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Editorial Volume 7 Issue 1

Donna Pendergast

Publication in IJHE provides wide exposure to journal articles and adds to the professional literature base of the field. Theoretical papers, literature reviews, and a wide range of genres along with research papers are invited for publication in the journal. As editor, I strongly encourage submissions to the journal.

In this issue we see the diversity of the Home Economics profession being displayed. Food related papers, including a review of key documents related to food education contributed by Benn continues the current interest in food literacy. Bakare provides insights into the role of food motivation for tourism development in Nigeria. Johnson stimulates readers to engage in some challenging questions regarding consumer education and the possibility of living sustainably in current society. Khanna, Ramamurthy and Anand report on the practices of families in the management of consumer durables in India. The closing paper in this issue is contributed by McGregor, who continues the professional dialogue associated with the notion of creating Home Economics futures, by conducting an analysis of the contributions to the book of the same name. McGregor reminds us of the take-home message from the book that we have to change ourselves in order to be part of the future of humankind.

These five papers have undergone rigorous, double-blind review, and are adding to the professional literature base of the field.

The process of conducting peer reviews is conducted by volunteers, each of whom is regarded as an expert in their field. For each paper published in the International Journal of Home Economics, there are typically two that do not achieve publication, which means the extent of the work of the Editorial Board is often not apparent to the wider profession. The Editorial Board all work strenuously and continuously to undertake their roles and, at any time in the year, will have responsibility for peer reviews at some stage of the review process. Given this load, it is my pleasure to announce a new appointment to the Editorial Board, Dr Jay Deagon, who brings expertise to the Editorial Board in the fields of Home Economics research, education and policy, spiritual health and wellbeing, local and global citizenship, sustainable futures and social change.

Professor Donna Pendergast, PhD
Editor, IJHE

Determinants of food motivation
for tourism development in Lagos, Nigeria

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Abstract

Ethnically, food no longer merely serves as sustenance but also a way to relate to other people in social, cultural and political terms. The study examined factors that determine food motivation for tourism development in Lagos, Nigeria. A descriptive survey research was employed using a systematic random sampling to select 360 travellers from the Muritala Mohammed International Airport in Lagos, Nigeria. The instrument employed was a self-designed questionnaire that consisted of 20 items. The data were presented and analysed using simple percentage, factor analysis and probit model statistics. The results revealed that a little above average of the participants were Nigerians and the rest were non-Nigerians. The study identified inadequate knowledge about food, food aroma, food content, availability and food appearance were identified as the major challenges toward food motivation for tourism development. Socio-economic variables such as age, tour status, nationality, race, educational status, social affiliation, health status, and marital status were found to determine food motivation for tourism. The results revealed constraints to food motivation for tourism development as indicated by the respondents as inadequate knowledge of the food, food appearance, and mode of preparation, presentation/service, food content, food allergy, food aroma and availability. It is recommended that local cuisines in Nigeria should be branded to make the literature available to tourists on arrival to the country to boost tourism development in Lagos and Nigeria as a whole.

Keywords: food, tourism, tourism development, cultural diversity, food motivation

Introduction

Despite the height of globalization that is marked with a high level of technological advancement, there is no alternative to food. Anywhere in the world, food remains a major support for life and wellness. Ethnically, food no longer merely serves as sustenance but also a way to relate to other people in social, cultural and political terms (Oosterveer, 2006). In the context of tourism, food consumption is likewise acknowledged to bear symbolic significance; for example, as a mark of social distinction (Chang, Kivela, and Mak, 2010; Kim, Eves, and Scarles, 2009), and a way of encountering and experiencing other food methods and cultures (Chang et al., 2010; Molz, 2007). On the other hand, food provides energy and essential nutrients needed for body functions and thus eating is at the same time regarded as

an 'obligatory' tourist activity (Richards, 2002). It constitutes a part and adds to the overall experience in tourism endeavour.

In many countries of the Western world, the share of meals eaten outside the home is increasing (Senauer, 2001). Food is a key part of all cultures, a major element of global intangible heritage and an increasingly important attraction for tourists. The linkages between food and tourism also provide a platform for local economic development which can be strengthened by the use of food experiences for branding and marketing destinations. Tourists have increasingly rejected the industrial model of low cost mass production of food, searching out local, fresh and good quality cuisine that reflects the authenticity of the destination (Barcelona Field Studies Centre, 2012). Tourists' food choices and preferences are recognised as important forces driving the tourism demand for food, which have an immediate influence on the offerings of tourist-oriented hospitality businesses and a significant impact on local food supply.

Chang et al. (2010) found that tourists' culturally-specific core eating behaviour is a crucial factor affecting their food preferences on holiday. Evidence from the tourism literature suggests that tourist food consumption can be influenced by socio-demographic factors. For instance, Tse and Crotts (2005) found that a tourist's age was negatively correlated with the number and range of their culinary explorations. This suggests that elder tourists may consume a narrower range of foods available in a destination. Kim et al. (2009) also identified gender, age, and education as three socio-demographic variables that affect tourists' local food consumption. Food choice also plays an essential role in the symbolic, economic, and social aspects of life as it is a way to express preferences, identities, and cultural meanings (Sobal, Bisogni, Devine and Jastran, 2006). For instance, it is obligatory for all Muslims to eat only halal food even when they are travelling in foreign destinations (Bon and Hussain, 2010). Chang, Kivela, and Mak (2011) found that tourists' own food culture can exert a great deal of influence on their perceptions and evaluation of foreign food, particularly in terms of flavour and cooking method.

The focus of many tourists has changed from the classic 'must-see' physical sights, such as museums and monuments, towards a 'must-experience' imperative to consume intangible expressions of culture, such as atmosphere, creativity, lifestyle, and indigenous cuisines. This provides new opportunities for tourism destinations as well as new challenges, particularly in the areas of experience development, marketing and branding.

To provide an understanding of the role of food in tourism in local economic development and its potential for country tourism branding, there is a need to investigate the determinants of food motivation. The European Food Information Council (2005) identified food choice determinants as social, economic, biological, physical, attitudinal, and psychological factors. Local produce or local indigenous ingredients available under different geographical or climatic conditions and seasonality can stimulate tourists' quest for the geographical or historical sense-of-place virtue (Scarpato, 2002a). Social support can have a beneficial effect on food choices and healthful dietary change (Devine, Connors, Sobal & Bisogni, 2003). Motivation for dining out is associated with socio-psychological motivations for a pleasant trip (Ardabili, Rasouli, Daryani, Molaie, & Sharegi, 2011). Local food products were often not

available or simply not available in the sometimes large quantities that were required (Mak et al. 2011).

The yearning for local Nigerian foods by Nigerians abroad is an interesting phenomenon to ponder over. Amongst Nigerians in diaspora, there are constant narrations of food encounters at popular and not so popular 'mama put joints' (food canteens) and eateries famous for their specialty in amala, starch, owo soup, kosai da koko, edikaikong, gbegiri, tuwo, ofada rice in leaves, and egbo (matched corn). In a lot of these joints, there is no class distinction as the young, old, rich and middle class mingle together to satisfy their craving for local food. Food has been viewed as a necessary element of survival, and probably as a component of another attraction such as food in festivals, but has hardly been studied as an attraction or as a tourist recreational activity by itself especially in Nigerian context. Dining out is common among tourists and food is believed to rank alongside climate, accommodation, and scenery in importance to tourists. Culinary/food tourism is simply the pursuit of unique and memorable eating and drinking experiences.

For the purpose of the study, food tourism is defined as tourists' food related activities at the destination, such as dining, purchasing local food products, and experiencing the characteristics of a unique food-producing region. Hence, food motivation is any feeling of enthusiasm, interest, or commitment to embark on travel or a tour, which arise from or add up to food and related subjects. Considering the diversity of culture in Nigeria, there is a lot on offer to travellers and tourists who may desire enjoyable and lingering experiences in food. It is a worthwhile development to promote Nigerian culture through its cuisine. Nigeria needs to tap into this as well and to showcase the richness and nutritional value of Nigerian dishes beyond her borders. It is against this background that the study seeks to examine the factors that determine food choice and food motivation of tourists.

Materials and methods

The study employed a descriptive survey research design. This is to determine the frequency of occurrence of the distribution and the relationship among the different variables.

Sample size and sampling techniques

The population comprised incoming travellers to Nigeria while the sample comprised 360 foreigners and Nigerians that embarked at the Muritala Mohammed International Airport, Lagos, between 15th and 21st December, 2012. Systematic random sampling technique was employed to select 360 respondents selecting one at the interval of four. Between 58 and 62 were selected each day to obtain 360.

Research instrument

The research instrument used for the study is a self-designed questionnaire and interview guide to assist the respondents in order to respond to information on demographic variables, food motivating factors and determinants of food choice. The instrument employed was a 20-item questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to obtain relevant information about the respondents. The administration of the questionnaire took one full week to distribute, collect and collate. Three hundred and eighty copies of questionnaire were distributed;

twenty of the questionnaire was haphazardly filled and discarded given a total of 360. Overall content validity was carried out to ensure that the whole questionnaire contained and measured the information required within the framework of the research objectives. A pilot method was used to determine the reliability. This was carried out in a separate population, analysed and faults were detected, corrections were made before the administration of the questionnaire in the study area.

Data analysis

Data were processed using SPSS version 16.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Chicago, IL, USA) for analysis involving inferential statistical methods. The frequency of occurrence and percentages on the various parameters are presented in Table 1 and figures (pie and bar charts) are used to present the constraints of food and purpose of trip of tourists respectively. Probit model statistics and factor analysis were used for inferences on relationship of tourists' characteristics, food choice, and food motivation. All inferences were drawn at less than 0.05 level of significance.

Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study was to examine the factors that determine food motivation for tourism development in Lagos, Nigeria.

The specific objectives of the study were to:

  i.   identify the constraints of food motivation towards tourism development

 ii.   assess the effect of tourists' demographic characteristics on food motivation

iii.   examine the relationship between food choice and food motivation factors

Hypotheses

- There is no significant relationship between socio-economic factors of tourists and food motivation.

- There is no significant relationship between food choice factors of tourists and food motivation.

Results

Demographic variables of tourists/travellers

The descriptive data of the demographic characteristics of tourists is shown in Table 1. The sex distribution was uneven as 59.17% of the participants were male while 40.83% were female. The majority (60.0%) fall in the age group of 26 to 60years. Most (74.17%) were returning tourists who had come to Nigeria at least once before, while about one-quarter were on their maiden trip to Nigeria. In other words, they were first timers who were just coming to Nigeria for the very first time. Slightly over half of the respondents (56.39%) were

Nigerians by nationality while others were foreigners from various countries all over the world.

Table 1   Demographic variables of respondents

Characteristics		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age (years)	< 25	124	34.44
	26-60	216	60.00
	61 and older	20	5.56
	Total	**360**	**100.00**
Tour status	Maiden	93	25.83
	Non maiden	267	74.17
	Total	**360**	**100.00**
Sex	Male	213	59.17
	Female	147	40.83
	Total	**360**	**100.00**
Nationality	Nigerian	203	56.39
	Non-Nigerian	157	43.61
	Total	**360**	**100.00**
Marital status	Single	107	29.72
	Married	161	44.72
	Others	92	25.56
	Total	**360**	**100.00**
Education	None	11	3.06
	Elementary/High school	204	28.89
	Post High School	245	68.05
	Total	**360**	**100.00**

Source: Study survey, 2012

Figure 1 shows the opinion of respondents on the constraints of food motivation for tourism development. It was found that inadequate knowledge about food (78%), food aroma (85%), food content (80%), availability (86%) and food appearance (66%) were identified as the major challenges for food motivation for tourism development. If local cuisines can be developed and branded to come up with a literature or manual on each food, tourists will no longer claim lack of knowledge of the content and basic information on the cuisines.
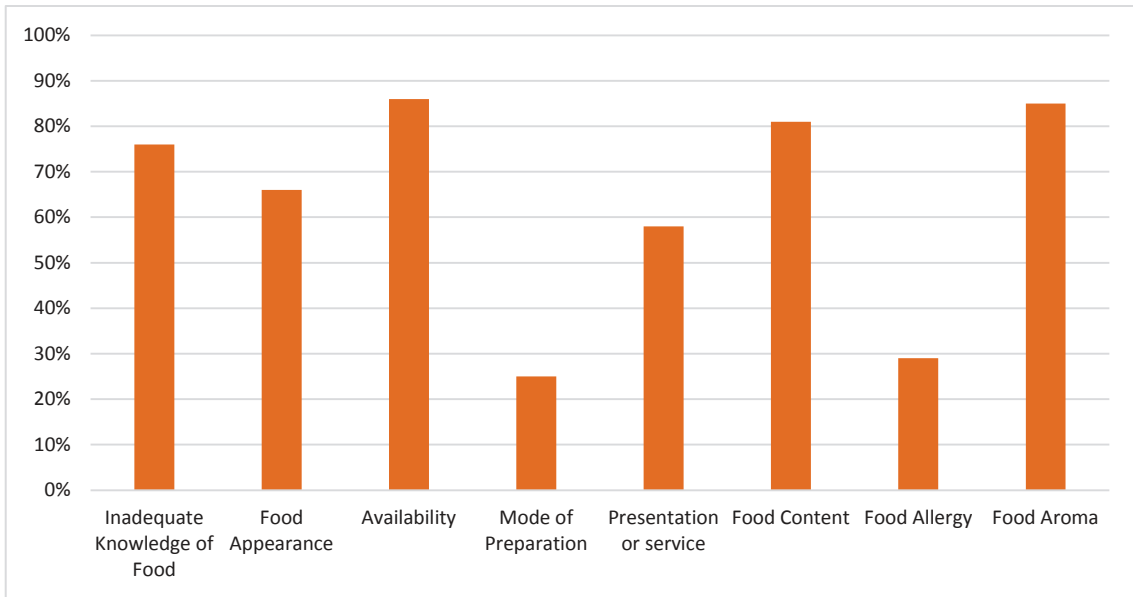
Figure 1   Bar chart showing constraints of food motivation for tourism development

It was found that travellers embark on trips for different purposes (see Figure 2). Every traveller is determined to feed wherever he goes, as food is one of the basic essentials of life. The majority (55%) of the travellers journeyed for recreation, 16% had visitation as the purpose of their travel, 4% were on education tour, and 10% were on business trips, while 15% were others which could be combination of any of the two mentioned as multiple choice was not allowed.
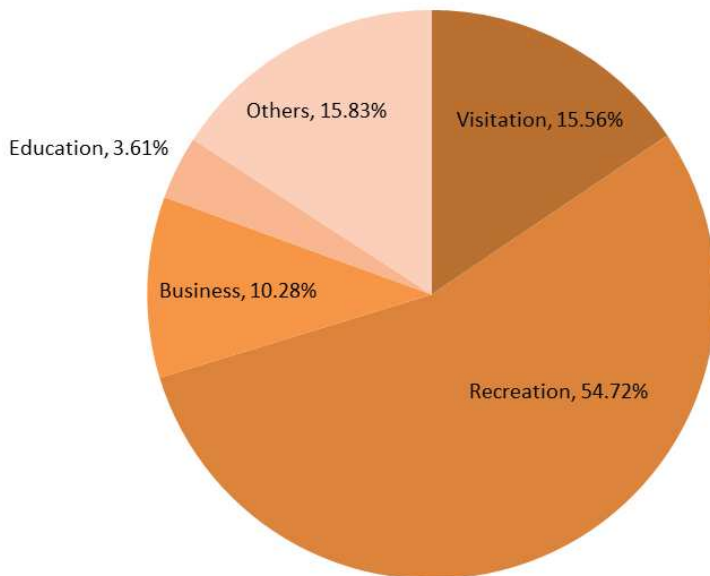
Figure2   Pie chart showing purpose of trip to Nigeria

Relationship between socio-economic factors of tourists / travellers and food motivation.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between socio-economic factors of tourists and food motivation.

Table 2 shows the results of probit model analysis of socio-economic determinants of food motivation. The results showed Age (-5.0345***); Tour Status (3.7513***); Nationality (4.5781***); Race (-5.0106***); Educational Status (-3.6091**); Social Affiliation (-1.6227**); Health Status (-2.08964**); and Marital Status (0.21025***) as the demographic determinants of food motivation.

Table 2   Probit analysis of socio-economic determinants of food motivation

Variable	Coefficient	Std Error	Estimated parameters
Sex	-0.0019	02617	1.0345
Age	-0.0051	05414	-5.0345***
Country of Residence	-0.0037	02118	4.2116
Tour Status	0.1363	02791	3.7513***
Nationality	0.0811	03541	4.5781***
Body Size	-0.0014	03670	1.5836
Race	-0.3016	02918	-5.0106***
Educational Status	-0.1539	00069	-3.6091**
Social Affiliation	0.0827	00009	-1.6227**
Health Status	-0.0147	04101	-2.08964**
Marital Status	-0.0013	03115	0.21025***

Note: **significant at 5%, ***significant at 1%
Source: Study survey, 2012

Relationship between food choice and food motivation factors among tourists

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between food choice factors of tourists and food motivation.

Table 3 shows the relationship between food choice factors and food motivation among tourists. The 17 determination items yielded six items with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The factors accounted for 67% of the variance and were labelled biological, social, physical, psychological, economic and attitudinal determinants of food choice. All 17 items had factor loadings of over .45. The reliability alpha, which was designed to check internal consistency of items within each dimension, was greater than .74.

Table 3   Factor analysis of food choice determinants among travellers / tourists

Determinant Item	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance	Reliability Coefficient
Biological		**1.537**	**8.579**	**.734**
Hunger	.815			
Appetite	.744			
Taste	.716			
Economic		**1.079**	**5.974**	**.796**
Cost	.593			
Income	.843			
Physical		**2.197**	**12.208**	**.767**
Access	.787			
Education	.781			
Skill	.731			
Time	.639			
Social		**1.309**	**7.244**	**.759**
Class	.814			
Culture	.818			
Soc. Context	.618			
Psychological		**5.457**	**30.320**	**.831**
Mood	.815			
Stress	.773			
Guilt	.821			
Attitudinal		**2.641**	**9.213**	**.701**
Belief	.707			
Knowledge about food	.843			
Total variance account			**73.538**	

Source: Study survey, 2012

Discussion

The descriptive analysis of the demographic characteristics of tourists in Table 1 showed that more males embarked on tourism/travel compared to females. It further revealed that almost three quarter of tourists were returning tourists while one quarter were maiden travellers who travelled to Nigeria for the first time in history. A little above half of the respondents were Nigerians by nationality while others were foreigners from various countries all over the world.

The study revealed inadequate knowledge about food, food aroma, food content, availability and food appearance, as the major challenges for food motivation for tourism development. The findings agreed with Mak et al. (2011) that local food products were often not available or simply not available in the sometimes large quantities that were required. It is only what is available that tourists will see and desire and therefore, possess.

Table 2 revealed that sex, country of residence and body size were not significant to food motivation. This implies that tourists/travellers' propensity to get motivated by food while on tour/travel decreased with sex, country of residence and body size. Out of the identified tourists demographic characteristics: sex; where tourists reside; and their body size (whether fat, average or slim) determined how they are motivated to food in the course of tourism /travel. The results also showed the significant position of tourists socio-economic characteristics to food motivation. Therefore, the socio-economic factors are good predictors of food motivation hence, the hypothesis was rejected. The results of the above findings are in agreement with Ardabili et al. (2011); Oosterveer, 2006; Chang et al., 2010; Kim, et al. 2009; Molz, 2007. Whereas, Richards (2002) has contrary view to the study that eating is an obligatory activity for tourists. Findings of Scarpato (2002b) are in support of the results of the study that health is one of the factors determining choice of food. The findings of the study are also at variance with Tse and Crotts (2005) that tourist age negatively correlated with the number and range of their culinary explorations.

Table 3 showed the factor loadings for the 17 items ranged from .593 to .861. These coefficients were higher than or close to the standard of 0.7 recommended by Nunnally (1978). Therefore, hypothesis two is rejected as the factors were significant in the prediction of food motivation among tourists. The results of the findings in Table 3 support the findings of European Food Information Council (EUFIC, 2005) that identified food choice determinants to include social, economic, biological, physical, attitudinal and psychological factors. The findings of the study corroborated that of Chang et al. (2011) that culture of tourists in terms of flavour and cooking method influence their food choice.

Conclusions and recommendation

The study explored the determinants of food choice and demographic variables that motivate food choice among tourists / travellers. Factor analysis of 17 food choice determinant items resulted in six factors: psychological, social, physical, economic, biological, and attitudinal variables. The study revealed the results of probit model analysis of socio-economic determinants of food motivation. The results showed that health status, age, body size, tour status, and race were the demographic determinants of food motivation. It was found that health status, race, and age were negatively related to food motivation. This implied that when people have ill health, racial difference, and are younger, their motivation towards food decreases. The study contributed to the growing body of knowledge about determinants of food motivation and food choice for tourism development.

It was found that travellers embark on trips for different purposes. Though every traveller must eat wherever he goes as food is one of the basic essentials of life. A little above half (55%) of the travellers journeyed for recreation, and food forms a major part of the physiological experience in recreation. The finding implies that food can be of advantage to tourism development especially, when the purpose of travel centres on recreation.

The study revealed constraints to food motivation for tourism development as indicated by the respondents were: inadequate knowledge of the food; food appearance; and mode of preparation; presentation/service; food content; fear of food allergy; and food aroma. It was found that inadequate knowledge about food was one of the critical criteria for food

motivation. If tourists have information about the available food in their destination, they will be motivated to eat the food, depending on the content and the mode of preparation. If local cuisines can be developed and branded with literature or guides on each food, tourists will no longer be oblivious to the content and basic information on the cuisines.

It is therefore recommended that indigenous cuisines and local food ingredients in Nigeria should be branded with detailed literature, to be made available to tourists on arrival to the country, and at the tourist sites to promote tourism development in Nigeria. Non-governmental organisations can embark on workshops and training programmes to educate people on local food, indigenous cooking methods and presentable packaging that will attract tourists to our cuisines.

Biography

Kudirat Oyebisi Bakare (M.Phil) is a Lecturer in the Department of Family, Nutrition andConsumer Sciences, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria. Oyebisi researches and writes on Tourism Development and Rural Livelihood, Hospitality Management, and Consumer Sciences. She is currently on her Ph.D programme.

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Food, nutrition or cooking literacy—a review of concepts and competencies regarding food education

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Abstract

This article presents a review of the concept of food literacy based on 14 articles and reports and two text books. Food literacy is currently discussed as an aim of food education in the western world, partly inspired of a fundamental literacy understanding and partly of health literacy or other related literacy areas to food. The works are presented through their components and concepts of food literacy, and further discussed in the light of food elements included and seen in relation to aims concerning competencies. The definitions and content of the works presented reveal both similarities and differences concerning the understanding of food literacy, ranging from a narrower understanding of food literacy as the ability to read food messages, to broader interpretations aimed at empowerment and self-efficacy concerning food and nutrition, and from simple cooking skills to life skills and education towards understanding food as something which is dependent on cultural, social and individual factors.

Keywords: Food literacy, nutrition literacy, cooking literacy, competencies, food education/food Bildung, *children and adolescents*

Introduction

Food is a basic premise for development and survival; it is part of our living conditions and a question of lifestyle. Through food, human beings can experience pleasure, joy and company, but at the same time, food can be a problem or can even be seen as a risk. To choose, make and eat food is a learning process, therefore food and food education have been part of human life throughout civilisation, both as informal learning and formal education carried out as instruction, experimentation and/or imitation, primarily taught within schools as Home Economics. The aim of food education has differed and been described in different terms. Now the term *food literacy* has moved into education as an aim, which is why a discussion of food literacy might be of interest to researchers, educators and practitioners within the field.

In the past ten years, the concept of literacy has moved into areas such as health and to health-related fields such as food and nutrition. Literacy, as such, has always been an aim of education, but understood as "literate meant to be familiar with literature or, more generally, well educated, learned" (UNESCO, 2006, p. 148). These phrases are followed by four understandings of literacy: 1) as an autonomous set of skills, 2) as applied, practised and situated, 3) as a learning process, 4) as text (UNESCO, 2006, p. 148). In the report *Toward*

Universal Learning, literacy is one of seven domains of a global learning framework and is set in close relation to communication (Force, 2013). In a number of works, Paulo Freire has discussed literacy and has understood it as both *reading the word and the world*, and seen literacy as critical, and as a precondition for self and social empowerment (Freire & Macedo, 1987), as literacy means 'a dialectical relationship between human beings and the world' (Giroux in Freire & Macedo, 1987 p. 7). To a certain extent, this understanding of literacy has been influential on the use of the concept in various subjects such as scientific literacy, information literacy or cultural literacy, as well as health (as mentioned above). Food and nutrition literacy is one of the latest concepts. Therefore, it is of great interest to examine the way in which literacy is understood when the concept is taken out of its inborn circumstances and used in other relations. In her work (included in the review), Bartsch (2008) claims that the present educational discussion is influenced by literacy approaches. The different literacy approaches can be valuable to broaden the field of food education, as they contribute to a critical and constructive perspective on food education and understanding of food and eating.

This article focuses on literacy regarding food in a broad sense, as food deals with nutrition, producing, cooking and eating; but also with growing, consuming and handling foods. The present preoccupation with food, nutrition, cooking or kitchen literacy is partly caused by a concern of the loss of knowledge of food and nutrition and the *obesogenic* society (Block et al., 2011 p. 5) and partly deskilling or the loss of cooking competencies (Caraher & Lang, 1998; Caraher, Dixon, Lang & Carr-Hill et al., 1999; Jaffe & Gertler, 2006; Thonney & Bisogni, 2006). An example of the concern for this loss of competencies is the debate book by Ann Vileisis entitled *Kitchen literacy*, with the subtitle: *How we lost knowledge of where food comes from and why we need to get it back* (Vileisis, 2008). Educational examples reasoned in this concern of lost knowledge of how food is grown, produced or cooked are seen in a lot of local school food, garden and/or cooking projects in western societies, where pupils grow vegetables and visit farms to learn about food and how food is produced and becomes part of their nutrition and meals (Thonney & Bisogni, 2006; Rawl, Kolasa, Lee, Whetstone 2008; Nowak, Kolouch, Schneyer, & Roberts, 2012; Wistoft, Otte, Stovgaard & Breiting, 2011; and Food Literacy Center, 2013). In the evaluation work conducted by Wistoft et al. (2011) it is said that "school gardens today are a compensation of the alienation from nature and foods, which features the life of many children—and grown-ups, but also an offer of presence and fellowship in a limited time" (p. 12). Another American project called *Food, Land and People* has been carried out as a teaching project of 55 lesson units based on a conceptual framework and reasoned in the "growing lack of agricultural knowledge" (Powell & Agnew, 2011), and also consumer deskilling seen as a lack of basic food knowledge is at concern (Jaffe & Gertler, 2006).

This article contains a critical review of peer works from the international arena on food literacy as a concept primarily related to children and adolescents in an educational setting. The search is focused on *food literacy*, the concepts used and competencies described. School food projects that do not include a discussion or presentation of *literacy* are not taken into consideration. The review offers theoretical approaches and discusses the components and content of *food literacy* (understood in terms of nutrition, food and cooking/kitchen

literacy), as well as putting forward new perspectives for education within food, nutrition and Home Economics.

Method

An initial search for certain key words (*food literacy*, and/or *nutrition literacy* and/or *kitchen-cooking literacy* and *children* and *adolescents*) was carried out in relevant databases containing articles, books and reports. The database used was ProQuest, which includes the databases *Sociological Abstracts*, *Psych Info* and *ERIC*, and the search only involved peer-reviewed work. The databases contained a wide variety of journals, as articles could be seen as food or nutrition works or related to culture or agriculture or be an educational work. The search was carried out in English, German, Danish, Swedish and Norwegian. The time period selected was 1995 and onwards, as most of the research is done after year 2000. The search period was December 2012 to February 2013. There were 221 results. All were reviewed but only 21 were selected for a closer review. Of these, six were not relevant, as they did not have a theoretical approach, which gave 15 articles and reports. Further, one very comprehensive review of nutrition and health literacy which was a review to inform nutrition and dietetic research and practice, was omitted as it was from a patient perspective (Carbone & Zoellner, 2012).

That gave 14 works in all, which were supplemented with two academic works by a Danish and German author, as they specifically included understandings and discussions of food literacy or rather, food *Bildung*. More works and reports concerning what and how to teach nutrition and food have been developed in recent years without using the term *literacy*, an example of this is *The European Food* (www.europeanfoodframwork.eu), but as it does not use the term *literacy* it was excluded.

Finally, three health literacy articles written by Nutbeam (2000), Kickbusch (2004, 2008), and St Leger (2001) are used in the following part as theoretical contribution and understanding of the term *literacy*, as more of the food literacy articles build on these understandings. If searching only for *food*, *nutrition*, and/or *kitchen/cooking literacy* without relating to the target group children and adolescents, a lot of works concerning *nutrition literacy* occurred mainly understood as plain ability to read and understand food labels or other text instructions concerning food and nutrition. Besides the one work based on patients' perspectives, only works relating to children and adolescents' food literacy (understood as *food*, *nutrition*, and or *kitchen/cooking literacy*) were chosen.

Key concepts and theoretical background

The article has a focus on two different concepts. The first is *food* as a general concept, including nutrition, meals, growing and cooking; and the second is *literacy*. The review concerns these two concepts in combination and relation to each other; but in order to understand them both ,it is necessary to present them both independently before combining them into the concept of *food literacy*.

Food, nutrition, cooking and meals

Reading the word as one part of literacy could be translated to reading food in a broad sense, that means to understand food as an food item to relate to. The word food covers many issues and concepts, as presented in Figure 1 A model of the levels of food. Foods contain nutrients to supply us with the essential nutrients and energy. Foods or foodstuffs may in some cases be eaten directly (fruit, for instance), or they can be prepared, combined and cooked as part of a meal (mashed potatoes, or a full meal such as goulash and mashed potatoes, for instance). The eaten food represents, over a period, a person's food habits or food culture.

"Food is a complex case", as Warde (1997) says in his work on the change of food habits. He adds, "Its consumption is universal, mundane and polyvalent. Everyone eats, most eat several times a day without much reflection; yet the activity is integrally connected with many other highly meaningful aspects of living." (Warde, 1997 p. 181).
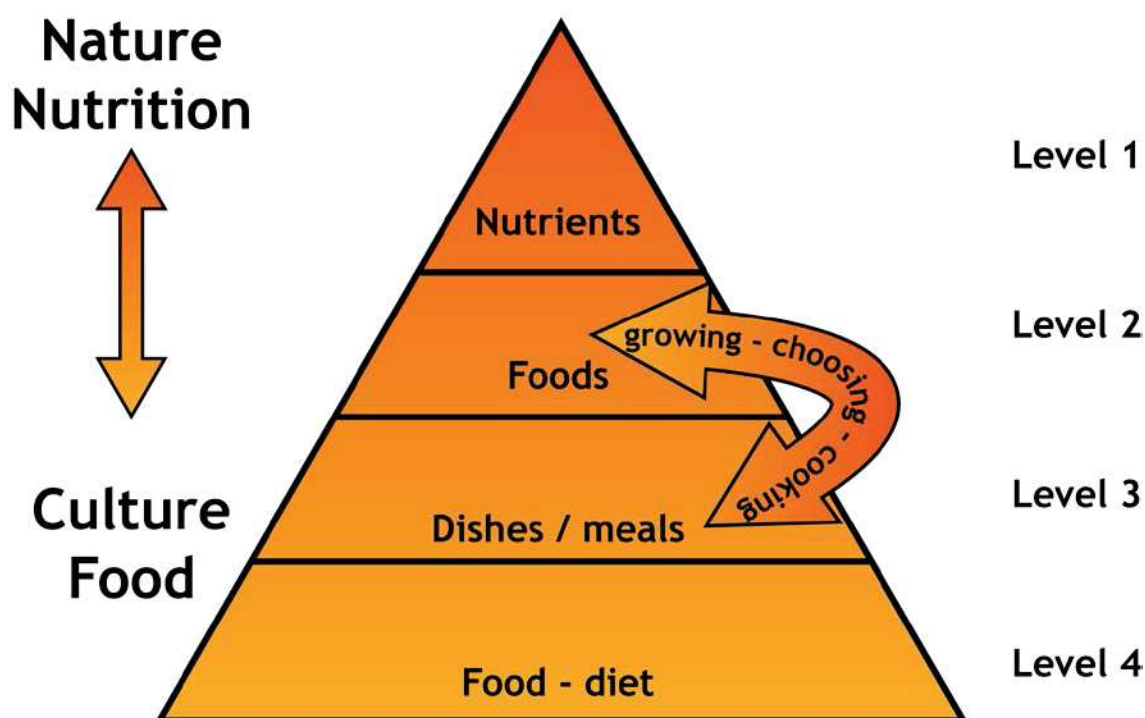
Figure 1   A model of food levels (Benn, 2010, 2013)

This figure illustrates the complexity of food. There are connections and overlaps. Level 1 represents natural science, necessary daily allowances, calories, vitamins, minerals, fibres and so forth. These items cannot be seen directly and they are also very complex and abstract for pupils without knowledge of nutrition and biochemistry to understand. The only components to see directly are fats , which as these appear as butter.

Level 2: Foods can be understood in a natural scientific way, a social and technological scientific understanding, and a cultural understanding. Foods are concrete and visible; they

are grouped in various ways (animal foods and vegetables, for instance), and can further be clustered in similar groups such as dairy foods, cereals, meats, and so forth. They can be grown, combined and cooked in many ways, the only limit being the imagination and competence of the chef concerned. However, cooking competences are decreasing in general according to a number of studies, a tendency which is seen as having serious implications for food education (Caraher et al., 1999; Jaffe & Gertler, 2005).

Level 3: Dishes and meals can also be understood in both a cultural and social scientific sense. To make dishes and meals demand that food items are changed from level 2 to 3 through preparing or cooking processes (in home or industry). Foods prepared to a dish or meal might imply a change so single food items cannot be identified, the visible dish or meal is at the plate but it is invisible, what is in it. However, the single meal and dish can be deciphered as Mary Douglas has described this; in what are most important ingredients and what less is. The meal can be understood as a language, a rhythm, a symbol, or a structure in life (Douglas, 1975; Douglas & Nicod, 1974) and/or it can be seen as a way of organising social relations within different contexts. Lastly, it can be seen basically as a material for living and developing.

Out of these three levels the fourth level appears, which is food in general or diet, which is a person's food habits or food culture seen over time and related to place and social environment. In other words, food is indeed a complex issue, and the complexity of food must have an impact on the concept and understanding of food literacy and education as well. This will be explained in greater detail below.

Literacy, competencies, *Bildung*

Literacy is both reading the food and the world, according to Freire (1987). Reading the world demands education. The formal aim of education might be described in different terms, for example, literacy, or *Bildung*, or as competencies, qualifications and skills. In this study *literacy* is the central concept to be examined, but it may be useful to connect the term to other educational concepts and aims as just mentioned, or to unfold and supplement the term *literacy* with other understandings. According to UNESCO (2005), being well educated is related to skills, learned and used as applied, practised and situated, and finally understanding texts. Skills in the case of food can be seen as growing, choosing, cooking, serving and tasting in different settings or situations. As shown in Figure 1, understanding texts about food is related to nutrition, foods, and also to food culture and consumption, so the texts run through the figure but differ in scientific base and also literacy, as will be discussed in the following. As mentioned above, *literacy* has been used in other fields or subjects such as *agricultural literacy* (Powell & Agnew, 2011; Frick, Kahler & Wade, 1991), *eco literacy* and *environmental literacy* (McBride, Brewer, Berkowitz & Borrie, 2013) and *health literacy*, all of these closely related to food and foodstuffs. The specific term *health literacy* has primarily been developed in the works of Nutbeam, Kickbusch and St Leger (Nutbeam, 2000; Kickbusch, 2001; St Leger, 2001). Several of these works have been directly used or inspired for understanding of food literacy, as can be seen in the review study. Nutbeam and St Leger "have proposed that the health promoting school contributes to four main school-related outcomes: i) lifelong learning skills; ii) competencies and behaviours; iii) specific cognate knowledge and skills; and iv) self-attributes" (St Leger, 2001 p. 197). These

skills are further explored by St Leger with regard to *nutrition*, and are described in the educational outcomes described above, but not in terms of *nutrition* or *food literacy*. These outcomes can be seen as related to all levels of Figure 1 nutrition, foods, cooking, meals and food, although not elaborated in details. St Leger argues further that "all of these four school related health/education outcomes are dependent on students achieving each of Nutbeam's three levels of health literacy" (St Leger, 2001 p. 198), which are health literacy as functional (level 1), interactive (level 2), and critical (level 3) (St Leger, 2001 p. 201; Nutbeam, 2000, p. 265). The literacy levels taken together in a school context might be described as *Bildung*, which means that education also seen as literacy should have an empowerment potential for the individual.

Food literacy

Based on the health literacy studies mentioned above, food literacy can be seen as skills, competencies, knowledge, behaviours, and self attributes regarding a functional, interactive and critical level, or as described by Benn (2014), presented in Table 1, as knowing, doing, sensing, wanting and caring, all together as being practical prudent at a personal level but also regarding food and meals together with others in everyday life.

Table 1   **Competencies regarding food *Bildung***

Competencies	Aims	Examples
To know	Understanding of coherence (knowing)	Prudence and ability to make decisions (e.g. To know coherence between intakes and health.)
To do	Everyday life competencies (capable and coping ability)	Practical and technical competencies (e.g. grow, lifeworld concerning food, to choose and cook to handle everyday life problems.)
To sense	Aesthetic impression and expression, food courage	Sensory competencies, food courage (e.g. perceptions of food through growing, cooking and tasting.)
To want	Responsibility and willingness (participation and action)	Citizenship and democracy (e.g. to participate in solving general food problems in society.)
To be	Carefulness (care for and care of)	Ethical considerations concerning oneself, others and environment (e.g. choices reflecting care.)

The review study will further explore the way in which *food literacy* is understood theoretically, empirically, practically and in concrete terms.

Food literacy—food *Bildung*—review results

The works selected in the review are gathered in Table 2. They fall into two main categories: *food and nutrition literacy* (14 examples), and *kitchen and cooking literacy* (2 examples), although there are parts of both categories in most of the works. Furthermore, these can be divided into four categories as shown in Table 2, but some of these are also going into both areas.

1. Theoretical research of the literacy concept (8 examples) Works no: 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 11, 14, 16.

2. Empirical surveys (with theoretical approaches to *food literacy* (FL)) (5 examples), Works no: 6, 9, 11, 13, 15.

3. Educational programmes and guidelines based on 1) and /or 2) and/or 3) (3 examples) Works no: Works no: 5, 8, 12.

4. Intervention study (1 example) Work no: 14.

The works will be grouped together in accordance with an overall view of food literacy: first the theoretical approaches, then the empirical and theoretical approaches, followed by the programmes, and lastly the intervention study.

Food literacy as a general educational aim as food *Bildung*/literacy approaches

1. Bartsch (2008)

7. Heindl (2003)

4. Carlsen (2011)

All authors use *Bildung* as aim of food, meal or nutrition education. The German concept of Bildung is also used in pedagogical and educational literature within English language, as the term *education* is not always precise enough. Bildung can be understood as *literacy*, depending on how broadly or narrowly the concept of literacy is used. In all three cases literacy or *Bildung* is used in a broad sense, meaning empowerment as self-decision, co-decision and solidarity (Klafki, 2005).

Bartsch (2008, p. 100) claims that the actual *Bildung* is decided through the literacy approaches. This brings an actual, innovative concept for the food and consumption area in education. On behalf of this, a reform of the curriculum is made in some of the German States for nutrition and consumer education or Home Economics called REVIS. Essential is that food and nutrition is seen both through natural and social science together with cultural studies. Next the actor and her life world is important as human beings are acting subjects in their life world, therefore learning is seen as a subjective construction process , and knowledge as situated. Furthermore Antonovsky's salutogenic approach is applied to the educational themes meaning, that issues must be understandable, exemplary and applicable for their lives; and that action possibilities give choices manageable and meaningful in everyday life. Illustrated in a cube module (Bartsch, 2008, p. 100). They do not define food literacy or nutrition and consumer literacy as such, but give an overall view on aim of food *Bildung*, content and learning.

Heindl, who is also part of the REVIS group, has produced a book studying nutrition *Bildung*, a school-based nutrition education guide from 1999 based on several workshops (Heindl, 2003, pp. 225-239). In this book she outlines seven themes of nutrition *Bildung*, which are also part of the national curriculum:

1. eating and body
2. eating habits, cultural and social influences
3. nutrition and personal health
4. foods, food quality and global consumption
5. foods, labels, consumer and consumption
6. foods, hygiene, preservation, and law
7. culture and techniques of cooking, aesthetic-culinary handling of foods.

Table 2   Review results

No	Author(s), (Year)	Title	Method	General perspectives
1	Bartsch, S, (2008) (in German language)	Subjektorientierung in der Ernährungs— und Gesundheitsbildung	Theoretical analysis	Uses educational, didactical competence oriented German concept and Antonovsky's concepts sense of coherence as meaningfulness, manageability, comprehensibility
2	Block, LG, et al. (2011)	From Nutrients to Nurturance: A Conceptual Introduction to Food Well-being	Theoretical analysis	Suggest a paradigm shift from foods seen as health to food wellbeing (FWB). Food literacy is seen as 1 of 4 parts of FWB both at societal and individual level. Builds on Nutbeam, Suggest a 5-pin wheel model
3	Bublitz, MG et al. (2011)	The Quest for Eating Right: Advancing Food Well-being	Theoretical analysis	Food literacy is seen as one part of 5 core areas of food wellbeing. Food literacy is knowledge of nutrition and foods, and cooking.
4	Carlsen, HB, (2011) (in Danish language)	Food and aesthetics	Theoretical analysis	Food *Bildung* is based on Klafki's understanding as self-determination, participatory democracy (citizenship) & solidarity built on 6 different dimensions of *Bildung* and on aesthetic philosophy. Suggests more models for learning and aesthetic experiences.
5	Evers, Tony (2009)	Building skills for health literacy-nutrition	Program built on Wisconsin Model Academic Standards for Nutrition & on National Health Education standards.	Content of nutrition literacy described as Nutrition, food safety, critical thinking skills, nutrition for health promotion, diversity, identification & classification of food. Primarily a handbook for nutrition professionals
6	Fordyce-Voorham, S, (2011)	Identification of Essential Food Skills for Skill-based Healthful Eating Programs in Secondary Schools.	Empirical study. Interviews of experts within food, nutrition, and education	Social constructivist paradigm used and grounded theory to identify essential food skills.
7	Heindl, I, (2003) (in German language)	Studienbuch Ernährungsbildung. Ein europäisches Konzept zur schulischen Gesundheitsförderung	Theoretical analysis based of European works of health education and health literacy theory.	Food Bildung involves the consideration of 7 theses necessary for education, meaning to deal both with foods, meals, nutrition and eating in a critical and aesthetic perspective. It is a German textbook for teacher education, Home Economics and health.
8	Nowak et al. (2012)	Building Food Literacy and positive Relationships with Healthy Food in children through School Gardens	Curriculum program	Food literacy builds on hands-on physical activities (growing), cooking, science and social studies to increase *food literacy*.

Table 2   Review results (cont.)

No	Author(s), (Year)	Title	Method	General perspectives
9	Kimura, AH, (2010)	Food education as food literacy: privatised and gendered food knowledge in contemporary Japan	Empirical study of private food courses, and participants' motives to join.	Food education is understood here as food literacy, and as a conservative ideal to cook at home, and to keep feminine traditional ideals concerning food.
10	Pendergast, D, Garvis, S, Kanasa H (2011)	Insight from the Public on Home economics and Formal Food Literacy.	Empirical study, content analysis of posts regarding cooking education in Australia, refers to the health literacy concept of St Leger	Concept map from findings, 3 themes were seen: Informal food literacy, formal food literacy learning I schools, formal food literacy in Home Economics. Nutbeam's health literacy components transferred to food literacy.
11	Smith, MG (2009)	Food or nutrition literacy? What concept should guide Home Economics education	Theoretical and empirical analysis of some curricula hold against health literacy	Food and nutrition literacy is related to Nutbeam's health literacy components.
12	Schnöegel, S, Zehetgruber, R, Danninger, S, Setzwin, M, Wenk, R, Freudenberg, M, Müller, C, Groeneveld, M, (2009)	Savoury dishes for adult education and counselling Food Literacy Report with guidelines and toolbox	Food literacy program and toolbox	'Food literacy is the ability to organise one's everyday nutrition in a self-determined, responsible and enjoyable way.'(p.9) A guide targeted towards adult education, & socially disadvantaged groups
13	Snyder, S, (2009)	Ethnographies of Taste: Cooking, Cuisine, and Cultural Literacy	Theoretical and empirical study, analysis of four works	Food literacy draws on the following components: Meals, and meal preparation, food skills, nutrition knowledge, food involvement, and cooking
14	Thomas, H & Irwin, JD (2011)	Cook it up! A community-based cooking program for at-risk youth: overview of a food literacy intervention	Cooking literacy program for adolescents – a community intervention	Food literacy seen as ability to healthy food choices, skills and knowledge to buy, grow and cook food with implications for improving health
15	Vidgen, H & Gallegos, D, (2011)	What is food literacy and does it influence what we eat: A Study of Australian food experts	Empirical survey based on phone interviews and online surveys of Australian food experts understanding of food literacy.	Eight potential components of food literacy were identified: Access, planning & management, selection, knowledge of food origin, preparation, eating, nutrition, and language. A conceptual model was developed.
16	Vidgen, H & Gallegos, D, (2010)	Food literacy: Time for a new term or just another buzzword	Theoretical literature review.	Food literacy draws on the following components: Meals, and meal preparation, food skills, nutrition knowledge, food involvement, and cooking

The themes have to be of current interest, the content has to regard both natural sciences, social and cultural sciences, regarding competences knowledge, and practical doing, attitudes, values and everyday life decisions must be part of education. Furthermore education must have a cross curricular approach, be activating and be participant oriented. Finally it is spiral curriculum regarding age differences and continuation through school from age 4 to 18 (Heindl, 2003, pp. 88-89).

Carlsen's work, based on her PhD dissertation, has a theoretical approach built on the philosophy of aesthetics (Hohr, 1996), theories of learning taken from Illeris (Illeris, year), and educational philosophy taken from Klafki (2005). Based on Klafki she has developed a model for Food *Bildung*/ food literacy. (The concept of *Bildung* is discussed in the special issues on *Bildung* in the Journal of Philosophy of Education, *36*(3), 2002, and Educational Philosophy and Theory, *35*(2), 2003, as well as articles (Thompson, 2005, 2006). In the centre, the aim of food Bildung/food literacy is placed, surrounded by the general and overall aim of education (as in all education based on Klafki and critical theory), which is self-decision, co-decision and democracy, and solidarity. The six basic dimensions of education in order to fulfil food *Bildung* are to educate people towards this critical empowerment understanding.

1. a pleasure and sense-oriented treatment of own body

2. productivity in a craft and technical way for home

3. cognitive possibilities

4. aesthetic observation ability, design ability and judgment

5. the ability to make ethical and political decisions and to conduct ethical and political actions

6. possibilities of relations to fellow human-beings: the sociality (Carlsen, 2011 pp. 90-92)

With regard to learning, Carlsen has used and developed Illeris's *learning triangle* to knowledge, aesthetic experience, and moral or ethical considerations and decisions (Carlsen, 2011, pp. 93-96).

Food literacy as part of food wellbeing

2. Block et al.(2011)

3. Bublitz et al.(2011)

Block et al. (2011) have developed a new concept called *food wellbeing*, as they mean that *food as health* has to be changed to *food wellbeing*. *Food as health* is left as it contains views in which the focus are functional and medicinal, paternalistic and normative, restraint and restriction, and body mass index, whereas *food as wellbeing* is holistic and integrative, consumer oriented, has a positive approach and is directed to attitudes and behaviour. They have worked out a model: *The Food Well-Being Pinwheel* with *food literacy* as one of the five axes in this wheel. The others are: Food Availability, Food Policy, Food Marketing, and Food Socialization (Block et al., 2011, p. 6). All of these axes hold both a societal and individual part. For *food literacy* the societal part is education, guidelines and campaigns,

whereas the individual level is described as tool, heuristics, procedures and techniques. Block et al.(2011, p. 7) claim that "food literacy has three main components:

1. conceptual or declarative knowledge

2. procedural knowledge

3. ability or opportunity and motivation to apply or use that knowledge"

To acquire food literacy and further achieve food wellbeing

> *evolves over the course of a person's life. From a societal perspective, promoting food literacy may involve educating people about how to incorporate food into their daily routines in ways that support their food goals and their local, national, and international communities to preserve societal health* (*Block et al.,* p. 8, http://foodliteracyproject.org/)

The work of Bubliz et al. (2011) is built upon concepts developed by Block et al., which they try to match to an individual level, and to how food wellbeing could be measured. They conclude that social factors, economic issues and emotional knowledge are necessary areas besides food literacy, and that changes depend on motivation opportunity and ability (Bubliz et al., 2011, p. 8).

Food literacy as cultural literacy

13. Snyder (2009)

Snyder examines the ethnographies of taste: cooking, cuisine, and cultural literacy through an examination of four different texts written by Nazarea (2005), Vileisis (2008), Kaplan (2006) and Thorp (2006). These texts represent different perspectives on food from the kitchen to industrial production, from garden to fields, from local knowledge to lost knowledge in a historical and present understanding. From these texts, Snyder concludes that cultural literacy or kitchen literacy draws on the following components: meals, and meal preparation, food skills, nutrition knowledge, food involvement, and cooking. His conclusion is 'food literacy is so important to understanding not only our food, but our culture. Understanding culture, then, demands knowing about ourselves and all our culture's intricate, messy, cultural, political, yet tasty, elements.' (Page ref)

Food literacy built on the health literacy approach

11. Smith (2009)

16. Vidgen & Gallegos (2011)

Smith takes a starting point in the health problems of today and raises a discussion of whether Home Economics education should focus on food or nutrition literacy. The literacy concepts build on Nutbeam's and St Leger's health literacy concepts as functional, interactive and critical health literacy (pp. 52-53). Smith argues that speaking of "food literacy as an educational goal means adding that component to our ideal of an educated person" (p. 57), and follows up by adding: "A food literate student would understand that there are what Vaines (1999) calls *Many Ways of Knowing*. That is 'life world (the world of lived experience); scientific (analytic/empirical; interpretive; critical science) and narrative' (p. 57). For the

learner, Smith uses Pollan's suggestion of *co-creators*. Food literacy, if taken seriously, is as if "the ordinary task of everyday life such as food provision become meaningful and sacred" (Smith, 2009, p. 59).

In their paper, Vidgen and Gallegos (which year) discuss the term *food literacy* based on three different sources. Their definitions are cited below:

Kolasa et al. (2001, a community project not included here), the definition is: 'The capacity of an individual to obtain, interpret and understand basic food and nutrition information and services as well as the competence to use that information and services in ways that are health enhancing.' (p. 3)

Taken from Schnögel et al. (2006), a Socrates-Grundtvig project included in this review, see below and from Stanton (2009): 'Knowing where our food comes from; knowing what happens to it, how to cook it, and how to prepare it' (p. 3). They find that 'food literacy should extend beyond cooking', as this is to oversimplify the concept. Therefore they use a term from Caraher & Lang (1999), saying that 'food literacy needs to be framed as an essential life skill, irrespective of social class, which empowers an individual to take control over what they eat and make use of nutrition recommendations for better Health' (p. 7).

Food literacy experienced by the public and the professionals within food area

6. Fordyce-Voorham (2011)
8. Pendergast, Garvis & Kanasa (2011)
13. Vidgen & Gallegos (2011)
9. Kimura (2011)

Fordyce-Voorham conducted an interview study of 51 professionals within the food area (teachers, dieticians, nutritionists and chefs), who were asked to identify essential food skills for students. Food literacy came out as one subtheme seen by nearly all as 'a critical component to include in a skill-based healthful eating program. Food literacy was seen mainly as an individual's ability to read, understand, and act upon labels on fresh, canned, frozen, processed and takeout food.' (p. 119). The necessary food skills were both consumer skills and meal skills, which incorporate all stages of food preparation and cooking. The acquisition of skills 'refers to practical classes in schools involving food preparation and cooking' (p. 116).

Pendergast, Garvis & Kanasa (2011) conducted a study based on 97 posts containing reactions from the public regarding a newspaper article on cooking in schools. Three main themes emerged: informal food literacy learning, formal food literacy in general, and formal literacy in Home Economics classes. A significant proportion of the respondents (36%) thought that food literacy should involve informal learning and should be the responsibility of the parents, whereas 18% thought that food literacy should be learned formally in school as part of Home Economics, and 23% asked for more compulsory teaching. Theoretical food literacy was seen as having the same elements as described in health literacy approaches, and learning was seen in a Bandura approach as obtaining self-efficacy.

Vidgen and Gallegos (2011) have conducted a study of definitions of food literacy and whether it influences what we eat, based upon 24 semi-structured telephone interviews of Australian food experts within education, food industry and production, gastronomy, nutrition and welfare. This was followed by two online surveys by the same food experts. Vidgen and Gallegos (2011, p. 2) claim that "'food literacy' is an emerging term used to collectively describe a range of knowledge and skills needed to use food". Based on the study, they made a conceptual model of the relation between food literacy and nutrition. Food literacy has the following components: Access, planning and management, selection, knowing where food comes from, preparation, nutrition, eating, and language (Vidgen & Gallegos, 2011, p. iv and p. 26). They make a direct link from food literacy to nutrition, which again has the following components: 1) Universal wellness, 2) primary prevention, Australian guide to healthy eating, and 3) secondary prevention and management, individualised needs. The experts were presented with three different definitions of food literacy, with 47% agreeing with the following definition: 'The relative ability to basically understand the nature of food and how it is important to you, and how able you are to gain information about food, process it, analyse it and act upon it' (Vidgen & Gallegos, 2011, p. 18).

Kimura (2011) has researched private food education courses, their certifications and definitions of food education and the participants' motives for attending and their knowledge. The reasons for food education were 1) food education should be seen as necessary for improving public health outcomes, 2) food education is necessary to avoid confusion, and 3) food education as a way to uncover the ills of modern food system and taste education (Kimura, 2011, pp. 466-467). She concludes that the private courses make food a private, individual and genderised (female) problem. It is an

> [I]dealization of 'a family meal' where families sit together to eat dinner, and 'food from scratch' made at home could exacerbate the conservative cultural mood that nostalgically constructs an ideal past which revolves around the 'traditional' (and implicitly heterosexual and upper-middle class) family completed by its male breadwinner/female homemaker icon. (p. 466).

This study showed that food literacy was a narrow concept, which is 'embedded in the power configuration of society' (p. 466), whereas Kimura (2011) thinks that food education should contain a broader societal perspective and wants 'the food literacy framework contrasted with a more structural understanding of food-related behaviours and practices as functions of cultural and social influence, one's class position, gender stereotypes, social infrastructure, and the macrostructure of food and agricultural systems' (p. 480).

Food literacy as part practical food, health, nutrition's programmes and guidelines

5. Evers (2009)
8. Nowak et al.(2012)
12. Schnögel et al.(2009)

Evers (2009) has produced a programme or guide for educators to work with health literacy and nutrition as part of this health education courses. This guide emphasises skills such as decision making, interpersonal communication, goal setting, self-management and advocacy. Nutrition literacy is seen as a general nutrition knowledge and food safety together with knowledge of foods as such. These parts should be taught as critical thinking skills and

practical reasoning learning nutrition as health promotion and healthy behaviours. The work is built on a definition of health literacy as: 'The capacity of an individual to obtain, interpret and understand basic health information and services, along with the competence to use such information and services in ways that enhance health. Health-literate citizens are critical thinkers, problem solvers, and self-directed learners' (Evers, 2009, p. ix).

Nowak et al.(2012, p. 392) describes how Slow Food Denver (SFD), a grass-roots organisation, believes that to reverse the trends in childhood obesity and other food-related diseases children must increase their food literacy to understand food and the benefits of a healthy diet.' They refer to the definition of food literacy from Widgen & Gallegos (2011, no. 15 here) and reason the project with school gardens in school children's lack of necessary knowledge and skills of where food comes from, and why good food is an important part in health. The programme encompasses the growing of fruits and vegetables, taste education and cooking in the school cafeteria. The gardening includes all aspects of producing foods and is built on the active participation of the students. The taste education is designed to broaden food preferences and carry out experiments with cooking and flavouring so 'they form personal opinions about food and learn that, even at their age, they can create dishes they enjoy eating' (Nowak et al., 2012, p. 393). In the cafeteria part of the programme students 'are becoming part of the food supply chain for the school lunch program. They gain an appreciation of the hard work and effort by farmers and the safety concerns of all people that handle the food from the farm to their school' (Nowak et al., 2012, p. 393).

The project developed by Schnögel et al. (2009) aimed at 'supporting people all over Europe with organizing their everyday nutrition in a self-determined, responsible and enjoyable way' (p. 7). This aim was also used as a definition of food literacy (p. 10). Furthermore, the project was seen as 'a contribution towards the sustainable, democratic development of European citizenship' (p. 7). The project has resulted in guidelines and a tool box, where educational targets and outcomes regarding competencies are explicitly formulated. Food literacy is seen as empowerment regarding nutritional behaviour, the ability to make decisions and to be provided with essential and necessary basic competences, for example, preparing meals (p. 12). The work does not use references concerning theories of literacy, learning and competencies, but has descriptions of everyday nutrition in modern life and suggestions for the content of courses or seminars.

Food literacy as health intervention

12. Thomas & Irwin (2011)

The intervention involved in this case was an 18-month cooking programme called *Cook it up* for at-risk youth in a Canadian province. Food literacy is defined as 'the ability to make healthy food choices by having the skills and knowledge necessary to buy, grow, and cook food with implications for improving health' (Thomas & Irwin, 2011, p. 2). To meet this, the objective was 'to provide education and to increase skills and awareness of agriculture, healthy eating, food preparation, and food purchasing skills' (p. 2). The content was directed towards 'a hands-on food literacy education that highlighted general nutrition, food safety, selection, preparation, and cooking skills' (p. 2). The anticipation of obstacles and barriers or unexpected opportunities, and finally evaluation, generated understandings about how the program and content could be improved' (Thomas & Irwin, 2011, p. 5). The adolescents' baseline cooking skills were measured through a questionnaire and post-test assessments of all participants.

Table 3   Comparison scheme of food and food literacy elements in the works

No, author	Approaches	Concepts and elements of food and food issues, levels 1-4, figure 1	Concepts and elements of food literacy (FL) in the works	Concepts and elements of competencies from Table 1
1.Bartsch (2008)	FL* as a general educational food *Bildung*/literacy approaches	Both nutrition, foods, cooking, meals and food/diet, levels 1-4	FL is nutrition, health & Consumer *Bildung* related to the life world taking a student centred salutogenic approach.	All 5 elements seen in relation to the individual the social group and society
7. Heindl (2003)		Both nutrition, foods, cooking, meals and food/diet, levels 1-4	FL is health competences, functions for a prudent & responsible participation in society. (p.88) Nutrition *Bildung* is based on 7 themes, see description.	All 5 elements 'continued building of knowledge and practical skills and critical attitudes within the theme nutrition, health to be able to take everyday life decisions' (p.89)
4. Carlsen (2011)		Both nutrition, foods, cooking, meals and food/diet, levels 1-4	FL is self-decision, co-decision & solidarity, and to be able and dare to choose according to central areas: knowledge of food 6 health, considerations concerning moral, animal welfare, resources & production, meaning of food as social factor and an area for enjoyment through taste (p.89)	All 5 elements, but described according to Klafki's 6 dimensions 1. a pleasure and sense oriented treatment of own body, 2. productivity in a craft & technique 3. cognitive possibilities 4. aesthetic observation ability, design ability and judgment 5. ethical & political decisions & actions 6. sociality (Carlsen, 2011 pp. 90-92)
2.Block et al. (2011)	FL as part of Food Wellbeing	Nutrition, foods, cooking, meals (partly), levels 1-4 (some parts in other part of main concept Food Wellbeing)	FL is built on Health Literacy. Defined as 'more than knowledge motivation, understanding nutrition information and acting on that knowledge.' (p.7)	3 elements: To know, to do, to be willing. FL has 3 main concepts: 1)conceptual, 2) procedural, 3) ability, opportunity & motivation to use knowledge (p.7)
3. Bublitz et al. (2011)		Nutrition, foods/cooking & meals, levels 1-3	FL is only seen as one part of 5 of the concept: food wellbeing	Only elements 1 and 2 From declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge
13. Snyder (2009)	FL as cultural literacy	Foods/cooking & meals, food culture, levels 2-4	FL is cultural literacy	To know, to do, to explore, partly to be, Knowledge of foods, cooking competencies, Sense: Taste, touch feel, scent
11. Smith (2009)	FL built on the health literacy approach	Both nutrition, foods, cooking, meals and food/diet, levels 1-4	FL is built on other frameworks and theoretical approaches for example, Schnögel et al.; see definition in Table 1, Nutbeam, and others. FL is both food & nutritional wellbeing	Knowing (Vaines, 1995) is from 1) life world, 2) scientific, 3) narrative All 5 elements

* Food Literacy = FL

Table 3   Comparison scheme of food and food literacy elements in the works (cont.)

No, author	Approaches	Concepts and elements of food and food issues, levels 1-4, figure 1	Concepts and elements of food literacy (FL) in the works	Concepts and elements of competencies from Table 1
16. Vidgen & Gallegos (2011)		Both nutrition, foods, cooking, meals and food/diet Level 1-4,	Refers to Smith's definitions (9). Claim a need for further clarification of FL	Life skills mentioned Not possible to extract elements from the article – see 13
6. Fordyce-Voorham (2011)	FL as experienced by the public, course participants, and professionals within the food area	Nutrition, foods, cooking partly meals, levels 1-3	FL as information & a critical component to include in a skill-based healthful eating program	Ability to read, understand and act on foods Levels 1 and 2, to know and do mainly
10. Pendergast, Garvis & Kanasa (2011)		Not clearly from this survey, level 2-3 foods, cooking, meals	Theoretical approach is based on health literacy, the empiric findings talks mainly of cooking	Theoretical all elements are mentioned, empiric findings mostly to know and do.
15. Vidgen & Gallegos (2011)		Nutrition, foods, cooking, meals, diet, levels 1-4 (cooking is overemphasised)	Food literacy should be multi strategic approach of multiple points of food & nutrition system, broadly looking at food (Caraher et al. 1999)	All 5 elements. Life skill (Lang & Caraher,1999), self-confidence, self-efficacy, empowerment and social inclusion
9. Kimura (year)		Depends of the course; nutrition, foods, cooking, teaching, levels 1-4	FL is seen in the survey as individualised, gendered and privatised, but drawing on health literacy approaches it should be broadened towards this concept.	Elements primarily from 1-3 is seen in the study as food education is seen as necessary for 1) improving public health outcomes, 2) to avoid confusion, 3) to uncover ills of modern food systems
5. Evers (2009)	FL as part of practical food, health, nutrition programs and guidelines	Nutrition, diet mainly level 1 and 4	Health/nutrition literacy is the capacity of an individual to obtain, interpret, and understand basic health information and services along eighth the competence to use such information and services in ways that enhance health (p.ix)	1-2 and 4-5, 4 elements Nutrition, food safety, identification of foods, health promotion,, critical thinking skills, practical reasoning, diversity
8. Nowak et al. (year)		All levels of food, with a strong emphasis on level 2 and 3	FL is taken from Vidgen, 16: 'The relative ability to basically understand the nature of food and how it is important to you, and how able your are to gain information about food, process it, analyse it and act upon it.'	All 5 elements. 'The program integrates physical activity, cooking instruction, science, and social studies to increase students' food literacy.. at three levels personal, school, and community.'(p.392)
10. Schnögel et al. (2009)		Foods, cooking and meals in focus – levels 2-3 but also issues within 1 and 4	FL is the ability to organise one's everyday nutrition in a self-determined, responsible and enjoyable way (10)	All 5 elements Empowerment, ability to make decisions, providing essential and necessary basic competences (p.12),
12. Thomas & Irwin (2011)	Food literacy as health intervention	Primarily foods, cooking and meals – level 2 and 3 but part of level 1	FL is the ability to make healthy food choices aiming at empowerment, engagement, culture, food security, fun	To know and do: Skills & knowledge to buy, grow, cook (but to explore, be willing and becoming implicit in the project). All 5 elements

* Food Literacy = FL

Discussion

There are clear similarities between the works presented here; but there are also differences both in methods to reveal food literacy and also in the theoretical understandings and the empirical findings. Table 3 presents this in short form. In the following the works are grouped and compared with the theoretical approaches and models presented earlier, the division being:

- Food literacy as a general educational food *Bildung*/literacy approaches

- Food literacy as part of food wellbeing

- Food literacy as cultural literacy

- Food literacy built on the health literacy approach

- Food literacy as experienced by the public, course participants, and professionals within the food area

- Food literacy as part of practical food, health and nutrition programmes and guidelines

- Food literacy as health intervention

Furthermore, the following concepts and elements will be included: 1) food and food issues, 2) food literacy, 3) competencies.

From the works different food literacy understandings occur together with formulation of competencies of varied kinds. Figure 1 is therefore elaborated as can be seen in Figure 2.

Food literacy can be seen in a narrow or broad sense (see Table 4); this depends on the understanding both of the term *literacy* and the food content. Literacy can be understood solely as reading, in this case reading as reading nutritional recommendations, food labels or recipes. If it shall be a broad understanding it must be both reading *the word* (in a broad sense) and *the world* as expressed by Freire (1987). From the concepts of the works broad/narrow binaries are outlined.

Both the narrow and broad understandings (see Table 4) are essential to bring into the debate of food literacy. The narrow understandings are however not the most common regarding the works presented, but is seen and may also be more common when it comes to practice. Attar (1990) wrote, when evaluating Home Economics in England, that 'now is the time to take it away for good.' The reason was that education within food and meals in Home Economics presented to pupils was representing the middle class teacher and her views on proper food and meals. Also the new more aesthetic view on food literacy can be a narrow education within the proper meal seen from a teacher perspective not considering pupils' everyday life and conditions for food at home and in surroundings. A broad understanding of *Bildung* in a critical sense should involve critical considerations concerning what Klafki (2002) calls the key problems of the world today and tomorrow, such as environmental problems, unequality and insecurity, these are also connected to food and food literacy. Literacy is seen through food lenses in this work, these food lenses do affect what can go into the literacy concept.

Following UNESCO's (2006, p. 148) definition of literacy, it means defining the skills needed in different contexts, how to apply these and how we develop pupils' learning through chosen texts, artefacts and foods and educational methods. Texts in the case of food should be understood both as texts of different kinds, but also pictures, artefacts, and foods should be seen and understood as texts to be read, used and understood and so on.
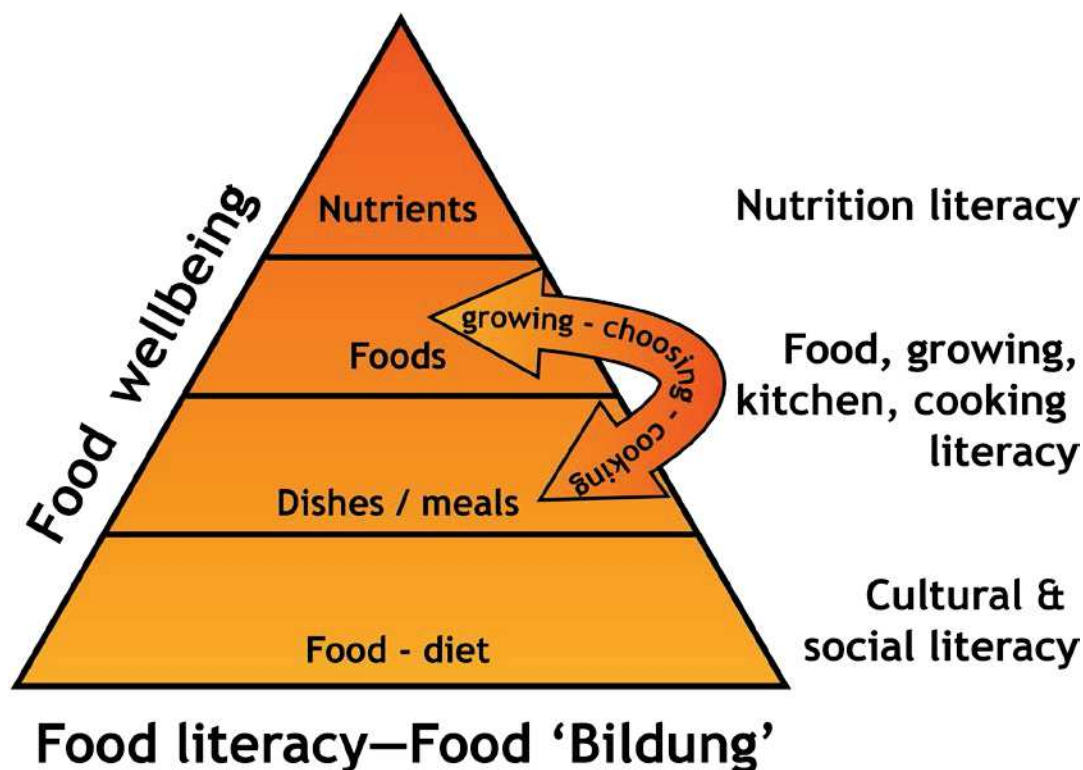

Figure 2   Levels of food and literacy

Table 4   Broad and narrow understandings of food literacy

Aspects	Broad understandings	Narrow understandings
Aims	Empowerment, self-decision, co-decision and critical understanding concerning food, meals and wellbeing	Food literacy as plain literacy; understanding nutrition information, recipes and labels Healthy choices, proper nutrition and/or cooking competencies. Gendered – female education
Content	Food from production to eating, Aspects of nutrition, foods, meals, diets in a critical view concerning both the individual, the group and society Exemplary, student oriented themes	Food seen as single issues: Cooking, growing, nutrition, diet, … Systematic courses external/teacher decided. Good advices in a normative format.
Actions/skills	Knowing, doing, experiencing, exploring, sensing Cultural skills in a broad sense	Reading skills/Academic skills Cooking skills in a narrow sense
Setting	From micro to macro – both individual and social oriented	Mainly micro – individual oriented
Learning	As an individual, active, complex process but facilitated by the teacher and the environment, foods, texts and artefacts – learning through	As teaching content common for all pupils—'poured' into the pupil through instruction and imitation.

Aspects	Broad understandings	Narrow understandings
	different means	

Conclusion and perspectives

Food literacy is on the food agenda at present worldwide, partly reasoned in the diminishing food and/or cooking skills, which have given rise to worry and concern as it is seen as part of the health problems. This review has shown a variety of understandings of food literacy but also similarities and common agreements on the necessary elements in this food literacy. The narrow understanding is farthermost related to understanding of nutrition or cooking and a fundamental critique is raised in Kimura's work (2011), as she finds food literacy to be a narrow, gendered, oppressive understanding, and also in other works it is seen as an individual, victim-blaming approach. Opposite to this, other authors see food literacy as an opportunity for self-efficacy, empowerment and acquiring a sense of coherence and competencies regarding sensory, practical, theoretical and ethical fields. Food education must be include all levels of food in order to acquire a full food literacy or food *Bildung*, but not necessarily within the same time, class or age. The teaching content must be adjusted to the age group, and be based on previous education within the area. A very evident starting point when it comes to food is to use foods as materials for learning as they are before the children—to explore and experience with food (Table 2; Carlsen, 2011). The next step might be to *do, make, cook* as the practical part is needed and enjoyable, and using hands and tools is a cultural skill and part of being a human being in the late modern world, and it has an impact of a person's life. The practical part is however, as suggested by Vidgen & Gallegos (2009), not the only competence needed. The sensory, practical experience must be connected to knowledge and knowing of many kinds (Bartsch, 2008; Heindl, 2003; Carlsen, 2011).

Food literacy comprises issues such as:

- Food courage, common ship, commensality, contexts

- Food curriculum, competencies, components

- Food wellbeing, health, life quality, life style, life world

- All food levels

- Food production, consumption, sustainability

- Literacy as education in an exemplary, problem, action, life world and pupil oriented understanding

In general, food is often seen in a very narrow understanding as nutrition and as a component in a narrow health understanding. But the works can, as presented and discussed, broaden the food and literacy understanding to a more comprehensive understanding of food literacy as *food bildung*. It is seen that both theoretical and practical elements of food literacy are necessary components food literacy. New concepts in this literacy understanding, such as food courage, food scapes and food wellbeing, might be worth considering and including in research on food education. It is evident that food is a necessary part of development and wellbeing of children and adolescents, but food may also be the reason for health problems

and risks. Food and meals are both part of everyday life whatever this life is home, outside home, in schools and/or institutions. The works in the food literacy review might contribute to new understandings and opportunities as well as a critical view of what is going on in food education in the classroom or outside. It has been a standing discussion if food and food *Bildung* is a case for school or home. In my opinion it has to be a case for school, society, and home—it is too important to leave food to the private sphere or society alone, it must be education in a dialectic relationship between human beings, the word—read *food*—and the world. It is necessary to take food education and food literacy seriously.

Biography

Jette Benn is engaged in research and teaching within home economics, health and consumer education and material culture studies. Her works include action research in schools and evaluation of teacher education national and international and curriculum development.

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Educating the consumer-citizen in a world of finite resources

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Abstract

In order to improve conditions for individuals and families in the home and in global society, an examination of the intersection and overlap among Education for Sustainable Development (ESD), consumer-citizenship, and Home Economics education is undertaken. Underlying meanings of ESD and consumer-citizenship are teased out. While the meaning of ESD is consistent, consumer and citizen have subjective meaning depending on the user and the temporal period of use. Consumer-citizen is most often used to reflect the making of ethical choices, with a goal of least global harm. The goal of Home Economics education is found to be similar to the goals of ESD and consumer-citizenship. It is found that Home Economics education is morally obligated to incorporate ESD and justice-oriented consumer citizenship education. It is also questioned as to whether or not it is actually possible for families and individuals to live sustainably in current day society.

Keywords: consumer, citizen, education, education for sustainable development (ESD), Home Economics

Introduction

Though some might say that we should live for the present, it is my belief that the future is important. Personal decisions are repercussive. They include consumer choice, modelling behaviour, and community action, and they impact the sustainability of my life, my community and the common future of the greater world.

Many students are ignorant of the sources of food and textiles that they use and consume. Home Economics/Human Ecology is a subject that should facilitate an understanding and awareness of ecological interconnectedness, including explicit connections between individuals, their families, and their base needs. The theme of disconnect within society demonstrates a need for greater levels of facilitated knowledge in this area. Because all life is ecologically interconnected, a thriving variety of life is needed in order that future life be sustainable, and even exist in the long term. Preservation of biological and ecological variety is dependent on human re-connection. I encourage educators in facilitating student understanding about their personal connection to one another and to other species and environments, so that the interconnected relationships on Earth can flourish.

This research attempts to conceptually examine some key concepts of *education for sustainable development* and *consumer-citizenship education*. Underlying ideologies of these

concepts and their parity with Home Economics education are examined, in order to guide the practice of professional Home Economists and other educators. Research begins by defining and teasing out backgrounds and underlying meanings of *sustainable development* and *consumer-citizenship*. It then examines the relationship between these philosophies, in an attempt to understand if Home Economics could become a centre for educators hoping to facilitate student success and understanding about the meaning and importance of sustainable living and a sustainable future. A sustainable common future is of paramount importance, and Home Economics education might be used to provide an understanding of a critical citizenship, that includes examination of everyday life as meaningful, since everyday life impacts 'lives worth living in an ecologically desirable society. We must do this [examine everyday life as meaningful] by becoming active participants in transformative processes' (Vaines, 2004, p. 135).

Conceptualizing terminology

Sustainable development

The first formal use of the term *sustainable development* occurs at the first United Nations (UN) Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), held in Rio de Janeiro, in 1992. The concept was seen to gain international prominence in the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, inclusive of the years, 2005–2014 (Canadian Commission for UNESCO, n.d.). The Sustainable Development Solutions Network, launched by the UN Secretary-General, Ban Ki-Moon in 2012 promoted *sustainable development* as a cornerstone for the post-2015 global Sustainable Development agenda (2012a, p. viii). The United Nations provided a brief historical development of the term *sustainable development* on their website (2011), but their timeline lacked conceptual clarity regarding the underlying meaning of the term. As such, this research explores significance and ideology.

Sustainable development and *sustainability education* are terms that are often used synonymously. *Sustainability education* is one that is 'concerned with formal, non-formal and informal education that addresses the current confluence of threats to the environment and to human society globally... education that questions and offers alternatives to dominant assumptions and current orthodoxies' (Sustainability Frontiers, 2009). The United Nations (UN) Decade of Sustainable Development was initiated with an aim of integrating and establishing *sustainable development* into educational programmes. With regard to terminology, *sustainability* refers to a long-term goal, such as a sustainable global future; and *sustainable development* refers to the way in which sustainability may be achieved by our actions (UNESCO, 2012). *Sustainable development* was described by the 1987 Bruntland Commission Report as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (UNESCO, 2012). For the Rio + 20, UN Conference, *sustainable development* was conceptualised 'as the guiding principle for long-term global development… consist[ing] of three pillars: economic development, social development and environmental protection' (United Nations, 2011). A fourth dimension was added in a special report to the UN Secretary General as 'good governance, which is sometimes described as the foundation of *sustainable development*… [so that *sustainable development* finally becomes conceptualised as] society's commitment to four interconnected objectives: economic development (including the end of extreme

poverty), social inclusion, environmental sustainability, and good governance, including peace and security' (Sustainable Development Solutions Network, 2012b, pp.1-2).

Education for sustainable development incorporates and values the three terms, *sustainability, sustainable development*, and *sustainability education* in the goal of creating a sustainable future through engagement of world-wide educational systems. It is upheld from the critical assumption that environmental, social, governmental, and economic states in the 21st Century need mending, and that current day society threatens and creates risk for a sustainable common future for humanity and other species and environments.

In Home Economics scholarship, McGregor applies the four pillars of Education for Sustainable Development to consumer education. Though her description is similar to the four goals set out in the post-2015 Development Agenda (United Nations, 2013) and in the UN draft Framework for Sustainable Development (2012), McGregor's fourth focus is culture, as opposed to the UN's, which is government. McGregor describes the four pillars, as follows:

> *The society pillar refers to the role social institutions play in change and development, with a focus on full, informed participation... It encompasses human rights, peace and human security, gender equality, cultural diversity, health and governance. The economic pillar touches on people's sensitivity to the limits and potential of economic growth (especially consumption)... This pillar includes poverty reduction, corporate responsibility and accountability, and the market economy. The environmental pillar involves people's awareness of the fragility and finiteness of the physical environment, leading to a commitment to favour environmental concerns in social institutions and economic policy. This pillar involves resources, climate change, rural development, sustainable urbanization and disaster prevention and mitigation… [The cultural pillar] reflect[s] the role of values, diversity, knowledge, languages and world views… It gives consumer educators a lens to help learners gain a sense of the connectedness between themselves and others, which is why sustainability matters in the first place. (McGregor, 2009, p. 260).*

Consumer-citizen & citizen-consumer

The terms *citizen/citizenship* and *consumer/consumption* are inseparable. Their differences are semantic and representative of oppositional facets of personhood. The term meanings have developed and changed historically to hold different meaning at different times. For example, in arguing for marketing practices to promote social awareness within consumption, Cabrera and Williams (2012) described the term *consumerism* as being historically associated with 'selfish pleasure and status-seeking difference', and *citizenship* as being representative of 'the common pursuit of the social good' (p. 1). Soper (2007, p. 206) extended a conceptual distinction between the terms, explaining that they

> *have conventionally been regarded as oppositional and belonging to separate areas of study. Whether their consumption choices have been theorised as authentic expressions of selfhood or as socially constructed, individuals qua consumers have most often been presented as obedient to forms of self-interest*

> *that either limit or altogether preclude the capacity for the reflexivity, social*
> *accountability and cultural community associated with citizenship. Only in their*
> *role as citizens do they supposedly look above the parapet of private needs and*
> *desires or could be said to have an eye to the public good. This perception is*
> *further reinforced in the theoretical division between a public domain of*
> *citizenship—and its concerns with rights, duties, participation and equality—and*
> *the private domain of the supposedly purely self-interested consumer.*

The complicated and personal nature of the meaning of the term *citizenship* depends on the individual and political orientation of its user. A good citizen means something entirely different for one person than for another, as the meaning of *good* is dependent on personal background and influence, such as history, circumstance, education, and the global, national, and civic-rural location in which one lives. In McGregor's example, a republican citizen may understand that good citizenship is

> *belonging to a political community, loyalty toward one's homeland, and the*
> *predominance of civic duties over individual interests… [while a] liberal*
> *tradition of citizenship focuses on individualism and the central idea that all*
> *individuals are equal and have inalienable rights (e.g., human rights) that*
> *cannot be revoked by the state or any social institution.*
> (McGregor, 2002, p. 4)

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) supported McGregor's distinction of different political leanings within the term *citizenship*. In discussing ways in which citizenship could benefit democracy, they described a justice-oriented citizen, one that could 'critically assess social, political, and economic structures and consider collective strategies for change that challenge injustice and, when possible, address root causes of problems' (p. 243) as most capable of emancipatory action, and thus upholding the ultimate ideal of what is good.

While the term *citizenship* has a difference in meaning according to personal orientation, the term *consume* changes equally as much, and has done so throughout history. Traditionally, it meant to use up, waste, exhaust, and eat. In the last century it took on new meaning to include pleasure, enjoyment, and freedom, particularly as consumption became a force representative of positively driving the economy (Collins, 2011; Soper, 2007; McGregor, 2002). Recently, the term *consumption* represents something less positive than was implied over the recent part of the last century, and has come to mean something more insidious and negative, reflective of its traditional meaning, particularly in light of overconsumption (McGregor, 2002; Soper, 2007).

Just as the terms, *citizenship* and *consumer* are complementary, *consumerism* holds different meaning depending on its user. 'Consuming may or may not be a detriment to civic life. It all depends on what kind of consuming under what kinds of conditions' (Schudson, 2007, p. 242). For example, consumers can create civic and political acts through boycotting. The term *citizen/citizenship* can be regarded as overly pious; there is no reason why it should only be conceptualised as praise, with consumerism vilified (Schudson, 2007). The terms *consumer* and *citizen-as-consumer* may be regarded are concepts developed by advertisers, and "as inauthentic and as 'manufactured' as the products the corporations are selling" (Schudson,

2006, p. 194). Schudson (2006) calls out a negativity inherent in advertising as advertising 'manufactures a product of its own: the consumer, perpetually unsatisfied, restless, anxious, and bored' (from Lasch, cited by Schudson, 2006, p. 194). The conception of *citizen-as-consumer*, valuable for feeding the monetary gain of business is opposed to a citizenship that values everyday life. A conception of citizenship that values harmony and balance in everyday life is held in Home Economics (Smith, Peterat, & de Zwart, 2004; Pendergast, McGregor, & Turkki, 2012). It may be true that a discontented view of everyday life is sold to citizens (Schudson, 2007); but this does not imply that citizens are consumers in need of a product to satisfy their 'manufactured' discontent with everyday life. Home Economics educators are tasked to contend with a societal conception that everyday life is monotonous and boring, and that shopping is the solution.

> *Everyday life is not simply mundane or insignificant because the everyday is an indispensable aspect of the way people experience the world… Humble, daily living activities sustain humanity… [and these activities hold] penetrating insights into the complexity and intricacy of humanity's very existence.*
> (McGregor, 2012, para. 3).

Possibly because of their conceptual overlap, the terms *citizen* and *consumer* have been melded together into a new term, the *consumer-citizen*, or *citizen-consumer*. Unfortunately, this new term is as subjective and diverse in its meaning as the two terms are individually. "The idea of 'consumer citizenship' is at once descriptive of the relationship between government, consumers, and businesses, and ideological, in that it promotes a particular vision of the social good" (Cabrera, 2012, p. 2). The term *consumer-citizen* can only be conceptualised for each individual's value system. It includes the weight, subjectivity, and ethics of choice, and the assumption that one choice is better than another. Unfortunately, the concept of good is subjective. Although it may be proposed that ethical consumption and ethical citizenship respects cultural differences, a consistent ideology of respect among cultures is not present.

However, regardless that there are indisputable global cultural differences about the meaning of responsible consumption and good versus bad, the Western conception of a *consumer-citizen* is upheld with morality and the making of ethical choices. in this light, a *consumer-citizen* makes ethical choices when purchasing and using, and is involved 'in a lifelong learning process, with *citizen* meaning a responsible, socially aware consumer willing to make reasoned judgements and sacrifices for the common good' (McGregor, 2002, p. 5). For example, in researching the problematic effects of Walmart on the United States' economy, Collins (2011) described consumer-citizens in the new millennium as individuals who use purchasing power to affect social change, by urging government to improve policy on the rights, safety, and fair treatment of workers. The ideal consumer-citizen is globally aware, making purchasing and consuming choices with a mindset of least harm, regarding the impact (of consumption) on others. The Consumer Citizen Network Website defined the consumer-citizen as 'an individual who makes choices based on ethical, social, economic and ecological considerations. The consumer citizen actively contributes to the maintenance of just and Sustainable Development by caring and acting responsibly on family, national and global levels' (2013).

The ideal of a consumer citizen is conceptualised more conscientiously by McGregor (2002), as she sketches the *participatory consumer*, a 'conscientious citizen participating in their role of consumption with the interests of themselves balanced with the interests of society, future generations and the ecosystem' (p. 14). McGregor conceived of the participatory consumer as one who takes the future wellbeing of the world into consideration, along with the present while exploring an ultimate way for consumer education to contribute to sustainable development. Acting as a consumer-citizen or participatory consumer may be one avenue by which individuals may take action toward the goals of sustainable development by translating their 'ethical values into everyday practice through conscientious participation in the market… [and] be instrumental in the globalization of civil society concerns and… potentially contribute to correcting imbalances' (United Nations Environment Programme, 2010, pp. 6-20). *Education for sustainable consumption* is a conceptual theme that has further emerged as foundational to the UN Decade of Sustainable Development. The UN Environment Programme (2010) insists that sustainable consumption, the 'incorporating [of] the concept of responsible consumption into daily actions is a process and must be developed and modified over time in response to changes in society' (p.8). Sustainable consumption creates practical links between citizens, consumers, and the goal of sustainable development.

A similar conceptual ideology among Home Economics education, sustainable development and consumer-citizenship

It appears clear that the conception of *consumer citizenship* is but one aspect within the overall ideology of *sustainable development*. However this does not diminish its importance; rather *consumer citizenship* is identified as a conceptual ideal whose understanding is well suited to facilitation in Home Economics education. The ideological parity and connections among Home Economics education, *education for sustainable development*, and *education for consumer-citizenship / participatory consumerism* have been mapped by Home Economics scholars (Smith, 2008; Hjälmeskog, 2012; Lorek and Wahlen, 2012; McGregor, 2009/2002). Many contend that the ideals of sustainable development have long been shared by professionals in the field of Human Ecology/Home Economics (O'Donoghue, 2012). Because scholarship in this vein is detailed, it is recommended for reading, and similar detail will be avoided in this research.

The intent of Home Economics education is to improve conditions for families and individuals in the home and in global society, by engaging individuals in critical study of domestic and consumer environments. Such critical study can empower individuals and families to overcome apathy, and develop autonomy and responsibility to, and in the world (Elias, 2011; Vincenti & Smith, 2004; Storm and Plihal, 1989). This type of empowerment is reflective of the goal of sustainable development (Lee, 2008), which 'helps the citizens of the world to learn their way to a more sustainable future' (UNESCO, 2012). In their call for the field of Home Economics to increase the level of explicitly facilitated sustainable development, Lorek and Wahlen (2012) promoted a need for environmental protection. In citing the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change and the International Energy Agency, they decreed that the need for environmental reform was so immediate that change initiated beyond the year 2015 would be too late, with regard to risks and worldwide damages associated with greenhouse gas emissions. They also cited calculations, by the Global Footprint Network, which demonstrated that global human society uses significantly 'more

resources in one year than nature can regenerate within this year' (2012, p. 171). These facts are troubling and they represent a need for immediate curricular, pedagogical, and policy reform towards explicit infusion of sustainable development and consumer-citizenship throughout all avenues of education, including Home Economics education.

This research draws a relationship (Figure 1) among the framework for sustainable development, the goals of consumer citizenship education, and a Home Economics view of everyday life, which is meant to be facilitated in Home Economics education. A Home Economics view of everyday life is represented by the work of Eleanore Vaines, a respected Canadian, Home Economics scholar and mentor (Smith, Peterat & de Zwart, 2004), with her Spheres of Influence Map (from Vaines, cited by Peterat, Mayer-Smith, Lee, Sinkinson & Tsepa, 2004). The Spheres of Influence are used to guide professional Home Economists in describing and understanding

> *integrated human systems that incorporate the individual, the public, the family, institutions, the biosphere, the cosmos, the unknown and unknowable… [and it is] a visual reminder that our beliefs, knowing, and actions are embedded in a much greater web of complexity and paradox*

 (Peterat et al., 2004, p. 26).

As Home Economics educators attempt to facilitate an understanding of the breadth and complexity of *integrated human systems*, it is difficult to argue the relevance of, and complementary nature of the goals of sustainable development and consumer citizenship (Figure 1), since these concepts are intertwined in subject applications, such as the impact of choice of fabric in textiles studies, and the importance of understanding food systems and food security in family planning.

Regarding the facilitation of education in consumer citizenship, a deeper ideological perspective of justice is recommended by Westheimer and Kahne (2004), as it is perceived to have a strong impact towards developing sustainability mindset (Smith, 2010). In discussing strategies for facilitating *education for consumer-citizenship* and *sustainable development in Home Economics*, Smith (2010) promoted classroom delivery modes that reflected the ideology of Consumer Citizenship, such as 'awareness and knowledge of issues related to consumption and consumerism …, analysis and reasoning about issues related to consumption and consumerism … [and] reflection (on what is best to do for long term positive consequences on self and others…' (Smith, 2010, pp. 9-10). Facilitating an understating of *participatory consumerism* in Home Economics education has the potential to emancipate students from cultural acceptance of materialistic consumption, and promote other notions of what a good life is composed of (Hjälmeskog, 2012; McGregor, 2009). McGregor (2009) recommended that consumer educators embrace Bandura's Social Learning Theory in facilitating *sustainable development* to their students. She argued that Social Learning Theory could empower consumers with an 'internal moral reinforcement' (2009, p. 258), and posited that such incorporation could support worldwide sustainable development goals set out by the UN.
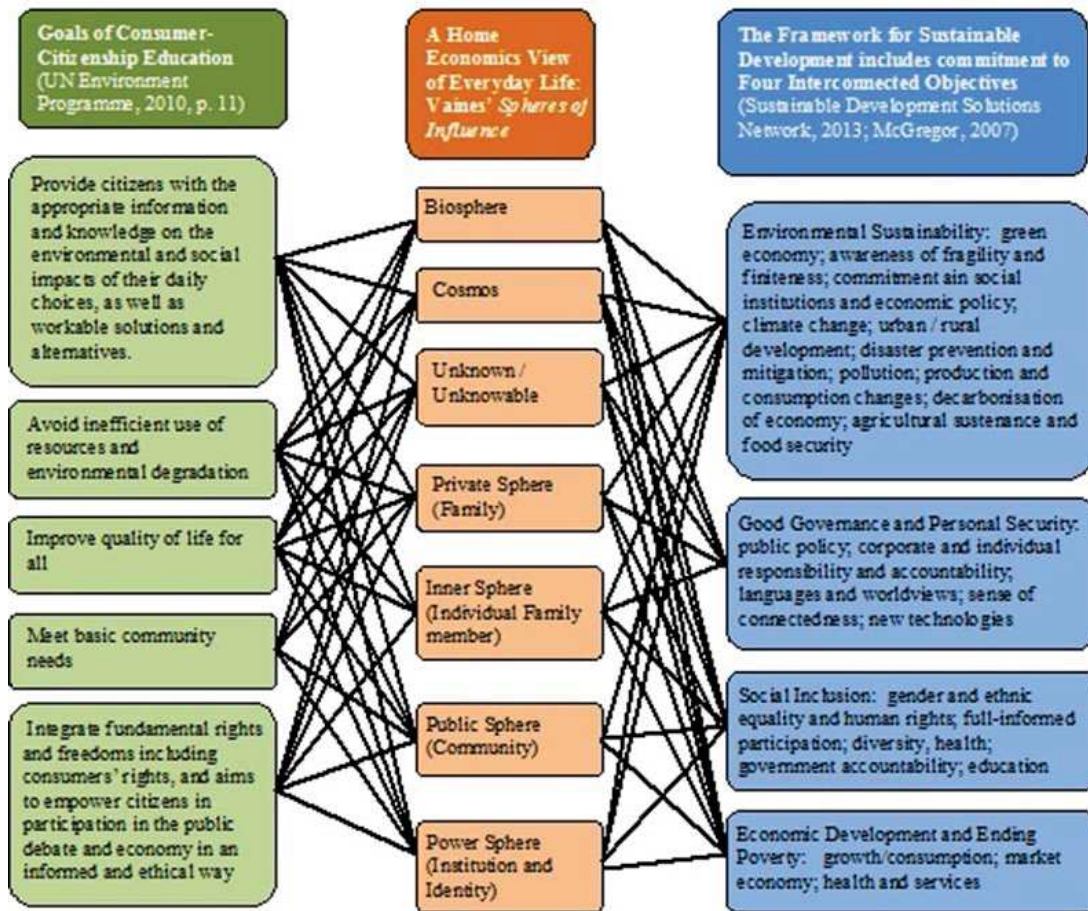
Figure 1   Drawing relatedness between a Home Economics view of everyday life, the framework for Sustainable Development, and goals of Consumer-Citizenship education

Conclusion and further questions

The conceptual relevance of *sustainable development* and *consumer citizenship / participatory consumerism* to Home Economics education is inarguable. Explicitly connecting these ideologies in Home Economics curriculum and pedagogy has the potential to reconnect individuals to the interconnected ecological domains that they encounter in everyday life, including in their relationships with government and culture, environment, society, and economics. The intent of Home Economics, to improve life for individuals and families morally obliges professional Home Economists to explicitly include *sustainable development* and *consumer-citizenship* in the future of Home Economics education. Because of a perceived high ideological relatedness among *sustainable development*, *consumer-citizenship*, and Home Economics education, it is realistic to research further evidence of their complementary nature, and practical applications of their relatedness.

While the need for sustainability is difficult to argue, I am the first to admit that it is easier to talk the talk, than it is to walk the talk. For example, the practicality and financial burden of practising a sustainable lifestyle in current mainstream Western society needs to be

addressed. Regardless of the skill of Home Economics educators, and the ability, or buy in, of learners to understand the relative importance of *sustainable development* and *consumer-citizenship*, practical issues need to be addressed. For example, what is the cost of achieving sustainable living for the average individual? What is the practicality of living sustainably, while interdependent with a global and technical society? What is the price of buying into sustainably developed industry in Canada? Can average Canadian families afford to buy in? More importantly, would families willingly sacrifice ease in daily life for a lifestyle change that is more sustainable, in order to make a difference for our common future?

Neutralization theory may explain typical immoral consumption and shopping behaviour. 'Neutralization is a technique that allows an individual to rationalise or justify an immoral or illegal act' (from Sykes & Matza, cited by McGregor, 2008, p. 265). Although rationalizations are just that, some are validated by economic burden and by selfishness, which might be argued is human nature.

A first step towards achieving sustainability is by communally establishing that it is important for society. Development of social agreement on this may be facilitated by an education in Home Economics that can, explicitly and with clarity, colour the importance *of sustainable development* and *consumer-citizenship* in everyday life. This facilitation may empower critical understanding of the interconnectedness among ecological domains, and lead in to a second step of personally and transformatively reconnecting individuals to these domains, within and outside of formal education settings. In the European community, working groups that develop frameworks for sustainability are gaining prominence, but North America is being left behind. The Partnership for Education and Research about Responsible Living (PERL), centred in Norway, is a group of educators and professionals dedicated to the promotion of responsible living. With results and publications based upon six years of research by the Consumer Citizenship Network (CCN) (n.d.), PERL (n.d.) has designed many resources for empowering citizens, businesses and government towards choosing sustainable lifestyles and choices. SPREAD Sustainable Lifestyles 2050 is a 'Social Platform identifying Research and Policy needs for Sustainable Lifestyles', and is a social consortium, based in Germany, that ran between 2011 and 2012. It provided an avenue for stakeholders 'to participate in the development of a vision for sustainable lifestyles in 2050' (n.d.). These European resources are useful in Canada, as complementary to UNESCO's platform on Education for Sustainable Development (n.d.) and the Education for Sustainable Development Canada Web Site (n.d.). A critical examination of the resources created by these European organizations is relevant for further examination, to determine their use to Home Economists and others interested in educating and living for sustainability in Canada and other places outside of Europe.

Acknowledgements

Biography

Ayala Johnson values everyday life with her family, and all that it encompasses. She avidly promotes urban food gardening and processing. Currently, she is pursuing a Master of Arts

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Practices of families in the management of consumer durables

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Abstract

A study entitled Practices of Families in the Management of Consumer Durables was conducted to have an insight into the expressed and unspoken needs and motivations as triggers in the acquisition and use of consumer durables by families and the management process they adopted in doing so. A sample 150 families was drawn from lower middle income group families in the expanding stage of their life cycle. A semi-structured interview schedule and a game were used as to collect the data. Women formed the key respondents while their husbands and other family members supplemented the information. Data was analysed to study the relationship between the selected demographic variables and the acquisition practices.

The sample displayed homogenous buyer behaviour and motivations as reflected in the pattern of ownership of a basic set of durables by all. Women's roles were confined to being initiators, influencers and users while men were the key decision makers while purchasing the durables. Budget was invariably a major constraint the families had to work within. The study pointed out that greater consumer awareness and education of women would not only boost their confidence but also make them a great force in the consumer market space.

Keywords: practices, consumer durables, families, motivations, management

Introduction

India's consumer market in recent years has witnessed an economic boom. This boom has been driven by a young population with access to disposable incomes and easy finance options (National Council of Applied Economic Research (NCAER), 2011 and Corporate Catalyst India (CCI), 2012).

In the nineties, India globalised extensively and began to assimilate with the outside world. Markets saw the entry of global brands and product categories. This period marked the emergence and acceptance of both global communication and global brands respectively. The decade preceding the year 2000 represented the awakening of consumerism in India and the decade of 2000-2010 marked the adolescence period of liberalisation. This period has seen a greater level of confidence on the part of consumers to voice their preferences and exercise their choices. Companies too, have matured their engagement with the Indian market. The decade has seen a coming of age as far as the level of Indianisation that firms have brought right from strategic product innovation to communication, pricing and distribution (Business World, 2012, p. 131).

The market share of Multi-National Companies (MNCs) in the consumer durables sector in India was 65 percent. The MNC's major target was the growing middle class of India. MNCs offered superior technology to the consumers whereas Indian companies competed on the basis of firm grasp of the local market, their well-acknowledged brands, and hold over wide distribution networks. The biggest attraction for MNCs was the growing Indian middle class. The Indian market has been characterised by low penetration levels. MNCs hold an edge over their Indian counterparts in terms of superior technology combined with a steady flow of capital, while domestic companies compete with MNCs on the basis of their well-acknowledged brands, an extensive distribution network and an insight in local market conditions (CCI, 2012 p. 1).

Apart from steady income gains, consumer financing has become a major driver in the consumer durables industry. In the case of more expensive consumer goods, such as refrigerators, washing machines, televisions and computers, retailers are joining forces with banks and finance companies to market their goods more aggressively. Among department stores, other factors that will support rising sales include a strong emphasis on retail technology, loyalty schemes, private labels and subletting of floor space in larger stores to smaller retailers selling a variety of products and services, such as music and coffee. Indian media and internet have also contributed significantly to the expanding consumer goods market as consumers in the remotest areas are equally aware of the latest products launched in the market due to the increasing penetration of television channels and cinemas. In the Financial Year 2010 air conditioners (including industrial and office air conditioners) constituted 38% of the consumer appliances market, followed by refrigerators at 14%, electric fans at 7.5%, washing appliances at 7% and sewing machines at 5% (CCI, 2012 p. 5).

Consumer durables are described as tangible goods which may be used for the purpose of consumption repeatedly or continuously over a period of more than a year, assuming a normal or average rate of physical use (National Council of Applied Economic Research (NCAER), 2002; Kotler et al., 2012).

The motivations to acquire consumer durables seem to be many. It is known that use of these durables improves the quality of work, increases the output while at the same time saving time and human energy. These durables help in performing household chores faster and with greater ease. Besides work productivity and efficacy, some of these consumer durables also provide information and entertainment like television, music systems with video compact disc player, mobile phone and computer. There are others which offer mobility like motorcycles or cars. Depending on the design and construction details, their prices vary from a few thousand rupees to many thousands.

Since families form a segment in the consumer industry that can neither be overlooked nor taken lightly, it is necessary to find out how families decide *what to buy* and *why to buy* a certain product or a brand. In a family situation the husband and wife invariably team up and in some cases there could be other knowledgeable members involved in choice making, deliberating on the final selection of a durable.

A family is two or more people living together, who are related by blood or marriage (Assael, 2001). The family is the most important consumer buying organization in society, and family members constitute the most influential primary reference group (Spiro, 1983; Burns, 1992; Boutilier, 1993; Assael, 2001; and Moore, Wilkie & Lutz, 2002).

The functions of a family change with general social changes. Therefore, the roles of various family members within a group also change. There is a prevalence of division of work in the home by sex. However, in recent years the allocation of family tasks along sex lines has changed. Many men today carry or share some home responsibilities traditionally carried by women—they participate more in the care of the children, do the marketing, and prepare a meal. At the same time, women are assuming some tasks traditionally carried by the husband, like earning some of the family income. Child bearing is, perhaps, the only responsibility still carried exclusively by the women. Thus, there is a trend towards companionship and equalitarian family organization (Nickell & Dorsey, 2002).

Historically, women have played diverse roles in home activities, as wives, as mothers and as homemakers. In earlier times in an agricultural economy, a home was a production unit and women were in charge of home production. Now women function as consumer-buyers, choosers of goods and services and as co-managers in the use of available resources for family wellbeing. The decline of the agricultural economy and rise of the industrial economy has seen a gradual change in women's roles. Today many women have moved into work situations outside the home. Hence, though a difference in the roles of husbands and wives remains, the direction of their roles has certainly changed. Many married women have emerged as a wage earning colleagues of their husbands as well as homemakers. They have become choosers of a wide range of goods: raw, prefabricated, convenience and labour saving (Gokilavani & Nageshwari, 2007).

The change in the methods of production and communication has created a wide variety of goods and services from which families choose to satisfy their needs and wants. Family needs and wants are constantly changing. With the mass production of commodities for exchange, a home today has become a consuming unit instead of a production unit for producing material goods. The homemaker, instead of being primarily the director of production for use within the home, is now a chooser of commodities and services to satisfy family needs and wants, and an advisor of choice making in the family. In a society predominated by exchange of goods and services for fulfilling family needs and wants, it becomes an important responsibility for women to give direction to the factors of production and control family consumption. Their choices before buying direct both consumption as well as production. That is, their choices affect consumer interests and aid in directing consumption. Thus, as a consumer buyer, she and her family becomes the centre of consumer-buyer function in the market (Nickell & Dorsey, 2002).

Acquiring knowledge of quality, grades and standards, knowing what to buy, when and how, identifying and assessing alternatives available, and knowing what price to pay, become essential responsibilities of a consumer-buyer. This way, by being an aware consumer, she is able to maintain the quality of goods and services in the market. Moreover, women as mothers and consumer-buyers also have the responsibility for training future consumers.

Through meticulous fact finding and experience over a period of time, informed and aware consumers learn the art and science of good purchasing. Encouraging all family members to participate in the buying process makes them aware of each other's needs and wants. It also makes them familiar with the market realities and the prevailing costs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007).

In urban India, with the growth of nuclear families, and both husband and wife working, the role of women in major family decisions, such as the purchase of house, automobiles and durables has grown substantially and is no longer just cosmetic in terms of accompanying the chief wage earner, normally the husband. In most cases, joint decision making is becoming a common phenomenon with a significant influence of teenage children, particularly in technology-savvy products such as cell phones, home computers, and music systems. Children and teenagers are being targeted by companies using the internet as an interactive device (Seshadri, 2006).

Consumers face infinite choices and possibilities every hour of the day and night. The final selection of what is available for consumers to buy has changed over time, as consumers force marketers to evolve (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel, 2006).

Several factors influence consumers' buying behaviour. These include: marketing (4Ps—*product*, *price*, *place* and *promotion*) and other stimuli like economic, technological, political or cultural factors; consumers' social and personal characteristics; and psychological processes like motivation, perception, emotions, learning and memory.

Human needs are infinite. Maslow structured a hierarchy of human needs from physiological (lower wants) to self-actualisation (higher wants). According to him, as soon as one of these needs is satisfied, another appears in its place. This process is unending. It continues from 'birth to death' (Kotler, Keller, Koshy, & Jha, 2012).

A person has many **needs** at any given time. Some needs are *biogenic*; they arise from physiological states of tension such as hunger, thirst or discomfort. Other needs are *psychogenic*; they arise from psychological states of tension such as need for recognition, esteem or belonging. A need becomes a motive when it is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity. A *motive* is a need that is sufficiently pressing to drive the person to act. Human needs and motives are inextricably linked and it is extremely difficult to identify the precise differences which may characterise them. Motives initiate behaviour and direct it towards specific type of activities (Chisnall, 1989).

Maslow's Theory of Human Motivation is a well-known approach to specifying the relative priority assigned to different needs. Maslow's theory explains why people are driven by particular needs at particular times and how some needs take precedence over other needs. According to Maslow, human needs are arranged in a hierarchy, from the most pressing to the least pressing. In order of importance, they are physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs (Blackwell, et al., 2006; Kotler et al., 2012). Maslow's theory helps to understand how various products fit into the plans, goals, and lives of consumers. People will try to satisfy their most important needs first. When a person

succeeds in satisfying an important need, he or she will then try and satisfy the next most important need.

Maslow's hierarchy highlights that people attach different priorities to their needs. However, this theory should not be seen as providing a definitive specification of what these priorities may be. Although Maslow's ordering may correspond with the priorities of many, it certainly does not reflect everyone's priorities in all situations. Sometimes people ignore lower-order needs in pursuit of higher-order needs. Differences in the importance consumers attach to various needs ultimately affect how they evaluate products being considered for purchase and consumption. Different needs lead consumers to seek different benefits (Kotler et al., 2012).

Models of buying behaviour serve as the basis for marketers to have qualitative and quantitative assessments as they describe market parameters and allow the marketers to make predictions as to the likely outcome of marketing strategies to be adopted by them. Various buying behaviour models have been developed since 1940. These models can be classified into monadic models and multivariable models. Monadic models are based on microeconomics and multivariable models are based on behavioural sciences. These try to explain the consumer's purchase decision making process. What is more important in the case of durable home appliances, is the satisfaction of the consumer about the product's performance and his reaction to the brand used and subsequent purchase or replacement (Seshadri, 2006).

Marketing scholars have developed a *stages model* of the buying decision process. A consumer passes through five stages: problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase decision and post-purchase behaviour. It brings forth the fact that the buying process starts long before the actual purchase and has consequences long afterward. Various authors have given their interpretations of the stages model of buying process (Kotler et al., 2012; Blackwell et al., 2007; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007; Hawkins, Best, Coney & Mookerjee, 2008).

In the opinion of Seshadri (2006) among the various models of buying behaviour, multivariable models seemed to be the most acceptable models. These models project consumer behaviour as information acquisition and processing, moderated by psychological, social and cultural influences. However, according to Chisnall (1989), no model can really offer a complete explanation of buying behaviour that is universally acceptable; they need interpretation and sophisticated understanding before they can be of value to the various stakeholders in the production-consumption process.

The Five Stage Model of Consumer Buying Process as proposed by Kotler et al. (2012) was found most suitable for studying buying behaviour as per the study objectives. Consumers do not always pass through all five stages in buying a product. They may skip or reverse some stages. This provides a good frame of reference, however, because it captures the full range of considerations that arise when a consumer faces a situation involving new purchase (Putsis & Srinivasan, 1994).

This model provides the basis for developing discussions of consumer buying behaviour. Problem recognition or felt need is the starting point. Buyers seek to satisfy their needs. Hence, they search for product, services or brands. After searching and discovering various products and services, they try to critically evaluate the same, keeping in mind various views, including that of opinion leaders. In the process of evaluation, they develop choice criteria, covering performance of product, price levels, design, availability, and so on. Then they decide to buy and their decisions are made up of many subdivisions relating to the specific attributes of the products. Post-purchase evaluation is crucial for the marketers to launch their long term marketing strategies. Satisfactory product performance has a positive effect on the memory of the consumer, who would like to buy the same brand of the product (Seshadri, 2006).

In the light of the above scenario, a study was conducted to seek answers to the following questions.

- How do families process the available information and arrive at a decision to acquire?

- How do they assess the merits and demerits of a given item with multiplicity of brands, working/special features and competitive price ranges?

- What are the primary motivations which determine and drive the purchases?

- What role do women in general and the housewives in particular play in the decision-making process?

- Are they aware of their rights and responsibilities as consumers?

- How involved are the children in the whole process of decision making specially, when it comes to considering items for personal use and that for the family?

- What are the family dynamics in the selection and purchase process?

- What all happens at the pre and post-purchase stages? Are there other intervening factors and imperatives?

- Does consumer finance, advertising and sales promotion tactics have a bearing on the decisions that are made?

Answers to these questions may throw some light on the consumer psyche and the whole spectrum of the consumption process.

To seek a better understanding of some of the above mentioned aspects of the family consumption process with respect to consumer durables the present study was conducted to identify the motivations underlying the acquisition and use of the selected consumer durables by the families. The study aimed at understanding the management practices followed by families, especially women, for acquisition and use of consumer durables and assess the influence of various family demographic characteristics on the same.

Methodology

A sample size of 150 families was purposely drawn from the non-teaching staff of Delhi University, North campus area, residing in two-room tenements, all married with at least one child, earning a salary in the range of Rupees (Rs) 20,000 to 40,000 per month (USD 350-700 per month), having purchased any one electrical/electronic consumer good for Rs 2,000 and above during 2007-2010.

A semi-structured interview schedule was developed supported by observations and a game (used as a projective technique) was designed to collect basic as well as comprehensive qualitative data. Women formed the key respondents, with their husbands and other family members supplementing information. Personal interviews were necessary to study and understand the respondents' knowledge, beliefs, practices, preferences, satisfactions and most importantly their motivations. Observations helped in verifying field realities and eliminating biases. The study was exploratory and descriptive in nature.

The primary respondent from each family was the woman head of the family. Husbands of the respondents and other family members were encouraged to participate and help. The other family members present at the time of inquiry contributed richly to the wealth of information.

In-depth semi-structured interviews provided an opportunity to observe the respondents and their families in their personal settings. Verbal and nonverbal cues as well as direct observations strengthened the study. The interview guide was based on the laddering technique wherein a series of *why* questions were used to probe respondents' minds and gain insight into their motivations and buying decisions.

Questions regarding the reasons for acquiring the selected consumer durables and durables which were perceived to be the most important for the family were put across through a game called *Pick and Choose* developed by the researcher for the study. The game was played with a sample of 30 women who owned at least six of the selected durables. The game required the women to identify pictures of consumer durables owned by their family from a pool of pictures and state why they had acquired each of those consumer durables. They had to selectively eliminate consumer durables one-by-one stating why, until they were left with only one—the most important consumer durable for them and their family. This method offered the researcher much a deeper insight into consumer motives to acquire or not acquire selected consumer durables. An objective type awareness test was prepared to study consumer awareness of the women and their husband.

Interviews were conducted inside the homes and care was taken not to intrude on the privacy of the families. The interview guide was pilot-tested with five women (not included in the sample) to observe the ease and comfort with which they could respond to the questions. A number of open-ended and close-ended questions were framed to study the motivations and management practices of families while acquiring and using the selected electrical consumer durables.

For entry into each college/institution campus, help was taken from a resident. More than one visit was required with each of the families. The researcher went from one family to another accomplish her set goal. The game Pick and Choose was played with women on a separate visit depending on their willingness and availability of time. The data was collected between the years 2010 and 2012.

The motivations expressed by the respondents to acquire the selected consumer durables were listed and categorised. They were analysed according to Maslow's Theory of Motivation into various levels in a hierarchical order, as explained by Kotler et al. (2012). The Five Stage Model of Buying Decision Process (Kotler et al., 2012) was used to analyse the management practices and the buying process of the families regarding consumer durables. Data was entered in SPSS 16 for statistical analysis. A non-parametric Chi-squared statistical analysis was used to study (in the null form) the relationship between the selected demographic variables of the sample and the acquisition pattern of consumer durable as the dependent variables. Chi-square, a non-parametric test, was used to study the association between selected demographic variables as the intervening variables with the dependent variables- buying decisions (choices in terms of nature and types of durables owned and aspired) and consumer awareness. Chi-square results were analysed at 5% level of significance

Findings and discussion

The salient findings of the study are summarised below.

Demographic profile of the families

The average age of the respondent (woman head of the family) was 41 years and that of her husband was 44.3 years. Most of the women (92%) were educated below Class XII (Higher Secondary grade) and almost half the men (49.2%) were also educated below Class XII. Almost all the women (96.6%) were housewives. The approximate monthly income of the head of the family was between Rupees 30,000-40,000 per month for 62% families. The remaining families had a monthly income between Rupees 20,000-30,000. About half the families (53.3%) had one earning member (male head of the family employed in the Delhi University in a non-teaching post). The other families had more than one earning member engaged in a service or entrepreneurial venture of their own.

Almost 90% of the families were nuclear families and about 75% families had 2-3 children. Thus, the families were in the expanding stage of the family life cycle with 62% women married for more than 20 years, and a majority of them had teenage children.

Nature and type of consumer durables possessed

The families owned a variety of consumer durables that not only gave them comfort and convenience but also connectivity, information and entertainment. Televisions, mobile phones, room coolers and refrigerators were owned by all the families. The other durables were food processors (74.7%), washing machines (57.3%) and computers (43.3%). VCD-DVD players, geysers (water heaters), electrical water purifiers, air conditioners, microwave ovens and digital cameras were owned by very few families. Each family had their own motivations

to acquire and use these durables or exclude them from their lives. Figure 1 presents the consumer durables owned by the families.

The average number of consumer durables owned by the families was 7, with a range of 4 to 11. Up to 6 durables were owned by 55.3% families and the remaining families owned 7 or more durables. It was found that limited money restricted the purchase of not only the new consumer durables but also those as replacement and for upgrading. The quantity of consumer durables owned by the families was found to be highly associated with the education of the women respondents (x^2 = 10.277, df = 2, p = 0.006 *) and husband's income (x^2 = 27.364, df = 1, p = 0.000 **), thus indicating that with increasing availability of financial resources and better education women became more aware about the importance and utility of consumer durables for their families. The table also indicates that all families required certain consumer durables as essential to day-to-day running of the family activities irrespective of the age of the respondent, number of years of marriage, number of family members and number of earning members.
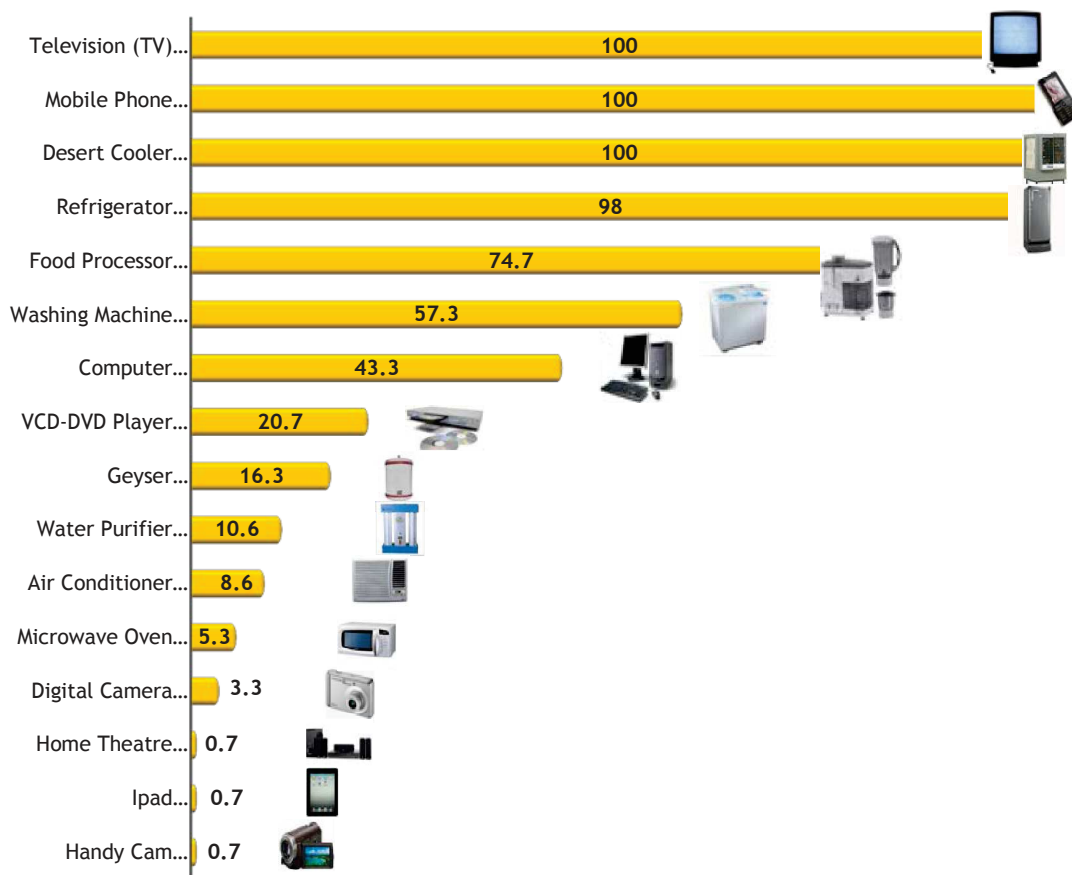

Figure 1   Consumer durables owned by the families

Consumer durables for family information, education and entertainment:

All families owned a television (TV). A few families (about 12%) owned more than one TV. Most of the families (93.3%) owned the bulky cuboid Cathode Ray TV and a few (6.7%) had recently acquired flat screen LCD TVs. Most families had a 21inch screen TV. There was a clear preference for multinational brands like Samsung (31.3%), LG (18.7%) and Sony (8.7%) in the recent TVs purchased by the families**.**

All families owned at least one mobile phone. Mobile phones were considered absolutely vital to fulfil the need for communication, connectivity and safety. It gave a tremendous sense of security to the women to be able to hand over a mobile phone to her children when they go out, even routinely. The phones were perceived like an extension of the umbilical cord, deeply connected. Landline phones were missing altogether. More than half the families (54%) owned 3-4 mobile phones, 31.4% families owned 1-2 phones. Nokia was the most owned brand (65.5%) followed by Samsung (16.2%) and LG (4.8%). Statistical analysis indicated that the order of purchase (first time, replacement or additional) of mobile phones was significantly associated with the age of the women respondents (x^2 = 11.227, df =2, p = 0.004 **), monthly income of their husband (x^2 = 5.813, df =1, p = 0.016 *), number of earning members (x^2 = 11.916, df =2, p = 0.003 **) and years of marriage (x^2 = 9.590, df =2, p = 0.008 **).

Almost half the families (47.3%) owned a computer. Of these 63.3% families owned desktop computers, 28.1% owned laptops and 8.4% owned both a desktop and a laptop computer. All, except three families, had purchased new computers. Dell (32.1%), Lenovo (17.8%) and HP (14.2%) were popular brands of laptop computers in use. The motivations to buy computers were primarily to offer the children an opportunity to update their knowledge and improve their comfort with technology.

Only 20% families owned a VCD-DVD player. Families occasionally used VCD-DVD players to watch the video recording of family marriages, birthdays and other special occasions. The video recording of these events too could be viewed on computers. Hence, VCD-DVD players were practically redundant for the families. Statistical analysis revealed that the order of purchase (first time or replacement) of VCD-DVD players was associated with the age of the respondents (x^2 = 10.552, df =4, p = 0.032*) and the monthly income of the respondent's husband (x^2 = 6.618, df =2, p = 0.037*). It was found that the choice of brand of VCD-DVD players was also associated with the age of the respondents (x^2 = 6.403, df =2, p = 0.041*).

Digital cameras were owned by only 6% of the sample. Sony, Canon, Samsung and Nikon were some of the brands. Order of purchase of digital cameras was associated with the number of earning members in a family.

Consumer durables for family comfort and convenience

Refrigerators, room coolers, food processors, washing machines, geysers, air conditioners, microwave ovens and electrical water filters were the consumer durables bought and used for family's comfort and convenience. Although each of these served a unique function, by and large, they are all needed to make life easy and provide essential service. All families owned a room cooler. A few families were found to be owning two coolers or a combination of a

cooler and an air conditioner. Families were using their coolers despite owning an air conditioner. The motivations to buy room coolers were to secure a comfortable environment for the family, primarily to beat the heat. These were all local products.

Almost all the families owned a refrigerator with the exception of two families. Most of these families owned single-door 185 litre refrigerators. Double-door and frost-free refrigerators were not very popular as the women found these less spacious and felt that the in case of power failure, the inside temperature increased very quickly, leading to food spoilage. The families showed a clear preference for MNC brands like LG and Samsung. Amongst Indian brands, Godrej was found to be the choice of 21.3% families. The number of years the previous refrigerator used was found to be associated with the respondents' years of marriage. Families were found to have replaced their refrigerators after about 10-15 years of use.

About three quarters of the families (74.0%) owned a food processor (juicer mixer grinder) and it was a first time purchase for these families. The families showed preference for local brands (55.8%) and Indian brands like Usha (12.6%) and Maharaja (11.7%) in the purchase of food processors. The motivations to buy a food processor were primarily to save labour, time and make cooking a lot more interesting. Women used the grinder and blender more frequently but stayed away from using the juicer and other attachments like graters and dough kneaders. They found it cumbersome to wash and keep clean all these attachments.

About 60% of the families owned a washing machine. Of these families, a majority (90.8%) owned semiautomatic ones as they found fully automatic washing machines very expensive to purchase and maintain. The motivation to buy washing machines was primarily to ease the burden of washing big or heavy clothes, especially during winters. A few women reported that they had to go in for the washing machines due to a medical condition like a frozen shoulder or a spinal problem. Despite this washing machines were not being used regularly by more than 60% of the families who owned them, perhaps because almost all these women were housewives and had plenty of time at their disposal, and saving electricity cost was an important consideration. Women reported to be using washing machines more often during winters.

Washing machines were a first time purchase for 73.2% of these families. Second-hand washing machines were being used by two families. MNC brands were most owned in washing machines: Samsung (33.3%), LG (24.1%) and Whirlpool (22.9%). Order of purchase (first time or replacement) of washing machine was found to be significantly associated with the monthly income of the respondent's husband.

Only 15.6% families owned a geyser (water heater). Geysers were a first time purchase for all families (except two). Most of the geysers were from local markets. The reasons for not owning geysers were primarily seasonality of use (required only during peak winter for maybe 3 to 4 months in a year) and high cost of installation and use. Using an immersion rod or gas stove or fire wood for heating water was a common practice. Some families also reported lack of regular water supply and low pressure of water supply as the reasons for not installing a geyser.

Only 7.3% families (11 of 150) owned an electrical water purifier and they were a first time purchase by all families. A majority of these electrical water purifiers were of local brands. Good quality water was a need felt by all the families. However, most of these families were fulfilling that need by using the traditional metal water filters with ceramic candles. Battery operated water filters like Purit were also coming in vogue due to their low initial cost, low cost of maintenance and use of new technology. The order of purchase and the type of purchase (new or second-hand) of water purifiers were found to be significantly associated with monthly income of the respondent's husband and the family size.

Not many families owned air conditioners (only 7.3%). Nine out of the eleven families possessed one air conditioners and had them installed in the living room. MNC brands like Samsung and LG dominated the brands. Air conditioners were amongst the recent purchases of the families acquired in the last five years. Families who owned air conditioners also owned room coolers and used them without any restraint. Air conditioners were used sparingly by the families to cut down on the excessive consumption of electricity and control electricity bills.

Microwave ovens were owned by 4.7% families only and these were also the first time users of this gadget. Microwave ovens were used mainly for heating food before serving. The women were conscious of the fact that microwave ovens required special cookware, and that there were some precautions to be taken while using them. Women did not know the technology used in a microwave oven but knew that it was a time and labour saving device, and a new gadget added into the family. Ownership of microwave ovens (order of purchase) was found to be significantly associated with monthly income of the respondent's husband.

The most recent consumer durables acquired by the families were washing machines (first time), mobile phones (additional), computers (first time or additional), refrigerators (as replacements) followed by air conditioners (first time). Thus, after fulfilling the need for basic consumer durables, families started focusing on acquiring gadgets of critical value for the safety and security of their children.

The most important of these was the mobile phone. The mobile phone was perceived as not only a gadget for communication and connectivity but also a device for saving time, energy and money and managing family life better. The TV was considered the second most important consumer durable by the women as it provided them not only entertainment but also updated their world view. The third most important item was the refrigerator. 'It is truly difficult to describe as to how useful this piece of equipment is!' said one respondent. The women in the sample were ready to enumerate all its functions and could not stop counting the blessings. Keeping food fresh and safe, stocking up of fresh, fruits, vegetables and cooked food for day today consumption and ice in the freezer unit for future use—these extremely useful functions were narrated by all.

The other durable items considered important in the order of preference were water purifiers (electrical or nonelectrical), room coolers, computers, washing machines and food processors (mixer-grinders). Irrespective of their modest financial status, 85.3% women aspired to update durables for the home. LCD TV was the most desired one.

The buying decision process for purchasing consumer durables

While the buying process could be divided into a few basic steps, the order of their occurrence was not always fixed and could be different for different durables. The buying process varied as per the situation or circumstances and the cost involved. Some common practices and procedures followed by families in aligning their plan with the actual actions in the purchase of consumer durables for the family are given below:

Stage I Problem recognition

All families had in their possession a few chosen consumer durables considered the most basic essentials/necessities for living the life in the present day times. The practice was that both the husband and wife would look into their priorities, resources at their disposal and then identify the need for an item which would eventually be purchased. This was a conscious process of problem recognition For example decision to buy a washing machine would be in place if the lady of the house had a medical condition and had been advised to abstain from doing heavy duty tasks such as washing manually. If computer was seen as something unavoidable for the sake of children's education then the families would respect that despite their financial hardships.

Motivations influencing the purchase of consumer durables by the families

Using Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs theory (Kotler et al., 2012), to understand the buying behaviour of the respondents and their families, it was concluded that items like Mobile Phone, TV, Room Cooler and Refrigerator were considered useful of fulfilling the *basic needs* or *must have* or *essentials* by all the families. Only when these basic (lower order needs) were fulfilled the families' focus would move to another object. Each durable chosen by the family was driven by a myriad of needs and there were a range of drives and imperatives that acted as motivations to acquire and use them. These motivations were accompanied by a gamut of emotions and needs for having successfully satisfied family needs and being able to enhance the family's standard of living. Providing the needs of the family members, particularly children, by acquiring the gadgets they desired for comfortable living and career development, gave the husband and wife team feel a sense of achievement. It made them feel that they were successful in playing the roles of *providers and nurturers* for their families. Figure 2 presents the interpretation of Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs in reference to the consumer durables owned by the families.

Families were motivated to not just fulfil their *physiological, safety and social needs* but also work toward fulfilling the higher order needs of *self-esteem* and *self-actualization* in the purchase of consumer durables. The motivations to a purchase an item were different for each family. Also motivations for an item kept changing. An item already owned did not sustain the satisfaction for long, giving rise to a newer desire, a fresh need. Respondents did consider consumer durables as assets that defined their family status and the standard of living particularly when they were looking for marriage alliances for their children.
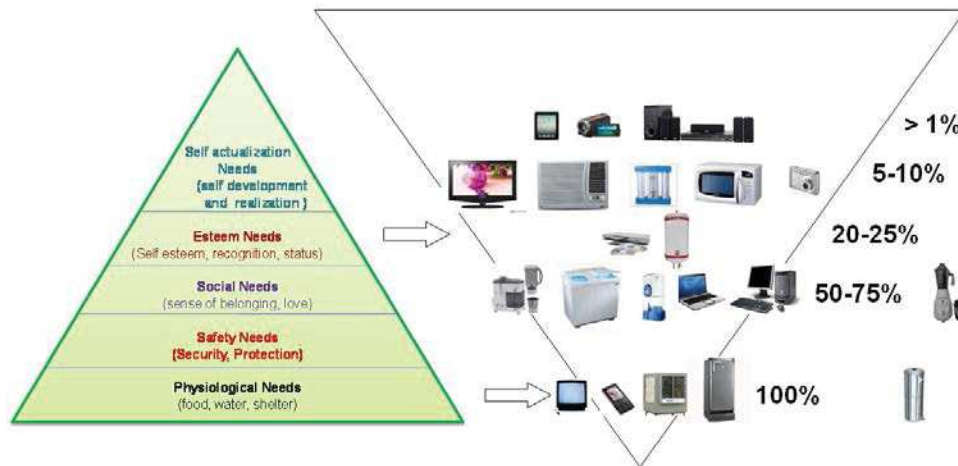
Figure 2   Interpretation of Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs and the consumer durables owned by the families

Stage II Information search

All families reported to be doing a fair amount of research from various sources when they wanted to purchase an item of substance. They were generally aware of the latest consumer durables entering the market, their added or improved features, cost and availability. Families also checked up and compared notes with their close relatives, friends and associates. This source of information they trusted the most.

Stage III Evaluation of alternatives

It was seen that families were astute in their buyer behaviour and abstained from impulsive buying. There was no suggestion of any conspicuous consumption on their part.

Stage IV Purchase decision

The final purchase decision in terms of type of durable, price, brand, choice of dealer and mode of payment was always a well thought out one. Due diligence was done by all, including children if the item was of their interest.

The interplay of several factors affected the choice of a product included the several variables affecting brand, price, dealership, seasonal sale and offerings, payment options, after sale service, warranties, and so on. To get the best value each time while making a purchase the families considered knowledge of the marketing mix (product, price, promotion and distribution) and their own predilections (likes, preferences).

Individual roles of members in purchase of consumer durables

Husbands played the dominant role in finalizing a purchase decision, where the role of wives was no less important. They were the initiators, influencers and prime users. Women had no qualm in saying that they were not competent enough in the purchase of an electrical good. They had faith in their husbands' choices and decisions and were completely at ease with the

division of roles between them when it came to buying appliances. The study showed that the women in the household were satisfied with their present acquisition status.

Customs and traditions followed by families while purchasing consumer durables

Many families (69.3%) followed some custom or tradition, for example, beliefs about avoiding purchase of metal based durables on Saturdays, avoiding inauspicious days and performing a Welcome ceremony were prevalent.

Stage V Post-purchase behaviour

All the families reported that they made their purchase of consumer durables from show rooms that issued proper bills and that they kept these bills safely. None of the families reported to have read the instruction manuals accompanying any of their consumer durables. They were able to use the durables without any difficulty. Durables like TVs, refrigerators, mobile phones, water purifiers and room coolers were put to regular daily use. Labour saving durables like washing machines and food processors were found to be used infrequently. Washing machines were used less because of either the high cost of operation or the fact that women could easily wash light clothes by hand and had sufficient time on hand. Food processors were avoided because the women were used to the traditional methods of cooking and preparation by their own hands and difficulty in assembling parts as well as washing parts after use. Since a vast variety of readymade foods and spices were available in the markets women were not keen to use the food processors.

Performance and after sales service

All the families were quite satisfied with the consumer durables owned by them. Most families preferred to call the company mechanic for any repair or service all within the warranty period as it was free. Thereafter a local mechanic or electrician was called as he was accessible and offered economical services. Husbands and grown-up children did small repairs occasionally.

Almost none of families chose annual maintenance contracts for servicing any of their durables, as they found them expensive and unnecessary.

It was found that families preferred to give away their old consumer durables to a relative or friend or purchase something in exchange. This indicated that the families consciously or unconsciously followed the *Green Practices* of *reduce-reuse-recycle* in their acquisition and usage practices.

Conclusion and suggestions

The families in the sample represented the needs, motivations and aspiration of the growing Indian middle class that has a strong influence on the national economic policies and the wellbeing of the consumer durables industry in India. Collective wisdom of this segment and their purchase practices based on *reduce-reuse-recycle* may be used as a lesson in *green and sustainable consumption* to be embraced by all even those with no resource constraints!

It is suggested that the Government agencies, manufacturers and consumer organisations could play a proactive role in spreading awareness amongst consumers about not only *what to buy* and *how to make informed choices* but also about *post-purchase use*, care and maintenance, filing complaints followed by grievance redressal. Since the consumer and the market are interdependent and mutually inclusive, their mutual trust has to be factored in.

The National Consumer Helpline operated by the Government of India and consumer awareness campaigns conducted by the Government may be involved in extension and outreach activities for these families. Market forces may be encouraged to be more responsive and conducive to the consumers in general, and women in particular, to make the consumption experience gender sensitive and gender friendly.

The study clearly brought to light that the consumers need to be alert and responsible in making choices and look beyond price of a durable good while making a purchase decision. They should choose branded goods from authorised dealers and keep a record of all transactions and the guarantee and warranty cards for future use. To avoid dissonance after a purchase, the consumer should give feedback to the dealer or firm and make a point to keep in touch for better accountability of the latter. It is concluded that education and empowerment are the keys for greater participation of women in making informed choices, confident handling and upkeep of the consumer durables. Feedback from the research provides insight into the family consumption process and for bridging the gap between consumers, especially women consumers, and the market.

Biography

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A look inside *Creating Home Economics Futures: The Next 100 Years*

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Abstract

This paper focused on the recently launched book Creating Home Economics Futures: The Next 100 Years *(published by the Australian Academic Press, 2012). It aspired to entice people to delve into this one-of-a-kind collection of ideas about how to future proof the Home Economics profession, grounded in megatrends, and IFHE's position statement about the intent and focus of Home Economics. It identified eight themes, and teased out four to illustrate the intellectual potential of these future proofing ideas: philosophy of Home Economics, megatrend push back, changing families, and the history of Home Economics.*

Keywords: future proofing, IFHE position statement, megatrends, Home Economics futures, convergent moments

Introduction

In 2012, a book about future proofing Home Economics was launched at the International Federation for Home Economics (IFHE) world congress in Australia. Edited by Donna Pendergast, Sue McGregor and Kaija Turkki, the book is titled *Creating Home Economics Futures: The Next 100 Years* (published by the Australian Academic Press). The editors anticipated that the book would 'offer an exciting opportunity to contribute to the thinking associated with the future of the Home Economics profession' as it enters the next 100 years (Pendergast, McGregor, & Turkki, 2012, p. iii). This paper shares some insights into the large ideas contained within this collection, ideas intended to 'stimulate creative, deeply intellectual and philosophical thinking about [Home Economics] futures' (p. iii). The paper is an unabashed attempt to entice readers to explore, ponder and reflect on the ideas in the book, perchance leading to new approaches to their future practice.

The book opens with a discussion of Home Economics:

> *being at a 'convergent moment'... a time of opportunity where several key societal factors are occurring at the same time... providing a moment of alignment... that, when taken together, provide an unprecedented opportunity to re-vision the Home Economics profession.* (Pendergast et al., 2012, p. 1)

Convergence is a term describing several lines of thought, trends or events coming together, lines that are not running parallel to each other, yet are still inclined to come together from different directions so they eventually meet. With a deep respect for the power of convergence, Home Economists are asked to appreciate that, when taken together, these

factors can be seen as catalysts for major reform, making this a defining moment for the profession (Pendergast, 2013) —*home economicsvergence* (see Figure 1).
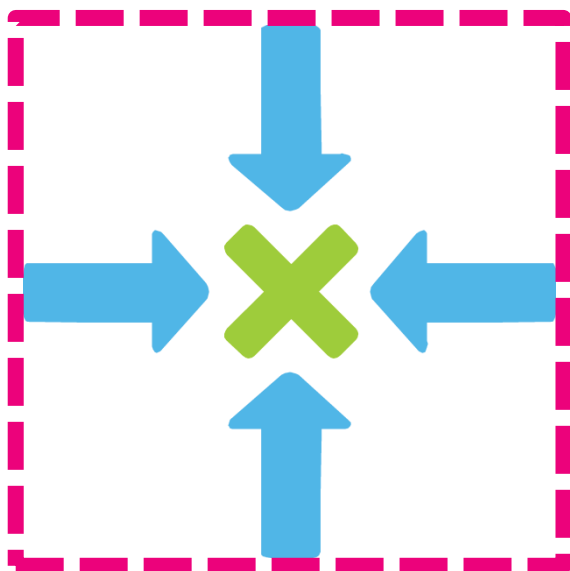

Figure 1   Home economicsvergence

Conceptual anchors for the book

Three concepts served as anchors for this book: (a) the idea of future-proofing the profession, (b) IFHE's (2008) position statement about Home Economics, and (c) the notion of megatrends set out in the stimulus chapter, all of which were used to solicit manuscript proposals for the collection. Each author(s) was expected to address some combination of these three concepts.

Future proofing

As explained by McGregor (2011), when a profession is future proofed, it is protected against being superseded by unanticipated future developments. It is better guaranteed to not be taken over, replaced, surpassed or displaced. A future proofed profession can handle the future(s) because members of the profession have taken steps now in order to avoid having to make radical changes to their practice in order to remain viable in the future. This protected profession will not stop being effective just because something newer or more effective comes along to try and replace it. Indeed, a future proofed profession is strategically planned so it can remain effective even, especially, when things change. Pendergast (2009) explained that future proofing entails 'anticipating future developments to minimise negative impacts and optimise opportunities' (p. 517). Future proofing the profession is an elusive process and a challenging task, but necessary to ensure a sustainable profession (Pendergast, 2008).

IFHE Position Statement

In its centennial year, IFHE (2008) released a Position Statement titled Home Economics in the 21st Century, affectionately called *he21c* (see Pendergast, 2008). Pendergast explained

that *he21c* locates the profession within contemporary times and serves as a platform for IFHE members that transcends geographical boundaries and cultures. The Position Statement asserts that the key imperative of the profession is to improve the world. It presumes Home Economists will be able to rise to this challenge when they exhibit three essential attributes: (a) a focus on fundamental needs and practical concerns of individuals and families in their everyday life; (b) the ability to integrate knowledge, processes and skills from many disciplines synthesised through inter and transdisciplinary inquiry; and (c) the ability to take critical, transformative and emancipatory action at all levels and sectors of society (Pendergast, 2008, 2013).

Furthermore, the *he21c* clarifies that Home Economics can be identified by its four main areas of practice, called Four Dimensions of Practice (see Figure 2). It is an academic discipline that educates new scholars into the profession, conducts research, and creates new knowledge and ways of thinking. It focuses on the arena of everyday living where people's basic human needs are met and where people develop human growth and potential. Third, Home Economics is a curriculum area that teaches students how to discover and develop their capabilities by preparing them for life. Finally, Home Economics manifests in the societal arena where it influences and develops policy to enable families to achieve empowerment, wellbeing, transformation and sustainable futures (IFHE, 2008; Pendergast, 2008). In summary, the intent of Home Economics is to augment and advance the profession's practitioner base and knowledge base; facilitate everyday living of the family as a social institution; prepare students (primary, secondary and tertiary) to engage with life; and, influence policy for the improvement of family life and, by association, humanity. Indeed, the editors of the book envisioned the profession as a key part of the future of humankind (Pendergast et al., 2012).
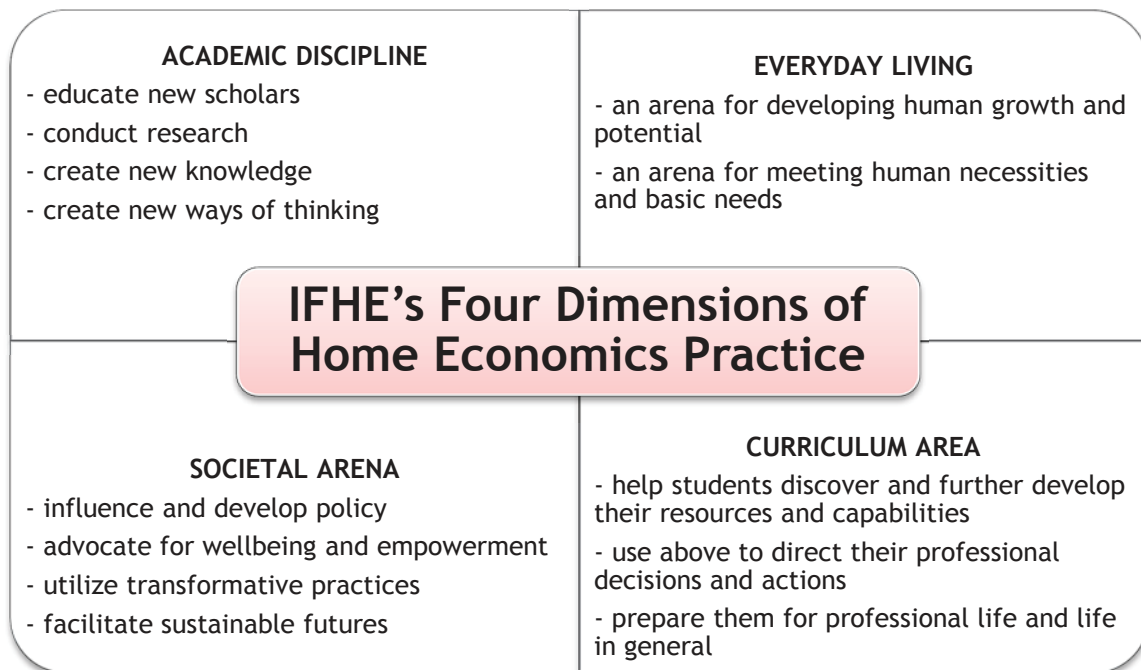
ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE
- educate new scholars
- conduct research
- create new knowledge
- create new ways of thinking

EVERYDAY LIVING
- an arena for developing human growth and potential
- an arena for meeting human necessities and basic needs

IFHE's Four Dimensions of Home Economics Practice

SOCIETAL ARENA
- influence and develop policy
- advocate for wellbeing and empowerment
- utilize transformative practices
- facilitate sustainable futures

CURRICULUM AREA
- help students discover and further develop their resources and capabilities
- use above to direct their professional decisions and actions
- prepare them for professional life and life in general

Figure 2   IFHE's four dimensions of Home Economics practice

Megatrends stimulus chapter

Drawing on future projections released by the Copenhagen Institute for Future Studies (CIFS) (see Anderson et al., 2006), the editors prepared a stimulus chapter (Pendergast et al., 2012, pp. 1-11), intended to provoke and elicit responses from potential contributors to the collection. It contained, among other things, 10 megatrends envisioned by the CIFS. McGregor (2012, p.24) explained that

> *a trend is a general tendency or direction for conditions or events, often pertaining to instances when something veers off in a different direction or experiences a change in momentum. Mega is Greek megas, great or large. Megatrends are large movements that become great forces in societal development; they define the present world and have the potential to shape the future. Well known examples of megatrends include globalization, aging and climate change.*

The 10 megatrends profiled in the stimulus chapter represented

> *great forces in societal development that will very likely affect the future in all areas over the next 10-20 years. [They are] a collection of trends, patterns of economic, social or environmental activity that will change the way people live and the science and technology products they demand.* (Pendergast et al., 2012, pp. 2-3)

The editors invited authors to draw upon these 10 megatrends as they developed their chapters. In fact, they suggested that these megatrends can be used as a method to strategically future proof the profession.

In short, the world's population is rapidly aging. Globalisation from the top down now characterises fast paced global interconnections. The juggernaut of technological innovation relentlessly rolls on in the form of information technology, biotechnology, nanotechnology and energy technology. The world is becoming more prosperous, especially due to economic growth as measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Human needs are more often being met by commercialization in private markets. A shift is occurring away from collective societal norms to personal individualization. People's health, wellbeing and environments are being compromised. The pace of change is accelerating, and this pace is exacerbated by the megatrend of organizing and connecting via technology-mediated networks. Finally, nearly half of the world's population now live in urban areas. This urbanization trend comes with its own set of problems, interconnected with the other nine megatrends.

Intellectual contributions from the book

The book contains 19 chapters from 35 authors based in 16 countries. Authors hailed from Europe (45%, *n* = 16), Australia/Asia (25%, *n* = 9), the Americas (15%, *n* = 5) and Africa (15%, *n* = 5). For example, there were contributions from Brazil, Malta, the Netherlands, South Africa, Japan, the Scandinavian countries, Germany, Australia, Canada and the United States. Virtually all of the authors were women university professors or lecturers. There were no authors from the Caribbean, the Middle East, India or Russia. This profile generates a

predominately gendered, Western-oriented perspective of Home Economics futures (except for the hegemonic-challenging contributions from Africa and China), and begs the question of what a non-Western, non-gendered orientation might look like (a project for the future).

A preliminary analysis of the overall content of the book revealed eight themes (see Table 1). Others are encouraged to read the book and suggest different themes. The following text profiles four of these themes as a way to illustrate the intellectual and philosophical power entrenched in this global collection of ideas about how to future proof Home Economics: philosophy of Home Economics, megatrend push back, changing families, and Home Economics stories.

Table 1   Major themes housed within the 19 chapters

Theme	Chapters
Push back against 10 megatrends in stimulus chapter	2, 11, 13, 15
Philosophy of Home Economics	1, 3, 4, 9, 14, 17, 19, 20
Perceptions of Home Economics	7
History of Home Economics	5, 6
Development and growth	6, 8, 10, 16, 17, 18
Changing families, homes and households	12
Transdisciplinarity	14
Japan—after the earthquake (re-conceiving sustainability)	19

Philosophical innovations

Half of the chapters contained content pursuant to the philosophy of Home Economics, an exciting development considering the editors hoped to see 'deeply intellectual and philosophical thinking' (Pendergast et al., 2012, p. iii). This theme is evidenced by several quotes from the book:

> 'I am calling for a philosophical conversation, and the deep philosophical study of Home Economics phenomenon, discipline and science' (Heinilä, 2012, p. 103).

> 'Home Economist professionals must mindfully assess the philosophical foundations... of home economics' (Molokwu & Kembe, 2012, p. 215).

> 'There should be more philosophical discussion, reflection and inquiry in the field of Home Economics. Professionals are invited to investigate the essence of Home Economics alongside other important questions. The philosophical ground of Home Economics should be strengthened' (Heinilä, 2012, p. 109).

To further illustrate this philosophical theme, Turkki (2012) tendered a collection of 'new landscapes and new 'language' to communicate and to reposition us in relation to others, other professional communities, and the world" (p. 38). She shared these philosophical ideas in seven diagrams (seven conceptual frameworks) with attendant narratives, anticipating that Home Economists can learn from these ideas as they strive to 'create meaningful futures' (p. 50).

Heinilä (2012), quoted above, suggested phenomenology as a new philosophical lens for the profession. She used the map metaphor to suggest that, if we want to philosophically future proof the profession, we need new *waypoints*. These are sets of coordinates or reference points that help people navigate a new area, to find their way. She proposed three new philosophical waypoints: aesthetic experience, bodily being, and enfolded everyday life (see also Heinilä, 2014).

As a final example, Kolodinsky (2012) advocated for Home Economists to turn to transdisciplinarity and complexity thinking to augment its long standing holistic paradigm. She argued that, as multifaceted generalists, Home Economists are more than ready to draw on transdisciplinary approaches as they lead diverse teams to study and address the complexities of everyday life. To mirror Heinila's (2012) suggestion, Home Economists would use many new waypoints, including boundary crossing and blurring, hybridity, non-linearity, situated practice, and integrative processes.

Megatrend push back

Another theme was the major push back against the 10 proposed megatrends. McGregor (2012) critiqued them for not referring to families, for limiting their context to the 34 OECD countries (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development), and for their neo-liberal, capitalistic, top-down notion of globalization. To counter these criticisms, she developed 10 counter forces couched within a life-centric perspective (e.g., localization, the commons, deceleration, kinship networks, and counter urbanization).

Jarva (2012) took issue with the mega*trend* concept, countering it with the Mega Crisis approach (see Halal & Marien, 2011). Jarva explained that the megatrend approach presumes continuity and space for planning, while the Mega Crisis approach presumes discontinuity, with little time for proactive actions. These two approaches challenge Home Economists in different ways. If we embrace the *trend* approach, we can assume there is time for long-range planning, strategizing and anticipation of opportunities. On the other hand, the *crisis* approach narrows our focus to the basic survival strategies of individuals and families in their everyday life (for example, see Otake et al.'s (2012) chapter on family life in Japan after the 2011 earthquake and the Fukushima nuclear disaster). Jarva leaves us with a pressing dilemma: 'The great challenge for Home Economics... is: can it tackle the problems both in a state of a Mega Crisis and in the long-term continuity of different trends' (2012, p. 154).

Lorek and Whalen (2012) claimed that the CIFS megatrend projections are far too optimistic. They urged Home Economists to paint a different picture of the selected megatrends and to go further than suggested by Anderson et al. (2006). Upon examining the 10 megatrends, Lorek and Whalen arrived at a less optimistic, different estimation about the future. They reframed technology and tendered an additional megatrend, climate change, painting compellingly negative pictures. Within this critical perspective, they urged Home Economists to 'future proof itself [by] helping individuals and families deal with the fallout and the opportunities pertinent to these and other megatrends' (p. 173).

Changing families, homes and households

Several chapters focused on the changing nature of families, but most compelling was Janhonen-Abruquah's (2012) discussion of transnational families, a term that recognises the global megatrend for migration (i.e., one out of every 35 people worldwide is an international migrant, and half of them are women). The term *transnational* 'acknowledges that it is possible for people to belong to several locations at the same time, and thus have a number of identities [in the new homeland and in the country of origin]' (p. 133). She explained that, in transnational families, the concept of home changes. It is not just a place of origin or current residence, but is also a place of belonging and identification that changes as an individual's life trajectory changes. Furthermore, everyday life for transnational families now exists in several places. More compelling is that they live some or all of their time separated but are somehow able to create a sense of 'family-hood', a form of survival unit (p. 133).

Janhonen-Abruquah (2012) also coined the term *transnational everyday life* (p. 134) and tendered a hot-air balloon flight metaphor as a way for Home Economists to approach working with and studying transnational families. This metaphor allows Home Economists to see migrant families from a dynamic point of view. These families are presumed to be able to influence their own activities, appreciating that the family (the hot air balloon) does not fly haphazardly but is also not under full control.

> *There is a need to see [transnational, migrant] family members as active agents who are to some extent capable of influencing their own activities. This model also helps to visualise the very essence of transnational families. There are both local and global forces which prevent as well as facilitate daily actions and accommodations.*
> *(Janhonen-Abruquah, 2012, p. 135)*

Home Economics stories

The authors of two chapters shared very compelling stories of the emergence of Home Economics in their country and the challenges now faced because of this heritage. Chen (2012) traced the origins of Home Economics in the People's Republic of China. She explained that Home Economics in China has experienced different stages of development from its introduction, total cancellation, and recent, ongoing reconstruction. Home Economics' history is closely related to the nation's modernization process and with the evolution of women's social status. In 1914, after the centuries-long feudal system ended, and after Home Economics was introduced into China by Western missionaries, the Chinese government sent women overseas to the United States to be trained as Home Economists. After the government changed in 1949, Home Economics was cancelled at all levels because it did not meet the needs of the times. Nearly 40 years later, in the midst of China's modernization process, Home Economics is reappearing in some higher education institutions but is not being taught by trained Home Economists. 'The reconstruction of Home Economics is still in its infancy. To aid this process, Home Economics needs to remain connected with the world' (Chen, 2012, p. 73).

Future proofing Home Economics in China faces many challenges mainly because 'the value and significance of Home Economics is greatly overlooked by Chinese mainstream thinkers' (Chen, 2012 p. 69). She concluded that the discipline needs to be formally and intentionally developed in China. Right now, it lacks a clear mission, purpose, body of knowledge, and research paradigms. Home economists in China need to develop a professional academic team, set up formal communication mechanisms, expand the academic institutional exchange platform, and cultivate more professional talents.

Miles away, on another continent, Mberengwa and Mthombeni (2012) tell a similar tale of the origins of Home Economics in Africa. They too recounted how Home Economics was introduced into African nations by Western missionaries. Starting around the 1950s, African teachers were trained abroad, mostly in England, Canada and the United States. They then returned to teach in African institutions. As a result, the content of most Home Economics higher education and public school programmes in Africa reflects a strong Western influence. The relevancy of these programmes has oftentimes been criticised as not being Africentric.

To address this situation, Mberengwa and Mthombeni (2012) tendered an Africentric approach for teaching Home Economics in higher education. They proposed an *ideal curriculum for Home Economics in Africa,* organised using the four dimensions of Home Economics from IFHE's (2008) Position Statement. To illustrate, an Africentric curriculum would (a) uphold core African values and strengths; (b) rethink, redefine and resuscitate core African family values; and, (c) embrace the cultural uniqueness of African peoples. These and other Africentric innovations are intended to silence the longstanding, inappropriate Western influence as well as address the pressing issues faced by African families in their local context. Other decolonised nations may be inspired to use this approach to future proof Home Economics in their contexts.

Discussion and conclusion

This paper aspired to entice people to delve into this one-of-a-kind collection of ideas about how to future proof the Home Economics profession, grounded in megatrends, and IFHE's (2008) position statement about the intent and focus of Home Economics. It identified eight themes and teased out four to illustrate the intellectual potential of these future proofing ideas: philosophy of Home Economics, megatrend push back, changing families, and the history of Home Economics.

Many other ideas entrenched in the book are worth exploring, including:

   (a) the potential of the solidarity economy and the creative economy;

   (b) communitarian development;

   (c) families during times of unrest and crises/distress;

   (d) capacity building, both for families and the profession (see Piscopo and Mugliett's (2012) model intended as a future proofing strategy); and,

   (e) Home Economics as folksonomy (tag clouds) (see also Pendergast, 2013).

Kolodinsky (2012) developed a deliciously creative approach (pun intended) to food as a system: *food cents*, *food sense* and *food scents* (drawing on every day, historical and scientific knowledge). Food cents refers to the economic vitality of the world's food system. Food sense pertains to environmental health, and food scents accounts for social equity and human health. Other compelling word-smithing in the book included the wellbeing *of the people*, a flourishing life, and sustainable feeding.

The 34 authors in this collection presented diverse and challenging ideas about future proofing the profession, strengthened by 'an unexpected but welcomed synergy ...that gives us hope for a powerful and sustainable future' (Pendergast et al., 2012, p. iii). 'The question of understanding futures has become paramount to Home Economics' (Jarva, 2012, p. 145). Encouragingly, this book shares compelling insights into how Home Economists envisioned the profession's future, as it is informed by transformational, accelerating and far reaching change.

The take-away message from this collection is that we have to change ourselves in order to be part of the future of humankind. The profession is in a very unique position of strength to meet the challenges of humanity (akin to *Home Economicsvergence*), and we must strategically future proof ourselves in order to capitalise on this convergent moment in time. As evidenced in this collection, there is no shortage of ideas about how to achieve this necessary intellectual, philosophical and practical strength.

Biography

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This refereed journal brings together emergent and breaking work on all aspects of Home Economics, and, most importantly, how we might improve and renew the everyday work of Home Economists. It features quantitative and qualitative, disciplinary and trans-disciplinary, empirical and theoretical work and will include special editions on key developments. It aims to push the boundaries of theory and research—to seek out new paradigms, models and ways of framing Home Economics.

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McGregor, S. L. T. (2007a). Consumer scholarship and transdisciplinarity. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 31*(5), 487–495.

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Volume 7 Issue 2 2014

**Twentieth Anniversary of the
International Year of the Family, 2014**

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International Journal of Home Economics

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Editorial Volume 7 Issue 2

Donna Pendergast

Publication in IJHE provides wide exposure to journal articles and adds to the professional literature base of the field. Theoretical papers, literature reviews, and a wide range of genres along with research papers are invited for publication in the journal. As editor, I strongly encourage submissions to the journal. The papers included in this issue of the journal represent a diverse range of genres but share a common thread—a strong link to enhancing wellbeing. All refereed articles have undergone rigorous, double-blind review, and are adding to the professional literature base of the field.

2014 marks the **20th Anniversary of the International Year of the Family (IYF)**, offering an opportunity to: refocus on the role of families in development; take stock of recent trends in family policy development; share good practices in family policy making; review challenges faced by families worldwide and recommend solutions. The International Federation for Home Economics (IFHE) has supported the anniversary with a campaign focusing on **"Empowering Families, Individuals and Communities through Home Economics"** and the *International Journal of Home Economics* (IJHE) has published this special issue with a focus on family to align with this significant anniversary.

Professor Donna Pendergast, PhD
Editor, IJHE

Developing learning games for culturally responsive Home Economics teaching

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Abstract

The increasing cultural diversity in schools represents a challenge for Home Economics teaching. Future teachers need the knowledge and skills to not only understand the cultural heterogeneity that exists in the classroom but to also act meaningfully in classroom situations and in cooperation with parents. We call these abilities culturally responsive teaching. *This paper discusses the experiences of Finnish teacher education students in the development and utilisation of learning games as tools used to incorporate cultural knowledge into learning and teaching. The games were designed by teacher education students with the aim of finding meaningful methods of connecting learners' home cultures with the learning culture in schools. Teacher students' experiences of playing games with secondary school students, vocational education learners and youth outside of school activities were analysed to identify the elements of culturally responsive learning and to assess the games according to the type of multiculturalism they represented and the type of interaction playing the games involved. The method used was qualitative content analyses. For the deductive analyses, a model (Raunio et al., 2011) that describes types of multiculturalism and various ways of interaction was used. The findings suggest that games assisted in creating opportunities for a* super diverse *learning environment that can contribute to culturally responsive Home Economics learning.*

Key words: culturally responsive learning, Home Economics education, learning games, teacher education, higher education

Towards culturally diverse classrooms

Teachers' experiences of societal changes have inspired Benn (2010) to ask how to improve learning conditions, circumstances and education within Home Economics education. The future challenges of Home Economics education focusing on consumer education have also been discussed by Jarva (2011) in earlier volumes of this journal. Benn's (2010) two-year action research project among grade 6 Home Economics students at two Danish schools was conducted to investigate participatory methods for change. Based on this experience, Benn argues the importance of research—and, more specifically, action research—for the development of Home Economics education so that it can better relate to the everyday lives of twenty-first-century students. Jarva's (2011) analysis of the challenges of consumer education calls for a futures-oriented form of consumer education that responds to the changes in consumption practices. Globalisation has also been recognised as one of the trends

related to the field of Home Economics (Pendergast, McGregor, & Turkki, 2012). Janhonen-Abruquah (2012) describes how a family operates as a network when its members are physically living in different countries or continents, still maintaining a close family relationship.

In this article, we focus on cultural diversity in classrooms as one of the major changes occurring in contemporary society. The rapid increase in the number of immigrants within the past 20 years in Finland is challenging the Finnish education system and teacher education. Intercultural education (Räsänen, 2007) is seen as one tool of global and informal education that concerns all citizens and is firmly anchored in lifelong learning (Kaivola & Melén-Paaso, 2007). The Finnish government has addressed the issue of education in the multicultural society (Government of Finland, 2011) stating that "The objective of Finnish education and cultural policy is to guarantee all people—irrespective of their ethnic origin, background or wealth—equal opportunities and rights to culture, free quality education, and prerequisites for full citizenship" (p. 50). The programme further claims

> Finnish culture and education will be openly international. The integration and employment of migrants, communication across cultural boundaries, and activities to combat racism will be promoted through education. Special attention will be paid to migrant young people arriving in Finland who are near or at the end of compulsory school age. (Government of Finland, p. 53)

In Finland, teacher educators and teachers in the field have primarily lived and been trained in a relatively monocultural society. However, in their working lives, they face culturally diverse classrooms. According to Holm and Londén (2010), the ongoing discourse concerning multicultural education has failed to recognise the various forms of diversity that exist in the country and in classrooms. Consequently, immigrants have been the focus of the discourse on diversity (Graeffe & Lestinen, 2012). Dervin, Paatela-Nieminen, Kuoppala and Riitaoja (2012) suggest developing multicultural education that is based in cultural-historical analysis and global ethics. It aims to understand plural meanings and does not domesticate students into nation states, nor develop competences that serve such purposes.

A common error in schools is to view all students with immigrant backgrounds as homogeneous. Warsame (2010) corrects this misinterpretation. In his study, Somali parents' views on, and knowledge of, their children's education varied significantly. The problems cannot and should not be considered narrowly—that is, as solely the consequences of immigration or a particular cultural or religious background—nor should the problems of immigrants be blindly separated from those encountered by the majority. Immigrants do not form a coherent group and neither do the so-called "native" students. Amongst all the students, there is great variation, for example, in terms of their identity, learning skills, cultural family heritage and socioeconomic status, amongst other variables.

At times, young people have to balance the expectations of their family backgrounds and those of the Finnish school system. Parents' impulsivity was seen as one of the major dilemmas of leadership in multicultural schools, according to the results of a study by Kuukka (2009) that investigated ethical leadership from principals' points of view. Immigrant families

and their youth face challenges because home and school cultures clash. Therefore, it is important to find ways to bridge families' transnational everyday lives (Janhonen-Abruquah, 2010) and the Finnish educational context. The assumption is that these connections will enhance co-operation between the youth, their families and the schools and indirectly improve the integration process of the whole family.

Cultural Responsiveness in Teaching and Learning

A critical multicultural approach notes that education is never objective, rather, it is always affected by teachers' value orientation and world views (May, 1999). It recognises the power of the dominant majority culture as well as that of normativity, and it calls for teachers to stay reflectively critical without becoming ethno-relativists. The aims of critical multiculturalism are equality, justice and transformation (May, 1999). This corresponds to Giroux's (1991) description of teachers as transformative, able to cross cultural boundaries and as intellectuals seeking change.

There may be conflicting ideas and interests as pupils live their transnational everyday lives (Basch, Glick Schiller & Blanc, 1994) but enter schools representing national structures. The educational system and curricula are mainly constructed based on a national point of view that is rooted in the assumption that a nation state exists and that there is one common lingua franca. Education and its aims are nationally defined not only to educate citizens but also to ensure the wellbeing and wealth of the nation. One of the challenges of education is that people live transnational lives, in which they act, live and make decisions across cultural, linguistic and national boundaries. Teachers are trained to work in an environment that is very much based on nations, however, they meet students who live *super diverse* (Vertovec, 2007) lives in their transnational families (Bryceson & Vuorela, 2002; Janhonen-Abruquah, 2010).

Both practical and theoretical tools are needed to help teachers to cope with diverse learners and to understand the ongoing changes occurring in society. In this paper, the concept of *cultural responsiveness* (Gay, 2010) is adopted. It is used in a manner that recognises the plurality of cultures that is present at all times. In fact, everyone has his or her own culture, thus, each social interaction is a multicultural encounter. The diversity in schools requires teachers to be culturally aware, to know about various cultural orientations and, moreover, to act meaningfully within a culturally heterogeneous group in a culturally responsive manner. This also sets new demands for the development of Home Economics teacher education.

Models for cultural encounters

Cultural stereotypes are based on defining the *other* (Hall, 1992; Löytty, 2005) and the borders built between—that is, *I* am defined by *me*, and the *other*, who is different from *me*, is also defined by *me*. Stereotypes may be based on nations, such as Finnish or Swedish people, or on geographical areas, such as America or Africa, for instance. Dichotomies constructed in a dualistic manner are common and include concepts such as north/south, east/west, black/white, old/new, rich/poor and gay/straight. This type of categorisation may serve to enhance familiarisation with the unknown world. The world views accompanying
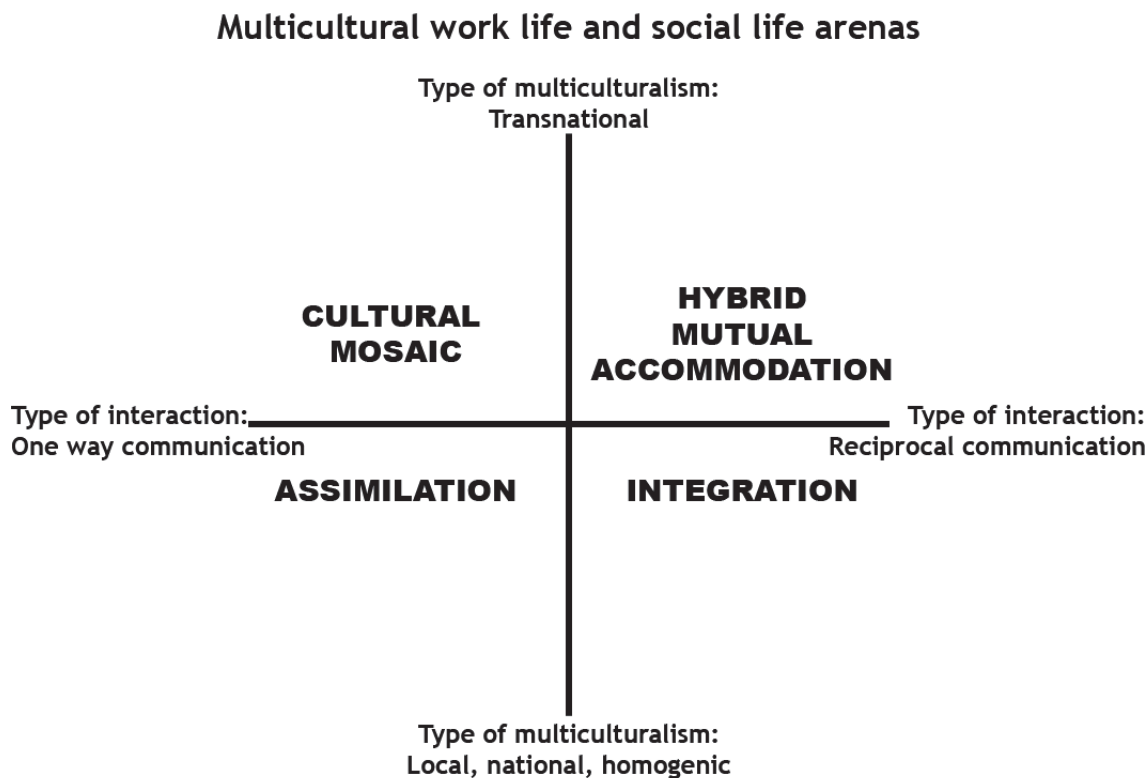
these dichotomies are too simplistic. The realities of life do not come in black or white but in all colours, shades and tones. The danger of the cultural categories arises when one forgets who has defined the specific category or starts applying the characteristics of the category to single individuals. The increasing level and kind of complexity of current multicultural societies require an approach that is able to capture the differences in transnationally connected people of multiple origins (Vertovec, 2007).

Novel behavioural patterns emerge as different cultures meet. In intercultural encounters, perceived boundaries are crossed (Hooker, 2003). This kind of boundary crossing leads to complex intersections of cultures, nations, languages, genders, social classes, educational levels, occupations and ages (Crenshaw, 1991). Power relations play a crucial role in these intersections. As people increasingly move both physically and virtually, there is a demand to shift away from the dichotomy and towards a more pluralistic world view. Salo-Lee (2009) describes this as a "we are all here and there" area, indicating that one's own culture is solely one context that creates meaningful definitions and identities. People move, share their professional and non-professional lives with *others* and cross borders even without noticing that these borders exist. Entering the frontier zone (Bryceson & Vuorela, 2002) enables new patterns of behaviour to take place. Moving towards a cultural hybrid zone (Hall 2000) shakes the power relations and provides an opportunity for more equal encounters. In the frontier zone, cultural and linguistic translators, gatekeepers and cultural navigators play important roles (Hall, 2000).

Theoretically, cultural encounters—when people from different cultures meet—have been described in several ways. Berry's (2008) acculturation model focuses on the concepts of *adaptation*, *integration*, *marginalisation* and *segregation/separation*. Attention is paid to how meaningful and important the culture of one's home of origin is compared to that of the new home country. The model sees majority and minority cultures being different from each other and acculturation taking place in people's interactions. The importance of one's own culture compared to the existence of different cultural frameworks is described in Bennett's (1998) continuum. When exposed to a new culture, one gradually shifts from ethnocentrism towards the ethno-relativistic approach. Bennett sees the change as a process of moving through stages from denial, defence and minimisation towards acceptance, adaptation and integration. The continuum illustrates how one first sees the world only through one set of glasses but gradually learns to view it through different glasses. Vertovec (2007) has introduced a "super diverse approach", referring to the intersectionality of cultural encounters that sees diversity beyond ethnicity and describes the interaction of variables of difference.

Raunio, Säävälä, Hammar-Suutari and Pitkänen (2011) developed a model (see Figure 1) that is particularly useful for the purpose of this study. It defines the four *arenas* (types) of multiculturalism and interaction present in contemporary Finnish work life and social life. The four arenas are identified based on two intersecting dimensions—*multiculturalism* and *communication*. The dimension of multiculturalism ranges from local, national and homogenic to transnational. The dimension of interaction is described on a continuum ranging from one-way to reciprocal communication.

Multicultural work life and social life arenas

Type of multiculturalism:
Transnational

CULTURAL MOSAIC

HYBRID MUTUAL ACCOMMODATION

Type of interaction:
One way communication

Type of interaction:
Reciprocal communication

ASSIMILATION   **INTEGRATION**

Type of multiculturalism:
Local, national, homogenic

Raunio, Säävälä, Hammari-Suutari, & Pitkänen, 2011
translated by Janhonen-Abruquah

Figure 1   **Types of multiculturalism and interaction present in contemporary Finnish work life and social life arenas**

The above model by Raunio et al. (2011) is used as a framework for our data analyses and is thus tested in the educational context of Home Economics.

The elements of successful multicultural Home Economics education (Figure 2) have been identified by Venäläinen (2010) and developed as her guided activating learning model, which has three important elements: first, teachers' multiple tool use; second, collaboration and peer work; and, third, teachers' ability to connect their teaching with immigrant students' everyday lives. When these three elements were present, a shared object was established in the classroom, and education was described as successful (Venäläinen, 2010).
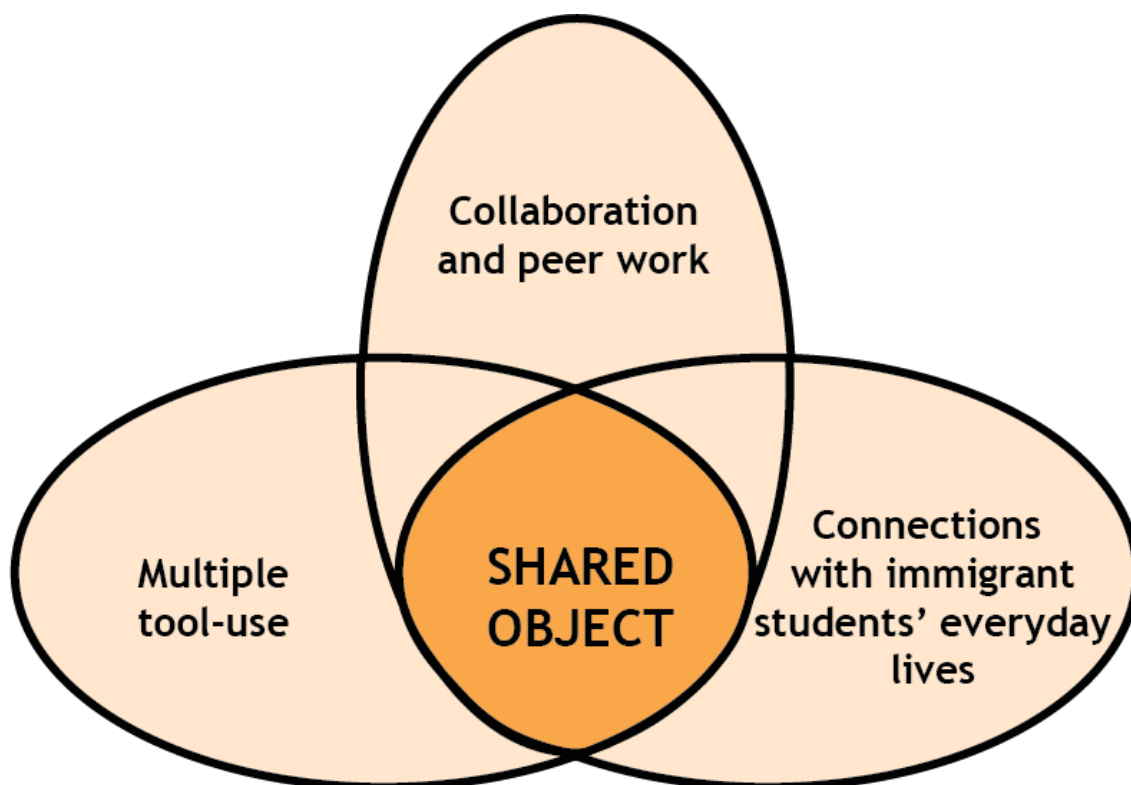
Figure 2   Guided   activating   learning   in   the   multicultural   Home   Economics   classroom
Venäläinen, 2010, p. 101)

University students' project: Creating a super diverse learning arena

A group of Finnish teacher students in the Home Economics Education programme at the University of Helsinki were provided a training module titled *Home Economics in a Multicultural Society.* The aim was to prepare them for the challenges and opportunities resulting from cultural diversity in their future work in schools. The university students were given the task of creating a super diverse learning environment, as defined by Vertovec (2007). The learning space, which was developed through playing games, was to increase reciprocity in learning and communication, deepen understanding of cultural diversity and facilitate the students' efforts to get to know each other. The starting point was that each learner is the best expert of his or her own culture.

As a part of the training module, Home Economics teacher students carried out a project with learners in comprehensive schools, those in adult education and with youth in outside school activities. The aim of the project was to help university teacher education students to get to know their students well and to understand everyday life from the latter's perspectives. To overcome cultural and language barriers, the student teachers were asked to develop learning games. This was also done to encourage them to learn about the everyday contexts of their students' lives.

First, the student teachers familiarised themselves with some already existing games that aimed to increase cultural awareness. They were asked to keep in mind that the games should enhance learning in Home Economics. The student teachers developed role plays, games that involved some physical activity, card games and a board game. They were then instructed to choose their target groups which consisted of culturally diverse learners. The games were played together with groups of primary education pupils, youth in vocational education, youth groups engaged in outside school activities and adults in an integration course (Table 1). The integration course was organised by the unemployment office for immigrants with poor language skills in Finnish.

The six games developed by the university teacher education students and the groups with which they were played are described in Table 1. The idea of each game is introduced first. The games were either board games (1 and 2), those that required the recognition of foodstuff (3a & 3b) or those that required some kind of physical activity (4 and 5). The categories were formed according to the types of multiculturalism and social interaction they represent (see Figure 1).

The games were designed and evaluated as tools for culturally responsive teaching and learning. They all featured different aspects of culturally responsive leaning: cultural mosaic, assimilation, integration or super diversity (see Figure 3). In the following excerpts, experience with each game is described by the players and the teacher students, and ideas for the further development of the games are presented.

The Finn Game: An integrative approach

> *One group of boys were enthusiastic and gladly talked about their own cultures. Another group of boys thought that the game was okay, but they were not thrilled. Everyone understood the questions well. They wanted to have more humour in the game. (Game 1)*

The board game on Finnish culture and its comparison to pupils' home cultures elicited mixed feelings that ranged from enthusiasm to dullness, depending on the dynamics within the small groups and the players' levels of Finnish language proficiency. The concept of a board game was familiar to the pupils. Developing a good board game takes time and several rounds of testing and development. The questions in the statement cards are a critical component of developing an interesting and relevant game. The teacher students suggested that statements and questions covering different dimensions of Home Economics could be developed to modify the game for the Home Economics class. Furthermore, the statement cards should better stimulate discussions, thereby enhancing reciprocal communication. Careful planning of statement cards is also needed to keep power relations equal and avoid pointing out the right way in which things should be done but rather indicating that there are various right ways. The cards should also provide alternative perspectives and challenge the students to consider new solutions. Different difficulty levels of questions could be developed to facilitate adaptation of the game to different groups.

Table 1   **Games, players and types of interaction and multiculturalism present**

Name of game	Idea of the game	Players	Types of multiculturalism and interaction present
The Finn Game	- A board game containing statement cards with introductions and questions regarding Finnish culture (society, festivities, food, etc.) - Students encouraged to reflect on the statements from the perspective of their own culture - Played in small groups of 4 to 5 students	- Pupils from the 6th grade in primary school, aged 12 to 13 years - Cultural background and heritage - from Finland, Somalia, Kurdistan, Estonia, Russia, Iran and Mexico	- Where reciprocal communication was present: - Assimilation—integration - Emphasis on one-way communication: - Assimilation—cultural mosaic
Monopoly	- A classic board game where real estate is bought, sold and rented - The player who collects the biggest fortune wins	Special education group of visually impaired students, two with an immigrant background, aged 16 to 22 years	- Instead of focusing on cultural differences, the game brought up differences in money use and risk taking - Elements of super diverse multiculturalism and reciprocal communication present
Recognise	- Sensory recognition (smelling) of 16 spices and discussions of their uses - Recognition of food stuff from cards	- Students in vocational catering programme, aged 16 to 25. - Cultural background and heritage from Finland, France, India, Cameroon, Estonia, Russia, England and Thailand - Adults, Finnish language learners with diverse backgrounds	- Emphasis on cultural mosaic, multiculturalism was mainly transnational - Potential for super diverse elements through reciprocal discussions - Emphasis on cultural mosaic
Take a step	A role play where the facilitator gives statements, and the attitude, opinions and behaviours of the role personality is expressed by taking a step forward or backward	*Group 1* 10 to 11-year-old girls in a non-school activity. *Group 2* multicultural youth group, aged 19 to 24 years. - Cultural background and heritage - from Estonia, Somalia, USA and Finland	- Features of integration if position of roles is discussed in the Finnish context - Discussions have a key role in determining the type of multiculturalism present
Me too!	- The things that unite and separate us - Chairs in a circle, one pupil in the middle, without a chair, voices *similarity / difference*—for example, "I like snow"—and everyone who likes snow stands up and tries to change seats, including the one in the middle	1st grade students, aged 7 years - Cultural background and heritage from Finland, Somalia, Nigeria and Ethiopia	Focus on cultural mosaic with the potential for a transnational perspective through discussion; opportunity to reflect on personal and cultural differences

Monopoly: **Reaching the super diverse**

> *This game could be developed as a good game for Home Economics and consumer education, where the mastering of everyday life and personal finances is recognised (Game 2).*

Playing *Monopoly* created an unreserved atmosphere. It was fun to play, and the players were excited and enthusiastic. The players helped each other throughout the game. *Monopoly* provided an opportunity to discuss personal and cultural differences after the game. As the game does not reflect everyday consumption practices, it should be adapted further to better simulate the use of money in everyday situations. The critical value of the game was its capacity to enable equal participation despite differences in visual and language abilities. The game was not played to focus on differences in eyesight or cultural backgrounds but on how money was handled in various ways.

Recognising Spices and Foodstuff: **Cultural stimulus activating transnational thought**

> *Group spirit was well established. I think the game is unbiased enough and did not enter anyone's private life too much (Game 3a).*

> *We managed to start a discussion about the topic in Finnish. We got to know each other more (Game 3b).*

The game was lively in the first group (Game 3a) and a bit more calm in the second group (Game 3b). Using English in the second group was a practical solution to enable participation. Translation was used in the first group. Students in both groups appreciated the opportunity to get to know each other. They reported that their conceptions about a familiar topic widened through discussing the use of spices in different cultures. The diverse use of spaces provides an opportunity to develop new recipes. The game provides an opportunity to learn about each other's cultures without intruding into private issues. The game has to be adapted to the skill level of the group to keep it challenging. Recognition can also be through tasting. Students liked the game as a good variation on the ordinary lesson and they felt that they could try their vocabulary in new situations.

Take a Step: **Changing cultural roles**

> *It made girls think that each of us has our own way of thinking and viewing life from our own perspective (Game 4).*

The game was a positive learning experience. It enabled discussion on difficult topics, such as adoption and refugee backgrounds. Thus, some of the statements were difficult, especially for the younger group. The game generated interesting discussions, therefore, it also required thorough knowledge on the part of the facilitator. Shifting the roles make them, and the differences between them, more concrete. Although it is challenging to step into a role that is unfamiliar and requires extensive discussion with the facilitator, this is also a strength.

The teacher students suggested that to develop the game further, the roles could be modified according to the group, for example, with a focus on the real differences between the

students in the group. The discussions provided opportunities to question and break stereotypes.

Me Too!: Focus on personal and cultural differences and similarities

> *They did not feel embarrassed by suggesting differences. They got even more excited as they were thinking of hobbies and countries they have visited (Game 6).*

During the game, the atmosphere was playful, energetic and almost wild. The pupils were enthusiastic about identifying differences and similarities in order for them to get into the middle of the circle. It was somewhat difficult to ensure that every student received an opportunity to go to the middle of the circle. It was also important to allocate time for a debrief discussion after the game.

To develop the game further, the teacher education students suggested that pupils could be guided to make statements about focused themes, for example, food and cultures. They also pointed out how important it is to know the group. It would be wise to begin with the similarities and then include the differences only if the group is ready. One could add variation to the game by enabling competition between groups instead of individuals.

Steps towards culturally responsive Home Economics learning

Playing learning games enabled the students to cross the boundaries between national and foreign cultures (Finnish/non-Finnish) and between home (family, informal learning) and school (formal learning) cultures. When evaluating the games, the first observations related to the strengths. The players found the games easy and fun. Learning games can create an informal atmosphere in which positive learning experiences are easily gained. In the games, each player is an expert of his or her culture. However, the risk is that some of the games are based on nationally dominated thinking and may, therefore, contribute to stereotypical perceptions and advance existing boundaries. To reduce or avoid this risk, teacher students were asked to reflect on the possible cultural representations in the games.

Culturally responsive teaching and learning reflectively recognise the types of multiculturalism and interaction that are exercised. Analysing the learning spaces created during the game playing, using the frame of the model by Raunio et al. (2011), all four arenas for multiculturalism and interaction were found in the games developed by the teacher students (Figure 3).

A cultural mosaic takes place when the various cultures are recognised, for example, during cultural themes, such as American cooking and Indian flavours. The cultures are presented in a showcase manner or as cultural exhibits. The plurality of cultures is recognised, but there is neither real interaction nor true reciprocal communication between the cultures. The *Me Too*! game and the sensory recognition games mainly represented a cultural mosaic approach. Cultural assimilation takes place when communication is mainly one way and multiculturalism is seen from the local point of view. For example, teaching the Finnish way of berry and mushroom picking during integration courses for immigrants is an example of an assimilative

approach. In the games analysed in this study, only the *Finn Game* could be categorised as following an assimilative logic.

Multicultural work life and social life arenas

Raunio, Säävälä, Hammari-Suutari, & Pitkänen, 2011
translated by Janhonen-Abruquah
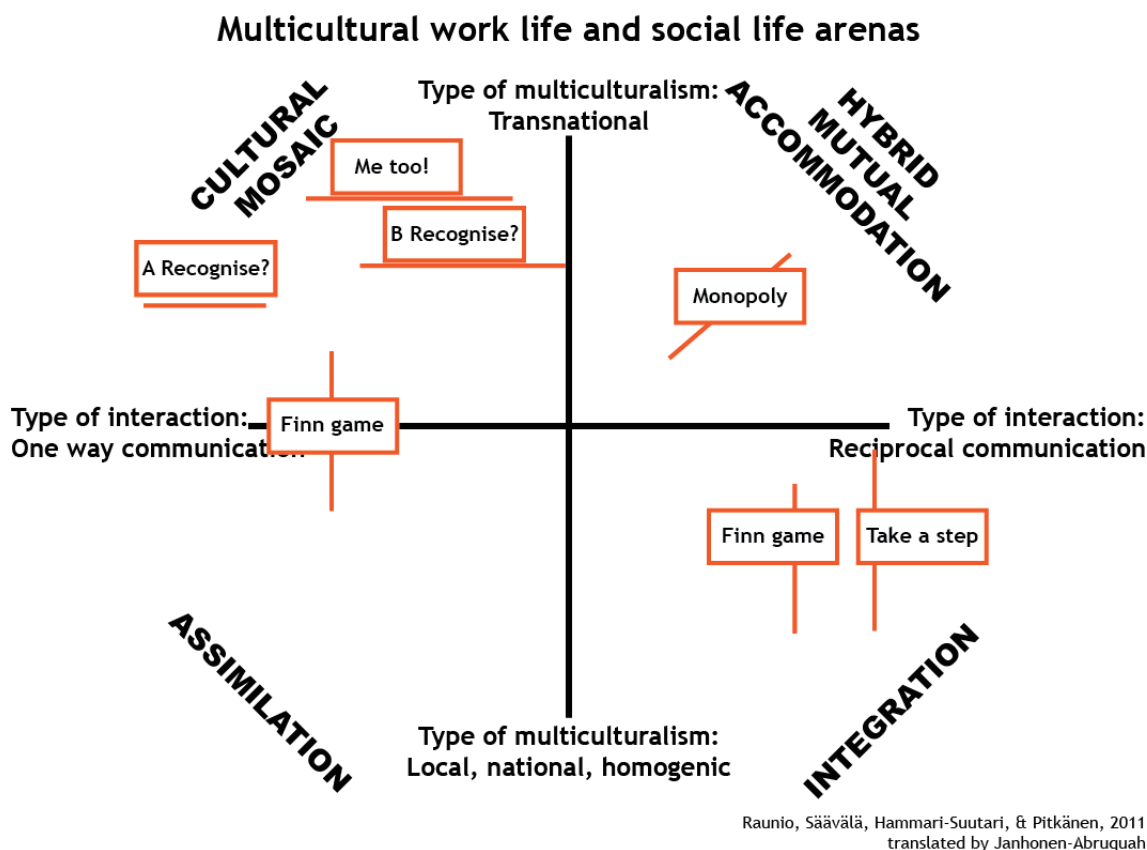
Figure 3   Elements of Culturally Responsive Home Economics Learning

The *Finn Game* and the *Take a Step* game, both of which related to immigrant roles, were viewed as representing the integrative approach to multiculturalism. Based on this approach, communication is reciprocal, but multiculturalism is viewed from the national point of view. The integrative approach could also be adopted in situations in which cultural experts are brought into the Finnish Home Economics classroom. Finally, super diverse learning takes place when multiculturalism is seen as transnational and interaction is based on reciprocal communication. Of our examples, the classic *Monopoly* game generated a learning space that could be described as super diverse. This encouraging experience with *Monopoly* suggests that different versions of the game focusing on content areas of Home Economics (e.g. health, consumer issues) could be developed.

The experience of developing and playing the games was generally considered positive by teacher students and the groups that played the games. The games enabled the creation of a relaxed atmosphere, and the introduction of the *game effect* in learning was valued. Playing the games created the stimulus for discussing important topics after the games. The games

were designed within the context of Home Economics education, however, games are such a generic working model that subject-specific adaptation is easy. Therefore, it is critical to plan for adequate time for discussion after the game to achieve the objectives given to the class.

Creating conditions for participating on an equal level, despite differences in language (and other) skills, is critical for creating super diverse learning spaces. Learning about multicultural issues can be made more effective by focusing on subjects other than multiculturalism. A question–answer approach can be challenging to students with limited knowledge of the language of instruction. Doing practical things also proved to provide more opportunities for interaction.

Through game playing, the teacher education students engaged in face-to-face interaction with the learners and obtained personal information directly from the pupils. The game playing also facilitated the teacher students' interaction with multicultural groups, and the ensuing analysis of the tasks stimulated their thinking on multiculturalism. The learning games were concrete training tools that increased their understanding of multicultural encounters within classrooms. The findings encourage further use and development of learning games in teacher education and as learning tools in versatile contexts. As a result, the importance of creating opportunities for learning in a *super diverse* environment is emphasised as a promising strategy for culturally responsive teacher education.

Acknowledgements

Biography

*University lecturer, **Hille Janhonen-Abruquah,** PhD (University of Helsinki, Department of Teacher Education) developed a visual research method in her doctoral thesis by combining photograph elicitations and participatory observations. She studied the everyday life of transnational families and constructed an analytical tool which handles both the visual and verbal data. Dr Janhonen-Abruquah has over 15 years of experience in teaching in comprehensive school, vocational education and at the university level. She has also taught in Ghana.*

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Päivi Palojoki is a Professor of Education at the Department of Teacher Education, at the University of Helsinki. She is responsible for the education of Home Economics teachers. Her previous studies have focused on the use of sociocultural approach in various contexts related to teaching and learning.

University researcher, Elina Lehtomäki, PhD, University of Jyväskylä, Finland develops study programmes with international and intercultural contents. Her research work has focused on education and development, particularly on inclusion of those who are marginalized education. She has had long-term research collaboration with several African universities. Details

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Re-envisioning Basic Human Needs in the AAFCS Body of Knowledge

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Abstract

The American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (AAFCS) is the only Home Economics professional association to have prepared a document called a Body of Knowledge (BOK). *This paper discusses the inclusion of the high-level concept of basic human needs in the AAFCS BOK, and shares nine ideas for how this core concept can be re-envisioned using updated versions of Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of human needs theory and Manfred Max-Neef's system-based basic human needs approach. It is anticipated that the ideas contained in this paper will inspire and inform other Home Economics professional associations to create BOKs. Such documents will go a long way toward ensuring a well-articulated philosophy and intellectual foundation for home economics practice in the 21st century.*

Key words: Body of Knowledge (BOK), basic human needs, well-being, AAFCS, Maslow, Max-Neef, Home Economics

Introduction

Over time, every profession accumulates a collection of key, high-level ideas that come to define the intellectual foundation of the profession. Home Economics is no exception. Informally, this is known as the profession's body of knowledge. Sometimes, professional associations take steps to formalise and codify this knowledge, creating a document called the *Body of Knowledge* (BOK) (Hernandez, 2012). Examples of professions that have articulated BOKs include engineering, accounting, medicine, information science, project management, and architecture.

Roubanis (2013) stated that "because a profession's body of knowledge is a universal stance on what is important, it provides an ideological blueprint for viewing issues and phenomena in the profession" (p. 47). With such power, it is surprising that the American Association of Family and Consumer Sciences (AAFCS), formerly the American Home Economics Association (AHEA), is the only professional Home Economics association in the world with an official BOK document, first created in the early 2000s (to be discussed). Any profession's BOK has to be dynamic so the profession can remain relevant and viable (*Body of Knowledge*, 2014). Baugher et al. (2003) concurred that the AAFCS BOK should be continually refined. Of interest to this paper is AAFCS' inclusion of the high-level concept of *basic human needs*. This paper shares ideas for how this core concept can be re-envisioned and revitalised using updated versions of Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of human needs theory, and Manfred Max-Neef's system-based basic human needs approach.

To develop this discussion, the paper begins by defining BOKs and their purpose, clarifying that BOKs are in their infancy in the Home Economics profession. After explaining each of Maslow and Max-Neef's approaches, nine ideas are suggested for revising the AAFCS BOK, ideas that can also inform initiatives in other countries that are interested in creating Home Economics BOKs. To mitigate confusion, the following caveat is shared regarding how the profession is named in this paper; that is, Home Economics, and family and consumer sciences.

The AHEA was formed in 1909. The International Federation for Home Economics (IFHE) was formed in 1908 (Arcus, 2008). IFHE recently decided to retain the name Home Economics. "Internationally, the field of study has consistently retained the name Home Economics and is recognized both within and beyond the boundaries of the profession" (Arcus, 2008, p. 165). On the other hand, in 1993, the profession in United States eschewed Home Economics and changed its name to Family and Consumer Sciences (FCS) (AAFCS, 1993; Vincenti, 1997). The AHEA subsequently changed its name to AAFCS, and American practitioners officially go by the name Family and Consumer Sciences (FCS). Although not widely recognised, the term *science* in FCS is used as Marjorie Brown (1993) intended (Vincenti & Smith, 2004). They explained that science means "a rationally developed body of knowledge and intellectual processes that can be subjected to criticism" (p. 66).

It is now an accepted convention in the United States that anything published in the profession before the name was changed is referred to as Home Economics, and anything thereafter is called family and consumer sciences. This paper uses this same convention, and uses Home Economics when referring to IFHE or the profession at large.

Body of Knowledge

At the core of any maturing profession is the establishment of a Body of Knowledge (BOK), a document that is generated and stewarded by a relevant professional association (Hernandez, 2012; Pomeroy-Huff, Cannon, Chick, Mullaney, & Nichols, 2009). BOKs represent the complete set of agreed-to, high level concepts, terms, principles, attitudes, skills, and activities that make a professional domain (Hernandez, 2012). They reflect attempts to map out the knowledge elements comprising professional competence (Morris, Crawford, Hodgson, Shepherd, & Thomas, 2006). The profession's BOK is its common intellectual ground, shared by everyone in the profession, regardless of specialities, sub-disciplines, or career paths (Institution of Railway Signal Engineers, ca. 2008; Licensor and Qualifications for Practice Committee, 2013). As "distinctive 'competence territory' that members [can] claim as their exclusive area of practice," BOKs are central to the perception of a profession, and indicate a desirable level of maturity within the profession (Morris et al., 2006, p. 711).

Bodies of Knowledge serve several purposes, amongst them: (a) defining the essential knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the profession (that set the profession apart from others); (b) establishing a baseline for developing, assessing, and accrediting professionals; and, (c) guiding courses and curricula in higher education. They (d) provide foundational knowledge for training and socializing new entrants to the profession, (e) act as a self-help tool for those wishing to maintain and improve their professional competence (professional development), and (f) even serve as a tool for refreshment and updating for members moving from one

career path to another within the profession (Institution of Railway Signal Engineers, ca. 2008; Licensor and Qualifications for Practice Committee, 2013; Morris et al., 2006).

To date, there has been no collective effort within the international Home Economics community to specify a comprehensive Body of Knowledge that defines the profession's domain (see McGregor & MacCleave, 2007). In 2008, IFHE released a position statement about the profession for the global community, but it is not a Body of Knowledge as the concept is understood (IFHE, 2008; Pendergast, 2008). Of the many Home Economics professional associations around the world, the AAFCS is the only organization to articulate a Body of Knowledge for its members (AAFCS, 2001; Anderson & Nickols, 2001), see next section.

Because the core concepts, competencies, and skills (knowledge domains) for any profession change over the years as the profession evolves, the BOK has to be dynamic so the profession can remain relevant and viable (*Body of Knowledge*, 2014). DiBiase et al. (2006) agreed that BOKs should be revisited and revised on an ongoing basis. Baugher et al. (2003) concurred that the AAFCS BOK is continually evolving, and must be constantly refined. In that spirit, this paper focuses on one particular high-level core concept in the AAFCS BOK and how it can be re-envisioned, that being basic human needs.

By way of justification, East (1979) proposed that Home Economists should focus on the home and family for the good of humanity (see also Sekiguchi, 2004). Pendergast, McGregor, and Turkki (2012) envisioned the profession as part of the future of humankind. The concept of basic human needs brings Home Economics closer to a concern for the human condition (Brown, 1993). Anchoring the AAFCS BOK in the high-level concept of *basic human needs* takes the profession a step closer to the human condition (McGregor, 2010a).

AAFCS' Body of Knowledge

Drawing on the Scottsdale framework document (AAFCS, 1993), wherein the American profession changed its name from Home Economics to family and consumer sciences (FCS), AAFCS first generated an official BOK document in the early 2000s (AAFCS, 2001; Anderson, 2002; Anderson & Nickols, 2001; Baugher, Anderson, Green, Nickols et al., 2000; Baugher, Anderson, Green, Shane et al., 2003). The Baugher et al. (2000) version of the AAFCS BOK represented the key elements using a cube, with basic human needs by itself on one side of the cube. The other two sides represented (a) five pervasive themes, and (b) five elements of a common Body of Knowledge (systems theory, lifespan development and individuals, families and community).

The 2001 AAFCS version (no diagram or visual model provided) revised the BOK so it contained three key concepts: (a) basic human needs (not defined); (b) individuals, families, and communities; and, (b) systems theory and life course development. AAFCS (2001, p. 3) confirmed that "at the center of the Body of Knowledge is the concept of basic human needs." Anderson and Nickols' (2001) version employed a nested-cup/concentric circle representation (see Figure 1, adapted and used with permission). Without defining basic human needs, they repositioned it as *the core* of the BOK, anchoring three other core concepts: individual well-being, family strengths, and community vitality.

In 2009, the concept of basic human needs was finally defined by the architects of the AAFCS BOK as the

> components of human existence that must be satisfied for individuals to develop their human capacity for personal well-being and interpersonal relationships that support social institutions and culture. There are both quantitative and qualitative thresholds that determine when basic human needs are met or not met (Nickols et al., 2009, p. 272).

The full Body of Knowledge is reported in a feature article in the Spring issue of the *Journal of Family & Consumer Sciences* (see *The FCS Body of Knowledge*, 2010).

Figure 1 Current version of the AAFCS Body of Knowledge (adapted, used with permission)
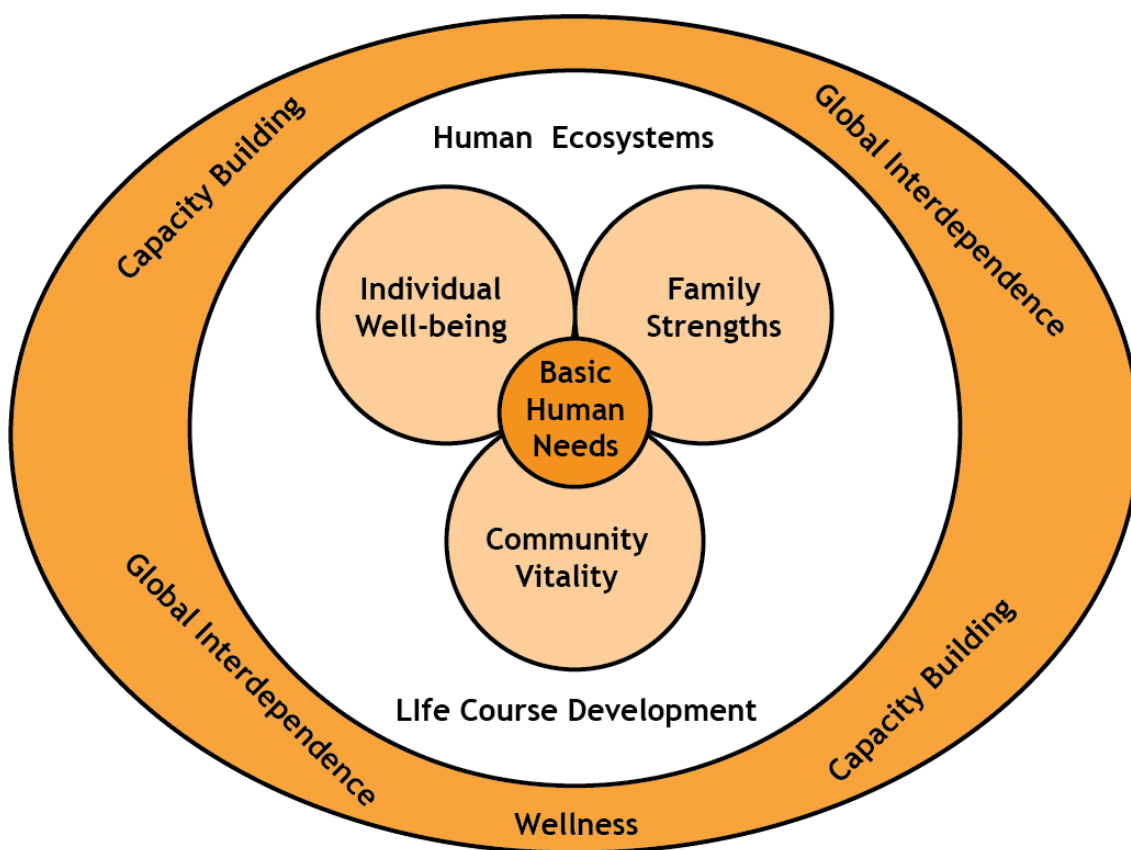
In essence, the most recent architects of the AAFCS BOK provocatively asserted that if people cannot satisfy their most basic human needs, they cannot reach their full potential as humans, which in turn negatively affects their personal well-being and their relations with others, rendering people unable to support social institutions that are there to support them. "When basic human needs are not met, individuals, families, and communities suffer" (Nichols et al., 2009, p. 272).

Making basic human needs the core of the AAFCS BOK is a marked shift from the association and profession's longstanding focus on well-being (see Brown, 1993; McGregor, 2010b;

McGregor & Goldsmith, 1998; Smith, 1997). Perhaps understandably, when conceptualizing basic human needs, Nickols et al. (2009) drew on a human need typology that is framed as *well-being* (used by on the World Bank) (Narayan, Chambers, Shah, & Petesch, 2000). And with another interesting twist, possibly reflecting an alignment of Home Economics' historical adherence to the concept of well-being with the BOK's new focus on basic human needs, Nickols et al. coined the phrase "**human** well-being" (2009, p. 272, emphasis added). This term is a marriage of human needs and well-being. Of further interest to this paper is their choice of Maslow's (1968) hierarchy of human needs, a revealing departure from the prevailing concept of *well-being*, and a complement to their newer notion of human well-being. These conceptual innovations are to be commemorated, in that they amount to a call for basic human needs for the sake of human well-being within the context of family life. These innovations serve as the inspiration for this paper.

Of particular interest is the BOK architects' longstanding use of the earliest version of Maslow's (1968) theory (comprising five needs), when actually it has been updated to include eight needs (see below). Also, Nickols et al.'s (2009) presentation of Maslow's approach did not include his basic theoretical assumptions or the finer articulations of his theory, a context that would provide deeper insights into why his approach has merit for FCS and for Home Economics. In a respectful nod to the architects of the AAFCS BOK, Dover (2009) noted that, regardless of the discipline in question, few textbooks or journal articles reflect the amendments and additions to Maslow's original theory.

As well, an unrealised opportunity presented itself while analysing the AAFCS BOK, that being the potential contributions from Max-Neef's (1989, 1991, 1992) basic human needs approach, which is predicated on systems thinking rather than a hierarchy. Because systems thinking and interdependence are key components of the current BOK (see Figure 1), an approach to basic human needs predicated on aligned thinking merits consideration.

Maslow and Max-Neef's Approaches to Basic Human Needs

Appreciating there is a range of basic human needs approaches and theories[1], this paper focuses on Maslow's hierarchy of human needs (see Maslow (1968, 1971) and Maslow and Lowery, 1998) as well as Max-Neef's (1989, 1991, 1992) system-based, basic human needs approach. Despite different assumptions for each approach, they offer valuable insights for Home Economics as a profession. Succinctly, Maslow assumed that people *must* meet their lower need(s) before being able to move to the higher levels. In contrast, Max-Neef (1989) eschewed the notion of hierarchy, assuming instead that

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[1] Other approaches to basic human needs exist but have not been included in this particular paper: (a) Doyal and Gough's (1991) theory comprising two universal basic needs (health and autonomy) and 11 intermediate, enabling needs; (b) Glasser's (1998) choice theory, which states that five human needs are not hierarchal (belonging, power, freedom, survival, and pleasure); (c) Fromm's (1955, 1997) eight basic human needs and three orientations (biophilia (a life-loving state of being)); love for humanity and nature; and, independence and freedom); and, (d) Murray's (1938) system of 24 universal basic needs (organized by ambition, materialistic, power, affection, and information), based on the assumptions that needs are interrelated and that specific needs are more important to *some people* than to others.

> human needs must be understood as a system... . With the sole exception of the need of subsistence, that is, to remain alive, no hierarchies exist within the system. On the contrary, simultaneity, complementarities and trade-offs are characteristics of the process of needs satisfaction (p. 19).

He presumed that human needs are interrelated and interactive, not hierarchal.

After providing an overview of each of these approaches to basic human needs, suggestions are tendered for how the current AAFCS BOK can be re-envisioned drawing on insights from both approaches. As a caveat, while there is relatively little empirical research supporting Maslow's theory (Neher, 1991; Wahba & Bridwell, 1976), his hierarchy of needs is well known and popular, both in and out of psychology. A similar critique and popularity exist for Max-Neef's (1989, 1991, 1992) approach, even acknowledged by himself. "Owing to the dirth (sic) of empirical evidence, it is impossible to state with absolute certainty that fundamental human needs are historically and culturally constant" (Max-Neef, 1989, p. 203). Nonetheless, Max-Neef's approach is still deemed current and applicable (Healy, Martinez-Alier, Temper, Walter, & Gerber, 2013).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs

In his original conceptualization, Maslow (1943, 1954) tendered five levels of human needs: (a) physiological (air, water, food, sleep); (b) safety and security (work, health care, safe community, shelter from environment); (c) belongingness and love (affiliate with and be accepted by others, companionship); (d) esteem (competent, accomplished, social recognition and approval); and, (e) self-actualization (awareness, growth and realised potential).

In more detail, Maslow (1943) theorised that until physiological needs are met, all other needs "become non-existent or pushed into the background" (p. 373). The urge to satisfy safety and security becomes dominant when people are driven to prefer routines, structure in their lives, familiar things, and organised religion. At the next level, people feel an urge to connect with others, to belong, and to be accepted. They also feel a need to give love as well as receive it. Maslow (1943) argued that for some people, the need for belonging and love is as intense as their physiological needs. He then argued that it is not to enough belong to a group; people also need to have status within this group, along with respect, a good reputation, prestige and feelings of usefulness. Only when all of the lower levels have been satisfied, does the urge to fulfil one's potential become potent enough to be the primary motivator of behaviour (Maslow, 1943, 1954). Discontent and restlessness will persist until people are doing what they are "fitted for" (Maslow, 1943, p. 382); when this happens, they have a purpose, are courageous and curious, and are comfortable with solitude; they have self-actualized.

In 1971 (published posthumously), Maslow added a sixth level beyond self-actualization, that of self-transcendence, the need to connect with something beyond oneself and the need to help others reach their potential and fulfilment. At this level, people possess the qualities of empathy, creativity, divergent thinking, innovation, humility, and intelligence, and they have a strong tendency towards synergy, the spiritual and the sacred. Maslow and Lowery (1998,

also published posthumously) added two more levels below self-actualization: (a) aesthetic (the need for beauty, symmetry and order), and, below that, (b) cognitive (the need to know, understand and explore, which involves novelty and curiosity), generating eight needs in total (see Figure 2).

Maslow's hierarchy of human needs is conventionally represented as a pyramid (see Figure 2, adapted and used with permission from Huitt, 2007). In this arrangement, the higher levels connote more influence, importance, or authority. The basic premise of this theory is that *only* when the lower order needs of physical, safety, and emotional are satisfied are people free to be concerned with the higher order needs of personal development and growth. Conversely, if the things that satisfy the lower order needs are swept away, people are no longer immediately concerned about the maintenance of their higher order needs; instead, they are too focused on survival (Maslow, 1971). This condition does not mean that the higher level esteem (social needs) and self-actualization needs are not *important* when people's most basic needs are unfulfilled (Tay & Diener, 2011); rather, it means that the higher level needs are not necessarily *achievable* because energy is being diverted to the lower levels.

Figure 2 Maslow's hierarchy of human needs (used with permission)
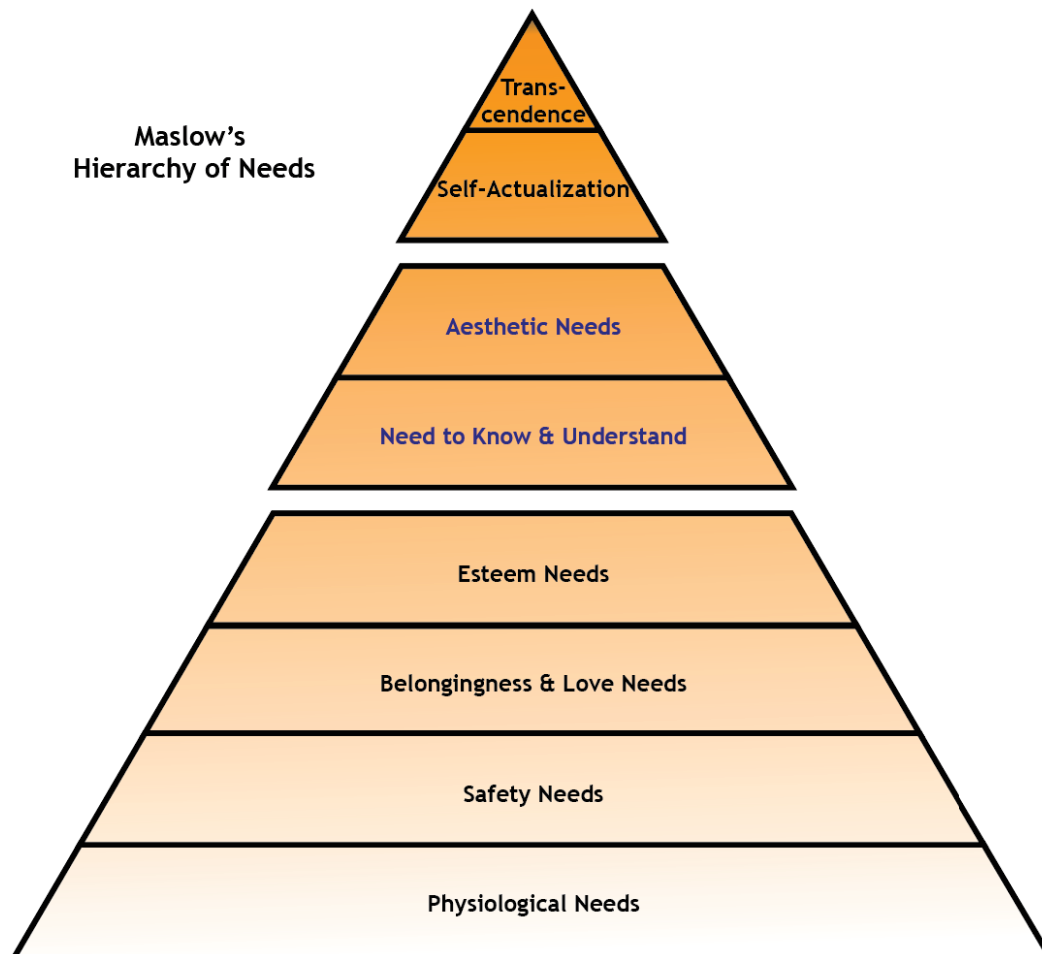
In more detail, the lower four levels contain *deficiency or deprivation needs*. If these needs are not met, people's well-being is compromised—security, food, shelter, personal safety, air and water, health, and emotional needs (connectedness), all of which are required for existence. The top four levels represent human growth and *actualization needs*; in other words, the quest for knowledge leading to character development. When these needs are met, people experience a greater sense of wholeness and fullness as a human being. Achieving or striving for transcendence leads people to deeper relationships with the unknown and the unknowable. People learn to connect to something beyond themselves, gaining wisdom and enlightenment (Maslow, 1971). In the case of actualization and transcendence, behaviour is not driven or motivated by deficiencies but rather people's desire for personal growth and the need to become all the things they are capable of becoming. He estimated that only 2% of the world's population will ever achieve transcendence of self.

Although not often articulated when people use his theory, Maslow (1954, 1971) actually posited that deficiency and actualization needs are interrelated rather than sharply separated; they are synergistic rather than antagonistic. He also appreciated that different personalities relate differently to these needs, with Huitt (2007) suggesting introverts and extroverts each have different understandings of self-existence, relating to others, and growth. Regardless, Maslow's basic premise is that the lower levels must be satisfied before higher-order needs can influence one's behaviour. It is a hierarchical approach in its truest sense. As one set of basic needs becomes sufficiently satisfied (e.g., physiological), another set soon emerges to take its place (e.g., safety and security). As those needs are satisfied, they fade into the background, replaced by still other needs (e.g., love and belonging), and so on up the hierarchy. The majority of people's activities (their behaviours) are influenced by which level of needs they are trying to satisfy.

Max-Neef's Basic Human Needs

Fifty years after Maslow's (1943) hierarchical theory was developed, Max-Neef (1989, 1991, 1992) eschewed the hierarchical approach, arguing that no need is more important per se than any other, and that there is no fixed order of precedence in the realization of needs. Instead, he offered a systems perspective; human needs are interrelated and interactive. He tendered a taxonomy of nine universal (*axiological*) human needs: subsistence, protection, affection, understanding, participation, idleness (leisure), creation, identity, and freedom. There may be a tenth need, transcendence, but he is not convinced that it is universal.

He further assumed there are four *existential* categories of human needs: (a) being (qualities), (b) having (things), (c) doing (actions), and (d) interacting (settings). Existential needs refer to experiences pursuant to being a human being; in order to *exist*, every human must fulfil their need to be, to have things, to do things (take action), and to interact with others. Axiological needs, on the other hand, refer to values. People will be, do, have, or interact in order to meet a need that they value or believe to be worthy of attaining (Max-Neef, 1989), for example, freedom, participation, or identity.

Max-Neef (1989) also believed that human needs are the same for all peoples; they are universal and constant through all human cultures, and across historical time periods.

Regardless of the culture, fundamental human needs are the same; it is what people *can do to satisfy* the need that is culturally determined, not the needs themselves. Strategies (i.e., satisfiers) for realizing needs are cultural, contextual, specific, and negotiable (Kök, 2007). What changes, both over time and through cultures, are *how* the needs are *satisfied*. Satisfiers are not actual goods or services (e.g., housing or food); rather, they are everything that contributes to the actualization of axiological or existential needs (see Figure 3).

Figure 3   **Max-Neef's Basic Human Needs Approach**
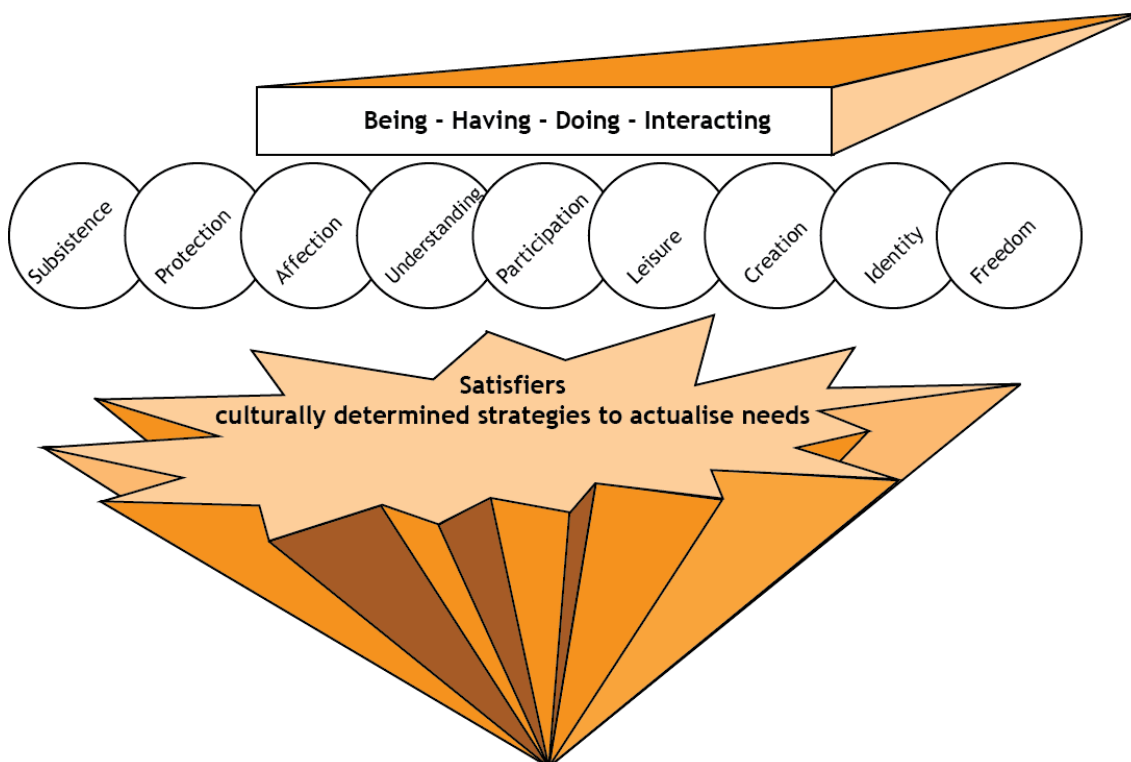
With this conceptual distinction in mind, Max-Neef (1989, pp. 32-37) tendered a process by which people can meet their basic needs (called *satisfiers* or strategies). Asserting that satisfiers have different characteristics (positive or negative), he developed five types. Destroyer satisfiers (usually imposed by others) address one need while destroying others (e.g., the arms race). Pseudo-satisfiers only *promise* to fulfil needs, creating instead a false sense of satisfaction and even annulling the possibility of satisfying the need they were originally aimed at fulfilling (e.g., a formal democracy seemingly satisfies Participation). Inhibitors satisfy one need while curbing others. Inhibitor strategies often stem from customs, traditions and rituals (e.g., over-protective family or parents). Singular satisfiers (often entrenched in State, private or voluntary sectors) meet one need while ignoring or being neutral towards others (e.g., an insurance system satisfies Protection). Finally, synergistic strategies satisfy one need while—simultaneously—stimulating and contributing to the fulfilment of other needs (e.g., popular education satisfies the need for Understanding and also satisfies the need for Participation, even Identity).

NEEDS 4 Existential 9 Axiological	Satisfiers (entries in the 36 cells)			
	Being (qualities or attributes)	Having (institutions, norms, laws, mechanisms)	Doing (actions and agency)	Interacting (settings, locations, milieus for social expressions)
Subsistence	physical and mental health, equilibrium adaptability 1	food shelter work 2	feed clothe rest work procreate 3	living environment social settings 4
Protection	care adaptability autonomy solidarity 5	social security health systems work insurance family rights 6	cooperate plan take care of cure help prevent 7	social environment dwelling living space 8
Affection	respect sense of humour generosity sensuality tolerance 9	friendships family relations relationships with nature, partnerships 10	share take care of express emotions make love appreciate 11	privacy intimacy spaces of togetherness, home 12
Understanding	critical capacity curiosity intuition discipline rationality 13	literature teachers educational policies 14	analyse study meditate investigate experiment 15	schools families universities communities family 16
Participation	receptiveness dedication sense of humour willingness dedication 17	responsibilities duties work rights privileges 18	cooperate dissent/agree express opinions share obey 19	associations parties churches neighbourhoods families 20
Leisure	imagination tranquillity spontaneity recklessness curiosity 21	games parties peace of mind spectacles clubs 22	day-dream remember relax have fun play 23	landscapes intimate spaces places to be alone free-time 24
Creation	imagination boldness inventiveness curiosity passion 25	abilities skills/processes work techniques 26	invent build design work compose interpret 27	spaces for expression workshops audiences cultural groups 28
Identity	sense of belonging self-esteem consistency assertiveness 29	language, religions, work, customs, values, norms, symbols, habits, reference groups, history 30	get to know oneself grow commit to oneself confront actualize 31	places to belong to everyday settings social rhythms maturation 32
Freedom	autonomy passion self-esteem open mindedness boldness tolerance 33	equal rights responsibilities accountability 34	dissent/disobey choice run risks develop awareness commit 35	ability to come in contact with people at different times in different places 36

Table 1 Matrix of Basic Human Needs and Satisfiers (based on Max-Neef, 1989, p. 33)

Using the nine categories of axiological needs, the four categories of existential needs, and the five types of satisfiers, Max-Neef (1989) developed a 36-cell matrix, filling each cell with various examples of satisfiers (see Table 1). The nine axiological needs are arranged in the left column in order of gradual enlightenment, from subsistence to freedom (akin to Maslow's ordering in his pyramid). To illustrate, Cell 24 represents different ways of Interacting to actualize the need for Leisure. Cell 1 represents different attributes necessary to actualize the need for Subsistence. Cell 18 represents different norms or role expectations for actualizing the need for Participation. Max-Neef clarified that

> this matrix is neither normative nor conclusive. It merely gives an example of possible types of satisfiers. In fact, this matrix of satisfiers, if completed by individuals or groups from diverse cultures and in different historical moments, might vary considerably (1989, p. 32).

Max-Neef (1989) maintained that his taxonomy of needs and his matrix of satisfiers allows for in-depth insights into the key problems that impede the actualization of fundamental human needs in homes, communities, and society. He further believed that all human needs are necessary, and all are equal. They can be realised at different levels, with different intensities (depending on time, place and circumstances), and within different contexts (individual, social group and environment) (see also Alkire, 2002). Finally, Max-Neef postulated that perhaps it is inappropriate to speak of needs being satisfied or fulfilled because they are in constant movement. "It may be better to speak of realizing, experiencing or actualizing needs, through time and space" (1989, p. 26). Despite this insight, he still opted to use the term *satisfier*.

Re-envisioning basic human needs in the AAFCS BOK

There is little agreement in the general literature about how to conceptualise basic human needs (Huitt, 2007), but this absence of concurrence does not preclude future architects of the AAFCS BOK from drawing on more contemporary conceptualizations. Although the AAFCS BOK is predicated on the original version of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the definition of basic human needs recently added (see Nickols et al., 2009) does mirror elements of the more contemporary approaches discussed in this paper. This alignment opens a space for dialogue about what is meant by the core of the BOK document, and how it can be re-envisioned.

To reiterate, basic human needs is defined in the AAFCS BOK document as the "components of human existence that must be satisfied for individuals to develop their human capacity for personal well-being and interpersonal relationships that support social institutions and culture" (Nickols et al., 2009, p. 272). The following text focuses on the main elements of this definition, and tenders nine suggestions for how to refine and revise the AAFCS BOK, presented here in bullet form, in no particular order of importance. As noted earlier, these ideas can also inform initiatives in other countries that are interested in creating Home Economics BOKs.

Basic human needs are components of human existence that must be satisfied.

McGregor's (2010a, b) historical overview of the profession's use of the concept of basic human needs revealed that the focus on human existence is a recent innovation for Home Economics. As a suggestion, future architects of the BOK could expand beyond Maslow's (1968) theory to include Max-Neef's (1989, 1991) idea of human needs, namely because it includes *existential* needs, which parallel the BOK's premise that needs are components of human existence. Second, Max-Neef's approach offers the notion of satisfiers, a concept closely aligned with the BOK's current definition—human existence is contingent upon human needs *being satisfied*. He then conceived five types of satisfiers, which, in combination, totally affect realization of basic needs.

Future renditions of the AAFCS BOK could benefit from the idea of satisfiers. If this were to happen, FCS and Home Economics' focus would also include the rich array of nearly 150 satisfiers set out in Table 1. FCS and Home Economics would analyse how well these satisfiers are working, yielding insights into fundamental human problems (e.g., poverty, injustice, freedom, exploitation). Such an approach was advocated by Brown (1993), when she proposed that Home Economists should turn to normative notions of well-being; that is, in addition to *describing* the economic, social, physical and emotional *states* of well-being or conditions of individuals and families, the profession should go further and *interpret* those conditions using such concepts as justice, interests, identity, equity, freedom, rights, responsibilities, and power (interestingly, these norms are scattered throughout Table 1 as satisfiers).

There are both quantitative and qualitative thresholds that determine when basic human needs are met or not met.

A threshold is the point at which something will start or stop happening. Maslow (1968, 1971) assumed that people cannot begin to meet their higher level needs until lower levels are satisfied. If the latter is compromised, the threshold for the higher levels is raised. Right now, the BOK draws on Maslow's (1968) notion of a *hierarchical threshold*. For anyone drawing on Max-Neef's approach, crossing the threshold to meet a need is not dependent upon achieving lower level needs but rather on the type and strength of satisfiers (see above). The BOK's innovation of thresholds would be enriched with Max-Neef's (1989) approach, more so because of his system's perspective.

In more detail, the idea of systems deeply affects how one would conceptualise the process of approaching and crossing thresholds. Max-Neef explained that

> each economic, social and political system [Home Economics could add family system] adopts different methods for the satisfaction of the same fundamental human needs. In every system [needs] are satisfied (or not satisfied) through the generation (or non-generation) of different types of satisfiers…

> …there is no one-to-one correspondence between needs and satisfiers. A satisfier may contribute simultaneously to the satisfaction of different needs,

or conversely, a need may require various satisfiers in order to be met. (Max-Neef, 1989, p. 20).

Threshold-dynamics inherent in need satisfaction would provide a powerful new lens from which to practice Home Economics.

People cannot develop their human capacity unless their basic needs are realised.

This idea reflects yet another forward thinking innovation from the most recent BOK architects (Nickols et al., 2009). Reflecting this assumption, capacity building is now one of the five cross-cutting themes of the BOK (see Figure 1). FCS practitioners could benefit from a richer conceptualization of basic human needs (other than the five Maslowian needs) as they work to help people to *build their capacity*. From a Max-Neefian (1989) perspective, FCS and Home Economists would help people to *gain the capabilities* to creatively identify and use satisfiers to meet their existential and axiological needs. An example serves to illustrate this conceptual reframing. The rhetoric of 'families strive to meet the basic needs of food, clothing, shelter, family relations, and health' (e.g., McGregor, 2009) would be reframed from a Max-Neefian approach. Food, clothing, and shelter would not be seen as needs, but as satisfiers of the axiological need for Subsistence. Health care would be viewed as a satisfier of the axiological need for Protection. Family relations would be a satisfier for the axiological need for Affection.

Indeed, the AAFCS BOK might also have to be rethought on another, related level. Currently, families' basic needs are positioned as specialization threads in the BOK (i.e., food, clothing, shelter, relationships, health, and economic and resource management). FCS are supposed to gain considerable depth in one or more of these specializations (Baugher et al., 2003). What if these *very same* specializations were re-conceived as *satisfiers* of needs? Then, FCS would have to learn about Max-Neef's nine axiological needs and four existential needs. This shift would be a truly radical innovation in the AAFCS BOK, akin to Brown's (1993) aforementioned suggestion that FCS should switch from a descriptive to normative notion of well-being.

Social institutions and culture are supported by humans who have reached their full capacity.

That is, people have to reach their full capacity before they can support society. This maturity matters because society also depends upon humans. This reciprocal relationship means FCS and Home Economists must

> analyse to what extent the [social] environment represses, tolerates or stimulates opportunities [for people to meet their needs, hence their capacity]. How accessible, creative or flexible is that environment? The most important question is how far people are able to influence the structures that affect their opportunities [to realize their basic needs] (Max-Neef, 1989, p. 26).

The BOK seems to accommodate this reciprocal premise, in that social institutions, cultures and environments are entrenched in the *human ecosystem* construct, presented as one of two

integrative elements of the BOK (Nickols et al., 2009), see Figure 1. One of the fundamental principles of ecosystems thinking is reciprocal relationships, intimating that the BOK currently honours Max-Neef's concern that people must be able to influence the structures that influence their abilities to actualise their human needs.

Personal well-being and interpersonal relationships depend upon the actualization of basic human needs.

This framing intimates that humans cannot possibly experience well-being and healthy relationships *unless* their basic needs are met. It flips Home Economics' historical approach on its head; Home Economics has always been concerned with optimizing well-being, *not* with actualizing human needs. To reflect this new stance, the BOK places basic human needs at the very core, surrounded by well-being (see Figure 1). But, it only draws on Maslow's five original human needs. The Max-Neefian approach offers an alternative model for appreciating *which needs* must be actualized in order to optimise well-being. Most compelling are the *existential* needs of being, having, doing, and interacting (not in the BOK at the present time), let alone the axiological needs of identity, creation, freedom, and understanding.

As well, future versions of the BOK could benefit from a fuller description of Maslow's (1971) actualization needs, especially the need to understand; the need for aesthetics (beauty, order and symmetry); and, the need to transcend, to connect to something beyond the self. These three dimensions of *being human* are not evident in the current BOK and should be considered, especially since two of the five cross-cutting themes pertain to connections to each other and the future (i.e., global interdependence, and sustainability) (see Figure 1). It makes sense to add the need to understand, to have beauty and order, and to connect to something larger than self. From these perspectives, FCS would appreciate that humans have a need to embark on a quest for knowledge, leading to the development of their character (note that moral, ethical, and spiritual development are already listed as cross-cutting threads in the BOK, Baugher et al., 2003). People also have a need to gain a greater sense of wholeness, and to engage with the unknown and the unknowable, sentiments that are currently absent from the AAFCS BOK.

Given Home Economics' longstanding focus on integrated and synergistic practice (McGregor, 2014), it also makes sense that future revisions of the BOK reinforce Maslow's (1971) postulation that the needs in his approach (see Figure 2) are interrelated and connected to each other, not disconnected and separate. Also, they are synergistic (stronger together, than alone), not antagonistic or in opposition to each other. These tenets are often ignored by people who use Maslow's theory (Dover, 2009). Even better, future AAFCS BOK architects could expand the Body of Knowledge document to include Max-Neef's (1989) idea that all human needs are necessary and equal, and work as a dynamic system, in constant movement. Augmenting the BOK with the principles of integration, synergy, and dynamic evolution would provide powerful perspectives from which to practice from a basic human need orientation.

On a final note, the BOK was developed by AAFCS for its members, who are mainly American practitioners, working in the United States. The U. S. population is multi-cultural in nature, meaning the BOK should reflect this reality. Max-Neef's (1989) approach better meets this requirement than does Maslow's (1968). Max-Neef believed that human needs are the same

for all peoples; they are universal and constant through all human cultures and across historical time periods. Regardless of the culture, fundamental human needs are the same; what differs is how people culturally satisfy their needs. With this insight, another opportunity presents itself. Although the professional association (AAFCS) developed the Body of Knowledge for its members, if future BOK architects were to embrace Max-Neef's cultural imperative, it would open the American BOK up to Home Economists practicing in a multitude of cultures around the world, rather than limiting it to American practice.

Conclusion

"The concepts and principles of basic human needs are central to FCS practice" (Nickols et al., 2009, p. 272). "The core concepts of the FCS Body of Knowledge (BOK) combine to target the central concern of meeting human needs" (Harden, Friesen, & Thompson, 2014, p. 29). For these very reasons, it is imperative that the approach to basic human needs employed by AAFCS be comprehensive and avant-garde. To that end, this paper tendered insights gained from applying recent renditions of Maslow's seminal hierarchical approach and Max-Neef's approach to human needs as an interactive system. In some instances, the suggestions for re-envisioning serve to affirm the BOK's current understanding of basic human needs, and in other cases progressive augmentations are tendered for future consideration.

Combined, the ideas in this paper provide insights than can augment and enrich AAFCS' conceptualization of what constitutes basic human needs in its BOK. Even more promising is the potential for fresh and innovative ideas for other Home Economics associations considering the creation of a Body of Knowledge document. Such documents will go a long way toward ensuring a well-articulated philosophy and intellectual foundation for 21st century Home Economics practice. They become "our touchstone for the future... and serve as a foundation for 'adding to knowledge'" (*The FCS Body of Knowledge*, 2010, p.7).

Biography

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Too bustling to cook? Management of food provision in German family households with employed mothers

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Abstract

Employed mothers in Germany still struggle to balance family and career due to an insufficient provision of care facilities with nutritional care services for infants and school-aged children. Our study focuses on the different concepts mothers apply to manage everyday life food routines. A mixed method approach of quantitative and qualitative data was used to investigate the conditions and barriers as well as the perception of the mothers with regard to juggling employment and food preparation. Evaluating the last representative German Time Budget Survey 2001/2002 (cross-sectional study of 5,400 households provided by the German Federal Statistical Office) within a quantitative secondary analysis of 2,007 mothers the results show that amongst all housekeeping activities most of the time is spent on meal preparation. The qualitative study is based on 48 open interviews with employed mothers. A typology of food provision types reflects the complex strategies and value systems of mothers used to accomplish daily food provision. The results highlight how educational institutions and child care facilities can provide a family-friendly arrangement of offering meals away from home, and support the mother's demand for a healthy diet for herself and her children.

Key words: food provision in families, time use, maternal employment

Introduction

There are few studies concerning food provisioning and food culture of German families which focus on meal patterns and social arrangement of meals. We define everyday food provision in family households by the dimensions *food preparation* and *everyday life food routines*. Food preparation includes the process of information search, organisation and planning of meals, shopping and storing, preparation and post processing of meals, which can be arranged completely or in parts within one's own household (private space) or out of home (public space). Everyday life food routines describe the organisation of meals in terms of ambience, time, human resources and social aspects. The studies which focus on food provision indicate two contrary trends. On the one hand, some studies show an erosion of the typical meal pattern with three firm meals in favour of a food intake which is individualised and dependent on the situation (Abt, 1993; König, 1998, p.51; Schlegel-Matthies, 2002). On the other hand, some studies demonstrate the cultural persistency of stable meal times (Brombach, 2001, 2003). Other qualitative studies explore the importance of shared meals in day-care centres (Klapp, 1997), the influence of poverty on nutrition behaviour (Lehmkühler, 2002) or mothers' responsibility for family food provision (Heyer, 1997; Sellach, 1996).

However, the amount of time that mothers can spend on preparing meals or eating with their children is affected by the amount of time spent in the labour market. As women in industrialised countries like Germany have increased their labour force participation, it is likely that the patterns to provide food in family households are affected by maternal employment. In Germany there has been a significant increase in maternal labour force participation. While in 1996, approximately 55% of mothers were employed, this proportion increased to 59% in 2009 (Rübenach & Keller, 2011). The rising expenditures of private households for eating and drinking out of the home indicate the willingness of private households to replace unpaid housework with paid services from public space (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2011). The present study describes and analyses everyday life food routines in family households with employed mothers. For that purpose a combination of approaches and perspectives of the disciplines Nutritional Sciences and Home Economics had been used (see Leonhäuser, 1995) in order to describe and explain family food provision comprehensively. The paper is organised as follows. First, a short overview regarding family policies and maternal employment in Germany is given. The next section describes the integrative research design, which combines quantitative time use data based on the second German Time Budget Survey (GTBS) 2001/02 with qualitative interviews with employed mothers. An empirical analysis based on the time budget data regarding time spent on food provision and eating in families follows. Qualitative interviews with employed mothers shed light on the different concepts mothers choose to reconcile family and career in the next chapter. Conclusions are drawn and major results are summarised in the last section.

Family policy and maternal employment in Germany

Family policies in Germany have undergone substantial changes (for a detailed overview, see Matysiak & Steinmetz, 2008 or Pfau-Effinger & Smidt, 2011) due to an increasing orientation of women in former West Germany towards professional qualifications and participation in the labour force, and the necessity to equalise the institutional system after the unification in 1990. Whereas in former West Germany, full-time working fathers and part-time working mothers during the period of active motherhood have been the focus of the welfare state, in former East Germany, the dual breadwinner model with state care was the central objective of family policies. As a result, public childcare availability still differs despite the fact that since 1996, all parents of children between three and six years of age have an individual right to public childcare. Even now, the differences in public childcare persist (Table 1).

Table 1   **Development of public childcare in Germany**

	Care rate (in%)			
	2002		**2013**	
	West Germany	**East Germany**	**West Germany**	**East Germany**
Babies and toddlers (0-2 years)	2.7	37.0	24.2	49.8
Pre-school children (3-5 years)	88.0	105.0*	93.1	95.6

* In the former socialistic East Germany, full-time maternal employment was enabled by a very good provision of public childcare. Therefore, 105% means that more than the needed places for institutional child care were available.

Source: Statistisches Bundesamt (2013), own compilation from Matysiak & Steinmetz (2008).

Trzcinski (2000) emphasises that family policy in Germany provides strong financial and social support for children. However, the law and politics encourage child rearing to take place at home, with one of the parents focussing extensively on child rearing and family responsibilities. Matysiak and Steinmetz (2008) agree that in the middle of the 2000s, German family policies did not aim at a full labour market integration of women, but rather created settings for a discontinuous female working career. Although since August 2013, public childcare for the very young (aged 0-2) is guaranteed, low supply of public childcare combined with short and inflexible opening hours of childcare facilities often only permits part-time care and leads to mothers pulling out of work and into inactivity for the care period. This is especially true for West Germany. Consequently, in 2009 84% of mothers in West Germany stated that they deliberately chose a part-time job for family reasons, whereas only 48% of mothers in East Germany work part-time for family reasons (Rübenach & Keller, 2011). Table 2 highlights the still different employment patterns between mothers in West versus East Germany. In 2009, the proportion of mothers employed full-time in East Germany (54.6%) was more than twice as high as in West Germany (24.4%).

Table 2   **Maternal employment patterns in Germany**

Amount of work	1996		2009	
	West Germany	East Germany	West Germany	East Germany
Full-time*	37.5	76.7	24.4	54.6
Part-time±	62.5	23.3	75.6	45.5

* Share of full-time working mothers among all employed mothers (without parental leave)

± Share of part-time working mothers among all employed mothers (without parental leave)

Source: Rübenach & Keller, 2011

Instead of reducing time spent in the labour market by working only part-time, Pfau-Effinger (2009) emphasises that many mothers choose to organise care and food provision by grandparents or other relatives. In 2005, nearly one-fifth of the employed mothers used this option (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2006). Another possibility is childcare by paid child-minders at their homes, where families can get considerable tax relief if they declare the employment (Pfau-Effinger, 2009).

Study design: Purpose and methods

Everyday food provision is influenced by a combination of meaning-positings of the family members, particularly of the mother (influenced by values, cultural norms, attitudes), the input of resources in the family household (time, material and social circumstances, acquired knowledge or experience) and the existing scope of action in the household environment (von Schweitzer, 1991, 2006). According to these conditions every single household needs to develop a food provision type which will fulfil the needs of all family members in terms of nutritional physiology and food preferences.

Different types of family food provision can be integrated in the context of the household work strategy. Household work strategies are defined as the typical pattern of the everyday organisation of private households to ensure elementary requirements. On the one hand, they are determined by available resources of the household and on the other, by the life plan of

the family members. In general, household work strategies are mainly affected by personal values, gender roles and intergenerationality as well as by conditions of the household's environment. They may be imposed by one person or be decided collectively, preceded by household's internal processes of negotiation and decision-making between the household members, to coordinate individual needs and interests, moral concepts and lifestyle preferences (micro level). Household work strategies are formed in the context of options and necessities specific for the social environment (meso level) and are developed by societal structure (macro level) (Meier, 2000, p. 59). Household work strategies as well as strategies of food provision are formed depending on time and resources.

This study is based on an integrative research design. It combines approaches and perspectives of the disciplines Nutritional Sciences and Home Economics as well as quantitative and qualitative methods which are used to provide an in-depth understanding of the research topic. Qualitative interviews with employed mothers were conducted to gain a comprehensive overview of food provisioning in family households.

We used data from the most recent GTBS 2001/02 to determine time use patterns for food provisioning. The GTBS is a cross-sectional study of approximately 5,400 households, 12,600 persons and 37,700 diary days, provided by the German Federal Statistical Office. Respondents were asked to complete the time diaries on assigned days. Nearly all of the respondents completed the diaries for all three days. These three days consisted of two weekdays and one weekend day. The activities were recorded in 10-minute intervals for over 200 activities. In order to avoid seasonal biases, the survey was conducted between April 2001 and March 2002. More substantive and methodological details of the last GTBS are described in Ehling, Holz and Kahle (2001). The GTBS differs from other time use surveys such as the American Time Use Study (ATUS) because in addition to all adult household members, it also surveys children. All household members over the age of 10 were asked to complete time diaries for the same three day period. Children under age of 10 were not included in the survey. In the conducted secondary analysis of the quantitative time budget data, time use patterns in 2,007 family households were analysed by the degree of maternal labour force participation. The analysis of the representative time budget data provided an insight into meal patterns of German family households, the relevance of eating and drinking outside home, and time spent on food preparation in comparison to other household tasks.

Note that the GTBS data are representative, but cannot offer explanations on underlying factors of the analysed time use patterns. Qualitative interviews were conducted to close this gap and to achieve a comprehensive insight into the food provision in family households with employed mothers. The findings of the analysis of the time budget data were used in order to generate a guideline for the qualitative interviews. The stratification of the qualitative interviews with employed mothers (Table 3) considered the professional category (freelancer, officials, white-collar worker and blue-collar worker), degree of employment (full time or part time) and the children's age (below or above 10 years of age). The recruitment was done through purposeful sampling via University intranet recall (group 1) as well as via companies and firms (groups 3 and 4) and through snowball sampling (group 2). The variety of these characteristics leads to a matrix with 16 different combinations and a total of 48 interviews for the qualitative survey.

Table 3   Stratification of qualitative interviews

Occupational group	Part-time employed with children aged		Full-time employed with children aged	
	under 10 years	10 years and older	under 10 years	10 years and older
1 Women in higher income and occupational groups (e.g., officials like teachers, professors, managers)	3	3	3	3
2 Freelancer	3	3	3	3
3 White-collar worker	3	3	3	3
4 Blue-collar worker	3	3	3	3

Source: Own compilation

Quantitative analysis based on the GTBS 2001/02

Cooking or cleaning? The importance of food preparation within domestic activities

Characteristic for the time use of employed mothers is a great effort in the field of public time (employment, volunteer work etc.) and family time (welfare work, care maintenance) which leaves little scope for their own personal time (sleeping, personal hygiene, eating and drinking, leisure) (Beblo, 2001). Table 4 illustrates the importance of food preparation within domestic activities. Methodologically, three different key figures were determined: first, the *average time use per person asked*. It describes the average time use of all informants for a particular activity per day, irrespective of whether this activity was performed or not. Second, the *average time use per person practised* characterises how much time is spent for a particular activity by the people who really practised the respective activity this day. For example the activity *laundry* is performed by few people per day. Therefore, the average time use per person asked would be very low, but the average time use per person practised would be much higher, because only the time use of the people who do the laundry would be considered. The last key figure is the *average percent engaged* which gives the percentage of people who carry out the respective activity per day. In the table we present the mean time mothers spent on different household tasks per day as well as the average percent of them engaged in the activity. Regardless of the different degrees of the mothers' employment, the amount of time spent on food preparation is clearly higher compared to other domestic activities like indoor cleaning or laundry. Furthermore, the analysis of the time budget data shows an effect of maternal work on food preparation activities.

On average, full-time employed mothers spent 1 hour and 1 minute on food preparation, part-time employed mothers spent 1 hour and 14 minutes and non-employed mothers spent 1 hour and 36 minutes. Full-time employed mothers who are engaged in cooking spent on average 1 hour and 11 minutes on this activity (part-time employed mothers: 1 hour and 20 minutes; non-employed mothers: 1 hour and 41 minutes). 85.7% of the full-time employed mothers were involved in the activity of cooking, doing the dishes or planning the meals, whereas 92.9% (94.9%) of part-time employed (non-employed) mothers were engaged in food preparation.

Table 4   **Mother's time spent on housework activities**

Maternal Employment Status	Mothers' time spent on			
	Average time use	Food preparation	Indoor cleaning	Laundry
Full-time	Average time use per person asked (h:mm)	1:01	0:40	0:23
	Average time use per person practised (h:mm)	1:11	0:58	0:50
	Average percent engaged in the activity per day (%)	85.7	68.6	46
Part-time	Average time use per person asked (h:mm)	1:14	0:59	0:33
	Average time use per person practised (h:mm)	1:20	1:10	1:00
	Average percent engaged in the activity per day (%)	92.9	83.5	55.2
Non-employed	Average time use per person asked (h:mm)	1:36	1:12	0:39
	Average time use per person practised (h:mm)	1:41	1:24	1:07
	Average percent engaged in the activity per day (%)	94.9	85.7	58.3

Source: Own calculations based on the GTBS 2001/02

The importance of the private sphere for eating and drinking

Expenditures for eating out are increasing. However, the time budget data show that in family households the intake of meals at home predominates eating and drinking away from home (see Table 5). Furthermore, with an increasing amount of time spent on gainful employment, mothers reduce their time spent on eating. Mothers working full-time on average spend approximately 20 minutes less on eating and drinking than their non-working counterparts. On average, full-time employed mothers spend 1 hour and 21 minutes eating at home, part-time employed mothers 1 hour and 30 minutes and non-employed mothers 1 hour and 43 minutes. Due to very high values for the average percent engaged in the eating activities per day (higher than 95% for all mothers), the difference of time between average time per person asked and per person practised is small. Whereas nearly all mothers tend to eat at home, the degree of participation in eating away from home differs with respect to the employment status. 30.1% of the mothers working full-time report that they ate or drank away from home, whereas the degree of participation is considerably lower for part-time or non-employed mothers (21.2 and 14.6%).

Children aged ten and older spend about 1 hour eating at home and less than 20 minutes eating away from home regardless of the amount of time their mothers spend on gainful employment. Quite interestingly, children's degree of participation in eating away from home does not vary substantially with maternal employment status.

Table 5   Mother's and children's time spent on eating and drinking*

Maternal employment status		Mother's time spent on eating and drinking			Children's time spent on eating and drinking*		
		At home	Away from home	Total	At home	Away from home	Total
Full-time	Average time use per person asked (h:mm)	1:21	0:17	**1:37**	1:04	0:18	**1:22**
	Average time use per person practised (h:mm)	1:24	0:55	**1:38**	1:10	1:01	**0:25**
	Average percent engaged in the activity per day (%)	96.3	30.1	**99.6**	92.1	29	**97.1**
Part-time	Average time use per person asked (h:mm)	1:30	0:15	**1:45**	1:04	0:16	**1:20**
	Average time use per person practised (h:mm)	1:33	1:10	**1:46**	1:08	1:03	**1:22**
	Average percent engaged in the activity per day (%)	97	21.2	**99.5**	94.1	25.8	**98.2**
Non-employed	Average time use per person asked (h:mm)	1:43	0:12	**1:55**	1:08	0:17	**1:25**
	Average time use per person practised (h:mm)	1:47	1:19	**1:55**	1:13	1:00	**1:26**
	Average percent engaged in the activity per day (%)	96.4	14.6	**99.5**	93	27.7	**98.7**

* In the GTBS, only children ten years and older report their time use in the time diaries.

Source: Own calculations based on the GTBS 2001/02

Findings from the qualitative interviews

Findings from the time budget survey raise the question of which motives and values, resources and scope of actions determine the organisation of family food provision. Food provision is not per se describable and can not be generalised. Therefore an aggregation of the findings was conducted in terms of generating different types, according to the empirical-based typology according to Kluge (1999). The households' internal processes of decision making and negotiation are important for the constitution of the different family food caring types. The two dimensions *meal pattern* and *available resources* of the family food provision typology were derived inductive-deductively (see Table 6).

Table 6   Typology of food caring types in German family households

Available resources	Meal pattern			
	Joint meals at home	Joint and individual meals at home	Joint and individual meals away from home	Individual meals at home and away from home
High	Pragmatic self-employed		Career oriented net workers	Relaxed unconventionalists
Medium	Family oriented traditionalists			Ambivalent eating individualists
Low		Overstrained lone-fighters		Self-sacrificing mothers

Source: Own compilation based on the qualitative interviews.

The dimension *meal pattern* reflects where the meals are eaten and who is present during mealtimes. The dimension *available resources* shows the different resources (financial as well as available networks) the interviewed households can depend on. After determining the characteristics and classification of the family households, further common characteristics were identified for all research items and checked for their meaning (see Leonhäuser, Meier-Gräwe, Möser, Zander & Köhler 2009). The typology was completed with the subsequent characterisation of the seven generated types. The following description of the formed types of the mother's food caring is derived from habits concerning everyday food provision, occupation and personal interests:

1. Family-orientated traditionalists

2. Ambivalent eating individualists

3. Pragmatic self-employed

4. Career-orientated net workers

5. Overstrained lone-fighters

6. Relaxed un-conventionalists

7. Self-sacrificing mothers

Four out of the seven different food caring types are described in detail below (more materials on the not discussed food caring styles are available upon request). They represent the most controversial strategies on the food provision management in family households.

Family-orientated traditionalists

> *We will get it through and consequently eat together as a family (Household 4)*

The type of family-orientated traditionalists represents the most frequent style in our sample, as one-third of the interviewed households (*n* = 16) belong to this group. In all family households of this type part-time working mothers take care of their school-aged children's meals. Despite of the mothers' high professional qualification, the working hours were reduced after giving birth to ensure the food provision and to take care of the children in the afternoon. An essential part of the mothers' identification and role perception as mother and provider is the daily preparation of a hot and healthy meal for their children. Compared to families with young school-aged children, where the mothers are present at all main meals, in families with older school-aged children either a common breakfast or dinner is cancelled in favour of personal interests. This can be attributed to the increasing autonomy of older children. The high sense of responsibility to ensure a good and healthy nutrition for the family and particularly for the children explains that the meal arrangement takes place nearly exclusively at home. Wishing to feed the family with a well-balanced diet considering individual consumption habits defines why the mothers like to cook daily. The full-time working fathers aren't involved in the planning and organisation of the meals. The family-orientated traditionalists are satisfied with their occupational situation as well as with the food provision for their families.

Pragmatic self-employed

> *Because I'm not the slave of my kitchen (Household 15)*

Families with children up to the age of six are part of this group of households (*n* = 3). The parents are characterised by a high professional qualification and are both employed full-time. The mothers are self-employed with self-determined working hours, and this conscious decision seems to be an individual solution to satisfy occupational ambitions on the one hand and fulfil the requirements of the family on the other hand. The workplace at home or near home allows the mothers to eat all main meals together with their children. Because of the high occupational workload, they prepare the hot lunch in accordance to little time and effort: they use tinned food, frozen vegetables and convenience food or buy public take-away-food more often than other mothers. The nutritional physiology is less important than the socio-communicative function of a common meal.

In emergency situations they can revert to the help and assistance of the grandmothers. Furthermore, they expect independence and personal responsibility from their children and involve them in food preparation activities at an early stage (but age-based). Despite a high daily load of occupational and provisioning activities, the self-employed mothers are satisfied with their occupational and living situation and their food caring practices. This is also due to the fact that their partners are supporting the food work as long as their time resources allow.

Career-orientated net workers

> *We eat [dinner] at home because then all four of us are present. This happens between 7 p.m. and 7:30 p.m. Then everybody is there (…) and the children know that they have to be there irrespective of what they do. Hmmm, yes, this lasts for about one hour, because we naturally have to discuss a lot. (Household 6)*

The full-time employed mothers (*n* = 12) who can be classified in this type feel burdened with the coordination of the qualitatively challenging food provisioning for their children and the demands of their occupation. In the conflict between their occupational career on the one hand and the high evaluation of the provisioning of their children with a hot meal on the other hand, they delegate the food provision to public networks. In no other group do paid child-minders, home helpers and nannies take over the meal preparation more often. Because of the spatial separation from the family of origin a private network—especially grandmothers—is either not available or only in emergency situations. Considerable characteristics of the meal patterns of these families are a breakfast which is affected by a hectic rush and a lack of time, a lunch which isn't taken at home and a hot meal in the evening with all family members. The parents value a delightful meal in a quiet atmosphere in the evening, but the time budget of the working mothers doesn't allow much time for preparation or prolonged mealtimes on working days, especially because their young children should not eat so late in the evening.

Regardless of the additional burden of the preparation of a hot meal in the evening after a long working day, the mothers demonstrate their highly pronounced sense of care and duty to

provide a healthy meal for their family within the framework of time spent together. Altogether, providing meals for the children has a higher priority than for themselves. For example, the mothers rarely interrupt their work for the intake of a meal, but eat food they brought from home during small breaks, which one mother accurately referred to as "PC-picnic" (which means to have lunch in front of the personal computer). Another specific characteristic is the self-conception of the partners to participate in the family food provisioning and therefore unburden the mothers at least to some extent. Despite food provision being based more on partnership than in other families, the mothers see themselves as organiser and person in charge. The mothers have ambitious demands in the areas of profession and family. Furthermore, they can scarcely control the time for work and child care by themselves. For this reason the mothers need to have a high degree of practical and organisational self-discipline to achieve a satisfactory food provision for their families.

Overstrained lone-fighters

> *I must say that it is not good for the family if the mothers work the whole day. It is not good for the partnership. Because the woman is under pressure due to work and housework, and sometimes, I'm so tired (…) I always have pressure due to the time. I do not have enough time for everything. (Household 42)*

Mothers (*n* = 3) who can be assigned to this type have a workload above average in their everyday working life as well as in their everyday family life. They only have low professional qualifications and work full-time not out of personal ambition but to ensure an adequate family income. The mothers have neither economic resources nor acquaintances or relatives to cover meals by networking. Another characteristic is their highly developed and internalised traditional self-perception of their role as mother and provider. Despite adverse working conditions (e.g. shift work), they take care of the meals and cut back on their own wishes and needs. An integral part of this food caring type is the daily provision of a rich and tasty hot meal for all family members, even if working life usually doesn't allow a shared meal with all family members together. For the selection of food, health criteria come second to personal liking. Missing shared meals on working days are made up at the weekend by regular and numerous family meals. Despite the great effort, the mothers gain personal satisfaction and appreciation, which are both absent in their work. Their partners are seldom involved in food preparation and other food-related housework.

Discussion

The representative time budget data indicate that German families deliberately choose to spend some amount of time on food preparation and eating. The quantitative results indicate that on average mothers spend between 1 hour and 1 minute and 1 hour and 36 minutes on cooking, doing the dishes or laying the table, depending on their employment status. Fisher and Robinson (2010) pointed out that German women spent 1 hour and 3 minutes on cooking and food related housework, which is considerably higher than in the United States (45 minutes). However, women in Norway (1 hour and 6 minutes), France (1 hour and 21 minutes) or Italy (1 hour and 46 minutes) spend more time cooking than German women.

In circles of experts as well as in the media the popular view is that eating and drinking as regular meals are reduced. Thus, the importance of meals in the daily diet of people is

decreasing in favour of ever-present *snackings* and *grazings*, detached of regular places, times and social community (de Wolf 1995; Essen und Trinken, 1998; Ziemann, 1998). This generalising thesis of the gradual dissolution of family meals cannot be confirmed. Both the representative data of the time-budget-survey 2001/02 and the qualitative interviews with employed mothers show that in family households in all socio-economic groups the traditional meal patterns with breakfast, lunch and dinner still persist. Research in other European countries, especially in Scandinavian countries, confirms these findings. Usually the food intake is confined to few and regularly recurrent situations: "In all four countries [Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Finland], there were clearly some peak hours during the day when a large proportion of the population was eating something" (Kjaernes, 2001, p.9). Among the British, almost 70% have at least three meals a day regularly (Goode, Beardsworth, Haslam, Keil & Sherratt, 1995).

It is hypothesised in the economic literature that maternal employment limits time available for mothers to provide supervision and role modelling of healthy dietary behaviours, such as home meal preparation or eating together as a family (Cawley & Liu 2012; Fertig, Glomm & Tchernis, 2009; Möser, Chen, Jilcott & Nayga, 2012). Fertig et al. (2009) measure the effects of children's activities and meal routines on Body Mass Index (BMI) and the effect of maternal employment on these activities. They find that the effects of these activities on BMI and the effects of maternal employment on these activities vary considerably based on the level of education of the mother. Highly educated mothers are often employed for more hours per week than mothers with less education and children of highly educated mothers spend more time at home after school, which results in their children spending more time in sedentary activities such as watching television. In contrast, the authors ascertain that the children of less educated mothers spend more time at school (in after-school programmes), which in turn decreases their children's BMI, since they have more opportunity to be physically active at school. Cawley and Liu (2012) lend support to Fertig's findings, albeit through a slightly different mechanism. They find that employed women spend significantly less time on cooking, eating and playing with their children, and are more likely to purchase prepared food. Möser et al. (2012) find that maternal employment is associated with the time children ten years of age and older spend on nutrition-related activities. In households with employed mothers, these children spend more time eating alone at home and less time eating meals with their mothers. Moreover, employed mothers spend less time on meal preparation when compared to non-employed mothers. The study indicates that there are regional differences in time spent on nutrition-related activities, such that East German children are more likely to eat at home alone when compared to West German ones. In summary, these studies contend that maternal work affects the nutritional content of meals provided, and the time spent preparing meals. A qualitative study from the US analysed effects of terms and conditions of women's occupation on nutrition, family and housework (Devine, Connors, Sobal & Bisogni, 2003). The study showed a positive influence of flexible working hours and/or home-office options as well as of home-helpers for the nutrition situation of the family and the women's satisfaction with their role as an employed person and bread-winner. Accordingly, women who have more options to define the terms and conditions of their occupation are able to have more meals with their family and to plan and organise the food work better. These findings as well as the situation of the presented type of *pragmatic self-*

employed mothers show an impact of occupational terms and conditions of time (working hours) on the organisation of and satisfaction with the realised food provisioning.

The role of the social environment, in particular the effect of parental influences, on child nutritional behaviour and outcomes is discussed in economic literature as well. While adults have the freedom of choice over what to eat or when to exercise, it is now widely documented that a child's choice set is generally limited by the environment provided by the parents (e.g., Barlow & Dietz 1998). Parents affect the food preferences of their children by providing particular types of foods and by interacting with their children during family mealtimes (Stockmyer, 2001). Of course, if parents supply foods of low-grade nutrition then family mealtimes can be unhealthy, however, current research in nutrition suggests that family meals are of higher diet quality than meals prepared away from home (Gillman et al. 2009). Gable and Lutz (2001) confirm that positive nutrition attitudes of parents are associated with more pleasant family meals and less troublesome eating behaviour of children. These findings imply that the amount of time families spend eating together can have a significant influence on the quality of the children's nutrition socialisation and diet. The qualitative findings indicate that despite time constraints due to maternal employment, mothers who belong to the four food caring types described here more in detail realise the importance of family meals taken together. However, three out of the seven generated types of food providing styles are represented by a focus on individual meal times (see Table 6).

Despite the possibility to reduce the workload of food preparation and related housework, the GTBS data show only little relevance of eating and drinking outside home compared to the meal intake at home. This can be confirmed by diverse arrangements at lunchtime which employed mothers organise to provide meals for their children. In the analysed families, part-time employed mothers prepare lunch by themselves. In more prosperous families with full-time employed mothers, day-care professionals, home helpers or nannies are employed. The intergenerational assistance of grandmothers in the context of food provision at lunchtime and child care is also essential in some of the seven food types. In the UK an adjustment and decline of common family meals with all family members at one table and eating the same food in favour of more simple and individualised meals seems to occur, made possible through convenience solutions (like frozen food or take-away). Mothers take care that there's enough food in the fridge without being at home every evening to cook a fresh meal (Carrigan, Szmigin & Leek, 2006). In Italy commitments outside home are more accepted as a justification for an individual food intake than in German families (Romani as cited by Carrigan et al., 2006). Robinson and Fisher (2010) confirm that people from Italy, France and the United States eat out in restaurants more frequently than from other countries.

Conclusion

The typology of family food provision, generated from the qualitative data, reflects how profoundly differentiated and complex food provisioning is organised between the private and the public space. Therefore the research project provides insights into families with employed mothers which can be used in diverse ways for target group orientated health and nutrition prevention. Educational institutions and child care facilities, like schools and day care centres, as well as food industry or community bodies can make use of these findings: (i) to provide an increasing number of employed mothers with a family friendly arrangement of

food provision in their everyday life and (ii) to support the mothers' demand for a healthy diet for herself and her children.

Bustling time schedules of mothers and their children prevent mothers from passing food preparation techniques and skills to their children. Lichtenstein and Ludwig (2010, p.1857) conclude that children need to be educated "about the basic principles they will need to feed themselves and their families within the current food environment: a version of hunting and gathering for the 21st century". Further, the findings show the importance of healthy and high quality kindergarten, school and canteen meals as well as for a supply of products and services which can help to relieve time constraints of employed mothers and support their demand for time together with all family members at meals for communication and social interaction.

Further findings indicate a remarkable variation in the kind of needed support. For the type *career orientated net worker,* the emphasis should be on a relief of time constraints concerning the organisation of the daily food caring including a good lunch option for the mother herself near her workplace. For the type *sacrificial provisioner* the topic health prevention for parents and children is of importance to avoid and reduce overweight and a lack of physical activity.

Altogether, the study emphasises that mothers in Germany choose highly differentiated food caring styles to have both a family and a career. The case studies show that mothers struggle with inflexible or insufficient care institutions, more often than not low quality food provision in kindergarten, school or cafeterias or demanding work schedules. In line with these results, the recent German family report concludes that future family policies should be more time-oriented. For example, changing of general legal terms as well as operational requirements in combination with the necessary extension of care offers might help to reduce time constrains of parents (Bundesministerium für Familie, Frauen, Senioren und Jugend, 2011). Furthermore, the case studies show that some mothers receive considerable support from their partners. Recent figures regarding the parental benefit in Germany (the so-called "Elterngeld") emphasise that the proportion of fathers who spend some time with their new-born child increased over the last years (Bundesministerium für Familie, Frauen, Senioren und Jugend, 2013). Therefore it seems reasonable to conclude that employed mothers in Germany might nowadays get more help from their partner during their struggle to balance family and career.

From the methodological point of view, the chosen research design with a triangulation of quantitative time budget data and qualitative in-depth interviews offered numerous advantages in order to investigate the food provisioning routine of family households with employed mothers. First, analysing time use patterns for everyday life food routines with the quantitative time budget data allowed the generation of research questions for the subsequent in-depth interviews. Secondly, the qualitative survey complemented the results of the quantitative analysis (detailed time use patterns of food provisioning) by giving an insight into steering motives and barriers of the design of food caring within the course of everyday events. Altogether, the developed research design should be useful and appropriate for

further research questions within the field of Home Economics and social scientific nutrition research.

Acknowledgement

Biography

Dr Anke Möser, born 1971, studied from 1992-1996 Nutritional Science and Home Economics at Justus Liebig University Giessen. Since her diploma she has been working as a scientific assistant at different departments in the University of Giessen as well as a project assistant in market research. Her research is focussed on empirical studies dealing with pricing strategies in the retailing sector, on nutritional and consumption behaviour in Germany as well as on time budget data. In June 2013, she qualified for an appointment to a professorships and currently works as a lecturer in the field of Food Economics.

Dr Ingrid-Ute Leonhäuser, professor emeritus since April 2014, has been head of the Department of Nutrition Education and Consumer Behaviour and director of the board of the Centre for international Development and Environmental Research, Section Nutrition Security at Justus Liebig University Giessen/Germany. Her research is focussed on empirical studies dealing with nutritional and consumption behaviour in Germany as well as on nutrition security of private households in the context of international development cooperation. As member of IFHE she worked in the IFHE executive committee (1992-1996) and participated as liaison in the IFHE research committee. She served as chair of the IFHE programme committee Food Security, Nutrition, Nutritional Health.

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Everyday life and wellbeing in a care home with nursing in Copenhagen

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Abstract

The article deals with senior citizens in Denmark and how the Education in Nutrition and Health and Physiotherapy at the Metropolitan University College are able to interact in a project with a care home with nursing. The changing policies towards senior residents are outlined as a frame for the care homes at present. With an interdisciplinary approach, qualitative methods and a theoretical frame of foodscape, *the article points to areas of concern identified during the project in the care home: Food and meals, physical activities, weight and wellbeing of the residents, world view and identity of the residents, and management of the care home.*

Even in a well-functioning care home there was still need for reflections and room for changes. One of the challenges consists of how to balance the activities between plentiful cultural events or on the daily small events related to the meals. However, the culture in the care home is posing a frame for what is possible to introduce of changes as the culture is formed by the leadership in combination with the staff and the residents.

Key words: care home, wellbeing, seniors, food and meals, physical activity

Introduction

The number of people over 70 years old is increasing in Western countries and in the coming decades most other countries will follow in that direction. The aging population poses new challenges to health care. In Denmark the population is aging following the general trend, however, there are variations from country to country (Global Age Watch Index 2013). Danish citizens above 70 years old will increase from 11 to 19 percent of the population in the period from 2012 to 2040. In total, the number of citizens above 70 years will increase by 530,000 during the same period of time in a population of 5.5 million in 2012 and 6.0 million in 2040 (Denmark's Statistical Bureau, 2013). In 2013, most people retired at the age of 65 years. A special scheme also allows people who have contributed to a retirement fund to retire from the age of 60, however, this scheme is under withdrawal for younger generations. The pension age is at present set at 65 years for both male and female, but it is going to increase in the coming years and incrementally move up to 70 years. It is today supposed that older people are able to live a normal, relatively healthy life until their mid-70s, whereas 20 years ago, it was assumed that people, due to degrading physical health, were to leave the labour market by their mid-60s. The aging population poses a challenge in most countries, not least due to stagnating and falling birth rates, and it is an area where the professions concerned with Home Economics, food and nutrition should pay increased attention.

This article deals with three themes. First, the article deals with some basic data about the aging population in Denmark, and the changing paradigms in public policies. Second, the article presents some recent developments in the bachelor education of professionals in nutrition and health in Denmark, which is an education with a history closely related to that of Home Economics. The changes of objectives for education of professionals serve as context for implementation of a pilot study in research and development in a care home with nursing. The study is an example of the use of interdisciplinary applied research as a means to improve education and practice related knowledge at University Colleges in Denmark. Moreover, it aims to develop the education in nutrition and health by providing students scientific knowledge and experiences from relevant practice. Third, the article provides reflections from the study of a care home in Copenhagen. The focus of the study is on how food, nutrition, meals, and physical activity can contribute to improve the wellbeing of older people in their daily lives and empower them to carry out activities they desire and can accomplish, within the frame of the care home. In conclusion, the article will present some themes deriving from the Copenhagen explorative study in a care home with nursing to illustrate some of the challenges identified for improving the wellbeing of older people in their everyday lives in care homes.

Policies to support senior population in Denmark

In the last decade, there has been a growing public concern in Denmark and the Nordic countries about the aging population. In particular, what will be the implications of a lower participation in the labour market and lower tax incomes when the number of elderly increases and the number of youth diminishes? Due to the economic crisis in Europe since the bubble economy of 2008, public budgets in the welfare state are under pressure and the physical health of senior citizens tend to be fairly weak before they are referred to be accepted to enter care homes. New policies and paradigms are invented over time and—at least partly—implemented in the welfare sector in response to the liberalisation of the welfare state and economic crisis.

The societal contexts of the support for older citizens are related to societal changes during the time of industrialisation and welfare development. From the 1960s, women in Denmark, en masse, entered the labour market, earlier than in many other countries (Borchorst & Siim, 1984; Fullerton, 1999; Pissarides, Garibaldi, Olivetti, Petrongolo & Wasmer, 2003, p.71). The history of changing policies started in the 1950s, when the first public organisation of support to housewives with old relatives was established (Nielsen & Gold Andersen, 2006; Petersen, 2008). Public investments in care homes were fairly high social priorities. From the 1960s, it was generally accepted within society that the municipality should support older people. This meant that the older people should move into care homes with nursing, as their relatives were not able to take care of them as much as before due to their inclusion in the labour market. There were limited traditions in Denmark for parents living together with their children and relatives from the 1960s onwards (Nygaard Christoffersen, 1999). During the 1980s, new ideas emerged, pointing out that the older citizens' resources should be treated more prominently in older care, and that the care home prevented the seniors from managing their own life (Ældrekommissionen, 1980; Fristrup, 2010). In the 1990s, the older population was less passive than before, and they wanted increasingly to stay at home and not move into care homes. The general public policy changed again in the 1990s when globalisation and

increasing liberal views emphasised that older citizens *should* be able to manage their own lives in their homes.

The policies in respect of care home changed in the end of the1990s from building care homes with nursing (*plejehjem*), where older persons were supposed to be taken care of, into care centres (*plejecentre*). In the care centres, the older citizens had access to specific types of public support, such as meals and different types of personal support which they pay for according to their preferences (and abilities)(Ældrekommissionen, 1980; Rostgaard, 2010). The arrangement was no longer meant to be nursing of the older person in the tradition of the housewife substitute, rather, it was perceived as a contract, based on market-oriented payments for services provided (Hjemmehjælpskommissionen, 2013). In reality, such transitions take considerable time to implement as it is quite deeply embedded in the culture that old people should be taken care of, and policies are not easily transformed into practice. Besides the care homes and centres, the municipalities have increased the support to *home care* to older people in their own homes in order to support them by the often quoted slogan "living longest possible in their own home" (Fristrup, 2010, p. 1; Hjemmehjælpskommissionen, 2013; Platz, 1992; Rostgaard, 2008)

In 2011, the total number of seniors living in care homes with nursing amounted to 42,000 for citizens above 65 years in Denmark, and out of this number 33,600 or 80 percent live in care centres, the rest (about 8000) live in the more traditional care homes (Ældrekommissionen, 2012). The average age for seniors entering care homes with nursing or other kinds of protected accommodation is 80 years. By 2050, the projected need for protected housing for citizen above 80 years of age will be about 111,000. This estimate depends on a continued rate at 20 percent of the total population above 80 years. Seniors receiving *home care* is increasing quicker than those in care homes and centres. Surprisingly, in 2012, national statistics revealed that 133,000 people received support from the municipal *home care*, and this was a decrease from 155,000 in 2008 (Hjemmehjælpskommissionen, 2013). The causes for the decrease are not fully analysed, but contradicting factors have impacts: on the one hand, reduction of budgets and, on the other hand, the improvement of the level of resourcefulness of older people to manage daily life.

In the past five years the trend in home care in the municipalities suggests a new change of paradigm in relation to senior citizens (Hjemmehjælpskommissionen, 2013). The new "power word" is *rehabilitation-in-everyday-life (hverdagsrehabilitering)*, which includes three major goals: improve prevention of illness; improve abilities of older people to handle their own daily life; and, focus more on the weakest citizens with the most complex needs. The former concept of nursing has not fully disappeared in practice, and the new rehabilitation strategy reinforces the idea that old people should "live longest possible in their own home", but with an emphasis on prevention and rehabilitation. Accordingly, a new slogan was invented by a pilot project in the municipality of Fredericia, Western Denmark: "Lifelong living: ambient assisted living" (Fredericia Municipality, 2007 p. 1). Core concepts from this project spread to other municipalities and the National Board of Health and Welfare, to become the new country-wide *rehabilitation-in-everyday-life* strategy that emphasises that public support is meant for the older person "not to be cared for (nursing), but to give support to the older

citizen   to   help   them   to   find   their   own   resources   in   the   daily   life"
(Hjemmehjælpskommissionen, 2013, p. 84).

Active participation by the citizen themselves is essential, and the support should be provided and adjusted individually, based on the needs and resources of the citizen from a holistic perspective of the person in question (Ældrekommissionen, 2012; Socialstyrelsen, 2013). The ideas and reasoning behind the present public policy towards senior citizens are developed to implement new perceptions of older people in the public sector, however, it should not be neglected that the objective also aims to reduce public expenses. Furthermore, many people are living a healthy life longer than before, and they do not need home care as early as they use to do a few decades earlier. Another recent change of policy is that the most demanding seniors are cheaper to help in care homes with nursing than by providing support at home, and the care homes are not becoming redundant as the trends up to now may indicate (Stenholm, 2013). The strategy to support older citizens to manage their own lives have reduced the public expenses and it has helped a number to regain their own abilities to life at home (Kjellberg & Ibsen, 2010). Nonetheless, it has also caused severe criticism in the media that many older citizens are left too much to care for themselves.

The conditions in care homes with nursing are one of the topics of interest to discuss more broadly, not only at a national level, but also internationally in order to learn and exchange experiences. In general, the public opinion about the living conditions in care homes with nursing in Denmark is fairly negative, it is however, almost generally accepted that the children cannot take care of their aged parents, unlike in most Asian countries where it was an obligation of the children—at least until recently—to care for their parents in their old age (Park, Lee & Mason, 2012). In this article, the scope is narrowed to specific areas of interest for educational topics at Metropolitan University College in Copenhagen: nutrition, food, meals, physical activities, and wellbeing in an everyday perspective in care homes with nursing.

Research context in Denmark

The background for the findings presented in this article is the above mentioned focus on research and development at Metropolitan University College. The education in nutrition and health aims at training professionals at medium level (bachelor degree) with an education lasting 3.5 years. Today, a bachelor degree in health and nutrition is an interdisciplinary education, including natural sciences, education theories, communication theories and social science theories combined with practical training during the study period. Danish society demands increasingly that professionals with bachelor degrees should be able to contribute to improvements for humans in the public and private sectors. Direct cooperation with institutions, and research and development in the practical implementation of the professions are considered essential objectives for strengthening the students and the professionals. The dialogue between the research team and the care home (considered *practice*) took place through the study in a care home with nursing. The research team included lecturers from the Bachelor Education in Nutrition and Health and from the Bachelor Education in Physiotherapy, both from Metropolitan University College. The practice side was represented by residents and employees in the care home with nursing in Copenhagen.

Research in food and health in elderly care homes with focus on the elderly residents is fairly limited in Denmark. The Danish anthropologist Jens Kofod defended his PhD in 2008 where he used anthropological methods analysing the meals in care homes (Kofod, 2008, 2009, 2012a, 2012b). Only a few other studies have been conducted in individual care homes with an inclusive perspective of food and nutrition (Ramian, 1997, 2010; Elle, 2006), and a couple of anthologies dealing with different aspects of the life of senior citizens including aspects of food and health (Glasdam, 2009; Swane, Blaakilde & Amstrup, 2009). Various public institutions have specifically dealt with nutrition and health in care homes (Beck, Elsig & Ovesen, 2002, Beck 2014) and large-scale research and development projects are supported by ministerial departments to improve food and nutrition for seniors in care homes (Servicestyrelsen, 2011). There is a growing public interest in food and meals in general and this is illustrated by the approval of a *National plan on meals and nutrition for seniors in own home and in the care home* (Socialstyrelsen, 2013). Some municipalities have also introduced food and nutrition guidelines in the care homes.

Theory and methods

This section aims to present the outline and some findings from the study in the care home with nursing. The approach in the study is interdisciplinary including natural sciences, social sciences and humanities. The theoretical framework applies *foodscape* approaches, a concept used by a number of scholars working with improvement of food observed in a broader social context (Olsen, 2009). The *foodscape* approach looks at food and meals in a holistic way as embedded in health, space, and social relations. The idea was that the three dimensions together should be able to grasp the essence of food, meals and, physical activities as embedded in the lives of the residents. Moreover, applying the three dimensions (health, space and social relations) would add new perspectives and give ideas to improve the psychological and physiological wellbeing of the residents. In other words, understanding the wellbeing of the residents in an everyday perspective is the goal of the research based on the presumption that food and meals is of particular importance in the daily life of older people and an important means of socialising. Aron Antonovsky's educational principles *sense of coherence* was a guiding theme for ensuring that the residents themselves have a feeling of independence and influence on their own lives, that communications takes place between the various groups of professionals and between the senior residents and the staff (Antonovsky 1987).

The methodology was based on both semi-structured and narrative interviews with residents in the care home, leaders, staff from the kitchen, nursing staff, and the physiotherapists. The meals were observed during participation at the common dinner, the supper, and special days of activity like the annual Games (see below). The study aimed to identify areas where educators could provide knowledge or ideas to the care home, and identify areas of concern where the care home might want to change policies or practices.

Important issues which needed attention emerged during our dialogues with the care home residents, staff, and leaders. These issues included:

1. Dinner in the middle of the day and supper in the evening

2. Body Mass Index (BMI) and weight of the residents
3. Types of physical activities carried out by residents
4. *Worldview* or identity from the perspectives of the residents
5. Management of the care home

The care home with nursing in Copenhagen

The care home with nursing is situated in a central urban area. The surroundings are entirely urban, however, a small yard facilitates a garden where some plants are cultivated and the residents can relax. Some space is also provided for activities like a bicycle trip with the physiotherapist. The care home constitutes the frame and home for 60 residents and about the same number of employees. The guiding principles and philosophy at the care home is inspired by the popular Danish philosopher and theologian K.E.Løgstrup who has written the book *The ethical challenge* (Den etiske udfordring 1956).Løgstrup's philosophy is based on the idea of *meeting between people* referring to the importance of trust between people. The residents should in this spirit have the best possible environment for meeting each other, particularly at meetings, events and other cultural events.

The care home is—in spite of the weaknesses of the residents—very active in its daily programmes to activate and engage the residents in cultural events, physical activities, games, excursions and even travels within Denmark and abroad. Programmes include both daily or weekly activities and a considerable number of events during the year where the residents take part in activities like:

- *Aladdin's Evening,* an annual evening where the staff and residents dress up in spectacular clothes inspired from the medieval Middle East and food from that region
- *The Games* named after the Olympic Games where games and physical activities are organised for residents and staff
- Meetings with the children from nearby kindergartens
- Open dinners every month with the possibility of inviting relatives and other guests to join the dinner.

Meals

The meals in the care home are well planned, prepared and consumed. Especially the warm meal (the dinner) is served in the dining hall at midday, where all residents are welcome to take part. About half of the 60 residents are present. The dining hall is situated at the basement, beside the kitchen. The walls of the hall are nicely decorated with paintings and changing art exhibitions. The tables are dimensioned for 6-8 people. There are fixed seats for each of the residents to make them feel comfortable. The chinaware is of high quality and the tables are decorated with tablecloth and napkins. The staff take part in the meals. At each table, one staff member helps with practical matters, if necessary, and leads the conversation. The meal is introduced by a staff member from the administration, and the gathering at midday is often used by the director to provide information about special events like birthdays, anniversaries or other planned arrangements. The meals take place in a quiet and positive atmosphere. The other residents consume their meals on each floor, in the

kitchen rooms located in the corridors of one of the four living quarters, or in their private rooms.

The food is prepared from fresh produce and raw materials in the care home kitchen. The meals are analysed for nutritional content when introduced at the menu, however, there are many smaller variation of each dish depending on the chef responsible in the kitchen that day. The meal consists of two dishes: a main dish with meat, green salad and basic food (potato, rice or noodles), and a dessert (usually traditional dishes like pudding with jammed fruit). The food is served on serving dishes at each table, and the residents are able to select for themselves what they want on their plates. Most of the residents at the midday meal are reasonably self-supportive. A few residents joined the meal in their wheelchair or with a walking frame. When they are seated, even the residents with dementia are able to eat by themselves. At almost each table, one nursing staff or administrative staff was present to assist the residents and to keep the conversation going. This host role is considered very important in keeping discussion flowing to improve the meal experience for the residents.

The food is described by the residents as well-prepared and delicious. Residents are invited to take part in planning of the dishes and meals at a voluntary monthly meeting. The menu is suggested by the residents and the main chef adjusts each meal to be balanced for nutrition, texture, and colour. Generally, there is only one type of menu. The menu has a fairly high nutritional level taking into account that care home residents tend to be underweight and need nutritious food. All residents are served the same food, unless special needs are identified among some residents. Special needs mean that some residents receive an altered menu due to diabetes or difficulties with swallowing certain foods. For more acute dietary issues, the chef would visit the person with special needs and prescribe an individualised diet. Some residents with physical or mental weaknesses are not likely to join the others in the common meal on the ground floor. They prefer to eat in the kitchen rooms or alone in their own rooms. The meals for each section are sent to the kitchen room on each of the four floors by elevator. However, the nursing staff on the four levels are not always conscious or knowledgeable about the appropriate way to present the food or dishes to the residents. The surrounding environment and the meals are not as appreciated in the four floor kitchens, and the meals are much less of a social event compared with the common dining hall.

The supper in the evening had more challenges than the dinner. The residents consume their suppers at the different floors in the kitchen sections or in their own rooms. Each floor has 15 residents with only one staff and a support staff member who shares two floors. These two staff members are responsible for the arrangement, presentation, distribution and support of the meals. Only half of the residents take part in the common meal in the kitchen, and these meals do not serve a social purpose, rather ensure nutritional requirements. During the day, snacks are offered between meals which consist usually of cake, which might be suitable for underweight persons, but not for normal or overweight persons, or fruit, which has to be bought by the residents once a week.

The common dinner in the care home demanded much attention from the staff and management, as it plays an important role in the daily life of the residents. However, the menu's nutritional value is not always suitable to the residents' wishes and needs. Some of

the residents would like dishes that are less energy dense, whereas other residents need to be encouraged to eat. In order to encourage the residents to eat more, the environment during evening meals at the four floors could be improved with more beautiful setting of the table, such as a tablecloth, and light which is sufficient but not too sharp, for example, candle lights at the table and so forth. But the most significant issue identified is the need for more *warm hands* or able and caring human beings to help the residents with the meal and conversation during the meal. One staff and a helper for two floors are not enough to provide sufficient support for serving the food and take part in a meal in a setting of 5-10 persons on each floor. It is believed that should be possible to expand distributing of fruit very easily to encourage increased consumption.

BMI and weight

Each resident's weight is checked at least once a year. This information is used for the data base required by the municipality, called the *CARE system*. By analysing the Body Mass Index (BMI) data from 2010 and 2011, the research team concluded that the average BMI of the residents was precisely at 25. According to accepted norms when the care home was visited (2011), a BMI of 25 is just at the borderline between normal weight for elderly people (BMI 24-29) and underweight (below BMI 24) (Beck et al., 2002, del 1, p. 37). Since early 2000 in Denmark, it has been widely accepted that people aged 65+ years should have a higher BMI (24+) than other citizens to be more resistant in case of illness (normal weight is suggested to be between BMI 18.5 and 24.9). This assumption has led to the identification of a massive underweight problem among senior citizens in care homes. In the care home examined for this study and according to the accepted standards at the time for normal weight people aged 65+ (BMI 24-29), the number of underweight residents in this care home is considerable (45 percent). The research team analysed the changes in BMI of the residents and found that within the last year, the changes on average were very small, however, changes of individual BMIs were considerable, if not dramatic. This finding was a clear indication that it is important to follow individual residents more closely and constantly adjust the meals according to the individual needs.

In recent years the public recommendation on BMI in Denmark has changed so that older citizens should have the same BMI as younger persons (Beck et al, 2014). This is in line with the World Health Organisation's international guidelines on healthy diets (WHO, 2014). Based on interviews with residents it was, observed that the BMI and weight was not the most important factor for self-perceived wellbeing. Apparently, the staff in the care home were not much concerned about underweight problems, and the criteria of BMI 24 and below to determine the identification of underweight was found excessively high. In fact, very few residents were specifically treated for being underweight. Interesting discussions took place with the staff about the best way to observe or keep track of changes in physical wellbeing of the residents and which food is most optimal and suitable. Discussions about observation techniques were continued with other specialists after the research project was finished. The changing public recommendations—whether the underweight starts at BMI 24 or BMI 18.5— have nevertheless left a gap in practice about how to define underweight, and this is quite a challenge for public institutions which have to prepare food for senior citizens.

From the perspective of the nursing staff, it appeared that problems with overweight residents were more challenging than problems with underweight residents. The staff have little knowledge about how to handle problems where people eat constantly and too much, as this issue calls for different psychological and pedagogical methods than for encouraging underweight to eat more. It was moreover observed that overweight residents are difficult to help with professional nursing, because of their weight. Individual residents' weights differ and there are both identified underweight problems and overweight problems among the residents. It seems important to follow the individual resident more closely than it was practiced, and BMI is not appropriate as the only guiding measurement. Additionally, it was suggested that the food needs to be prepared with more variation of energy levels, and the food's nutritional content should be adjusted to better suit the different groups. The nursing staff would benefit from knowledge of healthy food for senior persons, and the kitchen could assist by providing a photo of the presentation of the specific dishes on the four floors.

Physical activities

There were plenty of opportunities for residents to participate in physical activities in the care home. Physical activities take place at organised meetings and are integrated in many of the care home's other social activities like The Annual Games. Two physiotherapists were employed on full time, and they organised gym sessions in the gym room or in the corridors several times a week. Additionally, there were possibilities for residents to visit a swimming pool in a hall nearby. Thus, according to the interviewed residents, who were all over 80 years, the physiological conditions of the residents at the care home were overall considered to be surprisingly fine. The interviews did not represent all the residents as the research team only had access to the residents who were able to communicate verbally. Other methods based on observation could be applied to encompass other residents.

The management at the care home was interested in introducing registration of changes in the residents' physical abilities in respect to the small daily bodily functions, but did not have the tools to do so. Some limitations were identified by the research team about the use of physical activities in the daily activities and tasks, like dressing oneself, taking a cup and plate oneself, passing dishes and other movements which can help to retain strength and flexibility of the body. It would be possible for the nursing staff to introduce more physical activities in the everyday tasks and encourage the residents to move their bodies more through the daily activities. They can encourage the residents to take more actively part in some tasks like dressing and undressing, setting the table, taking out after the meal, reaching for dishes at the table and so on. Food preparation involving the seniors was unfortunately not possible in this care home, partly due to hygienic considerations. It was a wish from the management that the nursing staff could register the daily physical activities, but the nursing staff were not skilled for this task.

Changes are related to the possibilities to change the culture at the care home. On the one hand, the perception of the staff is important: whether they think in terms of nursing or they want to encourage the residents to take active part in everyday activities. On the other hand, the residents are also reproducing culture in the care home: most of the residents perceived the care home as a place where they would be served and nursed, which is another barrier for changing the established culture. It could be expected that when new residents enter the

care home step-by-step, they might have different views on their self-determination, participation, and level of mobility due to the change of perceptions in society.

World view and identity of the residents

The world of the residents is still quite rigorously divided into a private and a public sphere (Povlsen & Hoff 2009). This finding challenged some of the perceptions by the team, including the possibility of using the food and the meals as an overarching socialising approach.

It was realised through the in-depth interviews with the residents about the broader view on their life-world that the residents clearly distinguished between their private sphere and the public sphere in the care home. The persons dear to them, family and friends, had normally a much closer meaning for the residents than the other residents in the care home. The private apartment was considered their intimate, private rooms, and their references usually went to their life and social relations before coming to the care home. Other residents were often considered part of the public sphere and strangers, even if they were present together in many activities taking place in the care home. Making friends becomes more difficult in old age. Relating to the impact of this observation on the meals, in some cases it might explain why the residents prefer to eat in their private apartments. In other cases residents wanted to eat by themselves due to their consciousness about difficulties to eat according to the customs or due to specific handicaps. Yet it still seems to be important for many residents that they are not isolated in their rooms, and the meal constitutes a potential social factor to be better exploited.

Management in the care home

The cooperation between the kitchen staff and the nursing staff posed some challenges. From an organisational perspective it could be described as if the two categories of staff were organised in separate departments working with different logics: The kitchen aimed at preparing the food for the residents, and the nursing staff are thinking of the daily routines in the caretaking. It was observed that the two categories are living in different arenas, often with little understanding of each other's work. This might result in serving of food in the wrong order, or the composition at the plate is not what the kitchen staff had intended to to appeal to taste and the eye. Exchange of jobs between the two professions would open up for improvements and focus on the importance of cooperation in the nutrition content of the food, the serving, and the meal situation. Between the nursing staff and the physiotherapists there are gaps between the *worlds* as well. The physiotherapists are very active involving the residents in physical activities, however they are not much involved in training through daily activities connected to the residents' daily lives. The nursing staff are in general not knowledgeable about how to encourage the residents to train themselves through daily activities, and accordingly are not able to register changes in this form for daily behaviour. The nursing staff prefer to leave all types of physical activities to the physiotherapists, who are considered specialists.

Conclusions

This article shows that the meeting between the two educations in Metropolitan University College and the care home with nursing resulted in an increased mutual understanding. With regard to research, the study provided knowledge into the daily work and challenges in the care home, and materials for understanding more deeply issues of special concern related to the meals, physical activities, life-world of the residents and the role of management. The focus on the residents turned out to be an important point of departure for the study of wellbeing for the residents. In a number of cases it was difficult to conduct interviews with the residents due to various handicaps and illnesses, and the observation method was in many situations better than the direct interviews. These methods need to be developed and refined. However, it proved to be important to listen to all the involved parties present in the care home to reach a more holistic understanding of the daily lives of the residents and the challenges the staff face.

The study provided the care home with some perspectives and ideas for possible changes in some of the daily procedures and broader frames. The care home is active in organising activities for the residents all year round and in weekly routines. It may, however, be considered how the (limited) resources are used in relation to the residents. Many of the social activities benefit, in general, the healthier residents who are able to participate due to a better physical or cognitive health. Reflections from the study point to a central issue: if more resources are spent on the daily routines like the meals and physical activities, they may, eventually, be spent for the benefit of a broader group of residents in their everyday lives. The optimal solution is to be able to ensure both cultural activities and more staff during the meals in the kitchen rooms on the different floors, but that will require further resources from outside—an issue at stake for most care homes in the present policy of budget cuts.

The foodscape approach and Antonovsky's sense of coherence applied in this study helped to integrate the different disciplines and different focus from the various groups of employees in the pilot study, and also to include a broader view on the care home. However, it had to be modified, or rather expanded, by adding the residents' identities and division of public and private. From the outset it was assumed that it was possible to improve the wellbeing of the residents through nutrition, meals and physical activities. That would improve the meal, nutrition and food, social relations would be closer and more intensive, and an attractive space for the residents would encourage the other factors. However, the interviews with the residents revealed that the private sphere and the life-world have to be taken into consideration as well to improve the wellbeing of the residents.

Even in the case of a well-functioning care home, the team concluded that there was still need for reflections and room for changes. However, the culture in the care home is posing a frame for what is possible to introduce of changes as the culture is formed by the leadership (and society at large) in combination with the staff and the residents. To support changes the leadership of the care home may be inspired by employing a multi-dimensional strategy including the wishes and interests both of the residents and of the staff.

Biography

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University student perceptions of Home Economics: food and nutrition education

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Abstract

The objective of this study was to explore young adults' experiences and perceptions of Home Economics food and nutrition (HEFN) education through a self-administered questionnaire to 206 university students who had attended middle and high school in Canada.

The focus was on participants' perceptions and experiences of school-based Home Economics food and nutrition education; self-perceived food preparation skills; living and food environment; understanding of the term cooking.

Almost all (95.6%) respondents felt Home Economics food and nutrition education belonged in school and had significant potential to reduce risks associated with obesity and diet-related chronic disease. Three quarters of respondents had taken Home Economics food and nutrition courses in middle school but this decreased to 9% by grade 12. Cooking had moralistic connotations and was viewed as what it is (taking time and effort to make wholesome food from basic ingredients) and what it isn't (unhealthy, processed foods requiring little preparation). The positive views of Home Economics food and nutrition education exhibited in this study suggest that it can be an important vehicle for transferring critically important foundational knowledge and skills to youth.

Key words: Home Economics, food skills, health promotion, youth, Canada

Introduction

The dietary habits of youth are among the poorest of all age groups, which puts them at significant risk for developing overweight/obesity and a host of chronic illnesses including heart disease, type 2 diabetes, several cancers, joint problems, body image dissatisfaction and mental health issues (Luo et al., 2007). Rates of overweight and obesity in Canadian youth are very high at 32% (males) and 27% (females) for 12 to 19 year olds and 47% (males) and 39% (females) for 20-29 year olds (Statistics Canada, 2012). In Manitoba, one third of children are overweight or obese (Yu, Protudjer, Anderson, & Fieldhouse, 2010). A new study by UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund) ranks Canada 27th out of 29 countries for having very high levels of child obesity (UNICEF Office of Research, 2013).

Canadian research indicates that most youth do not comply with Canada's Food Guide recommendations and in one province only 4% of grade 9-12 students consume the recommended fruit and vegetable servings (Partners in Planning for Healthy Living, 2009; Rossiter, Evers, & Pender, 2012). They do, however, prefer large portions of French fries and potato chips (Colapinto, Fitzgerald, Taper, & Veugelers, 2007), and soft drink consumption is

very high in this age group, 12 to 18 year old Canadians consume significantly more soft drinks than milk, and high consumption of soft drinks is correlated with higher obesity (Danyliw, Vatanparast, Nikpartow, & Whiting, 2011, 2012). These trends reflect growing consumption of highly processed convenience and fast foods, which make up an increasingly greater proportion of North American diets (Guthrie, Lin, & Frazao, 2002; Larson et al., 2008; Moubarac et al., 2013; Seracon Management Consulting, 2005).

The shift to diets high in processed convenience foods has seen a concurrent decline in time spent on food-related activities such as planning and cooking (Laska, Larson, Neumark-Sztainer, & Story, 2011; Pelletier & Laska, 2012). Caraher and Lang (1999) refer to this as a *culinary transition* influenced by factors including labour market participation of women and decreased opportunities for cooking and food preparation skill development within home and school environments. A decline in family meals and regular meal structure, along with greater frequency of consuming food outside the home are also contributors (Berge et al., 2012; Lu, Huet, & Dube, 2011). Busy lifestyles and competing demands reduce time available for food preparation, and less transfer of knowledge within the family (Höijer, Hjälmeskog & Fjellström, 2011; Laska et al., 2011; Pelletier & Laska, 2012; Slater, Sevenhuysen, Edginton, & O'Neil, 2012). The result has been a de-skilling of large segments of the population, including youth, with respect to fundamental food and nutrition knowledge and skills (Caraher & Lang, 1999; Jaffe & Gertler, 2006; Taylor, Evers, & McKenna, 2005). This has prompted calls for re-investing in school-based food and nutrition education as a means to re-skill youth and reduce risk of obesity and nutrition-related chronic diseases (Lichtenstein & Ludwig, 2010; Øvrebø, 2011; Peregrin, 2010; Smith & de Zwart, 2010).

Ironically, opportunities for food and nutrition education through Home Economics courses are being threatened and teaching curricula are frequently outdated. Time available for school-based Home Economics food and nutrition (HEFN) instruction has declined in recent decades, and HEFN education is not mandated or available to all students in many countries or school districts because of competing optional programming and/or lack of teaching infrastructure (e.g. food labs) (Slater, 2013; Smith & de Zwart, 2010). HEFN education is undervalued by many other educators and school administrators, and there are widespread concerns about Home Economics teacher succession due to reduced training opportunities (Lai-Yeung, 2011; Slater, 2013; Smith & de Zwart, 2010).

Therefore, in order to investigate the potential of school-based food and nutrition teaching and learning as a health promoting initiative, it is critical to understand the perceptions of youth with respect to food skills, and food and nutrition education. Specifically, the views of recent high school graduates transitioning to independent living provide a timely retrospective perspective on food skills and HEFN education. Additionally, the views of both rural and urban students are important, as Home Economics has a strong rural history and presence in Canada. Hence, the purpose of this study was to explore young adult men and women's experiences and perceptions of school-based HEFN education.

Materials and methods

Research design

This study was conducted at a mid-sized university (enrolment of 29,000 students) in Winnipeg, an urban city in the province in Manitoba, Canada. A paper-based questionnaire was developed based on questions arising from a previous study examining the HEFN education enrolment in the public school system in the province where this study took place (Slater, 2013). The questionnaire was reviewed for analytical rigor by a statistician, and was tested for face validity by four individuals representing the sample population. The questionnaire was modified accordingly.

Questionnaire design

The questionnaire consisted of 17 questions asking:

- basic demographic information (age and sex)
- where school was attended (urban vs. rural)
- university faculty currently enrolled in
- whether HEFN classes were taken in school, and if not why
- perceptions of HEFN education
- level and source of food preparation skills, and
- current living arrangement.

Questions used categorical responses for demographic, university faculty, living arrangement, HEFN class enrolment and source of food preparation skill questions. Ordinal responses using Likert-type scales were used for questions relating to perceptions of HEFN education, and level of food preparation skill (e.g. *How do you feel about these statements? 1=Agree Strongly, 2=Agree, 3=Not Sure, 4=Disagree, 5=Disagree Strongly*). The questionnaire also included two open-ended questions asking whether respondents thought HEFN education belonged in the school system and why, and respondents' definition of *cooking*.

Sample

Respondents were recruited through posters placed around the campus directing interested students to complete a questionnaire. Respondents had to be between 18 and 30 years of age; have attended middle school (grades 7 and 8) and high school (grades 9 to 12) within the province; and had never been a student in the faculty of Human Ecology (formerly named Home Economics). Questionnaires were completed anonymously and coded with a unique identifying number. A $5 gift card was provided as a token of appreciation to respondents. The questionnaire and protocol received approval from the Joint Human Research Ethics Board at the University of Manitoba prior to data collection. All respondents signed a consent form.

Analysis

Questionnaire responses were manually entered into a data capture interface in Excel. A sample of questionnaire responses was double-checked for accuracy. Missing and ambiguous

answers were reviewed and coded or discarded. Data were imported into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19.0 (SPSS Inc., 2010). Descriptive statistics were calculated. A chi-square test was used to examine differences between male and female, and rural and urban respondents on a number of variables.

Responses to the open-ended questions were individually entered verbatim into an Excel database. Responses were independently reviewed and coded by the researcher and a research assistant. Initial codes were developed for each response, then further analysed using sub-codes which were categorised into themes and sub-themes.

Results

Demographic characteristics

Two hundred and six respondents completed the questionnaire. Where individual answers were not legible, these were not included in the analysis. Demographic characteristics of respondents are shown in Table 1. The majority of respondents were female, attended school in an urban setting, and respondents were widely distributed among university faculties.

Table 1   Demographic characteristics of respondents (*N* = 206)

Demographic characteristics		n	%
Gender	Male	69	33.5
	Female	137	66.5
Where attended school	Middle – Rural	59	28.6
	High – Rural	57	27.7
	Middle – Urban	146	71.2
	High – Urban	149	72.3
Faculty of study	Agriculture	1	0.5
	Architecture	3	1.5
	Arts	54	26.2
	Business	14	6.8
	Dentistry	1	0.5
	Education	1	0.5
	Engineering	9	4.4
	Environment	6	2.9
	Kinesiology and Recreation	5	2.4
	Medical Rehabilitation	1	0.5
	Music	4	1.9
	Nursing	5	2.4
	Pharmacy	1	0.5
	Science	30	14.6
	Social Work	3	1.5
	University 1*	67	32.5
	Other	1	0.5

*a set of common core courses taken by first year students outside a particular faculty

Participant history and perceptions of HEFN education

Participants' responses to whether and where they received HEFN education are shown in Table 2. The highest attendance was in middle school with three quarters (75.2%) having taken HEFN courses. This decreased significantly through high school, with only 9% indicating they took HEFN in grade 12. While slightly more females took HEFN courses than males, this

was only significantly different in grade 9 (x 12 = 4.95, p < 0.05). Overall, there was no difference in the proportion of rural and urban students who took HEFN classes. However, in grades 10 and 11 a significantly higher proportion of rural students took HEFN (Grade 10 x 12 = 10.38, p < 0.01, Grade 11 x12 = 4.37, p < 0.05). Reasons for not taking HEFN in high school are listed in Table 2, with "not interested" and "not offered" being the main reasons followed by "no time".

Table 2   **Respondents' experience of Home Economics food and nutrition (HEFN) education in school**

		Total		Male		Female		Rural		Urban	
		(N = 206)		(N = 69)		(N = 137)		(N = 57)		(N = 149)	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Took HEFN	In any grade	**164**	**79.6**	51	73.9	113	82.5	45	78.9	119	79.9
Enrolment in HEFN by grade	Middle School	**155**	**75.2**	50	72.5	105	76.6	42	73.7	113	75.8
	Grade 9	**69**	**33.5**	16	23.2*	53	38.7*	22	38.6	47	31.5
	Grade 10	**45**	**21.8**	12	17.4	33	24.1	21	36.8±	24	16.1±
	Grade 11	**27**	**13.1**	8	11.6	27	13.1	12	21.1*	15	10.1*
	Grade 12	**18**	**8.7**	7	10.1	11	8.0	7	12.3	11	7.4
Did not take HEFN in School		**42**	**20.4**	18	26.1	24	17.5	12	21.1	30	20.1
Reason why did not take HEFN in school	Not interested	**28**	**13.6**	12	17.4	16	11.7	6	10.5	22	14.8
	Not offered	**31**	**15.0**	11	15.9	20	14.6	12	21.1	19	12.8
	No time	**26**	**12.6**	10	14.5	16	11.7	3	5.3	23	15.4
Did not fit with career goals		**20**	**9.7**	8	11.6	12	8.8	3	5.3	17	11.4
	Other	**5**	**2.4**	2	2.9	3	2.2	0	0	5	3.4

*P < .05 chi-square, ±P < .001 chi-square

Table 3 shows perceptions of HEFN education. Almost all respondents (95.6%) felt HEFN education belongs in schools and the majority (88.3%) felt it teaches important life skills. Almost a third (30.7%) felt it is as important as math and science and approximately three quarters felt it was an easy credit (76.8%).

Table 3   **Respondents' perceptions of Home Economics food and nutrition (HEFN) education**

	Agree		Disagree		Neutral	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
HEFN Education Teaches Important Life Skills (n = 205)	181	88.3	11	5.4	13	6.3
HEFN Education is an Easy Credit (n = 203)	156	76.8	16	7.8	31	15.3
HEFN Education is as important as Math and Science (n = 205)	63	30.7	90	43.9	52	25.4
HEFN Education belongs in School (n = 206)	197	95.6	0	0	9	4.4

Participant food skill knowledge and living arrangement

Table 4 highlights participant food skill knowledge and living arrangements. Only 16.5% felt they were very skilled while 60.2% felt they were somewhat skilled. Almost one fifth (18.9%) stated they had no skills or were not very skilled. The majority (68.4%) learned their food

skills from their mothers. Approximately ten percent stated that they learned from their fathers and the same number identified Home Economics classes as their source. A significantly higher proportion of females reported they learned their food preparation skills from their mother (x_1^2 = 5.27, $p < 0.05$) and from HEFN classes (x_1^2 = 6.59, $p = 0.01$), while a significantly higher proportion of males reported they learned from someone else (x_1^2 = 3.96, $p < 0.05$).

Eighty four percent live at home or in university residence and only 15.5% live on their own or with roommates. The majority of urban students reside at home or with relatives, while the majority of rural students live in University residence. Almost sixty percent stated that their mother prepares their food and less than eight percent state that their father prepares their food. One third prepares the majority of their own food. Most respondents felt they have adequate food, nutrition and cooking skills.

Table 4 Food skills, preparation and living arrangement of respondents

	Total		Male		Female		Rural		Urban	
Self-Rated Food Prep Skills	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Very skilled	34	16.5	15	21.7	19	13.9	11	19.3	23	15.4
Somewhat skilled	124	60.2	37	53.6	87	63.5	38	66.7	86	57.7
Not very skilled	35	17.0	12	17.4	23	16.8	5	8.8	30	20.1
No skills	4	1.9	3	4.3	1	0.7	0	0	4	2.7
Not sure	9	4.4	2	2.9	7	5.1	3	5.3	6	4.0
Where Learned Food Prep Skills										
Mother	141	68.4	40	58.0	101	73.7	42	73.7	99	66.4
Father	22	10.7	7	10.1	15	10.9	5	8.8	17	11.4
HEFN Classes	22	10.7	2	2.9	10	14.6	8	14.0	14	9.4
Self-taught	48	23.3	13	18.8	35	25.5	10	17.5	38	25.5
Someone else	28	13.6	14	20.3	14	10.2	5	8.8	23	15.4
Current Living Arrangement										
At home with parents/relatives	120	58.3	45	65.2	75	54.7	7	12.3	113	75.8
In University residence	53	25.7	17	24.6	36	26.3	40	70.2	13	8.7
On own	11	5.3	4	5.8	7	5.1	3	5.3	8	5.4
With Roommates	21	10.2	3	4.3	18	13.1	7	12.3	14	9.4
Other	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.7	0	0	1	0.7
Who Prepares Majority of Food										
Self	68	33.0	19	27.5	59	35.8	20	35.1	48	32.2
Mother	122	59.2	43	62.3	79	57.7	31	54.4	91	61.1
Father	16	7.8	3	4.3	13	9.5	1	1.8	15	10.1
Someone else	25	12.1	7	10.1	18	13.1	11	19.3	14	9.4
I Have Adequate Food Preparation Skills										
Agree Strongly	64	31.1	22	31.9	42	30.7	17	29.8	47	31.5
Agree	114	55.3	40	58.0	74	54.0	32	56.1	82	55.0
Neutral	18	8.7	5	7.2	13	9.5	6	10.5	12	8.1
Disagree	10	4.9	2	2.9	8	5.8	2	3.5	8	5.4

Open ended questions

In response to the question "Do you think Home Economics food and nutrition education belongs in the school curriculum in Manitoba? Why or why not?" over 95% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that it did belong. The most prevalent theme was because HEFN teaches important and valuable life skills including knowledge of food and food preparation, healthy eating and nutrition, self-sufficiency and independence. One respondent stated: "too many people are unaware of the importance of nutrition and can't handle living alone because they can't cook". Sub-themes included: HEFN is important for young people to make informed choices; many young people are not learning these skills at home therefore they should be offered at school; society is ill-informed about healthy eating; and HEFN teaches healthy lifestyles that can help combat the obesity epidemic. Of the 4.4% respondents who were neutral, reasons included: HEFN did not belong in high school or it should be an option; HEFN was not felt to be as important as other courses; and it would not change people's health outcomes.

In response to the question "What is your definition of 'cooking'?" several themes emerged along the categories of what cooking is compared with what it isn't. Within what cooking is there was a sub-theme of methods. Mixing, cutting, cleaning, preparing, gathering, creating, combining ingredients properly, and transforming food from raw *scratch* ingredients into something edible were all identified as part of cooking. A sub-theme of adjectives describing food produced from cooking included enjoyable, wholesome, nutritious, and good-tasting. Ingredients for cooking should be fresh, scratch or real foods, and beneficiaries of cooking include self, family and others. Cooking was also identified as requiring work, time and effort and food labour. Two responses included: "Anything that requires using fresh ingredients combined into a meal", and "taking raw materials (food products) and cooking it into a delicious meal. Pre-packaged stuff doesn't count… that's just reheating."

What cooking isn't included certain types of foods (processed, canned, packaged and frozen; snacks); and certain methods (microwaving or merely heating up foods out of a box; and foods that take less than 10 minutes to prepare). Respondent: "Making food other than KD [Kraft Dinner], using real foods, non-processed, good tasting food; creating worthwhile meals."

Discussion

The results of this study suggest that school-based Home Economics education is a valuable opportunity to transfer fundamental knowledge and skills regarding food and nutrition. Participants saw HEFN education as an important curricular subject with the potential to reduce risk of obesity and diet-related chronic diseases, despite trends toward marginalizing HEFN education in the formal school system and perceptions of HEFN being outdated. HEFN can impart valuable life skills including self-sufficiency and independence, as well as food preparation skills, which may not be taught at home.

One quarter of respondents did not take HEFN courses in middle school, and approximately half did not take courses in high school. Almost all respondents, however, felt HEFN education belonged in high school, and that it imparted important life skills. This could be a

reflection of the respondents' life stage, where they are making more independent food choices and may be experiencing more life situations where food and nutrition skills are required (e.g. living on their own and/or making or purchasing more of their own food). This could also be indicative of high societal awareness of the importance of healthy eating to prevent obesity and chronic illness and concern about growing rates of obesity in the population. There have been many reports and news articles on the Canadian obesity epidemic in recent years, heightening concern about the effects of excess body weight (Butler-Jones, 2012; Manitoba Health, 2011).

Despite this heightened awareness of obesity and diet-related chronic illness, the wider foodscape continues to promote consumption of nutritionally-poor convenience and fast foods, and undermine food skill development. Snack foods is one of the fastest growing sectors in the food industry (Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, 2012; Seracon Management Consulting, 2005) and an increasing number of meals and snacks are purchased and eaten out of the home (Guthrie et al., 2002; Moubarac et al., 2013). Availability of fast food in schools and proximity of home and school to fast food restaurants and convenience stores increases fast food purchasing and consumption (He et al., 2012), which is linked with obesity (Bauer, Larson, Nelson, Story, & Neumark-Sztainer, 2009; Danyliw et al., 2012; Larson et al., 2008).

While under half of respondents felt HEFN was not as important as math and science, almost one third felt it was as important, and almost all respondents felt it should be offered in school primarily for health-promoting and obesity/disease prevention reasons, and because these skills are not being transferred in the home to the same degree as in the past. Paradoxically, however, there is concern that Home Economics education is becoming marginalised by other subjects or disappearing altogether (Slater, 2013; Smith, & de Zwart, 2010). Indeed, over one quarter of respondents identified that HEFN was not offered or they did not have time to take it (more than double the number stating they were not interested). These results suggest new models for teaching HEFN should be investigated, such as blending curricula to incorporate other subject areas such as math and science.

Most respondents had taken at least one HEFN class, however enrolment dropped off significantly through the high school grades. This is consistent with enrolment trends in Manitoba and other Canadian provinces (Slater, 2013; Smith & de Zwart, 2010) and may be reflective of the optional nature of HEFN courses. Increased optional programming in recent years has put pressure on more traditional courses in terms of class length and number of classes offered in a term. In general, male and female students took HEFN courses at a similar rate. The gender parity may reflect changing societal attitudes and trends toward male involvement in food-related activities (Harnack, Story, Martinson, Neumark-Sztainer, & Stang, 1998; Smith, Ng, & Popkin, 2013). Additionally, HEFN education seems to appeal equally to urban and rural students, suggesting that the traditional rural focus on Home Economics has disappeared.

The majority of respondents felt they were somewhat skilled in food preparation, with less than one fifth of respondents claiming to be very skilled, while one fifth stated they were not very skilled or had no skills. This may be partly explained by the large proportion of respondents living at home with parents, and having their mother prepare most of their food,

suggesting domestic food work continues to be primarily a female gendered domain (Collins, Neysmith, Porter, & Reitsma-Street, 2009; Duxbury, Huggens, & Coghill, 2003; Jabs et al., 2007). Most also identified learning the majority of what skills they had from their mothers, while being self-taught ranked second and equal numbers cited father and Home Economics classes third. This suggests in-home mentoring is still occurring primarily through matriarchal lines, but gives no indication as to the quality of that mentoring. Implications for HEFN education include continuing efforts to increase male enrolment, and ensuring gender-neutral and positive male imagery in curricula.

Participants definitions of *cooking* were varied but the emphasis on cooking from scratch, using raw wholesome ingredients, and requiring time and labour contrasted with the identification of what cooking was not including processed, canned, packaged and frozen foods heated up in a microwave. Their dichotomous responses appear to reflect a morality of cooking that praises wholesome and nutritious cooked foods over unhealthy, boxed food requiring little effort. These results echo current discourses in public health and academic literature on the crisis of lost cooking skills due to branded, processed food and time poverty (Caraher, Dixon, Lang, & Carr-Hill, 1999; Hartmann, Dohle, & Siegrist, 2013; Brichta & Howard, 2013). HEFN educators and policy-makers must ensure curricula do not reinforce the notion of going back to a supposed golden era when everyone (or at least all women) excelled at cooking from scratch (Meah & Watson, 2011). Instead, curricula must be contextualised in the reality of today's lifestyles and complex food environments.

Limitations and further research

There are several limitations associated with this study. The sample was not representative of all 18 to 30 year olds. The views of recent immigrants from non-European countries, and those who do not attend University were not included. Participants were, however, from a wide scope of university faculties, and were distributed among male and female, and rural and urban backgrounds. Further research should be conducted to determine why enrolment in HEFN classes decreases so dramatically in higher grades, and what opportunities exist to increase enrolment. The most appropriate models and content of HEFN education for today's student populations and food environments should also be investigated, as well as the relationship between HEFN education and future food and nutrition knowledge, skills and behaviours. Mediating factors such as societal and technological trends should also be examined. Constructs of *cooking* could be explored further, along with teachers' perspectives on HEFN education.

Conclusion

The positive views of HEFN education exhibited in this study suggest that it can be an important vehicle for transferring critically important foundational knowledge and skills to youth. This is important in order to prepare them for independent living, to have autonomy over their food choices, and reduce risks associated with obesity and diet-related chronic illness. This importance is underscored by the double phenomena of reduction in food-related mentoring happening in man y homes and the poor health status of youth. The paradox of the current status of HEFN education (being marginalised in many school systems) and youth health (unprecedented rates of obesity) urgently point to the need for universal food and

nutrition education for all youth. Home Economics must be reinvigorated and fostered as an essential health promotion initiative, championed by education and health profession organizations. Education decision-makers should ensure that HEFN education is a cornerstone of youth education, including relevant, current curricula and sufficient numbers of adequately trained teachers.

Acknowledgements

Biography

Joyce Slater is an Assistant Professor of Community Nutrition in the Department of Human Nutritional Sciences, Faculty of Human Ecology, at the University of Manitoba in Winnipeg, Canada. She teaches nutrition education and community nutrition. Joyce's research interests include community nutrition and food security; the socio-environmental context of obesity; and the role of food literacy in disease prevention and wellbeing. Using a mixed method approach, Joyce conducts community-based research in partnership with several community-based organizations. Joyce is also a Registered Dietician who worked in various public health organizations for 18 years before obtaining her PhD and joining the University of Manitoba.

Aynslie Hinds is a PhD student in the Department of Community Health Sciences, Faculty of Health Sciences, at the University of Manitoba. She teaches statistics and research methods at the University of Winnipeg. Aynslie's research interests include housing and health; community mental health; and quality of administrative health data. Aynslie volunteers at several community-based organizations in Winnipeg, including one with a healthy snack program.

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Desirable classroom ecology for assessment for learning practice

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Abstract

Assessment for Learning (AfL) is the use of assessment information to support learning and it is widely recognised as a process that promotes an understanding of learning and high quality classroom interactions. Whilst AfL pedagogy is associated with the development of autonomous learners, reflective practice and the promotion of achievement, current research suggests that espoused teacher beliefs about their practice strongly influences its enactment. Teachers' beliefs and their impact on teaching are widely researched, but there is much less information available in the area of assessment practice and even less in the area of assessment in Home Economics. This study therefore seeks to examine the beliefs of Home Economics teachers in relation to assessment practice and their perceptions of classroom qualities that best support AfL type pedagogy. The study involved eight teachers implementing AfL approaches over a two year period in four Irish second level schools. The results suggest that the teachers experienced positive changes in teaching and learning and that the optimum classroom ecology is one in which student engagement, enthusiasm, cooperation, interactivity and agency are prioritised and facilitated by AfL approaches. The teachers developed a heightened sense of intuition about their students' learning through developing skills of interpretive listening. *In common with other studies on AfL, it was also clear that pressures of time are key factors in inhibiting its consistent use. This study indicates potentially fruitful lines for further research such as the examination of the process of interpretive listening and Home Economics teachers' responsiveness to classroom dynamics. Additionally, the research serves to open up new ways of assisting Home Economics teachers to implement formative assessment practices more effectively.*

Key words: Assessment for Learning approaches to pedagogy, Home Economics, classroom learning, classroom ecology

Introduction

This paper reports on a study into the use of AfL in the Home Economics classroom. The study sits in the context of teaching and learning approaches, the influence of teachers' beliefs and the continuing debate over the impact of the quality of learning within examination oriented contexts. This paper adds to the growing body of research evidence, such as that from Black and Wiliam (1998), the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NCCA) (2005), Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2005), Tierney (2006), the Council for the Curriculum Examinations and Assessment/ Education and Library Board

(CCEA/ELB) (2009), MacPhail and Halbert (2010), Finnegan et al. (2010) and Black and Wiliam (2012), that a formative assessment approach and use of AfL can enhance classroom ecology and student outcomes. The term *classroom ecology* in this paper refers to the relationship between students and their learning environment and teachers and their classroom environment. There is currently little information available on classroom dynamics and the effectiveness of AfL in a Home Economics educational context. Therefore, it was necessary firstly to consult the literature across educational disciplines and to glean insights from best practice before specifically reporting on what is known about AfL in a Home Economics context.

It is widely acknowledged that AfL approaches promote formative and developmental use of assessment. In AfL, information is gathered during the learning process (as opposed to the end of a unit of work) to inform and modify learning. The term *formative assessment* is often used to refer to how evidence of student achievement is elicited, construed and used by teachers and learners to inform future learning. Sometimes however, it has been used to describe the process of carrying out many summative tests over time to provide diagnostic information and often a final assessment of learning. Gardner (2012) argues that the term AfL is less likely to be used to describe the use of multiple summative assessments of learning and that the two terms can be used interchangeably when there is no ambiguity in the type of assessment process being described (p.3). It is in this sense that they are used in this paper. The literature and most notably Black and Wiliam (2009) suggest that AfL type approaches are effective. This is argued to be due to the relationship between the quality of interactive feedback and the quality of learning, which combine to raise the level of student involvement and achievement, especially for previously under-achieving students, and improve students' ability to learn.

However, James (2006) notes that existing assessment practice is "sometimes out of step with developments in learning theory and can undermine effective teaching and learning because its washback effect is so powerful" (p. 58). Social constructivist learning theory views learning as a social process in which the individual develops meaning and Torrance and Pryor (2001) explain that this perspective portrays assessment as a socially embedded process. When existing examination-oriented practice is the norm, there is more emphasis on learning how to perform well in the test rather than on learning in a social context. Lysaght and O'Leary (2013) argue that in practice, the result of this orientation to examinations is that teachers who operate from models based on "behaviourist learning theories and scientific measurement will not easily give way to those based on social constructivism and sociocultural theories of teaching and learning" (p.219).

Moreover, Lysaght and O'Leary (2013) argue that incongruence between teacher beliefs and practice can actually inhibit the integration of AfL and any assessment processes that support learning. A key challenge exists when teachers hold deeply held beliefs about teaching and learning that are highly resistant to change and these may remain if they are latent and unchallenged. James (2006) throws light on this complex phenomenon by explaining how some teachers have "clear and internally consistent theories of learning to underpin their assessment practice ... but some disjunction between *espoused theory* and *theory-in-practice* is common, as is a lack of theoretical coherence" (p.49). Dixon, Hawe and Parr (2011) also

point to the beliefs-practice nexus and how teachers' espoused beliefs and practice can sometimes be incongruent. A plausible explanation in the Irish context for this paradox is likely to be the situation in which performance in Leaving Certificate examinations is seen as the *gateway* to the world of work and higher education (senior cycle/upper secondary students are required to complete the Leaving Certificate examinations at the end of senior cycle education). It is likely that this pressure makes student-orientated and enhanced teaching activities much less of a priority for Irish teachers and in the particular case of this paper, Home Economics teachers.

Adopting an AfL-type pedagogy can enable the challenging of a teacher's beliefs in relation to practice. For example, Pedder and James (2012) argue that teachers and students develop new understandings and perspectives of each other and the nature and practice of teaching and learning when adopting an AfL approach. "It involves transformations in classroom processes, and this entails change not only in what teachers and students do, but also in how they relate ... As learning becomes more explicit and visible, students and teachers are helped to become more conscious of the *how* and *why* of learning as an invaluable support for developing more effective strategies and increasing agency, autonomy, accountability and informed choice in learning" (p.37). One salient conclusion of their *Learning How to Learn Project* (2001-2005) was that an inquiry approach to teacher learning is productive:

> *If teachers are prepared and committed to engage in the risky business of problematizing their own practice, seeking evidence to evaluate in order to judge where change is needed, and then to act on their decisions, they are thus engaging in assessment for learning with respect to their own professional learning. Helping students to do the same with respect to their learning becomes less challenging because teachers are familiar with the principles and processes through inquiry into their own practices (pp.41-42).*

Wiliam and Leahy (2007) and Black and Wiliam (2009) have provided theoretical foundations for formative assessment in recent years in an attempt to offer a rationale within a framework of broader pedagogical theories and to unify diverse formative assessment practices. Black and Wiliam (2009) elucidate the meaning of formative assessment by referring to *moments of contingency*. These occur in teaching and learning and are an integral part of the classroom ecology. Moments of contingency occur during the process of collecting evidence of learning and it is these moments that are coupled with action that lead to adjustments, which improve learning by both teachers and students (p.212). These moments of contingency may be synchronous or asynchronous whereby adjustments are made to the direction of teaching during a discussion in 'real time' or when correcting homework or considering evidence at a later stage. Teachers, learners and peers are considered agents in decision making and decisions are informed by evidence. As Black and Wiliam (2009) argue: "How teachers, learners and their peers create and capitalise on these moments of contingency entails considerations of instructional design, curriculum, pedagogy, psychology and epistemology" (p.6).

The previous quotation hints at the complexity of AfL as a pedagogical approach that uses multiple assessment activities to enhance learning. There are many variations on how this information is presented and the connection to formative assessment warrants elucidation.

Wiliam and Thompson (2007) conceptualise formative assessment based on three key processes, similar to Stiggins, Arter, Chappuis and Chappuis (2007) who identify questions relating to the establishment of where the learners are in their learning, where they are going and how they will get there. In their framework, Wiliam and Thompson (2007) identified three agents involved in the process (teacher, peer and learner), three processes (where the learner is going, where the learner is right now and how to get there) and five key strategies:

1. explaining and sharing learning intentions and success criteria,
2. engineering classroom discourse and learning activities that elicit evidence of student understanding,
3. providing *feedforward* (feedback that moves learners forward),
4. encouraging peer interaction and collaboration, and
5. encouraging self-regulated learning.

There are many types of activity that enable the achievement of the five key strategies. The dominant focus (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & Wiliam, 2003; Wiliam, 2000, 2007) has centred on the following types of activity and these categories arose from evidence of their effectiveness in improving learning: sharing success criteria with learners, classroom questioning, comment only marking, peer and self-assessment and the formative use of summative tests. The underlying research reported here represents an attempt to examine how AfL can be developed and sustained in Home Economics classrooms.

Home Economics classroom assessment

The present study arose primarily from a desire to examine the implications of the need for additional teacher support for classroom assessment in Home Economics, as articulated formally by Ireland's Department of Education and Science (DES) (2008) in the Department's Inspectorate report *Looking at Home Economics: Teaching and Learning in Post-Primary Schools*. The practice of assessment was described as effective in most of the schools but concerns were expressed in relation to the use of a range of assessment modes to assess all aspects of the syllabuses. It was reported that assessment policies were not used in most cases to "inform practice with regard to the assessment of students' progress" (p.36) and the inspectors specifically recommended that subject departments should explore the principles of AfL. However, the DES (2008) and MacPhail and Halbert (2010) respectively note a lack of clarity relating to the assessment of student progress and a lack of detail on how assessment is to be "operationalised" (p.24) and, not surprisingly perhaps, the application of AfL in a Home Economics context has not been extensively reported.

MacPhail and Halbert (2010) identify how in Ireland "critical practice-referenced research" is limited (p.24) and it was the very limited focus in Home Economics pedagogy literature on the impact of AfL on student learning that inspired this study. This paper therefore reports on a detailed study to address a deficit in knowledge in terms of whether AfL can contribute to better learning in a Home Economics context and to how assessment can be used to adapt classroom ecology to facilitate quality learning. The key research questions were:

1. What factors influence Home Economics assessment practice?

2. How effective is an AfL approach in enhancing teaching and learning in a Home Economics context?

3. What type of classroom ecology best supports AfL practice?

This study sought to contribute to the growing practice-related research in the area of formative assessment by sharing the reflective experiences of Home Economics teachers.

Research methods

The research reported here was undertaken in four second-level schools in the east and south-east of Ireland. Eight Home Economics teachers and their selected classes participated in the implementation of an AfL research project over the two year period 2009-2011. At the outset of the project, the teachers completed a baseline, ten-item narrative response questionnaire to establish their existing views on assessment, features of typical assessment practice in their Home Economics classes and how the modes of assessment they choose support learning. They also identified their perceptions of summative assessment, formative assessment and AfL, thereby enabling the level of their understanding of assessment concepts to be established prior to the implementation of the AfL project. The teachers involved in this study engaged in a series of conversations with the first named researcher over time and any salient points that emerged were recorded in field notes. The analysis of the questionnaire data and the initial field notes collected from the project-related conversations, informed the design of the teachers' AfL resources that formed a project training pack.

After the initial orientation phase, the main period of research proceeded on the same social constructivist basis as the process of AfL itself. Training packs and resources, including student learning journals, were co-created by the teachers and the first-named researcher and were reproduced and distributed to all of the teachers. Initial one-day cluster discussions were held regarding the process and principles of AfL with each group of participating teachers. Student journals were also co-designed and structured in two parts; the first half providing space for the recording of learning aims, feedback, personal targets and self-assessments; with the second part comprising an evaluation section for the students to record their views in relation to their participation and enjoyment of learning. The continuous completion of the student journals was patchy but by the end of the project some 46 completed journals were available. The teachers were requested to review the training pack materials and to implement strategies they considered appropriate in their own context. In a similar manner to the students, they were encouraged to note their reflections in a running record-type of diary journal and, also in a similar manner, the completion of the diaries was patchy. The social peer-to-peer professional learning approach extended to encouraging the teachers to plan and design new strategies collaboratively on an ongoing manner throughout the project. They were encouraged to experiment with AfL techniques, to design and create subject specific adaptations and to share experiences with each other. The project concluded with each participant providing a summary reflection piece that revealed their views regarding the impact of AfL methods on classroom practice. Although the diaries were not consistently implemented by all teachers throughout the research period, those that were completed proved very useful in complementing the summary reflections.

Data analysis

Data analysis was an on-going process from the beginning of data collection and included the analysis of field notes from planning meetings and the many project-related conversations, the teachers' diaries and summary reflections, and the students' learning journals. This very large volume of data required an interpretive approach to data reduction and analysis as quantitative techniques were not amenable to the methods used in this project. The process involved an initial and continuing immersion in all of the data as they were collated, with parallel and ongoing analysis of their content. The final analysis took in the summary reflection reports from each teacher at the end of the project. Using a Rapley and Jenkings (2010) approach, the focus of data extraction was on the identification of data that enabled the researchers to focus in on the key ideas, concepts and themes arising from the data sets (p.382). This included searching for areas of convergence/agreement and divergence/disagreement in the teachers' written narratives and comments from the field notes. Categories for analysis were generated from the early immersion stage and they were framed around the key research questions. The first category addressed questions 1 (factors affecting assessment practice) and 2 (effectiveness of AfL in enhancing teaching and learning) above and the second category addressed question 3 (features of classroom ecology that support learning). As the project approached completion, the various inferences from the large volume of data were respondent-validated, that is, validated through discussions with the teachers on the credibility of the interpretations being made. The final stage involved a synthesis of the overarching findings and the production of "explicit interpretations" (p.382).

The results are set out under the themes: perceptions of assessment practice and teachers' views on the impact of the AfL approach on classroom practices. They are illustrated by comments from teachers in order to assist the reader in contextualising the findings.

Findings

Perceptions of assessment practice

The teachers' initial perceptions of assessment (based on the start of project questionnaire) revealed that all of the teachers used a range of assessments to support learning including classroom questioning, mini-summative assessments at the end of a section of learning and feedback on homework. All of the teachers were able to define summative assessment as the assessment of student learning at the end of a period of learning and whilst most were aware of formative assessment, only a few were sufficiently knowledgeable about how to embed it in practice. Some of the teachers were aware of AfL specifically and described it as a toolkit of assessment strategies that can be used to enhance learning.

Meaningful learning that addressed the aim and mission of the subject of Home Economics was considered by many teachers to be a desirable student outcome. One teacher described this as "learning which the students take ownership of and which they will retain for life." Another teacher expressed the view that "learning for life needs to come across more than learning for the month of June … it is learning that can be applied to different situations." All of the teachers concluded that the *big* summative examination is a *memory* test and suitable for those who are good at memorising. In the words of one teacher: "A lot of it is students

cramming it in at the end and remembering it for a day or two and then it is gone ... learning for June and then forget about it."

All of the teachers revealed the pressures they experience in covering the curriculum in a limited timeframe and they alluded to the negative impact of assessment on student learning outcomes. The teachers felt that the pressure they experienced created internal conflict between wishing to address the aims and mission of the subject and the realities of both attempting to address an extensive curriculum within a limited timeframe, and facing the pressure of having to *teach to the test* to ensure good class results in the State examinations. This influence of examinations on teaching and learning is a form of *washback*, a term that has been used by a variety of writers including Hamp-Lyons (1997), Alderson (2004), Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, (2004) and Hawkey (2006) to describe this type of impact. The results of the research reported here strongly imply that teaching to the test negatively impacted on pedagogic practice and the ability of the teachers to cover the full curriculum.

Teachers' views on the impact of the AfL approach on classroom practices

Student engagement

Overall the Home Economics teachers agreed that working with AfL was a worthwhile and rewarding experience and that students were more engaged and alert. In their view, greater student engagement and enjoyment during the process of learning resulted in better student-teacher relationships. AfL strategies were viewed as novel and one teacher reported that in the beginning, "students thought it was a game." In common with findings from the literature, one teacher noted that the "students were genuinely enthused … Students appeared to have more ownership of their learning and a clear framework of where they were headed."

Teacher observational skills

The teachers' diaries and summary reflection pieces revealed that they had developed their observational skills and awareness during the project and became more keenly aware of the need to look for clues and cues to student understanding. They became more aware of the needs of learners based on evidence such as verbal and non-verbal cues, which provided insights into the learners' level of understanding.

Teachers' insights from classroom interactions

Black and Wiliam (2009) referred to the process of stimulating thought amongst learners, which can lead to active learner involvement but less predictable classroom dialogue. For them, formative interaction is a "contingent activity" (p.212). They argue that in a formative mode, "a teacher's attention must be focused on what she or he can learn about the student's thinking from their response" (p.212). The bi-directional interpretative process of teacher assimilation of student responses and student interpretation of teacher responses is not clearly understood as it depends on how any response is interpreted. Similarly in this study, the teachers' reflections show how their own thoughtful responses enabled the development of a pattern of deep and meaningful dialogic interaction with students. They

felt this supported productive learning and confidence building in the students as learners. It can be reasonably concluded that the teachers developed a greater awareness of the formative potential of such discourses, that is they developed what Davis (1997) called "interpretative listening" (p.364).

Examples of this were evident in their diaries where they wrote of students providing them with 'real time' feedback, for example, by using traffic light circles to indicate their personal level of understanding. Students would hold up a set of 'lights' (red, amber and green circles cut from coloured card) where a green light indicated good understanding, amber represented some understanding and a red light signalled no understanding. One teacher revealed that "the learners were quite open to using them and they proved successful for highlighting areas of difficulty and areas to be re-taught." Another teacher reported that "It was challenging as a teacher to decide when to continue teaching … Being realistic there is not time to stop every time a student is unsure of something … reacting to the lack of understanding is the problem." The study did not resolve the difficulty of ensuring 'green light students' are not held back as a result of re-teaching the subject matter or giving individual support to students displaying amber and red lights. It was clear that the teachers struggled when determining the amount of time they should spend on re-teaching components. One teacher revealed that the evidence of understanding informed and changed her practice as a lot of 'red lights' were an indication that her approach to teaching the topic had to be reassessed. "I have had to re-assess the methods that I was using to teach a few topics as a result of this AfL work. This has been a learning experience for me."

The teachers' diaries also showed that they became more aware of the types of questions that could be used in class. As they saw the potential of each type of question to stimulate thought and discussion, they began to anticipate the likely student responses and would plan their own responses to these. One teacher explained that "you are thinking ahead about where questions might lead. You pose questions that direct them to the next step in the learning process not just the correct answer." For some of the teachers, it was clear that their attention was focused on what they could find out about students' thinking and level of understanding from their responses, and they created a scaffold for learning by asking prompting questions which led to further student insights.

Feedback and feedforward

Reflecting on their experiences, all of the teachers felt that as a process, AfL was able to contribute to greater understanding for the learner of where their own strengths and weaknesses lie. The teachers' diaries recorded instances where students considered the feedback they received to be encouraging and motivating, especially when it was promptly delivered. Teachers who used a comment-only marking strategy encouraged students to focus on the quality of learning rather than grades and to take on board feedback in setting targets for future action. Many of the teachers expressed the view that lower ability students preferred the comment-only approach, but higher achieving students resented the approach and preferred to receive a grade with the feedback.

Research by Black et al. (2003) has shown that giving feedback only to students rather than grades puts more emphasis on the learning and can reduce competitiveness in the classroom. However, the majority of the teachers involved in this research revealed that their students displayed a strong preference for receiving grades and comments. This may not be unusual and Gardner (2006) argues that in classroom environments where summative assessment practices are the norm, the use of comment-only feedback "may be seriously contentious and may struggle to achieve its aim of supporting anxious students (or their parents!) to next steps in their learning" (p.202). The teachers commented on workload issues and time required to deliver feedback. One teacher felt that with large class sizes, it is difficult to issue regular personalised feedback. "If you had 6 or 7 in a class that is fine, but if you had 25 or 26 it would be impossible, it would take you a whole class … it would be just impossible."

Responsibility for learning

The running records indicated an interesting phenomenon in the early stages of the project during which the teachers felt they were responsible for completing the record keeping and progress monitoring of their students' work. This is to some extent in direct conflict with the conventional AfL approach which encourages student empowerment in the process and ownership of setting and monitoring personal targets. Eventually the teachers cottoned on to the fact that this is a key feature of the AfL approach and they began to encourage the students to take responsibility for monitoring their own learning.

As one of the teachers wrote:

> *Ultimately it should be easier because you would end up with a group of students that are more motivated, but initially it would be difficult because you would be changing your approach and your idea of what teaching is all about.*

Most of the teachers reported that their students had reservations about using peer assessment techniques and this suggests that this is an area for development. Lysaght and O'Leary (2013), however, argue that a teacher's dependence on mental models based on social efficiency, behaviourist learning theories and scientific measurement can cause difficulty in coming to terms with AfL strategies such as peer-assessment, self-assessment and classroom discussion, strategies that are oriented around social constructivism and sociocultural theories of teaching and learning. According to such writers as Black et al. (2003), Harlen (2007) and Marshall (2007), peer assessment methods have been proven effective in enabling the development of proactive learners, stimulating dialogue about constructs, raising expectations about standards and raising self-esteem. Most of the teachers felt that self-assessment strategies are beneficial with one teacher confirming that her "students were evaluating and critically reflecting on learning."

Analysis of the student learning journals (*n* = 46) showed that some of the students required assistance in developing the language of reflection and evaluation. Perhaps predictably, all of them found it easy to record learning outcomes, but much of this was of limited value, for example, comments such as "I was good". Clearly if they could have articulated the reason why their work was good, they would have had a better awareness of their progress in reaching the desired standard of accomplishment in the set task and could then build on this

progress. From the teachers' perspective, the students' learning journals enhanced the formative interactions. This accords with Perrenoud's view (1998), that a teacher's focus is on interventions that regulate learning and "any intervention has to involve an incursion into the representation and thought processes of the pupil to accelerate a breakthrough in understanding a new point of view or the shaping of a notion which can immediately become operative" (p.97). The student learning journals were particularly successful in this study in providing teachers with the opportunity to explore the students' thinking and glean information on their level of understanding. This helped them to accelerate a breakthrough in student understanding by formulating appropriately matched responses.

Discussion

At the outset of the research, the teachers were not very familiar with formative assessment and the process of AfL and it is fair to say that over the two years, three of the teachers approached the initiative with enthusiasm and two others became more engaged as time went on. At the other end of the spectrum, the remaining three tended to be rather more reserved. Such variation is not unusual and will be influenced by a wide variety of factors including the teachers' beliefs and dispositions towards teaching and learning and environmental factors relating to such matters as pressure of work and examination classes. Nevertheless, all of the teachers were comfortable experimenting with the formative assessment methods in non-examination classes and for topics they felt were suitable for AfL techniques. Lysaght and O'Leary (2013) have examined the demands facing teachers when adapting practice to new activities. In their view, teachers are expected to have adaptive expertise where they can analyse the social and psychological learning context in relation to the learning outcomes to be achieved, and to adjust teaching methods to meet student needs in real time. Whilst acknowledging this challenge, a consistent approach to the implementation of AfL methods across the curriculum can lead to improved student outcomes and enhanced learning. Indeed one teacher confirmed that in her view an inconsistent approach to the implementation of the AfL process can lead to student confusion, distraction from the attainment of learning goals and potentially a loss of intrinsic motivation as they are pulled from one approach to another.

Many studies of innovation in pedagogy point to a lack of time for innovating practice and all of the teachers in this study expressed concern about the amount of time required to adopt the new techniques. For example, additional time was needed for students to make entries regarding personal learning and progress, for planning, for re-teaching components that had been misunderstood and for the delivery of feedback especially to larger classes. Time was also required for teachers (and students) to adopt and adjust to new AfL-type pedagogy and to try out new ideas. In a more positive disposition to the issue of time, some of the teachers acknowledged that growing familiarity with AfL increased the efficiency of time usage with one teacher expressing the view that "in terms of productivity, less content is covered when implementing techniques, however, when students get more familiar with the methodologies, the pacing and timing improves."

The insights gathered from the teachers' reflections provided evidence of significant professional learning from engagement in the project. The teachers demonstrated a more developed awareness of classroom dynamics and revealed that they had improved their

observational skills and awareness. They found themselves keenly looking for clues and cues that would provide insights into the students' level of understanding. They had begun to look at the potential of each question they asked to stimulate thought and discussion and responses were anticipated in advance. Arguably the teachers had developed a heightened sense of intuition about learning. The project set out to explore the use of AfL approaches to pedagogy in a Home Economics context and the data from the teachers roundly endorses the view that it can and does work. The results support the following responses to the three key research questions underpinning the project:

- What factors influence Home Economics assessment practice?

The teachers in this study were experiencing pressures in covering an extensive curriculum and preparing students for summative examinations. There was general consensus that the existing subject assessment design focusing primarily on a summative examination falls short of addressing the aims and mission of the subject. The teachers were therefore amenable to a formative assessment approach that complements the summative assessment by addressing the desired outcomes and mission of the subject during teaching.

- How effective is an AfL approach in enhancing teaching and learning in a Home Economics context?

Results from the majority of the teachers' experience suggest that an AfL approach is effective and the benefits experienced were many. For example, students were engaged and motivated and took ownership of their own learning in more significant ways than before. When the students took responsibility for learning, the teachers felt less pressurised and reported that the students enjoyed the process and reaped the rewards. However, both the teachers and students were dubious about the value of peer assessment. The teachers had reservations about using peer assessment, primarily because it was a new concept for them and they were concerned about the implications of students assessing each other. This suggests that the results of research (e.g., Black et al., 2003; Harlen, 2007; Marshall 2007) that shows peer assessment can be of value in the development of proactive learners and in the stimulation of classroom dialogue needs to be better mediated for practitioners if it is to become a regular feature in assessment practices.

Time taken to develop new methods of teaching and learning, to prepare resources and implement the strategies were constant challenges for the teachers but, as noted, when the students became more familiar with the methods, it was less time consuming. Some of the teachers felt that the success of the AfL warranted adoption on a wider basis and in one of the schools, this policy was pursued in the following academic year.

- What type of classroom ecology best supports AfL practice?

The study showed that the overall impact of the use of the various AfL strategies created a positive washback effect on the Home Economics teachers' practice. Increased student learning and engagement, enthusiasm, motivation and autonomy were evident in the student and teacher journals and in the teachers' summative reflections. These observations confirm

findings that Black et al. (2003) and Finnegan et al. (2010) had previously recorded that student-teacher relationships improve when AfL approaches are adopted. The teachers also reported that the students were overcoming shyness or fear around asking questions. Their proactive involvement was tangible as the learning environment was supported in the sense that it was considered safe to offer views and all responses were considered worthy. The current study suggests that desirable classroom ecology is one in which students are free to do this and where engagement, alertness, enthusiasm, motivation and learner autonomy are evident. The teachers' observational skills become more fine-tuned and through interpretative listening, they develop a heightened sense of intuition into the level of student understanding from interactions with the students about learning. This latter phenomenon of interpretative listening is under-researched and clearly demands more attention in the arena of using assessment in Home Economics to support learning.

In an average day, students accumulate a variety of learning experiences. A whole school approach to enhancing professional learning is a recommendation of this study as teachers perceive learning from different perspectives. Throughout the work, the overriding conclusion was that AfL involves using a different lens through which to view the learning environment. It is clear that the focus of assimilation of AfL approaches in today's Home Economics classrooms should be on the process and quality of learning rather than simply adopting another toolkit of teaching and assessment strategies.

Acknowledgement

Biography

Kathryn Mc Sweeney is an assessment consultant and researcher. She previously worked as a lecturer in Home Economics Education at St Angela's College, Sligo, Ireland. She recently completed PhD studies with the University of Stirling in Educational Assessment. Her current roles include: Advising Examiner of Junior Certificate Examinations, Judging Panellist on the National Undergraduate Awards (Ireland), Coordinating Editor of the IJHE and IFHE Think Tank Committee member. Speciality areas of research and interest include: Curriculum Studies, Pedagogy, Lesson Study, Assessment and Social Marketing. Correspondence to: kathryn@kathrynmcsweeney.com

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Notes for contributors

Website

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> *Professor Donna Pendergast, PhD is Dean of the School of Education and Professional Studies at Griffith University, Brisbane, Australia. Donna researches and writes about Home Economics philosophy, education and practice. Donna recently completed her 4-year term as Vice President of the Pacific Region and member of the IFHE Executive. She continues to serve the profession as Chairperson of the IFHE Think Tank Committee and Editor of the International Journal of Home Economics. She has served as National President of the Home Economics Institute of Australia, and President of the Queensland division.*

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McGregor, S. L. T. (2007a). Consumer scholarship and transdisciplinarity. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 31*(5), 487–495.

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