Home Economics

FORUM

SPECIAL FEATURE: UNDERGRADUATE WRITING

ASSUMING LEADERSHIP AS A BEGINNER IN RESEARCH

EXPLORING CAREER OPPORTUNITIES FOR LEADERSHIP

PROMOTING LEADERSHIP IN THE PROFESSION

SYSTEMIC MODELS FOR HOME ECONOMICS RESEARCH AND APPLICATION

Omicron Nu President's Message

Gwen C. Cooke

Today is a time of challenge and change in Omicron Nu as it is in the profession of Home Economics. Change is with us always, and we can be proactive and help make the changes we want as a national honor society. Our challenge is great and related to the national milieu in which we are immersed, including the economic, political, and educational realities of our colleges and universities.

The National Omicron Nu Board of Directors looked at challenges and change at the January meeting to determine programs and activities to accomplish the biennial goals:
- To promote honor society membership as a status credential.
- To foster recognitions and awards.
- To encourage scholarship.
- To promote a program of work that reflects excellence and promotes scholarly dialogue.

Omicron Nu Chapters can accomplish the goals through the following activities and programs:
- Development Fund-New Initiatives—Two new programs, Honor and Memorial Awards and Research Project Grant.
- Fellowships and Scholarships—Research Fellowships, Eileen C. Maddex Fellowship, Post-Doctoral Fellowship, Chapter Scholarship Program.
- National Program Theme—"Perpetuating Excellence in the Profession of Home Economics."
- Call for Undergraduate Student Papers—AHEA Undergraduate Student Research Papers Session and *Home Economics FORUM*.
- Chapter Awards—Commitment to Writing Program and Merit Awards, Chapter Enrichment Awards, Adviser Award of Excellence.

- Membership enrollment and renewal.

The three National Home Economics Honor Societies have worked together this past year in cooperative efforts. Phi U made the decision at their June Conclave to take no further action at this point on the issue of potential consolidation. However, KOPhi and ON are continuing to explore this new possibility and will proceed with discussions. KOPhi discussed this concept at their August Conclave and Omicron Nu will have thorough and open discussion next August during Conclave. The established timeline indicates a vote by all the chapters in November of 1989.

Omicron Nu continues to be a leading force in our profession. Our strength will be determined by our future far-reaching decisions. We need to study the issues, and all members need to become a part of the decision-making process.

Kappa Omicron Phi President's Message

Peggy S. Meszaros

In 1968 John Gardner wrote, "Perhaps the most promising trend in our thinking about leadership is the growing conviction that the purposes of the group are best served when the leader helps followers to develop their own initiative, strengthens them in the use of their own judgment, enables them to grow and to become better contributors." This statement typifies my philosophy of leadership and is one I have tried to carry out as your President for the past two years.

In 1986 I pledged my commitment, energy, and enthusiasm to you as we risked together in our leadership venture. I cited our opportunities in John Naisbitt's "time of the parenthesis"—the time between eras. Our theme of "Enabling Families" with an emphasis on public policy and a commitment to writing has been carried out through chapters, regionals, and national conclave.

In the final year of my Presidency, what mountains are left to conquer? As leaders for a new era—and that is a title for a new book edited by Madeleine Green and an apt description for each member—Maccoby noted "that technical skills may be necessary but all leaders must be able to articulate goals and values." Kappa Omicron Phi members: The 1990's and

beyond—your era of the 21st century—demands that we make strong strides ahead in 1988-89. The goals and values I propose for your consideration are the following:
1. Chapters will promote the understanding of standards for certification and the value of certification.
2. Chapters will promote the importance of writing skills and continue to increase the participation of KOPhi members in the Call for Undergraduate Student Papers, instituted by the Coordinating Council.
3. Chapters will encourage increased applications and increased support for scholarships and fellowships.
4. Continuing support for the Coordinating Council of Home Economics Honor Societies and the Consolidation of Omicron Nu and Kappa Omicron Phi will remain a high priority for 1988-89.
5. Recognition and support for the role of honor society sponsor/adviser will be actively sought.
6. Chapters will promote the theme, "Leadership through Communication," and will stimulate member involvement in local, state, and national research and scholarly paper presentations.

Two exciting new initiatives have been developed by the National Council to support these goals. $500 will be shared by six chapters for annual required programs that meet the award criteria for creative and innovative programs addressing the theme, "Leadership through Communication." Regional meetings will feature a session for presentation of student papers.

As leaders for the new era you continue to stand within that time between eras, but it is clearly *you* who will determine the future of KOPhi. I pledge to you once again my commitment, my energy, and my enthusiasm; and I call upon each of you to dedicate yourselves anew to your role as scholar/leaders who *must* be articulate, well informed, and committed. To quote John Gardner once again:
> Don't think you can do very much all by yourself. There are too many of them and only one of you. Leadership may appear to be a man [or woman] on a white horse leading the multitude, but you'll do a lot better if you get off the horse and entice the best of the multitude to join you up front.

I invite each of you *up front,* and may 1988-89 be our most successful yet for Kappa Omicron Phi.

Leading the Way Toward the New Agriculture: Assessment of Clothing Needs of Small-Scale Farmers

Lori A. Dobson and M. Suzanne Sontag

Major transformations in the economic and social structure of American society are taking place. Families are changing occupations, geographic locations, and lifestyles. Increasing numbers of families are engaging in small-scale, diversified income farming to augment family income and to attain a more satisfying quality of life (Kerr, 1984, 1980). According to the 1982 Census of Agriculture, the number of farms under 50 acres in the United States increased by 17 percent from 1978 to 1982 and comprised 28 percent of all farms in 1982 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1983). Many of these families are adopting a lifestyle of voluntary simplicity that is also capable of providing fulfilling work. Some are environmentalists who are trying to restore an ecological balance to the land through use of appropriate technology. In the sense described by Milbrath (1984), they are vanguards for a new society. That is, they advocate ". . .careful and subdued production and consumption, conservation of resources, protection of the environment, and the basic values of compassion, justice, and quality of life" (Milbrath, 1984, p. 14).

Identification of Need

With the changing types of farms and associated values of farm families come many new needs in order to maintain a comfortable and safe existence. Research is required to

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identify these changing needs and provide strategies for meeting them. An interdisciplinary human ecological research project funded by the Michigan State University Agricultural Experiment Station for a five-year period, 1983-1988, was one such study. The project involved family systems research and consisted of a longitudinal study of the management and operation of limited acreage farms on which families lived and experimented with a variety of farm enterprises combined with off-farm employment. The farms were located on a University field research station site. It was from this project that the need for functional farm clothing was identified.

There has been some previous interest in this area. Frankenbach (1981) identified clothing and grooming problems of women who participated in a wide range of farm activities, from chores and field work to complete management of a livestock enterprise. Motivated farm women have begun to design and market fashion coveralls for farm activities (Jacobs, 1986). Much research has taken place in the design and evaluation of protective clothing and textile materials for farmers who apply pesticides (Nelson and Fleeker, 1988; Nielsen and Moraski, 1986; Branson, 1982), but little research has been conducted on the clothing needs of small-scale farmers who practice regenerative agriculture with limited or no use of commercial pesticides.

During the course of the research project, two of the families identified the need for functional garments for use during their small-scale farming activities. The adult family members were young, in their twenties and early thirties. The husband and wife in both families were actively involved in farm work. One family operated a small five-acre intensive vegetable and fruit farm and practiced regenerative agriculture. The other family had a twenty-acre farm producing crops such as alfalfa and raising sheep for food and fiber. Three of the four adults had a college education with baccalaureate degrees in their respective fields. The clothing needs identified by the participants led to the incorporation of an additional research component in the project concerning the development of functional garments for small-scale farmers.

Application of the Functional Design Process

Our research project incorporated the use of a modification of the functional design process as presented by Orlando (1979). This process was used to identify the factors needed in developing functional prototype garments for small-scale farming activities. More specifically, the process defines the clothing design problem, identifies critical factors, and outlines design specifications to be used in creation of a prototype garment.

The functional design process consists of a series of steps. The first is satisfied when a request is made. The design situation is then explored, and the problem structure is perceived. This involves the assessment of the critical factors of the design problem. From these factors, design specifications are described and then prioritized. Design features are then incorporated into the development of a prototype garment which is then evaluated.

The research project was based upon a similar process. A request was made by the participants in the family systems research. From that point, an interview was conducted to investigate the problems and perceptions of the small-scale farming research participants. Additionally, an analysis of motion was conducted by taking photographs of the individuals performing their routine farming activities. These findings were used in guiding the development of prototype garments.

This paper reports the analysis of the interview data only. Interviews were transcribed and coded according to four specific categories: environmental conditions, critical factors, design specifications, and design features. *Environmental conditions* are defined as those elements of the natural environment, such as climate and insects, and constructed objects, such as tools and machinery, that interact with human performance in the small- farm setting. *Critical factors* include the physical and socio-psychological dimensions important for the design of farm clothing as reflected in statements of preferences, values, and attitudes based on the participants' past experience. *Design specifications* are the guidelines for the design of farm clothing as derived from the assessment of the critical factors. Finally, *Design fea-*

tures are the component parts of the garment prototypes. Table 1 provides a summary of the physical and socio-psychological critical factors and design specifications determined from the analysis of interviews. These, together with the environmental conditions and some design features, are explained more fully in the following section.

Table 1 — Critical Factors and Design Specifications for Clothing for Small-Scale Farmers

Critical factors	Design specifications
Physical	
Barrier protection	A boundary layer is needed to protect the body from certain aspects of the environment.
Ultraviolet radiation	Lengthy exposure to potentially harmful rays of the sun requires body coverage and sunscreen use.
Insects	Use of coverage and repellent lotion to ward off irritation caused by biting insects.
Hay	Tightly woven full body covering would provide barrier from hay irritation.
Technological safety	No loose clothing should be worn where there is concern for safety when handling tools and operating machinery.
Thermal comfort	Design features are needed to promote ventilation for heat transfer from specific body areas.
Mobility	Clothing should facilitate unrestricted motion in performance of activities.
Socio-psychological	
Economy	Low monetary investment is needed in functional clothing purchases.
Design preferences	Incorporate priorities of individuals for specific clothing styles and details.
Image	Functional clothing should meet the desired expression of self.

Physical Critical Factors

Barrier protection. A boundary layer is needed between the body and its environment for barrier protection. Protection is needed because of exposure to three environmental conditions: ultraviolet radiation, insects, and hay. Lengthy exposure to the sun can be a potentially harmful situation for the farmer as was recognized by one of the participants when she

stated, "All of this stuff coming out about how terrible the sun is for you concerns me in our line of work . . . where one deals with it everyday." The design specification suggested by the farm families was a light body covering of sensitive areas such as the back of the neck. Topical application of sunscreen was also identified. Another factor which caused concern was the irritation caused by biting insects while working during dusk. Tactile response to hay irritation was a major concern of the participants. "Hay sticks all over your body," is one such comment, as well as, "Hay scratches and leaves dust pollen on your skin which itches . . . hay irritates the legs and lower arms." One solution to this problem was the use of a full body covering made of tightly woven fabric with high twist yarns to prevent penetration of hay. Also identified was the problem of dust penetration through clothing and hay collecting in and on clothing. Design specifications suggested for this problem were eliminating cuffs and positioning pockets in back of garment, lower on leg, or on the side of the garment.

Technological Safety. This factor identifies a concern for the wearing of loose clothing around farm machinery and tools. "Open jackets, flapping sleeves, and frayed edges can be easily caught in power equipment" (Manikowske, 1985, p. 3). One of the male participants stated that, "Nothing can be hanging that would catch on the P.T.O.'s (Power Take Off)." Fitted clothing, then, is necessary for use with tools and machinery around the farm. The participants also identified the need for special features to accommodate the tools used during farming activities. A suggestion was made for longer pockets that would safely enclose the tool on the side of the leg. This would eliminate the problem around machinery of hanging tools, which were of genuine concern for the farmers.

Thermal Comfort. The ability to transfer heat from the body is a major requirement of clothing in summer months. This is especially necessary for the face, shoulders, upper back, arms, and forearms. Strategically positioned ventilation panels were suggested by researchers and accepted by the farmers as a solution for releasing heat from the body.

Mobility. Since there is extensive activity involved in farming, this factor is of special concern for farmers. Clothing is needed that will facilitate unrestricted motion in the performance of farming activities. A design specification for necessary bending activities was the incorporation of longer tails on shirts. Another was the reinforcement and padding of the knee area for one male farmer who knelt when mulching and weeding.

Socio-psycholgocial Critical Factors

Economy. One of the farmers' concerns dealt with the cost that would be involved in the buying of functional farm clothing. One farm woman stated, "You buy nice clothes, and after six months they become work clothes." Development of specialized clothing for small farm needs may require a reorientation of the way farmers think about acquiring clothing. A low monetary investment would most likely be needed for acceptance of farm clothing items.

Design Preferences. The participants were asked their favorite colors, styles, and design detailing. This step was needed so that the proposed prototypes would be attractive to them. This research found that they indeed had priorities for specific clothing styles and details such as jeans, painter pants, and tank tops. Individuals also specified many design details to be avoided, such as elastic waists, collars that fall onto the face when bending, and three-quarter length sleeves that catch on the elbow.

Image. The final critical factor in the socio-psychological category is image: the desired expression of self achieved through functional clothing. A statement by one of the farm men suggested that "Farm clothing should be practical and comfortable. . . my idea of practical is a T-shirt and jeans." The other male farmer, however, said that he wanted to present an image that was "more clean cut than the regular farmer." He explained this in terms of being in a position of educating others about farming as well as having others realize that he cared about his appearance. This translated into a desire for "something with some color to it, rather than just blue jeans and a brown shirt. I would like something a bit more coordinated. . ." A final aspect was introduced by one of the women who said, "I like people to know I am a woman, too." This resulted in her wearing sundresses while working in the field. Functional clothing, if it is to be acceptable, needs to fit the image of the wearer.

Summary and Implications

This research was designed to respond to the expressed need of small-scale farm families who are leading the way toward the new agriculture. Clothing practices during farming were determined as well as their preferences for color, style, design, and image. The goal was to reach a consensus on the clothing design problem and formulate a method for applying the functional design process to this problem. Critical factors were determined from the interviews, and specifications were derived. Design features were selected for use in four

prototype garments which have yet to be tested. The four garments were designed to satisfy different needs: a male and female working with hay and a male and female working in summer heat. The perceived importance of our project was summed up by one of the male participants who said, "I'm glad to see some of you working on it, because it's something I don't think anybody's really paid attention [to]."

Additional research is needed to assess the needs of small-scale farmers operating a variety of farm enterprises. Preliminary work has begun on the development of instruments and procedures for evaluating design prototypes. Involvement of a number of researchers and designers is needed to fully assess and meet the clothing needs of small-scale farmers. From feedback of the participants, other researchers should be encouraged to accept the challenge to become pioneers in this largely untapped area of study.

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If you let me have those two, I'll let you have my dinosaur:

The Impact of Show and Tell on Preschooler's Possessive Behavior

Stacey McVey and Monica Stokes

The study reported in this paper investigated possessive behaviors of preschool children on show and tell versus non-show and tell days. Although a number of studies have focused on possessive behaviors (Rudmin, 1986), possessiveness during show and tell had not been investigated previously.

Originally, we were interested in observing show and tell because the activity occurs in many school settings and is a controversial subject among teachers. The articles in the literature about show and tell were written by educators who were discussing their own opinions on the subject. For example, Harris (1982) and Timberlake (1973) described show and tell as a "bring and brag" session rather than a learning experience. Bingham and Dusenbery (1979) described an alternative to the traditional show and tell, whereas Cazden (1985) defended traditional show and tell, arguing that it helped to develop imagination. Although these articles provided some insight into the functions of show and tell, none of them were research-based. Since we found no available research on show and tell, a naturalistic approach was selected to observe what actually occurred during show and tell.

The nature of show and tell at the preschool we observed was unusual. Show and tell took place every Monday at 8:00 a.m. in the *block* room of the preschool. Each child brought a toy of his or her choice and presented it to the teacher as well as to any interested children. Children who were occupied with building or constructing with blocks were not required to pay attention to the child presenting a toy. After the toy had been presented, the child had a choice between remaining in the block room

and building a structure for the toy or leaving the room. On show and tell day, the only way to gain access to the block room was by entering with a show and tell item. In contrast, on a non-show and tell day, any child could have access to the block room. On all days the maximum number of children allowed in the block room at one time was eight.

In the course of our naturalistic observations of show and tell, the theme of possession emerged: behaviors such as sharing, playing together with toys, ownership, and possessiveness appeared to be relevant. Ramsey (1986) found that possessive behaviors over objects and territory often resulted in disputes among preschool children. With regard to the location of our observations, in a block room, it is important to note that blocks have been found to enhance social interaction, playing together, and sharing (Quilitch and Risley, 1973; Minchupin and Shapiro, 1983; Hendrickson, Strain, Tremblay, and Shores, 1981). When toys were limited, blocks were also a source of conflict, which increased the need for sharing (Minchupin and Shapiro, 1983). But children were found to be less cooperative with their personal toys and defended them more often as compared to school toys (Eisenberg-Berg, Haake, Hand, and Sadella, 1979). Another factor contributing to disputes and possessive behaviors was room size, especially when there was only one entrance to the room (Ramsey, 1986). This may have had an effect in our study due to the fact that the block room was the only enclosed room, as well as the smallest (16 ft. x 11 ft.) in the preschool center, and it had only one entrance. Because the perimeter space was cluttered with building materials and manipulatives, the actual play area was limited and concentrated toward the center of the room. Within the physical and social context of the preschool's block room, the current study investigated the impact of show and tell upon the possessive behaviors of preschool children.

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Method

The subjects were 20 preschool children, 6 females and 14 males ranging in age from 3 to 5 years, who attended the University Child Care Center. All of the children were white and 90 percent of their parents were either students or faculty. The Center was divided into activity areas such as the block room, creative arts, etc. Our observations were recorded in the block room area.

We began our study by getting the children accustomed to our presence in the block room by sitting in on one show and tell day and one non-show and tell day each week over a three-week period. During this time we observed and kept field notes of activities and behaviors that took place in the block room. At the end of the three-week period, the children seemed to be comfortable with our presence, and there was a mutual agreement with the Center Director that the children were ready to accept the presence of a video camera. The teachers had prepared the children for the camera by telling them that we were going to take movies of their toys. We felt that videotaping the children might cause a problem because the children had never been videotaped. The videotaping process took place twice a week over a two-week period for approximately 40 minutes on each occasion. One show and tell and one non-show and tell day were taped each week.

Two coders simultaneously, yet independently, viewed the video tapes and recorded the dialogue, names of the children, and the show and tell toys. In the event that our notes did not coincide, a third person was to be called in to break the tie. However, this step was never needed. A list of 20 possessive behaviors was then compiled from the written dialogue. The coders then viewed the video tapes a second time in order to record the number of times each of these behaviors actually occurred. There was complete agreement between the two coders with respect to the nature and frequency of the behaviors. Then the written behaviors and dialogue were read, and the behaviors were counted each time they occurred. A total count of each behavior was taken after all of the days were coded.

The total number of children present on show and tell and tell days was 21, and the total on non-show and tell days was 13. Due to unequal numbers of children, standardization was performed in order to compare the results. The total number of behaviors was divided by the total number of children and multiplied by 10. Table 2 presents standardized frequencies for all the coded behaviors on show and tell days and non-show and tell days.

Results and Discussion

Grouping the various behaviors into summary categories made it easier to compare behaviors on show and tell versus non-show and tell days (Table 1). The first group of behaviors, *Requests (Implicit and Explicit)*, occurred more often on show and tell days. During show and tell, the children brought unique toys, whereas during non-show and tell, the only available toys were school toys. It appeared that the children were more conscious of and curious about what the other children were playing with, and they requested to handle more objects.

Table 1—Possessive Behaviors

	MEANS*	
	Show & Tell	Non-Show & Tell
1. Request (Implicit & Explicit)	31.39	9.23
Walks over and stares		
Sits and stares		
Request to touch		
Touches toy		
Request to play with toy		
Request to play together		
2. Transfer of toy	6.20	0.00
Owner offers toy		
Owner gives toy		
Toy is passed		
Bargaining		
3. Conflicts	10.47	2.30
Refusal of request		
Owner takes toy back		
Child takes toy		
Tug-of-war		
4. Restrictiveness	13.33	16.16
Statement of ownership		
Statement of restrictiveness		
Vigilance		
5. Playing together	3.81	5.38
6. Abandonment	10.00	1.54
7. Request to play alone	0.00	6.15

*(Total number of Behaviors/Total Number of Children) x 10 = Mean

The second grouping, *Transfer (of a Toy)*, occurred exclusively on show and tell days. Perhaps these actions occurred only during show and tell because the children were not required to share their personal toys. Therefore, communication was needed among the children in order for another child to gain possession of the toy he or she wanted. On non-show and tell days the children were required to share all the toys because they were property of the preschool. Therefore, the children did not have to engage in any type of direct transfer of possessions because each child understood that he or she had an equal right to play with the toys.

The third grouping, *Conflict*, occurred more often on show and tell days, probably because the children realized that their only chance to

play with the personal belongings of others occurred in the block room for the allotted hour. Therefore, children were more likely to take toys from one another as well as deny access to a toy. Disputes often arose from these behaviors.

The fourth grouping, *Restrictiveness*, occurred at approximately the same frequency on both days. On show and tell days the children were more restrictive over toys because they were personally owned, whereas on non-show and tell days the children were restrictive over play space and structures rather than toys. These behaviors directly related to Ramsey's (1986) findings about the disputes surrounding territory and object possession in relation to blocks and built structures. The size of the room as well as the limited amount of space in which the children had to play may also have had an effect on the restrictive behaviors that took place.

Three behaviors did not fit into the above categories. The first single behavior, *Playing Together*, occurred more frequently during non-show and tell days. Since school toys must be shared, playing together was a must. During show and tell, playing together appeared to take place primarily because the children were interested in each other's toys.

The second single behavior, *Abandonment*, occurred more often on show and tell days. Abandonment of a toy was likely to occur when a child got up to stare at another toy. The children seemed to show interest in new toys by taking a closer look and abandoning their own toy to do so. Usually, the toy was not abandoned for a long period of time.

The final single behavior, a special *Request to Play Alone*, occurred only on a non-show and tell day. One child stated eight times during the course of one videotaping session that he wanted to be left alone. Because of this particular child, the request to play alone mean was exceptionally high. On other occasions, this particular child was involved in a number of sharing and playing together activities.

Summary

The results of this study seem to indicate that show and tell stimulated both positive and negative possessive behaviors. Conflicts arose when children were exposed to new toys that were limited in quantity, thus creating scarcity of goods. The children seemed to realize that they had only a brief time span in which they had the opportunity to play with the scarce toys; therefore, disputes tended to be heightened during show and tell. On both show and tell and non-show and tell days, both conflicts and restrictions occurred over the lack of available play space.

The block room was not just a place for conflicts; it was also a place where children could experience and show interest in new toys. During show and tell children had the opportunity to touch, handle, and play with an unusual variety of toys. They also learned to bargain with other children and seemed to understand the economic value of their possessions. Finally, children played together with school toys as well as with their own toys and sometimes they even played alone. Although some of these behaviors occurred on both show and tell and non-show and tell days, noticeably more possessive behaviors took place during show and tell. We feel these results were due to the fact that children were more possessive with their own toys than they were with schools toys which belonged to everyone equally.

This study investigated possessive behaviors of preschool children on show and tell versus non-show and tell days. The finding of increased possessiveness on show and tell days has implications for further study of this preschool activity. Will this be verified in further research? Does it provide an opportunity for learning? Or does it reinforce asocial behavior? These questions do not exhaust the possibilities for further investigation. Because this activity is so frequently used, further research concerning the merits of show and tell seems to be justified.

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Tapping the Hidden Market: Recruitment of Nontraditional Students into Higher Education

Deborah Meier, Patricia L. Milroy, and Nina Collins

Decreasing enrollment for traditional students in colleges offering Home Economics (Harper and Davis, 1986) has directed attention to non-traditional student recruitment for sometime now. This hidden population is difficult to reach, therefore the need to explore recruitment possibilities for these students was evident.

Barriers

According to one study (Young, 1984), the barriers that the nontraditional students have to face are the multiple commitments and responsibilities placed on them from outside the classroom. Filling several roles within the family and community often leads to a conflict of priorities between family, community, and the pursuit of their education.

In a study by Sewall (1986), respondents to a survey of nontraditional students from the six campuses of the University of Wisconsin System identified the major barriers that prevented them from obtaining a college degree earlier. The most significant barrier to delayed enrollment was the want or need to work. This was followed by responsibilities to the family, the inability to afford a college education, and lack of interest in obtaining one. These four reasons were cited by seventy-five percent of the respondents.

Facilitators

The basic characteristic of the nontraditional student is one of the facilitators in entering or reentering college past the traditional age. These students are goal-oriented in their pursuit of a degree, a new career, or an improvement/advancement in their present one (Sewall, 1986).

Even though there are many barriers to overcome, the nontraditional students' regard for

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and value of education are higher than traditional students (Moore, 1985). Therefore age, itself, can be a facilitator in the quest for higher education.

Strategies for Recruitment

In order for recruitment strategies to be effective, admission personnel require a knowledge of the nontraditional student. These students have unique characteristics and needs that must be addressed in recruitment planning. In a survey of nontraditional freshman women, Moore (1985) found that very few women were recruited by the institutions they were attending.

Universities attempting to tap the potential for growth that lies within the adult population will need to use new recruitment strategies. Universities must be careful, however, that their recruitment programs are not just for the survival of the institution but for the improvement of adult learning opportunities (O'Connor & Aasheim, 1985). An attempt should be made to include nontraditional students in programs and activities. Scheduling classes in the late afternoon and/or evening is an important part of a recruitment strategy (NIE, 1984). Financial aid packages will need to be designed. As more aid is available for nontraditional students, their numbers should increase (Strada, 1988). It is also important to plan a program to make them feel accepted among the student body. If all of these elements are addressed in the recruitment program, nontraditional student numbers should grow.

Demographics

The decline in the eighteen year old traditional college student has been well documented. "The slight drop in total college enrollments since 1979 has been compensated, thus far, by increased enrollment of older students. Over the next twenty years, the number of persons in that group (18 to 24 year olds) will decrease from 30 million to 24.6 million" (O'Keefe, 1985). Thus, the nontraditional population will be targeted by higher education to pick up the slack in the decline of the

traditional populations. From 1979 to 1983, enrollment in higher education increased nearly 15 percent for students twenty-two through thirty-four years old (McMillen, 1988). Clearly each institution and each discipline (including Home Economics) must develop strategies to adapt to changing demographics.

Research Objectives & Present Study

As nontraditional students presently attending Bradley University, the authors' objectives in this research were:

1. To find ways of attracting nontraditional students to the Home Economics Department at Bradley University.
2. To identify barriers nontraditional students have to overcome before continuing their education.

Because of their understanding of the fears that need to be overcome in order to enter college, the authors felt they could give an experience-based presentation to other interested persons. When there has been a significant time-lapse since the last educational endeavor one might feel too old, out of place, incapable of handling the work, or unable to afford the financial burden. Most nontraditional students have faced one or all of these problems when considering the return to college (McMillen, 1988). Having successfully overcome these problems, the authors felt a need to share the feeling of exhilaration and sense of accomplishment that comes from realizing "I CAN DO IT."

After deciding that the focus for the research would be to develop strategies for recruitment of nontraditional students into higher education, the first task was to define the nontraditional student. For the purpose of this study nontraditional students were defined as women between the ages of 25 and 55 whose education was terminated for some reason.

After selecting the targeted audience, strategies were centered around an invitation to a departmental open house. This open house included an informal reception with refreshments to put everyone at ease, a tour of the department to show off the facility, a mock classroom lecture to recall listening skills, financial aid information to provide affordability, an informal discussion to field questions the guests might ask, and a participant evaluation of the session. Attending the open house, in addition to the guests, were non-traditional students, the department chairperson, faculty, and a financial aid representative. In order to avoid time conflicts for participants, the open house was offered morning and afternoon, each session lasting two hours.

A brainstorming session was held to generate ideas for publicity and recruitment for the open house. Strategies chosen were those that fit the authors' schedules and limited budget

yet provided the most exposure. Other ideas were applicable but needed more time and funding to execute properly. Therefore, the ideas of a mall booth, a newspaper story, announcements and fliers in churches, distribution of fliers to day care centers, public service/community announcements over the radio stations, talking with Project Chance and Adult Re-entry programs, and mailing direct invitations were used. When contacted, the mall enthusiastically agreed to provide free community space for a display of brochures and informative materials. The feature editor of the local newspaper agreed to interview the nontraditional student authors about personal experiences. A favorable article was published ten days later (see box). A flier was imperative in order to carry out the remaining strategies.

The flier included an open invitation to persons considering advanced education but who were unable to cross self-imposed barriers without aid. Included was an agenda for each session plus a request to call for a reservation. Distribution sites for the fliers were obtained by telephoning churches, radio stations, and day-care centers. Positive reception at these sites aided the circulation of the fliers.

A participant evaluation was distributed at the end of each open house session. Responses to several questions are shown in Tables 1-5. The tables represent multiple

responses to a single question.

Seeking information on reentry or entry to college was highest on the list of reasons for coming to the open house. Following close behind was an expressed interest in specific cognitive areas. Also, a need for discussion of the problems and possibilities of returning to school with the nontraditional students, plus the desire to satisfy one's curiosity, prompted the others to attend.

From the evaluation, it was evident that the newspaper article was the most effective means of reaching the targeted population. The flier might have resulted in greater attendance if there had been more time to devote to distribution. The mall booth took a great deal of time but yielded no participants. This in itself was a disappointing development, because a mall was thought to be an innovative way to tap a large reservoir of women.

Combining the schedules of home and work in order to make room for education seems to be a problem for the majority. Affordability was another primary concern and lack of confidence created yet another barrier. Some felt there was nothing blocking the path to higher education and reentry was a real possibility.

Those polled thought the newspaper was a viable way to reach future non-traditional students. Providing information by word of mouth also proved to be a popular choice among those questioned along with programs present-

Non-traditional students

By Sharon Oberholtzer
Of the Journal Star

Like many farm couples in the '80s, Pat and John Milroy realized they either had to quit farming or file for bankruptcy.

Debby Meier quit college 20 years ago in frustration.

By different routes, both women are now high-achieving, non-traditional Bradley students and want to interest other "older" people who might benefit from college.

Pat Milroy, 43, is married and has two children; Meier, 38, also has two children and is married for the second time. Her blended family includes four children.

Both women are seniors in the Home Economics Department at Bradley University, and both are majoring in dietetics and nutrition.

Milroy and Meier will graduate at the end of this semester and are applying for hospital internships in order to become registered dietitians. Eventually, Milroy would like to do dietary research and Meier would like to get her doctorate and counsel in her own wellness/nutrition clinic.

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ed at meetings and seminars mainly attended by women (see Table 5 for other participant responses).

Summary and Recommendations:

This research project provided numerous ways of attracting nontraditional students to the Home Economics Department at Bradley University. Reading in the newspaper about nontraditional students who have successfully reentered college was the driving force behind the majority of the participants' attendance at the open house. Identification of the barriers nontraditional students have to overcome before continuing their education pinpointed lack of personal funds and time as the major constraints.

From this research, the authors recommend the following strategies for attracting nontraditional students to college and university departments of Home Economics:

1. Identify the appropriate population
2. Generate ideas for recruitment to individual higher education institutions
3. Plan an event that would alleviate barriers common to nontraditional students
4. Explore and carry out publicity for this event that would provide maximum exposure (Identify an appealing story line for newspaper and/or TV exposure.)
5. Evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies in order to refine the local approach.

Suggestions for planning future events include providing child care to participants, planning the strategies as early as possible to maximize events, and offering an evening session in place of a morning one to avoid time/job conflicts.

Nontraditional students are a hidden market for augmenting shrinking traditional student populations in Home Economics Departments. Development of strategies to fit each particular situation is indeed challenging but will surely have great rewards.

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Table 1. Motivation for Attendance

Question	Discussion	Curiosity	Specific Cognitive Area	College Entry or Re-entry	Financial Aid
Why did you come? (n=11)	18%	18%	36%	45%	9%

Table 2. Source of Information

Question	Newspaper	Word of Mouth	Flier	Direct Invitation
Where did you find out about the open house? (n=11)	73%	9%	9%	9%

Table 3. Barriers to College Enrollment

Question	Money	Schedule	Procedure	Myself	Job	Family	Transportation	None
What barriers do you have to overcome before continuing education? (n=11)	27%	36%	9%	18%	9%	9%	9%	18%

Table 4. Suggested Recruitment Strategies

Question	Newspaper	Mailing	Open House	Hand Book	Word of Mouth	Meetings and Seminars	Speakers at Women's Meetings	Mail
How do you feel we can reach other non-traditional students? (n=11)	45%	9%	9%	9%	36%	18%	9%	0%

Table 5. Additional Responses of Participants

Questions	Yes	Most/Maybe	No
Did we answer all of your questions?	70%		30%
Was talking with other non-traditional students helpful?	100%		
Do you feel continuing your education is a possibility?	90%	10%	
Are you aware of anyone who might benefit from our program who was unable to attend? (n=11)	25%	75%	

Teaching Mate Selection in the Classroom

Frances Black

Americans expect a lot out of marriage. They expect marriage to provide romance, excitement, security, and empathy among other things. But it is obvious, when reviewing current statistics on marriage and divorce, that expectations are not being met. According to the U.S. statistics, the 1986 divorce rate was 4.8 per 1000 people and the median length of marriage was seven years (National Center for Health Statistics, 1987). Globally, the number of divorces peaks at about the fourth year of marriage, but in the United States the peak is at two years (McAuliffe, 1987). The percentage of all divorces by duration is: less than 1 year—4%; 1-4 years—34%; 5-9 years—26%; 10-19 years—25%; and 20 or more years—12% (Divorce, 1987). Divorces stemming from teenage marriages is up from 20 percent in 1970 to 32 percent in 1985 (Kantrowitz, 1987a).

Perceived Causes of Divorce

Much research and analysis has been conducted on divorce and its perceived causes. Norton and Moorman (1987) cited two reasons: marrying too young and little education. Bossard and Boll (1958) listed disillusionment, economic and social differences, interfaith and interclass marriages, and marrying too young. Ambrose, Harper, and Pemberton (1983) also cited marrying too young as a factor in divorce. They noted that in 1976, 27 out of 1000 marriages that had lasted four years ended in divorce. When the bride was under 20 years old when married, the rate almost doubled to 46 divorces per 1000 marriages. Dr. John Money, an expert on human sexuality at Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore, noted a correlation between the duration of marriage and the infatuation phase of love, which typically lasts 2-3 years (McAuliffe, 1987).

Research has been conducted also by questioning divorcees. Ambrose, Harper, and Pemberton (1983) asked 184 men why their

marriages had broken up. The four most frequent answers were affairs/infidelity (by either), incompatibility, sex problems, and poor communication. Kitson and Sussman (1982) found that females ranked lack of communication, internal gender role conflict, extramarital sex, immaturity, and drinking as their most frequent answers, whereas males ranked lack of communication, joint conflict over gender roles, unsure what happened, incompatible, and interests and values changed as their most frequent answers. Perhaps the most fundamental reason for the high divorce rate was that people have become more tolerant of divorce in recent years. Divorce was no longer seen as a mark of failure, and the stigma associated with being a divorced person no longer existed (Cherlin, 1981).

To summarize the research, the most frequently mentioned causes of divorce were lack of communication, marrying too young, and immaturity. Relating these causes of divorce to the fact that divorces among teenagers are up substantially raises the question: What are teenagers learning about dating and mate selection? In particular: What are teenagers in Home Economics classes being taught about dating and mate selection?

Classroom Time Spent on Subject of Mate Selection

In an attempt to learn what is being taught in Home Economics classes concerning dating and mate selection, a survey was distributed to 26 Home Economics teachers in and around the Springfield, Missouri area. Twelve surveys were returned. The results were that, in Home Economics I classes where students were predominantly 14-15 years old, an average of 4.8 class periods were used to discuss dating, courtship, and engagement. An average of 6 class periods were spent discussing parenting. In Marriage/Family Relations classes, an average of 11.5 class periods were devoted to a discussion of dating, courtship, and engagement, although an average of 15.5 class periods were spent discussing parenting. Of the 12 schools, 6 of them devoted a whole semester to parenting. Three schools spent much time on the wedding—2 teachers required a wedding notebook, and the students

planned and conducted a mock wedding in the other school. An average of 6.6 class periods were devoted to the wedding.

Review of Textbooks Used in Home Economics Classes

A review of the textbooks used in these classes revealed that little of the text was devoted to the subjects of dating and mate selection, but much space was devoted to the wedding and marriage. For example, one text devoted 33 pages to dating and mate selection and 65 pages to the wedding. It appears that the wedding is glamorized and much content devoted to it, but very little emphasis is given to the selection of the partner with whom one will spend the rest of one's life.

Perhaps teachers and textbooks devote more time to the wedding and parenting because assignments pertaining to these subjects hold the students' interest. The small amount of space devoted to mate selection in the textbooks suggests that there may not be adequate material available on this subject. But in researching this paper, I found many books and articles with practical and logical suggestions for selecting one's mate.

Suggestions for Teaching Mate Selection in the Classroom

Though written in 1958, Bossard and Boll's book, *Why Marriages go Wrong*, offers timeless suggestions. They noted that happiness and unhappiness tend to run in families—persons reared in happy families tend to form happy families. And on the opposite side, persons raised in unhappy families tend to form unhappy families. The implication is that if the boy/girl friend is chronically unhappy, he/she will likely be unhappy after the wedding and in the marriage. One should spend time with one's future mate, visit the family, and observe relationships and behaviors. The authors mentioned that the most unfortunate delusion of romance is that, once the couple has married, one can change the other. Ordinarily, people do not change their attitudes and habits but grow more rigid with maturity. The authors suggested that like should marry like. Despite the fact that America is a melting pot of class-

es and cultures, there are many ethnic, social, economic, and religious differences in our society. The authors cautioned against intergroup marriages, noting that people generally behave in different ways. Two people coming from different socio-economic groups or cultures have definite ideas about their habits, values, and goals. In many cases they are just not compatible. Interfaith marriages are also risky. The rebellious skeptics of eighteen often become the devout mothers and fathers of thirty. Lastly, the authors observed that when a couple marries at a young age, they have assumed a major responsibility before they are ready—in maturity, in experience, and in the ability to meet the many responsibilities of family living.

Dating and engagement need to be defined and explored by the students. Dating is getting an "education" in selection (Bossard and Boll, 1958). Of all the young people, which are the ones that are most liked and most suitable for a future mate? Coleman (1984) suggested several functions of the engagement period. It provides a time to agree upon and work out living arrangements; re-examine and agree upon short- and long-term goals and methods for achieving these goals; get better acquainted with each other's families and to agree upon how they will relate to in-laws and to each other's friends; make a final check of each other in terms of common interests, values, goals, comfort in each other's company, and compatibility in general; work out final details of the wedding plans. Engagement is a commitment, but not as serious a one as marriage—better to break an engagement than a marriage.

Perhaps the most sobering advice to offer students concerned the cold, hard facts of divorce. Because our society is more accepting of divorce, young people often enter marriage with the attitude that if it doesn't work out they will get a divorce. But divorce is not as rosy as pictured. In a 10-year study (Kantrowitz, 1987b) of 60 divorced families, psychologist Judith Wallerstein found that only 10 percent of the ex-spouses said they had succeeded in improving their lives. Women with children were hurt the worst economically. Their average standard of living went down while their husband's went up. For mother or father, raising children alone was difficult.

Summary

The family and society are tied to one another—what happens to the family and its members happens to society-at-large. The high rate of marriage failure will continue unless we learn how to marry better (Bossard & Boll, 1958). Our society, as a whole, glamorizes the wedding and marriage. Little girls grow up with the dream of marrying the prince in a beautiful ceremony. Then they are carried off to a land of enchantment and wedded bliss "and they live happily ever after." But what about the most important part of the wedding party—the prince, the princess, the mate, the spouse? I believe that Home Economics teachers can have a significant impact on their students by presenting the facts about marriage and divorce and by helping students explore the process of choosing a mate.

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Historic Preservation

Debra B. Elledge

Why should society be concerned with preservation? John Meffert, director of the Southern Regional Office of the National Trust for Historic Preservation, stated that "The answer to that question comes from local communities. They lose their sense of where they are when they lose their landmarks" (Wood, 1986, p. 104).

Initially, preservation was brought into the mainstream of development when historic buildings began to be dealt with as real estate

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(Wood, 1986). Although convincing a town that its historical resources are valuable is certainly the most difficult task, the movement of preservation is developing at a rapid pace, and more and more people are using historic buildings as part of new development (Wood, 1986). Additionally, the preservation movement is proceeding toward preserving entire neighborhoods, cities, and towns (Wood, 1986). It is important to remember that renovation work is not the effort of one single person but rather a combined effort of political, economic, and civic groups working in conjunction with property owners (Bingler, 1988).

Preservation concerns itself with a broad scope of restoration, ranging from the small, vernacular architecture of the common people (Wood, 1986), to the Statue of Liberty which was restored at a cost of $200 million (Colin, 1986).

Whatever their backgrounds and whatever type of building they are trying to save, preservationists share the conviction that the buildings of the past can contribute to the present and the future (Wood, 1986, p. 106).

Volunteers are largely responsible for the preservation movement. Such groups as the Daughters of the American Revolution, Colonial Dames, and various Junior Leagues have all played an important part in preserving our heritage (Wood, 1986). Today, preservation is not just a cause; it is a thriving business. People with such varied backgrounds as real estate development, archeology, urban planning, and construction are accepting positions in the field of historic preservation, and all are extremely qualified because of their individual and diverse training (Cox, 1986).

The areas of design, family relations, sociology, consumer economics, psychology, and home management are all inherent in a preservation project. Because Home Economics is interdisciplinary, home economists are able to draw from sources in all of these areas to contribute to research and planning involved in the restoration of a historic building. Home economists combine their knowledge of families and human interaction to understand the lifestyles of the persons who lived in the houses (Casto, 1985).

In the United States, the first effort at preservation occurred in 1816 when the City of Philadelphia purchased Independence Hall. Failed attempts at restoration by other organizations followed, but in 1853 Ann Pamela Cunningham led the Ladies Mount Vernon Association in a successful effort to restore the home of George Washington. In this first national effort of preservation, over $200,000 were collected to defray the costs of restoration. By the 1900's, interest had shifted from historical restoration to that of architectural and cultural preservation. In the late 1920's, restoration was begun in Williamsburg, Virginia. This was the first preservation effort directed toward a large tract of land; it was primarily funded by donations from John D. Rockefeller, Jr., who contributed over $70 million during a 40-year period of time (Conway, 1987).

The federal government became involved with preservation in the 1930's with the creation of the Federal Park Service, and in 1935 the Historic Sites Act was passed. This legislation laid the groundwork for the creation of the National Register of Historic Places (DeBlieux, 1987). According to Thomas J. Colin, the passage of the National Historic Preservation Act in 1966 marked the beginning of the era of modern preservation (1986). This act created the National Register of Historic Places and required the state and federal governments to work together on various projects of historic nature and, in addition, provided grants to state governments for restoration projects. Also created by the passage of this act was the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, a seventeen member board appointed by the President to act as a mediator between the federal and state governments (DeBlieux, 1987).

In December of 1987, Congress voted to fund $28.25 million to the Historic Preservation Fund for use in the 1988 fiscal year by the National Trust and various state preservation programs. This increased funding of $4 million over last year's amount shows that Congress recognizes the need for support by the federal government in efforts to protect our national historic properties (Funding, 1988).

Two of the most important and influential organizations that largely control the movement of historic preservation are the National Register of Historic Places and the National Trust for Historic Preservation (DeBlieux, 1987). "The National Register of Historic Places is the nation's official list of buildings, sites, and districts which are important in our history" (State, 1984). The National Register of Historic Places has over 45,000 listings of sites and monuments (Fleming, 1987). Each state is responsible for the administration of the National Register (State, 1984), and a State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO) is appointed by each governor to coordinate preservation efforts among the local, state, and federal levels (Murtagh and Oldham, 1979).

Once a property has been placed on the National Register, it is afforded certain benefits, the most important of which is a financial one (State, 1984). Property owners are eligible to receive a federal income tax credit of 20 percent on renovation work done to the property in addition to other financial benefits. The placement of a property on the National Register is a position of honor and prestige, and a listing offers some protection to property in that federal projects must be implemented so as not to affect any property of historical value. The National Register imposes no restrictions or requirements whatsoever upon property owners as to what an owner can or cannot do with his property. On the other hand, it offers no real protection against an owner who desires to drastically alter or destroy the premises (State, 1984). It should be noted that property can be removed from the Register if altered too much. The only protection that a listing on the National Register can offer is a psychological one, because 99.9 percent of the properties listed on the National Register are saved (DeBlieux, 1987).

The five types of historic properties which can be placed on the National Register are buildings, districts, sites, structures, and objects. Not all of the above listed properties are eligible for placement on the National Register; each must be significant in some manner on a state, local, or national level, as well as having historical, architectural, or archaeological significance. In addition to the above criteria, a property must be at least fifty years old and must have much of its original structure intact (State, 1984).

"The National Trust for Historic Preservation is a non-profit organization chartered by Congress to encourage public participation in the preservation of historic properties" (Murtagh and Oldham, 1979, p. 32). The Trust is located in Washington, D.C., and it has several regional offices throughout the United States that provide services such as publications regarding preservation (Murtagh and Oldham, 1979) and loans through its National Preservation Loan Fund (National, 1988).

In conclusion, we must assess what has happened in terms of historic preservation since the passage of the National Preservation Act of 1966. Although there have been accomplishments, much remains to be done. Working relationships among the various levels of government need to be improved and strengthened for better coordination of projects. Cities should make long range plans and look ahead in planning the design of neighborhoods and commercial areas. Stricter controls on franchise design should be enacted. The City of New Orleans now requires franchises, such as McDonalds, to respect the local identity and use certain styles and materials in the construction of its facilities. Preservationists should attempt to educate the public with regard to the importance of preserving our historical buildings so as to give everyone a sense of pride in our heritage (Fleming, 1987). James T. Bratton, the executive director of the Historic Preservation League in Dallas, stated that preservation must become more concerned with the total picture of the communities, including how the issues of preservation can be incorporated with social issues, such as health care, education, and affordable housing (Wood, 1986). With more and more preservation work being done every day, the demand for specialized knowledge in certain areas is also growing, and Home Economics graduates can play an effective role in meeting these demands (Casto, 1985). Though home economists have academic credentials, credible experience will be required to be accepted as parties in the domain of historic preservation.

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Women: The Entrepreneurs of the Eighties

Rita Holton

Women-owned businesses in the United States numbered 400,000 in 1972 and more than 2 million by 1980. The percentages of women as small business owners increased from 5.7 percent in 1972 to 26.1 in 1980. According to the Small Business Administration, in a study by Longstreth, Stafford and Mauldin (1987), women started small businesses at a rate five times greater than that of men in the United States. Neider (1987) reported that over a four-year period, 47 percent of women's ventures survived compared to 25 percent for men. Nelton and Berney (1987) stated that even though women-owned businesses were strong in the service and retail sectors, they were moving into non-traditional areas for women in significant numbers. These areas included construction, manufacturing, wholesale trade, and agricultural services. Though these statistics are encouraging, this article will explore what it takes to succeed as a woman entrepreneur.

Goetting and Muggli (1988) defined an entrepreneur as "an individual who organizes, operates, and assumes the risk in a business venture, in expectation of gaining a profit" (p. 7). Nelton and Berney (1987) stated that "we are in the 'second generation' of female entrepreneurship. The first generation consisted mostly of women who, due to a variety of personal crises, were forced to initiate business ventures" (p. 25). These women had little or no training. Today women and men entrepreneurs are almost indistinguishable. They have the same skills, training, experience, and motives. In a study by the University of Miami, Linda Neider (1987) reported that most women entrepreneurs were first-borns of entrepreneurial parents. The findings of the study showed that these women were very energetic and continued tasks until successfully completed.

Neider (1987) also said that "women encounter difficulties in starting and operating businesses which are different from those

faced by men" (p. 22). The most significant barriers faced by women entrepreneurs were time management, tension between personal life and career, and lack of managerial skills.

Research by Longstreth, Stafford and Mauldin (1987) indicated that time pressures may lower the profitability for self-employed women and may be the reason for part-time businesses. Unlike men, women have the major responsibility for household work. The research showed that full-time, self-employed women spent 46 hours a week on the business and at least 6 hours a day on household work.

Time management and the problem of separate personal and work time are closely related. Many women are confronted with the superwoman syndrome. Nelton and Berney (1987) concluded that "women, who are learning how to maximize their time at the office, must do the same at home" (p. 19-20). They quoted Albert, a Florida based consultant and columnist for the Business Women's Forum of Clifton, New Jersey, who said that "organization and discipline give you the freedom to do the things you want. And mismanagement at home spills over into the office" (p. 20).

A study by Goetting and Muggli (1988) reported that Montana home economists found advantages in home-based businesses. Many said that they could manage the household activities better and use spaces in the home and that the costs were lower.

Nelton and Berney (1987) interviewed several women entrepreneurs to find out how they successfully handled the time-management problem. Marion Fredman, co-owner of a children's clothing store, said she "pencils in time when the entire family can be together and plans activities in advance" (p. 20). Fredman also stated that motherhood taught her to manage responsibilities. She learned to juggle the responsibilities of her business much like she did a household of four active toddlers.

Lulu Wang, vice-president of Equitable Capital Management Group in New York, refused to separate her professional and family lives. Separating the two causes stress and anxiety (Nelton and Berney, 1987). She said that the family members felt they were competing for her time, so she let them share in the "highs

and lows" of the business. Women who have their husbands' help in child-rearing and house cleaning can balance their time better, but the kind of support a woman needs in order to succeed runs much deeper. Wang believes that "the most powerful support a husband can give is honest respect" (p. 22).

Poor management is the main cause of small business failure. Women are "terrified of the financial side of their enterprises and uncomfortable about being in charge" (Nelton, 1987, p. 61). Research by Neider (1987) showed that women had no "experience in finance, marketing, and purchasing" (p. 23). In the same study, successful, self-employed women "kept their debts low, prepared thoroughly (six to ten months) for start-up, and made extensive use of professional advisors" (p. 24). The Montana home economists suggested three strategies: inquiring about buying products wholesale, determining amounts to be spent for rent and utilities, and hiring help early (Goetting and Muggli, 1988).

Another obstacle for women entrepreneurs was discrimination in financial and legal markets. When based at home, women found that business loans were difficult to secure. Lack of personal business credit was another disadvantage (Goetting and Muggli, 1988). Women also had trouble in delegating responsibility and authority to employees. All of these factors created more difficulty for women entrepreneurs than for men.

Entrepreneurs have a strong desire for achievement which often involves creating something unique, meeting customers needs, taking risks, and getting positive feedback. Olson (1986) described entrepreneurs as innovators. Fortenberry (1988) agreed that one of the most important characteristics of a successful entrepreneur is creativity. The results of ideas should be new, original and meaningful. For entrepreneurial success it is important as well to have technical competence acquired through training and experience. It is extremely important that the entrepreneur be able to communicate well with others, including staff, suppliers, customers, and business associates.

Motivations of women and men entrepreneurs were very similar (Longstreth, Stafford, and Mauldin, 1987). The most com-

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mon motivators were making money, achieving independence, and using one's varied skills and talents. Women want to eliminate the barriers that often exist by achieving a work environment more compatible with family responsibilities.

Personal lifestyles will experience a dramatic change when women venture out on their own. Free weekends, social life, and vacations will disappear along with the good salary, prestige, and strong network of a secure job (Prescott, 1987). It will be necessary to find a balance at work and a balance between work and personal activities. In setting priorities, it is important to put health first and work second. This priority should be emphasized to employees.

Entrepreneurs should remember that intuition enabled them to start their business, so major decisions should not ignore intuition during the analysis process. The entrepreneur should try to act logically but not expect competitors to do so (Schilit, 1986).

When deciding to start a business, it is important to put the plan in writing. The plan should include the goals, the objectives, and the strategies of the business, along with individual responsibilities, expenses, cash flows, and projected sales (Schilit, 1986). It is essential to have a technically skilled labor force. Knowing the market and how to reach that market are very important (Fortenberry, 1988). The Montana home economists suggested brochures, free give away items, ads, and presentations as a few effective methods of marketing (Goetting and Muggli, 1988). It is best to spend as much as 10-20 percent of the initial meeting with key customers to find out how to best meet their needs (Schilit, 1986). Another important part of a successful business is delivering goods and/or services on time and within budgets (Slavin, 1987).

It is essential to carefully plan the cash needs of the business for the first three to five years of operation. There are basically two ways of obtaining capital for a business: a money finder and yourself (you, too, can be a money finder). Money finders not only help in raising capital but also help entrepreneurs in formulating strategies and writing business plans. Commercial bankers, accountants, and lawyers can give good recommendations. The legitimate finders expect a commission for work they do after the transaction is completed. The fraudulent finders usually ask for money up-front (Gumpert, 1986).

There are many available options for finding one's own money. The first place to look is personal savings. The inventory and equipment purchased with personal investment will count as an asset, if a loan is applied for at a later time. Close friends and relatives may finance the venture if presented with a good business plan. Finding ways of starting with less includes starting in one's home, having family members work a few months for no charge, or sharing equipment with another business. Banks usually ask for a written business plan before they will lend to start-up businesses. Venture capitalists are a source of money. In return for their investment, the capitalists own part of the company through stock in a corporation or a share in a limited partnership. In this way, they also profit from the success of the entrepreneur. (McKeever, 1986).

Another aspect of starting one's own business is the planning for the work force. When looking for employees, it is important to choose people with a variety of backgrounds. These people will be contributing expertise and assisting in major business decisions (Schilit, 1986). In managing people, there must be a leader and a goal so that everyone will work in the same direction. The entrepreneur will have to set standards for raises and promotions, establish records for logging time, look for new clients and business contacts, and decide on the quantity and quality of the work. After choosing the employees, tasks should be delegated to various ones (Prescott, 1987). It is in the best interest of the business to encourage entrepreneurial thinking throughout the enterprise. The business will be successful when the employees can run the business for a few weeks without fear of failure (Schilit, 1986).

As a professional, "you should join professional associations or societies and read the latest trade journals for your industry in order to monitor important developments affecting your business" (Schilit, 1986, p. 46). To be successful, entrepreneurs must know exactly what they are doing. There are many places to get this information such as seminars, universities, government agencies, personal interaction, and books. Universities have been instrumental in supplying skilled labor and providing research related to business ventures. A 1977 survey showed that the majority of college professors believed that entrepreneurship can be taught. Schools of business and engineering and, now, Home Economics units offer courses in entrepreneurship.

A Home Economics curriculum is an appropriate way to become acquainted with the fundamentals of small business in the major field of study. The courses should include a variety of subjects such as understanding the nature of small business, developing a business plan, organizing and controlling, pricing, advertising and selling the product or service, and projecting the right image. A student who has been exposed to these fundamentals will be more likely to use them and succeed with them (Fortenberry, 1988). Getting local small business owners involved in the courses will benefit the student and give the local entrepreneurs a chance to contribute to future entrepreneurial success. Field trips and interviews allow for interaction in the business community and help individuals gain new insights that classroom lectures cannot provide (Fortenberry, 1988).

The American Woman's Economic Development Corporation (AWED) helps in training women to succeed in businesses they start. "Managing Your Own Business" is an 18-month training series which teaches areas such as accounting, marketing, selling, and finance. "Starting Your Own Business" and "Building Your Own Business" are 18-week programs for women who have their own businesses or who are thinking of starting new ones. AWED offers counseling at its offices and has telephone sessions. There are also several different conferences and seminars offered throughout the country (Nelton, 1987).

The federal government funds several programs for small businesses. The Cooperative Extension Service works with people in establishing home-based businesses. It offers courses in time management, money management and values clarification and often counsels family members. These programs can be beneficial for women entrepreneurs (Longstreth, Stafford, and Mauldin, 1987). The Small Business Administration provides free seminars, personal counseling for prospective business owners, and information on loans and financial planning. Other services offered by the government include the Small Business Institute and the Office of Minority Business Enterprise (Fortenberry, 1988).

The library is an excellent source of information. There are filmstrips, books, and periodicals filled with reports, articles, and statistics about successful businesses and their owners. The information will be current since the study of entrepreneurship has a brief history (Fortenberry, 1988). It is important for entrepreneurs to be aware of new advances in their field and be adaptable to constant change.

This article reviewed the research studies and recent literature that provide excellent resources for the would-be entrepreneur. With the resources available, women entrepreneurs can overcome the barriers that have hindered their success.

A Human Awareness Program for the Mentally Disabled

Kim Langford Patience

Home Economics for the Mentally Disabled

Congress passed Public Law 94-142 on November 19, 1975. This bill mandated that all handicapped children receive a free and appropriate public school education in the least restrictive environment. Since that time, many educable mentally retarded (EMR) students have been mainstreamed into Home Economics classrooms. The Home Economics curriculum is particularly beneficial, because EMRs are taught the skills necessary for life (Fletcher, 1980). Independent living courses include personal hygiene; grooming; human development; and communication, food, and home and financial management skills (Yost, 1980). EMR students have unique learning problems: poor incidental learning, difficulty following directions, limited reading and receptive vocabulary, limited ability to generalize, poor memory, short attention span, and inadequate social skills. In order to respond to their problems, Home Economics teachers must adapt the classroom, curriculum, methods, and materials (Fletcher, 1980).

Home Economics curriculum can also benefit individuals who are severely or profoundly mentally retarded and function at lower levels than the EMR. Most individuals who are severely or profoundly mentally retarded are institutionalized (Gollnick and Chinn, 1986). Educational programs for the severely or profoundly mentally disabled also emphasize the skills for daily living (Wheeler, Ford, Nietupski, Loomis, and Brown, 1980). Improved daily living skills help the individuals to function more independently in an institutional setting (Van Den Pol, Iwata, Ivancic, Page, Neef, and Whitley, 1981). Residents need to learn about self- care skills, body parts, sex education, and social skills. Self-care skills

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include dressing skills and how to brush one's teeth, comb one's hair, wash one's face, and shower. Lessons about body parts include learning to recognize and identify body parts on themselves and others. Sex education for the severely and profoundly retarded involves distinguishing differences between males and females, appropriate touching and masturbation. Social skills include eye contact, cooperation, and appropriate interaction with others (Bellamy and Clark, 1977).

The Mentally Disabled

The American Association on Mental Deficiency (AAMD) defined mental retardation as significantly sub-average general intellectual functioning existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period (Gollnick and Chinn, 1986). It is estimated that 3% of the general population is mentally retarded. This means that there are approximately 6.5 million retarded individuals living in the United States. The AAMD estimated that of the 3% of retarded individuals, 2.5% are mildly retarded and .5% are moderate, severe, or profoundly retarded (Gollnick and Chinn, 1986).

Severe mental retardation is a term used to describe individuals who score 20 to 35 on the Standard-Binet and 25 to 39 on the Wechsler Scales. The severely retarded need constant supervision and can learn simple self-help skills and work tasks. Many speak by using only a limited vocabulary. Profound mental retardation describes an individual who scores 19 or below on the Standard-Binet and 24 or below on the Wechsler Scales. The profoundly retarded often have other handicaps but may learn self-help skills (American Association on Mental Deficiency, 1977).

Human Awareness Program

This paper describes an independent study project that involved the study of the severely and profoundly mentally retarded and the development of a Human Awareness Program for a state residential school. This program had the goal of improving the daily living skills of residents by helping them to (a) identify body parts, (b) know the simple functions of body

organs, (c) demonstrate body care skills, and (d) discriminate between appropriate and inappropriate behavior.

The Human Awareness Program was based on the concept of active learning. Active learning stresses "hands on learning" of the skills which the residents need in their everyday lives. The program was divided into two levels containing ten lessons each. The first level consisted of the following activities: (a) establishing eye contact, (b) identifying one's own sex and the sex of others, (c) identifying body parts (head, hair, eyes, ears, and mouth, (d) identifying clothing items, (e) identifying eyes/understanding the concept of seeing, (f) identifying ears/understanding the concept of hearing, (g) identifying nose/understanding the concept of smelling, (h) identifying mouth/understanding the concept of tasting, (i) identifying hands/understanding the concept of feeling, and (j) learning grooming skills (combing hair, washing face and hands).

The second level contained the following activities: (a) identifying neck, shoulders, back, chest; (b) identifying knee, foot, toe, and toenail; (c) identifying arm, elbow, hand, finger, and fingernail; (d) identifying breast, penis, vagina, and buttocks; (e) brushing teeth; (f) applying lotion, perfume/cologne; (g) understanding good touch; (h) understanding bad touch; (i) recognizing appropriate masturbation; and (j) understanding what is involved in a physical examination. Before the residents could advance to level two, they were required to pass all of the lessons in level one. It took some residents months to pass one lesson. Evaluation forms were used to monitor progress. After the residents mastered a skill, it was important that they received positive reinforcement.

The activities used in the lessons were ones which contributed to active learning by emphasizing learning in different ways. The use of many senses was included in the lessons. For example, the third lesson in level two asked the residents to identify the following body parts: arm, elbow, hand, finger, and fingernail. The teacher identified own body parts and then asked the residents to point to specific body parts on themselves. The residents were asked to point to body parts on the Human

Body Charts. Another activity of this lesson was participation in exercises that reinforced the body parts, i.e., arm circles, touching elbow to knee, and clapping hands. The concept of body parts was reinforced by involving the residents in activities using three senses. I found that the residents enjoyed active learning. They liked activities in which they could exercise, play learning games, assemble puzzles, and use their senses. These activities kept the resident's attention, because they were fun. At the same time they were valuable learning experiences.

We, home economics educators, need to recognize the value of the Home Economics curriculum for the education of the mentally disabled. More programs are needed in institutions for the mentally retarded to teach the skills necessary for daily living so that individuals can function as independently as possible.

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Leisure Research and the Family: A Challenge for Family Scholars

Jenifer Rowley

The Changing Functions of Leisure in the Family

Family researchers recognize that the development of the family, from the industrial revolution to the present, has been accompanied by a loss of functions. Most scholars agree that the family has been replaced, in part or in whole, by other institutions for all but the reproductive (affectional) and companionship (socializational) functions (Scheusch, 1960). Moreover, the two remaining functions appear to have become further fragmented in the post-industrial society (Pelegrino, 1979).

These changes have had an impact on children, adults, and the aged in diverse ways. One pattern that has emerged across all groups is isolation. Different age groups have become isolated with homogeneous peers. This age-group isolation has many implications for the use of leisure by families and by individuals. With better health, more time, fewer household tasks, and a higher economic level, the family achieves much of whatever strength it has from relatively free time. Play or leisure becomes more than a mere diversion. "It becomes a cause, a clue, and an index of sources of respect, love, interdependence, and knowledge" (Orthner, 1975, p. 100).

Thus leisure activity in the family functions, in part, as the agent for developing cohesiveness. Leisure time, however, is only one of many activities in a family schedule, and it may very well be the arena for conflict "because of the very nature of leisure which connotes pleasure" (Carisse, 1975, p. 195).

For many parents and spouses family leisure is a privileged time to socialize other members into "proper" values. Many families today do not know where to draw the line between togetherness and outside activities. When should family recreation take precedence? When should individual activities come before family activities?

As data build, scholars see a need for integration and reorientation towards leisure by the family and by other institutions of society. Families are not receiving the reinforcement they need, and families do not know how to reinforce themselves. So they rely on outside sources (Orthner, 1975). This can easily be seen through the growth of television which is one mainstay of family-oriented leisure today.

The Changing Definitions of Leisure in the Family

Within a society leisure is highly coordinated with work because it allows recuperation from work, or it complements work (Kelly, 1975).

The differentiation between work and leisure suggests two dimensions. These two dimensions are the reasons work and leisure are subject to so many individual interpretations.

The first dimension is the *choseness of the activity.* Leisure is not required or necessary, but it is chosen by the actor, in contrast to work which is required of the actor. Traditionally, it is defined as free time. The second dimension is the alleged *power of the work to determine the amount of time available for leisure.* It is the relationship of on-the-job and off-the-job hours (Kelly, 1972).

Work is losing much of the meaning it had in the past. "Working at play has become the norm" (Orthner, 1975, p. 95). Modern man is burdened with details of schedules, even for sex. This creates a complete inability to relax which can, in turn, create neurotic symptoms associated with such conditions as stress and hypertension. Free time becomes less free, and that can be negative as well as positive. Some experts have felt that, while leisure can give personal relaxation to individuals and a sense of solidarity of common experiences to families, the fact that leisure does not function the same way for all individuals or for all families has serious implications for society. One of these is the possibility of replacing the work ethic with no ethic at all (Orthner, 1975).

Each individual has his or her own definition of time and space ordering. So does each family. For that reason scientists may have to

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redefine socializing for work and socializing for leisure within the home setting (Carisse, 1975).

The Changing Perspectives of the Socialization of Leisure

Acquiring the talents, skill, experience, relational norms, equipment, and attitudes for participation as a contributing member of a society is part of the socialization process. Socialization toward leisure, and the learning and internalizing of appropriate patterns, takes place in the family, school, and peer contexts for children and youth. Community groups and work associations, as well as the family, provide contexts for youth and adult leisure associations (Kelly, 1977).

There is little question that today the family is being influenced by a change in perspectives for leisure. New conceptions of work, job, career, play, and recreation are challenging the structure of the family. Two conflicting schools of thought have emerged: (a) the function of leisure has disintegrated, and commercial and governmental organizations have taken over for the family, or (b) the remaining family functions, of which leisure is one, have been strengthened and may well become the basis for "the continuing institution of the family" (Scheuch, 1957, p. 71). This makes the question of when, where, and with whom enduring leisure activities are begun an important one to the development of explanatory theory and to the planning of programs. That is one reason the leisure factor appears to be worthy of more consideration than it has been given in the past.

The Changing Directions of Leisure Research and the Family

The numerous and diverse ramifications of leisure and its potential for economic and social consequences have attracted the attention of researchers from many disciplines. Shortly after the industrial revolution established urbanization and the shortened working day, psychologists, sociologists, and home economists became interested first in the effects of work and then in the effects of leisure. A parallel interest grew up in the United States Department of Interior and in the National Park Service (Crawford and Godbey, 1975).

The body of empirical data that grew from early studies was limited by small sample size, lack of a common definition of leisure, and inability to link investigations to a theoretical base (Cunningham and Johannis, 1960). As late as 1975, Orthner complained that most leisure studies were one-dimensional and not based upon a conceptual framework.

Of the theoretical approaches available, there are several that are relevant to the theories of leisure. Broadly classified, the following paradigms seem most useful to current researchers: (a) the economic model of consumer behavior, (b) the attitudinal model of consumer behavior, and (c) the integrative model of consumer behavior (Bergier, 1981). Exchange theory, reference group theory, and symbolic interaction theory are three approaches scholars have recommended as explanatory frameworks of discussions of leisure (Crawford and Godbey, 1987).

Based on the empirical literature and the research recommendations of other scholars, together with the theoretical perceptions discussed, some specific recommendations for future research can be made (Holman and Epperson, 1984).

1. Theory has been undervalued and underused, and this should be corrected.
2. Better conceptual clarity, research methods, and more sophisticated statistical techniques should be used.
3. Specific transitional variables in addition to family life-cycle stages should be used.
4. The conditions under which parental employment affect leisure should be explored.
5. Different family types (such as the single parent) need to be investigated.
6. Leisure activity patterns need to be studied in depth.
7. Whole family activity patterns and subsystem effects on marital/family outcomes need to be studied in depth (not just the wife/husband or wife/mother aspects).
8. Activity lists should not be the primary independent variables in research.
9. Congruence between preferred and achieved activity should be studied.

In conclusion, it is time to consider the dimensions of leisure in addition to work as an influencing variable in family relations because leisure is "a vital component in family stability today" (Orthner and Mancini, 1978, p. 365).

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Leadership in a Hungry World

Lisa A. Swopes

Overview of World Hunger

One out of every 8 people in the world is hungry most of the time. Four hundred-fifty million people, one-fourth of the developing world, suffer from undernutrition. Every year, almost 13 million people die as a result of hunger and starvation—the equivalent of all the children under 5 in the United States. One billion people in the world have various degrees of brain damage because of inadequate consumption. More people have died of hunger in the past 5 years than have been killed in all wars, revolutions, and murders in the past 150 years (Steele, 1985).

Blindness, stunted growth, decreased mental attentiveness, permanent mental retardation, listlessness, emotional stress, decreased productivity, increased susceptibility to disease, and death are all results of hunger and malnutrition (Lantham, n.d.).

Malnutrition is due to poverty and inequality in developing countries rather than to overpopulation. People are not going hungry because of biological limitations of food production; all of the world's inhabitants would have a more than adequate diet if foods were distributed equitably. Economics, and some might say greed, is the primary root of hunger. Third World countries need to develop economic systems to enable the hungry people to enter the marketplace. We, Americans, might ask ourselves: How can we, a wealthy nation, stand idly by while a portion of humankind is dying malnourished?

There is no simple solution to the problem of hunger. The trend of households headed by women is common all over the world. So when considering the solutions to hunger, decision makers must not consider the patriarchal family only. Rather, consideration needs to be given to family forms as they exist. Some countries have attempted to redevelop the farming system by using cash crop and large holdings. The effect of these changes is that the native people have less land to grow food for their families, and they have less time to prepare and supply adequate food. Subsistence farming has been the means most families used to provide food for their families. Without this traditional practice, they are more vulnerable to changing markets. It is true that the people may have more finances but that does not imply a better quality of life (Murray, 1986).

It is very difficult to understand the dynamics of food and nutritional value on an international level. Society responds to food crises around the world, but food aid may not be as positive as many think. Instead, food aid may cause depressed food prices on the local market and even a dependency on it. The ideal situation is to create an increase in agricultural production without causing a lot of imbalances in their culture. Often energies are focused on areas which are in a famine situation, but undernutrition which causes people to contract deadly diseases is neglected.

Attitudes Concerning the Hunger Issue

My personal concern for world hunger led me to wonder what home economists and Home Economics students in my environment thought the role of the home economist should be. I administered a survey to Home Economics professionals, college students, and high school students to get a general feeling for their awareness of hunger from their recommendations for combating hunger (see Table 1).

From the survey I discovered that 87 percent of the professionals felt that they should be reading current information to enable them to become more effective advocates. Other ways to combat hunger were international experiences in the college curriculum (60%) and exchanging expertise with food scientists and nutritionists from developing lands (60%). Twenty-seven percent advocated sponsoring a child or sending food aid.

The results of the college student survey were similar to professionals regarding current reading and exchange of expertise. However, 40 and 36 percent, respectively, felt that sponsoring a child and sending food aid were helpful. Twenty percent were willing to volunteer a few hours a week with a local hunger organization, and 8 percent felt writing a letter to the editor about a specific aspect of hunger could solve problems.

High school students felt that sending food aid and sponsoring a child were the most effective methods of combating worldwide hunger. Twenty-eight percent were reluctant to leave the United States, but high school students were more willing than college students to volunteer for local hunger organizations.

When asked if they had considered spending time in a Third World country, 60 percent of all three classifications of respondents said that they had not. None of the respondents were involved in a project or a study in a developing nation, though 60 percent of the professionals and 52 percent of the college students felt that international experiences should be included in the college curriculum. Twenty percent of the total number of respondents said that they had long-range goals to visit a developing country.

The survey findings indicate that high school students need more knowledge about the status of worldwide hunger and the causes and effects. There seemed to be some contradictions in the responses. On the one hand professionals felt the college curriculum should include international experiences, but they were not currently involved and few had previous experience. The question should be asked, "Who is going to provide leadership in the college curriculum?" Though more than half of the college students felt the college curriculum should include international experiences, only one-fifth thought that home economists should volunteer on the local level. The survey findings cannot be generalized to the profession of Home Economics, but they raise some questions about the commitment to hunger concerns. Further study of this issue seems to be merited.

It is my thesis that it is time for home economists to take a leadership role in society by using their skills to combat the problem of hunger. Home economists can be involved by taking a serious look at global issues and the implications they have on the family. Eloise Murray, in her AHEA Commemorative Lecture (1986), identified principles for strengthening the contributions of Home Economics. First

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of all, if we want to make an impact on global development, we must be committed to the global perspective. The impact of global issues on the family requires communication with the educational and political systems, keeping the issues we explore consistent with the nature and purpose of the profession. If we hope to be effective, members of the Home Economics profession must be educated for that end. "Central to developing a global perspective is consideration of the reciprocal nature of people, regions, and the systems within and among them" (Murray, 1986).

Suggestions for Home Economists

When considering a global perspective of nutrition and the family, we must consider all issues as operating together rather than considering our system's operation and then that of a developing country. This is the same world in which all people live. Life is similar for all of us; we are all born, grow old, and die. It is only our individual cultures that affect the way we respond to such happenings (Murray, 1986). A project at Michigan State University is an example of how home economists have become involved. The nutrition program incorporated international food and nutrition information into courses after receiving a Title 12 grant, and it has benefited students in the United States and abroad. Students who participated in field work experiences learned that people, worldwide, have similarities in their food needs. The type of food might be differ-

ent, or it might be prepared in a different method. But the principles were still the same. International programs also point out how minor differences in food behaviors can have a drastic effect on health and nutritional well-being. It is uncommon for our health to be affected if one food item is substituted in our diet. However, this is not the case in many developing countries. The students become more aware of food composition and are much more sensitive, realizing that intervention must be planned carefully. The change of food habits could have many effects including a very positive effect, a negative effect, or even a neutral effect.

Working for even a short period of time in another culture will enable an individual to have a clearer picture of the Home Economics perspective beyond food and nutrition. Housing conditions are much different, forcing us to think about the basics of Home Economics. Even the design of clothing is of importance due to climate as well as to whether or not a mother can easily breast feed her child. Sanitation, of course, is much different in many countries from our practices. For example, running water is not taken for granted, because most do not even understand the concept. For all areas of specialization, whether the emphasis is food and nutrition, clothing and textiles, family and child development, home and financial management, or housing- -an experience in a developing country would be beneficial for the native people

and the home economist (Kolasa, 1985).

In closing, I would like to return to the issue of food and nutrition. Paul Fieldhouse stated that nutrition is a "state of well-being so that further improvement in diet has no effect. [It is] a condition that allows every child to attain the best possible performance from his or her genetic endowment: normal growth, development, and the absence of disease" (Williams, 1986). Every child should have the right to meet these standards regardless of economic, ethnic, or cultural background. For the benefit of the profession of Home Economics and the undernourished of our world, I challenge you, a home economist, to be a leader in society, to examine your talents, and to determine how you could be more committed to a global concern for nutrition.

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An Ecosystemic Evaluative Model Applied to Home Economics

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The challenge to develop theoretical models that integrate the variety of skills and conceptual orientations within Home Economics and related disciplines is worth the effort and flexibility it will demand. Although such attempts

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are often treated with suspicion and may generate turf protection, the goal of developing integrative theoretical models, which allow all specialties equal status and input, could help avoid devisive battles between competing groups or the need to choose loyalties between one orientation or another. Integrative models by definition would attempt to emphasize the interdependent nature and complementarity of Home Economics related specialties and to provide a larger context for future growth and refinement. If one recognizes that the period of greatest growth in scientific disciplines is fueled by new advances in theory, significance is added to McCullers' (1987)

challenge to Home Economics for scholarship and theory building. This paper is intended to challenge readers to think in wholes, rather than parts, and to seek higher levels of understanding by integrating aspects of theory, research, and application in Home Economics.

The academic context and impetus for the development of this paper are derived from the field of marriage and family therapy. Marriage and family therapy is associated increasingly with Home Economics (Morris and Joanning, 1986) and has witnessed a prolific growth in theory development (Simon, Stierlin, and Wynne, 1985). Theoretical advances have basically evolved from applying concepts from

Cybernetics and General Systems Theory (Bertalanffy, 1968) to family relationships and to interventions with dysfunctional families. The authors believe that the systemic models now being used in family therapy offer a rich source of ideas for application to other subject areas addressed by Home Economics. The purposes of this paper are to (a) introduce an evaluative model based on ecosystemic concepts that can be used to integrate subject areas represented by Home Economics and related disciplines and (b) provide examples of how to use the model as a conceptual tool for planning, intervention, and research. The proposed model attempts to use systems theory concepts in an integrative manner and is not a proposal for a new theory or a new conceptual framework.

Theoretical Models of Family Systems

References to a Family Systems Theory are premature at this time. Several family systems models currently compete for recognition in family therapy. The approaches contain a number of similarities and differences in technique and terminology; however, most acknowledge their roots in General Systems Theory (Bertalanffy, 1969; Buckley, 1967). Systems models applied to the family have evolved from a fairly narrow conceptualization (e.g., family systems always act to reduce change, Speer, 1970) to a very broad one which views the family as one system in a hierarchy of systems which range from atoms to the entire universe (Engel, 1980; Wertheim, 1970). Approaches which highlight the interplay within and between smaller and larger systems are often referred to as ecosystemic paradigms. Ecosystemic models offer a valuable perspective in Home Economics because they include everything from research on materials and biological health to community service and environmental systems. Each level of system and subsystem can be juxtaposed on a visual model to illustrate the interdependence of parts and wholes. Ecosystemic models propose that larger systems provide a context, meaning, and significant influence for the subsystems which are part of the larger system and also emphasize that system components influence the larger whole.

The systems perspective identifies conceptual errors of failing to consider the full environmental context while trying to understand a particular situation. Our need to simplify issues often leads to arbitrarily viewing subsystems as separate entities, rather than viewing them as complementary components of a larger hierarchy of systems. The ecosystemic perspective attempts to clarify the reciprocal interactions between smaller and

larger systems so that influences from both directions are considered. Because *part* and *whole* distinctions are by necessity observer-defined, it is important to have guidelines which help us to evaluate how arbitrary distinctions tend to remove a system from the context which provides it meaning and understanding. In effect, we need evaluative tools that help identify when component sub- systems are treated as independent rather than interdependent systems, resulting in a failure to provide the necessary context for understanding observed systems.

The Model

The evaluative model presented in Figure 1 is an attempt to provide a conceptual tool that imposes an ecosystemic context on the division of systems and subsystems. The model identifies interdependent layers of systems that must be considered when viewing transactions between individuals, families, and environmental systems. It reduces the tendency to have tunnel vision by emphasizing system connectiveness and networks of influence from larger to smaller units as well as smaller to larger ones.

This model has potential for (a) directing research by evaluating the comprehensiveness of assessments, (b) planning interventions by identifying multiple avenues for effecting change, and (c) coordinating interdisciplinary efforts by systemically categorizing the primary

areas of expertise of a wide range of professional disciplines. Home Economics professionals will be able to regard their goals and activities as components of a larger interactive whole and to highlight how various specialists can combine talents and overcome limitations in existing programs. A future project could attempt to place the range of Home Economics jobs onto the model to identify the relative complementarity of Home Economics professionals. Such an endeavor could identify gaps in services that need to be filled as well as overlaps in services which could be more efficiently managed.

Model Applied to Research

The development of research methods to assess relationships, answer questions, and solve problems requires careful selection of measurement techniques. The model can serve as a decision-making tool for identifying potentially overlooked issues and helping researchers to provide a rationale for specific choices.

Consider, for example, research on teenage pregnancy. The model suggests that the research process may be different if the emphasis is on the teenage girl as an individual, a member of a family, a part of a male-female couple relationship, a student in the public school system, a member of the community (church, work), or a member of an extended network of relatives or peers. These considerations all concern the unit of analysis as the

Figure 1. Professional Development Chart

	CHANGE AGENT	SYSTEM LEVEL OF INTERVENTION	PROCESS	SYSTEM LEVEL OF INTENDED IMPACT
+1	Family Life Educator	Individual/Couple	Educational program on aging issues, How to cope effectively	Individual/Couple*
+2	Economist	Individual/Couple/ and Fam Subsystem	Future financial planning-consultation, educational courses, materials	Individual (Psych)/ Couple*
+3	Therapist	Individual/Couple	Therapy	Individual (Psych)/ Couple*
4	Home Aide	Individual/Couple	In-home care service	Individual (Biol)/ Couple*
+5	Various Educ Resources	Individual	Education/Support given to a caretaker child to work with the elderly parent	Family (Dyad, Triad)
+6	Therapist	Family System (Partial/Whole)	Therapy	Whole Family (*)
+7	Consultant	Whole Family	Decision about where to live	Individual/Couple
+8	Housing Spec	Comm Serv Org/ Family/Ext Fam	Remodel housing for planned adaptations	Environmental (Phys)
9	Nurse	Professional Serv	Teaching medical/health care procedures	Ind (Biol)/Couple
10	Funding	Professional Serv	Provide opportunity for specialized training in professional field for future use	Professional Serv*
+11	Specialist	Professional Serv (Agencies)	Liaison group planning-identify areas where prof/agencies currently impact, overlap, and need development	Professional Serv*
+12	Consumer Spec (Lobbyist)	Professional Serv/ Community Group	Educate for development of needed legislation and funding appropriations	Environmental (Phys)
+13	Dietitian	Community Group	Volunteer delivering "Meals on Wheels"	Individual (Biol)
+14	Physical Fitness	Community Group	Exercise class for the elderly	Individual (Biol)
+15	Program Coord	Community Groups	Elderly volunteer services (R.S.V.P.)	Community Groups*
+16	Home Ec Teacher	Community Group	School course linking students with elderly community residents	Socio-Cultural/ Individual
+17	Clothing Spec	Environment (Phys)	Develop clothing for special physical needs (restrictive movement, stroke)	Individual
+18	Housing Spec	Environment (Phys)	Design or remodel current housing to accommodate special needs	Individual (Biol)/ Couple

+ denotes positions potentially filled by those trained in a field of Home Economics
* denotes direct match between system level of intervention and system level of intended impact

Figure 2. An Ecosystemic Evaluative Model applied to a hypothetical situation

		SYSTEM LEVEL OF INTENDED IMPACT										
		INDIVIDUAL SYSTEMS					FAMILY SYSTEMS			SUPRA FAMILY SYSTEMS		
		Family Subsystems								Environmental Systems		
	SYSTEM LEVEL OF INTERVENTION	Bio-logical	Psycho-logical	Dyads	Triads	Other	Whole Family	Relatives/ Extended Family	Prof. Services	Community Group	Physical	Socio-Cultural
I N D	INDIVIDUAL SYSTEM	1* 2* 4*	3	5	5							
	FAMILY SYSTEM (DYAD)			1* 2* 3* 4*								
F A M I L Y	FAMILY SYSTEM (TRIAD)											
	FAMILY SYSTEM (Other Part)	2		2		6	6				8	
S U P R A	WHOLE FAMILY	7	7	7			6*					
	EXTENDED FAMILY										8	
	PROFESSIONAL SERVICES	9		9					10* 11*		12	
F A M I L Y	COMMUNITY GROUP	13 14	14 16							15*	8 12	16
	ENVIRONMENTAL (Physical)	17 18	17	18								
	ENVIRONMENTAL (Sociocultural)											

* to the right of the number indicates a direct intervention

System of Intended Impact. Assessments could fill the entire matrix of the evaluative model (Figure 2) or could reflect just a part of it.

Measurement tools would be specifically selected to assess the System Level of Intended Impact through a variety of System Levels of Intervention as determined by the researcher. If the individual is the level of Intended Impact, then appropriate measures may include physiological assessments on the health and nutrition of the teenage girl or on psychological factors which may influence teenage pregnancy. Assessments could also be considered for family background, parent-child relations, or relationship with siblings or peers. This information could be gleaned directly from the teenage girl; however, the model suggests that a researcher could also survey her siblings, parents, or physician. The model's primary role is in evaluating the theoretical implications of choices in research design.

Model Applied to Intervention and Program Planning

The model can be used by service agencies or community development teams to identify the range of skills and areas of expertise within and between existing resources. This organizational process helps in discovering overlapping services and needs and in avoiding accidental duplication of services or loss of services due to inefficient use of personnel. It may also build a case for providing additional inservice training for existing personnel or for justifying the need to hire outside professionals for specific concerns.

Another method of adding services and preventing duplication is through awareness of the mission of other agencies. The mission of each agency could be put into the perspective of Levels of Intervention and Impact and, after evaluating the role of current programming, the agency could distribute future programming based on identified needs. Once intragency planning has been completed, community planning can be conducted to identify the specific strengths and foci of each agency. As a result, division of services and referral procedures could be developed to create a more efficient network.

Example of Model Application

For purposes of demonstration, we will discuss the development and the coordination of resources of a community project to meet the needs of the elderly and aging populations. With an aging society and increasing longevity, more attention is being given to the future needs of the elderly, including emotional and physical health, societal concerns, adjustments to the family unit, housing, nutrition, clothing, and financial concerns.

The planning group could include Home Economics professionals, personnel providing direct services to the elderly, medical personnel, an architect/engineer, a community volunteer, elderly persons, a minister, and a city council liaison. Based on the community or actual project needs, this list of personnel could be expanded or restricted. In addition, gerontology specialists could be used as consultants for program development.

The first step in using the evaluative model is to clarify the system level of intended impact. Technically, the aging individual or couple would constitute the whole or complete family unit. Therefore, the dyad, triad, and other family subsystems would not be addressed. However, for this exercise, family of procreation of the elderly person, including the aging individual or couple and their children, will be defined as the whole family.

The Professional Development Chart (Figure 1) presents eighteen examples of possible programming ideas classified into the areas of change agent, system level of intervention, process, and system level of intended impact. The numbers corresponding to the change agent and process have been placed on the matrix in the intersecting cells of the impact and intervention levels indicated in the professional development chart. The resulting matrix (Figure 2) helps to evaluate the emphasis and thoroughness of current services, programming, and resources. The planning committee could do an assessment for unmet needs to be matched with new programming thrusts.

The system level of intervention in this example is the community. The arrangement of the unit from the smaller individual to the

suprafamily units indicate the hierarchical arrangement of the subsystems.

The wholeness of the plan is considered when defining the family unit, assigning duties to various professionals and agencies, and determining what intervention and impact levels are to be addressed for each identified process. Wholeness relates also to the fact that a person who is physically cared for is generally better off emotionally and requires less overall care than the infirm individual. In addition, as community groups increase their awareness of aging issues at the local level, the family units are likely to give more appropriate care and support to their own elderly family members.

Aspects of *process* and *change* relate to an individual or family unit's ability and openness to adjust to changes needed to accommodate and support the elderly individual/couple. The suggested programs could help families prepare themselves to experience a natural part of the life cycle, including the issue of impending death.

Intervention at an awareness level is usually more effective than reacting to concerns that have become problematic. Inadequate planning can lead to financial difficulties, inadequate shelter or protection from the elements, abuse situations, deficient care, suicide, depression, malnutrition, and/or accidents (physical harm).

It is difficult to predict the full impact of such a program in regard to efficiency, cost effectiveness, intergenerational ties being strengthened, and numerous other possibilities. However, a proactive, integrative approach for a community to care for its own seems to hold promise for more than just individual family units caring for their elderly members.

Conclusion

As home economists, we are prepared as professionals to serve as liaisons in linking up a wide variety of services, agencies, and needs for many people issues such as drug/alcohol, teen pregnancy, family violence, as well as environmental needs. This matrix can be used for the community setting, the unit we work for, or the development of an individual job description. Also, this conceptual tool can broaden our own perspectives and options through reflection on our own personal family systems. When we more fully understand the impact which can result from this ecosystemic analysis, we can provide the best possible environment for our clients, fellow professionals, and our chosen communities.

Family Dynamics and Children's Food and Nutrition Behavior

Ann A. Hertzler

Historically, the delivery of food and nutrition information is assumed to result in improved food practices. Unfortunately, this is often not the case. The purpose of this paper is to describe family dynamics relative to children that enhance or deter the use of food and nutrition information and to illustrate family strategies that optimize program effectiveness. The contention is that children's adaptation to both normal or special diets is related to family dynamics and not necessarily to the lack of food and nutrition information.

Traditional Model

Most programs for children on either normal or therapeutic diets have been targeted to the mother as the dominant caregiver and food provider. In normal nutrition, research suggests that feeding problems are associated with (a) mothers overestimating children's food and nutrition needs, (b) using food in combination with punishment or reward or with excess attention and adulation, and (c) using a gamesmanship management technique to divert the child's attention away from food in order to get the child to eat (Hertzler, 1983).

Literature reviewing therapeutic problems illustrates that overprotective or overpermissive mothering results in maladjusted children with low levels of adherence. Perfectionist, controlling mothers have children with satisfactory regulation of diabetes but who are rebellious. Indifferent or rejecting mothering leads to depression in children and poor metabolic control. Tolerant, consistent, and flexible mothers have well-adjusted children with satisfactory metabolic control (Anderson and Auslander, 1980).

Systems Model

A model focusing on the family system offers an effective approach to study children's food behavior. The *Information Processing Framework* is a model in which three concepts describe the family system: *complexity* of information (in this case, food and nutrition knowledge for feeding children), *networks* of family members to food and nutrition information, and *family dynamics* in the commu-

nication of information for decision making (Hertzler and Owen, 1984). The third construct, family dynamics, is the subject of this paper.

Dynamics in Functional Families

From birth, behavioral synchronization and stable parenting help explain the child's food habits. During preschool years, parental techniques of modeling, positive reinforcement, and providing a variety of food experiences usually result in children with desirable eating behavior, better coping skills, and greater independence (Hertzler, 1983).

Nutrition education programs are likely to be successful for the overweight child with supportive and interactive parents who agree on how to raise the child. Higher levels of metabolic control for diabetic children are associated with greater cooperation and healthy interpersonal relationships between family members; consensus between parents regarding treatment requirements; and little stress, role tension, or conflict between the diabetic child and the parents or between the parents. Children under six years of age with physical handicaps (e.g., Down's Syndrome, cerebral palsy, birth defects) have better eating habits and feeding skills when parents have the skills to work with their child's limitations (Anderson & Auslander, 1980).

Dynamics in Dysfunctional Families

Dysfunctional families lack congruence in incorporating food and nutrition information into food habits. Family interaction in the form of aggression, marital disharmony, or mutual contempt between parents tends to result in inconsistent messages to the child. Some studies of severely malnourished children show that mothers are status discrepant to partners in terms of recognition, fulfillment, opportunities, and power in making decisions. The disengaged or chaotic family is unaware of what each is doing, is unaware of individual needs, and often does not take responsibility for family meals. Such dynamics can undermine the use of food and nutrition information (Hertzler, 1981; 1983; Satter, 1986). An indifferent or abusive parenting style can predispose the child to limited food choices and/or difficulty in adjusting to new behavior in later years (Hertzler, 1983).

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Parent's inappropriate or inconsistent use of food with children detrimentally influences the child's coping skills and food behavior. In some cases, parents respond with food to the infant's crying for hunger as well as pain, fright, or tiredness; either give or withhold food as a form of discipline; stuff the child with food to keep him/her quiet or ignore the child for hours; and/or alternate expressions of affection and protection with aggression and hostility. As a result, children learn to respond to all kinds of feelings (e.g., hunger, fear, anger, and anxiety) by eating (Anderson and Auslander, 1980; Hertzler, 1983).

Family Teaching Strategies

Parental insensitivity to feeding cues can result in overfeeding (e.g., clean plate syndrome) or underfeeding (e.g., fussiness interpreted as satiety, food withheld to keep the child slim). The child's refusal to chew food or to drink from a cup is often related to the family not offering table foods and not teaching the child to feed himself. Some parents need information on ways to respond to children's feelings other than with food and ways to interact with the child to provide experiences which help the child to develop independence and adaptive behavior. Instead of responding to crying or noise by giving or withholding food, parents need to develop appropriate responses and consistent parenting patterns (Hertzler, 1981; 1983).

Family Life Skills

The dysfunctional family will have greater difficulty in initiating appropriate eating behaviors in children. When family members have blatant discord and poor communication and expect the child's obedience, children may use inappropriate eating behaviors in order to cope. Parents often need to resolve and learn how to deal with their own conflicts before nutrition education programs can be effective. They need to learn how to listen to each other, to share and express ideas, and to identify positive and constructive ways to deal with feelings (Pipes and Holm, 1980; Hertzler, 1983; Satter, 1986).

Instead of the traditional nutrition education approach to the dominant caregiver, programs are using counseling teams including dietitians, physicians, nurses, social workers, family therapists, etc. to reach the whole family. Sessions include practical demonstrations on both food and nutrition information and parenting skills. Such approaches include family day camps, parent support groups, live-in education programs, and home visits. Home Economics programs are recognized for their prevention of potential problems because of their multidisciplinary programs that include nutrition and family living skills (Hertzler, 1981; 1983).

Outcomes

The inclusion of family dynamics in food and nutrition programs enhances success of the child's adjustment or compliance to normal or modified diets. Successful nutrition education programs result in improved nutriture and wellbeing of children; the reduction of in-depth programs (e.g., welfare or high risk programs) or care facilities in treatment (e.g., foster homes, correctional facilities); not losing clients by death, suicide, or as non-functional members of society; and youth becoming functional members of society responsible for their own selfcare and behavior. Prevention also occurs by improving family functioning, so parents can use information about potential problems and solutions, discuss feelings and concerns in relation to prevalent problems, and lay the groundwork to avoid family-related nutrition problems in the teen years.

Outcomes of nutrition education programs depend on the appropriate food and nutrition information as well as on family dynamics. In the case of children, families may need information on parenting as well as on family living skills for decision making. Food and nutrition programs appear to succeed when family communication and interaction can be described as supportive, open, flexible, tolerant, consistent, and appropriate so children can share ideas and feelings, try new ways, develop problem-solving skills, and gain decision-making experience in the process of becoming responsible and independent.

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Editor's Corner

The need for increased honor society emphasis on undergraduate student writing was identified in 1986 by the Kappa Omicron Phi National Council and the Omicron Nu Board of Directors. Planning to develop a proactive campaign began immediately, and the actions to encourage and reward writing have included the following:
*   Implementation of the Commitment to Writing thrust.
*   Development of a Commitment to Writing Activity Module.
*   Call for Undergraduate Papers for the Fall 1988 *Home Economics FORUM.*
*   Competitive Call for Undergraduate Papers for each successive fall issue.
*   Support for presentation of student papers at the 1988 Kappa Omicron Phi Conclave and the 1989 Omicron Nu Conclave.
*   Announcement of Merit awards for Kappa Omicron Phi and Omicron Nu Commitment to Writing chapter programs.
*   Call for Undergraduate Papers for presentation at the 1989 Kappa Omicron Phi Regional Meetings.

These have been significant activities. But, speaking on behalf of both societies, we must do more; and we intend to!

Administrators and Faculty: We need the support of every Home Economics unit to make the difference we envision. Can we count on a collaborative approach to encouraging and rewarding undergraduate writing? Encourage your students to compete, to seek the recognition, to test their scholarship. The nine papers published here represent the work of eleven students and countless faculty advisers and peers who helped, encouraged, cajoled, pushed, wiped the tears . . . We salute the authors and their support systems, and we hope others will be challenged to risk the pain and hard work that writing and thinking and stretching entail.

DM

Note: Credit should be given to the Coordinating Council of Home Economics Honor Societies (CCHEHS) undergraduate writing competition. The following authors first presented their papers at a CCHEHS/SMS sponsored AHEA Undergraduate Student Research Paper Session: Black, McVey & Stokes, Meier & Milroy, Patience, and Rowley.

This issue is intended to serve as a primer of undergraduate writing. The models are pretty good—not perfect, but that can be said also of most of the professional specimens I've seen in my capacity as editor. We expect to have a few extra copies for use in writing seminars. Let us know if you can use some for that purpose.

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