

*Home Economics*

**FORUM**

## **DEVELOPING PEOPLE**

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## Theme: Developing People

### EDITOR'S COMMENTS

The articles in this issue of *Home Economics FORUM* have a common focus on the complexities of the professional role with developing people. *Developing* in this context is an adjective rather than an active verb. It is not a matter of people having development done to them, but rather how they facilitate their own development and what the professional role is in that process.

Carole Vickers, whose idea it was to contract the critical and creative thinking for what is known as the Brown/Paolucci Mission Statement, leads off with a conceptual description of two aspects of enabling: process and content.

Norejane Hendrickson shares her indepth understanding of Erickson's theory of human development with special attention to adult development. The aging of the U.S. population requires us as a profession to use our skills in integrating theory in the disciplines of psychology, sociology, anthropology, and medicine to inform our practice. Norejane would be pleased if her message stirs anyone to action.

Linda Peterat and Mildred Griggs respond to the effects of the national studies (*A Nation at Risk*, etc.) regarding secondary schooling by examining the appropriate role of Home Economics in personal and educational development. They provide a thoughtful discussion of the claim that Home Economics teaches the basic disciplines, share an insightful analysis of the content and process of basic disciplines appropriate for Home Economics education, and conclude with a proposal for the curriculum development process that would revitalize Home Economics in the secondary school. This article should be *required reading* for all Home Economics teachers and teacher educators and for all areas of specialization that form the *basics* of Home Economics education.

Joy Dohr and Margaret Portillo describe the interactive effects of *art and design* and life span development, giving credence to the claim that Home Economics is an integrative field. Their work should be examined as a model for integrative research among specialists in the field of Home Economics.

James Moran and Janet Sawyers postulate a role of dynamic permeability in the development of individuals and families and suggest some refinements of our practice.

Ruth Harmelink reports on her research on gender differences in interpreting stress and poses some interesting questions to our female-dominated field regarding faculty development in college Home Economics units.

Linus Hoskins reinforces the notion that development is development. The underlying principles of the basic human needs approach, while appropriate for developing nations, could be applied in any setting. Our cities, the native American communities, and rural poor could profit from his discussion.

Jayne Ozier and the reviewers are to be congratulated on their work in preparing this issue. There was not an easy task of selecting and rejecting in order to meet the space limitations of this publication and to achieve a balance of content to represent the theme.

The arrival of this first issue of *Home Economics FORUM* was preceded by a nine-month gestation period. While the birth is a delight for the Editor, there are many growing pains yet to endure. Officers of Kappa Omicron Phi and Omicron Nu invite your care and support in all of its developmental stages.

Dorothy I. Mitisifer  
Editor

# Enabling Families

Carole A. Vickers

The concept of *enabling families* has gained jargon status in Home Economics. It is used liberally in the literature and in professional dialogue, but sustained effort is required for home economists to understand more fully the Brown and Paolucci (1978) definition from which it is derived. This notion is central to application of their ideas to our professional activity.

It appears to me that the concept of enabling contains two major sub-concepts: process and content. Mary Franken (1986) delineated the professional's role in using the process component of enabling. The skills and qualities she identified include genuine care and concern for others; respect for one's body and health; adequate intelligence and ability to learn and translate theory into practice; good social intelligence and common sense; knowledge that helping is a lot of work; attending and responding skills; respect for the client(s); concreteness in expression; integration of knowledge, feelings, and behavior; recognition of the need for action; feeling of ease with people; awareness of own behavior; motivation for helping others not out of one's own needs; and respect for the helping process.

Our profession needs to assure that all professionals possess these enabling skills; they are necessary for use with individuals and families as they seek to function in their own strength. Moreover, the persons served by home economists must see the skills modeled and have role models to emulate as they strive to be competent themselves. We must be primary sources of role modeling. We need to remember also that our aim is to develop those same enabling skills in the persons (clients, students, etc.) we serve. We want them to be able to function fully in this same process. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the *content* of enabling as it is written in the Brown/Paolucci (1978) mission statement: the purpose of Home Economics is to enable families...to build and maintain systems of action....

What are the systems of action we are enabling families to build? And why are they necessary? The systems of action serve two purposes: they are to lead to maturing in individual self-formation and they are to

enable families to participate in the critique and formulation of social goals and means of accomplishing them. We are not enabling families just for the sake of enabling them, but so that they can become self-forming persons who can participate in determining their own destinies. To do this, Brown and Paolucci maintained that they must be competent in three systems of action. Until we study the definition paper, the full impact of the goal to develop systems of action may escape us. The three systems of action are purposive rational action (means-end action), symbolic interaction, and emancipative action. Each will be examined as it affects individual self-formation and the development of skills to participate in determining the direction of society.

## Purposive, Rational Action.

This action or work is that which we do to secure the necessities of life, both physical and social, and to secure for ourselves the goals of civilized living. When we are able to competently use the purposive, rational system of action, we are able to make if-then relationships accurately; we can generate hypotheses; we are able to control nature by means of knowledge of a technical nature. The action is related to production, to work, in order to change the environment. The skills we use are efficiency rules, economic rules, maximization rules, and preference ordering. As home economists we have developed these skills very fully. We have used rational decision making processes, we have developed principles and rules for achieving control over the environment, and we have concentrated on the maximum or optimum use of resources (e.g., RDA's, furniture arrangement, money management, child guidance). We center much of our practice on the relationship of the family to the near environment. In fact, Home Economics came into being when empirical science was at a high level. We used science to improve everyday life. In the 1920's there was a heavy emphasis on income from work, and this provided the way for workers to participate in industrial life. Everyone was Americanized, and national taste was developed through advertising. This is a very necessary system of action, but we must not allow it to be the only system on which we concentrate in our enabling activities. We must use communicative action to determine the ends toward which we work, and

then the purposive action facilitates their achievement.

## Symbolic Interaction.

Symbolic interaction is a system of communication or exchange of meaning through symbols: linguistic, symbolic (shaking hands, affection), and gestures. Rules of communication are social norms, and these social norms rely on acceptance by two or more persons. For success in communication we must share a background or norms and accept the obligation to act in terms of the norms. When we deviate from norms or rules, there is social rebuff or criticism. Communication skills in this broad sense are important because the communicative action enables us to (a) maintain the social group or institution (i.e., family) and (b) understand each other as social beings—the basis of being human. Language allows expression of human thought. It also contains the elements of socialization—we attach meaning to certain gestures and words. There is validity through consensus, i.e., there is mutual acceptance of norms.

**“Enabling families . . . [requires] acquisition of enabling skills and knowledge of content of the systems of action needed for development as self-forming persons and for participation in setting and evaluating social goals . . .”**

Values are justified rationally on the basis of norms. We determine what is good through rational, objective, historically rooted examination.

Language, social, cognitive, and moral development proceed somewhat together. All of these lead to ego development. Ego development develops as language develops. Our internal motives and emotions develop within this structure. Codes and rules are organized by language. As we learn the rules we develop ego; we learn rules, values, place within the world, and organization of activities. We learn values for social interaction; the knowledge enables us to be functional members of society. Values contribute to the formation of social character.

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In enabling family members to attain communicative competence (language, norms, content of society), we open another system of action which contributes to their maturation and autonomy. Competence in symbolic interaction also enables persons to articulate social goals and to propose means of achieving them.

### Emancipative Action

Emancipative action provides critical consciousness of social forces which then formulates social goals and values and judges critically the means by which we will accomplish those goals and values. The goals of emancipative action are to (a) bring to conscious awareness any attempts to manipulate or dominate in a particular situation, (b) bring to conscious reflection the self-deceptions (ideologies) individuals hold; and (c) remove any distorted self-deceptions or false concepts. Emancipative action comes through critical thinking, i.e., criticism directed toward critique or exposure of underlying meaning and values with a goal to create/maintain community and look at the validity claims for beliefs and motives. The difficulty in acquiring emancipative skills is that when manipulation is well done, those persons being manipulated believe that the conditions are "right" and

"normal" and are unable to critique the actions taken by others. Some examples of manipulation within the family setting include sex roles, resource use/control, affection, and children or aging persons. Examples of external manipulation include media, advertising, government, mystique, education, use of women in advertising, government policy toward indigent persons, and college athletes.

### Summary

These three systems of action are instrumental in aiding persons and families to become self-forming or autonomous. Our activity in enabling families should focus on skill development in these three systems of action. Enabling families makes it possible for families to solve problems of what to do. The implications of enabling families are that we must engage in much critical evaluation of our own professional beliefs, that we must practice serious self-examination, that we must practice giving people freedom to be involved in the process, and that we must help persons recognize their own problems. We must treat human beings as people rather than as objects, and we must use critical thinking processes in determining how we shall practice Home Economics and what its content shall be.

Enabling families . . . by acquisition of enabling skills and knowledge of content of the systems of action needed for development as self-forming persons and for participation in setting and evaluating social goals . . . It is a *tail order* requiring that we be (a) conscious of social conditions affecting families, (b) critical of our own value orientations so that we do not encourage manipulation of the environment to the detriment of some individuals and families, (c) competent in communication, and (d) diligent in our pursuit of knowledge that contributes to the solution of persistent problems families encounter. Can we fill the order? If we honestly seek truth and attempt to remove the inconsistencies in our beliefs and practice, I think we can. To do so we need to accept the Brown/Paolucci mission of Home Economics and make enabling families our professional goal.



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# Human Destiny and Adult Development

Norejane Johnston Hendrickson

*Childhood is the stage of intake from life; adolescence continues this taking, demanding, self-centered approach; maturity is a supreme revolution, when the arrow of life moves outward instead of inward, when the personality is anxious to give, to share, to bestow, to become a parent to life. This is the pendulum swing of human destiny between taking and giving, swallowing and serving (Leibman, 1966, p. 214).*

It is not easy in the American culture for a child to grow to become a mature adult physically, intellectually, emotionally, and socially. Every day the news media reports stories of physically mature adults who may even be intellectual giants but are dwarfed emotionally or socially. Some theorists believe that the genetic blueprint children inherit determines their course of development. Others propound that important developmental results are due to environmental influences.

Since there are two forces at work—heredity and environment—it seems valid not to look at nature vs. nurture, but to examine the interaction of heredity and environment on human development. A number of theorists have used such an approach. Stern (1956) postulated the “rubber band” hypothesis which states that one’s genetic endowment with respect to any single trait can be compared to a rubber band and the trait itself to the length adopted by the rubber band when it is stretched by environmental factors. Individuals may inherit different lengths of unstretched genetic endowments, but the environmental forces may have stretched their expressions to equal lengths. Thus a person with a low level of intellectual ability reared in an enriched environment may be stretched to approximately the same level of performance as the person with a high level of ability (unstretched) who is reared in an average environment (Shaffer, 1985).

A number of theories to help us understand human beings have been developed by scholars from different orientations: learning, cognitive, psychoanalytic, as well as humanistic ones. No theory provides all of the answers as to how people develop. Instead, a theory provides an organized, ordered way of managing data. It serves as a model for gaining an understanding of development. It can be researched. Theory keeps one objective in the search for know-

ledge. It can be used to make future predictions. One’s choice of a theoretical approach is based on the acceptance of the theory’s assumptions.

For the purpose of this paper, Erikson’s psychosocial theory (1950, 1963) will be used. It, like all theory, has strengths and weaknesses. Yet Erikson’s theory is very useful in that it views human development as a product of interaction between a person’s needs and capacities (psycho) and cultural expectations (social). Psychosocial theory emphasizes the inseparability of biological, psychological, and social development in the development of the individual. The theory stresses the ability of individuals to contribute to their own development. It covers the life span from infancy through adulthood.

Erikson based the first five stages of his psychosocial theory on Freud’s five psychosexual stages but departed from that theory in several major ways. Psychosocial theory emphasizes the Ego as the motivating force, not the Id. Erikson’s theory views human development as a product of interaction between individuals and society. It covers the adult development in the last three stages. Erikson deemphasized the Oedipus complex sexual connotation. He used the power struggle between parent and child at adolescence as a battle for power or control.

Erikson’s theory is a stage theory. Each stage presents a crisis (conflict) which must be resolved in a positive or a negative direction before one can proceed to the next stage. Erikson proposed that each of his stages, and how the stage is resolved, affects each future stage. Thus a sense of trust vs. mistrust, autonomy vs. shame and doubt, initiative vs. guilt, industry vs. inferiority, identity vs. identity diffusion, intimacy vs. isolation, generativity vs. self absorption all contribute to the sense of ego integrity vs. despair.

In this paper, attention will be directed to stages five through eight. Although Stage 5 deals with the adolescent, it is included because ego identity is a central focus of Erikson’s theory. Stage 5 is a transitional stage relating to the phenomenal maturational changes which makes the adolescent so different from his *child self* yet unsure of his societal role as an *adult self*.

## Adolescent and Adult Development (Erikson’s Stages)

Stage 5: A sense of identity versus a sense of identity diffusion (role confusion) — The

adolescent growth spurt and the rapid maturation of the reproductive system accompanied by the role change expectations (how society expects one to behave as to age, sex, family background, or some other qualification) confuse youth. Puberty creates a real problem for the individual, even the one who has mastered and synthesized into self the first four stages by achieving more trust than mistrust, autonomy than shame, initiative than guilt, and industry than inferiority. Such prepuberty individuals have developed a sense of who they are and what they can do. At adolescence this enlightenment is challenged. The adolescent has an identity crisis and asks “Who am I?” “Am I attractive?” “Am I capable of mastering my new feelings and drives?” “What occupational role will I play in society?” “What values are worth committing myself to now? in the future?” These questions are basic to self-definition. Erikson (1959) stated,

*The sense of ego identity, then, is the accrued confidence that one’s ability to maintain inner sameness and continuity of one’s meaning for others. Thus self-esteem . . . grows to be a conviction that one is learning effective steps toward a tangible future, that one is developing a defined personality within a social reality which one understands (p. 89).*

Nearly everyone has periods of identity diffusion in this stage, but the important factor is to resolve the crisis on the positive side. The great danger of this stage is to end with identity diffusion which will make it extremely difficult to master the adulthood stages. In trying to resolve the identity crisis, adolescents may use defenses against identity diffusion. They may over-identify with heroes, with cliques, or with causes. Adolescents help one another during these years of confusion by dressing alike, talking alike, following the same idols, and being intolerant of those who are different from them. Adolescents are difficult to live with, because they are struggling for power within the family. This leads the way, in time, to being able to control others outside the family. If adolescents do not move in a positive direction and resolve the Stage 5 identity crisis, they may remain in the negative counterpart of identity diffusion and continue to display, in later life, signs of immaturity such as intolerance, blind loyalty to idols, and cruelty to people who are different from them. They may even become delinquents, criminals, or drug addicts.

Youths who solve the identity crisis develop a strong sense of individuality and know that they are acceptable to their

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society. They are ready to proceed into adulthood. They have a sense of purpose, and they have ideas about occupational roles. The individual has gradually established a synthesis of past, present, and future and feels confident to meet future crises.

*Stage 6: A sense of intimacy versus a sense of isolation* — If persons have successfully resolved the crises in the earlier stages, they are able to accept society's pressure to form an intimate, stable interpersonal relationship. Seeking and choosing a partner is an undertaking in Stage 6. To enter and successfully maintain an intimate relationship one must be ready to give of oneself totally without feeling the loss of one's identity. This openness refers to all areas of life, not just the sexual area. One must be able to share feelings, attitudes, goals, and ideas unconditionally. The partner must be unconditionally receptive, and vice versa. Since society sanctions marriage, the intimacy is expressed in marriage in shared work, play, childbearing, and child care. This is a period of life for developing one's self, enjoying adult liberty, establishing a career, and being a responsible participating citizen in one's community.

Friendships and partnerships of the mature adult are based on intimacy as a reciprocal sharing experience. Intimacy is used in the broad sense. Sharing is crucial to friendship and to enjoying small social groups or participating in civic functions. It is in sharing one's self with others that one finds a new sense of self.

If Stage 5 ended with identity diffusion, persons would not be capable of achieving a sense of intimacy. They are caught in the conflict between their own lack of readiness for adulthood and the demands of a new stage in the psychosocial stages. If persons do not have identity strength, the risk of a relationship is threatening. Close friendships are difficult to form if they lack the ability to share freely. Thus the negative counterpart, a sense of isolation, becomes a reality. With isolation comes loneliness, feelings of inadequacy, unhappiness, and little prospect of anything but a limited future.

*Stage 7: A sense of generativity versus a sense of self absorption (stagnation)* —

*A secure adult serves as the foundation for assuring care for the new generation—the theme of the second developmental phase of adulthood. It should be noted that generativity does not refer to the procreating individuals, but to the care they provide as a unit in society at large to the next generation so that it can also find hope, virtue, and wisdom. It is the period of life when individuals are productive in work or leisure to satisfy themselves and, at times, people beyond their own family bounds (Maier, 1978, p. 121).*

The sense of generativity necessitates that the individual contribute to the maintenance or perpetuation of society. One can serve

society by creating products or providing services for the maintenance of a home or the culture. A person may produce, rear, or socialize children in order to perpetuate society. Generativity implies an interest in the establishment and guidance of future generations. A generative person desires to maintain the kind of society that will provide a healthy environment for children. Another example of a generative act is volunteer work: serving on community agency boards, participating as a teacher's aide in day care centers or schools, serving the YWCA or YMCA. Of course one is not able to give one's total time to children or others, but self-absorption in a healthy person should be only sufficient to guarantee that one's own basic survival needs are met.

When individuals develop the negative counterpart of generativity, they stagnate. Self-interest and self-needs absorb more and more of their time. Individuals have little or no time for the welfare of others. Being a parent does not assure that one will successfully resolve Stage 7.

**“Human destiny . . . arises from a system of inner laws that set the potentiality of persons as they interact with the environment . . .”**

*Stage 8: A sense of ego integrity versus a sense of despair* — Literature on the elderly often stresses the physical and social losses that the aging suffer. Erikson is aware of the many physical and social adjustments that the elderly must make, but his emphasis is on the inner struggle of this period. In Stage 8, individuals realize that they are reaching the end of life. If they have progressed through the previous stages of development on the positive side, they will face the future with enthusiasm. In their review of their lives they will feel that, on the whole, life was good. They can accept mistakes that they made as part of living. They gain a wisdom about life. They accept who they are and have a sense of dignity. They have integrity enough not to fear death.

If one has not resolved this final stage, one has despair. Such persons feel conflict over the way they have lived. There is a feeling of dissatisfaction and disgust over the course of their lives. The desire for another opportunity to do things differently is no longer available to them. They have a dread of the future. Some in despair seek death to end the misery of living; others fear death because it makes any hope of redoing past failures impossible.

Rather than end this last stage of the life cycle with despair, one should note that Erikson views human beings as rational,

adaptive creatures who struggle to the very end of their lives to cope successfully with their social environments. In Erikson's theory there is hope about overcoming failure in resolving crises of the earlier stages. Shaffer (1985) illustrated this point using the fictional character of Old Scrooge from Charles Dickens' *Christmas Carol*. Scrooge exemplifies the self-centered stagnated adult. He has failed Stages 6 and 7 of Erikson's theory. He was unable to develop friendships or intimacies. He was almost totally self-absorbed. He had no concern for his helper Bob Cratchit or Bob's family. Yet, Scrooge's tale had a happy ending. By the end of the story, Old Scrooge had acquired a sense of intimacy and a sense of generativity even though these crises had not been resolved in a positive way earlier. Scrooge was ready to face life's final crisis with a positive attitude.

## Summary

In Erikson's work the entire life span is required for all the functions to appear and become integrated. In his theory, if persons resolve a crisis of a stage with a negative counterpart (e.g., inferiority rather than industry), they are hindered in resolving future stages. However, if persons have a very positive future stage, they will overcome some of the disadvantage of the earlier negative counterpart.

The identity versus identity diffusion is a major stage of the theory. It is a transitional stage from youth to adulthood. If one does not achieve a healthy identity, then the three adult stages are difficult to resolve adequately. Human destiny, from Erikson's perspective, arises from a system of inner laws that set the potentiality of persons as they interact with the environment over time. Adult development is the product of earlier development, but the good news is that human destiny is not cast in absolutes.

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# Reconsidering Practice: Home Economics as Basic in Personal and Educational Development

Linda Peterat and Mildred Griggs

Educational policy makers, in an attempt to clarify the goals of secondary schools, have identified what they perceive to be the desirable outcomes for students graduating from secondary schools. Often these outcome statements have been delineated according to subject areas of mathematics, science, language arts, and social studies, the so-called basic disciplines. In Illinois, for example, the state's expectations for student learning are categorized according to language arts, mathematics, biological and physical sciences, social sciences, fine arts, physical development, and health. This infers that the teachers responsible for providing instruction in these basic disciplines are the ones who are trained in these specialties. Instruction in each of these basic disciplines is often thought to be only marginally connected to other curriculum areas. However, Home Economics teachers claim that the relationship is more than marginal — that the principles in these areas are basic to the teaching of Home Economics. Furthermore, Home Economics teachers claim that they instruct students in mathematics, grammar, the process of reading, the use of scientific principles, and the scientific process in an applied, experience-based manner.

Is this a justifiable claim for Home Economics teachers to make? If so, are there risks involved? What, if any, are the advantages and/or disadvantages in this claim for the profession of Home Economics? for teachers and for learners? If it is considered a justifiable claim, how widespread is this practice? and how might it be done most effectively?

## Historical and Philosophical Bases

One basis for justification for the claim that Home Economics does and should teach mathematics, science, reading, and writing skills is found in the history of the profession. Home Economics has continually justified and clarified its intellectual contribution to the broader educational goals of the society in which it dwells. Throughout its history,

Home Economics has made several claims about its educational purpose. One claim which has persisted is that Home Economics is an *applied science*, applying the principles of science to everyday living, encouraging reasoning about the tasks of daily living, contributing to an appreciation of *right living*, and in general, improving the *quality of life*. Some see this claim articulated in the original definition of Home Economics.

Isabel Bevier, during her time at the University of Illinois (1900-1921), fervently believed that Home Economics would gain intellectual recognition and social value as an applied science. Through this claim of Home Economics as an applied science, early home economists established the field in postsecondary education and gained support for programs in the public schools. Familiar then were titles for school programs such as domestic science and household science.

Home economists, though, soon realized that science did not encompass the total concerns of families — that interests in economics, aesthetics, philosophy, and the spirit were also important in family considerations. Thus, the intellectual claim of Home Economics was enlarged to an integrative field, synthesizing knowledge from many basic disciplines in addition to science in the interest of solving problems of families. In this way, Home Economics education entails teaching about certain aspects of the basic disciplines.

A second way of knowing whether it is justifiable for Home Economics teachers to provide instruction in the *basic disciplines* is to determine if it is consistent with the philosophies of specialists in curriculum and instruction. There is potential support for this approach in the philosophies of Ralph Tyler (1949), Jerome Bruner (1965), and John Dewey (1938). Tyler wrote about the importance of organizing learning experiences for effective instruction. He advocated vertical organization, moving from simple to complex, and horizontal organization, relating concepts across courses and disciplines. According to Tyler, all teachers should teach basic concepts in the context of different subject specialties.

Bruner focused on the importance of the structure of the content as the most important factor in curriculum decisions. If one views Home Economics as a field of study which incorporates the basic dis-

ciplines, then it seems appropriate to identify content from the basic disciplines as part of the structure of Home Economics knowledge and include it in Home Economics classes.

Dewey, on the other hand, advocated an experiential approach to education and emphasized that content to be taught emerged through experience. One becomes aware of knowledge and skill deficiencies through learning experiences, and those deficiencies then become the content to be taught. Perhaps Dewey would say that if the Home Economics teacher finds that students are deficient in the knowledge and skills in mathematics, science, reading, and writing required for Home Economics instruction, then it would be appropriate to provide them with such knowledge.

The question of intent is important to consider when deciding whether we do or should teach the basics in Home Economics. Does teaching the content from the basic disciplines in Home Economics classes, when needed, differ from setting out to teach the basic disciplines? Home Economics is classified as an applied field (Nolan, 1964). In any applied field, the practical problems to resolve are the primary factors in dictating the relationship of Home Economics to the basic disciplines; therefore, as life's problems emerge and change, the emphasis given to various branches of knowledge becomes paramount because practical problems are not limited to any single facet of knowledge. This interpretation of these philosophies leads us to conclude that all teachers have a responsibility to help students understand the relationships that exist across all of the areas of study. They also need to teach the content, including the so-called academic disciplines, that will enable students to overcome deficiencies that prohibit them from solving their problems or reaching their educational goals.

## Recent Trends

In the wake of educational reform, we find the claim renewed that Home Economics should teach the basic disciplines. Many states have increased the number of required credit hours in the *new basics*, leaving Home Economics teachers to wonder if students will be able to find time in their secondary schooling to enroll in Home

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Economics courses. One solution to this dilemma is for states to permit credit in mathematics, science, social studies, English, or literature for Home Economics, if it can be shown that the concepts of these other disciplines are being taught in the Home Economics courses. For example, currently in Illinois it is possible for students to receive credit in a required high school course through study in Home Economics if the majority of the concepts meet those in the required course and the substitution of courses has the approval of the local Board of Education.

The extent of the trend for granting academic credit through study in Home Economics was assessed through a small survey conducted in January and February of 1986. The responses of State Supervisors of Home Economics in 48 of the 53 states and territories revealed the following trend:

- 20 or 42 percent of states have a policy similar to Illinois, i.e., it is possible to gain credit in some of the academic disciplines through study in Home Economics.
- For many states, the policy allows local schools and local school districts to make this decision.
- For 11 of these 20 states, this policy was new within the past five years.
- A total of 28 or 58 percent of the respondents did not have such a policy. But of these 28, 10 states were either researching or discussing the possibility of this kind of credit policy. An additional five states have, will be, or are in some small way discussing the possibility.

Respondents also indicated the range of disciplines in which students could receive credit: science (most common), mathematics, art, sociology, health, and social studies. For some, this credit arrangement was possible for occupational courses and not for consumer and homemaking courses.

From the survey, we can conclude that the kind of contribution which Home Economics should make to the goals of education is a current issue. This finding was indicated by 35 of 48 (73%) of the responding states.

### Cautions and Concerns

Even though we may conclude (based on history, trends, and philosophies about instruction) that it is justifiable for a Home Economics teacher to teach mathematics, science, reading, and writing, we need to consider the potential risks involved. Concerns are related to (a) the teacher's knowledge in these areas, (b) the relationships among teachers in a school, and (c) the integrity of Home Economics as a unique and valuable field in its own right.

Albeit there is a trend in some states to designate instruction in certain Home Economics courses as equivalent to that in the required courses in mathematics and

science, this is a course approval policy which has little, if any, regard for the education of the particular teachers who will teach the Home Economics course. Among Home Economics teachers, as with all teachers, knowledge of mathematics, science, and other subjects varies considerably. Some Home Economics teachers understand mathematics, biology, economics, etc. well enough to teach specific principles and help students to apply them to real-life problems. However, it is doubtful that all teachers are equally able due to the differences in Home Economics teacher education curriculum requirements across states and the nation. We must be cautious not to take on instructional roles that we cannot adequately fulfill. This does not serve society, education, nor the profession.

The second concern regards the claim of teachers trained in one specialty to teach in other disciplines. If a home economist teaches mathematics, science, reading, and writing, should teachers in those areas be encouraged or permitted to teach Home Economics? Would a chemistry course which includes some content in food chemistry and food sanitation be the same as a course in food and nutrition taught by a Home Economics teacher? If the chemistry teacher includes content on the chemical composition of food, is that teaching Home Economics? Is it chemistry if the Home Economics teacher does it?

A third concern for Home Economics is how to maintain integrity and uniqueness of our field for its worthy contribution to individual, family, and social development, rather than for teaching applied academic disciplines (often) to less able kids. If we seek to be valued and included in educational programs primarily for the contribution we make to goals associated with mathematics, science, and reading, for example, we lose sight of what we are as a field and risk losing our courses in the future to these disciplines. At the same time, is it likely that we could be recognized as teaching some inferior form of mathematics, science, language, etc.? We have precedents in our own history to which we should be attentive. Early in the century while home economists argued for the importance of Home Economics in the public schools as an applied science, supervisors more likely chose to support it for its value as a social and moral force in society supporting the housewifery and homemaking goals of programs.<sup>1</sup> Clarity about our unique contribution to education and uncompromised action toward such a role is required if we are to prevent distortions of purpose and loss of integrity in the future.

It appears that if we are to claim the contribution which Home Economics makes to educational goals specifically related to goals of mathematics, science, language, etc., that we should think in terms

of primary and secondary goals for Home Economics. This would require assurance that our primary goal articulates the unique nature of Home Economics, its contribution to the well-being of individuals and families. We may have a number of secondary goals, some of which emphasize the contribution Home Economics makes to the goals related to the basic disciplines.

A helpful distinction, in this regard, may be to distinguish between content and process and how this may alter our thinking about what we do as educators.<sup>2</sup> If we view the new basics in the traditional way, we see these courses as teaching content, i.e., in mathematics, we would be concerned about teaching fractions, percentages, and multiplication (rules of number manipulation). In science, we would be concerned about demonstrating and recognizing certain scientific principles. In reading

**“The basic disciplines. . . [are] not the goal toward which Home Economics is directed, but rather the means by which we learn Home Economics.”**

and writing, we would be concerned with spelling, sentence structure, and proper grammar. In this traditional view, Home Economics provides real problems and materials for students to practice the skills taught in the basic disciplines. Home Economics assumes a derivative value through its contribution to the basic disciplines.

An alternate view is to focus on the processes, i.e., the reasoning or thinking processes of these basic disciplines. In this view, we would recognize the basic disciplines as offering processes through which we can teach (and learn) the content and thinking skills necessary to Home Economics. The basic disciplines then become not the goal toward which Home Economics is directed, but rather the means by which we learn Home Economics. Home Economics provides the daily practical problems which require various intellectual processes from all the basic disciplines for deliberating alternate solutions and courses of action. Home Economics, then, is a field in which students use *and* choose various thinking processes in solving problems. It is a field in which students not only think, but also must think about their thinking.<sup>3</sup>

### Contributing to Educational Goals

With these cautions, risks, and questions in mind, what contribution should we make to general educational goals? If we want to claim and justify our intellectual contribution to education through the contribution we make to the new basics, our first task is to



recognize the ways we are already doing this.

In mathematics content, students in Home Economics

- increase and decrease recipes and pattern sizes
- compute costs and nutrient values of different food forms
- use banking skills
- prepare income tax forms and family budgets

As a process of mathematics, students consider alternate solutions to problems considering the limited resources of families. Through questioning they develop the linear logic of cause and effect reasoning. Students seek the unknown in considering alternate ways for achieving a balanced diet when money and possible foods are limited.

In science content, students in Home Economics

- apply principles of dissolving, crystallizing, emulsifying
- explain action of bacteria, yeast, enzymes
- describe chemical and physical properties of fibers
- explain the reaction of nutrients to heat, air, and light
- comprehend the digestive and reproductive systems

As a process of science, students query the whys of their material world in clothing and textiles and in foods and nutrition. They develop an experimental approach to hypothesizing solutions to various personal and social problems, testing and anticipating outcomes, and formulating new or alternate hypotheses.

In reading content, students in Home Economics

- follow directions
- interpret graphs and charts
- know definitions, abbreviations, and new words
- summarize ideas

As a process of reading, an interpretive act, students read (and also write) children's literature. They read adolescent novels and vicariously experience other personal and family situations, problems, and events. They read fictional accounts of the future, the past, and learn about themselves and their social world.

In writing content, students in Home Economics

- prepare directions for food laboratories
- write responses to essay questions, practice grammar and sentence structure
- organize notebooks

As a process of writing, a creative and expressive act, students analyze others' views and formulate their own. They write letters and position papers expressing their beliefs and opinions on personal and social issues. They write expressively, bringing to words and naming their feelings and exper-

ience, to describe situations and events. They reflect upon and analyze decisions and actions.

## Conclusion

We have in the preceding examined the basis for claiming that home economists teach the basic disciplines and contribute to the goals of general education. We explored these claims by examining various philosophies of curriculum and instruction, the history of Home Economics, and the current trend to grant credits in the basic disciplines for study in Home Economics. We raised concerns about the risks in claiming that Home Economics teaches the basic disciplines. We questioned whether Home Economics teachers had sufficient knowledge in the basic disciplines. And we cautioned teachers not to lose sight of the special and unique contribution Home Economics makes to education.

Finally, we suggested that if we can distinguish between content and process of the basic disciplines, we can move from being a service field (a field in which students practice the basic disciplines) to being a field in which students come to know through using various thinking processes from the basic disciplines.

In this current moment in education, we are once again challenged to examine the contribution Home Economics makes to the goals of education. There are advantages and opportunities to realize. First, we have the opportunity and the challenge to clarify our contributions to educational goals. Second, we have the opportunity to influence the process in the local school jurisdiction for achieving secondary schooling outcomes identified at the state level. Third, we have the opportunity to open dialogue with our teaching colleagues in Home Economics and other disciplines in the school to clarify the ways we are or should be teaching more of the content or processes of the basic disciplines. This discussion will clarify the commonalities and differences with other disciplines. Fourth, we have the opportunity to open dialogue with colleagues in the basic disciplines to explore more effective methods of teaching certain processes or content, to establish joint projects for students, or to share resources. Fifth, having clarified our contribution to the basic disciplines, we can articulate more clearly the content and outcomes of Home Economics to school counselors, administrators, and parents.

The present opportunity and challenge to clarify our contribution to general education will also give us an opportunity to unite with our colleagues in the shared responsibility of education. At the same time we have the opportunity to identify the unique and special contribution of Home Economics in education.

## Notes

1. These contradictory purposes are described in Williams, M. (1909). Domestic Science in New York City Schools. *The Journal of Home Economics*, 1(1), 77-80.
2. Some recent example of teaching based on this distinction are described in *Educational Leadership*, 1986, 43(7). See particularly G. Neubert & S. McNelis. Improving writing in the disciplines, pp. 54-58, and M. Simon, The teacher's role in increasing student understanding of mathematics, pp. 40-43.
3. This is a position taken by C. Fedje. See articles: Fedje, C., & Holcombe, M. (1986). Teaching thinking in Home Economics. *Illinois Teacher*, 29(3), 94-96; and Fedje, C., & Johnson, D. (1986). Uncover — and discover — Home Economics subject matter. *Illinois Teacher*, 26(5), 162-164.



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# Life Span Development and The Creative Design Process

Joy H. Dohr and Margaret B. Portillo

The specialty of *Art and Design*, viewed primarily in various environmental design majors as textile, apparel, and interior design, has been a long-standing part of the interdisciplinary, holistic nature of Home Economics. As a focus for study, it has held little interest to the profession as a whole (Dohr & Forbess, 1984). A possible explanation for this lack of attention is a perceived absence of a common theoretical framework from which to examine relationships of humans and their social and built environments. Our premise, and the basis for this article, is that a life span, developmental approach and the design process have underlying assumptions and structure which not only complement each other, but together are necessary for expanding knowledge in the entire field.

Assuming a life span view for studying art and design allows exploration of interacting psychological, social, and aesthetic domains that appear to facilitate creative growth, a significant concern to design professions. Conversely, a design-aesthetic based framework may guide understanding of optimal, developmental outcomes in aging. Whereas content-specific questions would be of concern in the first view, the design process thrust for optimal aging has more global interest. For example, it may be a way of achieving and understanding development of wisdom which is a current issue in gerontological studies. This article will present the design-aesthetic based framework and discuss its compatibility to studying life course adaptation in development.

## Design Process and an Aesthetic Based Model

Design in our vocabulary refers to both a specific process and a tangible solution (Clignet, 1985). Generally an adjective is added as a descriptor of the type of tangible solution, i.e., basic, textile, apparel, interior, graphic, computer, and industrial design. As a process, design represents the thinking, problem solving behavior necessary for creating a solution. With both semantic and grammatical differences, plus creative aesthetic and problem solving components,

it is not difficult to understand why ambiguities enter across-discipline discussions.

The design process has been mapped in various ways (Nadler, 1981; Pena, 1977; Sanoff, 1972; Simon, 1979) with two divergent approaches being dominant. One camp views this process in a stage-by-stage sequence where "The system structure and quantitative functional specification ... are determined" (Finkelstein & Finkelstein, 1983, 216). In contrast to this linear approach, the other camp describes the design process in terms of a spiraling, recursive model (Zeisel, 1981). In this latter scheme, the process of design involves imaging (generating an overview and general design solution), presenting (forming a tentative solution), and committing (deciding on one solution in accordance with an established set of criteria). The spiraling process results in conceptual shifts and product development involving interaction between the designer, viewer, and product.

Nadler and Peterson (in press) call for the refinement of qualitative models such as Zeisel's scheme (1981) to supplement the established quantitative, linear ones advocated by Finkelstein and Finkelstein (1983). In spite of these deep-rooted differences, a general consensus exists on the universality of design ability (Dohr, 1982; Finkelstein & Finkelstein, 1983; Nadler & Peterson, in press; Zeisel, 1981). Design appears to be an inherent human activity and vehicle for self-expression. "Everyone designs who devises courses of action aimed at changing existing situations into preferred ones" (Simon, 1965, cited in Zeisel, 1981).

The design process must also be understood within the context of the problem situation. Boyd's (1976) model of designer-object-perceiver provides a control for this need since the object or product<sup>1</sup> serves as the nexus connecting the designer and viewer/perceiver and is influenced by contextual forces. As the tangible outcome of the design process, the object reflects the intentions of the designer. Equally, the meaning given to the object suggests a necessary response of a perceiver or conglomerate of perceivers. Thus the framework prompts a needed sociological perspective to the study of design as well as psychological and aesthetic ones (Dohr & Forbess, 1986). With these three perspectives interacting, the aesthetic based model provides a framework for asking questions and studying creative art and design over the life span.

## Contextual Life Span Development

The life course may be examined in terms of various time frames that are constructed by both psychological and sociological positions. Individual life time runs on chronological age; social time runs according to sociocultural norms; and historical time runs by characterization of significant past events (Clausen, 1986). Advocates of a phenomenological viewpoint (Ryff, 1984) would add a subjective time frame — defined as self-perceived change spanning the life course — to Clausen's scheme. Self-perceived change may be targeted retrospectively, concurrently, or prospectively. While it is important to point out differences in growth or the "clocks that time us" (Featherman, 1986), it is of greater importance to examine multiple interactions occurring among them.

In the spirit of a systems approach that has compatibility with the design-aesthetic based framework presented, Ryff (1984) pointed out the interaction and strength between the subjective time frame and others. She discussed significant parallels in individual experiences that are influenced by the context in which we live, our surrounding culture, our period in the life span, and our place in history.

This life span construct was used in examining creative aesthetic components of the design process with rural older adults (Dohr & Forbess, 1986). The study was based upon earlier work of Romaniuk and her colleagues (1978, 1981, 1984). In an attempt to overcome the obstacles of using instruments validated with children for assessing the creativeness of older adults, Romaniuk (1978) systematically examined self-perceived attitudes and levels of creativity across the life span through retrospective, concurrent, and prospective report. Among several measures, adults plotted their creativity lifeline and targeted descriptions of creative peaks and definitions of creative productivity. Analysis of the timelines revealed that perceived creative peaks were typically represented by concrete products and activities rather than abstract abilities. Given these findings and the definition of creativity, Dohr & Forbess (1986) concluded that the design-aesthetic framework with a life span perspective of development, rather than the more commonly used cognitive perspective (Alpaugh, 1982; Guilford, 1967), would guide the questions and methods for better understanding the growth and outcomes of creative behavior.

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Analyzing lifeline graphs, Dohr & Forbess (1986) found three profiles of the creatively active older adults — a consistent, an up early-up late, and rising types. The up early-up late profile was most frequently observed and was similar to the pattern of creative development reported by Romaniuk and her associates (1984). The consistent type characterized themselves as adapting their creative activity to changing life styles and environments and giving time and place to their interest. Of special interest was why up early-up late vs. consistent profiles of creative development appear. What personal and environmental factors exist that might explain different creative growth patterns? Family and career employment and creative peaks were significant factors in both studies, as well as a sense of growth

**“... a life span, developmental approach and the design process have underlying assumptions and structure which not only complement each other, but together are necessary for expanding knowledge in [Home Economics]. . .”**

of the self or maturity. Time available was important in the Dohr study.

Continued statistical study of why the consistent profile might differ from the up early-up late profile has resulted in a systems model of creativeness based upon the theories of Gruber (1981), Feldman (1980), and Gardner (1982). Gruber stated that creative development is dependent upon coincidence of genetic, familial, motivational, and cultural factors. The interaction of three systems appear significant to predicting the difference in creative activity patterns. Personality: internal motivation, the social environment: family interest and career flexibility, plus the knowledge system: thought structuring of information and expressive mode preference comprise the model (Pm + Sf&c + Kts&e = Lifeline Profile).

Research is currently in progress to gain further understanding of the thought-structuring phenomenon of this model. It is at this point that the design process, as a problem solving approach, will be examined with the hypothesis that the thought involved in art and design experiences teaches individuals to select from and relate multiple solutions rather than one correct answer. As an intervention tool, design could contribute to successful outcomes in aging.

## Optimal Developmental Outcomes and Design Process

When sociological, aesthetic, and psychological perspectives are interlaced, a larger picture of optimal developmental outcomes becomes apparent. Whereas the study of development has traditionally revolved around an intellectual trajectory culminating in adolescence (Clausen, 1986), other researchers (Baltes et al., 1984) have argued that intelligence evolves over the life span as one moves into different roles and contexts. The ability to adopt new *life scripts* is necessary for successful development. This developmental progression should be reflected by changing definitions of intellectual growth. More than a single correct answer exists for many uniquely human issues of life and some of these issues might be classified as *ill-structured problems* without clearly defined solutions (Kitchener, 1983).

Employing design process strategies could assist the working through of ill-structured life issues. In the process of design, a number of acceptable pathways can be taken in committing to a design solution (Nadler & Peterson, in press; Zeisel, 1981). Furthermore, the individual who generates a variety of solutions is more likely to be successful in the endeavor than is the designer who sees only one possible design option (McKim, 1980). The context of the problem is of paramount importance in both design and life issues, thus we return to the design-aesthetic based framework where a designer, perceiver, and object/product inherently interact within a contextual field.

Likewise these properties, embedded in the process of design, may transfer to life course adaptation. Successful aging appears to be linked with tailoring the social and built environment to fit changing capacities. Faced with prospect of changes or decline (Fries & Crapo, 1981), older adults must be able to solve ill-structured life issues by creating a goodness of fit between their capacities and the surrounding environmental context. From the research reported, creatively interested individuals appear to achieve this ability. It has been shown that individuals characterized by a consistent profile remained creatively active in spite of environmental stressors and, when faced with physical limitations arising from the aging process, often modified their creative activity or the form in order to remain productive.

As work continues in our field, we might capitalize on the importance of employing interdisciplinary frameworks and build on opportunities available. The design-aesthetic based model, with interacting personality, social, and product relationships incorporated with a life span perspective, may provide the very con-

ceptual guidelines we need for increased discussion among various Home Economics specialties and for interdisciplinary research as well.

## Note

1. Object or product is interpreted as any constructed/built form or activity.



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## OMICRON NU DIAMOND JUBILEE IN 1987

**Eugenia M. Zallen, Alpha Nu**

Omicron Nu will celebrate the 75th anniversary of its existence as a Home Economics Honor Society during 1987. For that celebration, members will return to Michigan State University where the organization was founded to hold its Diamond Jubilee Conclave, June 25-28, 1987. Since Omicron Nu began in 1912, it has grown from its original 12 members to include 49 collegiate chapters and six alumni chapters. More than 61,000 undergraduate and graduate students, faculty, and honorary members have been initiated into Omicron Nu.

Alpha Chapter at Michigan Agricultural College (now Michigan State University) at East Lansing, in its first decade, reached out to establish chapters in Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Wisconsin, Nebraska, and Oklahoma to create a national organization. The idea of a national Home Economics Honor Society was a goal of Omicron Nu from its beginning. Agnes Hunt Cade, one of the most influential of the founders, wrote in her description of the first 50 years that growth of Omicron Nu had been steady: 42 chapters in 31 states and 21,000 members (1962). She noted that the opportunities for continued growth in the future were vast. Mrs. Cade's statement about the future was made at the beginning of one of the major growth periods for Home Economics as a university academic program.

Omicron Nu's founders were influenced to create a Home Economics Honor Society by the existence of honor societies in Agriculture and Engineering as well as by the perceived value of wearing a Phi Beta Kappa or Sigma Xi Key. They stated another purpose: to set high standards on college campuses for the newly emerging academic program of Home Economics. They sought to create for "students in household science an incentive to high scholarship."

Throughout its 75-year history Omicron Nu has promoted graduate study and research and stimulated superior scholarship and leadership. The commitment of members and officers, at the national and local levels, to these principles has positively influenced the profession

**"Omicron Nu was . . . to provide a reminder that learning was the 'chief reason for the existence of colleges'."**

**—Gilchrist**

of Home Economics. Scholarships and fellowships promoted graduate study and research from the beginning. They were awarded also "to further the worldwide movement of Home Economics" (Cade, 1962). Fellowships for research, international students, and postdoctoral study have been awarded to 88 persons. The Matching Funds Scholarship Program, the newest addition to the Omicron Nu scholarship/fellowship program, awarded grants to 43 chapters during 1984-86. Leadership programs are regularly offered for members by the various chapters and by National Omicron Nu. Promotion of graduate study and research is a pervasive theme of Omicron Nu chapter meetings.

The Grand Council of Omicron Nu, in 1985, adopted a Resolution, entitled *Omicron Nu's 75th Anniversary*, to provide direction for the 1985-87 biennium:

Be it . . . resolved that during the 1985-87 biennium,  
\*Activities that provide public recognition of Omicron Nu's objectives of research, leadership, and scholarship shall be enhanced at the local and national levels.

\*A Development Fund Shall be established.

\*Publications of the Society shall provide recognition of the 75th Anniversary.

\*Membership development activities shall foster continued growth of the society.

Criteria for membership in Omicron Nu were discussed by Maude Gilchrist in a 1920 article in the first issue of *Omicron Nu* (a prior name for the national publication). High Scholarship was not intended to be the only criterion for determining a student's eligibility for membership in the Society. It was stated that the characteristic most needed after college was the ability to influence and give leadership to the community. The character of influence was considered the most effective way to judge the ability of a member to impress the community. The ability to organize resources and produce results was described in 1920 as a valued characteristic for members to possess. The ability to achieve/accomplish — not just to belong, exist, or perform routine tasks — remains today as a characteristic sought and nurtured in Omicron Nu members.

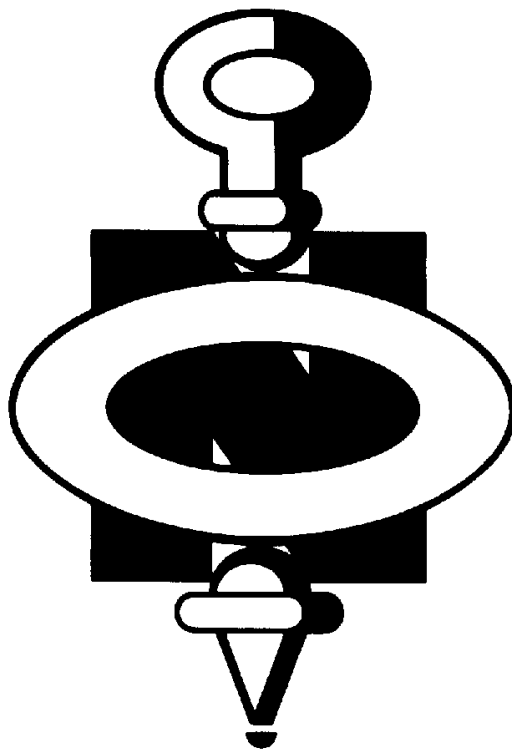
This same article pointed out that the purpose of Omicron Nu was not to emphasize social life, but to provide a reminder that learning was the "chief reason for the existence of colleges" (Gilchrist, 1920). However, there are, as in the beginning, human interactions among Omicron Nu members that center on *pride* and *fellowship*. They are evident at alumni meetings, at Omicron Nu's dinner during the annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association, at Conclave, at chapter initiations and meetings, at honors programs, and other occasions where Omicron Nu members meet. The next time when that pride and fellowship can be shared on the national level is at the Diamond Jubilee Conclave, Michigan State University, June 25-28, 1987.

**PLAN NOW TO PARTICIPATE IN THE CELEBRATION!**

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**See Page 23 for Conclave Registration Form**



# OMICRON NU 1912 - 1987



Carol A. Friesen



Linda K. Good



Joyce E. Jones

**K O PHI HETTIE MARGARET ANTHONY FELLOW**

Carol A. Friesen (Delta Zeta Chapter, College of St. Catherine) was chosen as the recipient of the 1986-87 Kappa Omicron Phi -- Hettie Margaret Anthony Fellowship. Her experience includes six years as an instructor of Foods and Nutrition at Northeast Missouri State University, Kirksville. Carol is currently enrolled in the doctoral program in Human Nutrition at Michigan State University. She also plans to emphasize educational administration in her graduate program.

Carol's interests in human nutrition include study of the effects of marine oils on the incidence of atherosclerosis, hypertension, and inflammatory reactions; various complex carbohydrates on blood glucose levels; and drug-nutrient interactions.

Coincidentally, Carol received the honor of being named "Professor for a Day" at Northwest Missouri State University, the founding chapter of Kappa Omicron Phi and home of the Founder of Kappa Omicron Phi, Hettie Margaret Anthony.

**K O PHI — CARSLIE H. LODTER FELLOW**

The Kappa Omicron Phi — Carslie H. Lodter Fellowship was awarded to Linda K. Good, member of Gamma Nu Chapter (Northeast Louisiana State University), for study at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater.

Linda's experiences have included teaching at Northeast Louisiana State University, a Faculty Professional Development Internship at Sanger Harris in Dallas, and experience as a buyer and manager in a small apparel retail store. Her doctoral research is related to role ambiguity, job dissatisfaction, and job commitment as antecedents to turnover in retail management positions.

This Named Fellowship pays tribute to Carslie H. Lodter whose professional contributions included 25 years as a faculty member at East Tennessee State University in Clothing and Textiles and 13 years as sponsor of Beta Rho Chapter of Kappa Omicron Phi. National Kappa Omicron Phi fellowship funds matched the gifts by colleagues, students, and friends for this recognition of Carslie.

**K O PHI PRESIDENTS FELLOW**

The recipient of the 1986-87 Kappa Omicron Phi — Presidents Fellowship was Joyce E. Jones, member of Iota Chapter (Texas A & I University). Her experience includes work as a State Extension Specialist at University of Nevada, Reno, and Kansas State University, Manhattan. This fellowship will enable her to complete her doctoral work at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater. Her doctoral research involves examination of data from two national representative studies of earnings differential of women to identify and explain the differential.

**1986-87 PROJECT GRANT AWARD**

Call for Undergraduate Research Papers/Journal Publication	
University of Utah	Janet J. Benzley
	Colleen C. Caputo
	Horuko T. Moriyasu
Brigham Young University	Virginia B. Langrehr

This joint project of faculty and AHEA SMS chapters will involve participation by students from all college Home Economics programs in Utah in a competitive Call for Undergraduate Papers, announcement of winners at the UHEA Convention, and publication of winning papers in a journal.

The purposes of the Call for Papers are to promote scholarship, support undergraduate writing, encourage excellence through a program of recognition and reward, give exposure to the interdisciplinary nature of Home Economics, and strengthen future professional membership by strengthening current student affiliation.

The purposes of the Journal are to strengthen interest in Home Economics, give recognition to the best papers, demonstrate the interdisciplinary nature of Home Economics, encourage excellence in thinking and writing, and facilitate scholarly interchange among students at the undergraduate level.

The Call for Papers identifies three broad themes: Families and the Social Environment, Families and the Physical Environment, and Families and the Economics/Political Environment. These themes were chosen to support the interdisciplinary nature of Home Economics and to assure opportunity for participation by students in all areas of Home Economics.

This project nurtures the professional responsibility for effective writing and offers experience in defining a problem, reviewing the literature, and synthesizing and integrating ideas. It also provides visibility for student scholars in Home Economics.

**Kappa Omicron Phi Regional Meetings to be held in 1987**

A five hour workshop, Enabling Families—Roles of Home Economics Professionals, will be offered for Kappa Omicron Phi members as the first component of the two year program theme: enabling families. The workshop is designed to examine the concept of enabling, an important concept in the mission of Home Economics. It will include activities and lecturettes to help members differentiate enabling from helping roles, identify their own enabling qualities and strengths, relate enabling to the building family strengths trend, examine qualities and roles of an enabler, and apply enabling behaviors to individual and family case examples. Emphasis will be on practicing communication skills and relating theory about self and family development to the enabling concept.

The workshop was developed for Kappa Omicron Phi by Dr. Mary Franken, Associate Professor of Family Studies, Department of Home Economics, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls.



**Kappa Omicron Phi  
1922 - 1987**

# Dynamic Permeability in Developing Systems

James D. Moran, III and Janet K. Sawyers

We home economists pride ourselves on the unique perspective in which we consider the development of the individual within the context of family development. Yet we have failed to build a theoretical framework of development that truly incorporates this holistic perspective. Thus, the process of actually providing an integrative approach to Home Economics has proved difficult.

A basis for common theoretical linkage does exist, however, within systems theory. Systemic principles are applicable to many forms of development from single cell organisms to entire societies. Thus, though not unique to Home Economics, such a theoretical perspective is consistent with the rich history of Home Economics research. Unfortunately, it appears that we have not attended to theoretical development as a field (McCullers, 1984). The theoretical constructs, concepts, and terminology used in specialties, even when couched in a systemic paradigm, are not necessarily consistent across specialties. This has not only made it difficult to use developmental perspectives which can be identified with a Home Economics framework, but it also has served as a barrier for truly interdisciplinary (as distinguished from multidisciplinary) research.

The need for a broader perspective is ever increasing as our concept of the family demands multivariate and interdisciplinary understanding (Belsky, 1981; Deacon, Bubolz, Imig, Peck, & Stafford, 1986; French, 1977). Systemic principles appear to be most consistent with the historical and philosophical orientation of Home Economics (Imig, Hertzler, Moran & Rettig, 1986), and provide the flexibility to be adapted to a variety of contexts. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the systemic concept of dynamic permeability (Sawyers & Moran, 1986) as related to the field of Home Economics and developing people.

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## Dynamic Permeability

Systemic adaptation is a complex construct which allows for continuity as well as change over the life of the system. Adaptation should be viewed in a dynamic rather than a static sense and in reference to the situational context. A boundary which distinguishes one system for another, e.g., the family from the environment, affects the system's adaptability (Hill, 1974). This quality is generally recognized as demarking the system. The concept of boundaries involves issues such as (1) the optimal degree of openness, (2) the extent of the boundaries, and (3) the changes in these characteristics over time, including development.

The polar concept of equating closed systems with dysfunction and openness with optimal functioning has not proved satisfactory. Olson and colleagues (e.g., Olson, Russell, & Sprenkle, 1983) have posited a V-shaped relationship with dysfunctional families characterized on the extremes (i.e., enmeshed and chaotic). Even within this framework, however, the situational context is important. When all family members are accepting of an enmeshed relationship, the system may be functional (Olson, Porter, & Lavee, 1985). Similarly, Beavers (1977) suggested that a system needs to be semipermeable to develop. We hold that one needs to posit a dynamic permeability as well. At any given point in time, the system must alter the degree of permeability to protect itself from overload and excessive demands for change as well as provide for additional input of resources and information. For example, a grieving spouse takes in only a portion of the shock immediately after the death. Thus, the degree of openness is not the critical determinant of dysfunction, but rather adaptation of that permeability to fit the situational context.

The issue of extent of the boundaries is also highly relevant to the field of Home Economics. Individuals and families demark their boundaries in a variety of complex ways. Take, for example, the area of clothing. Membership in a professional, ethnic, and/or religious group is often delineated by apparel. The role that foods and housing take in establishing system (i.e., group) membership is also evident. For example, the neighborhood may reflect ethnic group or socioeconomic boundaries of the family. On a different level, the design of the interior of the home/workplace reflects the boundary of the system(s) functioning within and thus affects the

adaptability of the system(s). It is important to note that these boundaries are also not static. The extent of boundaries change with the development of the system. Within the development of the family, certainly the birth of a child or the return of an older parent to the home changes the nature of the system.

The third issue, dealing with the changes in the characteristics of the systems boundaries over time, is also of concern to Home Economics professionals. One of our major goals as a profession is the dissemination of information that will improve the quality of life for individuals and families. The idea of dynamic permeability discussed earlier in the paper suggests the need to be sensitive to the individual family system's current situation. That is, the nature of the system at any given time determines the range of permeability available and desirable for the system in coping with interchange.

**"The failure to . . . [consider development and the dynamic nature of adaptation] may have limited the applicability of our information and may have been one of the reasons why we have not been able to build an interpretive theory of individual and family development."**

For example, at times of situational stress, a family may be more closed than usual and thus unable or unwilling to process new information. When reorganization or accommodation is required, the system must be able to temporarily close off or limit other interchange in order to direct energy into the productive activity of reorganization. Once the reorganization is completed, the system is free to open itself to further interchange.

In relation to the above described process, the role of the Home Economics professional becomes one of assessing not only the appropriateness of the information but the readiness of the individual or family system for processing information. For example, efforts to provide parent or nutrition education to a family experiencing a financial crisis might be futile. Such a crisis may cause the system to close its boundaries to information not directly pertinent to its situation. Only after coping with the

crisis would the permeability of the boundaries again increase. Reexposure to the material might prove effective at this time. Thus, to reach and effect change in a diverse population, presentation of material must coincide with the appropriate systemic permeability. Whether we are dealing with individual or family development, this principle may lead to repeated presentations to find this appropriate match.

### Summary

Our understanding of individual and family systems must consider development and the dynamic nature of adaptation in terms of permeability, extent and readiness. The failure to do so in the past may have limited the applicability of our information and may have been one of the reasons why we have not been able to build an interpretive theory of individual and family development. The concept of dynamic permeability also demands attention to the specific context of development and to the multivariate nature of interactions. This concept requires us to view families (and the individual subsystems within families) at multiple points in time

throughout the course of development. One cannot simply describe a family as *open* or *enmeshed* based on a single sampling of behavior without consideration of the developmental context. Such a concept has implications for our intervention with developing people and developing families. Such a focus on the process of system adaptation also has implications for the theoretical constructs within Home Economics. Theory and intervention should be directly linked, and our field must provide an interpretive theory of individual and family development to guide our practice of developing people.

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# Gender Differences in Perceptions of Stress: A Consideration for The Home Economics Unit

Ruth I. Harmelink

In the past decade, stress in families has received a significant amount of theoretical attention in the family studies literature (Hill, 1958; Burr, 1973; Elder, 1974; Hansen & Johnson, 1979; McCubbin, 1979; McCubbin, Joy, Cauble, Comeau, Patterson, & Needle, 1980). Although the subject of stress has been an important issue in families, as well as other systems such as the workplace, gender differences in perceptions of stressor events have frequently been ignored by theorists, researchers, educators, and stress management experts. This paper will introduce this subject and discuss why it is important for Home Economics units to recognize and deal with gender differences in stress within the university.

## Understanding How Systems Operate

Although system has many definitions, one that is frequently quoted is Hall and Fagan's (1956, p. 18): "A system is a set of objects together with relationships between the objects and between their attributes." The general systems approach in defining the family has been used by numerous family scholars (Buckley, 1967; Kantor & Lehr, 1975; Hill, 1972; Strauss, 1973; Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967).

There are many other kinds of systems besides families. These might include teams, universities, workplaces, and communities. They all have certain features and attributes in common. Just as the family, for example, is a subsystem of a larger system (e.g., community), it too, is composed of smaller sub-systems (e.g., individuals). "Each of these systems has some independence from the suprasystem of which it is a part (e.g., the individual from the family, the family from the community) but only within certain limits beyond which it must comply or suffer" (Skynner, 1981, p. 49). Boundaries help to maintain the individuality of each system. Rule define who participates in family subsystems and how (Minuchin, 1974).

Thus, a family system is defined as goal-seeking. It has boundaries that are either open, in continuous interchange with an

external environment, or closed, self-contained depending on their permeability (Ashby, 1968; Bertalanffy, 1968). The family structure seeks to maintain an equilibrium with all members working for the maintenance of the family system. The family has individuals with roles that may be highly specialized—husbands performing specific tasks and wives performing specific tasks. Phenomenologically, as a result of these different roles within the family, those holding these roles may have different experiences. They may *live in different worlds* and define *their world* differently. W. I. Thomas and D. S. Thomas (1928) wrote, "If people define situations as real, they are real in their consequences" (p. 572). The point is that the subjective interpretations of individual role holders must be seen as having important consequences for the family. "It is what people feel, think, define in relation to the *objective fact* that counts because that leads to real consequences" (Cohen, 1981, p. 187). If husbands and wives define something as a stressor or a stressful event, it is this *definition of the situation* that counts, and this perception will influence what counts as stressors and, in turn, what influences stress outcomes.

## Gender Differences in Perceptions of Stress in A Family

Harmelink (1985) examined gender differences in perceptions of family life-change events and daily stress events in two separate studies. In both studies there were gender differences in husbands' and wives' perceptions of family life-change events, with the wives reporting events as more disturbing than the husbands did.

The gender issue is an important issue, not only as it relates to family problems, but also to problems in the workplace. The following section will examine the importance of dealing with gender differences in perceptions of stress in the workplace.

## Implications for Home Economics Units

A workplace, such as a university or college, is another type of system and like a family system is goal-seeking, with boundaries that are either open or closed with each member (i.e., administrator, dean, faculty person, secretary, etc.) playing highly specialized roles.

If men and women in the workplace come

from families in which the tasks are highly specialized, with husbands performing specific tasks and wives performing specific tasks, they may also regard work roles for themselves and others as highly specialized—with men performing specific tasks and women performing specific tasks. Similar to the family system, this subjective interpretation must be seen as having important consequences for the work system. If gender differences exist in the family's definition of what is stressful, it is likely that men and women in the workplace have different definitions of the situation. Therefore, this perception will influence what is defined as stressful and the outcome of the stress.

Occupational stress is a specific kind of chronic life event stressor. Holt (1982) defined occupational stress as the bad effects that many kinds of work have on most people under certain circumstances. Research on occupational stress has frequently focused on men's work experiences. For example, Althouse and Hurrell (1977) looked at subjective and objective measures of stress using a sample of 486 coal miners. Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1975) in research on job demands and worker health used a sample of 390 men in eight occupations. Studies that give evidence of psychological strains and their relevance to health and disease most likely used male samples, because men were most likely to be working full time (Palmore, 1969; House, 1972; Kasl & Cobb, 1970; Caplan, 1972; French, Tupper, & Mueller, 1965). These studies illustrate that past research on work related stress have ignored women's occupational experience (Holt, 1982). Today a large percent of the work force is composed of women, and the absence of women's views is a serious deficiency.

This is especially important and relevant to the Home Economics unit which is still largely composed of women. Questions need to be raised as to how their experiences in the workplace are different from those of their male counterparts. Does their definition of the situation related to division of labor in the home carry over to the workplace? If men and women define stressors in the workplace differently, what are the implications for stress management? What would gender differences in perceptions of stressors imply for female professors and deans who may have to interact, negotiate, and work with male professionals within

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**“... it is ... [the] definition of the situation that counts, and this perception will influence what counts as stressors and, in turn, what influences stress outcomes.”**

their own Home Economics unit or other colleges? Gender differences in perceptions of stressor events pose some interesting questions and need to be explored further through research on occupational stress with both male and female samples.



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# Basic Human Needs Approach to Third World Development

Linus A. Hoskins

The *Basic Human Needs* approach to development currently characterizes the focus of Third World planners and strategists. This approach evolved from 25 years of non-developmental progress with the Western model. In the 1950's the policy of *industrialization by invitation* was promoted as a development strategy. Massive inputs of foreign capital were recommended to promote industrial growth, create jobs, and redistribute financial benefits, i.e., the *trickle down* theory of development.

This failure to promote significant economic growth (and social equity) led to further studies, notably by the International Labour Organization (I.L.O.). A series of studies by its World Employment Programme revealed that the concepts of *40 hour workweek* and *unemployment* were not functional in developing nations. Rather, the *working poor* and the *informal/non-market sector* more appropriately described societies characterized by subsistence labor, marginal levels of living, and the trade and barter of basic necessities.

In the late 1970's there were other studies by development strategists and international development organizations exploring the distribution of the benefits of economic growth. Often economic growth was accompanied by the concentration of wealth/power in the upper ruling classes; the poorest strata, with unequal and limited access to adequate education, health care, and employment became poorer, less healthy, and less productive. The basic needs approach to development evolved to encompass a reduction of mass deprivation, improvement in the quality of human life, redistribution of income and wealth, and equal access to basic human services. The right to basic needs then became a human right.

## Characteristics of a Basic Needs Approach

Since the late 1970's, many Third World governments have accepted basic human needs either as an organizing slogan or as part of an overall development strategy. This approach targets services to the poorer/poorest strata of the society, i.e., the lowest

40 percent. Services include health care, basic literacy, sanitation, adequate shelter, clean and safe drinking water, minimal nutritional requirements, and access to transportation. For some strategists, basic human needs also encompasses the provision of simple household goods and non-material elements such as cultural identity, a sense of history, participation in the nation-building process, and a sense of purpose in life, work, and society.

In this approach consideration must also be given to income redistribution; all people must be given the ability and opportunity to earn money through productive employment. By spending what they earn on goods and services, the give-and-take of production and consumption could be expected to generate economic growth.

Basic human needs as a development strategy has political and practical appeal. Goals can be set and resources can be targeted toward specific sectors, such as reducing malnutrition among infants and rural pregnant women. Progress can be quantified and the quality of service readily examined. Such goals are less vague than economically-oriented objectives like raising

## "Self-reliance can be viewed as the antithesis of dependence."

growth rates or the GNP. The primary goal of the basic development strategy is not to increase the rate of growth of GNP but to maximize the Gross National Welfare (GNW) of the people. This is a humanized economic goal. It focuses on the humanization/socialization of the means of production, distribution, and exchange to achieve that primary goal.

Although it is a strategy theoretically applicable to all developing countries, basic human needs necessarily must be country specific. It directs itself toward whatever needs are determined as basic, in a given environment, at a specific point in time. Basic human needs involves more than eradicating absolute poverty.

A government incorporating this strategy should be armed with certain central information about what and how much can be produced, what can be distributed, and the available resources—land, labor, financial, natural, man-made, organizations. In addition,

the country's current ability to provide basic needs should be assessed by asking the following questions:

- What is the actual level of supply of goods and services?
- What is the accessibility and range of alternative goods and services?

The mechanisms that implementation and resource-mobilization require will depend on the unique social, economic, and political structure of the country.

The answer to "Who should determine basic needs?" is, "The people themselves should decide the characteristics of their own basic needs." The ILO argues that

*A basic needs strategy includes mass participation of the people, both in defining basic needs and in the decisions taken to meet basic needs and that there must be a mechanism introduced into the planning process through which representatives of organized groups choose basic needs . . . (Time, 1984).*

It has been argued that the people are poor judges of their needs. This hardly seems rational, since it is the people who are suffering a lack of certain basic services. A radical restructuring of the society, economy, and institutions is required to accomplish the goals of eradicating deprivation, dependency, and underdevelopment.

Cuba and Grenada (under slain Prime Minister Maurice Bishop) are countries noteworthy for having established mechanisms for input from the *bottom* or *grass roots* up. In Grenada, under The Jewel Movement, no laws or major bills were considered by the Central Committee (the government) before they were circulated in all public areas of the country. This provided a forum for input, dialogue, and comment by the masses. Because of its relatively small population (110,000), Grenada effectively used this uniquely functional form of democracy—the full public participation in governmental affairs by all citizens.

In Cuba, community branches of the Communist Party meet periodically to comment on strategies proposed by the government. These branches also note their needs/difficulties in documents which return to the government. The popularly elected leaders of each area constantly elicit and receive input for decision making. Meetings are held regularly by the local branches of the Communist Party which organizes and facilitates this two-way information flow.

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The background and training of expert administrators/economists/development specialists/political scientists must carefully be considered. Experts, whether foreign nationals or foreign trained *locals*, reflect the attitudes and values of their particular class and educational exposure. They may be less than objective in defining criteria for basic needs and more inclined to import solutions. Reliance on international aid organizations, to support basic human needs strategies as an alternative, may add to the growth debt burden in which developing nations frequently find themselves. Indeed, reliance on external nationals to solve problems subverts the evolution of indigenous solutions and is itself a form of dependency. For example, the Ivory Coast, where the average person owns a refrigerator and television, is viewed as an *economic success* even by Western standards, but now there are more French there than when the country became independent (Time, 1984).

Another question central to the discussion of the political context of the basic human needs strategy is that of control over factor endowments. Given the largely exploitative nature of transnational enterprises (TNEs) who do business with and in Third World countries, control of such businesses is essential. Nonnationalized capitalist enterprises operating within a country purporting to follow a basic needs strategy is contradiction in terms. The sole objective of the TNEs is to maximize their profits, whereas the sole objective of the basic needs strategy is to maximize the national welfare. Therein lies the contradiction. The TNEs are economically exploitative and not socially responsible.

Even more importantly, a country's factor endowments must be carefully monitored so that its finite raw materials are not extracted completely. Capitalism requires raw materials to produce manufactured goods which are in turn sold to the open market, often at prices prohibitive to mass consumption in the very countries from which the raw materials are drawn.

It is clear that to allocate basic needs, a government must control the natural resources of the nation and consider these questions:

- How secure is the supply of basic needs resources? Are the factor endowments being exploited in any way? by any source?
- Who controls the means of production, distribution, and exchange?

Third world countries have suffered dependent-underdevelopment through integration into the world capitalist system. This has meant the formation of particular social and economic structures which fit the needs of capitalism; frequently, indigenous structures disintegrate. Indeed, some theorists believe dependence limits growth by retarding the development of local productive

forces. This dependence has created secondary dependencies and problems: technology, communications systems, the increasing role of transnational enterprises, financial indebtedness, and little improvement in the quality of human life. In addition, the international economic system has developed a schema for exploiting peripheral countries' resources.

Because of their dependency condition, developing countries experience a qualitatively different form of development in which growth does not lead to a wider distribution of income and social benefits. Their economies are so distorted that internal linkages are weakened or destroyed, and linkages with external economies are forged instead. Such economies then respond to external and not internal changes. Economic diversification is limited by enforced bilateralism, a policy wherein Third World countries are pressured into trading exclusively (or primarily) with their former colonizers.

Self-reliance can be viewed as the antithesis of dependence. This perspective forms the political context for the provision of basic needs. The key is to regain control over the exploited resources of the periphery—capital, raw materials, labor, and human creativity. The necessary conditions for self-reliance are local control and mass participation—the same elements that make a basic needs development strategy responsive to the needs of the people. These conditions also provide for the satisfaction of nonmaterial basic needs as well, i.e., cultural identity, a sense of purpose in life and work, and participation in the nation-building process.

### BACHUE Model

One basic needs model is the BACHUE-Philippines Model, developed by Gerry Rogers, Mike Hopkins, and Rene Wery for the ILO in 1977. This model simulates the economic and demographic aspects of development over a 10-50 year period. In its attempt to replicate real world phenomena, the BACHUE Model incorporates relationships previously observed in development studies into macro and micro level analyses. The BACHUE Model (ILO, 1977) contains about 250 behavioral equations and identities. A matrix of key areas of household decision making (micro level) is integrated into a macro level analysis exploring the relationships between demand, output, employment, and income. This model consists of three subsystems—economic, labor market and income distribution, and demographic—and the linkages among them.

The response of the model to specific external changes was investigated by *policy analysis*. This analysis permitted an evaluation of benefits, costs, and possible effects of

certain government policies or changes in policy on the larger society. Of three possible development strategies explored with BACHUE—Industrialization, ILO Comprehensive Mission, and Egalitarian—the latter is most consistent with a policy of satisfying basic human needs.

The Egalitarian strategy was designed with the goal of increasing the incomes of the poor and reducing income inequities. This strategy can be implemented by any government which seeks to eradicate poverty. It includes, *inter alia*, wage subsidies, rural education, land reform, increases in labor intensive sectors of production, public works, extensive modern sector nationalization, and transfers to low income groups. Financing for this strategy would be provided by nationalization and progressive income taxation.

Projecting these strategies over the 10-50 year time frame of the BACHUE Model, the data demonstrated that such strategies would be relatively successful in reducing poverty and inequality by the year 2000. Income distribution would be among the most equitable in nonsocialist countries. Rural incomes would increase considerably most of the poor would be in urban areas; and the urban rich would experience a decline by up to one-half their income.

### Bariloche Model

Another well-known model was created at Fundacion Bariloche, the Latin American Research Institute, as a version of an alternative path to global development oriented toward the satisfaction of basic human needs and based on a strategy of collective self-reliance (Heierli, 1981). The primary purpose of the model as originally constructed was to demonstrate the physical and technological viability of this alternative global vision of society. Basic human needs and collective self-reliance are proposed as intermediate goals for an ideal society through which developing countries could improve their own economic and political situation, domestically and internationally. The underlying assumption of the Bariloche Model is that the obstacles currently preventing harmonious global development are essentially sociopolitical rather than physical or economic.

Four world-regions—developed countries, Latin America, Asia, and Africa—are distinguished in the model. Regional self-sufficiency is emphasized, and in particular, the separation of developing from the developed regions. Latin America, Africa, and Asia are described as largely autonomous regions with the East and West developed nations as a single autonomous region. Major assumptions of the model are that (a) socio-economic variables are important in managing population growth and (b) full employment



of human resources and the possibility of substitution of capital by labor in each production sector must be accomplished.

The Bariloche Model includes the following characteristics:

- It describes casual relationships between a range of demographic, economic, and environmental factors at a high level of regional aggregation;
- It projects future world economic and demographic trends up to a relatively distant time horizon, considerably beyond that normally associated with planning; and
- It applies a programming strategy to optimize the distribution of economic resources (capital and labor) between sectors in order to bring about the achievement of basic needs as rapidly as possible.

This Model has not been *tested* or implemented as is the case with BACHUE; rather, its significance has been largely in the debate about the long-term future, first as a reply to *The Limits of Growth* (Meadows, 1974) and as a version of self-reliant development of basic needs. The model is directed at influencing public opinion but has not yet

formed the basis of policy making. It is most significant as a contribution to the creation of a Third World ideology and an attempt to forge an alternative to capitalism.

### Summary

Local or national basic human needs and self-reliant strategies are not enough. Regional and global approaches combined with national and local approaches could bring about development of societies wherein true human well-being is the goal. Traditional development models/strategies have turned Third World countries into carbon copies of the more developed nations. A basic human needs approach is one framework toward rectifying that condition.

The satisfaction of basic needs most effectively takes place within a political framework of self-reliance. The whole theory of self-reliance is based fundamentally on the fact that a country's resources (capital, labor, factor endowments, and the potential of its populace) constitute a reservoir of forces that are sufficient for the satisfaction of basic human material needs all over the world, within a generation. Basic human needs and self-reliant approaches are two sides of the same developmental coin. It is

only by adopting these strategies that developing countries can extricate themselves from the doldrums of dependency and underdevelopment.



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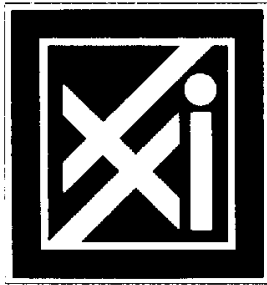
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