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**AIDS and creative arts stereotypes: The relationship to the
career choice of high school creative arts students**

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New York University, 1989

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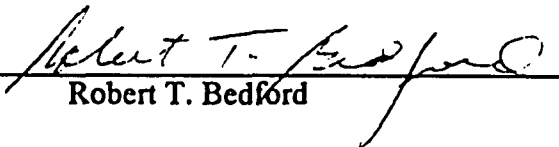
**AIDS AND CREATIVE ARTS STEREOTYPES:
THE RELATIONSHIP TO THE CAREER
CHOICE OF HIGH SCHOOL
CREATIVE ARTS
STUDENTS**

Robert T. Bedford

**Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in the
School of Education, Health, Nursing, and Arts Professions
New York University
1989**

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Robert T. Bedford

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Date

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CHAPTER I
THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

Introduction

Publicity and AIDS

"Deaths from AIDS soar in New York--59% increase over 1985," Bruce Lambert (1987) reported in The New York Times. "Health officials seek AIDS test for immigrants" (Weinraub, 1987).

The stories, articles, and revelations continue daily. Almost every day, in almost all major newspapers, news about the AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) epidemic appears. Even in death, the victims garner publicity.

In "Funerals for AIDS victims: Searching for sensitivity," June Gross (1987) reported on the difficulty of arranging funerals for people who have died of the syndrome. The epidemic seems to be affecting every segment of American life. New studies revealing the length of time the virus may escape detection in the body (Cooke, 1987) and pessimistic predictions about the amount of time before a cure is found have exacerbated the fear of AIDS among the American people.

AIDS and the Arts

The realm perhaps most affected by the AIDS epidemic publicity is the field of the creative arts. The deaths of creative American artists in the fields of theater, arts, music, dance, and literature are accompanied

by a deluge of publicity. The seemingly excess publicity devoted to victims in the creative arts is because "people get more attention in the arts than do people in other fields," according to Beverly Sills, Director of the New York City Opera (Gerard, 1987, p. 1). The death of Michael Bennett, noted Broadway director and choreographer, seemed to bring the publicity to its height. On Broadway, marquee lights were dimmed and the casts of several shows presented tributes to Mr. Bennett (Hummler, 1987). Many of the creative art world's foremost spokespersons, such as producer Joseph Papp, are asserting that the epidemic is changing and reshaping the creative arts (Gerard, 1987). The change is occurring both in work not accomplished and in projects undertaken.

The art world, however, is mobilizing to help its own. International celebrities, such as Elizabeth Taylor, are joining the cause of battling the syndrome. Taylor appeared at a benefit party on June 4, 1987, to lend her support to efforts to raise research funds (Schiro, 1987). There are many other benefit programs, such as "Dancing for Life," a concert sponsored by 13 major dance companies (Dunning, 1987). "Art against AIDS," a sale by 72 galleries in New York City, contributed the proceeds to AIDS research (Gerard, 1987). Pop singer Madonna staged a benefit at Madison Square Garden, another effort to raise funds for continued research (Pareles, 1987).

Benefit activities to raise money are not the only artistic endeavors to result from the epidemic. The list of artistic work done in response to AIDS is considerable and is becoming longer. Some examples include playwrights' Larry Kramer's "Normal Hearts," William Hoffman's "As Is," and pop singer Cyndi Lauper's "Blue Boy" (Gerard,

1987).

Possibly the most critical impact of the epidemic on that art world is the effect AIDS is having on the young and emerging creative talents in American society, the high school, college, or beginning creative artists. This impact is illustrated by the comment of actress Colleen Dewhurst (Gerard, 1987), president of the Actors Equity Association, that the creative arts are losing some of the great creative minds and some of the coming creative minds.

There are presently little empirical data to support or reject the idea that early death from the AIDS epidemic is affecting artists of the future by deterring them from selecting the creative arts as a career. That lack of data was the originating idea of this study, which examined, as a dependent variable, the career choice of high school students involved in the creative arts.

Background of the Problem

National Educational Reaction to AIDS

The response to AIDS by the creative arts world is dwarfed by the governmental reaction, especially in educational programs. In Great Britain, in the second week of January, 1987, the government began a massive campaign to teach the country about AIDS. They used radio and television and sent leaflets to the country's 23 million households. The British government also has an explicit film about the transmission of AIDS ready for public viewing (Clarity, 1987).

In the United States, the Department of Education has prepared a booklet on the syndrome. It is intended for use by parents and teach-

ers to inform children about AIDS. There is criticism that the booklet would duplicate the publication that the Department of Health and Human Services has commissioned from the Centers for Disease Control, and thus render the 11 million dollar cost of the publication unnecessary. That publication, with an introduction by Surgeon General Koop, was mailed to every American home in June, 1988. The Department of Education has responded to that criticism by explaining that their booklet is intended explicitly to help teach about AIDS and would not duplicate the health agency's efforts. Both informational booklets are available for schools in the United States to use.

New York State Educational Reaction to AIDS

On October 23, 1987, the New York State Board of Regents mandated AIDS education as part of the K-12 health education curriculum. Regent Floyd Linton, of Miller Place, New York, commented:

It's clear that we're facing a very severe and serious health emergency . . . and that the best way to deal with the epidemic is through education. (Kornfeld, 1987, p. 1)

A team of educational and school health leaders, assembled by the New York State Education Department, wrote and disseminated a guide to all New York State schools that will assist in the implementation of the Regents' guidelines. Most school districts welcomed the advent of AIDS education as part of the curriculum: "Undoubtedly, education is the best defense against the spread of the disease," said Dr. Daniel Domenech, South Huntington, New York School Superintendent, expressing a view shared by many of his counterparts (Kornfeld, 1987, p. 1). Supporting the view of Dr. Domenech, the New York State United Teachers, in their October 12, 1987, issue of New York Teacher,

commended the Regents' mandate and urged support for teachers when they attempt to implement the new guidelines (Van Dyke, 1987).

AIDS, the AIDS Instructional Guide,
and Stereotypical Beliefs

The predominant focus of the recommended instruction in the AIDS Instructional Guide (University of the State of New York, 1987) is on prevention. However, some professionals associated with the effort to overcome the syndrome, such as Dr. Jonathon Silin of the Long Island Association for AIDS Care, feel that the instruction should cover more than just prevention. Dr. Silin asserts that the instruction should also aim at desensitizing young people early so that AIDS does not become a taboo subject (Kornfeld, 1987). Dr. Silin feels that "people have to be able to talk about the disease" (personal communication, November 16, 1987). If the educational community allowed AIDS to become an unmentionable topic, misinformation would abound. Due to the enormous amount of publicity generated by the impact of the syndrome on the creative arts world, some children may conceive the impression that AIDS may be limited to artistic people.

Children are not the only ones who may conceive incorrect ideas about AIDS. Adults are as susceptible to incorrect information as their children, with the added danger that they might then pass that misinformation on to their children. In October, 1987, a health care professional (optometrist) reported that a high school senior who had been accepted to Cooper Union, a very prestigious art college,

was not going to be allowed to attend. The student's parents had conceived the idea that if he attended Cooper Union, "he would associate with 'those' people and probably get AIDS" (Turek, personal communication, November 10, 1987). To overcome AIDS-related stereotypical ideas such as these, education is an essential tool. Ortiz (1987) reported:

One would expect that when no individuating information about a target is present, then stereotypic beliefs about the target's social category will influence judgments about the target. (p. 5)

When Ortiz' ideas are considered in relation to the AIDS epidemic and the amount of publicity about the creative arts world, it is easier to understand how conceptions such as those held by the parents of the high school art student cited above are formed.

Because AIDS has been linked with homosexuals and drug users, artists and entertainers have, until recently, dealt quietly with AIDS because of fear of the suggestion that the victims are concentrated in the arts. There have been no studies to determine the percentage of creative arts professionals, or workers in any occupation, who are homosexuals or drug users. There have been studies conducted on groups of homosexuals to determine their vocational interests. Haselkorn (1953) found that when he examined the results of three groups of homosexuals, all three groups expressed high interest in the cultural, aesthetic, or expressive fields. Studies such as Haselkorn's seem to support the stereotypical view held by many people that there are many homosexuals involved in the arts. In addition to conclusions such as Haselkorn's, when the Centers for Disease Control (1987) publishes statistics that indicate that 66 percent of

all AIDS patients are homosexual or bisexual men, stereotypical views linking AIDS and the arts become more possible. When this evidence is considered in conjunction with the high school student's experience cited above, it appears that in some areas stereotypical beliefs about AIDS and the creative arts world are occurring.

The AIDS Instructional Guide (University of the State of New York, 1987) does not directly address the possibility of AIDS-related stereotypical beliefs being formed by school-age students. It does express concern about public fear and negative reactions to the syndrome and to people who have it: "Tremendous fears exist. Education must be used to curb those fears that can lead to discriminatory behavior against people with AIDS" (p. 13). Research is only beginning to be undertaken to determine whether any discriminatory behavior or negative reactions have occurred.

Statement of the Problem

This study was designed to determine whether there was a relationship between the AIDS epidemic and the career choices of high school students involved in the creative arts.

Subproblems

Several subproblems were addressed as part of this study.

1. How much AIDS publicity has each student been exposed to and what are the sources of that publicity?
2. How much AIDS education has each student received, what are the sources of that education, and how accurate is the information that students possess concerning AIDS and perti-

ment health-related issues?

3. Have the students developed stereotypical beliefs concerning AIDS and the creative arts?
4. Do the amount, accuracy, and sources of AIDS education or the amount and source of publicity about AIDS have a relationship to stereotypical beliefs about AIDS and the arts?
5. Is there a relationship between formation of incorrect AIDS-related stereotypical beliefs about the creative arts and a non-arts career choice?

Significance of the Study

It has been established by research that there are definite, detectable factors that influence a student's choice of career fields. For example, Basow and Howe (1979) studied the impact of role models, especially for females, in career choice. In 1984, Noeth, Engen, and Noeth studied a group of high school students. Their research indicated that the most significant influence on their sample was interesting classes. That finding differed from most earlier studies (Bratcher, 1982; Roe, 1956), which found that the family or parents were the most significant influencing factors. Clearly then, patterns of influence on career choice may be changing.

If the sensational publicity and fear surrounding the AIDS epidemic in the creative arts world is indeed causing high school students to conceive AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes about artists, education needs to react. AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes may become negative influences on the career choices of students interested in the creative arts. In New York State, the education reaction

is the AIDS Instructional Guide (New York State Education Department, 1987). There are several recommendations in that guide regarding publicity about the syndrome. The guide suggests that students need to be assisted in the evaluation of media messages and in the access, use, and comprehension of current events in newspapers, books, magazines, films, and videos related to AIDS. The guide also recommends that all districts in New York State complete a needs assessment and that they gather data on student knowledge about AIDS.

The significance of this study is that it addressed not only the questions of the influence of AIDS on the career choice of high school students involved in the creative arts, but also answered some of the concerns expressed in the needs assessment recommended by the AIDS Instructional Guide. Specifically, this research was designed to determine whether students have correctly evaluated the media messages and whether they are using and comprehending the resources available to them, related to AIDS.

The action of the Board of Regents in creating the AIDS Instructional Guide does not mean that there was an absence of educational programs regarding the syndrome. Many municipalities have already begun AIDS education programs. New York City has had an extensive program for some time. Irvington, New Jersey, has a program for sixth grade that addresses cause and prevention of AIDS (Johnson, 1987). That program uses instruction provided by the regular classroom teacher. Scarsdale, New York, also starts instruction in the sixth grade (Johnson, 1987). In Martinsville, New Jersey, they prefer to bring in guest speakers, such as the State Commissioner of Health, Dr. Molly Joel Coye, to address the students (Friedland, 1987).

In some respects, the AIDS educational programs resemble the programs created to overcome polio in the 1950s (Nickell, 1954). In those days, when a vaccine was discovered, it was administered through the cooperation of the nation's schools (Moore, 1956). It is to be hoped that we can begin to prevail against this epidemic.

Delimitations of the Study

Although career influences have been studied at all levels, only high school students were studied in this current research. A total of four high schools were used in this study: two urban and two suburban schools. Classes of the nature of those studied are generally comprised of students of superior ability, a limit to the generalizability of the results. To be considered involved in the creative arts, the students had to be enrolled in advanced creative field courses in their respective schools. The courses were in art, music, dance, theater, or literature (writing). In the case of schools that might not have offered specific courses in some of these disciplines, e.g., theater, participation in equivalent activities, such as plays, was considered acceptable for inclusion.

The researcher did not address any career guidance, career education, or career counseling programs in the schools included in the study group. It was assumed that the students enrolled in the advanced courses were so enrolled because those courses represented their major interest. According to the theoretical framework that guided this study, those interests should lead students into a career in a matching field. Therefore, any effects of guidance programs were not considered.

Although some of the considerations proposed by the AIDS Instructional Guide (New York State Education Department, 1987) were addressed in this study, the intent was not to evaluate any existing AIDS education programs. The intent was to explore relationships between AIDS and career choices of students involved in the creative arts. The results of the study were made available to participating school districts, which may form their own conclusions regarding the effectiveness of their programs.

Definitions

Major Variables

Dependent Variable

Career choice of high school students enrolled in creative field courses of study in their high schools was the dependent variable assessed in this study. Career choice is the probability that the students studied would choose a career in one of the creative disciplines either immediately after graduation from high school or by electing that discipline as their college major.

Career choice was operationally defined by students' expressed preference for an arts-related or non-arts-related post-high school career choice in response to the demographic section of the Arts and AIDS Knowledge-Influence Survey, developed for this research. The students in this research were enrolled in courses offered by their high schools in their respective disciplines.

Independent Variables

Four independent variables were studied. All were related to AIDS and were assessed by the administration of the Arts and AIDS Knowledge-Influence Survey.

Variable 1: AIDS-related publicity. The first independent variable to be assessed was the amount of AIDS-related publicity to which each student was exposed. Another facet of the variable, closely related to the amount of publicity, was the source of the publicity. This variable was measured by responses to questions in the Arts and AIDS Knowledge-Influence Survey that referred to the amounts and sources of the publicity to which students have been exposed. Those items were survey questions 1, 2, 7, 8, 10, 14, 15, 20, 21, 22, 31, 32, 33, 35, 36, 37, and 46.

The term publicity represented any promotional or information matter and included any material of this type to which the student may have been exposed, including verbal material, from any source, such as books, magazines, friends, parents, or the media, but not school.

Variable 2: AIDS education. The second variable to be assessed was the amount of AIDS education that each student received. Part of this variable, closely related to the amount of AIDS education, was the source of that education. AIDS education was any course or segment or unit of a course that related to AIDS. The unit might have covered any facet of the syndrome or the effort to eradicate or control it.

This variable was measured by responses to questions on the Arts and AIDS Knowledge-Influence Survey that asked about the students'

school AIDS education program. The students' amount and source of AIDS education was assessed by survey questions 3, 5, 11, 19, 23, 30, 38, 39, 40, 41, 49, and 50.

Variable 3: accuracy of AIDS knowledge. A separate facet of AIDS education that was addressed was how factual each student's AIDS-related information was. The accuracy of the student's knowledge was measured by questions in the Arts and AIDS Knowledge-Influence Survey that asked for responses about the transmission and prevention of AIDS. These questions were items 4, 9, 12, 13, 17, 18, 24, 27, and 47.

Variable 4: stereotypical beliefs. The fourth variable was the possible formation by students of stereotypical beliefs regarding AIDS and creative arts professionals. AIDS-related creative arts stereotypical beliefs and occupational stereotypes were defined as the possibility that high school students would conceive of creative arts professionals as a group at high risk of contracting AIDS. This was measured by answers to questions on the Arts and AIDS Knowledge-Influence Survey regarding students' opinions about AIDS and its incidence in the creative arts and other perceptions they may have held regarding professional in the creative arts: Items 6, 16, 26, 28, 28, 33, 34, 42, 43, 44, 45, and 48.

Other Major Terms

Major terms that repeatedly occurred in this study are defined as follows:

AIDS is an acronym for Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome, the

fatal condition that is the topic of this study. Most publicity uses this term, although HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus) is the actual virus that causes AIDS in humans and would be considered the more correct term by medical researchers. As most of the material cited in this study used the term, AIDS, instead of HIV, AIDS was used throughout.

Creative arts was defined as the disciplines of visual or commercial art, music, theater or acting, dance, or literature. Literature was further defined as some form of creative writing.

Theoretical Framework

Holland's Theory of Vocational Choice

The theoretical framework for this study was based on Holland's (1959) theory of careers, also called his theory of vocational or occupational choice. Holland's theory was based upon his work with National Merit Scholarship candidates and was extensively tested by Holland and others (Stockin, 1964). Holland first proposed his theory in 1959 and refined and enlarged it in subsequent research through 1973.

The 1959 Theory

Based on his observations, Holland (1959) theorized:

At the time of vocational choice, the person is the product of the interaction of his particular heredity with a variety of cultural and personal forces including peers, parents and significant adults, his social class, American culture and physical environment. Out of his experience he develops a hierarchy of orientations for coping with environmental tasks; this hierarchy may be referred to as the pattern of

personal orientations. (p.35)

In his original theory, Holland identified a total of six of these orientations: realistic, intellectual, social, conventional, enterprising, and artistic. The artistic orientation was the one to which students in this study were expected to belong. This particular orientation was defined as:

The model type is asocial; avoids problems which are highly structured or require gross physical skills, resembles the Intellectual type in being Intrceptive and Asocial; but differs from that type in that he has less ego strength, is more feminine and suffers more frequently from emotional disturbances; prefers dealing with environmental problems through self-expression in artistic media; musicians, artists, poets, sculptors, and writers resemble this type. (p. 17)

Holland believed that once a person had established his personal orientation, he chose a career that placed him in the environment that most closely resembled his orientation. Holland also identified six environments in which a person could work. Their names were different from those of the personal orientations in the original theory, but were later changed to coincide with the orientations. Holland further believed that if a person was blocked for any reason from his primary choice, he tended to choose an alternate from the same environmental group.

Holland's Later Theory

As Holland (1963) continued to research his theories, he developed the concept of vocational images. One of his hypotheses from the 1963 study was:

Stereotypes of occupations representing each of the types will be consistent with the theoretical formulations for each type. This hypothesis is implied by the theoretical statement that the person making a vocational choice 'searches' for situations which satisfy his adjustive orientations . . . such a

search for a suitable situation implies that a person in our culture has accumulated a library of occupational stereotypes which possess useful validity. Since many people make satisfying vocational decisions without specialized help, we assume that such choices are accomplished largely with valid stereotyped knowledge. (p. 235)

In this 1963 research, Holland assumed that people hold occupational stereotypes that include predominantly true or valid information. In this current research, the possibility that the high school students have formulated incorrect stereotypes was assessed.

In 1966, Holland again mentioned occupational stereotypes:

Vocational stereotypes have reliable and important psychological and sociological meanings. In the same way that we judge people by their friends, dress, and actions, so we judge them by their vocations. Our everyday experience has generated a sometimes inaccurate but apparently useful knowledge of what people in various occupations are like . . . Recent work makes it clear that many occupation stereotypes have some validity. (p. 5)

For Holland and his colleagues in 1966, the validity of occupational stereotypes was important because "most interest inventories rest heavily on (occupational stereotype) validity" (Holland, 1966, p. 5). That importance was based on the concept that most of the information possessed by people with occupational stereotypes was at least somewhat correct.

In 1987, in relation to the AIDS epidemic and the concurrent publicity, occupational stereotypes still may not contain predominantly valid information. Holland's (1966) theory of vocational images or stereotypes served as the basis of this investigation of present high school students' AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes. The stereotypes in question concerned artistic high school students and the stereotypes they possessed about professionals in the creative arts. This study was an investigation of whether AIDS influenced these oc-

cupational stereotypes and thus influenced career choice.

Occupational Stereotypes in the 1980s

When Ortiz (1981) studied the effects of stereotypes on rates of occupational desegregation, she theorized that:

Stereotypes are beliefs that certain social groups are more likely to have certain characteristics, qualities, or traits than other social groups. Thus, stereotypes may be regarded as popular or intuitive beliefs about the distributions of traits within social groups. They may in fact be empirically invalid. (p. 3)

In her study, Ortiz based her framework on the same occupational stereotype work of Holland (1966) that relates to this research:

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on the effect of prior probabilities on judgments of individuals . . . Many of these studies have shown that prior probabilities or base-rate information influence judgments when no other information about the target is present (Ajzen, 1977), but do not when individuating information about the target is present. (p. 4)

Research Questions

This research was an exploration of the AIDS-related stereotypes that high school students involved in the creative arts have about professionals in the creative arts. Information solicited included students' agreement with certain ideas, such as: There are more homosexuals and drug users in the creative arts; there is an increased possibility of contracting AIDS through a career in the creative arts; more people in the creative arts have AIDS than those in the general population. Data were sought to reveal whether publicity or education were influencing fear of AIDS and thus deterring students from a career choice in the creative arts.

Research Question 1: Is there a relationship between the amount and source of the widespread publicity concerning AIDS and the creative arts and formation by high school students of incorrect AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes about creative arts professionals?

Research Question 2: Is there a relationship between the presentation of factual AIDS education to the students by the school and the development of incorrect AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes?

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between the formation of AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes by the high school students and choice of a career in the creative arts?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This study was organized around four independent variables and one dependent variable. The independent variables were the amount and source of AIDS publicity the students had received, the amount and source of AIDS education the students had received, the accuracy of the students' AIDS knowledge, and the possible formation of incorrect AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes. The dependent variable was the career choice of high school creative arts students. This chapter is organized to follow these variables.

AIDS and Publicity

Most of the publicity surrounding AIDS has been reported by newspapers, television, and magazines. The various media reported little on the AIDS syndrome from its discovery until about 1984, then extensively on almost every aspect of the syndrome until the present. Although the immense volume of media coverage of the epidemic rendered complete review impractical, several factors remained consistent in most of the publicity. The subject of much of the media publicity was the government, both in its medical and research reaction to AIDS and to its reporting of the effects and status of the syndrome. Most of the current public knowledge about AIDS and its

effects on the American people come from the publicity generated by those government reports (Garrett, 1989; Leary, 1989).

Government Statistics on AIDS

Since the beginning of the AIDS epidemic, the federal government, through the Centers for Disease Control and other agencies, has been collecting and disseminating huge amounts of statistical material regarding AIDS. A primary vehicle for much immediate information was the "Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Review" (1987). In December, 1987, a review was published of current knowledge of AIDS. Among other information included in that review were the data in Figures 1, 2, and 3. These figures acknowledged the threat of AIDS to both homosexuals and heterosexuals in the United States and in New York in particular. Although the "Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Review" was not usually read by the general public, the statistics published by the Centers for Disease Control were widely disseminated by newspapers and other media sources. Many of the published government studies involved more than simply reporting statistics on actual or projected numbers of infected Americans. They touched on subjects such as the AIDS-related educational levels or attitudes of the American public.

One such study, published by the National Center for Health Statistics, covered AIDS knowledge and attitudes (Fitti, 1989). This report covered responses from the National Health Interview Survey (NHIS) that measured the adult population's knowledge and attitudes about AIDS. This survey was based on earlier versions (1987) and was

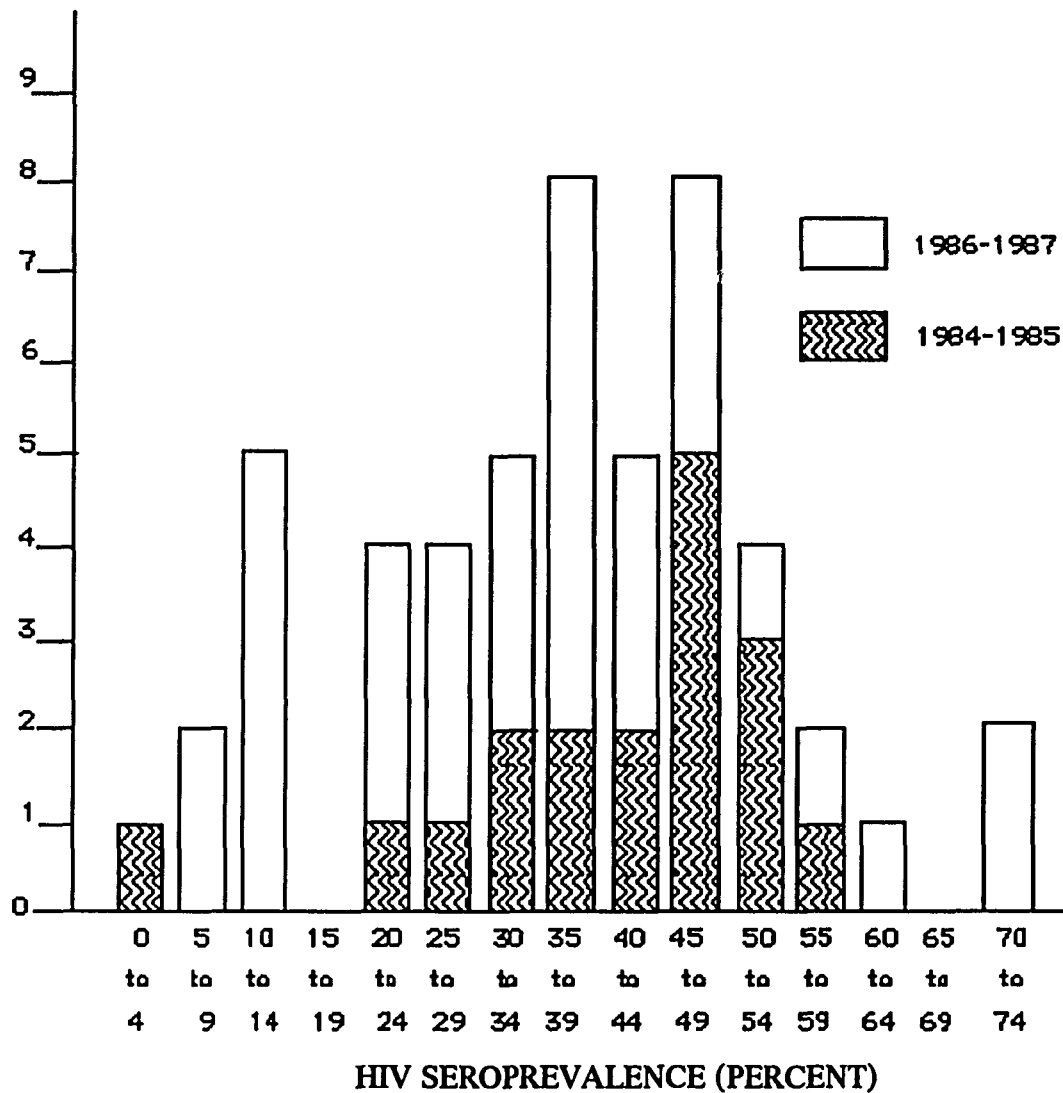


Figure 1. HIV Antibody Prevalence in Homosexual and Bisexual Men, 50 Surveys and Studies, United States, 1984-1987.

Note: Data from "Human Immunodeficiency Virus infections in the United States: A review of current knowledge." Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Review, 36, 42, November 2, 1987.

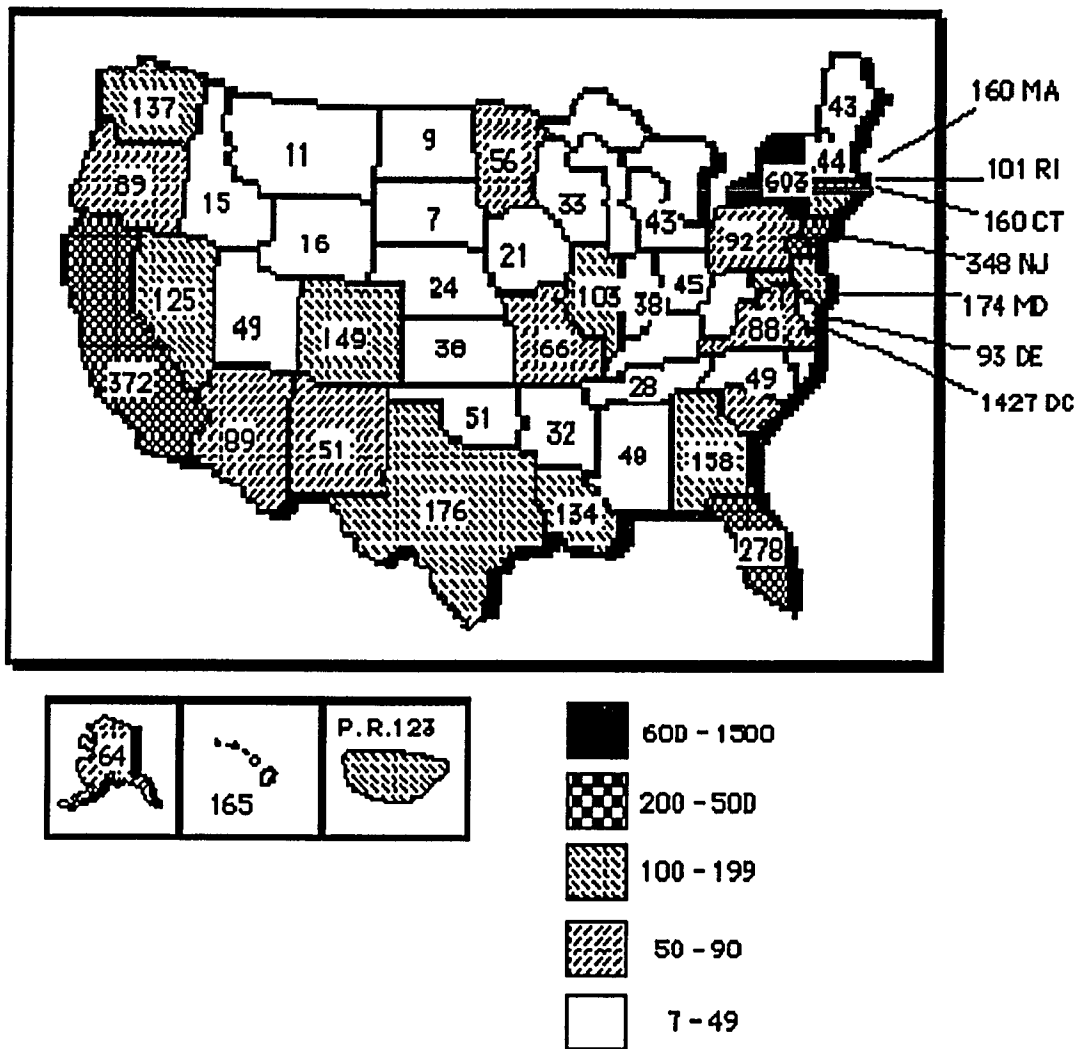


Figure 2. Incidence of AIDS Cases by State, per Million Population, November 2, 1987. (N = 44, 745)

Note: Data from "Human Immunodeficiency Virus infection in the United States: A review of current knowledge." *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Review*, 36, p. 42, November 2, 1987.

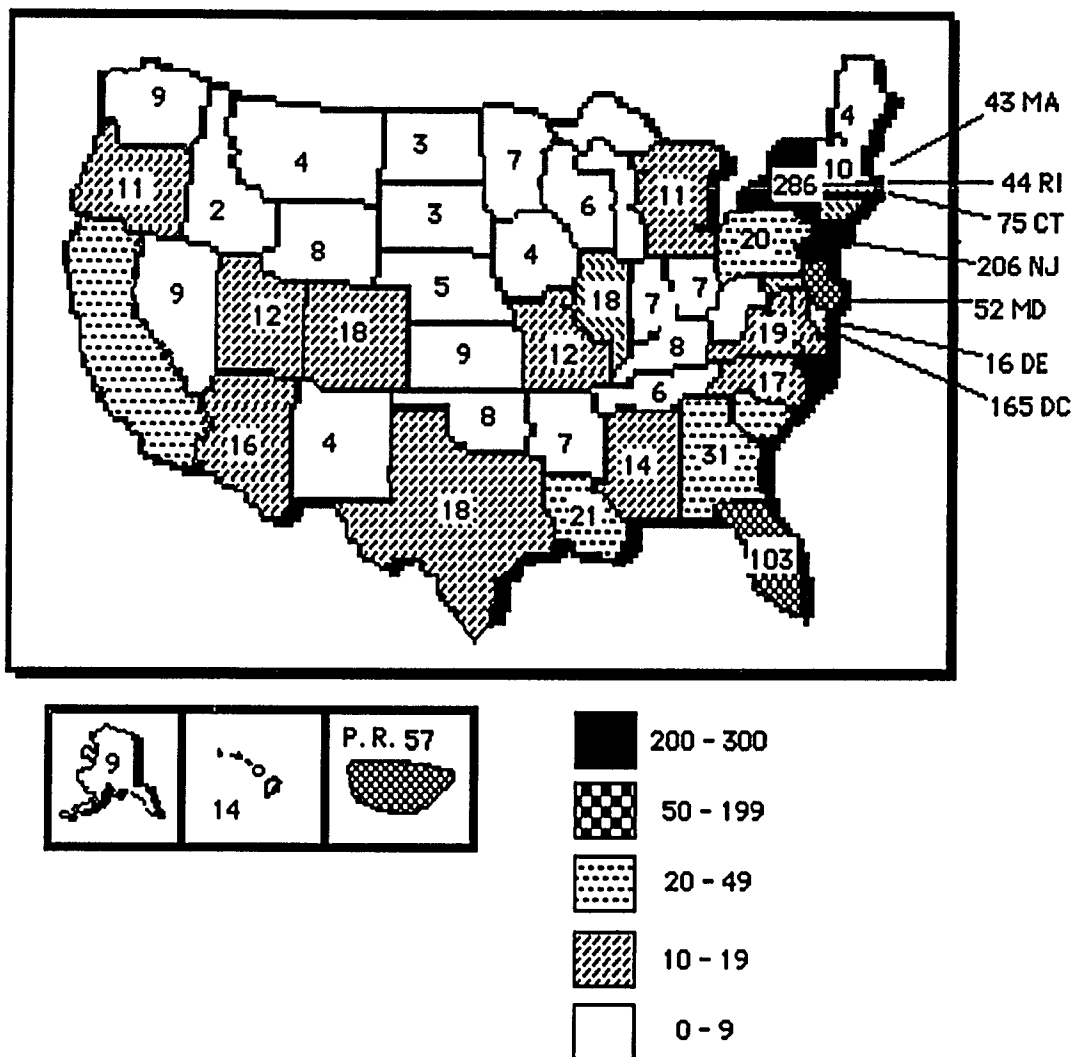


Figure 3. Incidence of AIDS Cases in Heterosexual Adults and Adolescents by State, per Million Population, November 2, 1987. (N = 11, 792)

Note: Data from "Human Immunodeficiency Virus infection in the United States: A review of current knowledge." Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Review, 36, p. 42, November 2, 1987.

revised to meet current needs for information about AIDS awareness. This revised survey was used each month beginning in May 1988 and results reported the following month. The September 1988 results were included in this study. Fitti used simple descriptive statistics in his report and he did not attempt to explain or interpret differences among population subgroups or to examine relationships between measures of knowledge, attitudes, and perceived risk. In spite of that omission, the report included several findings that were representative of the type of AIDS-related statistics generated by the government and reported by the media.

Fitti (1989) reported that as of September 1988, 83 percent of all adults in the United States reported having seen public service announcements about AIDS on television and 43 percent stated that they had heard AIDS public service messages on the radio. He also broke down these percentages by age groups. Thirty-four percent of United States' adults reportedly read brochures or pamphlets about AIDS. In his section regarding general knowledge about AIDS, Fitti drew few conclusions, although he did report that more highly educated individuals were more likely to provide correct answers. He also reported some statistics regarding general knowledge, *e.g.*, "The great majority of adults thought it was definitely true that AIDS leads to death (86 percent)" (p. 2).

This report was accompanied by an extensive set of tables and figures that illustrated the results. Included was information on sources of AIDS knowledge, another area that interested many AIDS researchers. Table 1 contains selected examples from those tables included in Fitti's (1989) report.

Table 1

Provisional Estimates of the Percent of Persons 18 Years of Age and Over with Selected AIDS Knowledge and Attitudes

AIDS knowledge or attitude	Total	<u>%</u> <u>Age</u>		<u>%</u> <u>Sex</u>		<u>%</u> <u>Years of Education</u>		
		18/29 yrs	30/49 yrs	M	F	12 or less	12 or more	
1. In the past month, have you								
1a. Seen any public service announcements about AIDS on television?								
Yes	83	84	85	81	84	74	87	84
No	16	15	14	17	14	23	12	15
Don't know	1	1	1	2	2	3	1	2
1b. Heard any public service announcements about AIDS on the radio?								
Yes	43	51	48	48	39	36	44	47
No	52	46	47	48	56	59	52	48
Don't know	4	3	5	4	5	5	4	5
3. In the past month, have you read any brochures or pamphlets about AIDS?								
Yes	34	36	38	32	36	23	34	41
No	65	64	62	67	63	77	65	58
Don't know	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1

Note. Data taken from 1988 National Health Interview Survey, by Selected Characteristics, September 1988, in Fitti, J. (1989, January 3). AIDS knowledge and attitudes for September, 1988. NCHS advanced data, No. 164, p. 4.

Table 1 (cont'd.)

AIDS knowledge or attitude	Total	<u>%</u>				<u>%</u>		
		<u>Age</u>	<u>Sex</u>			<u>Years of Education</u>		
		18/29	30/49	M	F	12	12	12
		yrs	yrs			or	or	or
						12 less	or more	
15. Have you ever discussed AIDS with any of your children aged 10-17?								
Yes	61	33	64	51	70	45	61	70
No	39	67	36	49	30	55	39	30
16. Have any or all of your children aged 10-17 had instruction at school about AIDS?								
Yes	55	46	55	54	56	51	53	61
No	16	30	16	11	20	16	18	14
Don't know	29	24	29	35	24	32	29	26

vast majority was either factual reporting of the medical aspects and historical progress of the syndrome, or reports of adult Americans' knowledge of and attitudes toward AIDS. Most of the content for those reports came from government sources. Very little of the AIDS-related publicity addressed behavioral changes or outcomes that might have been affected by the AIDS epidemic. Additionally, even though some of the government reports investigated media sources of AIDS knowledge, none of those results was used further.

knowledge, none of those results was used further.

Many of the studies discussed in the following section also touched on the media as sources of information for students. However, because most of the studies also assessed AIDS knowledge and attitudes in an educational setting, they are discussed in the section on AIDS and education.

AIDS and Education

The second variable of this study was the amount and source of the students' AIDS education. The third variable was the accuracy of the students' AIDS-related knowledge. Because many of the studies discussed in this section assessed both of these variables, the two variables are grouped together. In addition to AIDS knowledge, some of the studies also assessed media sources of students' knowledge but, unlike the work discussed in the previous section, some of these studies attempted to establish correlational relationships. To address the importance of AIDS education, the recent history of the role education has played in overcoming disease is first examined.

The Role of Education in Overcoming Disease

Since 1984, a great amount has been written regarding AIDS. The impact of AIDS on education has begun to be examined. Some of the current articles bear a striking resemblance to some of the articles that appeared at the time of the polio epidemic in the 1950s (Lowe, 1956; Moore, 1955). The current articles, as did the earlier ones on polio, discussed the impact AIDS is having and will have on public education (McCormick, 1987) and the impact education may have on

AIDS. Historically, there has been very little research on any kind of disease and its relation to education. In 1944, Urban examined students who studied communicable diseases in class and investigated how the students' personal behavior was altered. Urban found that the students did change some behaviors as a result of the instructional unit.

The medical profession has spent some effort studying the social and psychological effects of disease. The attitudes and behaviors of the medical profession toward patients with incurable disease was studied in 1951 (Leichtle) and has been repeated in regard to the AIDS epidemic (Young, 1988).

The effects of occupational risk and behavior change has been examined many times and in many different contexts, *e.g.*, occupational hearing loss (Millett, 1968). One effort was an examination of the medical problems and solutions of musicians (Brandfonbrener, 1988). In addition, the author asserted that "finding articles in medical journals about the arts and in music journals about medicine is no longer a rarity" (p. 11). The field of arts medicine or music medicine is mentioned as a new field. All these studies examined behavior changes as a result of the study of disease.

AIDS and Student Knowledge

AIDS, as a newly recognized threat to society and to education in 1984, had received comparatively minor attention in educational literature during the years of 1984 to 1988. In addition, because few empirical studies had been done, the literature contained articles that discussed AIDS in general terms. For instance, Fineberg (1988) dis-

cussed the prospects of and obstacles to AIDS prevention education. However, he presented no empirical basis for his conclusions. He also commented that "the general public has been barraged with information about AIDS from the print and broadcast media" (p. 595). Fineberg's observation was in agreement with study findings cited later in this chapter regarding the types of publicity often used as information sources, but Fineberg did not offer any further data about the importance of information sources.

Hirschorn (1987) reported that AIDS was not seen as a major threat by many heterosexuals on campus. He formed this conclusion after interviewing 36 students at two colleges in California. He also cited similar studies done at other colleges that support this view, but offered no other research evidence.

A few empirical studies began to appear by 1986 (Martin, 1986; Osborn, 1986) and many appeared in 1987 (DiClemente *et al.*, 1987; Huszti, 1987). By 1988, empirical studies of AIDS in educational or student-centered situations became more common and usually contained several common elements. Seven such studies are summarized and presented in Table 2.

Most of the researchers measured student AIDS-related knowledge, assessed AIDS-related and/or homophobic attitudes, and identified students' informational sources. McDermott (1987) conducted a study regarding AIDS awareness and information sources among college students. He found that knowledge of AIDS-related facts was high among his study population. However, there were two significant areas where the students scored poorly. The two areas were in their understanding of the nature of AIDS and in their understand-

Table 2

Comparison of Seven Studies of AIDS Knowledge among Students

Researcher	Population	AIDS know- ledge	Publicity sources	Attitudes toward homo- sexuals	Instrument
McDermott <u>et al.</u> 1987	College studs. <u>n</u> = 161	High	1. TV 2. Nwspr. 3. Mag.	-	20 item forced choice, author constructed
Goodwin & Roscoe 1988	College studs. <u>n</u> = 495 Midwest	Moder- ate	- -	Hi non- acceptance of homo- sexual behavior	49 item forced choice, author constructed
Spreadbury 1986	College studs. <u>n</u> = 202 Texas	None reported	-	Knowing homosexual increased fear of getting AIDS	?
Grieger & Ponterotto 1988	College studs. <u>n</u> = 198 Mid-Atl.	Fairly accurate	-	Did not hold negative views of gays or punitive views of AIDS	3 sections, author constructed
Price <u>et al.</u> 1985	HS studs. <u>n</u> - 250 Ohio	Very limited	1. TV 2. Nwspr. 3. Mag.	None report- ed	29 items, author constructed
Centers for Disease Control 1988	HS studs. <u>n</u> = 2813	Moder- ate	-	-	49 item, CDC developed
Helgersen <u>et al.</u> 1988	JHS HS <u>n</u> = 657	Moder- ate	1. TV 2. Radio 3. Nwspr. 4. Mag.	Homosexual- ity associated with AIDS	-

ing of the sexual transmission of the syndrome. McDermott found the three primary sources of AIDS information to be television, newspapers, and magazines. McDermott discussed the implications for health education. As he was a professor of health education, his purpose was to study and identify knowledge deficiencies for educational program content that "dispels myths and moderates unwarranted fears about AIDS" (p. 223).

In 1982, Goodwin and Roscoe also used college students as a study population for an AIDS-related study. They surveyed 495 midwestern college students about their knowledge and attitudes toward AIDS. It was a convenience sample that was predominantly white, middle-class students. Their results suggested that the students possessed moderate knowledge about AIDS prevalence, high risk groups, modes of transmission, and symptoms.

The results of this study contrasted with McDermott's 1987 findings, although McDermott did not identify the date of his survey. Goodwin and Roscoe noted that as of the date of their study there had been no reports of empirical studies of college students' knowledge of and attitudes towards AIDS. They were apparently not aware of McDermott's work. Table 3 compares some of the knowledge items from both McDermott's study and Goodwin and Roscoe's study (1988). The comparison suggests that both parties were engaged in similar research. Among the suggestions for further research identified by Goodwin and Roscoe was "additional research concerning knowledge and attitudes and sexual practices related to AIDS" (p. 221).

Grieger and Ponterotto (1988) assessed students' knowledge of AIDS and their attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. Grieger

Table 3

Comparison of Selected AIDS Knowledge Items from Two Surveys

McDermott <i>et al.</i> , 1987	% correct responses	Goodwin & Roscoe, 1988	% correct responses
AIDS is transmitted readily through social contact such as handshaking or hugging.	91.9	A kiss on the cheek is not a means of transmitting AIDS.	93.0
A blood test can now identify the presence of the AIDS disease agent.	82.0	There is a blood screening test to detect AIDS in blood prior to a transfusion.	82.8
A person who engages in indiscriminant sexual behavior increases risk of contracting AIDS.	68.3	An exchange of semen is a means of transmitting AIDS.	87.3
Haitians, persons with hemophilia, blood transfusion recipients, and intravenous drug users are at a higher risk of contracting AIDS than the U.S. general public.	86.3	Haitians are a high risk group for AIDS.	41.8
Early warning signs of AIDS include fever, night sweats, persistent cough, chronic fatigue, and loss of appetite.	74.5	Night sweats are an early symptom of AIDS.	57.9

Note: McDermott data from McDermott, R., *et al.* (1987). AIDS awareness and information sources among selected university students. *Journal of College Health*, 35, 225.

Goodwin & Roscoe data from Goodwin, M., & Roscoe, B. (1988). AIDS: Students' knowledge and attitudes at a midwestern university. *Journal of College Health*, 36, 217.

and Ponterotto, similar to Goodwin and Roscoe (1988), reported a lack of previous empirical studies and also mentioned the link between AIDS and homosexuality, misinformation, and homophobia. In the Grieger and Ponterotto study, the sample was 198 college students from a medium sized, predominantly white, mid-Atlantic institution. The results revealed that these college students had "fairly accurate information regarding AIDS" (p. 417). Some knowledge gaps were found (see Table 4). The questions used in this study resembled those from the above cited studies. This research tended to agree with McDermott (1987) regarding the level of AIDS-related knowledge among college students.

All the above cited research were examinations of the knowledge levels of college students. The authors all commented on the lack of empirical research in the field of AIDS and the college campus. Even fewer studies had been done on students below college age. However, in 1985, Price, Desmond, and Kukulka surveyed 250 high school students, aged 16 to 19, regarding their knowledge about AIDS and the sources of their information. This research indicated that the students possessed a very limited knowledge of AIDS and were not personally worried about contracting the syndrome. Their primary sources of AIDS information were television, newspapers, magazines, and radio. Schools were one of the least mentioned sources of information.

Price *et al.* used a survey, composed from the literature, to assess student knowledge. One of the most interesting facets of their work, aside from the implications of the results, was the date of the research. In 1985, although the syndrome had been known in medical

Table 4

Percent of Students Responding Accurately to Knowledge of AIDS
Items, from Grieger & Ponterotto Study

(N = 198)

Item	% correct
2. The nation's blood supplies are probably contaminated by the AIDS virus at the present time.	69
3. You can contact AIDS by giving blood.	87
5. Heterosexual women are probably more at risk for contracting AIDS than gay women.	53
6. It is impossible to contract AIDS without an exchange of body fluids.	72
8. Intravenous drug users are a high risk group for contracting AIDS.	94
9. Over a million people in the US have probably been exposed to AIDS.	43
10. At least 100,000 children in the US have AIDS.	28

Note. Data from Grieger, I., & Ponterotto, J. (1988). Students' knowledge of AIDS and their attitudes toward gay men and lesbian women. Journal of College Student Development, 29, 418.

circles for four years, AIDS was still known to the general public as a "gay disease" and was not widely covered by the media. It was not until July 23, 1985, when it was announced that Rock Hudson had been diagnosed as having AIDS, that the pattern of media coverage changed (Shilts, 1987). That event is usually credited as the beginning of the flood of publicity about AIDS, with the advent of concern

about education's role in educating about AIDS and the heavy government spending on AIDS research. Therefore, it was not surprising that the high school students surveyed by Price *et al.* revealed factual knowledge gaps regarding AIDS. It was also not surprising that schools had not provided adequate information. The school health courses covered other topics and most factual medical knowledge was confined to research labs and not known to the public. Additionally, their study found that the students who had received AIDS information from magazines obtained the highest level of knowledge as measured by the knowledge component of the questionnaire, with those students who received their information from television scoring next, and those from newspapers scoring third.

In 1987, the Centers for Disease Control began assisting state and local education departments in assessing students' knowledge. In 1988, the federal government was concerned enough to conduct a survey, "HIV-related beliefs, knowledge, and behaviors among high school students." On December 2, 1988, in the "Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Review," results were reported for use in planning educational programs. Students in grades 9-12 in six cities (Chicago, Los Angeles, New Orleans, New York City, San Francisco, and Seattle) and from parts of nine states (California, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Washington) were surveyed. Slightly different sampling methods were used by each site to obtain representative sample of students. Sample sizes ranged from 778 to 7,013. The results regarding students' knowledge about AIDS varied widely from site to site. For one question about the risk factor for contracting AIDS through blood donation, the per-

centage of correct responses ranged from 27.8 to 53.3. However, when the results were studied as a complete set, the responses revealed a fairly high knowledge level among the high school students. For example, they were able to correctly identify IV-drug use as a risk factor, with a low of 83.8 percent correct to a high of 98.4 percent correct. The authors did not report further results or implications, which was not an unusual practice for this publication.

In March 1988, Helgersen, Petersen, and the AIDS Education Study Group reported their research of a sample of 657 junior and senior high school students in two Connecticut school districts. The students' knowledge about AIDS was assessed. This study found that although these students had some factual knowledge of AIDS, many were misinformed. Some of the areas of misinformation were methods of transmission, high-risk groups, and methods of avoidance. Students identified television or radio as their primary information source (57 percent), with newspapers and magazines as the secondary source (16 percent). Few of the students identified parents and teachers as a frequent source (6 percent and 4 percent). Seventy-four percent of the students said they wanted to learn more about AIDS and forty-nine percent said they wanted to learn about it in school.

The research cited in this section on AIDS and student knowledge generally surveyed some common areas and relatively equivalent populations. The areas were AIDS knowledge among students, sources of information among those students, and some attitude assessment. The populations were either college or high school students. As mentioned earlier, most of the researchers used instruments that

were very similar to each other. In spite of the use of relatively consistent instruments, the researchers reported differing results on accuracy of AIDS knowledge, both over time (1985 to 1988) and among locations and age groups. They also reported different attitudinal results among the populations. See Table 2 for a summary and comparison of some of the common topics that were assessed in these studies. Examination of Table 2 reveals that, in general, these studies did not have consistently agreed-upon results. Further discussion of the effect of AIDS on student attitudes is discussed in later sections.

AIDS and Stereotypes

Many of the studies discussed in the previous section on AIDS and education touched upon AIDS-related stereotype development. The possible development of incorrect AIDS-related creative arts stereotype by high school creative arts students was the fourth variable of this current research. Because AIDS was originally strongly associated with the homosexual community, much of the stereotype research assessed attitudes toward homosexuality.

AIDS and Homosexuality

Since the earliest identification of AIDS as a new health threat it has been linked with the homosexual lifestyle. Therefore, a major part of the educational research connected to AIDS has been an assessment of attitudes regarding homosexuals.

In 1987, Hirschorn reported that homosexual students at the University of Chicago were "reporting a rise in sentiment against them as more and more attention is focused on the spread of AIDS" (p. 32).

Hirschorn did not present any empirical evidence to support his views, although he did cite several sources for his information.

Some researchers have investigated prejudice against homosexuals (homosexism). Hansen (1982) developed a new scale for the express purpose of measuring homosexuality. Although his report appeared in 1982, the research was done earlier, hence the instrument did not contain any reference to AIDS. This work was a response to a growing perception that there was a need for a reliable instrument to measure homosexuality.

Once the AIDS epidemic became public knowledge, more research about attitudes toward homosexuals appeared. Table 5 compares some of the common areas assessed by these studies. The attitudes of health care professionals and students toward AIDS patients were assessed.

Young (1988) measured nurses' attitudes toward homosexuality. These nurses worked with AIDS patients, and their attitudes were surveyed before and after attendance at workshops about AIDS. In this case, there was an increase of positive feelings towards homosexuals after the workshops. The author mentioned the effect of education on change in attitudes.

A similar research effort (Royse & Birge, 1987) assessed homophobia and attitudes toward AIDS patients among medical, nursing, and paramedical students. This study mentioned that "homosexuals have suffered from society's fear of AIDS" (p. 867), and reported that homophobia was inversely associated with empathy for AIDS victims. The authors suggested that the students in the health professions may need additional instruction related to AIDS and homosexuality.

The situation surrounding AIDS-related prejudice against homo-

Table 5
Comparison of 10 Studies of Attitudes Toward AIDS and/or
Homosexuality

Researcher	Sample	Results
1982 Price	HS students <u>n</u> = 278	Males had more negative views of homosexuality
1986 Pagtolun-An & Clair	Coll. students <u>n</u> = 71	Interaction with homosexuals reduced homophobic behavior and changed stereotypes concerning homosexuals
1987 Royse & Birge	Med. students <u>n</u> = 161	Empathy for AIDS victims strongly affected by homophobia
1987 Huszti	HS students <u>n</u> = 448	Educational programs increased positive attitudes towards AIDS
1987 O'Donnell <u>et al.</u>	Hospital workers <u>n</u> = 237	AIDS-phobia positively correlated with homophobia and AIDS stress
1988 Krupka & Vener	Coll. students <u>n</u> = 1175	Increased AIDS knowledge increased willingness to associate with AIDS carriers
1988 Young	Nurses <u>n</u> = 22	Nurses changed toward more positive attitudes after AIDS workshops
1988 Grieger & Ponterotto	Coll. students <u>n</u> = 198	Overall, did not hold negative views toward AIDS or homosexuals
1988 Spreadbury	Coll. students <u>n</u> = 202	Students not worried about contracting AIDS; knowing a homosexual increases fear of contracting AIDS
1988 Goodwin & Roscoe	Coll. students <u>n</u> = 495	Some fear of transmission of AIDS; highly nonaccepting of homosexual behavior

sexuals had become serious enough by 1987 for the United States Congress to hold hearings about the problem. The Subcommittee on Criminal Justice of the Committee of the Judiciary of the House of Representatives held hearings on anti-gay violence on October 9, 1987. Part of the testimony was:

The frequency of attacks seems to have increased during the last few years, apparently fueled by public reaction to Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS). (p. 99)

Many attacks since the beginning of the AIDS epidemic have included spoken references to AIDS by the attackers, usually accusing the victim of spreading AIDS to others. AIDS may thus be providing "a convenient excuse for violent expressions of hostility against gay people" (Miller & Humphreys, 1987, p. 3).

In an investigation of a different facet of the problem, the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources held a hearing that included testimony on AIDS misinformation:

It was clear to us then that AIDS had been mislabeled a syndrome confined to the homosexual community and that mislabeling caused years of apathy on the part of the public and the government in the struggle against this deadly killer. (Kushnik, 1986, p. 44)

Numerous researchers have studied homosexuality, some on the school or college level. A study that appeared just before the outbreak of AIDS was done in 1982 (Price, 1982). He measured high school students' attitudes toward homosexuality. The scale Price used made no mention of AIDS. The findings suggested that the students held a negative attitude toward homosexuals; males more strongly than females. Price used his findings to explore possible avenues in schools to help students better understand and accept homosexuality.

By 1988, almost all studies of homosexuality included study of the

effect of AIDS. Grieger and Ponterotto (1988) studied students' knowledge of AIDS and included questions on attitudes toward gay men and Lesbian women. Grieger and Ponterotto stated that "most literature dealing with college students' general attitudes toward gays had predated the AIDS crisis" (p. 45). Although the authors said "few studies have examined how the AIDS crisis may be influencing people's attitudes toward gay persons" (p. 415), they acknowledged that most research on attitudes towards homosexuality found that

individuals who hold negative attitudes toward gay persons are more likely to be religious or affiliated with a conservative religious orientation . . . [and are] less likely to have had personal contact with or to have known gay people. (p. 415)

Grieger and Ponterotto also said that "overall, these participants did not hold negative views towards homosexuality or punitive views towards persons with AIDS" (p. 420).

A contrasting result in a study by Goodwin and Roscoe (1988) showed that students at a midwestern university were "highly nonaccepting of homosexual behavior" (p. 219). Forty-five percent of the study population fell into the least accepting category. Another facet of that research was a correlation of AIDS knowledge and attitudes. The students in the groups manifesting high and low fear of homosexuality were compared on their knowledge about AIDS. Although this comparison produced significant differences on only two items, the authors concluded: "In essence, people who were highly accepting of homosexual behavior appeared considerably less fearful of AIDS transmission" (p. 220).

Spreadbury (1988) reported a somewhat contradictory finding: "One of the most interesting findings of this study is that knowing

someone who is homosexual greatly increases the fear of contracting AIDS" (p. 556).

Goodwin and Roscoe's findings (1988) led them to several other conclusions and statements:

In view of the plethora of reports furnished by the mass media, it is not surprising that these students possessed at least some knowledge about AIDS . . . The results suggest a need to develop and implement education programs that address existing misconceptions regarding AIDS and help lessen individuals' inappropriate fears of the disease. (p. 220)

In 1986, Pagtolun-An and Clair studied the effect of direct and positive interaction with homosexuals on homophobia. They found that the interaction reduced homophobic behavior.

A similar study (Helgersen, et al., 1988), conducted with high school and junior high school students as subjects, found that the students were misinformed regarding many facets of AIDS, especially transmission. These same students "apparently thought that homosexuality was associated with AIDS" (p. 352).

In summary, the literature on AIDS-related attitude development yielded conflicting findings. Additional material exists that would support several of the different findings on attitudes, even if the additional review was concentrated only on studies relating to students (Husztai, 1987; Krupka & Vener, 1988; O'Donnell, O'Donnell, Pleck, & Snarey, 1987). It is clear from this literature review that homosexuality has been linked with the syndrome: "The various press scares about AIDS have strengthened the association between homosexuals and the disease" (Altman, 1987, p. 59).

It is equally clear that AIDS had contributed to formation of negative attitudes toward homosexuality. The research disclosed infor-

mation about students' knowledge of AIDS and students' attitudes toward homosexuals. None of the research cited attempted to link AIDS with any attitudes except views of homosexuality, nor was any research completed that sought to establish a relationship between AIDS and any other variables or occupation group. No stereotypes of AIDS patients were assessed, constructed, or measured.

The only relationships between AIDS, homosexuality, and the arts were those established by the media, as cited in Chapter I. A recent example of that link was an article in The New York Times (March 19, 1989) that employed the banner headline: "Bitter harvest: AIDS and the arts":

Whether in a play like last year's "Zero Positive" by Harry Kondoleon or a television movie like "An Early Frost," AIDS has been portrayed mostly as a problem confined to gay men, reinforcing perceptions of AIDS as a 'gay plague' and of the arts community as predominantly gay. (p. 6)

As most students in studies cited in this chapter reported the media as their primary source of AIDS information, the research reviewed suggests a possible relationship between AIDS, homosexuality, and the arts, with the added possibility of AIDS-related stereotype formation.

AIDS and Career Choice: Can AIDS Influence Behavior?

Career Development Research

The dependent variable of this study was the career choice of high school creative arts students. Since the beginning of career development research, many theories have been presented that attempt to explain the different and significant influences on individ-

ual career choice.

One of the first researchers to investigate career development was Parsons (1909), who wrote on choosing a career and who influenced the trait-factor approach. Other early theorists who also influenced the development of the the trait-factor approach were Hull (1929) and Kitson (1925). The trait-factor approach matched a person's interests with those factors associated with certain occupations. This model for vocational development led to the vocational testing movement that used instruments such as the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) and the Kuder Preference Record (KPR).

The sociological approach to career development proposed that circumstances beyond the control of an individual contribute significantly to the career choice a person makes. In 1964, Harmony published a case study that illustrated the sociological approach to career choice.

Donald Super is one of the foremost proponents of what is generally called self-concept theory. The central theses of this theory are that one develops more clearly defined self-concepts as one grows older, that one develops images of the occupational world which one compares with one's self-image in trying to make career decisions, and that the adequacy of the eventual career decision is based on the similarity between one's self-image and the image one had developed of the occupation.

When Super (1951) expressed this idea, he maintained that when expressing a vocational reference, individuals put into occupational terminology the kind of people they are. Upon entering an occupation, people seek to implement concepts of themselves. As they be-

come established in an occupation, people achieve self-actualization. The occupation thus makes possible the playing of a role appropriate to the self-concept. Over the years since the formulation of Super's ideas, many other researchers have used and tested Super's theory. Brophy (1959), Englander (1960), and Tageson (1960) all used Super's theories to support their own research. Many of Super's ideas were similar to those of Holland (1959, 1963, 1966), whose theory was used as the theoretical framework of this study.

Holland's Theory

Holland's theory (1959, 1963, 1966) can be classified as one of a group that may be called personality theories. These theories examine the personality factors involved in vocational choice (Roe, 1957; Small, 1953) or the personality types associated with career areas (Holland, 1959).

Holland conducted many studies to validate his theory. For his samples, he used National Merit Scholarship finalists. One of the few criticisms of Holland's empirical work was that he used a population composed entirely of superior ability students. Most of his studies were longitudinal and were designed to assess a wide variety of variables that related to his theory. The empirical studies that Holland conducted after the formulation of his theory were a four-part exploration of the theory (1962, 1963, 1964).

In 1963, Holland explored vocational images and choice and found that many students of superior aptitude perceived occupations in stereotyped ways that tended to be consistent with some of the personality and originality variable he had identified. In 1963, Holland

used the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and the Environmental Assessment Technique and found that several of his hypotheses were supported. Among those hypotheses were the similarity of the personal orientations of students and the attributes hypothesized by the theory. Also support was the direction of vocational choice, which was significantly related to the appropriate personal orientation.

Holland summarized this study:

The results generally replicate those obtained in a previous monograph, although different assessment inventories were used in the two studies-- the Strong Vocational Interest Blank in the present study and the Vocational Preference Inventory in the earlier study. In addition, hypotheses were tested over different time intervals and college environments were assessed by different methods. These results imply that the theory has at least a limited range of applicability and usefulness. (1963, p. 593)

Through his research, Holland developed several instruments that he used to test his theory. The earlier instrument was the Vocational Preference Inventory, which was replaced by the Self-Directed Search (SDS). Holland extensively used and tested both these instruments (1978, 1979). In 1966, Holland revised his original theory in The Psychology of Vocational Choice, in which he redefined the environmental models. Holland again expanded his theory in 1973, when he published Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers.

Many researchers have used Holland's theory as the basis for their own explorations. In 1971, Folsom's study provided validity data on the extent to which subjects categorized among the six types of reported personality characteristics, consistent with Holland's description and relationships between scales of the VPI and CPI. Also in 1971, Andrews tested Holland's theory with adult part-time community college students. He found significant support for the

premise that people seek out environments and vocations that are compatible with their personalities. In 1971 Crabtree tested Holland's hexagonal model of occupational classification with rural high school students and recommended more testing of Holland's theory at the high school level.

Most of these studies by Holland and others supported some of the premises of this current research, i.e., the validity of stereotypical views of occupations (Banducci, 1968). In her 1981 study, Ortiz found support for the idea of occupational stereotypes. Holland and Gotfredson (1974) found expressed vocational aspirations to be as predictive as inventories, which was an important finding because subjects were asked for expressed vocational aspirations.

Recent Research in Career Influences

For many years, researchers in vocational development acknowledged the role of the parents or family in vocational choice. In a study published in 1982, Bratcher discussed the influence of family on career selection, which he labeled a family systems perspective. He reinforced the theoretical and empirical work of Roe (1956) when he maintained that the most important influence is still the family. His conclusion was in agreement with many other studies that adopted the same hypotheses.

Bitner (1981) concluded that most students generally did what their parents influenced them to do. Mehan (1972) also found that the parents had the greatest influence on students: in this case, both on students entering college and on those choosing a vocation. In 1979, Basow and Howe examined the influence of role models, pri-

marily the mother, on the vocational development of girls and found the influence to be significant. In 1984, Noeth, Engen, and Noeth found that the single most significant influence on high school career plans was interesting classes. This finding suggests that perhaps traditional influences are changing.

Some of the most recent research on career influence suggests that present patterns are unclear. Leung, Wright, and Foster (1987) stated that "research indicates that parental influence plays a significant part in adolescents' vocational choice" (p. 173). Their study was an investigation of the role of parental concern in career or college choice. They also acknowledged:

A number of factors operate to influence an adolescent's post-secondary career plans. These include perceive parental influences, the personality of the adolescent, peer influence, and others. (p. 178)

Reschke and Knierim (1987) reported: "The most significant finding in our literature search was that parental influence is extremely difficult to define and measure" (p. 54). They found that parents were ranked as the most influential people in choice of major by 30 percent of the students, a figure that far outdistanced any other group. They used their findings to design mechanisms to help students understand the forces acting upon them.

In summary, there is agreement on some aspects of career influence and disagreement on others. There is no agreement on the most important or powerful influences on career choice. Different researchers presented different findings. None of the studies examined specific segments of a school's population and none assessed the influence of one specific factor, such as AIDS, on career choice.

Summary

The literature review revealed that much has been written about AIDS since 1981. The review also identified areas in which research has not been conducted. In relation to the four variables of this study, specific areas of need for research were identified and explored. The effect of AIDS publicity on the general public or on specific segments of the population had not been assessed.

Most student-oriented research concentrated on assessing students' knowledge levels without relating those levels to other variables. No studies were found that were investigations of the sources of students' AIDS education, nor were any studies identified that assessed the effectiveness of AIDS educational programs. Some research was found that explored the relationship of AIDS education to AIDS-related attitude development, but not with specific populations.

The review of research in career development influences identified many factors, but no research has been conducted recently into influences on specific populations. The effect of AIDS on the career plans of the general student population, or on any specific segment of that population, has not been studied.

CHAPTER III

THE METHOD

Selection of Subjects

Holland's theory of careers (1959) proposed that students enrolled in advanced creative courses in high school have established their personal orientations. Holland further theorized that these students, having established their personal orientations, would choose a career that placed them in the environment that most closely resembled that orientation. Therefore, these high school students would be expected to choose a career in the creative arts fields.

In this study, subjects were those students enrolled in advanced creative field courses in five arts: visual arts, music, theater, dance, and writing.

The high schools in which the students were enrolled were selected by the researcher to represent both urban and suburban schools. High schools from the New York City area were chosen because New York has the highest incidence of reported AIDS cases in the United States. As of April 1989, of the 90,990 cases of AIDS in the United States, 19,339 victims are from New York City and Long Island (Centers for Disease Control, 1989). The selection allowed for many interesting cross-school comparisons during the data analysis. One of the suburban schools was small, with a student body drawn from primarily white, upper-socioeconomic status families. The other

The two urban high schools were located in New York City. One was a high school that specialized in art or music, with the entire student body studying these subjects. The other urban high school was a general high school, with approximately 50 percent white students. The remaining 50 percent of the students were Blacks, Asians, and Hispanics.

The programs within the schools were assessed in consultation with the respective school officials to determine which classes contained the most advanced students in each arts discipline being considered in the study. If any of the schools did not offer specific courses in one or more of the creative field areas, e.g., theater or dance, participation of students in equivalent activities was considered acceptable if there was evidence of commitment to the art form.

When the particular classes were identified, the entire class participated in the survey. However, where possible, only eleventh and twelfth grade students were retained in the study sample. None of the schools was large enough to offer multiple sections of any of the creative area courses; therefore, none of the groups chosen for inclusion was randomly selected. To ensure that there were at least 100 subjects in the subgroup that indicated a career choice, a sample size of approximately 300 was sought.

Instrumentation

Because no instrument existed that was suitable for this research, a survey was developed to generate the data for this study: The Arts and AIDS Knowledge-Influence Survey (AAKIS) (Appendix A). The AAKIS consists of two parts: a demographic section and a section to

collect the data related to the major variables of this study.

The demographic section contained seven questions that solicited responses about such demographic variables as the subjects' sex, parents' occupation, parents' income, and ethnicity. The questions in the demographic section were designed to control for some of the expected extraneous variance of career choice, such as the effect of parents' socioeconomic status or parents' careers. In addition, data were collected on reasons why students might not have chosen an arts-related career.

The most important question in the demographic question asked for a probable career choice as of the date of completion of the questionnaire. All questions were designed to enable the students to respond quickly and simply.

The second section of the AAKIS contained 50 questions designed to elicit students' opinions regarding such variables as the amount and source of AIDS-related publicity to which they had been exposed, the amount and source of AIDS education they had received, and the factual accuracy of their information regarding the medical aspects of AIDS.

The formulation of occupational stereotypes about AIDS and the creative arts was assessed by another series of questions using a Likert scale.

Pilot Study of the AAKIS

A pilot study of the AAKIS was conducted in a large suburban school district on Long Island, New York. To test the AAKIS for reliability, a sample of five subjects per survey item was sought. As the

pilot instrument contained 52 items, 260 responses were solicited.

The pilot survey was administered in May 1988 to students in the selected high school. Two-hundred and sixty-six responses were collected. The students were enrolled in advanced creative arts courses. Six groups were used in the pilot: students in music, art, architecture, dance, photography, and writing classes. Students interested in theater were not available as an organized group and were not included.

Validity and Reliability of the Pilot AAKIS

Content validity of the draft instrument was established by submitting the item pool to a panel of experts led by Professor Patricia Hurley, Director of the AIDS Mental Health Project, New York University. The other raters were: Dr. Jonathon Silin, Educational Director of the Long Island Association for AIDS Care; Bette Coppola, SUNY AIDS Educational Project, SUNY Stony Brook; a high school health department chairman, whose teachers were among the first to discuss AIDS with their students as part of the curriculum; a high school health education teacher who participated extensively in AIDS-related workshops, both as a speaker and as a curriculum resource person; a school nurse-teacher involved in the effort to disseminate AIDS-related information to children through school nurses; and Professor Arnold Grossman, New York University, who taught a course about AIDS and discrimination against homosexuals.

Construct validity was established by subjecting the pilot study responses to a factor analysis to determine how the items clustered around the six major independent variables of the study:

1. The amount of AIDS publicity to which the students had been exposed.
2. The source of the AIDS publicity.
3. The amount of AIDS education the students had received.
4. The source of the AIDS education.
5. The accuracy of the AIDS-related knowledge the students possessed.
6. The formation of AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes by the students.

The 266 responses to the pilot study were subjected to principal components factor analysis to extract the original six conceptual variables underlying the study. This analysis indicated an overlap of the variables of the amount and source of AIDS publicity and the amount and source of AIDS education. Following this, a four factor varimax rotation was done, which converged in eight iterations and yielded 39 factor-pure items. In the analysis of this second factor analysis, .30 was established as the minimum acceptable loading for an item to be included in a factor grouping.

Factor 1, the amount and source of AIDS publicity, had 11 items that loaded above .30. Items 27 and 32 loaded on factor 1, but conceptually did not belong there. These items were reworded. Item 23 loaded on the correct factor, but was less than .30; therefore, this item was also reworded.

Factor 2, items on AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes, had 11 items that loaded .30 or higher. Factor 3, the accuracy of the students' AIDS information, had eight item variables that loaded above .30. Six items that loaded on factor 3, either incorrectly or below .30, were

revised. Two items were eliminated and the other items were rewritten.

Factor 4, the amount and source of AIDS education, had nine items that loaded correctly. One item variable was below .30 and was rewritten. The original six independent variables conceptualized for this study were reduced to four clearly clustered and high loading factors.

The reliability of the entire survey demonstrated an Alpha coefficient of .76, achieved using the draft instrument and before the validity tests were done. Based on the pilot results, an additional question was added to the demographic section to assess the reasons why students surveyed were not contemplating an arts career.

Data Collection Procedures

The final form of the AAKIS was directly administered to all classes by the researcher. The AAKIS was designed to be administered during a standard 40 minute high school period. A standardized set of administration instructions was delivered verbally to each class.

The data were organized into two sets that corresponded to the two sections on the AAKIS, the demographic and the survey itself. As the instrument was designed for direct administration to classes during school time, one administration in each of the four schools was sufficient to collect all the responses necessary.

Treatment of the Data

The dependent variable of this study was categorical: the student's

choice of an arts or non-arts career. Therefore, the data were analyzed using discriminant analysis.

The major research question of this study was designed to investigate the influence of the AIDS epidemic on high school creative arts students' choice of an arts or non-arts career. If their attitudes towards AIDS were indeed influencing the choice of a non-arts career, would the independent variables predict that choice? It was predicted that students who had been exposed to large amounts of publicity about AIDS, who had minimal AIDS education, and who had formed inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes would be influenced to make a non-arts career choice. Conversely, those students who had been exposed to the same amounts of publicity, but who had adequate and factual AIDS education; and who had not formed AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes would be expected to be in the group that chose an arts career.

Discriminant analysis was used to analyze the data on AIDS publicity, education, and stereotypes to determine whether those independent variables were related to membership in the arts or non-arts career choice groups.

Demographic and control data were analyzed in two steps. First, basic descriptive statistics were generated to compare the four schools. The demographic data were then analyzed to study these groups in relation to the survey variables. Correlational or multivariate procedures were used to identify the strength and direction of relationships among the demographic data and the survey variables.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This study was an exploration of the relationship of the AIDS epidemic to the career choice of high school students enrolled in advanced creative arts courses. Specifically, it was suggested in subproblems 1, 2, 3, and 4 and in research questions 1 and 2 that the amount and sources of AIDS publicity and education and the factual base of students' knowledge about AIDS might have led them to develop incorrect AIDS-related stereotypes about creative arts professionals.

The notion that the high school arts students would develop these stereotypes resulted from the extensive publicity surrounding AIDS and people in the creative arts. Examples of such publicity were reviewed in Chapter I. It was proposed that such incorrect stereotypes might have led students to alter career plans that would have placed them in arts-related careers.

Subproblem 5 and research question 3 asked whether any relationships existed between AIDS publicity and the knowledge and development of incorrect stereotypes, and whether the stereotypes had any relationship to the students' career choices. Responses were collected from some diverse high school populations. Within these populations, a sample was selected of students enrolled in advanced creative arts courses. A survey, The Arts and AIDS Knowledge and Influence Survey (AAKIS), was developed to assess students' percep-

tions regarding the amount and source of AIDS-related publicity and education, the degree of factual AIDS knowledge students possessed, and the possible development of AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes. Complete responses by school are found in Appendix C. Demographic data and some career-related opinions were collected from the students.

Analysis of Demographic Data

Three hundred and thirty-four students from four high schools participated in the survey. The high schools were from four very different geographic areas and differences in the demographic data were expected. High School 1 was located in New York City and contained a racially mixed student body, ranging from lower- to middle-class socioeconomic neighborhoods. High School 2 was located in New York City and was a specialized arts school for which students must audition before acceptance. The students at School 2 were drawn from all over New York City. High School 3 was a small suburban school in an almost entirely white upper-socioeconomic area. High School 4 was a large suburban school with a racially mixed, but predominantly white, middle-class socioeconomic neighborhood.

The demographic section of the AAKIS contained seven questions. Demographic responses were subjected to BMDP Chi-square statistics to determine significant differences among schools in any of the demographic categories (Table 6).

There were 164 male and 170 female high school students in this study. No significant differences were found in the sex distributions

Table 6
Summary of Demographic Responses, in Percentages

Variable	Total $\underline{n} = 334$	School 1 $\underline{n} = 104$	School 2 $\underline{n} = 111$	School 3 $\underline{n} = 30$	School 4 $\underline{n} = 89$
Sex					
Male	49.1	47.1	49.5	36.7	55.1
Female	50.9	52.9	50.5	63.3	44.9
Ethnicity					
White	64.1	61.5	34.2***	96.7***	93.3***
Black	14.7	6.7***	36.6***	3.3	1.1***
Hispanic	10.2	22.1***	9.0	0.0	1.1***
Asian	6.6	4.8	12.6***	0.0	3.4
Other	4.5	4.8	8.1***	0.0	1.1
Parents' occupation					
Arts-related	13.8	2.9***	26.1***	20.0	9.1
Non-arts	85.9	97.1***	73.9***	80.0	90.9
Parents' income					
0 - 25,000	20.7	17.3	38.7***	6.7	6.8***
26 - 50,000	42.5	53.8***	40.5	20.0	39.8
51 - 75,000	25.4	19.2	13.5***	36.7	44.3***
76,000 +	11.1	9.6	7.2	36.7***	9.1
Probable career choice					
Theater	5.1	7.7	3.6	6.7	3.4
Film	4.5	3.8	5.4	0.0	5.6
Fine art	5.4	0.0***	12.6***	6.7	2.2
Commercial art	8.4	4.8	11.7	13.3	6.7
Dance	1.8	5.8***	0.0	0.0	0.0
Literature	2.4	1.0	3.6	0.0	3.4
Music	21.5	13.5***	22.5	20.0	30.3***
Other arts	9.9	2.9***	12.6	23.3***	10.1
Non-arts	41.0	60.6***	27.9***	30.0	38.2

*** $p \leq .001$.

Table 6 (cont'd.)

Variable	Total <u>n</u> = 334	School 1 <u>n</u> = 104	School 2 <u>n</u> = 111	School 3 <u>n</u> = 30	School 4 <u>n</u> = 89
Influence on arts career choice					
Teacher	15.8	22.0	16.3	14.3	11.1
Grades	2.0	2.4	1.3	4.8	1.9
Parents	10.7	12.2	15.0	14.3	1.9
Extra-curr. activities	12.8	7.3	16.3	19.0	9.3
Classes	6.6	9.8	10.0	0.0	1.9
Friends	8.7	12.2	3.7	0.0	16.7
Work	4.6	0.0	3.7	4.8	9.3
Counselor	1.0	2.4	1.3	0.0	0.0
Out-of-school activities	19.4	19.5	18.8	28.6	16.7
Other	18.4	12.2	13.8	14.3	31.5
Influence on non-arts career choice					
Not enough money	23.0	23.8	25.8	11.1	21.9
Hard to make it	25.9	27.0	32.3	22.2	18.8
Too many homosexuals	5.2	3.2	0.0	0.0	15.6
Too many drug users	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Fear of AIDS	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1
Friends	3.0	4.8	0.0	11.1	0.0
Parents	3.7	3.2	6.5	0.0	3.1
Grades	4.4	1.6	0.0	11.1	12.5
Other	34.1	36.5	35.5	44.4	25.0

among the schools.

There were significant differences ($p \leq .001$) in the ethnic makeup of the students. There were 34.2 percent white students in School 2, 96.7 percent in School 3, and 93.3 percent in School 4. Black

students in School 1 numbered 6.7 percent; in School 4, 1.1 percent; and 36.0 percent in School 2. Hispanics in School 1 numbered 22.1 percent and in School 4, 1.1 percent. Asians and others in School 2 represented 20.7 percent of the sample. Some of the differences in the ethnic distribution may have been due to the unique kinds of classes included in the survey or, in the case of School 2, the city-wide range of students enrolled in the school.

There were also significant differences ($p \leq .001$) in the distributions of parents' occupations. There were 26.5 percent of students with parents in arts-related occupations in School 2 and 97.1 percent of students with parents in non-arts-related occupations at School 1. Such differences were not unexpected due to the type of community from which each school draws its students.

Students were asked to estimate their parents' total income. Significant differences were found in the distributions of parental income among the schools, which were not unanticipated, due to the character of the communities. Parental incomes of \$25,000 or less were found at School 2 (38.7 percent). Incomes of \$76,000 or higher were found at School 3 (36.7 percent). Slightly over 44 percent of School 4 students reported parental incomes in the \$51,000 to \$75,000 range and 1.8 percent in the \$25,000 or less group. Nearly 17 percent of School 1 students (16.8 percent) were in the \$26,000 to \$50,000 range.

Students were asked to respond to the question of probable career choice. These responses yielded significant differences ($p \leq .001$) among the schools in the number of students who selected the

creative arts as a career choice (Table 6). In the total sample, 41 percent said they were not going to select a career in the creative arts. Music was the most popular choice among those indicating that they planned a career in the creative arts (21.6 percent of the total sample). The differences among schools showed that 60.6 percent of the students in School 1 planned not to go into the creative arts (60.6 percent) and an even greater than expected number planned to enter dance as a career (5.8 percent). Significantly fewer students at School 2 planned a non-arts career (27.9 percent) and more than expected planned on a fine arts career (12.6 percent). In School 3, 30 percent of the students chose other arts and in School 1, 60.6 percent chose other arts. Slightly more than 30 percent (30.3 percent) of School 4 students were planning on a music career. At School 1, no students chose fine arts as a career.

Demographic question 6 asked what was the greatest influence on the career choice of those students who chose the creative arts as a career. The responses yielded data that differed from the findings of most earlier career influence studies. From the total of those who answered ($n = 196$), out-of-school activities were cited as having the greatest influence on career choice by 19.4 percent of the students. "Other" was the second choice (18.4 percent) and "teacher" was the third choice (9.3 percent). "Parents," the greatest influence in many similar research studies, was the fifth choice (6.3 percent), after extracurricular activities (7.5 percent).

When the responses of the total sample were analyzed by school, many differences were found (Table 6). The responses were sub-

jected to Chi-square analysis and no significant differences were found below the .001 level. The greatest influence reported by the total sample was out-of-school activities, which was affected by the large percentage of School 3 students who selected that response (28.6 percent). Many of the other between-school differences involved the responses of the School 4 students compared to the three other groups. Only 1.9 percent of the School 4 students identified their parents as their greatest influence. The next lowest figure on that response was the 12.2 percent reported by the School 1 students. The choice of "friends" as the greatest influence on their arts career choice was chosen by 16.7 percent of the School 4 students, a much larger percentage than the other schools. No School 3 students selected "friends" as their most important influence.

Perhaps the most interesting finding was that 31.5 percent of the School 4 students chose "other" reasons for an arts career choice, a much larger percentage than the next most cited influence. Even though there was the opportunity to specify "other," few of the students who chose that response did so. One other interesting finding was that the School 1 students differed from the other groups in that they cited "teachers" as their most important influence.

Those students who indicated that they had chosen not to pursue a career in the creative arts were asked to cite a reason why not. Of the total sample ($n = 138$), the most frequently chosen answer was "Too hard to make it" (25.9 percent). The most popular answer was "other" (34.1 percent), with most students citing a variety of answers, such as "Just not interested." The next most frequently chosen answer (23

percent) was "Not enough money in the arts."

These answers were further analyzed with Chi-square analysis. Table 6 contains the breakdown by school of the responses to this item. As in the previous item, there were several cross-school differences. However, none of these differences showed significance below the .001 level. As in the previous item, many of these items involved differences between the School 4 students and the other groups. The School 4 students were the only group that cited fear of catching AIDS as a reason not to pursue a career in the creative arts. "Too many homosexuals in the creative arts" was cited by 15.6 percent of the School 4 students as a reason not to enter the arts. That response was a far higher percentage than that cited by any other group. The School 4 students also cited poor grades in arts courses as a more important influence on a non-arts career choice than did the other groups, especially the urban students. Perhaps the most surprising result was the finding that such a large percentage from each school cited "other" as the most important influence on their choice of a non-arts career.

Analysis of Subproblems and Research Questions

Data were collected on four variables in the survey section of the AAKIS to test the subproblems and research questions designed for this study. Students were asked to respond to questions regarding a) the sources and amounts of publicity, b) the accuracy of students' AIDS knowledge, c) sources and amounts of AIDS education, d) attitudes toward AIDS-related stereotypical views.

Subproblem 1: AIDS-Related Publicity

The first subproblem addressed how much AIDS-related publicity the students had been exposed to and what the sources of that publicity were. The subscale that assessed this variable was tabulated and subjected to Chi-square analysis. Table 7 presents a summary of the between-school differences on the AIDS publicity questions.

Of the total sample, 97.7 percent agreed that they had seen and heard a lot of publicity concerning AIDS. Students were in agreement concerning where they did and did not receive such publicity information. The majority of the students (77.6 percent) reported television as the prime source of AIDS publicity. The other frequently reported sources of AIDS publicity were newspapers (46.4 percent), magazines (46.4 percent), and announcements in subways and buses (69.8 percent). This result was in agreement with most earlier studies (McDermott, 1987).

The students were also in agreement on where they did not receive information. The majority did not agree that their parents were their primary source (83.8 percent) and reported a similar figure (87.7 percent) when disagreeing that their friends were their primary source.

There were some significant differences in the between-school responses on some of these items. The questions regarding newspapers as a source of publicity (Item 2) produced a significant difference ($p \leq .001$) between the students from School 3 and students from the other schools. The School 3 students reported using newspapers as a publicity source much more than the rest of the sample (86.7

Table 7

Summary of Responses to Publicity Items, in Percentages

Item	Re- sponse	Total n = 334	School 1 n = 104	School 2 n = 111	School 3 n = 30	School 4 n = 89
1. I have seen a lot of publicity about AIDS	SA/A	97.6	100.0	98.2	96.7	94.4
2. Majority of information from newspapers	SA/A	46.4	43.3	38.7	86.7***	46.1
7. Parents supplied most AIDS info	SD/D	83.8	77.9	83.7	93.3	91.0
8. Most info from friends	SD/D	87.7	89.5	86.5	86.7	87.6
10. Friends talk about AIDS once wk.	SD/D	77.5	76.0	73.8	80.0	83.1
14. Friends source of AIDS info	SD/D	87.1	89.4	85.6	86.6	86.5
15. Parents talk about AIDS once wk.	SD/D	88.0	84.6	87.3	90.0	92.1
20. Listening to parents is good way to get AIDS info	SD/D	82.3	76.0	84.7	83.3	86.5
21. I see an article about AIDS every time I read mag. or newspr.	SA SD	7.8 10.2	10.6 2.9***	4.5 10.8	20.0*** 3.3	4.5 20.2***
22. TV has most publicity about AIDS	SA/A	67.6	75.9	59.4	70.0	67.5
31. Radio is best place for AIDS info	SD/D	86.2	83.7	85.6	86.7	89.9

*** $p \leq .001$.

Table 7 (cont'd.)

Item	Re- sponse	Total $n = 334$	School 1 $n = 104$	School 2 $n = 111$	School 3 $n = 30$	School 4 $n = 89$
32. Never read news articles about AIDS	SD/D	85.9	87.4	86.4	100.0	76.4
35. I read announcements about AIDS in subways & buses	SA	16.2	12.5	31.5***	10.0	3.4***
	A	53.6	67.3***	61.3***	30.0***	36.0***
	D	19.5	17.3	2.7***	40.0***	36.0***
	SD	10.8	2.9***	4.5***	20.0	24.7***
36. I read about AIDS in newsp. & mags.	A	34.7	37.5	32.4	56.7	27.0
	SD	11.1	7.7	9.0	3.3	20.2
37. Magazines have a lot of AIDS publicity	SA/A	66.5	67.3	64.9	90.0	59.6
46. News shows mention AIDS every day	D	47.0	51.9	43.2	43.3	47.2

*** $p \leq .001$.

percent vs 46.3 percent for the next highest). The question regarding the scope of newspaper coverage (survey item 21) produced a significant difference between the schools ($p \leq .001$), with the School 3 students again reporting a higher level of strong agreement (20.0 percent), the School 1 student reporting a lower level of strong agreement (2.9 percent), and the School 4 students a higher stronger disagreement (20.2 percent).

The question about announcements in subways and buses as a publicity source (survey item 35) also produced significant differ-

ences ($p \leq .001$). The School 2 students cited these announcements as a strong source of publicity (92.8 percent), but the School 4 students did not (60.7 percent). The School 1 student agreed with the School 2 students on the announcement (79.9 percent agreeing that they had seen the announcements), and the School 3 students were evenly distributed. Upon review, it appears that the high school students had been exposed to considerable amounts of AIDS-related publicity. Their primary sources were the media, primarily television and newspapers and magazines.

Subproblem 2: AIDS Education, Sources, and Accuracy of Knowledge

Subproblem 2 asked how much AIDS education had the students received from the schools, and from what sources and how accurate was their factual knowledge of the syndrome. The data from the AIDS knowledge subscale was tabulated for the entire sample, then analyzed by school. The school results were analyzed using Chi-square analysis procedures to assess any differences between the schools.

Table 8 shows the percent of correct responses on the 10 AIDS knowledge subscale questions for the entire sample by school. There were no significant differences between schools or between schools and the entire sample on any of the questions. The results indicated that the majority of the students surveyed were able to correctly answer the questions pertaining to their knowledge of AIDS transmission and prevention. Most of the scores were high, with at least 90 percent of the students answering correctly. There were two exceptions. The question regarding the possibility of contracting AIDS

Table 8
Percentage of Accurate Responses to AIDS Knowledge Items, by School

Item	Total <i>n</i> = 334	School 1 <i>n</i> = 104	School 2 <i>n</i> = 111	School 3 <i>n</i> = 30	School 4 <i>n</i> = 89
4. Donating blood increases risk	68.0	64.4	71.1	83.4	62.9
9. Birth control pills protect from AIDS	95.6	92.3	98.2	96.7	94.3
12. Condom use decreases AIDS risk	79.9	81.7	82.0	73.4	77.5
13. Touch, kiss can transmit AIDS	91.0	92.3	93.7	86.6	97.6
17. There is an AIDS vaccine	95.5	94.2	93.7	90.0	97.8
18. Can catch AIDS from being in same room	98.5	100.0	98.2	93.3	98.9
24. Cough, sneeze transmit AIDS	94.9	96.1	96.4	96.7	91.0
25. Sharing needles is high risk activity	94.0	96.1	92.8	96.6	92.1
27. Sexual intercourse is a way AIDS transmitted	97.0	98.1	98.2	96.7	94.4

during blood donation was answered correctly by 68 percent of the total sample, which was the lowest rate of correct answers. The second exception was the question referring to the use of a condom as a form of protection against transmission, to which 79.9 percent of the students gave correct answers.

This subscale answered part of subproblem 2, the accuracy of

factual knowledge about AIDS. The students in this study had a high level of knowledge of factual AIDS-related information. The term "high" was used to rate responses, as in other research of this type, which also rated students' knowledge using similar instruments (Grieger & Ponteretto, 1988).

The third subscale assessed the amount and sources of school-based AIDS education. Table 9 contains selected examples from the questions. The total sample was about evenly split (54.8 percent agreed) in responding that their health class was where they received their AIDS information.

The Chi-square analysis revealed significant differences ($p \leq .001$) on this question (survey item 3). The School 4 students strongly agreed that health class was where they had received their information (22.5 percent), whereas the School 1 students strongly disagreed (23.1 percent). Item 5, the question about science class as a source of AIDS information produced strong disagreement from the total sample, with 86.5 percent saying science classes did not supply the information.

When asked if the amount of time they spent studying AIDS in school was about right (survey item 38), 37.1 percent agreed. There were no significant differences between the schools on this item, although the School 4 students were slightly more positive than the other groups. The second question that addressed this perception (survey item 49) yielded similar results. On that question, 64.4 percent of the total sample agreed that they did not spend enough time studying AIDS. The School 4 students were slightly, although not

significantly, more positive.

Table 9
Percentage of Responses to AIDS Education Items, by School

Item	Re- sponse	Total $\underline{n} = 334$	School 1 $\underline{n} = 104$	School 2 $\underline{n} = 111$	School 3 $\underline{n} = 30$	School 4 $\underline{n} = 89$
3. Health class provides AIDS info	SA/A	54.8	51.0	53.1	53.3	61.8***
30. History class provides AIDS info	SD/D	87.1	90.4	80.1	83.3	93.3***
38. Time on AIDS about right	SD/D	62.9	67.3	67.5	63.3	51.6
40. Videotapes used in my school	SA/A	50.3	30.8	82.9***	33.4	38.2
49. Don't spend enough time on AIDS	SA/A	64.4	66.3	66.6	73.4	56.2

*** $\underline{p} < .001$.

The survey item that produced significant differences ($\underline{p} \leq .001$) between the schools was the one that regarded the school's use of videotapes as an AIDS information source (survey item 40). The total sample was evenly split, with 50.3 percent agreeing that their school used videotapes. The School 2 students very strongly agreed (82.9 percent), and the other three groups of students disagreed (69.2 percent, 66.7 percent, and 61.8 percent).

The students identified their health classes as the source of most of their school-supplied information about AIDS. Although the schools had supplied different amounts of instruction, the students agreed that they felt it was not enough.

Subproblem 3: Stereotypical Beliefs

Subproblem 3 asked whether the students had developed stereotypical beliefs concerning AIDS and the creative arts. This subproblem was assessed by responses to the fourth subscale. The results are summarized in Table 10.

Survey item 6 asked the students whether they believed that a career in the creative arts led to an increased chance of contracting AIDS. Responses showed a 92.7 percent disagreement, with little difference between schools. Most of the students held similar views on the majority of items in the subscale.

One item that yielded significant between-school differences was item 16, which addressed the perceived number of creative artists who were homosexual. The significant difference was found among the School 2 students, who strongly agreed with the statement (18.0 percent); the School 3 students, who agreed (60.0 percent); and the School 4 students, who strongly disagreed (16.9 percent).

Another item that produced significant between-school differences was item 33, the fear of AIDS contraction through an arts career. However, the difference was in the number of School 2 students who disagreed rather than strongly disagreed. Survey item 34 also produced significant and interesting differences regarding the

Table 10
 Percentage of Responses to AIDS-Related Stereotypical Items, by
 School

Item	Re- sponse	Total $\underline{n} = 334$	School 1 $\underline{n} = 104$	School 2 $\underline{n} = 111$	School 3 $\underline{n} = 30$	School 4 $\underline{n} = 89$
6. Career-chance catching AIDS	SD/D	93.7	92.3	96.4	100.0	87.9
16. Above avg. # homosexuals in the arts	SA A	9.3 35.9	6.7 34.6	18.0*** 29.7	0.0 60.0*	4.5 37.1
26. % of creative are w/AIDS	SD/D	74.6	72.2	76.6	80.0	73.1
28. Arts more likely to use drugs	SD/D	81.1	83.6	86.4	90.0	68.6
29. Arts field most affected by AIDS	SD/D	79.9	80.9	85.6	80.0	71.9
33. Afraid to pursue arts career because of AIDS	SD	63.5	50.0	81.1***	53.3	60.7
34. All homosexuals get AIDS	D SD	43.4 32.0	55.8*** 18.3***	39.6 47.7	43.3 30.0	33.7 29.2
42. People with AIDS are discriminated against	SA/A	88.6	91.3	89.2	86.7	84.3
43. Homosexuals are more creative	SD/D	90.7	89.4	93.7	83.3	87.6
44. I have talent, not going to try because of AIDS	SD	67.1	56.7	80.2***	63.3	64.0

* $p \leq .05$. $\underline{p} \leq .001$.

Table 10 (cont'd.)

Item	Re- sponse	Total $\underline{n} = 334$	School 1 $\underline{n} = 104$	School 2 $\underline{n} = 111$	School 3 $\underline{n} = 30$	School 4 $\underline{n} = 89$
45. Most male dancers are homosexual	SD/D	94.3	95.5	87.4	80.0	75.3
48. There are not more homosexuals in the arts, they get more publicity	SA/A	68.9	46.7	77.5	73.3	70.8

*** $p < .001$.

probability of homosexual contraction of AIDS. Fewer School 1 students (18.3 percent) strongly disagreed with the statement, no School 2 students strongly agreed, and 12.4 percent of School 4 students strongly agreed. Survey item 44 produced significant differences in the assessment of stereotypical fear of AIDS. These differences, however, were between strongly agreed and agreed responses. The total school agreed-strongly agreed figures were similar.

There were several items that produced interesting but not statistically significant differences. On the item that assessed perceived drug use by creative artists, far more School 4 students agreed with the statement than the other groups. The question that assessed perceived percentage of creative artists who have contracted AIDS yielded a larger group from School 2, who strongly agreed.

When the responses from the total sample were analyzed in rela-

tion to subproblem 3, several findings became clear. First, it was obvious that these students had stereotypes of creative arts professionals. An assessment of the total sample responses and of the between-school differences showed that the majority of the students felt that the AIDS epidemic had some effect on the formation of their stereotypes about creative arts professionals. In addition, there were groups of high school arts students from each school who had formed stereotypes that were highly influenced by the AIDS epidemic. Because there were groups that had been affected by the AIDS epidemic in their stereotype formation, and because a facet of the issues addressed by subproblem 4 and research questions 1 and 2 was the inaccuracy of the students' AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes, further assessment was deemed necessary.

Students were asked to agree or disagree with the statements in the stereotype subscale; however, there were no correct answers to some of the statements because some of the statements related to perceptions about which no actual data exist, only varied opinions, *e.g.*, homosexuals are more creative than other people; there are more homosexuals in the creative arts than in other professions. Nonetheless, the range of possible answers were classified as more or less rational for purposes of data analysis. The concept of rationality was used to compute a subscale total score for each student. Responses of the total sample to the subscale score were then divided into quartiles. (The analysis of the quartile groups follows.)

To summarize, when all the questions on the subscale were considered, it appeared that the students from School 4, as a group, had

been most affected by the AIDS epidemic in the formation of incorrect (or irrational) creative arts stereotypes. That conclusion led directly to the next subproblem, which addressed some of the influences on stereotype formation.

Subproblem 4: Stereotypical Beliefs, AIDS Publicity, and Education

Subproblem 4 and research questions 1 and 2 addressed the formation of inaccurate (or irrational) AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes and the relationship of AIDS publicity and education to the formation of such stereotypes.

The Stereotype

One aspect of this study was the opportunity to identify the stereotype of the creative arts professional as held by advanced high school creative arts students. This stereotype was formulated from the data collected by the stereotype subscale of the AAKIS. The findings show that students believed that the creative arts professional:

1. Was not more likely to be a drug user than other people.
2. Was not more likely to have AIDS than other people.
3. Was not more likely to be homosexual, although homosexuals in the arts get more publicity than those in other professions.
4. Was creative without regard to heterosexuality or homosexuality.
5. Would be discriminated against if he had AIDS.
6. Did not have an above average chance of contracting AIDS.
7. Was not in a career field (the arts) that was more affected by

the AIDS epidemic than other fields.

8. Was no more talented than these students believed themselves to be.

As a first step, because the School 4 students had formulated stereotypes that seemed to be most influenced by inaccurate AIDS knowledge, the School 4 students' responses were compared with the other three schools. Because there was a slight variance between School 4 and the other three schools, significant differences were not expected. However, some differences were found. On the AIDS knowledge subscale, the School 4 students' responses varied significantly ($p \leq .001$) on item 17, the question regarding the danger of contraction of AIDS from coughs and sneezes.

More differences were found in the publicity subscale responses. School 4 students indicated that fewer of them had been exposed to large amounts of publicity and that they were less likely to find AIDS information in newspapers and magazines. The School 4 students were more likely to get information from their parents, and very less likely to get information from subway and bus advertisements.

The subscale that investigated AIDS education showed that the School 4 students received more information from their health class than the students in the other schools. They also received more information from their history classes. However, the School 4 students differed from the other students on their opinions about the amount of time spent on AIDS. Although they felt that there was not enough time spent on AIDS education, fewer of the School 4 students expressed this opinion than did students at the other schools (51 per-

cent vs 67 percent, 67 percent, and 63 percent).

Up to this point, all analyses regarding stereotype formation had compared School 4 students with the other school groups, which yielded some interesting and possibly useful information, as discussed above. As mentioned earlier, responses of the total sample on the stereotype subscale were separated into quartiles and analyzed. The quartile scores were classified from the most accurate (rational) to the most inaccurate (irrational) AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes (Table 11).

Table 11
Highest (Irrational) and Lowest (Rational) Quartile Raw Responses to
AIDS Stereotype Items, by School

Stereotype 4 group	Total <u>n</u> = 334	School 1 <u>n</u> = 104	School 2 <u>n</u> = 111	School 3 <u>n</u> = 30	School 4 <u>n</u> = 89
Irrational	124	30	54***	9	31
Rational	114	40	25***	10	39
Total	238	70	79	19	70
<u>%</u> of total <u>n</u>	71	67	71	63	81

*** $p \leq .001$.

Note. Irrational = those students with the most inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes.

Rational = those students with the most accurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes.

The two stereotype groups were compared on the individual subscale items. The comparison yielded significant differences between the groups on many of the survey items. That classification also yielded some other significant and unexpected results. It was found that 81 percent of the School 4 students fell into either the highest or the lowest quartile, the highest percentage of any of the schools (School 1, 67 percent; School 2, 71 percent; School 3, 63 percent). This finding tended to confirm the earlier assessment that the School 4 students had been most affected by the AIDS epidemic. However, of the that 81 percent, only 44.3 percent of those School 4 students were classified as having inaccurate stereotypes. This figure was very similar to School 1 (42.9 percent) and School 3 (47.4 percent). It was found that the students from School 2 had the highest percentage of inaccurate stereotypes (68.4 percent).

Responses of the quartile groups were then compared on each of the four subscales using 2 by 2 ANOVAs that classified by both stereotype group and career choice. A statistically significant relationship was found between inaccurate stereotype formation and a) accuracy of AIDS information, b) responses on the stereotype subscale, and amount and source of AIDS education. No statistically significant relationship between the publicity subscale and inaccurate stereotype formation was found. Table 12 summarizes the data on the means and standard deviations of the quartile groups on those variables. These data (on formulated, inaccurate, AIDS-related, creative arts stereotypes) were then considered in relation to subproblem 5.

Table 12
Means and Standard Deviations of Total Scores Achieved by Subjects
on AAKIS Subscales by Stereotype Group

Subscale	<u>Stereotype</u>			
	<u>Inaccurate</u>		<u>Accurate</u>	
	<u>M</u>	<u>Sd</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>Sd</u>
Accuracy ***	34.56	2.67	33.30	2.45
Stereotype***	18.91	1.90	29.22	2.43
Publicity	27.57	3.65	28.13	3.63
Education**	21.45	2.52	22.50	2.43

*** $p \leq .001$.

** $p \leq .01$.

Subproblem 5: Stereotypes and Career Choice

Subproblem 5 and research question 3 addressed the relationship of the AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes and career choice. Some tentative conclusions were formulated from inspection of the frequency data.

The total sample of student responses, regardless of the stereotypes they had formed, showed that very few students acknowledged that they were deterred by AIDS from choosing a career in the creative arts. The students from School 4, whose creative arts stereotypes were most influenced by AIDS, had the second lowest percentage (61.8 percent) of responses about the intention to pursue an arts-

related career. In addition, this figure is somewhat distorted by the fact that School 4 students had the larger percentage of responses indicating the intention to pursue a career in music (30.3 percent). To provide clarity to responses to this question regarding career choice, discriminant analysis procedures were used.

Discriminant analysis of the data from the total sample provided some insight into the answer to subproblem 5 and research question 3. The analysis was computed using arts-related or non-arts-related career choice as the grouping dependent variable. It was found that only three of the 50 variables were significant predictors of group membership. Those three variables were the question on the amount of publicity that homosexuals in the arts received, one question regarding the change of contracting AIDS through a career in the creative arts, and the question that referred to school health classes as a source of AIDS information.

The discriminant analysis of the results correctly predicted group membership 62 percent of the time for non-arts-related career students and 53 percent of the time for arts-related career students. It was concluded that these findings were inadequate in predicting career choice. However, as mentioned above, when the students with the most accurate and inaccurate stereotypes were compared, numerous significant differences in the individual items and in three of the four subscales were found. These differences were identified between the stereotype groups, but there were no significant differences between the arts and non-arts career groups in any of the subscales.

Summary of Findings Related to Subproblems and Research Questions

When all the data had been analyzed, it was possible to form conclusions about both the subproblems and the research questions. It was found that the students from all the schools were exposed to considerable amounts of AIDS publicity and from many different sources. The major source was the media, primarily television (subproblem 1).

All the students were given AIDS education in school in varying amounts, and most possessed high AIDS-related factual knowledge. Health education classes were the source of most of the AIDS-related knowledge gained in school (subproblem 2). The students felt that they needed more AIDS-related education from their schools.

Stereotypes of creative arts professionals were formed by all of the student surveyed (subproblem 3). The stereotypes varied in the rationality or accuracy of the influence of AIDS. There was no direct significant relationship between the amount of AIDS publicity and formation of inaccurate AIDS-related, creative arts stereotypes. A significant relationship was found among amounts and sources of AIDS education, accuracy of the students' AIDS knowledge, and accuracy or inaccuracy of stereotypes (subproblem 4 and research questions 1 and 2).

No significant relationships were found between AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes and career choice of high school arts students (subproblem 5 and research question 3).

CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The Demographics

Analysis of the demographic data revealed some expected and some unexpected results. The four high schools were chosen expressly for the purpose of exploring different student populations and those expectations were fulfilled.

As noted in Chapter IV, there were some expected significant ethnic differences among the schools. This study was modeled on many previous studies that included ethnic breakdowns. The ethnic differences found in this research were undoubtedly due to the different geographic areas in which the schools were located. In the individual schools, some of the ethnic compositions in the classes surveyed differed from the actual ethnic composition of each school. For example, based on preliminary meetings with the school principal, it was expected that the School 1 population would be approximately 50 percent white and 50 percent minority. The population was actually 61 percent white in the classes surveyed. Some of the ethnic composition of the sample may have been due to the non-random selection of classes within each school. Only advanced creative arts classes participated in the survey. No reasons for the differences in the ethnic composition of the classes compared to the general population of the school could be ascertained, other than the

random result of student course choice. All the teachers of the classes surveyed were white and equally divided between male and female. All teachers seemed popular and well-liked by the students, who were also about equally divided between male and female.

The distribution of the parents' occupations yielded two interesting factors that were unique to this study because previous AIDS-related research did not address this issue. The non-arts-related parents' occupations were over represented at School 1, which finding agreed with the principal's assessment of the community as a middle-class neighborhood. At School 1, only 2.9 percent of the parents had arts-related careers and only 39 percent of the students enrolled in the advanced creative arts courses indicated that they intended to pursue an arts career. The 39 percent response was the lowest of the four high schools. At School 2, a special high school for students specifically interested in, and talented in, arts and music, there was a high percentage of parents with arts-related occupations. School 2 had the highest percentage of students intending to pursue an arts-related career. These two findings of the differences between the parents' occupations support the notion that there may be a correlation between a parent's arts-related occupation and the student's choice of an arts-related high school or the student's intent to pursue an arts-related occupation.

As discussed in Chapter II, there has been much research conducted on career development that has included the study of the relationship between parental influence and children's career choice. That research generally showed that parent had the most influence on students' career choices (Brachter, 1982; Mehan, 1972). In this study,

the influences on the career choice of a specific group of students were studied. In the demographic section of the AAKIS, item 6 asked the students who had indicated that they intended to pursue a career in the arts to identify the greatest influence on that choice. The responses indicated that parents were only the fifth most important influence. These data contradicted most earlier research and also the conclusions drawn from the responses to demographic item 3, discussed above. However, it must be remembered that only those students who had chosen to pursue a career in the arts answered item 6, and the findings applied only to that segment of the students who participated in this study. Within this narrower subsample, newer influences, such as teachers and out-of-school activities, were given as more important influences on students' career choices. These findings are of interest to most educators and to educational administrators because the findings suggest new patterns of student behavior.

Most of the significant differences in the distribution of parents' income were expected, again due to differences in the demographic characteristics of the communities, *e.g.*, the \$76,000 or higher parent incomes in School 3. The parent incomes in the \$25,000 or lower range at School 2 may have been partly due to both the reputation of the school and to the admission policies of the New York City school system in regard to specialized high schools. These policies allow students from every socioeconomic area to attend such schools if they pass the audition.

The demographics on the probable career choice of the students produced many significant differences between schools, as measured by Chi-square analysis (Table 6). School 2 had the highest percentage

of students who indicated that they were going to choose an arts-related career. This was an expected finding, as the school is a specialized school expressly devoted to music and art majors. School 1 had the highest percentage of students who indicated that they were not going to pursue an arts-related career. Once again, this finding may have been due to the type of community (urban, lower socioeconomic) that does not easily accept or encourage such high-risk careers. However, a surprising finding was that the only declared future dancers came from School 1. There was no discernable reason for this finding, as there were no formal dance classes at the school to participate in this survey, nor did the school have a reputation as a producer of professional dancers.

The large percentage of School 3 students intending to pursue a music career was probably due to the strength of that school's music program, which featured a very close student-teacher-parent relationship (Garrison, personal communication, February, 1989). The same is probably true of the overrepresentation of music majors at School 4, which featured a very recent and positive change of program leadership (Lewers, personal communication, December 1988).

The question about the greatest influence on arts-related career choice produced interesting results. Unlike most other studies on related topics, the students in this study did not cite their parents as the most important influence. (The narrow sample of responses of students who intended to pursue an arts-related career to this question was discussed earlier.) Students who stated that they intended to pursue arts-related careers also reported that they were using personal experiences, such as out-of-school activities, extra-curricular activi-

ties, as their sources to help them make career choice decisions. Responses of the total sample to the question of the source of AIDS-related information showed that parents were not the primary source of such information, suggesting that these students were less parent-reliant than previous students.

Differences in the responses of School 4 students indicated a somewhat different set of influences on career choice. A possible reason for the lack of parental influence and the high influence of other reasons, such as work or friends, was the involvement of these students in rock bands (Krammer, personal communication, March 1989). This activity was deemed to be an important influence, which combined and acted on students' choosing the responses of friends, work, and other reasons in an out-of-school situation as having more influence than parents on career choice.

The students who indicated that they were not going to pursue an arts-related career cited "too hard to make it" as the most important, specific influence. This response and the perception of the arts as a poorly paying occupation, may have stemmed from the stereotype of the creative artist as portrayed in films and books. Even the students from School 2, who might have been expected to have the most familiarity with professional artists, cited these two considerations as important reasons for not selecting the arts as a career choice.

The pattern of responses from the School 4 students indicated a trend toward AIDS-related homophobia, an assessment confirmed by the school (Krammer, personal communication, March 1989). It also appeared that the School 4 students and the School 3 students (both suburban districts) were more conscious of grades than were their ur-

ban counterparts, which may have been a reflection of the climate of their schools. The finding that such a large percentage of students chose "other" as a reason for not choosing an arts-related career indicated that there were different and undetermined influences acting on the students' choices than those postulated by the researcher. Because so few students specified what "other" signified, no conclusions were drawn about possible reasons for this choice of answer.

Many of the findings from this study were unique because most other AIDS-related research with students concentrated on knowledge (Price *et al.*, 1985). In general, the demographics of other studies only identified factors such as age or ethnicity without comparing those factors between subsamples (Fitti, 1987) or relating them to AIDS-related variables.

Subproblems and Research Questions

Student responses to questions related to subproblem 1 indicated that students were exposed to considerable amounts of publicity from many different sources. Over 97 percent of the total sample agreed with the statement that they had seen and heard a lot of publicity about AIDS. Their responses also clearly indicated the primary sources of such publicity. The students were not talking to either their parents or their friends to receive AIDS-related information. The responses overwhelmingly indicated this fact. Only 16 percent of the total sample said that their parents supplied most of their AIDS information. Even fewer (12.3 percent) of the total sample indicated that their friends were their primary source. The findings were equally clear in identifying where students received their information about

AIDS. Television was cited as the primary source (67.6 percent), with newspapers and magazines being identified as important but secondary sources. These results showed that media publicity played a major part in supplying AIDS information to these high school students.

In recent years, much has been written about the amount of time children spend watching television (Keith, 1986; Lawrence, 1986). The results of this study suggest that the television watching time allowed these students to assimilate information about AIDS. Because the students also indicated that they felt the schools should provide more instruction and because their AIDS-related factual accuracy was high, the media played an important part in these students' informational development.

Different media were important in different schools. School 3 students reported a higher use of newspapers than other students. This may have reflected the community standards and customs, with the daily newspaper playing a more important role in either the family or the school setting in School 3 than in the other schools. This speculation was supported by the district superintendent (DiRizio, personal communication, March 1989).

Students from the city schools reported receiving more information about AIDS from subway and bus announcements. Although that finding was expected for the city schools, the rate of response of School 3 students to this question was unexpectedly high, indicating a familiarity with city transportation and perhaps more mobility than the other suburban population.

To summarize the findings related to publicity about AIDS, it ap-

pears that students' familiarity with television resulted in television being the primary cited source of AIDS publicity. This agreed with earlier research and was important on two levels. First, the result indicated stability in publicity source patterns, supplying educators with information about where their students gathered their information. Second, as newspapers were also an important source of information, and almost all of the media material linking the arts with AIDS appears in newspapers (Kimmelman, 1989), it can be assumed that students' AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes stemmed from media coverage of the epidemic. This conclusion relates to the subproblems and research questions of the relationship of publicity, stereotypes, and career choice.

Subproblem 2 addressed the source, amount, and accuracy of AIDS-related education the students received. Results demonstrated a high level of knowledge among the students. Students felt their schools should have provided more AIDS-related education, suggesting that students were not satisfied with the amount of school instruction received. That expressed need agreed with at least one district's current program status (School 4), which had not been started as of March 1989 (Krammer, personal communication, March 1989). Although the school programs had to have had an impact on students' demonstrated knowledge, the amount and effect of media publicity must have played a major role in the development of the accurate knowledge. It may be that the efforts of government health organizations to produce and provide AIDS-related publicity or instructional materials also had an impact on students' knowledge levels.

It was not a purpose of the researcher to evaluate the educational

programs of the districts. However, students said they did not receive enough instruction and that the primary source of school instruction was health classes, suggesting that other classes, such as science classes, did not provide desired instruction. It would appear that the task of educating students about AIDS was assigned or left to the high school health educators.

The findings of this study about the AIDS-related knowledge of students was similar to other studies (Grieger & Ponterotto, 1988). Although other research identified differing levels of AIDS-related knowledge (McDermott *et al.*, 1987; Price *et al.*, 1985), the findings of this study are in agreement with studies that found high levels of AIDS-related knowledge. No other research had previously assessed the sources of AIDS education, so the findings of this study provide valuable information to educators in general.

Subproblem 3 explored the possibility of the formation of AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes, which was confirmed. Because occupational stereotypes are common, this result was not a surprising finding. What was important, however, was that this study represented the first effort to assess AIDS-related attitudes about populations other than the most obvious: homosexuals and people with AIDS.

The fourth subproblem and research question 1 and 2 addressed the relationship of AIDS-related publicity and education to the development of inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes. This study was one of very few in which the relationship of AIDS-related variables, such as AIDS publicity and AIDS education, to attitude development was examined. The significant relationships identified are important because they establish new links that must be addressed.

New information was gathered in this research on the influence of the AIDS epidemic on perceptions of high school students. Earlier studies had been limited to the relationship of AIDS knowledge to attitudes toward homosexuals (Grieger & Ponterotto, 1988), or how AIDS education influenced attitudes toward people with AIDS (Royse & Birge, 1987). No studies were identified that specifically examined the variables used in this study or how AIDS-related stereotypes were formed. In this research, it was found that much of the students' stereotyping information came from media sources, which was somewhat expected, as it can be assumed that the average high school student knows few professional artists or people with AIDS.

The concept of the accuracy of the students' AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes was vital. More of the School 2 students formed incorrect stereotypes than students in the other schools, which was in agreement with district administrators' perceptions. Neither the administrators contacted nor the findings of the study could suggest reasons for this finding.

When responses were separated into quartiles, it was found that a greater percentage of the School 4 students formed stereotypes influenced by AIDS, but the distribution between the high and low quartiles was similar to the other three schools. School 2 had the most students with stereotypes that were negatively influenced by AIDS, which may have resulted from the fact that the School 2 students are known as arts students and could be expected to have been more sensitive to the stereotype of artists as homosexuals. They may therefore have responded uncharacteristically, as homosexuality and AIDS have been linked. It is speculated that a majority of students in all schools fell

into either the highest or the lowest quartile group (Table 10) because the subject of AIDS tends to elicit strong reactions. It was also evident that the seriousness of the AIDS epidemic and the obvious thought this subject caused among the students influenced the students to form the stereotypes. This premise is supported by the findings of relationships among the AIDS-related variables and stereotype formation.

Subproblem 5 and research question 3 investigated the relationship of inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes and the career choice of the creative arts students. From the questions students asked in the debriefings that followed administration of the survey, it became clear that few of them had linked AIDS and the arts or AIDS and career choice. As the data suggested, this lack of a linkage between these variables at least partially answered the question of the relationship of stereotype to career choice. It was apparent that the students' career choices were not affected by the AIDS epidemic. Because they did not perceive a link between AIDS and the arts, other stronger influences on career choice prevailed.

Summary

The literature in the field and the findings of this study suggested that an overall relationship existed between the AIDS-related variables of this research and stereotype formation. This information provided important information about the influence of AIDS on attitudes of specific high school students.

No significant relationships were found among the sources or amount of publicity about AIDS and the formation of stereotypes. It may have been that the design of the questions related to the variable

of publicity allowed for too many different domains for the variable to function as well as had been expected.

The finding of a significant relationship between AIDS education (amount, source, and accuracy) and stereotype formation reinforced what educators qualitatively have asserted and what other studies have identified. It appears to be true that more informed people tend to rely less on stereotypical information. However, this finding also reinforced the controversial nature of this particular health problem and the tendency of people to form strong and sometimes irrational opinions and attitudes about AIDS.

No significant relationship was found between AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes and career choice. Although different influences on career choice were identified by the students, the AIDS epidemic has not yet influenced their career plans. This finding is consistent with other studies that reported that although AIDS had affected the desire to alter certain behaviors, the particular behaviors had not yet actually been altered (Kegeles, Adler, & Irwin, 1988).

Although two research questions produced results that differed from what had been proposed in this research, the project design is deemed basically sound. As discussed in Chapter IV, the scope of the study was too wide to produce significant results for all the research questions. The information provided by this study points to some new patterns of student behavior, including sources of information, attitudes toward other people, and trends in career planning influences.

CHAPTER VI
SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The concepts of this study originated from the extensive publicity generated by the AIDS epidemic. This publicity often linked the homosexual population in the United States with the syndrome. In fact, when the syndrome was first identified, it was often called the "gay plague" (Shilts, 1987). Later, the artistic community became linked with the syndrome because of its efforts to raise money for research. According to many prominent artists, the death of so many friends prompted them to become involved (Gerard, 1987). These efforts were reported extensively by the media, further linking the arts with AIDS and with homosexuality.

When the New York State Board of Regents released the AIDS curriculum in 1987, this research was conceived as a natural outgrowth of the media link between AIDS, the arts, and education. Furthermore, since the beginning of the epidemic, education has been cited as the best hope to control AIDS. These three factors became the basis for the independent variables of this research: the amount and source of AIDS publicity to which students had been exposed; the amount, source, and accuracy of students' AIDS education; and the possible formation by students of inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes. It was proposed that these variables bore a

relationship to the dependent variable of the career choice of high school creative arts students. The possible relationship of the AIDS-related variables with career choice was suggested from qualitative remarks by prominent arts managers, who perceived a decrease in the numbers of students seeking admission to the field.

Because the researcher was interested specifically in artistic students, and because these students seemed most vulnerable to the publicity that linked AIDS to the arts, high school arts students were chosen as the study population. Four high schools were identified to be included in the study. The schools were purposely chosen to yield samples that were diverse, but that also contained serious arts students. Two of the high schools were suburban; one in an upper-socioeconomic area and the other in a middle-income area in Long Island, New York. Both schools were predominantly white. The urban high schools were in different areas of New York City. One school was racially mixed, in a lower- to middle-class economic area of The Bronx. The last school was a renowned school that specializes in instruction in the arts. In this school, students were required to successfully audition for admission to the school arts program.

Because no instrument existed that could assess the study variables, one was developed for this research, the Arts and Aids Knowledge/Influence Survey (AAKIS). Data were collected on demographic background as well as on the variables of the study. A pilot study was conducted in Spring 1988 in a suburban high school. The study data were collected from the four diverse high school populations in Fall 1988. Within the four schools, groups from art, music, dance, theater, and literature were surveyed.

Several statistical procedures were used to analyze the data. Chi-square analysis was used to assess the differences between schools on both the demographic and survey data. A discriminant analysis was done to assess the ability of the survey variables to correctly predict career choice. Two-by-two ANOVAs, using the method of extremes, were computed to determine the formation of inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes and their relationship to the survey variables.

The results of the demographic analyses yielded significant differences between schools. Many of the differences were expected, such as differences in ethnicity and parents' income. The findings on factors that influence the career choices of this specialized sample of high school creative arts students, contradicted the findings of most other career development research that cited parents as the most important career influence. This was an important finding for creative arts educators, counselors, and educational administrators because it suggested that these particular students differed from past students and from other current high school students in the most important factors that influence career choice. It is possible that other specialized samples of high school students might also differ from the general high school population on career influence.

It was found that the students had been exposed to considerable amounts of AIDS-related publicity from a variety of sources. Although there were some differences among the schools on sources of AIDS publicity, television was identified as the primary source by all four school groups. The analysis of the data on publicity yielded no statistically significant relationships between publicity and for-

mation of inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes.

All the students had high levels of AIDS-related factual knowledge. The amount of AIDS education they received from their schools varied and came from different sources, with health classes identified as the most common source of AIDS information. A statistically significant relationship was found among the amount and sources of AIDS education, the accuracy of students' AIDS-related knowledge, and the formation of inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes.

Varying percentages of students from the different schools formed inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes. The specialized arts high school had the highest percentage of students who formulated inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes.

No relationships were found among any of the study variables and the career choice of the students. The strongest influence reported by students was out-of-school activities.

Implications

In this study, the sources of AIDS publicity, sources of AIDS education, and AIDS-related knowledge levels of high school students were examined. The results suggested that the high school students in this study were not receiving the majority of their information about AIDS from school, but rather from media sources. Educators may need to reevaluate the effectiveness of their efforts. Although it was not a purpose of the researcher to evaluate any AIDS education programs in the schools that participated in this study, some implications for education seem obvious.

The students were dissatisfied with the amount of education provided by the schools, yet they possessed high levels of factual knowledge, with a few exceptions, about AIDS. This finding implies a need for more instruction, despite their level of current knowledge. The students responded that they received much information from media sources and little from parents. Schools need to address the role of outside sources in their educational programs and involve parents to a greater degree.

Despite the high level of factual knowledge about AIDS, some students formed creative arts-related stereotypes that were negatively influenced by AIDS. The serious implications of that finding are discussed below. These related facts may lead some school health educators, who were evidently given the major responsibility for AIDS education in the schools in this study, to conclude that there is a need to offer more or different types of AIDS-related education programs to their students. This conclusion may become an even more critical area of education as segments of the school population begin to contest the need for every student to be given AIDS education in school (Topping, 1989). In addition, as 1989 tax problems beset many areas (Rather, 1989), and as dollars available to schools become more scarce, the need and ability to fund such programs becomes more critical.

The formation of AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes was also explored. Students stated that they were given insufficient information about this specific facet of AIDS education and this lack of information may have contributed to the formation of stereotypes.

A relationship was found between AIDS education and the forma-

tion of inaccurate AIDS-related creative arts stereotypes, a finding that should be addressed by educators responsible for AIDS education. Although the stereotype identified was a very specific one and would not be difficult to address in the four schools that participated in this study, the possibility exists that the students may also have formed other stereotypes influenced by AIDS. This possibility implies that further educational action and research by school administrators is needed. It would be easy for school administrators to accept the finding that their students have high factual knowledge and to use it as justification to simply maintain AIDS education programs at current levels. Some educators might even be prone to reduce the programs, as the students have already achieved high knowledge levels. However, the formation of inaccurate stereotypes, together with the students' demonstration that they possess high levels of factual knowledge about AIDS, creates a potentially dangerous situation. The danger would be to ignore the misperceptions demonstrated by the students in this study.

Formation of inaccurate stereotypes when one is in possession of correct factual knowledge is unacceptable behavior. The greatest challenge facing educators, in relation to the AIDS epidemic, is behavior change. The findings of previous studies indicate strongly that the possession of correct knowledge does not lead to significant behavior change by adolescents (Becker & Joseph, 1988). In the case of AIDS, this could be a deadly mistake. An inaccurate choice could lead to consequences far more serious than a detention, suspension, or failing grade. This wrong behavior choice could lead to an incurable syndrome. It seems, therefore, that the major implication of

this study is that the goal of school AIDS programs must be to change students' behavior.

AIDS and the Challenge to Education

One common theme in almost all AIDS-related literature is the importance of education in stopping the spread of AIDS. The conclusion of those involved in AIDS education is that education could be an important weapon in the struggle against AIDS. If this conclusion were implemented at the national level first, the primary resource might be a publication by Bennett (1988), former Secretary of the Department of Education, on the AIDS education of children. According to Bennett, children need to know how to avoid contracting AIDS and they need to be able to distinguish between rational and irrational fears. Bennett was strongly in favor of increased educational programs to combat AIDS.

Congress held hearings to discuss the role of education in combating the AIDS syndrome. Much of the testimony concerned educational efforts:

Reports from high incidence communities with active education programs, like San Francisco and New York, indicate that education works . . . Now is the time to implement education efforts. (Cranston, 1986, p. 303)

Testimony by members of the American Medical Association recommended "community health education . . . (and) development of an AIDS educational program" (American Medical Association, 1986, p. 307). Additional testimony before the Committee on Government Operations of the House of Representatives on the federal response to the AIDS epidemic included many references to the need for educa-

tional programs:

The need [for education] is critical and the price of neglect is high . . . The present level of AIDS-related education is woefully inadequate. It must be vastly expanded and diversified . . . Education information . . . are the only weapons we presently have to stop the spread of the epidemic, to lessen unnecessary fear and to cease discrimination. (Weiss, 1987, p. 2)

Fraser (1987) testified that "education is the one tool that we have for controlling the AIDS epidemic, but up to now it has not been used with near the effectiveness that is called for" (p. 3). In the hearings, a number of recommendations were proposed. Many concerned school or educational efforts:

First, model programs for education and control must be provided for putting these model prams in place . . . Fourth, special attention must be paid to AIDS education for young people from junior high school on. (Fraser, 1987, p. 5)

Fraser also commented on the role publicity could play, especially advertising. With the Congressional testimony, a proposal was submitted by the Centers for Disease Control for School Health Education to Prevent AIDS:

Administrators in each of our nearly 16,000 school districts largely are left without public health leadership and resources, and must rely on sketchy information about AIDS provided by the media, as they each autonomously struggle to develop school policies and education programs about AIDS for their respective faculty, students, and parents. (Bales, 1987, p. 79)

This document included a discussion of the difficulty that schools encounter in trying to coordinate information and services from a number of sources. A six-point plan, coordinated by the Office of School Health Programs, was outlined that included the development and dissemination of educational materials and curricula to prevent AIDS and

Finally, instruments that are already being used to provide data about important student health knowledge, attitudes and risks will be expanded to address AIDS. New instruments also will be devised to enable schools and colleges to specifically assess the AIDS knowledge and risks of their respective student populations. These instruments can be used by schools to focus their educational programs on priority AIDS knowledge and risks; they can be used to evaluate the outcomes of such programs. (Bales, 1987, p. 81)

It was obvious from this federal response that the government was in agreement about the need for AIDS education. Many other educators and researchers agree with that idea. A survey of outstanding school superintendents yielded a 98 percent agreement that they were strongly in favor of AIDS education as part of the regular curriculum in the schools (Keough & Seaton, 1988).

One author did not agree with these conclusions. Brandt (1988) in an article on the historical perspectives of sexually transmitted diseases, asserted that education will not control the AIDS epidemic. His conclusions were based on the history of other diseases, such as syphilis, and educational efforts to control them. Brandt also mentioned several obstacles to an effective AIDS educational program that Fineberg (1988) also listed as reasons why education as presently constituted will not help.

Fineberg (1988) discussed the prospects and obstacles that education faced in attempting to help prevent AIDS. The general discussion in this article included the effect of information, largely by the media, in changing behavior. Fineberg did not agree with the premise that dramatic changes in behavior had occurred. He identified some major obstacles, such as uncertainty about the degree of risk to the majority of American and disagreement about the propriety of educational messages to prevent AIDS.

In a study completed in 1988, Kegeles, Adler, and Irwin agreed with Fineberg (1988) that among the high school students studied, there was no increase in preventive behavior. In a more extensive study (Becker & Joseph, 1988), it was reported that there had been profound changes among homosexual and bisexual males and intravenous drug users, but change among heterosexual adolescents was less common. An interesting conclusion from that research was that there was little actual evidence that an individual's knowledge and attitudes toward AIDS significantly shaped the individual's behavior. Becker and Joseph concluded:

There is an urgent requirement for interdisciplinary investigations which attend to behavioral as well as biomedical issues. After six years of experience with this epidemic, we still know far too little about behavioral and human responses to it. (p. 409)

Many, indeed most, educators agree that education is one of the prime weapons in the fight against the disease (Baggett, 1987) and a panel of the National Academy of Science (1987) has called for more university research in an effort to stop the disease. This is precisely what this research was designed to accomplish. The challenge to American education in combatting AIDS and saving young lives is to find ways to convince adolescents to change or alter their behaviors.

Less deadly, but also important, are the attitudes of students as AIDS becomes less a problem of the homosexual population and more a threat to other segments of the American population. The implication that the schools need to address behavior patterns also applies to this facet of stereotype formation. Educators should strive not to allow students to form and hold inaccurate AIDS-related stereotypes, as the population with AIDS increasingly includes the poor, minorities,

drug abusers, children born with the syndrome, and partners of the above (Centers for Disease Control, 1989).

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research in AIDS education could concentrate on the areas of exploration initiated in this study. Although no statistically significant relationship was established between publicity and stereotype formation, this area of study should be further explored. The findings of this study were possibly affected by the attempt to assess such a wide array of publicity sources. Other researchers could focus on fewer sources and might find more significant results. Additionally, because so much of the AIDS-related research has established media and publicity sources as important AIDS information sources, the influence of which should be further studied.

There should be further research on the formation and the effects of AIDS-related stereotypes, especially as the AIDS epidemic continues to spread and affect other segments of the population. Stereotypes often lead to discrimination, an area not explored by this study, and discrimination against people with AIDS has taken many forms, which range from lack of AIDS medical facilities and a dearth of research to the rights of National Guardsmen with AIDS (Saxon, 1989) and even outright physical attacks.

The concept of stereotype formation, whether in the arts-related career fields or other fields, could be further explored with the objective of establishing more specific influences. This study, which was inspired by the scope of media coverage of AIDS and the creative arts, concentrated on the influence of AIDS on creative arts-related

stereotype formation and, ultimately, on career choice.

A specific student population was used in this study: high school creative arts students. Other researchers may wish to concentrate on other populations. In the course of this research, the influence of AIDS on students seeking scientific or medical careers was briefly assessed but not continued. Replication of this study with such populations would be of great value.

In this study, primary influences on career choice reported by the students differed from earlier studies of such influence. Because of the specific sample in this study, it may be pertinent for other researchers to further explore career choice for this group or other specific student groups. The vocational development theories that were part of the conceptual basis of this research have been validated many times, but the findings for the very specific sample in this study suggest that additional research on the current influences on high school students' career choices need to be further explored.

Although no statistically significant relationship was found between exposure to the arts, as measured by parents' arts-related careers, and students' desire to pursue an arts-related career, the findings of this study showed that there was a high percentage of students who said they were going to pursue an arts-related career who also had parents with careers in the arts. In addition to the influence of parents' careers, further research should investigate students' exposure to artistic events, e.g., attendance at ballets, operas, or other theater events; visits to museums; private lessons in the arts, dance, or music.

In addition to these suggestions, there are many other areas of

possible research. Any AIDS-related research, whether educational or scientific, will add important and needed knowledge. Additional AIDS-related information would be especially welcome in education, as the 1988 Gallup poll on attitudes toward education showed, where 90 percent of Americans favored development of AIDS education programs in schools (Gallup & Elam, 1988). The seriousness of the AIDS health problem was illustrated at the Fifth International Conference on AIDS in a comment made by Kenneth Kaunda, President of Zambia, who said, "AIDS is like a bomb, impacting on mankind" (Garrett, 1989, p. D-5). Any further research in this area may help defuse the bomb.

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	SA	A	D	SD
1. I have seen and heard a lot of publicity concerning AIDs.	1	2	3	4
2. Most of the information I have concerning AIDs is from newspapers	1	2	3	4
3. My health class in school provides a great amount of information about AIDs	1	2	3	4
4. You can catch AIDs while donating blood	1	2	3	4
5. I get most of my AIDs education from my science courses	1	2	3	4
6. If I choose a career in the creative arts, I have an above average chance of catching AIDs	1	2	3	4
7. My parents supplied most of my AIDs information	1	2	3	4
8. I obtained more information about AIDs from my friends than I did from anywhere else	1	2	3	4
9. Birth control pills can protect you from catching AIDs	1	2	3	4
10. My friends talk about AIDs at least once a week	1	2	3	4
11. We discuss AIDs in my science classes for about one or two weeks	1	2	3	4
12. A condom totally protects someone from catching AIDS	1	2	3	4
13. You can catch AIDs from touching or kissing a person who has it	1	2	3	4
14. My friends are the source of most of what I have heard about AIDs	1	2	3	4
15. My parents talk about AIDs at least once a week	1	2	3	4
16. There is an above average number of homosexuals in the creative arts	1	2	3	4
17. I have attended educational meetings outside school about AIDs	1	2	3	4
18. There is a vaccine to prevent AIDs	1	2	3	4
19. People can get AIDs from being in the same room or near a person who has AIDS	1	2	3	4
20. We spend about 3 weeks on AIDs in health class	1	2	3	4
21. Listening to your parents is the best way to get information about AIDS	1	2	3	4

- | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 22. I see a written article about AIDs every time I read a newspaper or magazine | 1 | 2 | | |
| 23. I have heard more AIDs publicity on TV than anywhere else | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. About one week of health class is devoted to the study of AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. AIDs is transmitted by coughs or sneezes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. People who share needles when injecting drugs are highly at risk for catching AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. Most of my AIDs education came from informational booklets | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. A larger than average percentage of people involved in the creative arts have gotten AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. Sexual intercourse with a person infected with AIDs is one way AIDs can be transmitted | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 30. People involved in the creative arts are more likely to be drug users than other people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. The creative arts field is the one most affected by the AIDs epidemic | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. In classes other than health and science, AIDs is mentioned or discussed at least once a week | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. Radio is the place where I hear the most AIDs publicity | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 34. I never read anything about AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. I am afraid to pursue a career in the creative arts because of the fear of catching AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. All homosexuals will get AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. I read announcements about AIDs in subways and buses | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 38. I have read about AIDs in newspapers or magazines almost every day | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. Magazines feature a lot of AIDs articles. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 40. The amount of time we spend studying AIDs in school is about right | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 41. I have used hotlines to get information about AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 42. We have viewed videotapes about AIDs in school | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

- | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 43. We have had guest speakers or special assemblies at school about AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 44. Many people discriminate against persons with AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 45. Homosexuals are more creative than other people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 46. I think I have the talent to make it in the creative arts, but I am not going to try because I am afraid of catching AIDs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 47. Most male dancers are homosexuals | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 48. It seems that news shows mention AIDs every day | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 49. AIDs affects the body's immune system. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

**APPENDIX B
RESEARCH INSTRUMENT: THE ARTS & AIDS
KNOWLEDGE/INFLUENCE SURVEY**

Group # _____

**THE ARTS & AIDS
KNOWLEDGE/INFLUENCE SURVEY**

**This research project is being sponsored by
New York University
1988**

PART I

Please answer the following questions by placing a **check** mark in the appropriate space.

1. Sex

male _____
female _____

2. Ethnicity

white _____
black _____
hispanic _____
asian _____
other _____

3. Parents occupation

arts related _____
non-arts related _____

4. Parents income (approximate)

(\$0-25,000) _____
(\$26-50,000) _____
(\$51-75,000) _____
(\$76,000+) _____

5. Probable career choice as of today

theater _____
film _____
fine arts _____
commercial arts _____
dance _____
literature (writing) _____
music _____
other arts _____
non arts _____

6. If you have decided that you are going to pursue a

career in the creative arts, what most influenced your decision?

- a teacher** _____
- grades** _____
- parents** _____
- extracurricular activities** _____
- classes** _____
- friends** _____
- work** _____
- counselor** _____
- out-of-school activities** _____
- other (specify)** _____

7. If you have decided not to pursue a career in the creative arts, what most influenced you to choose another career?

- not enough money in the arts** _____
- too hard to "make it"** _____
- too many homosexuals in the arts** _____
- too many drug users in the arts** _____
- afraid I'll get AIDS** _____
- friends choosing other careers** _____
- parents not in favor of arts career** _____
- poor grades in art courses** _____
- other (specify)** _____

Please answer the following questions according to this scale:

- strongly agree..... 1**
- agree..... 2**
- disagree..... 3**
- strongly disagree.. 4**

- | | SA | A | D | SD |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|-----------|
| 1. I have seen and heard a great amount of publicity about AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. The majority of the information I have | | | | |

- | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| concerning AIDS is from newspapers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. My health class in school provides a great amount of information about AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. You can get AIDS from donating blood | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. Most of my information about AIDS comes from my science courses in school | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. If I choose a career in the creative arts, I have an above average chance of catching AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. My parent supplied most of my AIDS information | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. I got more information about AIDS from my friends than I did from anywhere else | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. Birth control pills can protect you from catching AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. My friends talk about AIDS at least once a week | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. We discuss AIDS in my science classes for about one or two weeks | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. A condom can protect someone from catching AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. You can catch AIDS from touching or kissing a person who has it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. My friends are the source of most of what I have heard about AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. My parent talk about AIDS at least once a week | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. There is an above average number of homosexuals in the creative arts | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

- | | | | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 17. There is a vaccine to prevent AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. People can get AIDS from being in the same room or near a person who has AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. We spend about 3 weeks on AIDS in health class | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. Listening to your parents is the best way to get information about AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. I see a written article about AIDS every time I read a newspaper or magazine | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. TV has the most publicity about AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. About one week of health class is devoted to the study of AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. AIDS is transmitted by coughs or sneezes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. People who share needles when injecting drugs are highly at risk for catching AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. A larger than average percentage of people involved in the creative arts have gotten AIDS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. Sexual intercourse with a person infected with AIDS is one way AIDS can be transmitted | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. People involved in the creative arts are more likely to be drug users than other people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 29. The creative arts field is the one most affected by the AIDS epidemic | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

30. In history class, AIDS is mentioned or discussed at least once a week 1 2 3 4
31. Radio is the place where I hear the most AIDS publicity 1 2 3 4
32. I never read articles about AIDS in the newspapers 1 2 3 4
33. I am afraid to pursue a career in the creative arts because of the fear of catching AIDS 1 2 3 4
34. All homosexuals will get AIDS 1 2 3 4
35. I read announcements about AIDS in subways and buses 1 2 3 4
36. I have read about AIDS in newspapers or magazines almost every day 1 2 3 4
37. Magazines feature a lot of AIDS articles 1 2 3 4
38. The amount of time we spend studying AIDS in school is about right 1 2 3 4
39. I have used hotlines, instead of school classes, to get information about AIDS 1 2 3 4
40. We have viewed videotapes about AIDS in school 1 2 3 4
41. We have had guest speakers or special assemblies at school about AIDS 1 2 3 4
42. Persons with AIDS are often discriminated against 1 2 3 4
43. Homosexuals are more creative than other people 1 2 3 4

44. I think I have the talent to make it in the creative arts, but I am not going to try because I am afraid of catching AIDS 1 2 3 4
45. Most male dancers are homosexuals 1 2 3 4
46. It seems that news shows mention AIDS every day 1 2 3 4
47. AIDS affects the body's immune system 1 2 3 4
48. There really are not more homosexuals in the creative arts than other fields, they just get more publicity 1 2 3 4
49. In school, we don't spend enough time studying AIDS 1 2 3 4
50. We spend four weeks or more studying AIDS in my school 1 2 3 4

APPENDIX C
PERCENT OF RESPONSES TO THE ARTS & AIDS
KNOWLEDGE/INFLUENCE SURVEY
BY SCHOOL

SCHOOL 1 ($n = 104$)	SA	A	D	SD
1. I have seen and heard a great amount of publicity about AIDS	65.4	34.6	0.0	0.0
2. The majority of the information I have concerning AIDS is from newspapers	2.9	40.4	50.0	6.7
3. My health class in school provides a great amount of information about AIDS	12.5	38.5	26.0	23.1
4. You can get AIDS from donating blood	13.5	22.1	32.7	31.7
5. Most of my information about AIDS comes from my science courses in school	1.0	15.4	50.0	33.7
6. If I choose a career in the creative arts, I have an above average chance of catching AIDS	1.9	5.8	42.3	50.0
7. My parents supplied most of my AIDS information	3.8	18.3	57.7	20.2
8. I got more information about AIDS from my friends than I did from anywhere else	0.0	10.6	63.5	26.0
9. Birth control pills can protect you from catching AIDS	0.0	6.7	26.9	66.3
10. My friends talk about AIDS at least once a week	2.9	21.2	46.2	29.8
11. We discuss AIDS in my science classes for about one or two weeks	2.9	11.5	44.2	41.3
12. A condom can protect someone from catching AIDS	25.0	56.7	13.5	4.8
13. You can catch AIDS from touching or kissing a person who has it	1.0	6.7	45.2	47.1

SCHOOL 1 (<u>n</u> = 104)	SA	A	D	SD
14. My friends are the source of most of what I have heard about AIDS	0.0	10.6	61.5	27.9
15. My parents talk about AIDS at least once a week	1.0	14.4	44.2	40.4
16. There is an above average number of homosexuals in the creative arts	6.7	34.6	54.8	3.8
17. There is a vaccine to prevent AIDS	0.0	5.8	44.2	50.0
18. People can get AIDS from being in the same room or near a person who has AIDS	0.0	0.0	21.2	78.8
19. We spend about 3 weeks on AIDS in health class	2.9	14.4	44.2	38.5
20. Listening to your parents is the best way to get information about AIDS	3.8	20.2	57.7	18.3
21. I see a written article about AIDS every time I read a newspaper or magazine	10.6	42.3	44.2	2.9
22. TV has the most publicity about AIDS	28.8	47.1	21.2	2.9
23. About one week of health class is devoted to the study of AIDS	4.8	26.0	47.1	22.1
24. AIDS is transmitted by coughs or sneezes	0.0	3.8	49.0	47.1
25. People who share needles when injecting drugs are highly at risk for catching AIDS	91.3	4.8	1.0	2.9
26. A larger than average percentage of people involved in the creative arts have gotten AIDS	1.9	26.0	63.5	8.7
27. Sexual intercourse with a person infected with AIDS is one way AIDS can be transmitted	80.8	14.4	0.0	4.8
28. People involved in the creative arts are more likely to be drug users than other people	3.8	12.5	54.8	28.8
29. The creative arts field is the one most affected by the AIDS epidemic	0.0	16.3	55.8	27.9

SCHOOL 1 ($n = 104$)	SA	A	D	SD
30. In history class, AIDS is mentioned or discussed at least once a week	1.9	7.7	38.5	51.9
31. Radio is the place where I hear the most AIDS publicity	0.0	16.3	55.8	27.9
32. I have never read articles about AIDS in the newspapers	1.9	8.7	47.1	42.3
33. I am afraid to pursue a career in the creative arts because of the fear of catching AIDS	0.0	3.8	46.2	50.0
34. All homosexuals will get AIDS	9.6	16.3	55.8	18.3
35. I read announcements about AIDS in subways and buses	12.5	67.3	17.3	2.9
36. I have read about AIDS in newspapers or magazines almost every day	7.7	37.5	47.1	7.7
37. Magazines feature a lot of AIDS articles	10.6	56.7	28.8	3.8
38. The amount of time we spend studying AIDS in school is about right	3.8	28.8	45.2	22.1
39. I have used hotlines, instead of school classes, to get information about AIDS	1.0	2.9	42.3	53.8
40. We have viewed videotapes about AIDS in school	5.8	25.0	34.6	34.6
41. We have had guest speakers or special assemblies at school about AIDS	5.8	35.6	35.6	23.1
42. Persons with AIDS are often discriminated against	63.5	38.8	4.8	2.9
43. Homosexuals are more creative than other people	2.9	7.7	44.2	45.2
44. I think I have the talent to make it in the creative arts, but I am not going to try because I am afraid of catching AIDS	2.9	0.0	40.4	56.7
45. Most male dancers are homosexuals	4.8	9.6	53.8	31.7

SCHOOL 1 (<u>n</u> = 104)		SA	A	D	SD
46.	It seems that news shows mention AIDS every day	7.7	35.6	51.9	4.8
47.	AIDS affects the body's immune system	71.2	26.9	0.0	1.9
48.	There really are not more homosexuals in the creative arts than other fields, they just get more publicity	17.3	39.4	36.5	6.7
49.	In school, we don't spend enough time studying AIDS	26.9	39.4	27.9	5.8
50.	We spend four weeks or more studying AIDS in my school	1.9	8.7	36.5	52.9
SCHOOL 2 (<u>n</u> = 111)		SA	A	D	SD
1.	I have seen and heard a great amount of publicity about AIDS	60.4	37.8	1.8	0.0
2.	The majority of the information I have concerning AIDS is from newspapers	1.8	36.9	49.5	11.7
3.	My health class in school provides a great amount of information about AIDS	8.1	45.0	41.4	5.4
4.	You can get AIDS from donating blood	11.7	17.1	38.7	32.4
5.	Most of my information about AIDS comes from my science courses in school	0.9	8.1	55.9	35.1
6.	If I choose a career in the creative arts, I have an above average chance of catching AIDS	1.8	1.8	27.9	68.5
7.	My parents supplied most of my AIDS information	2.7	13.5	48.6	35.1
8.	I got more information about AIDS from my friends than I did from anywhere else	1.8	11.7	55.9	30.6
9.	Birth control pills can protect you from catching AIDS	0.9	0.9	20.7	77.5
10.	My friends talk about AIDS at least once a week	6.3	19.8	48.6	25.2

SCHOOL 2 ($n = 111$)	SA	A	D	SD
11. We discuss AIDS in my science classes for about one or two weeks	0.0	6.3	45.9	47.7
12. A condom can protect someone from catching AIDS	27.0	55.0	16.2	1.8
13. You can catch AIDS from touching or kissing a person who has it	1.8	4.5	39.6	54.1
14. My friends are the source of most of what I have heard about AIDS	1.8	12.6	55.0	30.6
15. My parents talk about AIDS at least once a week	1.8	10.8	46.8	40.5
16. There is an above average number of homosexuals in the creative arts	18.0	29.7	43.2	9.0
17. There is a vaccine to prevent AIDS	0.9	5.4	35.1	58.6
18. People can get AIDS from being in the same room or near a person who has AIDS	1.8	0.0	14.4	83.8
19. We spend about 3 weeks on AIDS in health class	3.6	15.5	54.5	26.4
20. Listening to your parents is the best way to get information about AIDS	1.8	13.5	54.1	30.6
21. I see a written article about AIDS every time I read a newspaper or magazine	4.5	36.9	47.7	10.8
22. TV has the most publicity about AIDS	18.0	41.4	32.4	8.1
23. About one week of health class is devoted to the study of AIDS	6.4	32.7	40.9	20.0
24. AIDS is transmitted by coughs or sneezes	0.9	2.7	43.2	53.2
25. People who share needles when injecting drugs are highly at risk for catching AIDS	88.3	4.5	0.9	6.3
26. A larger than average percentage of people involved in the creative arts have gotten AIDS	6.3	17.1	60.4	16.2

SCHOOL 2 ($n = 111$)	SA	A	D	SD
27. Sexual intercourse with a person infected with AIDS is one way AIDS can be transmitted	85.6	12.6	0.9	0.9
28. People involved in the creative arts are more likely to be drug users than other people	0.9	12.6	45.9	40.5
29. The creative arts field is the one most affected by the AIDS epidemic	2.7	11.7	64.0	21.6
30. In history class, AIDS is mentioned or discussed at least once a week	1.8	18.0	42.3	37.8
31. Radio is the place where I hear the most AIDS publicity	0.0	14.4	61.3	24.3
32. I have never read articles about AIDS in the newspapers	3.6	9.9	45.9	40.5
33. I am afraid to pursue a career in the creative arts because of the fear of catching AIDS	0.0	1.8	17.1	81.1
34. All homosexuals will get AIDS	0.0	12.6	39.6	47.7
35. I read announcements about AIDS in subways and buses	31.5	61.3	2.7	4.5
36. I have read about AIDS in newspapers or magazines almost every day	5.4	32.4	53.2	9.0
37. Magazines feature a lot of AIDS articles	14.4	50.5	27.9	7.2
38. The amount of time we spend studying AIDS in school is about right	1.8	30.6	44.1	23.4
39. I have used hotlines, instead of school classes, to get information about AIDS	2.7	4.5	51.4	41.4
40. We have viewed videotapes about AIDS in school	27.0	55.9	9.9	7.2
41. We have had guest speakers or special assemblies at school about AIDS	9.0	40.5	31.5	18.9
42. Persons with AIDS are often discriminated against	55.0	34.2	5.4	5.4

SCHOOL 2 (<u>n</u> = 111)		SA	A	D	SD
43.	Homosexuals are more creative than other people	2.7	3.6	34.2	59.5
44.	I think I have the talent to make it in the creative arts, but I am not going to try because I am afraid of catching AIDS	2.7	4.5	12.6	80.2
45.	Most male dancers are homosexuals	3.6	18.9	40.5	36.9
46.	It seems that news shows mention AIDS every day	7.2	39.6	43.2	9.9
47.	AIDS affects the body's immune system	78.4	19.8	0.9	0.9
48.	There really are not more homosexuals in the creative arts than other fields, they just get more publicity	27.0	50.5	15.3	7.2
49.	In school, we don't spend enough time studying AIDS	23.4	43.2	30.6	2.7
50.	We spend four weeks or more studying AIDS in my school	2.7	4.5	48.6	44.1
SCHOOL 3 (<u>n</u> = 30)		SA	A	D	SD
1.	I have seen and heard a great amount of publicity about AIDS	73.3	23.3	3.3	0.0
2.	The majority of the information I have concerning AIDS is from newspapers	10.0	76.7	10.0	3.3
3.	My health class in school provides a great amount of information about AIDS	3.3	50.0	30.0	16.7
4.	You can get AIDS from donating blood	6.7	10.0	46.7	36.7
5.	Most of my information about AIDS comes from my science courses in school	0.0	13.3	43.3	43.3
6.	If I choose a career in the creative arts, I have an above average chance of catching AIDS	0.0	0.0	36.7	63.3
7.	My parents supplied most of my AIDS information	3.3	13.3	60.0	23.3

SCHOOL 3 ($n = 30$)	SA	A	D	SD
8. I got more information about AIDS from my friends than I did from anywhere else	0.0	13.3	66.7	20.0
9. Birth control pills can protect you from catching AIDS	0.0	3.3	26.7	70.0
10. My friends talk about AIDS at least once a week	0.0	20.0	50.0	30.0
11. We discuss AIDS in my science classes for about one or two weeks	0.0	20.0	50.0	30.0
12. A condom can protect someone from catching AIDS	26.7	46.7	26.7	0.0
13. You can catch AIDS from touching or kissing a person who has it	0.0	13.3	23.3	63.3
14. My friends are the source of most of what I have heard about AIDS	0.0	13.3	63.3	23.3
15. My parents talk about AIDS at least once a week	0.0	10.0	50.0	40.0
16. There is an above average number of homosexuals in the creative arts	0.0	60.0	33.3	6.7
17. There is a vaccine to prevent AIDS	0.0	6.7	30.0	70.0
18. People can get AIDS from being in the same room or near a person who has AIDS	0.0	6.7	20.0	73.3
19. We spend about 3 weeks on AIDS in health class	3.3	30.0	43.3	23.3
20. Listening to your parents is the best way to get information about AIDS	0.0	16.7	53.3	30.0
21. I see a written article about AIDS every time I read a newspaper or magazine	20.0	50.0	26.7	3.3
22. TV has the most publicity about AIDS	23.3	46.7	26.7	3.3
23. About one week of health class is devoted to the study of AIDS	0.0	40.0	46.7	13.3

SCHOOL 3 ($n = 30$)	SA	A	D	SD
24. AIDS is transmitted by coughs or sneezes	0.0	3.3	50.0	46.7
25. People who share needles when injecting drugs are highly at risk for catching AIDS	93.3	3.3	0.0	3.3
26. A larger than average percentage of people involved in the creative arts have gotten AIDS	0.0	20.0	70.0	10.0
27. Sexual intercourse with a person infected with AIDS is one way AIDS can be transmitted	93.3	6.7	0.0	0.0
28. People involved in the creative arts are more likely to be drug users than other people	3.3	6.7	50.0	40.0
29. The creative arts field is the one most affected by the AIDS epidemic	0.0	20.0	63.3	16.7
30. In history class, AIDS is mentioned or discussed at least once a week	0.0	16.7	40.0	43.3
31. Radio is the place where I hear the most AIDS publicity	3.3	10.0	60.0	26.7
32. I have never read articles about AIDS in the newspapers	0.0	0.0	46.7	53.3
33. I am afraid to pursue a career in the creative arts because of the fear of catching AIDS	0.0	0.0	46.7	53.3
34. All homosexuals will get AIDS	6.7	20.0	43.3	30.0
35. I read announcements about AIDS in subways and buses	10.0	30.0	40.0	20.0
36. I have read about AIDS in newspapers or magazines almost every day	10.0	56.7	30.0	3.3
37. Magazines feature a lot of AIDS articles	30.0	60.0	6.7	3.3
38. The amount of time we spend studying AIDS in school is about right	3.3	33.3	43.3	20.0

SCHOOL 3 ($n = 30$)		SA	A	D	SD
39.	I have used hotlines, instead of school classes, to get information about AIDS	3.3	3.3	40.0	53.3
40.	We have viewed videotapes about AIDS in school	6.7	26.7	36.7	30.0
41.	We have had guest speakers or special assemblies at school about AIDS	6.7	20.0	50.0	23.3
42.	Persons with AIDS are often discriminated against	60.0	26.7	10.0	3.3
43.	Homosexuals are more creative than other people	6.7	0.0	50.0	43.3
44.	I think I have the talent to make it in the creative arts, but I am not going to try because I am afraid of catching AIDS	0.0	0.0	36.7	63.3
45.	Most male dancers are homosexuals	0.0	20.0	53.3	26.7
46.	It seems that news shows mention AIDS every day	23.3	33.3	43.3	0.0
47.	AIDS affects the body's immune system	66.7	30.0	3.3	0.0
48.	There really are not more homosexuals in the creative arts than other fields, they just get more publicity	23.3	50.0	26.7	0.0
49.	In school, we don't spend enough time studying AIDS	26.7	46.7	16.7	10.0
50.	We spend four weeks or more studying AIDS in my school	6.7	3.3	56.7	33.3
SCHOOL 4 ($n = 89$)		SA	A	D	SD
1.	I have seen and heard a great amount of publicity about AIDS	65.2	29.2	5.6	0.0
2.	The majority of the information I have concerning AIDS is from newspapers	3.4	42.7	47.2	6.7
3.	My health class in school provides a great amount of information about AIDS	22.5	39.3	24.7	13.5

SCHOOL 4 ($n = 89$)	SA	A	D	SD
4. You can get AIDS from donating blood	19.1	18.0	28.1	34.8
5. Most of my information about AIDS comes from my science courses in school	4.5	11.2	46.1	38.2
6. If I choose a career in the creative arts, I have an above average chance of catching AIDS	3.4	6.7	37.1	52.8
7. My parents supplied most of my AIDS information	3.4	5.6	57.3	33.7
8. I got more information about AIDS from my friends than I did from anywhere else	4.5	7.9	53.9	33.7
9. Birth control pills can protect you from catching AIDS	1.1	4.5	25.8	68.5
10. My friends talk about AIDS at least once a week	4.5	12.4	4.4	39.3
11. We discuss AIDS in my science classes for about one or two weeks	2.2	6.7	48.3	42.7
12. A condom can protect someone from catching AIDS	33.7	43.8	15.7	6.7
13. You can catch AIDS from touching or kissing a person who has it	2.2	10.1	47.2	40.4
14. My friends are the source of most of what I have heard about AIDS	2.2	11.2	60.7	25.8
15. My parents talk about AIDS at least once a week	1.1	6.7	39.3	52.8
16. There is an above average number of homosexuals in the creative arts	4.5	37.1	41.6	16.9
17. There is a vaccine to prevent AIDS	0.0	2.2	23.6	74.2
18. People can get AIDS from being in the same room or near a person who has AIDS	1.1	0.0	15.7	83.1
19. We spend about 3 weeks on AIDS in health class	7.9	19.1	38.2	24.8

SCHOOL 4 ($n = 89$)	SA	A	D	SD
20. Listening to your parents is the best way to get information about AIDS	1.1	12.4	48.3	38.2
21. I see a written article about AIDS every time I read a newspaper or magazine	4.5	32.6	42.7	20.2
22. TV has the most publicity about AIDS	31.5	36.0	32.6	24.7
23. About one week of health class is devoted to the study of AIDS	6.7	36.0	32.6	24.7
24. AIDS is transmitted by coughs or sneezes	0.0	9.0	51.7	39.3
25. People who share needles when injecting drugs are highly at risk for catching AIDS	85.4	6.7	1.1	6.7
26. A larger than average percentage of people involved in the creative arts have gotten AIDS	0.0	27.0	56.2	16.9
27. Sexual intercourse with a person infected with AIDS is one way AIDS can be transmitted	84.3	11.2	2.2	2.2
28. People involved in the creative arts are more likely to be drug users than other people	6.7	24.7	41.6	27.0
29. The creative arts field is the one most affected by the AIDS epidemic	1.1	27.0	49.4	22.5
30. In history class, AIDS is mentioned or discussed at least once a week	1.1	5.6	27.0	66.3
31. Radio is the place where I hear the most AIDS publicity	1.1	9.0	60.7	29.2
32. I have never read articles about AIDS in the newspapers	7.9	15.7	34.8	41.6
33. I am afraid to pursue a career in the creative arts because of the fear of catching AIDS	0.0	4.5	34.8	60.7
34. All homosexuals will get AIDS	12.4	24.7	33.7	29.2
35. I read announcements about AIDS in subways and buses	3.4	36.0	36.0	24.7

SCHOOL 4 (<u>n</u> = 89)	SA	A	D	SD
36. I have read about AIDS in newspapers or magazines almost every day	6.7	27.0	46.1	20.2
37. Magazines feature a lot of AIDS articles	12.4	47.2	30.3	10.1
38. The amount of time we spend studying AIDS in school is about right	6.7	41.6	25.8	25.8
39. I have used hotlines, instead of school classes, to get information about AIDS	1.1	5.6	25.8	67.4
40. We have viewed videotapes about AIDS in school	7.9	30.3	29.2	32.6
41. We have had guest speakers or special assemblies at school about AIDS	4.5	28.8	39.3	28.1
42. Persons with AIDS are often discriminated against	56.2	28.1	7.9	7.9
43. Homosexuals are more creative than other people	4.5	7.9	37.1	50.6
44. I think I have the talent to make it in the creative arts, but I am not going to try because I am afraid of catching AIDS	4.5	4.5	27.0	64.0
45. Most male dancers are homosexuals	10.1	14.6	48.3	27.0
46. It seems that news shows mention AIDS every day	11.2	33.7	47.2	7.9
47. AIDS affects the body's immune system	70.8	23.6	2.2	3.4
48. There really are not more homosexuals in the creative arts than other fields, they just get more publicity	20.2	50.6	21.3	7.9
49. In school, we don't spend enough time studying AIDS	20.2	36.0	31.5	12.4
50. We spend four weeks or more studying AIDS in my school	0.0	11.2	33.7	55.1