

INTEGRATING SELECTED HOME MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS  
IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL HOMEMAKING

by 45

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## INTRODUCTION

The tremendous explosion of knowledge in recent years has made it impossible for one person to learn everything. Teachers cannot teach all there is to know about a subject; therefore decisions on the selection and organization of curriculum content are mandatory. According to Denemark, "The answer [to this curriculum dilemma] lies in carefully assessing all fields of study and selecting those elements of each which provide the strategic keys to an understanding of other events."<sup>1</sup> Phenix concurred:

By a careful analysis of the structure of knowledge it is possible to discover certain key concepts distinguished by their power to epitomize important common features of a large number of more particular ideas. Such concepts are basic central ideas an understanding of which opens the door to an effective grasp of an entire field of knowledge.<sup>2</sup>

The teacher not only needs a conceptual framework around which to organize subject material but also needs an understanding of concept development. Burton, Kimball, and Wing explained that meaning and concepts develop slowly out of many experiences. They described the development as

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<sup>1</sup>George W. Denemark, "The Curriculum Challenge of Our Times," National Education Association Journal, 50:13, December, 1961.

<sup>2</sup>Philip H. Phenix, "Key Concepts and the Crisis in Learning," Teachers College Record, 58:140, December, 1956.

follows:

First, some gross feature is discriminated and used as a core; then generalization appears to broaden the meaning as more experiences occur; and finally, words are used to clarify, to extend, and to communicate meanings.<sup>1</sup>

The nature of conceptual development is such that any number of experiences can contribute to the same fundamental concept. According to specialists in curriculum development:

The key lies in the way in which learners are helped to see relationships and to make inferences for their own behavior or understanding as they undergo recurring experiences with ideas in a given area.<sup>2</sup>

The leaders in several disciplines have begun the undertaking of identifying the major concepts which are the foundation of their knowledge. The results to these efforts are seen in the development of the modern math programs and in the new curriculums in physics and social studies now used in many schools.

Home economists organized a series of national conferences for the purpose of identifying concepts in the home economics subject areas. An acceptance of the merit of the concept approach resulted from the conferences, and the outline of concepts and generalizations which was developed has

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<sup>1</sup>William H. Burton, Roland B. Kimball, and Richard L. Wing, Education for Effective Thinking, pp. 160-61.

<sup>2</sup>A Look at Continuity in the School Program, 1958 Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development), p. 134.

been used in numerous curriculum revision projects.

The importance of home management as part of the knowledge and skills fundamental to effective development by individuals and families is indicated by analysis of the twelve competencies developed by the Committee on Philosophy and Objectives of Home Economics. Six competencies deal directly with home management-family economics subject matter and many others involve this area less directly.<sup>1</sup>

The President's Commission of the Status of Women emphasized the importance of teaching home management:

The teaching of home management should treat the subject with breadth that includes not only nutrition, textiles and clothing, housing and furnishings, but also the handling of family finances, the purchase of consumer goods, the uses of family leisure, and the relation of individuals and families to society.<sup>2</sup>

By integrating many aspects of home management with all areas of home economics it could be possible for the teacher to provide pupils opportunities to apply management concepts to their environment. Integration, as Tyler explained, ". . . help[s] the student increasingly to get a unified view and to unify his behavior in relation to the

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<sup>1</sup>Committee on Philosophy and Objectives of Home Economics, Home Economics New Directions (Washington, D. C.: American Home Economics Association, 1959), p. 9.

<sup>2</sup>President's Commission on the Status of Women, American Women (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 16.

elements dealt with."<sup>1</sup>

The writer shares the concern of home economists and others that home management should be an integral part of all subject areas in home economics in secondary schools. Since there was a limited number of references available the writer chose to develop learning experiences to integrate home management concepts into selected subject areas in junior high school homemaking education.

#### Statement of Purposes

It was the purposes of the study (1) to identify the major concepts and generalizations in home management which are applicable to junior high school homemaking pupils; and (2) to develop a series of meaningful learning experiences for junior high school pupils, to facilitate the integration of selected home management concepts into other subject areas of homemaking education.

#### Definitions

Concept. A basic idea which epitomizes the common properties of a number of objects, events, or ideas

Generalization. Statement which expresses an underlying truth, has an element of universality, usually

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<sup>1</sup>Ralph W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, p. 55.

indicates relationships, and helps to give meaning to concepts<sup>1</sup>

Homemaking education. A program of instruction planned to help youth understand and solve problems in home and family living.

Home management. The way individuals and families use the resources available to attain selected goals related to home and family living

Integration. The organization of curriculum experiences which helps the pupil unify knowledge and experiences in a meaningful fashion

Learning experience. An instructional situation designed for pupils at their developmental level, carried through to completion and evaluated

### Procedure

A review of literature gave a background for understanding concept development and the field of home management, and substantiated the need for home management education in the junior high school.

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<sup>1</sup>Concepts and Generalizations: Their Place in High School Home Economics Curriculum Development (Washington, D. C.: American Home Economics Association, 1967), pp. 23-24.

Home management concepts and generalizations appropriate for junior high school pupils were selected and learning experiences were planned to help pupils integrate selected concepts into several subject areas in junior high school homemaking education.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of literature gave background for understanding (1) the conceptual approach to learning, (2) the way concepts develop, (3) the role of teachers in the development of concepts, (4) the characteristics of early adolescents, and (5) the theories and concepts of home management.

### The Conceptual Approach to Learning

Investigation of the literature revealed that the definition of a concept was, to a large extent, determined by the frame of reference used and by the purposes of each author. Much has been written about concepts as systems for organizing material in teaching, for organizing learning, and as materials for thinking. Authors have discussed the properties of concepts and the processes in the development of concepts.

The key ideas or concepts found in subject matter are useful in any number of ways. An investigation of their usefulness may also provide a background for the problems of defining and identifying concepts.

"A concept is . . . significant in that it enables one . . . to economize intellectual efforts," asserted



Franks.<sup>1</sup> Dressel explained that global concepts or ideas which tie together what may previously have been unrelated facts, allow an individual to become acquainted with a field of knowledge by mastering a few concepts rather than a multiplicity of facts.<sup>2</sup>

Phenix recognized a dilemma resulting from a simultaneous demand for technical mastery in a specialized field and liberal understanding of a vast and rapidly expanding supply of knowledge. He suggested that the content of knowledge could be simplified by discovering key concepts which epitomize important common features of a large number of more detailed ideas. "Such concepts are basic central ideas," Phenix emphasized, "an understanding of which opens the door to an effective grasp of an entire field of knowledge."<sup>3</sup>

Curriculum developers discovered that the concept approach worked for a permanence in learning. Certain of these developers have maintained that the accumulation of a mass of meaningless detail is more subject to forgetting

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<sup>1</sup>Milford Franks, "Learning Through Concept Development: The Goal of Supervision and Instruction," Montana Education, 39:9, April 20, 1963.

<sup>2</sup>Paul L. Dressel, "The Role of Concepts in Planning the Home Economics Curriculum," Home Economics Seminar, French Lick, Indiana, July 24-28, 1961 (East Lansing: Michigan State University), p. 8.

<sup>3</sup>Philip H. Phenix, "Key Concepts and the Crisis in Learning," Teachers College Record, 58:140, December, 1956.

than true understanding of central organizing concepts.<sup>1</sup> Research results have shown that unless detail is placed into a structural pattern, it is rapidly forgotten. The quick rate of loss of human memory would not mean total loss if what remained enabled a person to reconstruct details when needed. Bruner recommended teaching the concepts or underlying principles which give structure to a subject in order to provide a simplified way of representing detailed material and conserving human memory.<sup>2</sup>

Concepts can help individuals organize knowledge because, according to Burton, Kimball, and Wing, "A concept is a word or other symbol which stands for the common property of a number of objects or situations."<sup>3</sup> Coon has stated that concepts were useful in providing a framework or structure into which details could be fitted.<sup>4</sup>

A vital result of concept learning is the ability to generalize. Bruner declared, "Learning should not only take us somewhere; it should allow us later to go further more

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<sup>1</sup>A Look at Continuity in the School Program, 1958 Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development), p. 134.

<sup>2</sup>Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education, pp. 24-25.

<sup>3</sup>William H. Burton, Roland B. Kimball, and Richard L. Wing, Education for Effective Thinking, pp. 154-155.

<sup>4</sup>Beulah I. Coon, Home Economics Instruction in the Secondary Schools, p. 63.

easily."<sup>1</sup> He explained that transfer of learning is facilitated when learning consists of a general idea or principle which can be used as a basis for recognizing later problems as special cases of the idea originally mastered.<sup>2</sup> Dressel concurred that concepts were important because they permitted an individual to deal more intelligently with new situations.<sup>3</sup>

Concepts implement communication inasmuch as the meaning which many people attach to the sign or symbol used to represent a concept is similar enough to allow for interpersonal use. Lucas recognized this factor as one of the important functions of concepts<sup>4</sup> and Heidebreder gave as her definition of concept, "A logical construct which, through signs or symbols or both, is transferable from situation to situation and communicable from person to person."<sup>5</sup>

Some broader uses of concepts relate to their contribution to curriculum development as aids in planning courses

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<sup>1</sup>Bruner, op. cit., p. 17.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Dressel, op. cit., p. 12.

<sup>4</sup>Mildred Kay Russell Lucas, "A Diagnostic Test of Student Knowledge of Concepts Used in Home Management," unpublished Master's thesis, p. 4.

<sup>5</sup>Edna Heidebreder, "The Attainment of Concepts: I. Terminology and Methodology," The Journal of General Psychology, 35:173, October, 1946.

and curricula. Dressel reasoned that concepts help to organize an area of knowledge<sup>1</sup> and Lucas said that concepts can delineate a field of knowledge.<sup>2</sup>

In the preceding pages the writer has attempted to show that concepts make it easier to know a subject and to organize knowledge, make learning more permanent, allow individuals to generalize in a rational manner, facilitate communication, and provide a basis for curriculum planning.

#### The Way Concepts are Developed

If these advantages of concepts are to be utilized, an understanding of the way concepts develop is necessary. A concept was described by Hunziger as "a mental image a person has . . ."<sup>3</sup> Concepts are developed in the mind. Perception, varied experiences, and thinking were included by various authors as vital steps in concept development.

Woodruff maintained that perception was the first step in concept development. He stated:

All learning begins with some form of personal contact with actual objects, events, or circumstances in life. The contacts occur through our sensory organs. The

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<sup>1</sup>Dressel, op. cit., p. 8.

<sup>2</sup>Lucas, loc. cit.

<sup>3</sup>Maxine Lovell Hunziger, "An Exploratory Study to Identify Concepts and Determine Concept Attainment in a Home Economics Education Course," unpublished Master's thesis, p. 14.

process . . . is known as perception.<sup>1</sup>

Along with perception, differentiation occurs when some gross feature is discriminated from an experience. Woodruff defined differentiation as the task of separating elements of one's environment from each other so that each can be identified on contact and not mistaken for another.<sup>2</sup>

The mental images a person has of something after one experience with it will be tentative and immature. Woodruff explained:

The impression that registers in the mind is not at first accurate or complete. It tends to be immature and tentative. . . . As continued perception of an object goes on and accumulates impressions, the meaning grows into a picture of increasing significance. The picture is called a concept. . . . Concepts can change, and usually do with added experience. . . . Concepts will become more complete and more accurate.<sup>3</sup>

Meaning is broadened as more experiences occur. According to Hatcher and Andrews extensive experiences with significant characteristics of a concept are necessary for sound conceptual learning.<sup>4</sup> It was emphasized by Brownell and

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<sup>1</sup>Asahel D. Woodruff, Basic Concepts of Teaching, p. 66.

<sup>2</sup>\_\_\_\_\_, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," Journal of Teacher Education, 15:88, March, 1964.

<sup>3</sup>\_\_\_\_\_, Basic Concepts of Teaching, loc. cit.

<sup>4</sup>Hazel M. Hatcher and Mildred E. Andrews, The Teaching of Home Economics, p. 191.

Hendrickson<sup>1</sup> and others that varied experiences allow for the development of more accurate concepts than repetitive practice.

Experiences are translated and conserved in a model in several ways, according to Bruner's theory. The first way is through action. "We know many things for which we have no imagery and no words, and they are very hard to teach to anybody by the use of either words or diagrams and pictures," Bruner declared.<sup>2</sup> The second system of representation depends on perceptual organization and the use of summarizing images.<sup>3</sup> A concept does not represent a single item or experience; it is an abstraction, according to Brownell and Hendrickson.<sup>4</sup> Vinacke explained that concepts tie together, or link sensory experiences.<sup>5</sup> In addition to perception, there is an element of organization in concept development.

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<sup>1</sup>William A. Brownell and Gordon Hendrickson, "How Children Learn Information, Concepts, and Generalizations," Learning and Instruction, Forty-Ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 115.

<sup>2</sup>Jerome S. Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction, p. 10.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 10-11. A third method is representation in words or language.

<sup>4</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, op. cit., p. 106.

<sup>5</sup>W. Edgar Vinacke, "The Investigation of Concept Formation," Psychological Bulletin, 48:2, January, 1951.

Another component of a concept is the meaning it has for the person. As a person perceives things, he thinks about them. Woodruff described the process. A person compares past experiences with present experience, he may go back and take another look by recalling the subject and trying to study his mental image of it more carefully. This is the process called thinking. It is usually an effort to clear up an idea or concept of something and it leads to better understanding. According to Woodruff, "It [thinking] is the process which brings all of one's past experiences together and makes them have consistent meaning."<sup>1</sup> He asserted, "This is essential in the development of higher and more complex understanding of things."<sup>2</sup> Burton, Kimball, and Wing added that concepts are further developed by reflection upon experiences:

Concepts are clarified and extended through analysis, reflection, generalization, and discrimination. These processes are stimulated when a person finds that his concepts do not work in new situations, when he encounters different concepts, when someone challenges his concepts.<sup>3</sup>

Brownell and Hendrickson discussed a continuum of

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<sup>1</sup>Woodruff, Basic Concepts of Teaching, op. cit., pp. 70-71.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 115.

<sup>3</sup>Burton, Kimball, and Wing, loc. cit.



meaningfulness.<sup>1</sup> The fact the "d" follows "c" and precedes "e" in the alphabet would be near the zero point of the scale, with a minimum of meaningfulness. A symbol and a definition for it which have been memorized would have little meaning to a person, but a concept which has developed from varied experiences would be further up the scale of meaningfulness. Near the maximum of meaning end of the scale might be the concept "justice," or the moral principle that "honesty is the best policy." The place they occupy on the continuum of meaningfulness is not determined by the learnings themselves, nor are the places first occupied necessarily permanent. Arbitrary associations offer only slight opportunity for increases in meaningfulness, but concepts or principles may vary over a wide range on the scale. If first memorized, merely a series of words, a principle would fall near the zero point. As it takes on meaning from additional varied experiences and reflection, it moves farther and farther toward the maximum of meaning point. Another factor which influences where a learning will be found on the scale is the learner himself. "Meaning comes only through individual experience," Brownell and Hendrickson emphasized, "and experience is not wholly subject

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<sup>1</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, op. cit., pp. 94-96.



to external control."<sup>1</sup> The meaningfulness at any time is relative to the person who is fitting the item into his pattern of thought.

Woodruff emphasized that some element of feeling is associated with and is a part of each concept. He explained:

While concepts are forming through experience, the individual is also learning what value each of the objects and forces has for him through his impressions of how each of them affects him. . . . Whenever he is thinking about something, he is also having some kind of feeling about it.<sup>2</sup>

How a person feels about a thing tends to influence his behavior toward that thing.

Another component of most, if not all, concepts is the symbol representing the concept which enables individuals to communicate ideas. Woodruff stated, "As a concept forms in our minds we learn symbols for the whole concept and for each of its parts or qualities, and these symbols become part of the concept also."<sup>3</sup> "The concept deals with the meaning an individual attaches to a word or symbol, rather than with the mere fact that any given symbol is associated with any given object," Woodruff explained in another

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 96.

<sup>2</sup>Woodruff, Basic Concepts of Teaching, op. cit., p. 75.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 78.

writing.<sup>1</sup> A concept needs to have a verbal form as well as a mental form if it is to allow interpersonal use.

Concepts develop as a person perceives, discriminates, and has further experiences with an object or idea. The concept develops meaningfulness as the person thinks about his experience. Feelings about the concept and a symbol to represent it become a part of the concept as these experiences occur.

On the basis of this review of literature the writer defined a concept as a basic idea which epitomizes the common properties of a number of objects, events, or ideas. It is a mental construct made up by the brain in the effort of a person to understand and to cope with something. It is a combination of meaning and feeling which may be expressed by symbols.

#### The Role of the Teacher in the Development of Concepts

Each person has to develop his own concepts; but teachers are vested with the responsibility for guiding pupils toward acquiring and using basic concepts. In order to fulfill this obligation effectively, the following prerequisites were seen as imperative by Sitton:

Teachers themselves must acquire the basic concepts

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<sup>1</sup>Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," op. cit., 15:84.

in the field in which they are teaching and must become devoted to promoting this kind of learning. Teachers have need of understanding the role of concepts in learning and behavior. They must be aware of the processes by which concepts are learned. Teachers must provide opportunities, through their teaching procedures and through learning experiences, for learners to acquire, expand, reorganize, and use basic concepts.<sup>1</sup>

When the conceptual approach to learning is utilized, the role of the teacher includes selecting vital concepts, planning and supervising learning experiences from which pupils may develop these concepts, and planning and implementing evaluation of the degree of concept development.

It is the responsibility of teachers to select concepts to be developed in their classes. "It is both impossible and undesirable to try to teach thoroughly all concepts in the school subjects," declared Brownell and Hendrickson.<sup>2</sup> Woodruff counseled, "In view of the expansion of knowledge, it is now widely advocated that we select instrumental concepts that people use in the basic areas and learn them well."<sup>3</sup> Franks referred to the challenges, for teachers, of identifying the important concepts and outlining the

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<sup>1</sup>Margaret Wilson Sitton, "An Exploratory Study of Attainment of Basic Concepts in Home Management by Home Economics Student Teachers," unpublished Doctor's dissertation, pp. 4-5.

<sup>2</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, op. cit., p. 113.

<sup>3</sup>Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," op. cit., 15:95.

important steps in the development of each major concept.<sup>1</sup>

Another responsibility of a teacher is to plan and implement learning experiences by which pupils are first introduced to a concept and then become involved in many experiences through which they may reflect, analyze, discover relationships, and apply the concept in many different situations.

"It is necessary for the teacher," Brownell and Hendrickson emphasized, "to identify the stage or level of meaning which the pupil has attained and use this information as the basis for helping him."<sup>2</sup> Osborn agreed when she stated, "Before a teacher begins introducing a concept, she first needs to know the understandings her students have of the concept under consideration."<sup>3</sup> Relevant emotional and motor experiences as well as the number and kinds of concepts are part of a pupil's background experience and are important factors in learning concepts, according to Brownell and Hendrickson.<sup>4</sup> Although recognized as vital, little information was found in the literature about how a teacher could

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<sup>1</sup>Franks, op. cit., 39:8.

<sup>2</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, loc. cit.

<sup>3</sup>Barbara Osborn, "The Translation of Concepts and Generalizations to Classroom Experiences," Penney's Fashions and Fabrics, Fall/Winter, 1964, p. 12.

<sup>4</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, loc. cit.

determine pupils' levels of understanding.

A necessity in any kind of learning is motivation on the part of the pupil. Brownell and Hendrickson asserted, "Intrinsic motivation is always preferable to extrinsic motivation."<sup>1</sup> These writers explained that intrinsic motivation is more possible with conceptual learning than with arbitrary associations (memorizing) because, as a pupil develops a meaningful system, he becomes more desirous of further learning. Woodruff advised, "Self-discovery produces increased motivation."<sup>2</sup> Intellectual mastery is rewarding, Bruner contended, especially when the pupil recognizes the cumulative power of learning and knows that learning one thing allows him to go on to something that before was out of reach.<sup>3</sup>

Woodruff maintained pupils were more likely to be responsive to knowledge when priority was given to the most useful instrumental concepts.<sup>4</sup> In another source, Woodruff said that response would vary with the extent to which the pupil sees that the lesson goes where he wants to go. Also

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 116.

<sup>2</sup>Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," op. cit., 15:94.

<sup>3</sup>Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction, op. cit., p. 30.

<sup>4</sup>Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," op. cit., 15:95.

the pupil will respond to the stimuli which have the most direct relationship to current needs and goals.<sup>1</sup>

Brownell and Hendrickson indicated that a child would stop learning at the level of meaningfulness which satisfies his needs and purposes. A teacher should recognize that not all children will attain the highest level of meaningfulness for all concepts. If a pupil has fixated his development at a low level, extrinsic motivation may be necessary to make the pupil feel dissatisfied with his status. A teacher may attempt to convince him of the inadequacy of his status by creating the feeling of a new need or purpose.<sup>2</sup>

One advantage of the conceptual approach recognized by leaders in curriculum planning was the flexibility possible in choosing particular experiences and content meaningful to a specific group of pupils. Such freedom is possible because any number of various experiences work toward the development of a single concept.<sup>3</sup>

The concepts selected provide a basis for selecting objectives and learning experiences which have continuity of learning and contribute to a continuous broadening and

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<sup>1</sup>Woodruff, Basic Concepts of Teaching, op. cit., p. 214.

<sup>2</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, op. cit., pp. 113-116.

<sup>3</sup>A Look at Continuity in the School Program, op. cit., p. 134.

deepening of knowledge.<sup>1</sup> Bruner believed that the fundamentals of any subject could be taught to any child in some honest form. After a child had been introduced to a concept in ways he could understand, he would meet it again and again, in broader and more complicated forms, as he progressed through the educational program. A spiral curriculum would revisit the basic ideas repeatedly, building upon them; it turns back on itself at higher levels.<sup>2</sup> Woodruff postulated that both the forming of concepts and the using of concepts could be facilitated by a cycle relationship with continuing feedback in the curriculum.<sup>3</sup>

Direct contact with the referent was widely acclaimed as preferable to vicarious experience. Woodruff stated, "A student perceives something best when he has direct contact with it in its real form."<sup>4</sup> Burton, Kimball, and Wing recommended:

Learning situations and activities should be provided to make it possible for learners to come into contact with numerous and vivid, clear-cut

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<sup>1</sup>State Course of Study in Home Economics for Junior and Senior High Schools in Alabama, p. 19.

<sup>2</sup>Bruner, The Process of Education, op. cit., pp. 12-13.

<sup>3</sup>Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," op. cit., 15:95.

<sup>4</sup>\_\_\_\_\_, Basic Concepts of Teaching, op. cit., p. 115.

examples of things, persons, processes, and relationships for which concepts are being achieved.<sup>1</sup>

When direct experience with the real thing is impossible, Woodruff proposed, "He [a pupil] can still perceive it fairly well if it is vividly represented by some kind of vicarious teaching material."<sup>2</sup> Burton, Kimball, and Wing suggested supplementing direct experience with vicarious experiences through motion pictures, radio and television programs, dramatizations, lectures, pageants, and many kinds of printed materials.<sup>3</sup> From an experiment she had conducted, Heidbreder reported, "Concepts were regularly evolved more easily from pictured than from verbal material."<sup>4</sup> Woodruff concluded:

When students are being introduced to new phenomena from which concepts are to be developed, they should be permitted to explore the new phenomena overtly. In later stages of concept learning, covert mental reactions may become more dominant and more profitable for concept development.<sup>5</sup>

Bruner paralleled sequence of instruction with intellectual development. As certain mental capacities begin

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<sup>1</sup>Burton, Kimball, and Wing, op. cit., p. 163.

<sup>2</sup>Woodruff, Basic Concepts of Teaching, loc. cit.

<sup>3</sup>Burton, Kimball, and Wing, loc. cit.

<sup>4</sup>Edna Heidbreder, "A Study of the Evolution of Concepts," Psychological Bulletin, 31:673, November, 1934.

<sup>5</sup>Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," op. cit., 15:96.



to develop, emphasis shifts to that particular system of processing and representing information, which must be nurtured and matured before other capacities begin to develop. Bruner indicated that these steps or spurts were not linked to age in a very clear correlation.<sup>1</sup> In the first stages, when knowing is mainly knowing how to do, attention is single-tracked and unstable, and little reflection takes place. In describing the next stages, Bruner said:

There follows a period of more reflective functioning in which the young human being is capable of an internal representation, by representative images, of greater chunks of the environment. The high point in this stage is between five and seven.<sup>2</sup>

Around adolescence language becomes increasingly important as a medium of thought. An ability to consider thoughts or ideas rather than objects develops and several possibilities can be dealt with concurrently.<sup>3</sup>

These mental growth stages correspond to Bruner's description of methods used to represent experience. Enactive representation, or translation through action, learned response, and habit, is followed by iconic representation which utilizes sensory organization and summarizing images. In symbolic representation, translation is into

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<sup>1</sup>Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction, op. cit., p. 27.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 28.

words or language which are arbitrary and remote in reference.<sup>1</sup> Bruner concluded:

If it is true that the usual course of intellectual development moves from enactive through iconic to symbolic representation of the world, it is likely that an optimum sequence will progress in the same direction.<sup>2</sup>

It may not always be necessary to include all three steps in the sequence of instruction, as Bruner pointed out:

When the learner has a well-developed symbolic system, it may be possible to by-pass the first two stages. But one does so with the risk that the learner may not possess the imagery to fall back on when his symbolic transformations fail to achieve a goal in problem solving.<sup>3</sup>

Bruner indicated also that there are various sequences equivalent in their ease and difficulty for pupils. He did not propose a unique sequence for all learners, and he suggested that the best sequence in any particular case depended on various factors such as previous learning, stage of development, the material to be taught, and individual differences.<sup>4</sup>

Although self-discovery has been shown to be advantageous, this does not mean complete lack of guidance. Curriculum planners suggested that teachers should guide the

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 10-11.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 49.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

pupil to select from each experience the elements which enlarge his conceptual framework.<sup>1</sup> Experiments have shown, as summarized by Woodruff, that when pupils are given cues and information as to what to look for in the learning materials, new concepts take form faster. His conclusion was, "Concept development proceeds faster and more accurately when relevant features of the teaching materials are emphasized and the irrelevant features are counteremphasized."<sup>2</sup>

A teacher needs to plan a variety of learning experiences that will focus thinking toward the desired concepts and will expand understanding of the concepts. Varied experiences, as contrasted to repetitive practice, were recommended by Brownell and Hendrickson. They maintained varied experiences would furnish occasions both for further differentiations and for integration of discovered meanings and application into the concept.<sup>3</sup>

As the concepts become more clearly defined, further experiences reveal ways they can be applied in additional situations. Osborn enumerated a number of ways pupils can

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<sup>1</sup>A Look at Continuity in the School Program, op. cit., p. 132.

<sup>2</sup>Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," op. cit., 15:96.

<sup>3</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, op. cit., p. 115.

be helped to generalize about their experiences.<sup>1</sup> A teacher may guide pupils' thinking by asking questions, having them interpret and evaluate supporting facts, and leading them to point out differences and similarities among factors. If pupils are asked to state tentative conclusions then additional experiences can be planned and presented to clarify concepts if misconceptions are discovered. Or experiences can be presented in which pupils can apply their conclusions to new situations in order to increase understanding.

The pace of instruction is important. A teacher rarely should try for completeness at the time of introducing a concept. It takes time for a step-wise growth on the part of each pupil for concepts to develop. Osborn<sup>2</sup> suggested that when the teacher asks for the pupils' conclusions, she should accept the kind of statement they are ready to make, even if they aren't as broad of generalizations<sup>3</sup> as she had planned.

Woodruff pointed out that concepts sometimes have

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<sup>1</sup>Barbara Osborn, "A Lesson Outline for Concept Teaching," Penney's Fashions and Fabrics, Spring/Summer, 1965, p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Generalizations are statements which express an underlying truth, have an element of universality, and usually indicate relationships. They help to give meaning to concepts. Concepts and Generalizations: Their Place in High School Home Economics Curriculum Development (Washington, D. C.: American Home Economics Association, 1967), pp. 23-24.

hierarchical structure. Supporting concepts are necessary before advanced concepts can be developed. In subject matter where this is the case, learning would be greatly facilitated by observing the hierarchy by means of sequencing. Sequencing seems to be irrelevant when there is no real hierarchy, according to Woodruff.<sup>1</sup>

The continued use and expanding of concepts makes forgetting much less of a concern in conceptual learning than in memorization. Brownell and Hendrickson reasoned that if learning is related to a pupil's needs and purposes, the maintenance of concepts presents few problems. They add that the best insurance for the retention of concepts is to provide opportunities for their use in significant activities.<sup>2</sup>

Burton, Kimball, and Wing suggested that pupils should be stimulated to reflect upon and to analyze their experiences, the meanings they have, and the process of developing concepts.<sup>3</sup> When pupils are stimulated to think, they can also be led to see how they used the thinking processes. Pupils need to be taught concepts of problem-solving behavior as well as concepts in subject matter. Bruner pointed out

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<sup>1</sup>Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," op. cit., 15:96.

<sup>2</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, op. cit., p. 116.

<sup>3</sup>Burton, Kimball, and Wing, op. cit., p. 163.

that "We teach a subject not to produce little living libraries on that subject," but to enable a pupil to think for himself. Bruner emphasized, "Knowing is a process, not a product."<sup>1</sup>

Another suggestion by Burton, Kimball, and Wing dealt with the pupil being able to express the meaning which he has developed. They recommended that learners be encouraged to state their understanding in simple everyday terms and illustrate concepts with situations drawn from their own experience. The teacher should encourage learners to express concepts in a variety of ways in addition to verbal statements (drawing pictures, making models, carrying on dramatizations, using formulas).<sup>2</sup> Woodruff contended that concepts that have been verbalized are more useful or effective. Teachers may want to help pupils verbalize their important concepts, but the pupil should not be pushed more rapidly than he can verbalize meaningfully.<sup>3</sup>

Errors can not be completely avoided and in 1950 Brownell and Hendrickson considered them "fruitful

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<sup>1</sup>Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction, op. cit., p. 72.

<sup>2</sup>Burton, Kimball, and Wing, op. cit., p. 163.

<sup>3</sup>Woodruff, "The Use of Concepts in Teaching and Learning," op. cit., 15:96.

opportunities for constructive teaching."<sup>1</sup> They pointed out that pupils need to know what concepts are and also what they are not. Woodruff, in 1961, indicated that both positive and negative instances of a concept are helpful in concept learning, but he reported that positive instances are of the greatest value.<sup>2</sup> Errors implied incomplete and distorted learning. Additional experiences to clarify concepts were called for when misconceptions occurred. In 1966, Bruner warned:

There is now an impressive body of evidence that indicates that "negative information"--information about what something is not--is peculiarly unhelpful to a person seeking to master a concept. Though<sub>3</sub> it is logically usable, it is psychologically useless.

The third major area of responsibility for a teacher directing the conceptual approach to learning is evaluation. Osborn considered evaluation an integral part of concept teaching, and proposed that to be really effective, evaluation should be part of the planning from the beginning.<sup>4</sup> Evaluation is part of the learning process itself according to Stratemeyer et al., and it is for guiding action, not

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<sup>1</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, op. cit., p. 115.

<sup>2</sup>Woodruff, Basic Concepts of Teaching, op. cit., p. 115.

<sup>3</sup>Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction, op. cit., p. 53.

<sup>4</sup>Barbara Osborn, "Evaluation," Penney's Fashions and Fabrics, Fall/Winter, 1965, p. 11.

merely passing judgment. Planning of further learning experiences reflects appraisals of the pupils' growth and development.<sup>1</sup> Self-appraisal was recognized by Army as a method for motivating pupils<sup>2</sup> and by Stratemeyer et al., as an indication of developing maturity which takes place as pupils are helped to understand the reasons for the next steps.<sup>3</sup> Bruner emphasized that a learner should be corrected in such a way that he can take over the corrective function himself. If not, pupils may become dependent on the perpetual presence of a teacher.<sup>4</sup>

Few of the studies of concept development and the evaluation of this development, Taba lamented, have dealt with the complex conditions of a classroom.<sup>5</sup> Smoke presented a standard by which he could judge whether a given individual in a controlled situation had learned a given concept:

The consistency with which he is able to make symbolic responses that differentiate the members of the class of stimulus patterns in question from stimuli

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<sup>1</sup>Florence B. Stratemeyer et al., Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living, p. 477.

<sup>2</sup>Clara Brown Army, Evaluation in Home Economics, p. 28.

<sup>3</sup>Stratemeyer et al., op. cit., p. 478.

<sup>4</sup>Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction, op. cit., p. 53.

<sup>5</sup>Hilda Taba, Teaching Strategies and Cognitive Functioning in Elementary School Children, p. 9.



which are not regarded as falling in that class.<sup>1</sup>

In the Heidbreder study, concept attainment was judged as:

. . . the point at which the subject begins to produce behavior indicative of the attainment of a specified concept by reacting with consistent correctness to all instances of that concept.<sup>2</sup>

For Brownell and Hendrickson the test of conceptual learning was the person's ability to use the concept correctly.<sup>3</sup>

Concept formation was one of the cognitive tasks considered by Taba. For this study three sequential types of activity were considered as steps in concept formation. Differentiation, recognizable by the overt activities of enumeration and listing, was the first step, followed by abstracting or identifying common properties. The overt activity looked for as an indication of this operation was grouping. Labeling and categorizing by pupils was the activity assumed to indicate the third step in concept formation, determining the hierarchical order of items.<sup>4</sup>

Evaluation of concept formation as defined in this study was done primarily by analyzing tape recordings of classroom discussions. The other evaluation instruments

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<sup>1</sup>Kenneth L. Smoke, "The Experimental Approach to Concept Learning," Psychological Review, 42:278, May, 1935.

<sup>2</sup>Heidbreder, "The Attainment of Concepts: I. Terminology and Methodology," op. cit., 35:189.

<sup>3</sup>Brownell and Hendrickson, op. cit., p. 116.

<sup>4</sup>Taba, op. cit., p. 39.

used in the study related to the other two cognitive tasks under investigation, namely the ability to interpret data (inferring and generalizing) and to apply principles to new phenomena.<sup>1</sup>

In a study conducted by Hoover with college freshmen in family relationships classes, generalizations written by the pupils were analyzed as one method of measuring conceptual understanding. The pupils' statements were divided on the basis of definitions of three levels of generalizations, developed from the work materials for the national curriculum workshops in home economics. First-level generalizations were definitions or descriptions of concepts; second-level generalizations included more ideas, or showed relationship among the ideas, or made comparisons. Third-level generalizations explained and interpreted relationships among ideas and may have included predictions, showing an understanding of cause-and-effect relationships. Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives in the cognitive domain was utilized to analyze the processes used at each level of generalization.<sup>2</sup>

Hoover concluded that there was some value in using

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 81.

<sup>2</sup>Helene M. Hoover, "Bloom's Cognitive Processes Applied to College Students' Level of Conceptual Understanding," Journal of Home Economics, 59:89-90, February, 1967.

levels of generalizations as a basis for evaluating the degree of concept development, especially if pupils were asked to illustrate their stated generalizations.<sup>1</sup> However, she contended that if used alone, determining the levels of generalizations was an incomplete method of evaluating conceptual understanding.<sup>2</sup>

Other measures of conceptual understanding used in Hoover's study included a "Definitions Test, used as a pre-test and post-test"<sup>3</sup> and an "Application of Principles Test," which Hoover had developed to measure

. . . . the ability of students to analyze a specific situation as depicted by a case study, to recognize basic ideas and relationships among them, to recognize cause-and-effect relationships, and to predict consequences and draw conclusions based upon evaluation and judgment.<sup>4</sup>

Hoover found evidence that third-level generalizations could be formulated more readily than the generalization could be applied to a specific case.<sup>5</sup>

When directing the conceptual approach to learning, evaluation is an integral part of the process. To plan effectively knowledge of the current level of conceptual

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 59:91.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 59:92.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 59:90.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 59:91-92.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 59:92.

development of the pupils is vital. Self-appraisal is important in order to motivate pupils and to make them less dependent on the presence of a teacher.

Ways that teachers may evaluate concept development include judging the consistency with which the pupils use a concept correctly, and analyzing the level of concept development at which the pupils are operating in either verbal or written work.

The role of teachers in the development of concepts focuses around the responsibilities of selecting appropriate concepts to be developed in their classes and of providing opportunities for introduction to and supplemental experiences with these concepts. By the choice and arrangement of learning experiences, including various evaluative techniques and teaching procedures, a teacher is able to promote a depth and breadth of understanding which will enable pupils to cope with the rapidly changing world in which they live.

#### Teen-Aged Americans Illustrate Need for Management

As citizens of the United States are dissimilar so are the nation's teen-agers. Yet in many ways they are similar. Descriptions identifying the contemporary adolescent were gleaned from literature to show the need for teaching home management in secondary schools.

Studies have been conducted to discover attitudes and values, activities, and problems of American teen-agers.

Many of these studies dealt exclusively with middle-class high school pupils. Hechinger and Hechinger justified their study of the ways of middle-class teen-agers by explaining that this group of teen-agers was setting the patterns in the American society where middle-class values set the pace and determine "normal" behavior patterns.<sup>1</sup>

The primary concern of the writer was with early adolescents as they are and the high school pupils they will become. Some of the studies cited encompass a wider age span, including youth up to twenty years of age. The terms "adolescent" and "teen-ager" were used interchangeably to describe young people of this general age level, while "early adolescent" referred to junior high school pupils specifically.

Adolescence has been described by Cole as a state of growing up from childhood to adulthood. The adolescent period lasts about eight years; involves pubertal changes in the body; developments in intellectual capacities, interests, attitudes, and personal relationships; emotional growth; increased vocational and academic interests and aptitudes; and religious growth.<sup>2</sup> These areas of development were recognized by Havighurst as the developmental tasks of

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<sup>1</sup>Grace Hechinger and Fred M. Hechinger, Teen-Age Tyranny, p. xi.

<sup>2</sup>Luella Cole, Psychology of Adolescence, p. 3.

adolescence.<sup>1</sup> Tryon and Lilienthal augmented Havighurst's concept and listed developmental tasks for early adolescence. The list included the following:

1. Accepting one's self as a worthwhile person . . .
2. Reorganizing one's thoughts and feelings about one's self in the face of significant bodily changes . . .
3. Accepting the reality of one's appearance
4. Controlling and using a "new" body
5. Establishing one's independence from adults . . .
6. Behaving according to a shifting peer code
7. Learning one's role in heterosexual relationships
8. Using language to express and to clarify more complex concepts
9. Moving from the concrete to the abstract and applying general principles to the particular<sup>2</sup>

Friedenberg identified self-definition as the central developmental task of adolescence. He stated, "Adolescence is the period during which a young person learns who he is, and what he really feels."<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Robert J. Havighurst, Developmental Tasks and Education, pp. 33-71.

<sup>2</sup>Caroline Tryon and Jesse W. Lilienthal III, "Developmental Tasks: I. The Concept and Its Importance," Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools, 1950 Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development), pp. 84-87.

<sup>3</sup>Edgar Z. Friedenberg, The Vanishing Adolescent, p. 29.

The major problem for early adolescents, according to Iowa curriculum planners, is to achieve responsible status among their peers, and concurrently develop an understanding of themselves. Frustrations frequently accompany the rapidly occurring changes of early adolescence. The authors reported:

These changes come almost daily as they search for values, wonder at their own capacities, develop new skills and attitudes, and adjust to the typical growth "spurts" of adolescence.<sup>1</sup>

Remmers and Radler described the modern teen-ager in the following manner:

A boy or girl whose energies are already sapped by the sheer process of physical growth, caught up in a whirl of school work and social activities in and out of school, confronted by decisions which will affect his whole life, confused by the shifting attitudes of parents, teachers, and society in general . . . and bewildered by the complex and rapidly changing civilization into which he must soon fit, assuming all the responsibilities of maturity.<sup>2</sup>

A cross section female population drawn from a national probability sample of thirteen to nineteen year olds in metropolitan and rural areas was used by Eugene Gilbert Company interviewers for a Seventeen Magazine Market Research

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<sup>1</sup>Junior High Schools for Iowa Youth (Des Moines: Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, 1960), p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>H. H. Remmers and D. H. Radler, The American Teen-ager, p. 50.



Report.<sup>1</sup> The teen-age girl next door was depicted as follows:

A busy, responsible, moneyed young adult who is simultaneously on the move with school and community activities, dates, homework and household chores; on the job part-time and full-time; and on the lookout for everything new from merchandise to men.<sup>2</sup>

The teen-age girl has a passion for doing; many work full or part-time. The Seventeen report explained:

The teen girl is also a doer at home--helping Mom with the shopping, cleaning, laundry, meal planning, cooking; in her own teen world, she heads committees, joins clubs, raises funds, plans dances and throws parties.<sup>3</sup>

The Seventeen report described the teen-age girl of 1960.<sup>4</sup> She got up at 7:34 a.m.; made her own breakfast and lunch on an average day; listened to the radio two hours a day; worked after school at jobs from baby-sitting to clerking; had a weekly income of \$9.53; confided in friends, not in her father; worried about a Saturday night date; and was ready for bed at 10:49 p.m. She could cook everything from spaghetti to chocolate cake. She went to church on Sundays. Her family was richer than the average American family (her father was near his earning peak and her mother was free to work). She spent \$300 a year on her wardrobe. Clothes and

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<sup>1</sup>The Teen-Age Girl: 1960 (A Seventeen Magazine Market Research Report. New York: Seventeen, n.d.), p. 82.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-2.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-3.



cosmetics were the products named as "most important." Teen-age girls made up 10 per cent of the total female population but accounted for 20 per cent of the United States total women's apparel and footwear expenditure.

Eight out of ten teen-age girls planned after-school careers. Most of the girls were stockpiling hopechest items. Thirty-five per cent of the eighteen and nineteen year olds were engaged.<sup>1</sup>

It was not only girls who had money to spend. Powell and Gover conducted a study among white males and females from grades seven, nine, and twelve, randomly selected from a stratified sample of urban and rural public schools in South Carolina. At each grade level the average amount of money received a week from all sources was higher for boys than for girls.<sup>2</sup>

The 1964 United States Census recorded the median annual income of teen-agers as \$423 for boys and \$384 for girls.<sup>3</sup> The 1963 national average income, including earnings and allowances, of teen-agers was \$489 annually, or

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>Kathryn Summers Powell and David A. Gover, "The Adolescent as a Consumer: Facts and Implications," Marriage and Family Living, 25:359-60, August, 1963.

<sup>3</sup>U. S. Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1966, p. 343.

\$9.45 per week.<sup>1</sup> The South Carolina study<sup>2</sup> and a nationwide survey conducted by the Department of Home Economics of the National Education Association<sup>3</sup> offered evidence that a majority of adolescents had considerable freedom in using their money. The total discretionary buying power of twenty-two and one-half million teen-agers was eleven billion dollars.<sup>4</sup> Teen-agers constitute an important market which has become the focus of advertising campaigns. The economic impact of the teen-age market is large, particularly when it is recognized that most teen-agers don't have to maintain homes and families and most of their money goes into the purchase of merchandise.<sup>5</sup>

The use of credit, only one aspect of teen-age consumption, was the subject of a few studies which gave an indication of the availability of charge accounts for teen-agers and the use of lay-away plans by teens.

A study of teen-age credit made by personnel of the

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<sup>1</sup>"Teenage Dollars Need Direction," Teaching Topics, 14:4, Fall, 1964.

<sup>2</sup>Powell and Gover, op. cit., 25:360.

<sup>3</sup>Mary Lee Hurt, "Teen-Agers and Their Money" (Washington, D. C.: Department of Home Economics, National Education Association, 1961), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

<sup>4</sup>"Teenage Dollars Need Direction," loc. cit.

<sup>5</sup>"The Dreamy Teen-Age Market," Newsweek, 50:94, September 16, 1957.

Massachusetts Extension Service in 1960 investigated the amount of teen-age credit; the attitude toward credit of teen-age girls, of parents of teen-age girls, and of credit department or store managers; and suggestions for a teaching program for families and teen-agers. It was found that 40 per cent of the girls in the sample had charge accounts. The girls who had used lay-away plans amounted to 52 per cent of the sample. Of the fifty-two stores included in the study, 44 per cent offered credit to teen-agers under the teen-ager's own name. All of the stores limited the amount of the account and most of them required a parent or guardian to co-sign. About one-third of the stores which carried teen accounts did not ask the parents to pay if the teen-agers did not. However, most stores reported little difficulty collecting accounts.<sup>1</sup>

Equipment manufacturers realized that today's teen-ager would soon be buying more expensive equipment. Nearly all dealers of the Radio Corporation of America extended credit on lower-priced equipment to teen-agers, according to Russell E. Conley, sales promotion head of RCA's radio and Victorola division.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Winifred Eastwood, et al., "Teen-Age Credit Accounts," Journal of Home Economics, 53:664-65, October, 1961.

<sup>2</sup>"The Dreamy Teen-Age Market," op. cit., 50:94.

The Powell and Gover study in South Carolina showed that more boys than girls at each grade level had charge accounts in their own names. Of the twelfth grade boys in the sample, 40 per cent had charge accounts. Girls more frequently bought items on lay-away plans than boys, perhaps because fewer had charge accounts, or perhaps reflecting greater concern among girls to make sure they would have appropriate clothing for some future occasion.<sup>1</sup>

Cateora acknowledged the immediate buying power of teen-agers and their influence on purchases made by their families; but he was also interested in them as prototypes of the future adult market. He stated:

. . . the overall objectives of this study included a desire for more knowledge about the ways and means these future consumers acquire the consumer values, attitudes, and goals they now hold and will probably carry with them into adulthood.<sup>2</sup>

Educators have drawn conclusions and implications from analyses of teen-agers when viewed as consumers. Powell indicated that youth need help to become aware of items other than those promoted by advertising, and to question the relative importance of material possessions and education. One of the questions she asked was, "Have teen-agers experienced the thrill of giving, of owning books . . . or of

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<sup>1</sup>Powell and Gover, op. cit., 25:361-363.

<sup>2</sup>Philip R. Cateora, An Analysis of the Teen-Age Market, p. 25.

choosing these items over the items that are somewhat superficial in value?" She also concluded there was a need for teaching money management, starting before the high school years, and increasing in complexity with the developmental level of the pupils.<sup>1</sup>

The article "Teenage Dollars Need Direction" concluded that with the substantial amounts of money they have to spend, teen-agers' judgments need to be developed, and they need to learn mature, realistic methods of money management. They also need to recognize and accept responsibility for the wise use of money.<sup>2</sup>

Store representatives interviewed in a Massachusetts survey suggested that any educational program on credit should include the following:

. . . the importance of the individual's own credit standing, advantages of credit, responsibilities of credit, obligation to pay according to the terms agreed upon, and dangers of overspending.<sup>3</sup>

Powell and Gover concluded that a large majority of pupils need help at present in recognizing the advantages

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<sup>1</sup>Powell and Gover, loc. cit., and Kathryn Summers Powell, "The Adolescent Consumer in Today's Teen Culture," Conference Proceedings: A New Look at the Vocational Purposes of Home Economics Education, May 6-10, 1963 (Urbana: Division of Home Economics Education, Department of Vocational-Technical Education, University of Illinois), p. 39.

<sup>2</sup>"Teenage Dollars Need Direction," op. cit., 14:9.

<sup>3</sup>Eastwood, et al., op. cit., 53:666.

and disadvantages of buying on credit.<sup>1</sup>

Some of the implications home economics educators formulated in discussion groups following a conference session dealing with "'Teen Culture Today" involved aiding pupils learn to be thinking people, to recognize and build values, and to develop awareness and appreciation for values other than materialistic ones. There is also need to help pupils develop an awareness of the way in which one decision affects another; to help them learn to manage time effectively and to give emphasis to selecting goods and services and the morals and ethics involved in their use.<sup>2</sup>

Social, economic, scientific, and technical changes have had and will have tremendous influence on the home and the individual. Coon asserted, "The complexities of twentieth century living call for an infinite number of managerial decisions."<sup>3</sup>

Young persons are entering marriage, homemaking and parenthood in the teen years. In 1958, one-fourth of all eighteen-year old girls and one-sixth of the seventeen-year

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<sup>1</sup>Powell and Gover, loc. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Conference Proceedings: A New Look at the Vocational Purposes of Home Economics Education, op. cit., p. 62.

<sup>3</sup>Beulah I. Coon, Home Economics Instruction in the Secondary Schools, p. 12.

old girls were married.<sup>1</sup>

New products abound and the dilemma which follows was described by Coon, "For almost every job of the homemaker new products, equipment, or tools are being developed. The homemaker must learn to become a wise consumer."<sup>2</sup>

The lives of women in America are no longer a dichotomy of marriage-parenthood or employment outside the home but are a combination of marriage, and parenthood, and employment outside the home.<sup>3</sup> In 1960, thirty-six per cent of all American women of working age were in the labor force.<sup>4</sup> The President's Commission on the Status of Women in 1963 reported, "Eight out of ten women are in paid employment outside the home at some time during their lives."<sup>5</sup>

In the 1960 Seventeen study, 29 per cent of the teenage girls in the sample reported that their mothers were

<sup>1</sup>Daniel Seligman and Lawrence A. Mayer, "The Future Population Mix," Fortune, 59:226, February, 1959.

<sup>2</sup>Coon, op. cit., p. 31.

<sup>3</sup>Bernice Milburn Moore, "A Sociologist Looks at Home-making Education," Practical Home Economics, 5:13, April, 1960.

<sup>4</sup>What's New About Women Workers?, cited by Mildred Weigley Wood, Management Problems of Homemakers Employed Outside the Home, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 289, Home Economics Education Series No. 33 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1962), p. x.

<sup>5</sup>President's Commission on the Status of Women, American Women (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 8.



employed.<sup>1</sup> Although not all studies agree, Lenz reported, "Daughters of employed mothers tended to assume home responsibilities more frequently than daughters of non-employed mothers." She added, "Over three-fourths of the girls with employed mothers said they assumed more responsibility around their homes after their mothers began working."<sup>2</sup> Hurt concluded, "Seventh grade girls were more likely to assume home responsibilities if their mothers did not work, and the reverse was true of the older girls."<sup>3</sup>

Early adolescents are striving to develop values and wanting to learn new skills and gain knowledge which will lead to independence. They are concerned about their relationships with other people while seeking outlets for self-expression. They are trying to achieve independence without losing their security.

As they approach the busy, more responsible, more moneyed life of contemporary teen-agers, ample opportunities exist for utilization and extension of home management concepts

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<sup>1</sup>The Teen-Age Girl: 1960, op. cit., p. 79.

<sup>2</sup>Patricia Ann Lenz, "Comparison of Management Responsibilities Assumed by Junior High Girls in Homes of Selected Groups with Employed and Non-employed Mothers," cited by Beatrice Paolucci and Jean Davis Schlater (eds.), Journal of Family Economics-Home Management, 2:15, 1963.

<sup>3</sup>Mary Lee Hurt, "Home Responsibilities of Girls Whose Mothers Work and Do Not Work Outside the Home" (Washington, D. C.: Department of Home Economics, National Education Association, 1960), p. 6. (Mimeographed.)



which may be developed in junior high school homemaking education.

### Concepts and Theories of Home Management

Home management as a formal discipline is relatively recent. Kivlin placed its age at less than fifty years.<sup>1</sup> She described the distinct, yet overlapping phases through which home management has passed when she related:

While not then recognized as a distinct section of home economics, several aspects of home management were discussed at the Lake Placid Conference held at the turn of the century. High standards as a goal, sanitation, and work simplification characterized this period. During the next ten years "efficiency" and the "one right way" were the topics most discussed. The high cost of living after World War I resulted in an almost total change to the family economics aspects of home management. The rise of the social sciences and the resulting emphasis on human relationships in the thirties had an almost revolutionary effect on home management philosophy.<sup>2</sup>

Riebel pointed out that around 1930 if asked what term came to mind when home management was mentioned, the probable answer would have been "efficiency." In 1960 "decision-making" would have been a pleasing answer.<sup>3</sup> Schlater explained that the sphere of home management was once task-

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<sup>1</sup>Laura Ann Douglas Kivlin, "The Beliefs and Reported Practices of Two Groups of Pennsylvania Homemaking Teachers in the Area of Home Management," unpublished Doctor's dissertation, p. 9.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>L. Jeanne Riebel, "Philosophy of Management," Journal of Home Economics, 52:16, January, 1960.

centered, but now the emphasis was human-centered.<sup>1</sup>

Even though there appeared to be considerable diversity in contemporary home management philosophy, Gage was one of those who suggested that the diversity may be largely the result of lack of communication. She theorized, "Apparently we are developing terminology more rapidly than concepts and since we don't have opportunities to meet for discussion, common agreement as to the terms is lacking."<sup>2</sup>

Some opportunities for discussion came about as a result of conferences and workshops sponsored by the American Association of Land Grant Colleges and State Universities and the U. S. Office of Education. Home management was one of the eleven home economics subject areas represented at a seminar in French Lick, Indiana, in 1961. Additional attempts to identify home management concepts were made at subsequent conferences and workshops at Michigan State University, Purdue University, and Pennsylvania State University.<sup>3</sup> In

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<sup>1</sup>Jean Davis Schlater, "The Management Process and Its Core Concepts," Journal of Home Economics, 59:93, February, 1967.

<sup>2</sup>M. Geraldine Gage, "Discussion," Conceptual Frameworks: Process of Home Management, Proceedings of a Home Management Conference (Washington, D. C.: American Home Economics Association, 1965), p. 35.

<sup>3</sup>Margaret Wilson Sitton, "An Exploratory Study of Attainment of Basic Concepts in Home Management by Home Economics Student Teachers," unpublished Doctor's dissertation, pp. 46-49.

1964, at a follow-up curriculum workshop at the University of Missouri, participants further revised the outlines of the concepts and generalizations for five areas of home economics and made suggestions for using the outlines in curriculum development. Home management was combined with family economics to form one of the five areas and the outlines were published as Concepts and Generalizations: Their Place in High School Home Economics Curriculum Development.<sup>1</sup>

Even though some agreement was reached through these conferences, variations continue. With this review of literature the writer sought to identify some of the generally agreed on concepts in home management and survey some of the diverse theories of home management.

The major concepts which are accepted by a majority of writers in the field of home management with only slight diversity of opinion on role or definition include values, goals, and resources.

Values. Values give meaning to life. They are the deep-seated beliefs about what is desirable or has worth. They give direction to and motivate action in a general way since they serve as guides for developing goals. Values differ among individuals and at different stages of the

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<sup>1</sup>Concepts and Generalizations: Their Place in High School Home Economics Curriculum Development (Washington, D. C.: American Home Economics Association, 1967), pp. 22, 29-31.

family life cycle. Various people don't place values in the same order of importance, or have the same hierarchy of values in every situation. All of a person's values are not held with the same intensity, but an individual's value system is thought to be relatively stable throughout his adult life.

Values are built, they are absorbed and chosen from those in the home, from society, churches, schools, and from individual friends and teachers. Values also come through discrimination in the face of choices. Goodyear and Klohr mentioned that since values develop from several sources, individuals may have contradictory values in their value systems, which, if not resolved, could lessen the effectiveness of management.<sup>1</sup> Values are more lived than talked about; people may not have a clear idea of what their values are. Paolucci and O'Brien maintained that one of the aims of teaching management is to help individuals clarify their values.<sup>2</sup> Schlater agreed that it is important that values be clarified, by stating, "When values are consciously identified and verbalized, they can more easily be translated into goals and then, through decision-making, to realization."<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Margaret R. Goodyear and Mildred Chapin Klohr, Managing for Effective Living, pp. 25-26.

<sup>2</sup>Beatrice Paolucci and Carol B. O'Brien, "Management: the Importance of Values," Forecast for Home Economists, 76:44, June, 1960.

<sup>3</sup>Schlater, op. cit., 59:96.

Goals. Goals are things people set out to accomplish, something tangible wanted, a mark to be reached or a purpose to be achieved. Goals reflect values, but are more definite and specific. Goal-setting is a continual process; goals may change gradually as the family cycle develops, or more quickly in time of crisis. A great many goals are short-term, and may be stepping-stones to more important long-range goals, or may be ends in themselves. Families (and individuals) hold a number of goals concurrently and this multiplicity may complicate the task of managing resources to achieve goals. To insure effective management it is important to clearly define goals, since goals are directing forces in management.

Other elements which influence management, but were not discussed by as many writers, included philosophy, attitudes, habits, standards, events, and demands.

Nickell and Dorsey compared a philosophy with a judgment yardstick, saying that it forms a guide for conduct and helps develop a criteria for judgments in making choices and decisions.<sup>1</sup> They explained that a philosophy develops through experience, because experiences are not isolated bits of living, but are "events woven together and forming

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<sup>1</sup>Paulena Nickell and Jean Muir Dorsey, Management in Family Living, p. 18.

the basic fabric of life."<sup>1</sup> Goals to a large extent are determined by a family's philosophy.

Attitudes reflect feelings and reactions to ideas, situations, and people. Nickell and Dorsey credited the home environment with determining, to a large extent, the attitudes and ideals, the prejudices and emotional feelings of family members.<sup>2</sup> Gunsalus said that attitudes grow into values held by individuals.<sup>3</sup>

Gunsalus pointed out that habits become so much a part of a person that the force they exert on behavior is sometimes forgotten. She, however, listed them as one of the factors which influence goals.<sup>4</sup>

Standards stem from a person's values, and help him measure or compare the actions taken with the choices made, according to Gunsalus.<sup>5</sup> Gross and Crandall contended that standards set the limits one will accept in working toward a goal, and described them as mental pictures of what is considered essential and necessary to make life tolerable. To

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 19.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 20.

<sup>3</sup>Merle Gunsalus, "Values and Goals for Living," (Brookings: Cooperative Extension Service of South Dakota State University, 1964), p. 2. (Mimeographed.)

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid.

be a standard, the mental picture must be strong enough to compel action, or to cause discomfort and unrest if action is not possible.<sup>1</sup>

Events, as presented in the proposed framework of Maloch and Deacon, are pertinent occurrences involving the use of resources, which may arise within or outside the family or household unit. The interpretation of the importance or pertinence of an event will vary with the value structure of the family involved.<sup>2</sup>

Demands were described by Maloch and Deacon as goals and/or events which require action. From outside the family demands may arise from social-cultural, economic, or governmental conditions; but not all claims will be acted on by a family.<sup>3</sup>

Resources. A concept included by nearly everyone who wrote about home management was resources. Resources were described as the means which are available to be used to achieve goals. Many authors classified resources as human and nonhuman or material; commonly listed human resources

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<sup>1</sup>Irma H. Gross and Elizabeth W. Crandall, Management for Modern Families, pp. 36-38.

<sup>2</sup>Francille Maloch and Ruth E. Deacon, "Proposed Framework for Home Management," Journal of Home Economics, 58:32, January, 1966.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 58:31.



included physical energy, abilities and skills, knowledge, attitudes, and interests. Several authors also listed time as a human resource, but Nickell and Dorsey classified time as a nonhuman resource.<sup>1</sup> Deacon questioned the inclusion of interests and attitudes as resources and suggested they may be motivational and more directly reflected through goals.<sup>2</sup> Nonhuman resources are tangibles such as community facilities, money, and material goods, i.e., food, clothing, an owned home, property owned by the family.

Home economists at the conference in French Lick, Indiana presented a slightly different classification of resources. Technological resources included things, either natural or manufactured. Social resources were concerned with things and people other than the manager, for example, a restaurant, a church. The third and final category was covert, intangible, or personal resources. These resources encompassed feelings, attitudes, beliefs, emotions, sentiments and interpersonal relationships between individuals.<sup>3</sup>

In the opinion of Gross and Crandall resources are limited, or there would be no need for management; they are

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<sup>1</sup>Nickell and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 37.

<sup>2</sup>Ruth E. Deacon, "Home Management Focus and Function," Journal of Home Economics, 54:761, November, 1962.

<sup>3</sup>Home Economics Seminar, French Lick, Indiana, July 24-28, 1961 (East Lansing: Michigan State University), p. 33.



useful, and their use is interrelated.<sup>1</sup> Paolucci and O'Brien discussed what they called functioning qualities of resources, such as substitution, alternative uses, interdependence, and interrelatedness. One resource can be substituted for another, for example, using time and skill to make clothes because one cannot buy clothes that fit. A number of different goals might be achieved by using any one resource component. The amount of satisfaction derived from each goal may be the basis for selecting alternative uses for the resource when the resource is limited and goals conflict. Interdependence deals with the idea that more than one resource may be necessary if any are to be useable. Interrelatedness means that greater use of one resource results in less use of another.<sup>2</sup>

Researchers are interested in the potential measurability of resources in specific situations. Deacon suggested that money, time, and energy are particularly useful in research because they permit the study of interrelationships.<sup>3</sup>

The value of resources is measured by the relative ability to serve desired ends. A quality or thing is valuable

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<sup>1</sup>Gross and Crandall, op. cit., p. 125.

<sup>2</sup>Beatrice Paolucci and Carol B. O'Brien, "Management of Resources," Forecast for Home Economists, 76:55-56, April, 1960.

<sup>3</sup>Deacon, loc. cit.

only when its usefulness is recognized. Maloch and Deacon declared, "It seems appropriate and useful . . . to speak of a resource as, anything . . . which can be used or which has direct application in the meeting of demands."<sup>1</sup> These two writers contend that an object may be a resource in one situation and in another situation it may be the end desired.<sup>2</sup>

The dynamic concepts of management. Other ideas in the literature which were suggested as major concepts included process, decision-making, and organization. However, there was considerably less agreement on the meaning than for the terms values, goals, and resources.

In some writings process has been used as synonymous with management, defining management as the process of this or that. Many authors emphasized flow, or progression from one phase to another. In one paper Knoll described the coping with resources, environment, and family demands and indicated that both process and organization were terms which had been applied to this activity.<sup>3</sup>

Several times management was described as a mental

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<sup>1</sup>Maloch and Deacon, op. cit., 58:32.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Marjorie Knoll, "Concepts in Home Management" (Paper read at the National Extension Home Management-Family Economics Workshop, the University of Chicago, September 28, 1964), p. 6.

process or a series of mental activities. Schlater noted that "mental" may be used to emphasize that management is not merely the performance of work. Further, she emphasized the importance of recognizing that management involves more than just mental activities. She stated, "Although mental activity is of crucial importance, the manager also selects from a wide range of written, verbal, and often gestural activities for communication and motivation."<sup>1</sup>

Babcock and Ater mentioned processes involved in using resources to achieve goals, and listed decision-making processes, organization processes, and interaction processes as commonly included by specialists in home management.<sup>2</sup>

Crandall pointed out, "The managerial process does not operate in a vacuum, separate from other processes."<sup>3</sup> She further explained it is not all there is of management, since the other components of management operate in goal setting, or they comprise the systems which are interrelated with and facilitate the process.<sup>4</sup> Not all writers used the

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<sup>1</sup>Schlater, op. cit., 59:94-95.

<sup>2</sup>Gladys Babcock and Carolyn Ater, A Study of Home Management Education, pp. 3-4.

<sup>3</sup>Elizabeth W. Crandall, "Conceptual Framework I: The Three-Step Managerial Process," Conceptual Framework: Process of Home Management, Proceedings of a Home Management Conference (Washington, D. C.: American Home Economics Association, 1965), p. 22.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 22-23.

terms process and management synonymously.

At a workshop dealing with the concept "process" in home management, held at Michigan State University in 1964, Crandall presented the "traditional position," describing an over-all, goal-oriented process consisting of three major steps or sub-processes. There were listed as (1) planning, which occurs before action is taken; (2) control, which occurs while the plan is being carried out, and may include new decisions; and (3) evaluation, which consists of decisions made in retrospect, but with the future in mind.<sup>1</sup> Two college home management textbooks (Gross and Crandall, Nickell and Dorsey) also base the analysis of management on these three steps. Goodyear and Klohr, however, outlined a five-step managerial process which included planning, initiating action on the plan, recording the results of the action, evaluating the action in relation to goals and goal values, and making a new plan on the basis of the evaluation. They stressed that flexibility characterized the continuing process.<sup>2</sup>

Planning was considered of value because it is done ahead of a project, thereby allowing activities to be seen as a whole and in perspective to each others, and because it

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>Goodyear and Klohr, op. cit., p. 35.

reduces indecision. Goal-setting may be a part of planning if it hasn't been done previously. According to Crandall, planning includes decisions as to what, why (order of importance), when (sequence), where, by whom, and how.<sup>1</sup> If more than one person is involved, communication is necessary. Coordination was another activity discussed by Crandall as a part of planning. Flexibility was emphasized as Crandall discussed the difficulty of accurate prediction and people's dislike of feeling bound by plans.<sup>2</sup> Crandall recommended that any plan be checked for its possibility of success and suggested three possible ways of doing this: first, check to see that means for control are built in; second, consider possible action if various crises occur; and third, consider how other people will react to the plan.<sup>3</sup>

Maloch and Deacon proposed planning as one of the two steps in management, and described it as a series of decisions which were concerned with standards being set or met and/or with ordering tasks or parts of tasks in a sequence. Skills which Maloch and Deacon indicated were necessary for effective planning included foresight, realistic assessment

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<sup>1</sup>Crandall, op. cit., p. 31.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 32.

of situation, and the formulation of alternatives.<sup>1</sup> Deacon and Bratton had earlier indicated similar activities were a part of the planning function by listing: (1) anticipation of conditions or situations, (2) knowledge of resources available, and (3) exploration and comparison of alternatives.<sup>2</sup>

Controlling was described by Crandall as the step in management where the greatest confusion exists about what is included. Crandall maintained controlling was important because people cannot predict perfectly and because final details can be worked out in this step which would have taken too much time to do in planning. It also provides an opportunity to deal with unforeseen happenings. Crandall listed many terms advanced by other writers which she maintained were synonymous with some aspect of control. The list included checking, integration, organization, adjusting, motivating, expediting, and supervision.<sup>3</sup>

Evaluating was a term used by many writers and generally accepted as important, though often overlooked. Maloch and Deacon dismissed the term as not unique to management, but discussed how crucial it is to evaluate

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<sup>1</sup>Maloch and Deacon, op. cit., 58:32-33.

<sup>2</sup>Ruth E. Deacon and Esther Crew Bratton, "Home Management Focus and Function," Journal of Home Economics, 54:764-65, November, 1962.

<sup>3</sup>Crandall, op. cit., pp. 32-33.

decisions.<sup>1</sup> Riebel referred to evaluation as a constant check on progress toward the goals sought.<sup>2</sup> Deacon and Bratton proposed that those who evaluate are able to profit by their experiences, to clarify their goals and values, and to gain foresight into future situations.<sup>3</sup> Crandall reasoned that what was accomplished should be recognized if evaluation was to be helpful instead of depressing.<sup>4</sup> Riebel suggested the satisfaction gained from a decision and its results should be evaluated also.<sup>5</sup> Crandall pointed out that evaluation could be quite formal, or informal, perhaps merely a quick discussion or a mental image.<sup>6</sup>

Although planning, controlling, and evaluating were the three steps in the management process as described by some writers, other writers used one or more of the terms without using the three-step conceptual framework.

Schlater contended that the differences in the explanations of process could be explained in several ways. Perhaps the diversity was semantic in origin, with new terms

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<sup>1</sup>Maloch and Deacon, op. cit., 58:32-35.

<sup>2</sup>Riebel, op. cit., 52:19.

<sup>3</sup>Deacon and Bratton, op. cit., 54:766.

<sup>4</sup>Crandall, op. cit., p. 34.

<sup>5</sup>Riebel, loc. cit.

<sup>6</sup>Crandall, loc. cit.

developing faster than separate and distinct concepts. The level of generality of the term differed; sometimes it was generic, sometimes more specific. And some writers viewed process more broadly than others.<sup>1</sup>

Decision-making, as commonly defined, is the choice of one alternative from the several or many which are available. Decision-making has long been recognized as being of importance in home management; it has been variously called the heart of management, the basic element of management, an integral phase of management, and an essential ingredient in all steps in management. Nickell and Dorsey emphasized that the three steps of planning, controlling, and evaluating each require decision-making.<sup>2</sup> Decision-making takes time, it is not done all at once; and it is based on a hierarchy of values and goals. It was identified as a mental action, although Knoll commented that it includes all thought and activity leading to and including the final decision.<sup>3</sup> Gross and Crandall pointed out that sometimes action rests on habitual behavior; when behavior is habitual or a reflex a true decision has not taken place.<sup>4</sup> However Goodyear and

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<sup>1</sup>Schlater, op. cit., 59:94.

<sup>2</sup>Nickell and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 40.

<sup>3</sup>Knoll, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>4</sup>Gross and Crandall, op. cit., p. 64.



Klohr indicated that some decision-making is essential no matter how familiar or frequent the task, because "the resources available and the situation in which the repetitive task is undertaken are never exactly duplicated."<sup>1</sup>

Previous decisions and anticipated future demands influence decision makers. Families never stop making decisions; a successful decision leads only momentarily to the end of decision-making.

The way decisions are made has been divided into steps or activities, similar to the steps of the scientific method or of problem-solving. These usually include (1) defining or clarifying the problem, (2) discovering alternative courses of action, (3) thinking through alternatives to their consequences, (4) evaluating the consequences, and (5) selecting an alternative.

In Knoll's conceptual framework for home management, two kinds of decision-making activities were recognized. One was called the scientific method and included the steps mentioned above. Knoll maintained that decision-making may also encompass activities related to creative thinking. She noted that the procedures might not be mutually exclusive, although one seemed to be primarily innovation and the other calculation. Knoll also emphasized the great range in

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<sup>1</sup>Goodyear and Klohr, op. cit., p. 34.

magnitude of decisions faced by a family and suggested perhaps all decisions, great and small, need not be plotted on the same map.<sup>1</sup>

Paolucci asserted that the processes of decision-making differ with the kind of decision. Decisions made by families were grouped into two categories, economic and social. Arriving at a choice in an economic decision involves selecting one course of action and rejecting other possible courses of action. The steps, again, are the ones in the scientific method. Social decision-making occurs in a situation when there is conflict in values or goals among family members. Paolucci reported:

The choice does not consist of selecting one particular alternative because it best maximizes a given goal, but rather the process is one of creating a new course of action out of an indefinite number of possibilities present in the decision situation. The choice is a result of mediation rather than selection.<sup>2</sup>

In another reference Paolucci suggested, "Management in the home may be viewed as a series of inter-related and inter-dependent decisions." To clarify the relationship between and among decisions she proposed two patterns of managerial decision-making, represented in Figure 1.

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<sup>1</sup>Marjorie M. Knoll, "Toward a Conceptual Framework in Home Management," Journal of Home Economics, 55:336, May, 1963.

<sup>2</sup>Beatrice Paolucci, "Family Decision-Making, Focus, p. 4.

"Central-satellite patterns" include a significant, central choice with each satellite choice dependent upon and related to the central choice. The central choice needs to be made in the most rational way possible because of its far-reaching effects.<sup>1</sup>

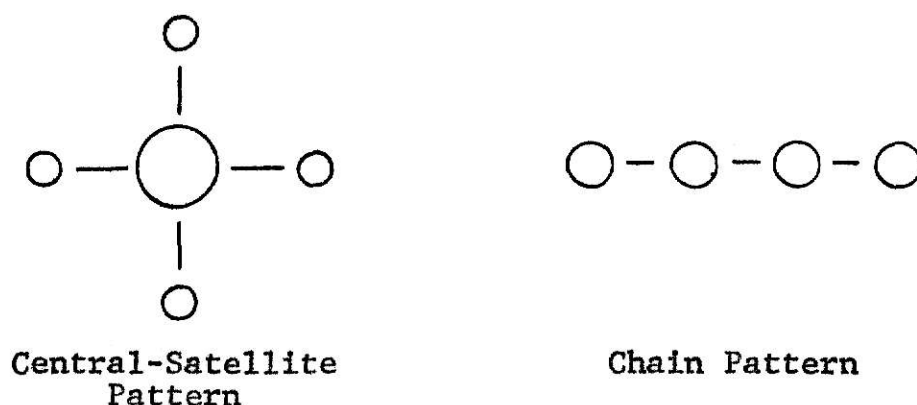


FIGURE 1

### PATTERNS OF MANAGERIAL DECISION-MAKING<sup>2</sup>

A straight line characterized "chain patterns" of decision-making, with sequential dependence of one decision upon another. Each decision in the chain pattern is directly dependent upon the preceding choice; although the chain can start or stop at any point, single choices are influenced by the last decision in the pattern. This pattern pointed out

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<sup>1</sup>Beatrice Paolucci, "Managerial Decision Patterns," Penney's Fashions and Fabrics, Fall/Winter, 1963, p. 13.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

the self-perpetuating nature of managerial decisions.<sup>1</sup>

Organization was another concept which was discussed by several writers. Knoll indicated that responsible family members organize their efforts and the available resources in such a way that the needs of the family will be satisfied. Knoll interpreted organization as:

. . . an area that would (1) include the day-to-day activities of coping with resources, environmental factors, and changing family demands; (2) recognize the dynamics of day-to-day management; (3) encompass the idea of the interweaving of resources in different ways to meet varying situations; (4) reflect the integrating of numerous factors necessary to keep the family moving on its course.<sup>2</sup>

Knoll discussed a study by Tasker which examined two elements, planning and co-ordinating the activities of a home, which create the orderly design defined as organization. The investigation of planning involved routine plans, where the same plan will suffice for a period of time, and picture planning, mental planning approached as a picturing of the things being planned. Co-ordination included the identification of overlapping activities (at least two activities going on at the same time) and clustering activities (activities done in sequence but which seem to fit together in a

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Knoll, "Toward a Conceptual Framework in Home Management," loc. cit.

time block).<sup>1</sup>

Theories of home management. When an examination was made of the ways the various concepts were combined into theories of home management, similarities persisted, but there were differences also, often in emphasis rather than in content.

At a conference on home management, Crandall described the traditional position when she stated:

There is an over-all, goal-oriented managerial process which involves a number of sub-processes, all requiring numerous related decisions, which are present in varying degrees in all management situations, along with other functions or sub-processes which may or may not be present in a given situation.<sup>2</sup>

The grouping of functions which appeared most meaningful for home management consisted of the three major steps previously discussed, and based on the following time perspective presented by Crandall:

Planning occurs before action is taken; control occurs during the carrying out of the plan, but is quite different from a mere carrying out of the plan without new decisions; and evaluation consists of decisions made in retrospect but with the future in mind.<sup>3</sup>

Gross and Crandall, in their textbook, Management for Modern Families, described home management as follows:

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 55:337.

<sup>2</sup>Crandall, op. cit., p. 23.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Home management consists of a series of decisions making up the process of using family resources to achieve family goals. The process consists of three more or less consecutive steps: planning; controlling the various elements of the plan while carrying it through, whether executed by oneself or by others; and evaluating results preparatory to future planning.<sup>1</sup>

Figure 2 incorporates Gross and Crandall's description and illustrates the general chronological order of the steps of management.<sup>2</sup> With more than one goal being considered at any one time some overlapping of the steps will occur.

In the textbook Management in Family Living, Nickell and Dorsey utilized a shorter definition of home management, but illustrated it by a slightly more complex diagram, simplified in Figure 3.<sup>3</sup> As defined by Nickell and Dorsey, "Home management is planning, controlling, and evaluating the use of the resources of the family for the purposes of attaining family goals."<sup>4</sup>

Goodyear and Klohr entitled their book Managing for Effective Living and did not limit their discussion to management in the home. Application was made to homes, however, as well as to individuals. Goodyear and Klohr depicted management as follows:

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<sup>1</sup>Gross and Crandall, op. cit., p. 4.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 6.

<sup>3</sup>Nickell and Dorsey, op. cit., p. 38.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 36.

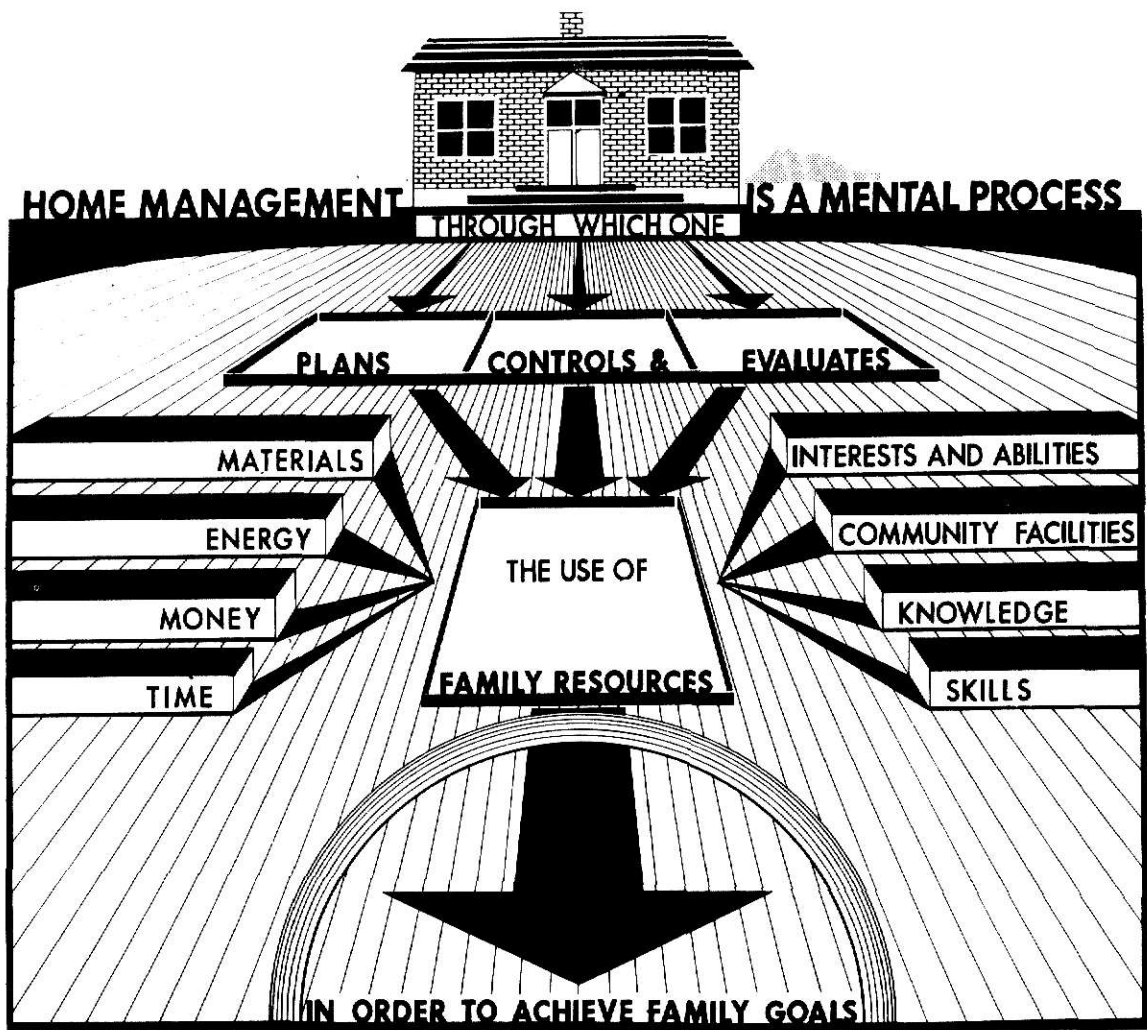


FIGURE 2

WHAT HOME MANAGEMENT IS  
 (FROM GROSS AND CRANDALL)

Home Management Includes Planning, Controlling, and Evaluating  
the Use of the Resources of the Family:

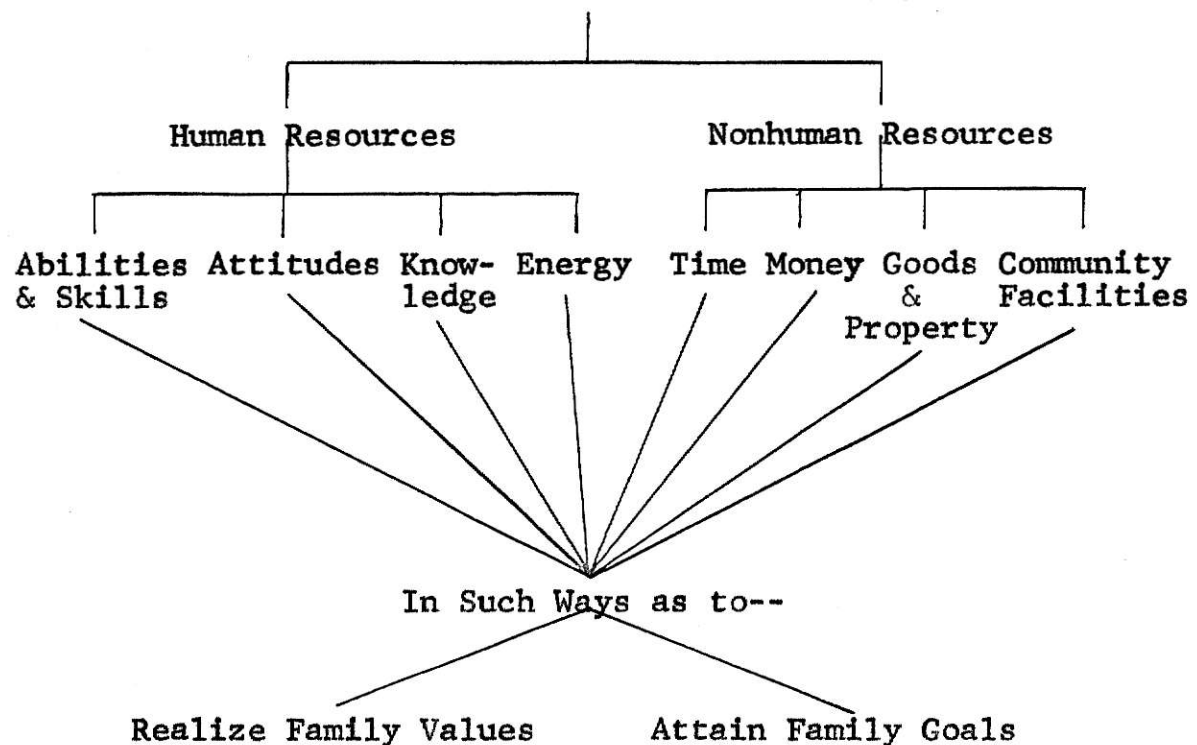


FIGURE 3

THE INTEGRATIVE ROLE OF HOME MANAGEMENT  
(ADAPTED FROM NICKELL AND DORSEY)



Management encompasses those processes that enable individuals and families to realize their values and achieve goals through effective use of human and material resources.<sup>1</sup>

They reiterated that values come from many sources and determine goals, and that for effective management, decision making is essential. "Because goals . . . vary for individuals and families just as resources vary," they emphasized, "a 'good' decision in one situation may not be the best in another situation."<sup>2</sup> Specific conditions must be considered for each decision. Goodyear and Klohr regarded intelligent decisions as follows:

Intelligent decisions depend on a knowledge of all factors involved in the situation; availability of resources, ability of persons involved, and the inter-relatedness of goals . . . that impinge on other managerial tasks.<sup>3</sup>

The term "managerial process" for Goodyear and Klohr encompassed organization and integration of resources, recognized the importance to all phases of management of decision making, and implied continual evaluation and adjustment of resource use. They outlined a five-step process, mentioned previously, which included planning, initiating action, recording results, comparing results to goals, and using evaluation to make a new plan. Goodyear and Klohr maintained

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<sup>1</sup>Goodyear and Klohr, op. cit., p. 33.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 34.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

that management should have a flexibility which encourages review and an acceptance of needed change. They said that the familiarity and the complexity of a task would determine the emphasis.<sup>1</sup>

Kivlin described home management in a slightly different light when she expounded:

Home management is the process through which families and individuals clarify their values and try to understand the relative importance of these values in changing situations. Because life is satisfying to the extent that the values held are fulfilled and goals are chosen which will lead to the fulfillment of these values. To obtain these goals, at a standard considered to be both satisfactory and attainable, the family uses the material and human resources at its command. That more goals or higher standards may be reached, resources are conserved (used wisely), substituted for each other, and increased. The methods used in this process are as varied as are families.<sup>2</sup>

The emphasis moved from the steps or action involved to the result and its effect on people. This was even more predominant in the description by Malone and Malone, when they stated:

When there is good total management, resources will be used so family members can lead productive and useful lives, making contributions to the welfare of society while improving their own standards of living and self-development. Management, in its broadest aspects, helps family members be the best people of which they are capable, physically, mentally, emotionally, and spiritually. So the final test of good management is the kind of people it produces and the contribution they

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 35.

<sup>2</sup>Kivlin, op. cit., p. 19.

make to the society of which they are a part.<sup>1</sup>

Some theories or proposed frameworks of home management have been advanced by authors hoping to encourage research by providing bases for empirical testing. Deacon and Bratton proposed six functions through which management is achieved and discussed criteria for evaluating each. Already familiar terms, the functions proposed by Deacon and Bratton were: (1) goal-defining, (2) planning, (3) decision-making, (4) expediting, (5) integrating, and (6) evaluating. It was suggested by Deacon and Bratton that the goal-defining function could be judged by analyzing the recognition of, and appreciation for, values in establishing goals, and the recognition that the availability of resources is related to the setting of realistic goals.<sup>2</sup> To study the planning function, Deacon and Bratton recommended consideration of the following three aspects:

1. Anticipation of conditions to be met or situations to be faced, both in the long and short run
2. Knowledge of available material resources; recognition of personal abilities as well as limitations
3. Exploration of possible alternatives and analysis of their relative merits<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Carl C. Malone and Lucile Holaday Malone, Decision Making and Management for Farm and Home, p. 246.

<sup>2</sup>Deacon and Bratton, op. cit., 54:763-64.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 54:764-65.

For analysis of the specific act of making decisions, the criterion involved the ability and willingness to come to a reasonable conclusion after the alternatives had been explored and the consequences considered. Researchers studying the expediting function were instructed to look at the organization of facilities and procedures being used to carry out the decisions.<sup>1</sup>

Four criteria were given for analyzing the integrating function. These dealt with (1) the consistency and continuity shown in meeting varied and recurring situations, (2) the ability to make adjustments, when needed, that were consistent with the over-all objectives, (3) keeping the effort expended proportionate to the importance of the results expected, and (4) the communication and understanding of roles in the use of resources among family members.<sup>2</sup> Deacon and Bratton proposed that the evaluating function could be judged by the awareness shown of how significant certain actions or decisions had been to a given purpose, and the awareness of over-all situations.<sup>3</sup>

Maloch and Deacon utilized a "systems approach" in their proposed framework for home management. A system was

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 54:765.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 54:765-66.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 54:766.

described as a collection of interrelated elements characterized by internal organization, a boundary, and functional unity. Maloch and Deacon compared home management as follows:

The family or household is a social system which can be recognized by its membership and its own set of values and resources. Management provides the functional unity within the boundary of the household whereby goals and other demands are responded to through the use of resources.<sup>1</sup>

In Maloch and Deacon's schema,<sup>2</sup> illustrated in Figure 4, demands and resources were proposed as input to the system, and resource use as output. Goals and/or events which require action are demands, while resources are the means for meeting demands which are available and recognized. In the home management framework, Maloch and Deacon propose planning and controlling as major components or subsystems in the use of resources with respect to demands.<sup>3</sup>

Planning, as proposed for Maloch and Deacon's framework, consists of a series of decisions made about standards and/or sequence of action. They suggested that as it is often used, decision-making is a choice, but not a plan for action. However, planning includes decisions as to whether demands can be met with the resources available, how well, and then

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<sup>1</sup>Maloch and Deacon, op. cit., 58:31.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 58:34.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 58:31-32.

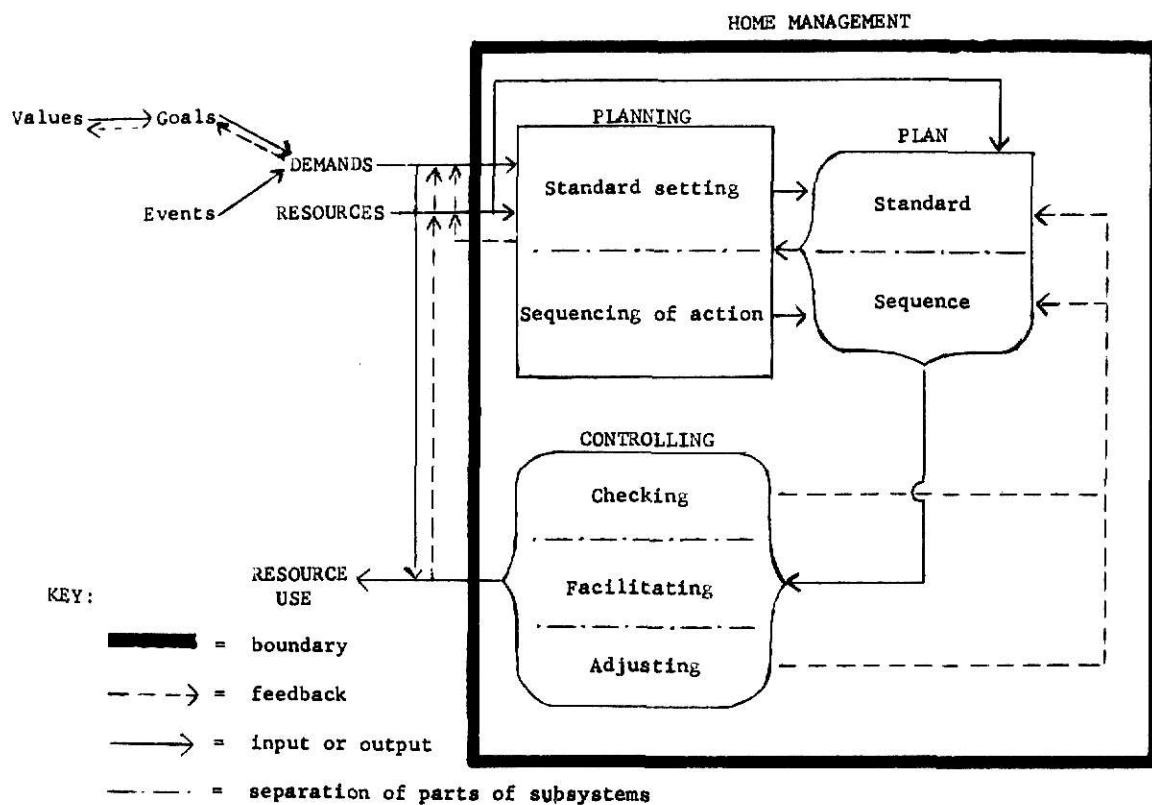


FIGURE 4

PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR HOME MANAGEMENT  
(FROM MALOCH AND DEACON)

how and when they can be met.<sup>1</sup> Reconciling the available resources with the demands results in a measure of quality and/or quantity which Maloch and Deacon called a standard. Standards may be situation-related, that is they may differ for the same task under different situations. Sequence of action refers to the ordering parts of a task or of several tasks. The number of tasks and the number of people involved influences the complexity of the sequencing.<sup>2</sup>

The second subsystem in Maloch and Deacon's framework was called controlling, and was defined as the regulation of the behavior which had been planned. Controlling included the three phrases of checking, facilitating, and adjusting the decisions which had been made about standards and/or sequence of action.<sup>3</sup>

With demands and resources as input into the system or family, and these being affected by the planning and controlling which is carried out within the system, the output of home management is resource use. The relation of output to input indicates the effectiveness of the management.<sup>4</sup>

Knoll proposed a conceptual framework for home

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 58:32.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 58:33.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 58:34.

management which recognized the economic and social environment within which families choose values and aims. Shown in Figure 5, Knoll's framework also indicated that innovation as well as calculation is a part of decision-making.<sup>1</sup>

Schlater defined management in the following way:

Management is a dynamic, on-going process which encompasses those human actions directed toward the realization of values and goals; the prime feature of such goal-directed activities is the systematic series of actions which constitute the making and implementing of interrelated decisions under conditions of uncertainty and limited resources.<sup>2</sup>

She expressed the belief that management is management whether applied to industry or the home. The process of management was divided into two major subprocesses (decision-making and decision-implementing) and represented symbolically as  $M=dm+di$ . "Further," Schlater explained, "these two major subprocesses are not necessarily mutually exclusive; decision-making may be required in the course of decision-implementing."<sup>3</sup> Schlater theorized four components of decision-making: (1) recognizing the problem, (2) seeking alternative solutions, (3) analyzing the alternatives, and (4) choosing one alternative. In decision-implementing she admitted less clarity, but felt that the recent discussions in home management about

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<sup>1</sup>Knoll, "Toward a Conceptual Framework in Home Management," op. cit., 55:335.

<sup>2</sup>Schlater, op. cit., 59:95.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.



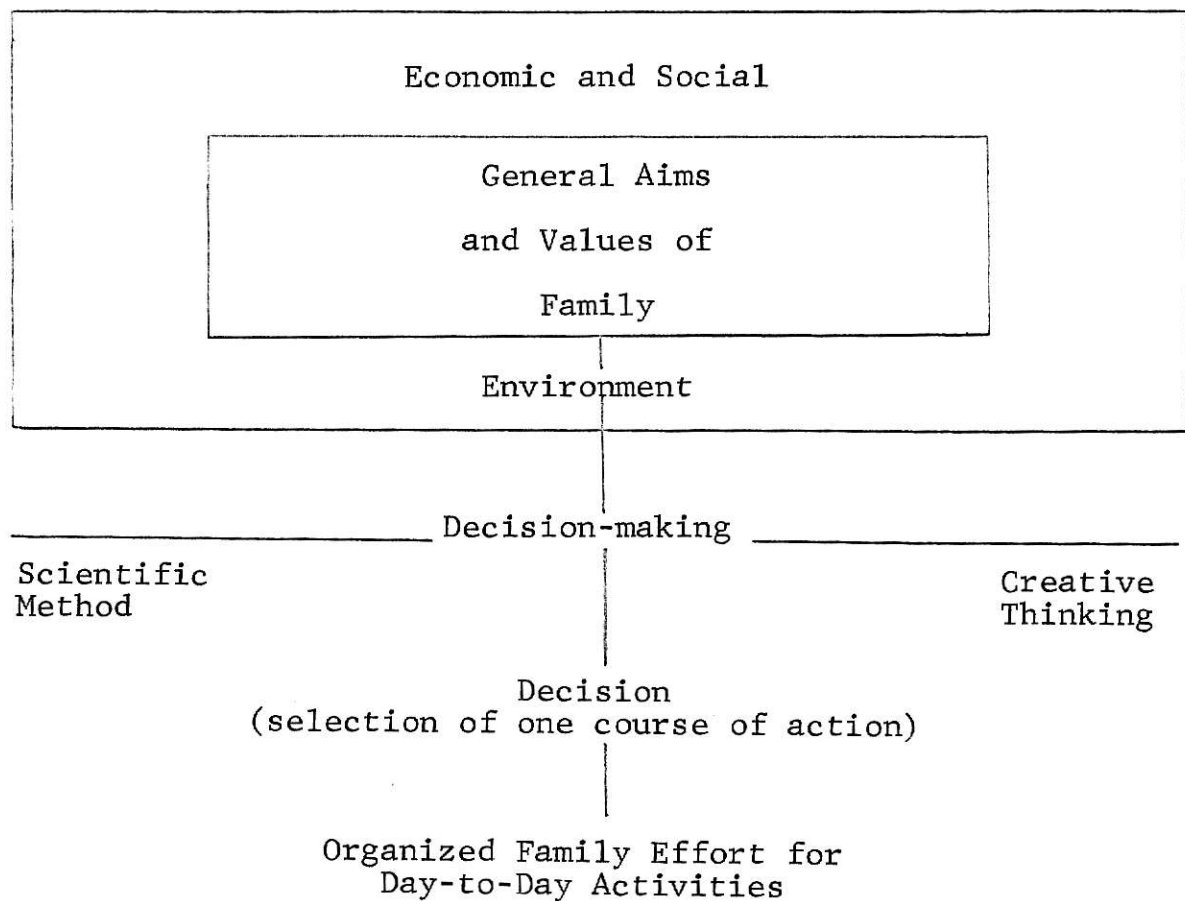


FIGURE 5  
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR HOME MANAGEMENT  
(FROM KNOLL)

"organization" were pertinent, because of the closeness of meaning of the two terms. For situations where the decision-maker and the decision-implementer are not the same person, Schlater proposed the following components of decision-implementing: assigning, delegating, actuating, guiding, and co-ordinating. When the decision-maker and decision-implementer are the same person, guiding was seen as the component least applicable. Decision-making may be required in decision-implementing, yet it is not the only element included. Schlater stated, "All the components of decision-implementing have one distinguishing characteristic in common: they are something more than decision-making."<sup>1</sup> The mental aspect predominates in decision-making, but decision-implementing is heavily weighted with performance.

After investigation of background literature the writer defined home management as the way individuals and families use the resources available to attain selected goals related to home and family living. Many different terms were used to describe the operations by which goals are selected and resources used to attain them. It seems that the greatest diversity of opinion is not in what goes on, but in how what happens is to be broken down into parts and what the segments are to be called. It appears that

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 59:96.

preciseness is lacking, probably because of the complexity of the activities involved and the variations that are possible in any of the activities.

The writer concluded that the terminology used was not as important, especially in junior high school classes, as recognition of the complexity of home management, and opportunities to have experiences with some home management concepts.

## LEARNING EXPERIENCES FOR HOME MANAGEMENT

### CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

The learning experiences in this study were developed to facilitate the integration of selected home management concepts into several subject areas of junior high school homemaking education. The home management concepts, two generalizations which relate the concepts, sub-generalizations which pupils may develop, four behavioral objectives, and the learning experiences will be found in this section.

#### Home Management Concepts

After reviewing background literature the writer defined home management as the way individuals and families use the resources available to attain selected goals related to home and family living. One of the purposes of the study was to identify home management concepts which are applicable to junior high school homemaking pupils. The following concepts were selected as being applicable, in some simple form, to junior high school pupils in homemaking classes:

1. Goals - Values
  - Hierarchy of values and goals
  - Intensity of values and goals
  - Standards
2. Resources
  - Assessment of resources
  - Limitation of resources
  - Interchangeability of resources
3. Flexibility

4. Environmental influences
5. Relationships among individuals
6. Decision making
  - Recognizing problem
  - Seeking alternative solutions
  - Analyzing the alternatives
  - Choosing an alternative
7. Decision implementing
  - Assigning
  - Delegating
  - Actuating
  - Guiding
  - Co-ordinating
8. Economic decision-making processes
9. Social decision-making processes
10. Interrelationship of decisions
11. Managerial unit
12. Sense of satisfaction

#### Development of the Learning Experiences

The second purpose of the study was to develop learning experiences for junior high school pupils which facilitate the integration of selected home management concepts into other subject areas in homemaking education. Two generalizations were chosen which encompassed most of the selected home management concepts. Two objectives were identified for each generalization, stated in terms of behaviors expected from the pupils. Examples of generalizations to be developed by the pupils were listed under each

objective.

Learning experiences for each objective were selected in light of the concepts and generalizations to be developed by the pupils and representing several homemaking subject areas. Situations and means for evaluation, teaching procedures, and specific resources to be used were incorporated into the statement of the learning experiences.

While the objectives were stated at what was thought to be a minimally useful level of behavior, an effort was made to select learning experiences which would encourage development to several levels of attainment in the cognitive, affective, and/or psychomotor domains. Activities in the cognitive domain are the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills. Activities dealing with interest, attitudes, values and the development of appreciations would be in the affective domain, while if an activity emphasized some muscular or motor skill, some manipulation of material or objects, or some act which requires neuromuscular co-ordination, it would be in the psychomotor domain. An attempt to classify the level of attainment reached by pupils successfully completing the learning experiences was based on the following three taxonomies:

1. Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

Handbook I: Cognitive Domain<sup>1</sup>

2. Krathwohl's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.  
Handbook II: Affective Domain<sup>2</sup>

3. Simpson's The Classification of Educational Objectives, Psychomotor Domain<sup>3</sup>

(See outlines of each domain in Appendix A)

No attempt was made to identify the grade level at which the learning experiences would be most appropriate. Although there are characteristics typical of seventh graders, eighth graders, and ninth graders, there are also differences within each group, from class to class, and from community to community. Presented without reference to grade level, the learning experiences may be selected according to the needs of a particular group of pupils.

Being selected experiences, there was no attempt to present a recommended sequence in which the experiences are to be used, but learning experiences aimed at higher levels of attainment should probably follow earlier experiences with the same concepts.

No plans for teaching and evaluating the learning

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<sup>1</sup>Benjamin S. Bloom (ed.), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook I: Cognitive Domain.

<sup>2</sup>David R. Krathwohl (ed.), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook II: Affective Domain.

<sup>3</sup>Elizabeth J. Simpson, "The Classification of Educational Objectives, Psychomotor Domain," Illinois Teacher of Home Economics, 10:110-44, Winter, 1966-67.

experiences were included in the study.

### Generalizations and Objectives

MAJOR GENERALIZATION I: Goals are achieved through the wise use of resources.

OBJECTIVE #1: Perceives resources available to individuals and groups

SUB-GENERALIZATIONS:<sup>1</sup>

- i. Resources are those human and material means used to achieve goals.<sup>2</sup>
- ii. Human resources include time, energy, abilities and skills, knowledge and attitudes.<sup>2</sup>
- iii. Material resources include income and savings, possessions, credit, and community facilities.<sup>2</sup>
- iv. Knowledge of resources available is the first step in planning for the use of resources.<sup>2</sup>
- v. Owned goods are resources in that they give satisfactions to the family in the services they render, the beauty they provide, or simply in the pleasure of ownership.<sup>3</sup>
- vi. Ability to communicate effectively within the family, or in any group, may be a resource in building understanding and cooperation.<sup>3</sup>
- vii. Different forms or combinations of resources may yield similar satisfactions.<sup>4</sup>
- viii. Resources may be substituted for each other and/or used alternately, but there is a scarcity of resources at a particular time and place.
- ix. The cost of using resources for any purpose is that which must be given up because of such use.
- x. Frequently used articles stored at place of first use reduce one's use of time and energy in every day tasks.

OBJECTIVE #2: Understands that goals are related to the use of resources

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<sup>1</sup>Superscripts on sub-generalizations refer to reference from which the statement was adapted or drawn. Key is located directly following the outline.



## SUB-GENERALIZATIONS:

- i. A goal is an end toward which a person works.<sup>2</sup>
- ii. Values are ideas of the desirable held strongly enough to influence behavior.<sup>2</sup>
- iii. Every individual has values which give direction to behavior and meaning to life.<sup>4</sup>
- iv. A standard is a criterion or set of criteria for a particular thing used as a basis of comparison.<sup>2</sup>
- v. An individual's or family's use of resources is affected by their values, goals, and standards.
- vi. A careful analysis of what are priorities helps eliminate unnecessaries.
- vii. Attainment of goals is facilitated if goals are flexible and consistent with a person's abilities and resources.<sup>2</sup>
- viii. An individual's values, goals, and standards are influenced by human and material resources and his cultural background.<sup>2</sup>
- ix. Good work habits and skill in following directions contribute to efficiency and satisfaction in performance of tasks.<sup>5</sup>

MAJOR GENERALIZATION II: The conscious use of decision making and implementing techniques includes consideration of interacting factors which influence behavior.

OBJECTIVE #3: Recognizes some of the factors which influence decisions

## SUB-GENERALIZATIONS:

- i. Decisions are affected by the interaction of factors which influence behavior.<sup>4</sup>
- ii. Choices are influenced by the range of possibilities afforded by the situation.<sup>2</sup>
- iii. Personal plans are affected by the plans and needs of others.<sup>2</sup>
- iv. Values, goals, and standards are interrelated as forces influencing the use of resources in making a decision.<sup>2</sup>
- v. The factors involved in making clothing decisions include the individual's resources, needs and desires, and social environment.<sup>4</sup>

- vi. The values, standards, and goals of the family provide the bases for planning the use of money.<sup>6</sup>
- vii. The arrangement of equipment and supplies in work areas affects the organization and direction of work, the methods used, and efficiency in the performance of activities.<sup>4</sup>

OBJECTIVE #4: Is able to use decision making and implementing techniques in selected situations

SUB-GENERALIZATIONS:

- i. Clearly defined plans help one accomplish goals.<sup>2</sup>
- ii. Routines establish a pattern of action which facilitates accomplishment of a task.<sup>2</sup>
- iii. Decision making includes recognizing what problem you are facing, exploring alternatives, anticipating outcomes of each alternative action, and selecting an action which meets the objective.<sup>2</sup>
- iv. Decision implementing may include assigning, delegating, actuating, guiding, and co-ordinating.
- v. An awareness of alternatives increases the individual's ability to make choices according to his goals and needs.
- vi. Evaluation of a choice is accomplished through determining the degree of satisfaction of needs and goals.
- vii. Consideration of factors involved in purchasing goods may result in greater satisfaction from money spent.

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<sup>2</sup>Home Economics Education, Homemaking Aspect, Grades 1-12. Subject Field Series, Bulletin D-7 (Springfield: Illinois Curriculum Program, Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1966), pp. 111-20.

<sup>3</sup>Laura Ann Douglas Kivlin, "The Beliefs and Reported Practices of Two Groups of Pennsylvania Homemaking Teachers in the Area of Home Management," unpublished Doctor's dissertation, pp. 89-90.

<sup>4</sup>Concepts and Generalizations: Their Place in High School Home Economics Curriculum Development (Washington, D. C.: American Home Economics Association, 1967), pp. 25-52.

<sup>5</sup>Home Economics Education. Syllabus for a Comprehensive Program (Albany: The University of the State of New York, The State Education, Bureau of Home Economics Education, 1965), p. 66.

<sup>6</sup>Education for Home and Family Living. A Curriculum Resource Material for Public Schools. Bulletin No. 2141. Revised edition (Lansing, Michigan: The Department of Public Instruction, 1963), p. 19.

## Learning Experiences

OBJECTIVE #1: Perceives resources available to individuals and groups

### A. In Personal Relations Units:

Discuss some of the reasons for friends  
Can we be a resource to our friends and vice versa? How? Same questions relating to families.  
(Cognitive - Comprehension)

### B. In Clothing Units:

Discuss ways in which clothing needs can be met:

By caring for what we have (deal with knowledge and abilities used to store, clean, and repair)

By using what we have to the best advantage (possessions, energy, knowledge, attitudes, purchasing power)

By becoming a wise shopper (purchasing power, knowledge, information, time)

By developing a skill, perhaps (time, ability, attitudes)

(Cognitive - Comprehension)

Prepare display of sewing equipment (needed for project). Use references and guides for setting up criteria for selection of equipment. Discuss how having proper equipment, and using it properly, can increase efficiency and make a job easier.

(Cognitive - Application)

Teacher role play girl preparing to sew. Pupils describe and compile a list of work habits. Discuss how these habits are useful.

(Cognitive - Comprehension)

Discuss how pupils will know what to do (basic techniques): demonstrations by teachers, exhibits, directions in book or guide sheet. Why is being able to follow directions an important ability to develop? Where else can this ability be used?

(Cognitive - Comprehension)

C. In Foods Units:

Demonstrate use and care of kitchen equipment and utensils (some teacher and some pupil demonstrations). How can using equipment and utensils properly make work easier?  
(Psychomotor - Guided response)

Examine a newspaper and identify as many ways as possible that a newspaper can be a resource to a meal planner and food buyer. Discuss the uses of food ads, weather reports, columns on "best food buys," etc. in planning and buying for meals or parties.  
(Affective - Receiving)

**OBJECTIVE #2: Understands that goals relate to the use of resources**

**A. In Personal Relations Units:**

View film or read case study or story.  
Discuss goals and resources. (Suggested film: The Owl and Fred Jones from the Ohio State Department of Health, 450 Town Street, Columbus). Suggest how substitution, interdependence could occur.  
(Cognitive - Analysis)

Keep record of activities for a 24 hour period. Explain why each activity was done. Try to relate each to a goal or value. (See "What Did I Do Today?" in Appendix B)  
(Cognitive - Evaluation)

**B. In Clothing Units:**

Analyze some simple activities (such as putting up hair on rollers). Identify goals and resources used to achieve them.  
(Cognitive - Analysis)

Display a poster on which each pupil indicates her progress on a project (garment construction possibly). (See Progress Chart in Appendix B). Discuss completion of garment as one of the goals of the unit and how use of resources or lack of resources may affect the degree to which the goal is attained.  
(Affective - Responding; Cognitive - Knowledge)

**D. In Home Furnishings Units:**

Observe minute dramas presented by class members and identify value or goal depicted. (See examples of "Minute Dramas" in Appendix B)  
(Cognitive - Comprehension)

Making preparation in groups, present minute dramas to illustrate factors that determine goals or various ways different families would use their resources to reach similar goals. Discuss and summarize.  
(Affective - Receiving; Cognitive - Application)

**OBJECTIVE #3: Recognizes some of the factors which influence decisions**

**A. In Personal Relations Units:**

List some choices you have made today. Give your reasons for deciding as you did. Which choices meant considering other people?  
(Affective - Responding; Cognitive - Analysis)

Make a list of wishes and rank them in order of importance. Analyze how one's wishes and desires are related to values.  
(Cognitive - Analysis)

Ask people of various ages to list their wishes in rank order. Compare and discuss how and why a person's goals differ at different stages of life. Compare lists of class members and discuss why people have different goals at the same stage of life.  
(Cognitive - Analysis)

**B. In Clothing Units:**

Organize sewing equipment and supplies in tote tray. Analyze influences on organization.  
(Psychomotor - Guided response, trial and error)

Evaluate self on management in laboratory, using "How Is My Management." (See in Appendix B)  
(Cognitive - Evaluation)

Collect newspaper and magazine advertisements for clothing and group into types. Discuss the ways ads influence the consumer to purchase goods and services.  
(Cognitive - Application)

Discuss what factors influence the amount of money spent on clothing by and/or for an early adolescent.  
(Cognitive - Comprehension)



Keep track of how another class member spends fifteen minutes of time (while observer is waiting for the machine, etc.). When each pupil has a record of how she spent fifteen minutes, analyze it. Make a graph of kinds of activities, if possible. Discuss some of the ways time or energy was wasted. Set up an experiment with one of the frequently described tasks, done several ways. Appoint time keeper. Class discuss good and bad points of various methods or sequences. Do some take more time and less energy or vice versa? Discuss "Does everyone do his best work doing it the very same way?" What were the bases for methods being good or bad? Can we apply these to our own work habits? (Could be used in foods laboratory also)  
(Cognitive - Evaluation)

C. In Foods Units:

Discuss what influences selection of a meal or snack.  
(Cognitive - Comprehension)

Analyze time and work plan for a laboratory lesson. What factors influenced the planning?  
(Cognitive - Analysis)

Experiment with table setting and decoration for a variety of occasions. Keep away from traditional concepts of pieces included in a cover and articles used for decoration for some of the occasions. When would the table settings created be appropriate? How would you react to such a table?  
(Psychomotor - Guided response, trial and error; Affective - Receiving)

D. In Home Furnishings and Care Units:

Analyze plan for storage of clothing and personal belongings. Revise to improve if needed. Discuss what influenced storage decisions.  
(Cognitive - Analysis)

OBJECTIVE #4: Is able to use decision making and implementing techniques in selected situations

A. In Personal Relations Units:

Write problems in management of time, energy, and money in the form of "I wish I could . . ."  
Draw from WISH BOX and use to apply steps in decision making. Role play the problems and some possible solutions. Discuss the use of resources in reaching goal and the effect of the problem and possible solutions on family and peers.  
(Cognitive - Application)

B. In Clothing Units:

Develop routine for grooming activities.  
Discuss how decisions were made.  
(Cognitive - Application)  
Carry out plan for one week. Evaluate effectiveness of the plan, were goals reached? Revise plan if needed.  
(Cognitive - Evaluation)

Present skits portraying early adolescent in clothing department of a local store (See "Sally the Shopper" in Appendix B).  
Select characteristics of wise shopper.  
Apply steps in decision making to buying a garment.  
(Cognitive - Application)

From an assortment of ready-made garments, each pupil choose a garment he might purchase. Analyze the steps used in arriving at the decision. Discuss what influenced the choice.  
(Cognitive - Application)

Given certain clothing needs and a limited amount of money make decisions as to how the money is to be spent.  
(Cognitive - Synthesis)

C. In Foods Units:

Analyze decisions necessary in pupils' planning for a foods laboratory.  
(Cognitive - Application)

Choose, from different forms, one food for laboratory preparation. Describe steps in arriving at decision.  
(Cognitive - Analysis)

Analyze decisions made in selecting a menu. Discuss the implementation of the meal plan.  
(Cognitive - Application)

Analyze major decisions made in planning a party.  
(Cognitive - Application)

D. In Home Furnishings and Care Units:

Develop a planned routine for caring for own room or (as a class) the homemaking room. Discuss decisions involved in the planning and how decisions were reached.  
(Cognitive - Synthesis)

## SUMMARY

The emphasis in home economics education is on the conceptual approach to learning. Concepts make it easier to organize knowledge, make learning more permanent, and allow individuals to see relationships between ideas. Concepts develop as a person perceives, discriminates, and has varied experiences with an object or idea. It is the responsibility of the teacher to select vital concepts and to plan and implement learning experiences so that pupils are able to develop these concepts and related generalizations.

Early adolescents are experiencing a temporary state of disorganization. They are perplexed as they try to cope with the complexities of their own rapid growth and changing attitudes, the whirl of school work and social activities, the fast-paced teen culture of which they are now a part, and the rapidly changing civilization into which they must fit.

Paralleling the work of scholars in the other areas of study, home management specialists have been attempting to identify the concepts in their discipline. The majority of writers identify values, goals and resources as major concepts. Vital to the field also, are the types of decisions and how they are made and carried out.

The purposes of this study were (1) to identify the major concepts and generalizations in home management which

are applicable to junior high school homemaking pupils; and (2) to develop meaningful learning experiences, to facilitate the integration of selected home management concepts into other subject areas of junior high school homemaking education.

A list of home management concepts considered applicable, in some simple form, to junior high school homemaking classes was compiled. Major and sub-generalizations which gave meaning to or indicated relationships between the concepts were listed. The two major generalizations were the following:

1. Goals are achieved through the wise use of resources.
2. The conscious use of decision making and implementing techniques includes consideration of interacting factors which influence behavior.

Two objectives for each major generalization were developed and learning experiences involving various home economics subject areas were grouped under these objectives. Evaluation devices, teaching procedures, and resources for concept development were incorporated into the statement of the learning experiences. Learning experiences were classified as to level and domain of the described behavior. No plans for teaching and evaluating the learning experiences were included.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Further study is needed to develop methods of evaluating concept development that are applicable to classroom situations.

2. An analysis which might be useful could attempt to answer the question: Should home management be integrated into other home economics subject areas entirely or should units such as management of personal resources and money management be in the curriculum in addition to the inclusion of home management concepts in other subject area units?

3. Additional learning experiences to help pupils develop home management concepts, planned for several levels of conceptual development, may be necessary to meet the needs of a specific group of pupils.

4. Additional evaluation devices should be developed for pupils to use in clarifying values and goals and in analyzing management activities.

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## APPENDIX A

AN OUTLINE OF THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN OF THE  
TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

KNOWLEDGE

- 1.00 Knowledge
  - 1.10 Knowledge of specifics
    - 1.11 Knowledge of terminology
    - 1.12 Knowledge of specific facts
  - 1.20 Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics
    - 1.21 Knowledge of conventions
    - 1.22 Knowledge of trends and sequences
    - 1.23 Knowledge of classifications and categories
    - 1.24 Knowledge of criteria
    - 1.25 Knowledge of methodology
  - 1.30 Knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field
    - 1.31 Knowledge of principles and generalizations
    - 1.32 Knowledge of theories and structures

INTELLECTUAL ABILITIES AND SKILLS

- 2.00 Comprehension
  - 2.10 Translation
  - 2.20 Interpretation
  - 2.30 Extrapolation
- 3.00 Application
- 4.00 Analysis
  - 4.10 Analysis of elements
  - 4.20 Analysis of relationships
  - 4.30 Analysis of organizational principles
- 5.00 Synthesis
  - 5.10 Production of a unique communication
  - 5.20 Production of a plan, or proposed set of operations
  - 5.30 Derivation of a set of abstract relations
- 6.00 Evaluation
  - 6.10 Judgments in terms of internal evidence
  - 6.20 Judgments in terms of external criteria



AN OUTLINE OF THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN OF THE  
TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

- 1.0 Receiving (attending)
  - 1.1 Awareness
  - 1.2 Willingness to receive
  - 1.3 Controlled or selected attention
- 2.0 Responding
  - 2.1 Acquiescence in responding
  - 2.2 Willingness to respond
  - 2.3 Satisfaction in response
- 3.0 Valuing
  - 3.1 Acceptance of a value
  - 3.2 Preference for a value
  - 3.3 Commitment
- 4.0 Organization
  - 4.1 Conceptualization of a value
  - 4.2 Organization of a value system
- 5.0 Characterization by a value or value complex
  - 5.1 Generalized set
  - 5.2 Characterization

AN OUTLINE OF THE CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATIONAL  
OBJECTIVES, PSYCHOMOTOR DOMAIN

- 1.0 Perception
  - 1.1 Sensory stimulation
    - 1.11 Auditory
    - 1.12 Visual
    - 1.13 Tactile
    - 1.14 Taste
    - 1.15 Smell
    - 1.16 Kinesthetic
  - 1.2 Cue selection
  - 1.3 Translation
- 2.0 Set
  - 2.1 Mental set
  - 2.2 Physical set
  - 2.3 Emotional set
- 3.0 Guided response
  - 3.1 Imitation
  - 3.2 Trial and error
- 4.0 Mechanism
- 5.0 Complex overt response
  - 5.1 Resolution of uncertainty
  - 5.2 Automatic performance

## APPENDIX B

WHAT DID I DO TODAY?<sup>1</sup>

## WHY?

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Morning

7:30 - got up and dressed in my white pleated skirt and flowered over-blouse	I guess clothes are important to me because they are important to my friends. (status)
7:50 - took down my hair and combed it into a neat new hair style	I want to look as pretty as I can for myself and my friends. (beauty and status)
8:00 - ate breakfast	We've always done this in my family. I guess it makes me feel better. (health)
8:20 - walked to school	Two things - I walked because I think it's good exercise and I went to school because I want an education. (health and education)
8:35 - met Jean and Lois at my locker and talked	This is what I like to do - talk with my friends. (social)

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<sup>1</sup>Working Curriculum Materials for Housing and Home Furnishings at the Junior High School, Senior High School and Adult Levels (Denver, Colorado: Homemaking Division, Office of Vocational Services, State Department of Education, 1962), p. 102. (entitled "A Simple Way to Help Students Identify Personal Values")

# PROGRESS CHART<sup>1</sup>

Garment completed						
Secure hem						
Mark hem and even off						
Attach hook and eye						
Attach armhole facings						
Edge-stitch armhole facings						
Attach neck facings						
Edge-stitch neck facing						
Stitch permanently						
Fit garment						
Baste darts and seams						
Staystitch						
Cut and mark						
Lay out pattern on fabric						
Fit pattern						
Select pattern and fabric	N a m e	N a m e	N a m e	N a m e	N a m e	N a m e

NOTE: String yarn in poster to make lines. Each pupil may use a scrap of garment fabric to make a bow to be moved up the string as work progresses.

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<sup>1</sup>Adapted from "Bulletin Board of the Month,"  
Practical/Forecast for Home Economics, 9:24-25, January,  
 1964.

MINUTE DRAMAS<sup>1</sup>

## Minute Drama 1

Scene: Mr. Davis is in the living room resting and reading the paper after a hard day's work.

Wife: Dear, this may be the last evening you will be sitting in that old chair. Remember you said I could get some new furnishings? Well, I picked out a lovely chair down at Toble's for you dear. I'll be glad to get rid of that old one. Now, I'll move the couch here and--

Husband: (interrupts) What did I hear--get rid of this chair? What is life coming to? A man can't even have a comfortable chair in his own home. We have had this chair for years, dear. I just can't see getting another one when this one is so comfortable.

(Value: Comfort)

## Minute Drama 2

Scene: A neighbor is visiting in the kitchen.

Neighbor: Oh, I see you have put the washer and dryer in here. I can't understand why you put them in the kitchen. I always thought a person was supposed to do laundering in the basement.

Sue: I thought about putting them in the basement--but with the baby, I have to wash every other day. It is so much more convenient to have the washer and dryer in the kitchen.

(Value: Convenience)

## Minute Drama 3

Scene: Mrs. Brown is showing her new drapery material to her friend.

Friend: Ruth, I guess I like the fabric. In fact, it is quite nice. The beige color is pretty. It goes with anything. And I understand that it will wear and wear. I read an article in one of the magazines explaining that the fabric will not be hard to clean. But, I still keep thinking of that lovely, lovely piece of silk material I saw downtown at Larson's. It would be just perfect for your room. Oh, the material really had that expensive feel about it! Ruth, I'll bet you could take this material back and get the fabric at Larson's. Why don't you do that? I know you would rather have the silk.

Ruth: Jane, the expensive fabric would be nice. But I'm very happy with what I bought. I would rather have this manmade fabric at a lower price than the silk. We need to spend the money on something else. I'm just trying to be economical.  
(Value: Economy)

#### Minute Drama 4

Scene: Aunt Jane is being shown the house for the first time.  
Aunt Jane: Linda and Joan have separate rooms. Looks to me like it would be better if they shared a room. If the girls shared a room, there would be only one room to furnish.  
Mrs. Liston: I know it would be easier. However, you must understand that both Joan and Linda like to be alone sometimes. We think this is important. They need the privacy that comes from having their own rooms.  
(Value: Privacy)

#### Minute Drama 5

Scene: It is moving day. John is in the den while his wife is upstairs.  
John: Margaret, Margaret where did you put my rock collection? Yes, yes my rock collection. I want it in the den. This house won't seem like home without it.  
Margaret: John, I think it is in the box in the basement. Yes, in the basement by the washing machine. It has a green cord around it. It is marked "rock collection." I'll be glad for you to get it in the den too. Having your hobbies around us will make this new house seem like home.  
(Value: Special interests)

At the end of each minute drama, pupils should identify the value. Volunteers may discuss similar situations of people they know personally or have read about where the value has played a part in decisions about home furnishings. A summary statement should conclude the discussion of each minute drama.

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<sup>1</sup>Selected examples from Ann M. Gerteis, "Minute Dramas for the Study of Values in Home Furnishings," Illinois Teacher of Home Economics, 9:277-79, 1965-66.

## HOW IS MY MANAGEMENT?<sup>1</sup>

Directions: Answer each question by placing a check in the column that most nearly describes what you do.

Yes -- if you usually practice this

No -- if you fail to practice this

- ### A. Goals

1. Do I have personal and class goals for work to be done during period?

- ### B. Method of Work

1. Do I know the necessary steps in doing various jobs?
2. Do I follow plans and directions carefully?
3. Do I attempt to think through my problems before asking for help?
4. Do I make use of classroom illustrative material?
5. Do I work too independently?
6. Do I establish good habits in the use of time and energy?
7. Do I keep the work surfaces neat while working?
8. Do I talk quietly and in moderation?
9. Do I consider previous experiences when planning?

- ### C. Management of Equipment and Supplies

1. Do I keep equipment in good condition?
2. Do I gather equipment before beginning work?
3. Do I assemble and organize supplies and equipment quickly and easily?
4. Do I keep supplies and equipment not being used off the work area?
5. Do I return supplies and equipment to place promptly after use?
6. Do I show fairness and consideration in sharing classroom supplies and equipment?
7. Do I share in the responsibility for the care of classroom supplies and equipment?

- #### D. Management of Time

1. Do I plan and follow a time schedule?
2. Do I use my time to good advantage?
3. Do I lose time by not being fully prepared?
4. Do I complete my work on time?

- ### E. Management of Energy

1. Do I conserve energy in doing routine duties?
2. Do I keep supplies and equipment near where they are used?
3. Do I make only necessary trips for supplies and equipment?

Yes	No
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<sup>1</sup>Adapted from Homemaking Education Resource Materials for Clothing and Grooming (Oklahoma City: Oklahoma Department of Education, n.d.), p. 82; Homemaking Education Resource Materials for Foods and Nutrition - Health and Safety (Oklahoma City: Oklahoma Department of Education, 1958), p. 135; Resource Materials for Family Foods (Tulsa, Oklahoma: Tulsa Public Schools, 1962), p. 63; and Resource Unit in Clothing and Textiles (Indianapolis, Indiana: Department of Public Instruction, 1960), p. 143.



SALLY THE SHOPPER<sup>1</sup>

Have the pupils consider these questions as they watch and listen to the skit:

1. Do you consider Sally a wise shopper?
2. What questions does Sally ask the clerk?
3. Do you think Sally has planned to buy a new sweater?
4. Do you think Sally will be able to mix and match with this sweater?
5. If you were Sally, why would you want this sweater?

CHARACTERS: Clerk; Sally (a teen-ager)

SCENE: A large department store after school

CLERK: Good afternoon! May I help you?

SALLY: No, thank you. I am just looking.

CLERK: Have you seen our new fur blend sweater?

SALLY: Oh, I like that blue one.

CLERK: These are the newest styles!

SALLY: I sure would like one.

CLERK: This is wool and nylon blend; you can wash it by hand.

SALLY: It would match my blue skirt.

CLERK: Why don't you try it on. There is a dressing room here.

SALLY: I would like to.

CLERK: Do you have the right size?

SALLY: This looks like it is the right size.

POINTS TO CONSIDER during discussion following skit:

1. Sally was interested only in the color.
2. Sally did not ask about the fabric content.
3. Sally did not ask about the care of the sweater; the clerk told her.
4. Sally did not ask about the price of the sweater to see if it was within her budget.
5. Sally did not pay attention to the size.
6. Did Sally think about sweaters at home that she doesn't wear?
7. Will Sally be able to wear this sweater with more than one skirt?
8. Does Sally's budget allow for a new sweater?

NOTE: It is important to remember that this would not just pertain to clothing, but to consumer shopping as a whole.

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<sup>1</sup>Homemaking Education in Oregon Secondary Schools (Salem, Oregon: State Department of Education, 1965), p. 77.

INTEGRATING SELECTED HOME MANAGEMENT CONCEPTS  
IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL HOMEMAKING

by

ANITA MAE PALMER

B. A., Park College, 1961

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY  
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The emphasis in home economics education is on the conceptual approach to learning. Concepts make it easier to organize knowledge, make learning more permanent, and allow individuals to see relationships between ideas. Concepts develop as a person perceives, discriminates, and has varied experiences with an object or idea. It is the responsibility of the teacher to select vital concepts and to plan and implement learning experiences so that pupils are able to develop these concepts and related generalizations.

Early adolescents are experiencing a temporary state of disorganization. They are perplexed as they try to cope with the complexities of their own rapid growth and changing attitudes, the whirl of school work and social activities, the fast-paced teen culture of which they are now a part, and the rapidly changing civilization into which they must fit.

Paralleling the work of scholars in other fields of study, home management specialists have been attempting to identify the concepts in their discipline. The majority of writers identify values, goals and resources as major concepts. Vital to the field also, are the types of decisions and how they are made and carried out.

The purposes of this study were (1) to identify the major concepts and generalizations in home management which are applicable to junior high school homemaking pupils; and

(2) to develop meaningful learning experiences to facilitate the integration of selected home management concepts into other subject areas of junior high school homemaking education.

A list of home management concepts considered applicable, in some simple form, to junior high school homemaking classes was compiled. Major and sub-generalizations which gave meaning to or indicated relationships between the concepts were listed. The two major generalizations were the following:

1. Goals are achieved through the wise use of resources.
2. The conscious use of decision making and implementing techniques includes consideration of interacting factors which influence behavior.

Two objectives for each major generalization were developed and learning experiences involving various home economics subject areas were grouped under these objectives. The four behavioral objectives were (1) perceives resources available to individuals and groups, (2) understands that goals are related to the use of resources, (3) recognizes some of the factors which influence decisions, and (4) is able to use decision making and implementing techniques in selected situations. Evaluation devices, teaching procedures, and resources for concept development were incorporated into the statement of the learning experiences. Learning experiences were classified as to level and domain of the described

behavior. No plans for teaching and evaluating the learning experiences were included.