

Curriculum as a Home Economics Construct

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Abstract

This paper teases out curriculum as a home economics construct so practitioners can ensure responsible and accountable practice from a curricular perspective. Beyond the readily recognizable state-approved curriculum, 12 other kinds of curricula are discussed (e.g., official, hidden, null, operational [taught], received [learned], concealed, societal, ideological). Curricular types vary from (a) what is supposed to be taught, (b) what should be taught, (c) what is actually taught, (d) what is learned outside formal schooling, (e) what is inferred by students, or (f) what is left out completely. Curricula are characterized as overt and covert, external and internal, intentional and unintentional, and articulated and unspoken. What counts as curriculum differs in the minds of officials, teachers, students, society, home, stakeholders, and the media. A key takeaway is that curriculum is ubiquitous making it very hard to pin down and clarify. But home economists are obligated to do just that because students' learning cannot be happenstance. Recommendations are tendered for future research.

KEYWORDS: CURRICULUM, CURRICULUM AS A CONSTRUCT, TYPES OF CURRICULA, HOME ECONOMICS, EDUCATION

In its centennial Position Statement about what constitutes Home Economics, the International Federation for Home Economics (IFHE, 2008) recognized curriculum as one of four key dimensions of practice (see Figure 1). Home economics¹ is “a *curriculum area* that facilitates students to discover and further develop their own resources and capabilities to be used in their personal life, by directing their professional decisions and actions or preparing them for life” (p. 1). This paper addresses curriculum and its many meanings with the author assuming that home economists cannot adequately address the curriculum area dimension of their practice with a narrow conceptualization of what constitutes curriculum. The broader their understanding of the curriculum construct, the more effective and accountable their practice in the curriculum area.

In more detail, curriculum herein is framed as a construct, meaning it is an idea “containing various conceptual elements, typically one to be subjective and not based on empirical evidence” (Lexico, n.d., para. 2). *Curriculum as a construct* is assumed to be the object of a person’s mind or thoughts. This means its existence depends on their mind (Bunge, 1974). That is, what home economists *think* counts as curriculum affects what they teach and how and with what degree of accountability to students and society. Thus, critical awareness of how one

¹ Ideas herein pertain to home economics as well as family and consumer sciences, human ecology, human sciences, family studies, home ecology, home sciences, and household sciences.

understands curriculum impacts home economics practice. How home economists interpret what curriculum means to them matters. They must

...have the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to successfully implement equitable pedagogy and practice. Before teachers can effectively enrich their students' lives, they need to enrich their own understanding [of what constitutes curriculum]. ...Teachers need to be aware of not only their beliefs and attitudes but also critically examine the materials they utilize. ...Teachers need to “identify the ideological messages in texts” [so they can] make informed ... curriculum and pedagogical decisions. ... Teachers need to examine their own perspective and materials within their classroom to be effective. (Lauridsen, 2003, pp. 62-63)

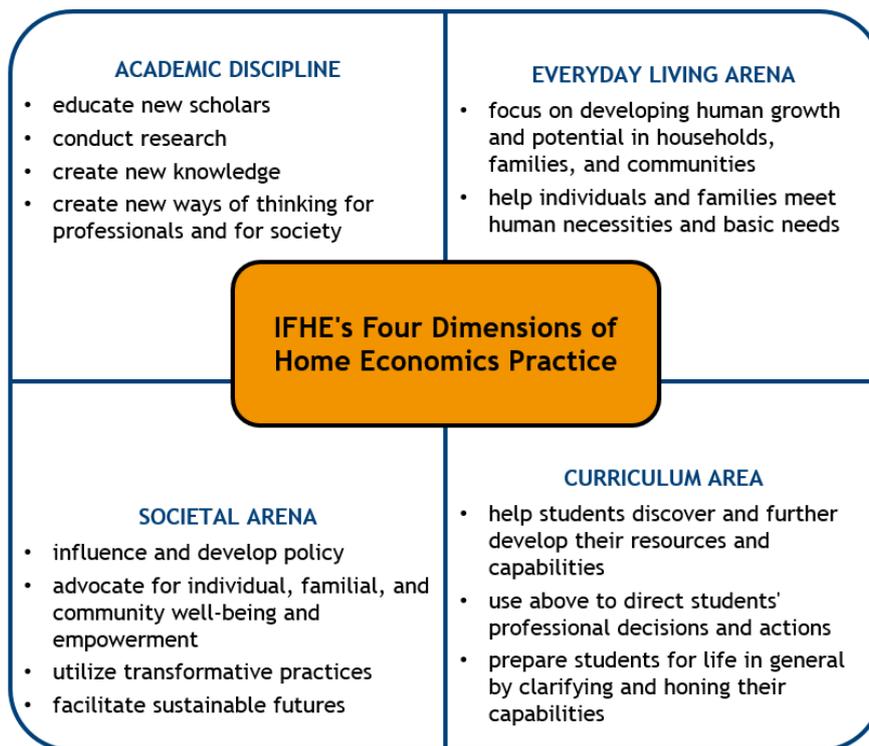


Figure 1 International Federation for Home Economics' dimensions of home economics practice

Curriculum Defined

Curriculum is Latin *currus*, “racetrack or chariot” and *currere*, “to run” (Harper, 2022). Technically, a curriculum is thus a course to run, a learning track to follow while overcoming obstacles. But curriculum is not as clean cut as this definition suggests—it is more than the formal, state-sanctioned, official curriculum. Since 1881, the term curriculum has referred to systems of education with system meaning a set of things working together as a mechanism or as an interconnecting network (Harper, 2022).

Through formal, informal, and nonformal curricula, students learn strong lessons that resonate with them on several levels—emotional, social, and intellectual. This paper concerns the various kinds of curriculum beyond formal and why it matters that home economists have knowledge of them. Awareness of curricular diversity orients them to the nuances of the *education system* that can impact what students learn or not, intentionally or not, knowingly or not.

Curricular Types

Wilson (2021) identified a variety of curricular types (see Table 1 for plain-language summary). Each is examined (drawing on Wilson unless otherwise stated) followed with an overview of commonalities and variations noted by other curriculum scholars (e.g., Cortes, 1981; Eisner, 1994; Glatthorn et al., 2012; Goodlad, 1979 and associates; Goodlad & Su, 1992). Taken together, the different kinds of curriculum represent a comprehensive approach to conceptualizing curriculum beyond the readily recognizable formal, state-approved curriculum.

Table 1 Kinds of Curriculum (adapted from Wilson, 2021)

Type of Curriculum	Definition
Formal, Explicit, Overt, Official	What is <i>supposed</i> to be taught
Pragmatic (Curriculum in Use)	What is <i>actually</i> taught
Unofficial	What teachers believe <i>ought</i> to be taught
Received (Learned)	What students <i>actually</i> learn and understand (tested and verified)
Concealed, Internal Schema	Learning in students' minds that is concealed from teachers (not tested)
Hidden, Covert, Implied	Strong, enduring educational ideologies and social norms that students learn without realizing it (not formally taught)
Social	What students learn when interacting with peers
Societal	What students learn via socializing forces outside of school
Concomitant/Home and Family	What students learn at home and in their family
Rhetorical	Rhetoric from stakeholders outside the education system that affects curricula
Phantom (Media Exposure)	Persistent messaging from mainstream media exposure that enculturates students to society's dominant views and to generational subcultures
Electronic	What students learn on the internet and through social e-networking
Null	What is <i>not</i> taught (what is <i>left out</i> of student learning intentionally or not)

As a caveat, scholars focused on curricular types tend to not categorize them, accepting them as standalone in nature. An examination of Table 1 reveals that they differ on several factors including but not limited to normativity, actualities, where learning occurs (in class, minds, families, communities, media), influential power figures, and visibility. These and other differences complicate initiatives to create any sort of overall taxonomy (Catalano, 2010). As a further caveat, the addition of home economics examples was avoided as a matter of principle to avoid taking critical, incisive power away from readers who are in a myriad of contexts. Evidence of different types of curricula will be relative ("Curriculum", 2015a; Smith, 2002). Adding examples could lead to many readers *not seeing themselves* in the paper.

Formal, Explicit, Overt, Official

The *formal* curriculum is that which is approved, printed, and distributed by a government's Department of Education or equivalent policy body. It includes any curriculum guides, framework documents, outcome and standard documents, and approved or state-authored textbooks and resources (Di Mascio, 2013). It is called *explicit* because it is a clear, easy-to-understand and detailed account of what teachers are supposed to teach based on a combination of disciplinary standards, best practice, prevailing ideologies, and convincing rhetoric (Whitson, 2005; Wilson, 2021). It is called *overt* because it is an open expression of "the intended instructional agenda" (Wilson, 2021, p. 2) and a government document openly available for public scrutiny. Teachers are expected (nah ... required) to know and teach the *official* curriculum and use it as a framework, roadmap, or blueprint to plan their instruction (Whitson, 2005).

Pragmatic (Curriculum in Use)

Pragmatic is Latin *pragmatikos*, “relating to fact” (Harper, 2022). This type of curriculum is called *pragmatic* because it refers to what actually happens in teaching practice (as a matter of fact) rather than what is supposed to happen; it is the *curriculum in use*. Despite the existence of an official curriculum, teachers often teach what they realistically *can* teach depending on a variety of factors but especially (a) subject-matter training and comfort level with state-mandated content, educational philosophy, and rationale; (b) instructional strategy competencies; (c) available time and other resources; and (d) competing duties and obligations.

Unofficial

Unofficial means not authorized, not approved, and not sanctioned (Anderson, 2014). The unofficial curriculum constitutes what teachers *believe* should be taught, but their beliefs fall outside the realm of the official, state-approved curriculum. The unofficial curriculum can be intentional, planned, and subversive (i.e., purposefully teaching outside the lines), or it can be quite spontaneous through taking advantage of teachable moments. The unofficial curriculum is “what the teacher ‘really’ wants students to learn.” Its presence in the education system becomes entangled with the issue of an “individual teacher’s academic freedom” or how free teachers are to deliver unsanctioned learning without recrimination (Whitson, 2005, p. 2).

Received (Learned)

This kind of curriculum concerns what students actually take away from the explicit, pragmatic, and unofficial curricula. It is called *received* because students (a) detect content that resonates with them, (b) accept what was taught and (c) internalize it to create new knowledge and understandings (per Anderson, 2014). They graft the new information onto their existing knowledge schema (see next). The extent of their learning can be affirmed and verified. Hallemeier argued that the received curriculum (i.e., the *learned* curriculum) is very important because “teaching is not the same as student learning” (2015, Slide #7). Teachers must be able to determine what students actually learned and can do this using both assessment (formative) and evaluation (summative).

Concealed, Internal Schema

Wilson (2021) envisioned students’ *internal schema* as a curriculum that is concealed (unknown and unseen) from the teacher but plays a very powerful role in students’ learning. Put simply, each student comes to class with their own (a) lived experiences; (b) a prior knowledge schema; and (c) mental processes, learning styles, and learning preferences. This means that each student is affected differently by the learning environment, learning climate, pedagogical style, and content taught. This curriculum is really their *life course* that they bring to the class. Albeit with little control over the *concealed* curriculum, teachers can explore its depth and extent by using exit slips and reflective and debriefing exercises to find out what students know coming into a lesson and remember or take away (meaningful learning) from a lesson or learning activity (e.g., laboratory experience or field trip)(Wilson, 2021).

Hidden, Covert, Implied

The *hidden* curriculum is very powerful and often insidious (i.e., gradually, subtly proceeding with harmful effect). Students do not even *know* they are learning about strong and durable ideologies, paradigms, norms, and values of the surrounding society. This curriculum is *implied* through seating arrangements, the use of classroom space, lining up for recess, singing the national anthem, saying a particular prayer or a blessing, raising hands to speak, competing for grades, or adhering to a rigid timetable. School boards, principals, teachers, aids, and custodial staff *subtly* (sometimes overtly) convey what is important to learn and what characterizes when learning is happening (Wilson, 2021). *Subtle* means a delicate, understated process that is

difficult to describe or analyze yet still reaps strong results (Anderson, 2014). Students *infer* what is important to learn and how it should be learned based on evidence in front of their eyes and their own reasoning processes (Wilson, 2021).

An example helps illustrate the hidden curriculum (see Figure 2). In situations like this, students are being educated, and they do not even *know* it because the curriculum is not openly acknowledged or displayed (i.e., it is *covert*). Dominant societal notions of what counts as and is worth learning are being conveyed indirectly and are basically *hidden* from view. But they exert incredibly enduring learning that is so invisible and covert that students cannot even find it to critique it. They unknowingly absorb lessons from classroom arrangements and scheduling and from teachers, administrators, and support staffs' actions and attitudes ("Hidden Curriculum", 2015; Lukman, 2019; Socol, 2020; Wilson, 2021).

A girl entered a classroom where she saw students sitting in a circle. She assessed the situation and then asked the teacher, "Why aren't we sitting in rows? We cannot learn if we are not sitting in rows." She then turned a seat toward the blackboard and sat down with her back to the class. The custodial staff often chastised this teacher for not putting the seats back in rows when her class was over. They said, "She's not doing it right." Turns out that other instructors had complained to the head of maintenance about the custodians who had left the seats in a circle arguing that "My students cannot learn in this seating arrangement. I have to waste valuable time putting the seats back in rows before I can start teaching."

Figure 2 Example of the hidden curriculum (Source: Author's personal experience)

Social

Students also learn while engaging, interacting, and socializing with their peers. "Besides having fun (which has value in itself!), children learn social skills that include: [sic] communication, cooperation, problem-solving [sic], and perspective taking. Research shows that social skills help children succeed in school and in life, too" (Goyette, n.d., para. 3). The *social* curriculum is important because many students do not know what is expected of them in different social situations. With the teacher's guidance, they can learn these skills while academically and socially interacting with peers. Also, if scaffolded, they can learn appropriate ways to address conflict and help each other understand respective intentions and feelings all of which impact academic learning (Goyette, n.d.) (i.e., the received or learned curriculum).

Societal

A society is an aggregate of people living together in a more-or-less orderly community (Anderson, 2014). The *societal* curriculum refers to all the learning that happens via socializing forces within this community (Wilson, 2021). The latter pertain to "the hidden hand of social forces beyond our control" (Perrino, 2000, para. 2) that guides, controls, and influences people's lives. Students learn from family, peer groups, churches, neighborhoods, workplaces, organizations, public opinion, and the media (mainstream, social media, and alternative press). These societal forces (people and institutions) deeply shape what students are exposed to and learn: values and norms, information and insights (Cortes, 1981; Perrino, 2000).

Concomitant/Home and Family

Concomitant is Latin *concomitari*, "companion, accompany" (Harper, 2022). The *concomitant* curriculum is so called because it refers to students learning through companionship or from people accompanying them or associated with them. Wilson (2021) meant this adjective to pertain to what is learned or emphasized at home and within the family and its experiences. In

addition to being exposed to information (facts) and familial opinions about education, learning, school, and life-related matters, students learn religious expression, political orientations, values, ethics, morals, beliefs, skills, and preferred behaviors. Students also learn content, thinking skills, processes, and knowledge sanctioned by the family, which may or may not align with the state-sanctioned explicit and teacher-sanctioned pragmatic curricula.

Rhetorical

Rhetoric is the art of effective or persuasive speaking or writing to impress upon people one's opinions and beliefs (Pankl & Ryan, 2008). The *rhetorical* curriculum is called thus because it represents ideas from authority figures outside the formal education system (e.g., academics, education experts or pundits, curriculum consultants, policymakers and politicians, administrators). They proffer their thoughts on education (e.g., philosophy, pedagogy, content, evaluation) and the education system using speeches, working papers, state and consultancy reports, media interviews, policies, and regulations and guidelines. Their thoughts often reflect their critique of the education system or existing curricula and how it can be improved or updated to reflect *their* opinions and suggestions. Attendant change to existing, explicit even pragmatic curricula may be immediate, interminably long, or non-existent.

Phantom (Media Exposure)

Phantom means illusory. Something is apparent to the senses (i.e., very real) but has no substantial or material existence—there is form but no substance (Anderson, 2014) (e.g., phantom pain associated with a missing limb). Wilson (2021) used this adjective to represent the curriculum that arises from the prevalent and persistent messaging (ideas, positions, opinions) about education via exposure to all form of media. Yarbrough et al. (1974) described the *phantom* curriculum as “the great unindexed body of data children acquire” (p. 226). Students *learn* when exposed to media, and this indiscriminate learning is relentless and omnipresent (i.e., widely and constantly encountered), especially with the advent of electronic portable devices (Mitchell, 2016) (e.g., tablets, smartphones, MP3 players, laptops, smartwatch).

Wilson (2021) asserted that sustained media exposure “enculturates students to the predominant meta-culture” (p. 2), and this learning is seldom exposed and critiqued. To unpack this statement, consider that enculturation refers to the process of learning and absorbing the dynamics of *one's own* surrounding culture and acquiring beliefs, practices, values, and norms that are appropriate or necessary to adapt to and fit into that culture and its worldviews (Grusec & Hastings, 2007).

Meta is Greek and can mean “in common with, participation, community” (Harper, 2022). The predominant metaculture that Wilson (2021) referred to is any culture or set of cultural phenomena that transcend (go far beyond) the boundaries of class, geography, epochs, and such (Lexico, n.d.). McIntosh (1989) explained that “like islands in the sea, one culture may appear unconnected to another when viewed superficially across the water. But in reality, they are one at foundation level—through the rock; [through] the metaculture” (p. 13). An example is how Celtic, Sanskrit, and other tribal peoples all use a circle to demonstrate the universal principle of continuity.

Metaculture is thus the background that underpins all the world's cultures and helps people experience a common identity as a human being (McIntosh, 1989). He explained that it is “the ground of our being ... that which brings meaningfulness into life” (McIntosh, 1989, p. 13). Wilson (2021) asserted that media exposure plays a pivotal role in defining that metacultural identity with the *phantom* curriculum (learned through media exposure) perpetuating it.

The phantom curriculum is also a powerful agent for acculturating students into cultures *other than* their own main culture especially narrower or generational subcultures, which can influence how the explicit and pragmatic curricula resonate with students (Wilson, 2021).

Subcultures share a set of secondary values (e.g., environmentalists) that differ from mainstream values. Generational subcultures include value differences among generations (25-year time spans). Western examples include the Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X, Millennials, Generation Y, Generation Z, and Generation Alpha. Examples from other regions are available at “Generation” (2022).

Electronic

Wilson (2021) used the adjective electronic to refer to what students learn while surfing the internet for personal (informal, recreational) and/or formal educational purposes. The *electronic* curriculum (a subcategory of the phantom curriculum) can expose students to lessons that are overt or covert, good or bad, correct or incorrect, informative or entertaining, current or dated, perverse or respectable. Students access this curriculum through websites, Blogs, wikis, chatrooms, listservs, instant messaging, emails, TikTok, Twitter, Facebook, YouTube, and all manner of social media platforms. Teachers delivering the explicit and pragmatic curricula must remain vigilant in teaching students to be critical consumers of the *electronic* curriculum so they can stave off manipulation, abuse, bullying, cyber-preying, and such. Teachers must teach netiquette, fair and legal usage, plagiarism and information piracy, and online security (personal identity and financial)(Wilson, 2021).

Null

On a final note, all curricula noted thus far have focused on what students learn or are exposed to in school or in their personal life. The *null* curriculum refers to what students are *not* taught. Null is Latin *nullus*, “none” (Harper, 2022). Much is written about the null curriculum because what students are not taught is sometimes more telling than what they are taught. What is “left out of their learning” sends powerful messages to those savvy enough to discern and comment on the absence.

Neglecting to expose students to certain things (e.g., information and subject-matter content, processes, skills, competencies, values, norms, perspectives, attitudes) inadvertently teaches them that these things are not important enough to study, are not important to their life experiences nor to society. Worse still is that this lack of exposure deprives students of the chance to engage with, consider, critique, accept, or reject something that may have consequences on the kind of life they lead; the kinds of opinions they consider or hold; or perspectives, ideologies, and worldviews they explore and contemplate. Whether left out of their learning on purpose or not, the *null* curriculum sends powerful, impactful messages (subliminal and conscious) about what is important to learn, how, why, when, where and from whom (Wilson, 2021).

Consider what students would and would *not* learn if the explicit, pragmatic, or unofficial curricula taught war but not peace, competition but not cooperation, debates but not dialogue, certain cultures but not others, certain histories but not others, men’s experiences but not women’s, adults’ lives but not children’s, mainstream media but not alternative media, growth, development, and technological progress but not sustainability, stewardship, and moderation ... and so on.

The *null curriculum* refers to what students do not have the opportunity to learn. In this case, students are learning something based on the absence of certain experiences, interactions, and discourses in the classroom. For example, if students are not taught and expected to question, critically examine, and call out sexist language in books, they are learning something—that it may not be essential for them to engage in this work of critique and exposure. In other words, what is absent or not included in the curriculum can actually be immensely present in what students are learning. (Milner, 2017, p. 88)

Other Conceptualizations of Curriculum

The ideas in this section may feel similar to each other, but there are actually subtle differences between how each source used the same label. This caveat addresses any perceived redundancies in their definitions. Glatthorn et al. (2012) and Goodlad and associates (1979) categorized curricula as either intentional or unintentional. The latter refer to the *hidden* curriculum, which produces changes in students' knowledge, values, perceptions, and behavior whether they are aware of it or not. Akin to Wilson's (2021) rhetorical approach, Glatthorn et al. (2012) recognized the *recommended* curriculum that contains what *ought* to be taught as espoused by a cadre of stakeholders (e.g., scholars, professional associations, commissions, policy-makers). This is sometimes called the *ideological* curriculum because it tends to reflect the existing fund of knowledge or prevailing (dominant) ideas about a subject, and it has been construed as the *formal* curriculum because it represents the interests of society as approved by educational authorities (Goodlad and associates, 1979). This is somewhat akin to Wilson's (2021) notion that formal means state-sanctioned and official.

Glatthorn et al. (2012) also discussed the *written* curriculum, which pertains to the rationale, goals, objectives, outcomes, content, learning activities, instructional materials, and evaluation techniques that are specified in a curriculum guide. Another type of curriculum is that which is actually supported with allocated and available resources. This *supported* curriculum is shored up with time allocations, personnel, textbooks, resources, and professional development (PD). Without this support, teachers would not be able to teach certain things and students would miss out on learning them.

Like Wilson's (2021) pragmatic curriculum in use, Glatthorn et al. (2012) identified the *taught* curriculum, which is what students see in action every day rather than what is written down in official guides. It reflects the teacher's considered judgement about what will be best for the students or what is feasible to teach given available support. The *tested* curriculum is what its name suggests—it is an assessment and evaluation of what students actually learned whether the tests are teacher-made, district-developed, or standardized external instruments. Finally, the *learned* curriculum is what students understand, retain, and know both from intentional and unintentional learning (akin to Wilson's, 2021, received curriculum).

Goodlad and Su (1992) further characterized curricula along several levels that resonate with Wilson's (2021) typology (see Table 1) but with different labels and interpretations. What they called the *societal* curriculum is generated by members of the public—stakeholders interested in education and the education system: politicians, bureaucrats, special interest group representatives, professionals, academics, and educational experts and specialists. The *institutional* curriculum is so called because members of educational institutions (e.g., administrators, superintendents, principals, educators) make modifications to the state-sanctioned official curriculum to fit their situation and context. They can modify it by making changes to (a) content and the way it is organized; (b) standards and outcomes and how they are prioritized and measured; (c) resources and how they are sourced and allocated; and (d) courses, modules, units, and even lesson plans.

Akin to Wilson's (2021) pragmatic and unofficial curricula, Goodlad and Su (1992) proposed the *instructional* curriculum, which is what teachers actually teach on a daily basis. Teachers base their instructions on what authority figures have deemed necessary or desirable for students to learn (i.e., the institutional or formal curriculum). Goodlad and associates (1979) called this same approach the *operational* curriculum because it is what teachers actually do—how they really operate in the classroom. They further warned that what *is* taught may not be what teachers *think* they taught.

Finally, Goodlad and associates (1979) defined the *experiential* curriculum as what students perceive and actually experience appreciating that (a) each student has a different learning experience (due to different learning styles and preferences) and (b) what they experience may be very different from what was intended in the formal, sanctioned curriculum or even what the teacher personally intended. As a caveat, *experiencing* something does not mean that it was *learned*.

Summary

By way of summary, curricular types vary from (a) what is supposed to be taught, (b) what should be taught, (c) what is actually taught, (d) what is learned outside formal schooling, (e) what is inferred by students, or (f) what is left out completely. Curricula are characterized as overt and covert, internal and external, intentional and intentional, and articulated and unspoken. What constitutes curriculum varies in the minds of officials, teachers, students, society, home, stakeholders, and the media. Decisions about curriculum are made at the societal (ministries of education and school boards), institutional (school administrators and faculties) and instructional (teachers) level (Rogers, 1981). Hindsight allowed this rudimentary attempt to categorise the curricula in Table 1.

Curriculum is so much more than the official curriculum guide. Truly, curriculum is ubiquitous—everywhere all at once, which makes it very hard to pin down and clarify. But herein, home economists are being asked to do just that because awareness of these learning determinants and their powerful influence strengthens home economists' prowess as professionals practicing in the curriculum area (IFHE, 2008). In addition to taking active, professional roles in writing official, state-sanctioned curricula and ensuring the latter are transparent and forthright in their messaging (so the latter is readily discernible to an inquiring mind), home economists must critique the unspoken, invisible, and unintentional curricula. They must appreciate that "students absorb lessons in school that may or may not be part of the formal course of study; for example, how they should interact with peers, teachers, and other adults; how they should perceive different races, groups, or classes of people; or what ideas and behaviors are considered acceptable or unacceptable" (Lukman, 2019, p. 289).

"The unspoken or implicit academic, social, and cultural messages that are communicated to students while they are in school" ("Hidden Curriculum", 2015, para. 1) must be exposed, critically analyzed, and augmented with counter points and arguments. That said, Socol recognized that

...educators find it far easier to change the formal curriculum (they are often happy to do that) because they clearly know what it is. On the other hand, the hidden curriculum is called that because most people can look right at it, and not see it. (Socol, 2020, para. 9)

The information shared in this paper aids home economists in discerning and exposing unspoken, invisible, and unintentional learnings whether positive or negative.

Recommendations for Future Research

This paper did not report original research about how home economists around the world conceive curriculum as a construct and use it in their practice, but its preparation and the peer review process inspired many ideas for future research on the topic:

Future research should focus on a critique of home economics practice through a curriculum-as-construct lens. How do we collectively understand curriculum as a construct, and what do practitioners think this understanding means for their practice? For example, Marulcu and Akbiyik (2014) envisioned using their findings about Turkish preservice teachers' perceptions of

curriculum ideology to inform revisions to teacher education programs. The same intent could inform research about how home economists view curriculum as a construct. Results and findings could inform innovations in home economics practice in the curriculum area (IFHE, 2008).

Curriculum is informed by ideologies, which are beliefs about what should be taught, why, and for what ends. Four common curriculum ideologies include scholar academic (disciplinary knowledge), child-centered, social efficiency, and social reconstructivism (Crowley, 2021; Schiro, 2007). Far beyond the scope of this paper, future researchers are encouraged to explore which curriculum ideologies (perspectives, orientations) are prevalent in global home economics practice and whether these ideologies best serve the profession's aim of (a) optimizing well-being and quality of life of individuals, families, and communities and (b) thriving in the curriculum area of practice (IFHE, 2008). What would need to change?

What counts as curriculum determines the function of schools, teachers, and students (Crowley, 2021). By association, how home economists conceive curriculum as a construct affects their function as an educational practitioner. Future research should focus on home economists' perceptions of the import of using the 13 types of curricula in their practice. How do they think curriculum as a construct affects their functions?

In this paper, the types of curricula were presented in Table 1 without an overt attempt to create a taxonomy or classification system. An example is Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of three domains of learning. Appreciating the challenges inherent in creating a curriculum construct taxonomy (Catalano, 2010), future researchers might want to empirically explore if a home economics-informed, curriculum-as-construct taxonomy is feasible or even necessary.

A related idea is creating a typology of home economics specific curricular types relative to how well they help the profession optimize quality of life and well-being while working in the curriculum area of practice. Creating a typology may be apropos because both typologies and constructs are conceptually based while taxonomies are developed empirically (Smith, 2002). Typologies are useful "when the genesis of something is unknown" (McGregor, 2018, p. 55). They break down the component parts of an overarching *concept* into several dimensions, types, or styles. An example is the *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, which breaks personality down into four dimensions (Myers & Myers, 1980). McGregor (2004) conceptualized a typology of home economics styles along four dimensions. What might a home economics-informed, curriculum-as-construct typology look like?

"When the terms *curriculum* or *curricula* are used in educational contexts without qualification, specific examples, or additional explanation, it may be difficult to determine precisely what the terms are referring to" ("Hidden Curriculum", 2015, Textbox 1). Future research should qualify whether the historically well-established curricula in Table 1 resonate globally with home economists or if they are drawing on different perspectives of what constitutes curriculum as a construct.

Hand in hand with the previous recommendation is the idea of collecting from home economists a global range of examples and evidence of the 13 types of curricula in their experiences and contexts. Insights into this diversity of curricular perceptions could inform any IFHE initiatives related to helping home economics practitioners see themselves acting in *the curriculum area* to facilitate students' discovery and further development of their own personal resources and capabilities (see Figure 1).

Conclusion

Given that IFHE (2008) envisioned home economists using curriculum to help students “discover and further develop their own resources and capabilities to be used in their personal life” (p. 1), it is imperative that home economists gain a rich appreciation for the complexity of the curriculum construct. More than the official, state-approved curriculum, it reaches into the visible and invisible arms of learning. Students learn things or not—intentionally or not. Their education and learning must not be happenstance. Cognizance of curriculum as a construct holds home economists accountable for their professional work in this practice arena. Knowing what they know after reading this paper, home economists can responsibly choose to examine and reflect on how they interpret curriculum as a construct and change their practice accordingly.

Biography

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