afraid of war and weapons, and girls reported a higher frequency of responses for family, medical, and disruption of attachment. Grade differences did not show notable differences but are appended (Appendix I).

Relationship of Children's Fears to Peer Acceptance and Self Perception

The null hypotheses one and two were tested by the use of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Results are reported in Table 6.

The null hypothesis stated as one, which stated that there was no relationship between peer acceptance and children's reports of fears was not rejected. There was no significant relationship between peer acceptance and fear. The correlation coefficient was $-.07$ with a $p = .43$. The null hypothesis stated as two, which stated that there was no relationship between self perception and children's reports of fears was rejected. The relationship between fear and self perception was inverse ($r = -.20$; $p = .02$). The inverse relationship indicates that as fear scores increased, self perception scores decreased.

Table 6

Correlation Coefficient

	Peer	Fear	Self
	(n = 137)		
Peer	--	-.07	-.01
		.43	.91
Fear		--	-.20*
			.02
Self			--

* $p < .05$.

Gender and Grade Differences in Fears

In order to determine if there were differences in fear scores based on grade and sex, a two way analysis of variance was performed. The analysis consisted of fear as the dependent variable and grade, sex, and grade-sex interaction as the independent variables. Grade and the grade-sex interactions were not significant, indicating that fearfulness does not change with grade and that the differences due to gender are consistent for each grade. Gender was significant with the females reporting a higher intensity of fears as shown by the fact that the average fearfulness score for all grades for females was 92 versus 76 for males. Therefore, the null hypothesis three was rejected because there were significant gender differences in the reported fears of rural children in middle childhood. These results are shown in Table 7.

Coping Strategies

Past investigations of children's fears have not dealt with coping strategies used by children to any real extent. This study was designed to gain some exploratory information about children's coping strategies so that future research can be conducted. Three questions were asked, (a) What do you do when you are afraid?, (b) Do your classmates help you when you are afraid?, and (c) How do your classmates help you when you are afraid?

Answers to the question "What do you do when you are afraid?"

Table 7

Two Way Analysis of Variance--Dependent Variable: Fearfulness

Source	df	Sums of Square	Mean Squares	F Statistic	P Value
Sex	1	8968.58	8968.58	41.11*	.0001
Grade	2	763.17	381.58	1.75	.1780
Sex/Grade Interaction	2	531.89	265.94	1.22	.2989
Error	131	28580.70	218.17		
Total	136	38860.55			

*
 $p < .05.$

were placed into categories. Males reported more aggression and distraction responses than did females, and females reported more retreat/withdrawal, assistance seeking, non-verbal fear responses, and cognitive strategies than did males. The coping strategy reported with the most frequency by males and females was the category of non-verbal fear responses, and assistance seeking was the next most often reported coping response. These results are reported in Table 8. The results by grade level are appended (Appendix J).

When asked if classmates help them when they are afraid, 41% said "never," 44% said "sometimes," and 5% said "always." Girls reported slightly more help than did boys. When asked how classmates help, responses were again placed into categories. The largest number of strategies reported by boys and girls was in the cognition category, and reassurance was next highest for both groups. However, girls cited more responses for both of these areas. Boys reported slightly more use of problem solving strategies by their classmates, and girls reported more use of seeking assistance and distraction. These results are shown in Table 9. Results by grade are appended (Appendix K).

Table 8

Percentage of Responses by Sex to "What You Do When You Are Afraid?"

Categories	Boys	Girls	Total
	(n = 190)		
Retreat/Withdrawal	6	9	15
Seek assistance	11	17	28
Aggression	2		2
Non-verbal fear responses	17	20	37
Distraction	7	4	12
Cognitive	1	3	5
Other	2		2

NOTE: n equals the total number of responses.

Table 9

Percentage of Responses by Sex to "How Classmates Help"

Categories	Boys	Girls	Total
	(n = 111)		
Reassurance	9.01	18.02	27.03
Seek assistance	0.00	2.70	2.70
Aggression	.90	.90	1.80
Problem solving	8.11	7.21	15.32
Distraction	0.00	5.41	5.41
Cognition	15.32	31.53	46.85
Other	.90	0.00	.90

NOTE: n equals the total number of responses.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Conclusions

The following conclusions can be drawn from an analysis of the data in this study. There was no relationship between children's fearfulness and peer acceptance. Results did indicate that there was an inverse relationship between children's fearfulness and self perception.

Using the CFSS which assessed the intensity of the response and the content of the fear stimuli, there were significant gender differences in fearfulness. More specifically, it appears that girls report a higher level of intensity fear responses than boys. However, when examining the specific content of the fear stimuli, the similarities were more outstanding than the differences. Major differences were in reference to the type of animal fears reported and the lack of fear of guns reported by boys but expressed as a fear by girls.

The coping strategies reported by fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children further emphasized gender differences. Although the specific types of coping strategies reported by boys and girls differed, both genders reported personal and social coping strategies.

Discussion

Description of Fears in Middle Childhood

It was found that boys and girls in fourth, fifth, and sixth grades had the most intense levels of fear responses to "being in a fire" and "kidnappers." Of the 48 fear stimuli items on the CFSS, "war," "to die," "poison," "snakes," "sharks," "earthquakes," "strangers," and "fire" were the remaining categories in the top ten most intense levels of self-reported fears.

Maurer (1965) found that 60% of children ages 7 through 12 feared animals and that things which young children were taught to fear like germs, kidnappers, and traffic were seldom mentioned. These findings lead to the conclusions that as a child matures, fears become more realistic based upon experiential learning rather than instruction. Fear of fire was used as a traditional example to prove that children learn by experience rather than instruction. It was found that the percentage of children who were afraid of fire increased from 4% of 7 and 8 year olds to 16% of 11 and 12 year olds. However, it was acknowledged that it could not be ascertained that 11 and 12 year olds had more personal experiences with fire.

Pratt (1945) found that animal fears were reported with higher frequency by his rural sample. The highest frequency for a non-animal fear was fire. This he concluded to be the result of actual or potential stimuli within the rural environment.

In 1979, Derevensky used the same fear question used by Maurer

and reported different results. It was reported that 78% of all responses were real rather than imaginary.

He concluded that fears are taught by parents and teachers as well as learned through personal experiences. The findings of the present study more closely resemble this later study since fears seem to be products of both experience and instruction.

It is noteworthy that "being in a fire" and "fire" rank in the top ten most intense fears in middle childhood in the present study. People in our current society have less need to be afraid of fires today because of the availability of fire departments, and fewer children have probably experienced large fires. Therefore, an extreme fear of fire probably results from some cultural exposure through education or mass media.

Strangers and being kidnapped were reported as only slightly important fears in children from 6 to 12 years of age by Lapouse and Monk (1959). Fears of "man" or "people" tended to increase with age (Maurer, 1965; Pratt, 1945) in some earlier studies. People, especially in Maurer's study, tended to be specific individuals other than kidnappers. The results of the present research study tend to verify the results found by Orton (1982) which concluded from a replication of an earlier study by Pintner and Lev (1940) that children today worry more about robbers, kidnappers, strange people following them, and being taken away by strangers. Eme and Schmidt (1978) had comparable results. Again this is probably the result of cultural exposure from education, television, newspapers, and

even milk cartons with pictures of missing children. Children are more aware of some of the dangers in our society associated with these fears.

As previously discussed, animal fears have consistently been reported as an intense fear of children (Angelino et al., 1956; Croake, 1969; Croake & Knox, 1973; Eme & Schmidt, 1978; Lapouse & Monk, 1959; Maurer, 1965; Nalven, 1970; Pratt, 1965). The fact that children in this rural sample reported snakes and sharks as intense fears leads credence to Dervensky's belief that fears are a result of experiences as well as instruction. Snakes could be an animal with which rural children have experiences which lead to fear. However, sharks would have to be an example of a fear learned vicariously. It would be an example of what Pratt (1945) called a "cultural stereotype" which is a fear passed on by cultural tradition. Some researchers (Angelino et al., 1956; Maurer, 1965) reported that these animal fears declined rapidly after age 12. A replication of this study with these same children at a later point in time would be a way of examining this assumption.

In 1959 Lapouse and Monk found that an extremely high percentage of children ranked an accident or dying as a fear or worry. In 1965 Maurer was surprised that only a small number of her sample of 7 to 14 year-olds reported a fear of automobile deaths which accounted for the number one threat to life. Perhaps children have not cognitively linked the two in a cause and effect way.

Eme and Schmidt (1978) collected data from children (fourth graders) initially and again one year later and found that on both occasions 40% of the children reported a fear of death. Orton (1982) found "someone dying in my family" to be the fourth highest worry or fear which children reported. She attributed this fear to the influence of television and other mass media because it was not found in an earlier study conducted by Pintner and Lev (1940). The present student found the same fear being prevalent in children in middle childhood.

These findings may reflect the replacement of more realistic and specific fears by older children with physical cause-effect, and perceptions would indicate that children are progressing from a global state of egocentric perceptions of causality to a more specific, objective reality (Piaget, 1955). This change of perceptions results in a greater separation of fantasy from reality. It is surprising that the fear of death has been so prevalent in findings since little is being done in our society educationally to help children with an understanding of death.

In 1945 Pratt conducted a study with rural children in which one specific objective was to determine if children had developed a fear of war as a result of our country being enmeshed in a major world war. It was found that the war had little effect upon the fears of rural children because only about 3% of the total fears reported by the children related to war. In 1953, Angelino and Shedd found that political fears, of which war was a part, were fears

among older adolescents. In 1969 Croake found that political fears were the most consistently held fears for the present and the future.

It appears that some of the studies which did not support these findings did not specifically give the children opportunity to express these fears. For example, Maurer (1965) reported that things like punishment, war, and the atomic bomb were seldom mentioned. However, it was noted that it was felt that children would say yes if asked if they were afraid of them. This could explain the reason that more and more children have begun to report fear of these items in the last few decades. Perhaps society expects children to have this fear, and children have specifically been given the opportunity to express it. In 1945 in Pratt's study families did not have televisions although radios, newspapers, and movies were available. However, at that point in our history, the war was a very patriotic thing. Since that time, children have been exposed to less patriotic ideas especially from television with war protests becoming more prevalent during the Korean and Vietnam Wars. The children in this study are the children of some of these protesters, and it stands to reason that their fears of war have been learned from parents as well as exposure to mass media.

Earthquakes have not occurred in the rural area represented by this sample. Therefore, it is not easy to determine why it appeared as a highly reported fear. Numerous studies have found natural disasters to be often cited fears (Croake & Knox, 1973; Maurer, 1965; Miller, Barrett, Hampe, & Noble, 1972; Pratt, 1945). However,

this does not explain why earthquakes would be a more likely feared stimuli than would, for example, storms which are very common in the area. Perhaps an explanation could be that children have experienced storms and know concretely what is involved. An earthquake to these children would be more of an abstraction which represents a higher level of cognitive functioning as explained by Piaget (1955).

Additional information about earthquakes provided in classes at school might make a real difference in the reporting of this fear.

Comparisons with past studies are also hard to make for "poison" because of the categories which past researchers have used. Past reports about fears of poison as a specific fear stimuli are not available. A possibility is that the item has been grouped into the category of safety or personal injury which has been reported in past studies (Baurer, 1979; Croake & Knox, 1973; Eme and Schmidt, 1978; Maurer, 1965; Pratt, 1945). A better interpretation of the reason for the appearance of poison as a highly feared fear stimuli is because of recent developments in society. For example during the lifetime of children in this study, the government has required that safety caps be placed on medicines and other poisonous household items. Television and other media have reported large scale threats in huge supermarkets where sabotage has resulted in threats of poison being placed in certain items. Children today are more aware of the possibilities of becoming poisoned.

When children were asked to list anything else they were afraid of, the answers were grouped into 15 categories. None of the

categories received a high percentage of responses, but those which received the largest number lend support to the results previously reported in this section. For example, animals and accidents received the highest percentage of additional responses followed closely by natural phenomena and farm animals. These last two categories contained stimulus items which were realistic to the children in this rural sample. For example natural phenomena contained items about water, storms, and tornadoes which are common to that area. Farm animals contained items like horses, bulls, and boars. Pratt (1945) in the only other study conducted with rural children, also found that animals were mentioned with the highest frequency, and bears, snakes, and bulls were mentioned most often. These animals were followed by dogs, lions, tigers, wolves, elephants, and horses. Thus, the findings in the present study are similar to those conducted with rural children many years earlier.

Conclusions can be drawn that children's fears do become more realistic and specific as they grow older but are influenced by cultural settings. However, because of the cognitive developmental level on which they are operating, fears of less concrete items are still reported. Additional experiences, instruction, and information would provide resources for children in middle childhood to delineate more clearly realistic and unrealistic fears.

Because the CFSS had intensity ratings, it became apparent that the children felt no fear toward certain fear stimuli. Some of the findings appeared to be inconsistent with earlier studies. For

example, domestic animals and insects have consistently been reported as feared stimuli (Angelino et al., 1956; Pratt, 1945; Winker, 1949). Children in the present study named cats, dogs, and bugs as stimuli of which they were "not afraid." Perhaps this is a result of our society at this time. It has become very acceptable for people to have animals such as dogs and cats as inside pets. Attractive children's books have been written in the past two decades about insects and animals, and children have grown up with more respect for these animals.

Children in this study also reported they were not afraid of brothers and Dad. This finding seems to be inconsistent with the findings of Zill (1977) who found that 30% of the children in his sample named a specific person when asked "who is the person you are most afraid of?" These inconsistent findings may be because the specific people feared by the children were someone other than family members. Another inconsistency seems to be in the area of school related fears. The boys and girls in this sample reported they were not afraid of teachers and principals. Earlier studies (Angelino et al., 1956; Croake & Knox, 1973; Pintner & Lev, 1940) found school related fears to be reported with high frequency. This could result from the role that schools fulfill in a rural area. Because of the limited activities in the community, social and recreational activities often revolve around the school. This could result in more positive feelings toward schools. The reports of loud noises and shadows as being items to which children were not afraid probably

reflect the age level of the children in this study since both of these items have consistently been reported as feared items by younger children.

Gender Differences

Some content differences were apparent in the reported fearfulness of boys and girls, but the major differences were in the reported intensity levels. In this study, girls were found to have a higher intensity level of fear than boys. Comparisons of intensity levels reported in previous studies have to be viewed critically because intensity has sometimes been reported based on the frequency with which an item was cited. This actually has nothing to do with the strength of the fear response. Studies which used rating scales to determine a fear score which support the present finding of girls having more intense levels of fear responses were Russell (1967) and Ryall and Dietiker (1979).

As reported, boys and girls in this study reported similar types of fears in terms of content. However, differences were evident in that consistently a higher percentage of girls reported the fears than did boys. These results seem logical because other researchers (e.g. Angelino et al., 1956; Croake & Knox, 1973; Pratt, 1945; Winker, 1940) have reported the same findings.

As to the content of the fear of boys and girls, "kidnappers,"

"war," "snakes," "poison," "to die," "Strangers," "Sharks," and "being in a fire" each ranked high for both sexes. The fact that there were no significant gender differences in the content of these fears is supported by the findings of Eme and Schmidt (1978) and Nalven (1970) who reported no significant differences in the content of children's fears.

Previously girls had rated kidnappers and strangers higher than boys (Angelino et al., 1956; Poznanski, 1972). Different societal conditions reported earlier probably contribute to equal concern at this time by both sexes. Zill (1977) found that one-fourth of his sample (2,200 children, ages 7 to 11) were afraid someone would hurt them if they went outside their home. This lends support for the proposition that both sexes have become concerned.

The greatest difference in the content of reported fears of boys and girls was in the kind of animal fears. Sharks and snakes were mutual concerns. Boys expressed more fear of lions and tigers, and girls expressed more fear of bears. These findings are different from previous research which has shown that boys are more afraid of wild animals such as bears, and girls are more afraid of animals such as dogs and insects (Angelino et al., 1956; Pratt, 1945). Perhaps the present results are representative of more androgynous roles and less sex stereotyping in our society today.

Relationship of Children's Fears to Peer Acceptance and Self Perception

The relationship of children's fears to peer acceptance and

self perception was tested by the use of Pearson product moment correlation coefficients. The results showed that self perception was significantly inversely related to children's fearfulness, but peer acceptance was not significantly related to children's fearfulness.

Previous studies have not been conducted which investigate the relationship of children's fears to peer acceptance and self perception and a basis for comparison is lacking. Studies have been conducted comparing anxiety and social status in children in middle childhood (Johnson, 1958; McCandless, Castaneda, & Palermo, 1956) and negative relationships were found in both cases. Additional studies are needed to determine more specifically the relationship between fear, peer acceptance, and self perception.

Studies have confirmed that a close relationship exists between children's concept of themselves and how they are perceived by their peers (Albert & Beck, 1975; Elkind & Weiner, 1978). Therefore, a logical assumption would be that both peer acceptance and self perception would be related to children's fearfulness. One possibility for the present findings may be differentiating between fear and coping. How one sees self may be related to fearfulness, and peer acceptance might possibly be related to how one copes with fears. Future research needs to examine more closely the social context of children's fears.

Coping Strategies

Because instruments have not been developed to measure the coping strategies used by children in response to fear stimuli, limited information is available. To gain exploratory information about coping strategies used by children, three questions were added to the CFSS. The first question was "what do you do when you are afraid?" Both males and females reported that they most often used social resources by seeking assistance and personal resources in the form of non-verbal responses such as crying, screaming, or shaking. Poznanski (1972) studied children with excessive fears and compared them with a control group and found that excessively anxious children were dependent on adults. The omnipotent shield of the parent served to lessen the anxiety of the children. It would, therefore, seem reasonable to assume that feelings of fearfulness would be lessened by seeking assistance from others. A possible reason children in middle childhood use non-verbal coping strategies is because they have a cognitive awareness of the fear stimuli but lack a wide repertoire of coping mechanisms and thus resort to unsophisticated coping strategies such as crying or screaming.

Retreat/withdrawal and distraction were reported with the next highest frequencies. Smith (1979) suggested that withdrawal behaviors are a type of cognitive response because they result from the perception of a potential or actual dangerous situation. Distraction could also be described as a form of withdrawal from the fear stimuli since it is a more mental withdrawal rather than a physical withdrawal.

For example, watching television or listening to the radio when used as a coping mechanism is for the purpose of mentally withdrawing or retreating from the fear stimuli.

Aggression was reported by some boys but by no girls. Perhaps the response by boys rather than girls might indicate sex-role stereotyping of boys being "brave and strong." There were some accounts of getting a gun which leaves doubts about fourth, fifth, and sixth graders actually using guns to respond to being afraid.

The lowest ranking coping response was "cognitive." As reported some element of cognition probably went into the other responses which might account for the low number of responses in this category. Few children actually reported thinking through and analyzing the situation which probably is a reflection of their cognitive development and the emergence of the perception of cause and effects.

When asked the second question "do your classmates help you when you are afraid?," less than one-fifth said always, and almost one-half said sometimes. Girls reported slightly more help than boys. Both groups when answering the third question "how do your classmates help you when you are afraid?," reported the highest frequency of responses in the cognitive and reassurance categories. That meant that classmates were used as social resources to talk to them and help them understand the situation and to offer verbal or physical reassurance. It is noteworthy that the children reported that classmates used cognitive strategies to help them, but they themselves did not report a high usage of cognitive strategies. This seemed

to indicate that children in middle childhood do experience empathy for one another and do have the cognitive abilities to make explanations about fears. Yanni (1982) reported that children who are self-confident and independent have a feeling of control over their environment. It is possible that the children who are able to offer assistance to their peers are the ones who feel in control of the situation and are therefore more objective in decision making. Problem solving was ranked as the next high coping strategy used by classmates. It seems probable that children in middle childhood are struggling for independence which is gained through experiences with peers. Perhaps this is the reason why peers are eager to help and show independence on the one hand but to become dependent and accept help on the other hand. Students were not eager to admit that their peers committed aggressive acts to help them. Again perhaps this was because of the idea that they are growing up and able to physically take care of themselves. Boys, especially, did not admit to the fact that their classmates actually took control and distracted them from the fear stimuli. Girls more readily admitted that their friends sometimes helped them in this manner.

Implications

This study has resulted in conclusions which provide implications for future research, theory, and practice. The continued study of children's fears is needed because of implications in each of these areas.

Research

There has been no systematic approach to the study of children's fears. Models need to be developed and investigated. A common definition of fear should be agreed upon or at least stated in each study. One of the problems which plagues research in this area is a lack of conceptual clarity. Distinctions should be made between fears and anxiety and each concept should be measured by specifically designed instruments for that specific concept. More reliable and valid instruments need to be developed based on comparisons with other measures of fear rather than anxiety measures. Older instruments should be reviewed for content and revised with items receiving little response being deleted.

Older studies with good designs should be repeated in order to determine the influence of a changing society on the development of children's fears. Also longitudinal studies should be conducted to ascertain the developmental characteristics which might contribute to the changing nature of children's fears. We also should examine questions related to changes in parenting styles, school curricula, and other types of social change which may be influencing the content of children's fears. Sound research is needed which uses rating scales to determine intensity of responses. Commonly used rating scales would insure that comparisons across studies could be made. For example, in the present study, intensity of fear responses was determined. However, comparisons could not be made specifically since other studies had used different methods of scoring. A more thorough investigation of intensity ratings would lead to an easier

assessment of the aspects of children's fears. If results are to be generalized to normative populations, then future studies must draw from random normative samples. Generalizations must not be made from populations which are not representative.

Research should be conducted systematically, and when results are placed into categories, at least two people should independently classify them with some sort of statistical procedure used to measure agreement. At this point comparisons are impractical because most researchers have developed their own categories or are still using categories which were formed in the 1930's.

When preparing for this study, it was discovered that few studies had investigated coping strategies used by children when responding to fear stimuli. Future studies should include items to explore this variable in order that instrumentation can be developed to adequately identify successful strategies.

Theory

The present study was based on an integrative model of children's fears. All elements of the model could not be included in the study. Those items included in the present study were individual variables of gender, age, and subculture (rural), the content of the fear stimuli, the intensity of the fear response, and the personal and social resources used in the coping process. Additional studies are needed to specifically address individual developmental differences which determine fear responses and coping strategies. The cognitive theory proposed by Piaget (1955) should be explored more fully in respect to the development of children's fears.

Past studies have tended to focus on the content of the fear stimuli. This study and the development of the theoretical model of children's fear have paved the way for studies which will investigate other variables important in the normative development of children's fears. Some of the questions which should be addressed are: (a) variables responsible for individual differences in the development of fears in children, (b) variables specific to the fear response such as intensity and duration, (c) overt and covert coping strategies and personal and social resources which aid the process, and (d) the adaptation process after a fearful response.

Practice

It is important that parents learn parenting skills just as they learn skills for a job or some other endeavor in life. Parenting is not an inherent ability as some have believed. Children experience many traumas and negative experiences in their life, and parents can help in the development of skills and coping strategies which act as buffers when these experiences occur. It cannot be assumed that all childhood fears will "go away." Even if they do, they are painful at the time. Parents' understanding of the development of children's fears can contribute to better parenting and more enjoyable parent-child relationships.

Parents turn to numerous sources to gain information about the growth and development of their children. Parenting books should contain information about normative developmental aspects of

children's fears in order that help can be secured when fears are maladaptive. Pediatricians and doctors need additional training in the normal development of children's fears since they are many times the first source that a parent will turn to when seeking information about their child. This is especially true in small towns or rural areas where referral systems are limited.

School teachers are another source of information for some parents. Teachers could assist parents, but they could also assist students. Teachers who understand the normative development of children's fears could aid in the positive adaptation of children who experience fears. An example from this study is death and earthquakes. Teachers can begin activities as early as preschool to aid children in the understanding of death. Children in this rural sample reported a fear of earthquakes which could not be as a result of an experience with an earthquake.

Another area gaining in importance today are school counselors and psychologists. These people certainly need to be trained and informed about the normative developmental aspects of children's fears. Because of the specialization now being experienced in the field with the development of such areas as rural school psychologists (Benson, 1985) training in the area of individual differences in the development of children's fears are of special importance.

This study provided information which would assist any of these adults to help children cope with their fears. The result would

be happier, better adjusted children who would grow up to become happier, better adjusted adults.

Limitations

There are limitations for this study and caution should be exercised when generalizing the results to populations other than that in this specific sample. The sample was limited in that it was drawn from a single county in a rural area. Pratt (1945) determined from a previous study with rural children that fears are culturally stereotyped; therefore, generalizations to other groups would be inappropriate. There were also no controls or distinctions made for socio-economic levels, and this has been shown to influence the type or number of reported fears (Angelino et al., 1956; Croake, 1969; Croake & Knox, 1973; Jersild, Markey, & Jersild, 1933; Orton, 1982; Pintner & Lev, 1940; Poznanski, 1972; Zill, 1977).

Another limitation which hampers the generalizability of the results is that the sample was drawn from a single period of time (one day in the month of May, 1985). Maurer (1965) pointed out that some fears seem to be based on the latest movie or adventure story experienced by the child; therefore, generalizations based on one day's report might not be the same day after day.

A longitudinal study over an extended period of time through repeated collections of data would have given a much more accurate representation of children's fears. However, that method was impractical in this situation because of the expense, time, and possible attrition of subjects.

All of the children in this sample were of the same race (white). Since race differences have been identified (Croake, 1969; Holmes, 1935; LaPouse & Monk, 1959; Pratt, 1945), the findings of this study may not be applicable to populations containing different racial groups.

Another factor which decreased the representativeness of the sample was that the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classes in this sample were departmentalized. It was likely that changing classrooms for different subjects resulted in some students not being in their classroom when the questionnaire was administered. This was particularly true for special education students because it became apparent in some classrooms that these students were absent from the room at the time the instruments were administered. This resulted in data being collected from 137 subjects rather than the projected 170 subjects. A decision was made to collect the data under these circumstances because of the expense of money and time due to travel involved since the school was 50 miles away from the home of the researcher. Correcting this problem would have meant collecting data from one classroom each day while all of the students were in their homeroom. The selected method also contributed to less disruption to the school system since one day was all that was involved in data collection.

Another suspected limitation of this study was the possibility of the children modifying their responses based on the experiences in a classroom setting. The researcher suspected that some answers

to the various questions may have reflected an element of social desirability even though every student was furnished a cover sheet, told not to look on another person's paper, and assured that no one would see their responses. Normative research suggested that normal fear stimuli for children are socially determined based on the personal and social situations (Graziano et al., 1979). Gay (1981) also warned about responses being biased or affected by the positive or negative reaction of the child to the administrator of the instrument. Personal (rather than mailed) administration of a questionnaire involves a variety of communication and interpersonal relations skills.

Individual administration of the questionnaire outside of the classroom setting would have reduced the element of social desirability for fear of what classmates might expect, but it would not have hampered the affect of the positive or negative reaction of the child to the researcher. This method also would have limited the number and scope of the survey because of the time, effort, and expense which would have been involved in the individual administration of 137 questionnaires.

Some researchers (e.g. Angelino et al., 1956; Derevensky, 1977; Maurer, 1965; Nalven, 1970) have reduced the social desirability element by asking children to list fears of children their age. This takes the responsibility from the child, but it was not used in the present study because of the impossibility of measuring the intensity of the response to the fear stimuli with the use of such a measure.

This study and all of those reviewed were totally dependent upon the participant's self-reports about their fearfulness expressed toward certain fear stimuli. This is viewed by some to be a limitation because of its subjective nature (Lanyon & Manosevitz, 1966). Reports made by children are based on unsystematic observations that are subject to biases and the possibility of distortion due to recall (Graziano et al., 1979). Ethical constraints make children's fears a difficult area in which to collect data because natural observations are impractical since children cannot be presented with most fear stimuli and monitored for results. Collecting information from parents and teachers is even more subjective. Therefore, at this time self-reports from children were determined to be the best available alternative.

A final limitation in this study is the classification of additional fear stimuli and coping strategies into categories. The categories used in this study contained an unequal number of fears which meant a category had more weight because there were more items in it.

Summary

This study was designed to investigate the fears of rural children in middle childhood. It was found that these children reported both realistic and unrealistic fears. The content of fears was similar for boys and girls. However, girls were found to have more intense levels of fear than boys. Differences were not evident

in fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. Fearfulness was found to be inversely related to self perception but was not related to peer acceptance. Personal and social resources were used as coping strategies by children in response to fear stimuli. The results indicated the need for future research to investigate numerous variables influencing the development of fear in children, to determine intensity levels of fear responses, and to identify strategies used by children in response to fear stimuli.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Model Definitions

Individual

A single human being characterized by unique qualities.

Personal Predisposition Variables:

- o Developmental
Qualitative changes in social, emotional, physical and intellectual maturation.
- o Subculture
A group having traits distinctive enough to distinguish it from others within the same culture.
- o Constitution
Temperament or disposition inherent in an individual.
- o Socialization
The development of skills and knowledge which allows an individual to become an acceptable and effective member of society.

Fear Stimuli

Animate or inanimate objects or situations that provoke fear.

Source of Origin:

- o Internal
Self-generated through internal thought processes.
- o External
Environmentally-generated by specific stimuli or events.

Variability Factors:

- o Content
Description of fear stimuli.
- o Number
Multiplicity or range of fear stimuli.

- o Intensity
Degree of fear provoking power of each fear stimuli in terms of environmental conditions.
- o Duration
Amount of time that the fear stimulus is experienced or recognized.
- o Familiarity
Prior exposure to or knowledge of the fear stimuli.
- o Predictability
Preparedness for outcome based on familiarity or experience with the fear stimuli.

Arousal

An individual's physiological and cognitive alerting responses.

Determinants:

- o Physiological
Organic responses such as heart rate, palmer sweating, etc.
- o Cognitive
Internal processes involving thought and recognition.

Fear

A normal developmental reaction to a real or perceived threat.

Variability Factors:

- o Latency
A present or potential fear response that is not recognized.
- o Intensity
Degree of severity of fear response.
- o Duration
The amount of time the fear response endures and is recognized.
- o Situation
Environmental circumstances or setting events associated with fear response.

Coping

What the individual does as a result of a stressful situation.

Strategies:

- o Overt
An individual's attempts directly to alter the threatening conditions.
- o Covert
An individual's attempts to change their appraisal of the fear stimuli.

Determinants:

- o Personal Resources
Individual capabilities used to deal with fear provoking stimuli, such as information, self-confidence, etc.
- o Social Resources
Family, friends, or community support used to deal with fear provoking stimuli.

Adaptation

Modifications made in an attempt to adjust to fear.

Variability:

- o Bonadaptation
Effective modifications made in an attempt to adjust to fear.
- o Maladaptation
Ineffective modifications made in an attempt to adjust to fear.

APPENDIX B

Peer Acceptance Index

School _____
Class _____ Grade _____

(Make one check beside each name) I WOULD LIKE THIS PUPIL TO BE:

[illegible]

APPENDIX C

Self-Perception Index

Listed below are statements that can be used to describe children. Read each statement and think about how that sentence is true about you. Put a check in the box that matches how much you think the statement is true about you. You should have a check in only one box for each thing.

		1	2	3	4	5	Factor	Reverse
		Never	A Little	Sometimes	Very Often	Always		
1	I have got different kinds of friends.						I	
2	I make friends easily.						I	
3	I am kind to others and listen to their side.						II	
4	When I am wrong I admit it.						III	
5	I like to be clean and neat.						I	
6	The children in my class leave me out.						III	X
7	I laugh at some children and call them names.						II	X
8	I get upset or nervous when I meet new people.						III	X
9	I wish I were someone else.						III	X
10	I am the teacher's helper.						I	
11	I get the best seat in the classroom.						I	
12	The teacher wants to listen to me.						I	
13	I am afraid to ask for help.						III	X
14	It makes me upset when the teacher calls on me.						III	X
15	I whisper and write notes in class.						II	X
16	I daydream or tune out in class.						II	X
17	I keep my desk neat.						II	
18	I hand in my classwork on time.						II	
19	I like the classroom work.						I	
20	I study hard and try to do my best.						II	
21	I follow directions.						II	
22	I get bad grades.						III	X
23	School work is too hard.						III	X
24	I lose or misplace books and papers.						III	X
25	I am late for school.						III	X
26	I am absent.						III	X
27	I am polite to everyone.						II	
28	When I study hard, I get good grades.						II	
29	I get blamed for things that are not my fault.						III	X

Key: Factor I: Self to Others
 Factor II: Self to Culture
 Factor III: Self to Self

APPENDIX D

Children's Fear Survey Schedule

Listed below are some things that children may be afraid of at times. Please read each thing in the list and decide how afraid it usually makes you feel. Put a check in the box that matches most closely how afraid each thing makes you feel. You should have a check in only one box for each thing.

	1	2	3
	NOT AFRAID	A LITTLE AFRAID	VERY AFRAID
1. Loud noises			
2. Bugs			
3. Fire			
4. Teachers			
5. Snakes			
6. Being alone			
7. Spankings			
8. Strangers			
9. Dogs			
10. To die			
11. Earthquakes			
12. Brothers			
13. Spiders			
14. To get hurt			
15. Haunted houses			
16. Grades on report cards			
17. Death or dead people			
18. Closed in places			
19. Getting caught			
20. Being in a fire			
21. Kidnappers			
22. Grades on tests			
23. The dark			
24. Big mean kids			
25. Getting a shot			
26. Storms			
27. Graveyards			
28. The principal			
29. Lions and tigers			
30. Dark, empty rooms			
31. Guns			

	1	2	3
	NOT AFRAID	A LITTLE AFRAID	VERY AFRAID
33. Being sick			
34. Mom shouting			
35. Going to the dentist			
36. Monsters			
37. Cats			
38. Shadows			
39. Sharks			
40. Ghosts			
41. Being yelled at			
42. Poison			
43. Seeing other kids fight			
44. Going to the doctor			
45. Scary movies			
46. Bears			
47. War			
48. Bad dreams			
Write in anything else you can think of:			
49.			
50.			

51. What do you do when you are afraid?

52. a. Do your classmates help you when you are afraid?
 Always _____ Sometimes _____ Never _____

b. How do your classmates help you when you are afraid?

APPENDIX E

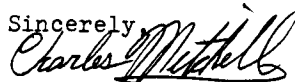
April 16, 1985

Mrs. Phyllis Davidson
629 Clark Ave.
Cookeville, TN. 38501

Dear Mrs. Davidson,

You have my permission to conduct your research on children's fears with fourth, fifth, and sixth grades at Pickett County Elementary School. Contact the principal, Mrs. Nelda Jolley, about a specific time. Our system would like a summary of the findings.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Charles Mitchell".

Charles Mitchell, Supt.
Pickett County Schools

APPENDIX F

ADMINISTRATION OF FORMS

INTRODUCTION: Boys, and girls, we are interested in finding out what children think about themselves, their classmates, and what things make them afraid. These papers are designed to help us find out about those things. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions on these forms. What you put down will not effect your school grade and no one will tell your scores to anyone.

Each of you should have a packet of forms and a pencil. Your work will not be timed, but we would like for you to work at your own speed.

On page one you will notice your name and the names of your classmates listed in alphabetical order. We want you to make a check for everyone even if they are not here today.

Now look at the example that I am showing you at the front of the room. For each of your classmates you are to check, if they are your best friend, almost your best friend, just a little friendly, sometimes my friend, or never my friend. You should make only one check for each row. DO NOT CHECK your own name. To be sure you do not check your own name, find your name now and draw a line through it. Please be careful too that you do not mark in this I.D. column. Please look at your paper only and turn your forms over when you are not marking on them. We are giving you a cover sheet that you can use to keep your marks private. If you have any trouble reading the

words or items, please raise your hand and one of us will help you. Are there any questions? Please STOP AT THE BOTTOM OF THE FIRST PAGE. Do not go on to the second page until we tell you to do so. If you have a question after we begin, please raise your hand and we will come to assist you. You may begin.

Everyone has finished the first page. Good job. I think Ms. Smith has a surprise for us when we finish these forms.

On the next two pages are listed some things that children may be afraid of at times. Please read each thing in the list and decide how afraid it makes you feel. Please look to the front of the room. Put a check in the box that matches most closely how afraid each thing makes you feel. Mark the first box if you are not afraid of what is listed. Put a mark in the middle box if you are "a little afraid," and put a check in the third box if you are very afraid of the thing listed. Please be careful to make only one mark in each row. STOP WHEN YOU FINISH NUMBER 48 on the next page. Are there any questions? Please do the next two pages to number 48. If there is some item that you do not want to mark you may leave it blank. Remember to ask for help if you do not understand a word or an item.

At the middle of this page are some blank spaces (numbers 49 and 50) which you may use to write things that are not listed on the paper. Please write in anything else you can think of and mark the items the same way you did the first 48 things.

Are you all finished with numbers 49 and 50? If you are finished please look at question number 51. Fifty-one asks about what you do when you are afraid. Please write what you usually do when you are afraid. You may write more than one thing.

Are you finished with question 51? Question 52 asks if your classmates ever help you when you are afraid and if they help, how they help you. Please answer question 52. If you mark never to the first part of 52, you will not need to answer the second part of the question.

Another good job on that part of these forms. We have only one page left to do. Listed on this page are statements that can be used to describe children. Read each statement and think about that sentence as being true about you. Put a check in the box that matches how much you think the statement is true about you. Look to the front of the room. If that sentence is never true about you put a check in the first box. If that sentence is a little true about you put a check in the second box. If it is sometimes true about you put a check in the third box. If the sentence is very often true about you, put a mark in the fourth box, and if it is always true about you put the check in the last box. Please be careful to make only one check for each row. Are there any questions? If not let's finish this last page so we can find out about our surprise. Again, please ask for help if you have trouble with a word or an item. Do the last page.

APPENDIX G

Table G-1

Percentages of Ratings on CFSS by Grade for All Items

Fear Stimulus Items	Grade			Total
	Four	Five	Six	
1. Loud Noises	0.00	0.74	0.00	0.74
2. Bugs	0.00	2.92	0.00	2.92
3. Fire	16.79	13.87	10.22	40.88
4. Teachers	2.99	0.75	0.75	4.48
5. Snakes	16.91	19.12	13.97	50.00
6. Being Alone	2.19	4.38	0.00	6.57
7. Spankings	5.11	7.30	2.92	15.33
8. Strangers	16.06	16.06	14.60	46.72
9. Dogs	4.41	2.21	0.00	6.62
10. To Die	19.85	23.53	16.91	60.29
11. Earthquakes	18.52	15.56	13.33	47.41
12. Brothers	0.00	1.47	0.74	2.21
13. Spiders	5.22	5.22	2.99	13.43
14. To Get Hurt	4.38	8.76	3.65	16.79
15. Haunted Houses	12.41	12.41	4.38	29.20
16. Grades on Report Cards	8.03	5.84	5.11	18.98
17. Death or Dead People	10.22	10.95	10.95	32.12
18. Closed In Places	7.35	8.82	3.68	19.85
19. Getting Caught	12.69	14.18	5.97	32.84
20. Being in a Fire	23.53	30.88	25.74	80.15
21. Kidnappers	23.53	29.41	26.47	79.41
22. Grades on Tests	8.09	5.88	3.68	17.65
23. The Dark	2.21	3.68	0.00	5.88
24. Big Mean Kids	3.68	5.15	2.94	11.76
25. Getting a Shot	1.48	5.19	6.67	13.33

Table G-1 (Continued)

Fear Stimulus Items	Grade			Total
	Four	Five	Six	
26. Storms	1.46	2.92	2.19	6.57
27. Graveyards	2.94	4.41	2.94	10.29
28. The Principal	3.73	1.49	0.75	5.97
29. Lions and Tigers	13.33	11.11	8.15	32.59
30. Dark, Empty Rooms	6.06	8.33	1.52	15.91
31. Guns	8.03	8.03	8.03	24.09
32. Being Sick	7.69	0.00	-	7.69
33. Fathers	2.21	2.94	0.74	5.88
34. Mom Shouting	3.65	3.65	0.73	8.03
35. Going to the Dentist	0.73	0.73	0.73	2.19
36. Monsters	8.03	5.84	3.65	17.52
37. Cats	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
38. Shadows	2.96	1.48	0.00	4.44
39. Sharks	17.04	19.26	11.85	48.15
40. Ghosts	5.19	10.37	5.19	20.74
41. Being Yelled At	2.22	6.67	2.96	11.85
42. Poison	19.40	23.13	14.93	57.46
43. Seeing Other Kids Fight	2.96	2.22	2.22	7.41
44. Going to a Doctor	1.46	3.65	2.92	8.03
45. Scary Movies	4.38	8.03	2.92	15.33
46. Bears	16.18	11.03	7.35	34.56
47. War	19.85	24.26	19.85	63.97
48. Bad Dreams	7.30	14.60	5.84	27.74

APPENDIX H

Table H-1

Percentages of Ratings on CFSS by Grade In "Very Afraid" Intensity Level

Fear Stimulus Items	Percentage
Fourth Grade	
Being in a Fire	24
Kidnappers	24
To Die	20
War	20
Poison	19
Earthquakes	19
Sharks	17
Snakes	17
Fire	17
Bears	16
Fifth Grade	
Being in a Fire	31
Kidnappers	29
War	24
To Die	24
Poison	23
Sharks	19
Snakes	19

Table H-1 (Continued)

Fear Stimulus Items	Percentage
Strangers	16
Earthquakes	16
Bad Dreams	15
Sixth Grade	
Kidnappers	26
Being in a Fire	26
War	20
To Die	17
Poison	15
Strangers	15
Snakes	14
Earthquakes	13
Sharks	12
Death or Dead People	11

Table H-2

Percentage of Ratings on CFSS by Grade In "Not Afraid" IntensityLevel

Fear Stimulus Items	Percentage
Fourth Grade	
Dad	38
Cats	31
Brothers	30
Teachers	24
Shadows	22
The Dark	22
The Principal	21
Going to the Dentist	20
Getting a Shot	20
Dogs	20
Fifth Grade	
Dad	40
Cats	37
Brothers	32
Going to the Doctor	25
Bugs	25
Shadows	24
Dogs	24

Table H-2 (Continued)

Fear Stimulus Items	Percentage
Getting a Shot	23
The Dark	23
Going to the Dentist	23
Sixth Grade	
Cats	31
Brothers	31
Shadows	28
Loud Noises	27
The Dark	26
The Principal	25
Mom Shouting	22
Teachers	22
Dogs	21
Dark, Empty Rooms	21

APPENDIX I

Table I-1

Percentages of Ratings on CFSS by Grade for "Anything Else You Can
Think Of?"

Categories	Grade		
	Four	Five	Six
War and Weapons	1	1	2
School Related			1
Animals	6	6	4
Natural Phenomena	7	1	4
Heights	1	2	2
Accidents	5	4	6
Aggressive Behavior	3	4	2
Supernatural		3	1
Disruption of Attachment	2	2	1
Medical	2	1	1
Family	1	2	2
Farm Animals	5	2	2
People	2	1	
Water	1	1	1
Other	2	2	3

APPENDIX J

Table J-1

Percentage of Responses by Grade to "What Do You Do When You Are Afraid?"

Categories	Grade			Total
	Four	Five	Six	
	(n = 190)			
Retreat/Withdrawal	5.79	6.84	2.11	14.74
Seek assistance	10.00	11.05	6.84	27.89
Aggression	.53	1.05	.53	2.11
Non-verbal response	11.05	11.05	15.26	37.36
Distraction	3.15	6.32	2.11	11.58
Cognition	1.58	1.58	1.58	4.74
Other	1.05		.53	1.58
Total	33.15	37.89	28.96	

NOTE: n equals the total number of responses.

APPENDIX K

Table K-1

Percentage of Responses by Grade to "How Classmates Help"

Categories	Grade			Total
	Four	Five	Six	
	(n = 111)			
Reassurance	6.31	11.71	9.01	27.03
Seek assistance		2.70		2.70
Aggression	1.80			1.80
Problem solving	8.11	5.41	1.80	15.32
Distraction	2.70	1.80	.90	5.40
Cognition	15.32	17.12	14.42	46.86
Other			.90	.90
Total	34.24	38.74	27.03	

NOTE: n equals the total number of responses.

VITA

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