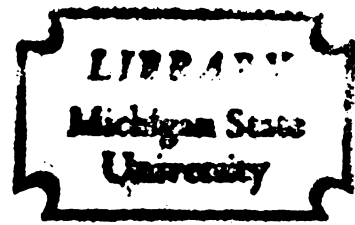


HOME-CENTERED LEARNING ACTIVITIES OF FAMILIES
WITH TEENAGE CHILDREN

Thesis for the Degree of M. A.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
SANDRA SUE CLARKSON
1975



3 1293 10015 6391



Washington State
County
1978

F081

~~OCT 23 '78~~ 299

~~18~~ ~~6~~ ~~MAY 5 '78~~ ~~11~~ ~~137~~

~~HR~~ ~~53~~ ~~JUN 18 1979~~ ~~FEB 08 1981~~ ~~OT 23~~

~~21~~ ~~AUG 19 '78~~ ~~AD~~ ~~22~~ ~~R~~ ~~SEP 22 '78~~ ~~22~~ ~~F~~ ~~36~~

JUN 21 1999

ABSTRACT

HOME-CENTERED LEARNING ACTIVITIES OF FAMILIES WITH TEENAGE CHILDREN

By

Sandra Sue Clarkson

Home-centered learning activities of 15 blue-collar families which required a special effort were investigated. Fifteen blue-collar families with at least one teenage child and two adults comprised the sample. These families were selected from "The Home as a Learning Center Project" sample. This project was funded by the Curriculum Branch of the United States Office of Education. A systematic random sample was designed to include representation of rural sections and city blocks. A group interview with each family (mother, father and at least one teenage child) was conducted using an open-end interview schedule.

The number of learning activities per family ranged from nine to 34 (mean = 20.47) and the total number of learning activities for all 15 families was 307. Learning activities in which parents, teenagers, children and other adult family members participated were classified into six categories: Household care and management (35 percent), leisure and recreation (25 percent), development and care of family members (15 percent), development of values (14 percent), preparation for career (9 percent) and other (2 percent).

Eighty percent (276) of all learning activities reported included only parent(s) and/or teenager(s). At least one or more parent and one teenager reported 101 shared learning activities.

Resources used in home learning and contacts outside the home to obtain information for home learning also were studied. Families made changes in resource allocation to facilitate home learning. Two-thirds of the families managed time, money, space, human capital and community services for home-centered learning. Families contacted 239 persons--experts (50 percent) and neighbors, relatives and friends (45 percent) to obtain information for home learning. Sixty-seven percent of the families used radio, television, newspapers, magazines, books and flyers and pamphlets as a source of information for home learning.

Families were asked to describe what children need to learn at home to be family members and workers. Respondents (69 percent) indicated children need to learn values (i.e., responsibility, respect, patience, honesty, integrity) to be family members and workers. Personal experience was mentioned most frequently as a source of information about family and work.

Hypotheses to be tested in future research might be generated from the results of this study. Two examples are: (1) family members perceive and utilize the home as a place to learn about family responsibilities and duties more often than as a place to learn about occupational responsibilities and (2) families participate in more learning activities related to the development of skills than in affective learning.

HOME-CENTERED LEARNING ACTIVITIES OF
FAMILIES WITH TEENAGE CHILDREN

By

Sandra Sue Clarkson

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Family Ecology

1975

693322

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to extend appreciation to these people:

Dr. Beatrice Paolucci, thesis director and major advisor,
for stimulating ideas and insightful guidance;

Dr. Ann Field, Dr. E. Jane Dyer and Dr. Stephen Yelon,
committee members, for advice and suggestions;

Dr. Norma Bobbitt for encouragement and helpful sugges-
tions;

Dr. Kathryn M. Kolasa for moral support and editorial
comments;

the 15 families for willing cooperation;

other faculty and graduate students in the College of
Human Ecology for encouragement and support;

the Michigan State University Graduate Office for financial
assistance;

my parents, Mr. and Mrs. Donald Clarkson, and brother, Joe,
for moral support and understanding.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	v
 Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Objectives	6
Assumptions	7
Research Questions	7
Operational Definitions	8
Conceptual Orientation	9
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	11
The Self-Learner and Lifelong Learning	11
Individual Learning Pursuits	15
Family as Educator	24
Resources Utilized for Learning Within the Home Environment	33
Learning Needs and Interests of Families With Teenage Children	40
III. METHODOLOGY	47
Description of the Sampled Community	47
Sample Design and Selection	48
Selection of the Subsample	49
Description of Subsample	49
Occupations of Adult Family Members	50
Family Income of Adult Workers	51
Part-Time Employment of Teenagers	51
Educational Attainment of Selected Families	53
Size of Selected Families	53
Ages of Family Members	54
Changes in Families During Last Year	54
Research Methodology	55
Development of Interview Schedule	56
The Interviewing Process and Collection of Data	57
Data Processing and Analyses	59

Chapter	Page
IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	61
Extent of Home Learning Activity in the Past	
Year	61
Number of learning Activities	62
Description of Learning Activities in Which One or More Family Members Participated	63
Household Care and Management	63
Leisure and Recreation	65
Development and Care of Family Members	65
Development of Values	66
Preparation for Career	67
Other	67
Kinds of Learning Activities Identified as Help- ful for Family and/or Occupational Activities	67
Learning Activities in Which Parents and/or Teenagers Were Involved	68
Time and Place of Home-Centered Learning	74
Human and Nonhuman Resources Used for Learning Within the Home	76
Sources of Information for Home-Centered Learning Activities	78
Contacts Outside the Home to Facilitate Learn- ing at Home	84
Perceptions of Family Members About What Child- ren Need to Learn at Home to be Family Members and Workers	87
Sources of Information Family Members Would Use to Help Children Learn About Being Family Members and Workers	90
Information Families Would Find Most Useful for Learning About Family and Occupations	91
V. SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS	94
Purposes and Methodology of Study	94
Summary of Findings Which Provide Answers to Research Questions	95
Other Findings	100
Implications	100
Implications for Formal Education	101
Implications for Nonformal Education	102
Implications for Research	104
Implications for Public Policy	106
Other Implications	106
APPENDICES	108
REFERENCES CITED	141

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Occupations of Adults	50
2. Number of Hours Employed Adult Family Members Worked Per Week	51
3. Family Income	52
4. Income of Employed Teenagers	52
5. Educational Attainment of Adults and Teenagers . .	53
6. Size of Selected Families	54
7. Ages of Family Members	55
8. Number of Learning Activities Reported Per Family .	62
9. Kind and Number of Times One or More Family Members Participated in Learning Activities	64
10. Kind and Number of Learning Activities Useful for Family and Occupational Responsibilities	69
11. Kind and Number of Learning Activities of Husbands and/or Wives	70
12. Kind and Number of Learning Activities of Parent(s) and Teenager(s)	71
13. Kind and Number of Learning Activities in Which Teenager(s) Reported They Participated	72
14. Number of Learning Activities in Which Parent(s) and Teenager(s) Participated	74
15. Time When Families Learn and Number of Families . .	75
16. Where Family Members Use Sources of Information in the Home	77
17. Where Family Members Prefer to Learn Within Home .	78

Table	Page
18. Changes in Resource Use for Family and Occupational Learning Categories	79
19. Kind of Radio and Television Program and Number of Individuals and Whole Families Who Used for Learning	80
20. Amount of Time Families Used Radio and Television for Learning	81
21. Kind of Newspaper and Magazine Article and Number of Individuals and Whole Families Who Used for Learning	82
22. Kind of Books and Number of Individuals and Whole Families Who Use for Learning	83
23. Kind and Number of Contacts Made Outside Home to Facilitate Learning Within Home	85
24. Number of Contacts Outside the Home for Learning and Reasons for Contacts	86
25. Source of Information About Contacts Outside the Home for Learning and Number of Responses	87
26. Kind of Learning Activity and Number of Responses: What Family Members Think Children Need to Learn at Home to be Family Members and Workers	88
27. Kind of Information Sources for Learning About Family and Work and Number of Times Mentioned . .	90
28. Kind of Information Families Want for Learning About Family and Work and Number of Responses . .	91
29. How Families Want to Learn at Home	93

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The home and family environment is a primary setting in which family members learn basic life tasks. Within this home and family environment, a variety of educational encounters can occur (Leichter, 1974). Home-centered learning might include caring for children, getting along with people, developing creative abilities, feeding the family, using money wisely, doing household tasks, preparing for the future, applying for a job or taking a job-related course at home.

Education of family members is a basic function of the family. Frankena (1970) suggested that the educational function of the family should be the family's primary role. Within the home environment, the family can and does take responsibility for socialization and education of its members. There is a need, however, for re-emphasizing the educative role of the family (Frankena, 1970; Leichter, 1974). Changes in American society such as shifts in occupational and family roles of men and women, increases in geographical distances between extended family units, greater numbers of middle-aged and older people, and demands to maximize human potential throughout life call attention to the special function the family can assume in re-educating and re-socializing its members.

The home environment does not exist in isolation. Morrison (1974) discussed the interrelated, interdependent environments which affect families and which families, in turn, affect. The environments of families include the socio-psychological environment (human behavior processes between and among family members and others outside the family) the man-built environment (family living space) and institutional environments (economics, education and public policy). Through interactions of family members with these environments which bring new information into the family system, children and adults reshape their home environment. Thus, the family system is one that is continuously changing, developing and learning (Hook and Paolucci, 1970). Sussman proposed that these linkages between the family system and the larger environment (i.e., school, community, work) are reciprocal processes in which both the family and the organizational structure are modified; that is, "families adapt and influence behavior of their members and outsiders simultaneously" (1971, p. 45). The competency of family members in developing and managing these societal linkages is an increasingly important research issue: what contacts outside the home related to the educative function of the family do family members make?; who within the family made the contact?

Researchers who study the family believe that significant changes in family character and composition throughout the family life cycle affect family learning interests and needs (Havinghurst, 1953; Duvall, 1967; Leichter, 1974). Because of continuous changes in character and composition (i.e., age, number, role) which are due

to maturational and personal changes in family membership, the family is an adaptive system. Research about the family's educational role must consider the shifting character of interactions throughout the family life cycle. Hill (1971) maintained that the family development conceptual framework enables the researcher to consider the social time dimension of families by specifying time in units appropriate to families.

In a modern technological society, such as the United States, learning is a lifelong process for children and adults alike. The role of the family as educator is becoming increasingly recognized (Baker, 1970; Bronfenbrenner, 1970; Leichter, 1974). Educational encounters within the home (learning, unlearning, and relearning) help family members adjust and adapt to the accelerating pace of changes at home, at work, in play, in understanding self and in understanding the world. Havinghurst said, "The human individual learns his way through life" (1953, p. 1).

There is evidence that individuals are self-learners. Tough (1971) found that adults spend 700-800 hours yearly in self-directed learning of which 70 percent took place outside of the traditional school setting. Researchers who replicated Tough's study with different samples suggested that individual learners use many approaches to learning other than traditional ones such as enrolling for a course or attending an educational program designed for a group (McCatty, 1973; Johns, 1973; Denys, 1973; Johnson, 1973; Coolican, 1973). In a study of mothers of preschool children,

Coolican (1973) found that mothers seemed to prefer learning in the convenient and natural setting of the home as a part of daily life rather than as a separate and isolated activity. Because research about self-learning focused on the learning activities of an individual, these empirical research studies do not describe day-to-day educational encounters in which family members interact.

Leichter said, "Education within the family is a fascinating subject in its own right and one that holds great promise as a field of systematic investigation" (1974a, p. 173). She further stated,

There is the possibility of extending our knowledge of education in general by examining the richly diversified educational encounters that occur within the family. Ideally, it will be possible to understand the special features of education within the family, while at the same time using this understanding to enlighten and extend our fundamental theory of educational encounters over the entire range of educative institutions and settings (1974, p. 177).

Much of the literature about education within the family discussed the parental education of children and the effects of parental education on the child's development and achievement in situations external to the family. Researchers who study familial education within the home environment can contribute to existing knowledge about the family's educational role. Application of research findings can have implications for developing alternative methods of structuring the home environment so family members are offered optimum opportunities for learning.

A need exists for research about home-centered family learning activities which involve one, some or all family members (Wolf, 1966; Leichter, 1974). Wolf argued the need to study specific

environments and subenvironments within the home to investigate "what parents do in interactions with their children rather than what parents are in terms of status, level of father's occupation, type of dwelling, source of income and so forth" (1966, p. 492). Additional information about home-centered learning of blue-collar families can assist educators in developing informal learning support systems which are vital linkages between learner and professional educators (Tough, 1971; Coolican, 1973).

This study investigated how families perceived and utilized the home as a learning center. Data about home-based learning of families with at least one teenage child were collected and analyzed. Variables studied included content of learning within the home and family environment in the last year, involvement of family members in learning, contacts outside the home initiated to facilitate learning, and human and nonhuman resources committed to home learning.

This research attempted to describe learning within the home and family environment in which parents and child(ren), child(ren) and child(ren) and parent and parent were involved. Educators can use the results of this study to develop guidelines for educational programs which facilitate informal learning within the home and family environment. Educators in adult education, community colleges, family service agencies, community education, Cooperative Extension and mass media can utilize this information to plan educational programs which meet the expressed informal learning needs and interests of families at different stages of the

life cycle. The results of this study also should have implications for public policy decision-makers who allocate resources to educational institutions. For example, how might a policy maker channel educational resources to develop the support systems which strengthen the home as a learning center? Curriculum designers can incorporate the survey findings into courses of study which better prepare vocational and family life educators, educational systems specialists, home economists, media personnel and youth specialists to develop vital linkages between the home as a learning center and educational institutions.

Objectives

This study was designed to determine how families with at least one teenage child utilized and perceived the home as a learning center. Specifically, the objectives were:

1. To describe the kinds of activities within the home during the last year which provided learning opportunities for adults, teenagers, children and other family members.
2. To describe what human and nonhuman resources were committed to learning within the home and family environment.
3. To describe the contacts family members made outside the home to facilitate their learning within the home and family environment.
4. To describe what family members think children need to learn at home to be family members and workers.
5. To describe what information about family responsibilities and duties and about being a worker which families want for use within the home.
6. To describe how families would like to learn at home.

Assumptions

1. The home and family environment is a center for learning.
2. The survey research design is an appropriate method for collecting information about learning within the home and family environment.
3. Family members can recall and discuss learning within the home and family environment in which they participated during the past twelve months.
4. A semi-structured group interview is a reliable method for helping people recall and discuss their learning within the home and family environment.

Research Questions

This study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What learning with the home and family environment have families and/or family members with at least one teenage child been involved during the past twelve months?
2. Who participated in learning within the home and family environment?
3. What human and nonhuman resources were committed to home-centered learning?
4. What contacts outside the home did family members make to obtain help for learning within the home environment?
5. When does home-centered learning take place?
6. Where within the home does learning take place?
7. What do families with teenage children think children need to learn at home to be family members and workers?
8. What information about family responsibilities and duties and about being a worker do families want to use for learning within the home?
9. Where would families get information about being family members and workers for learning within the home and family environment?

Operational Definitions

For the purposes of this study, the following definitions were used.

Family--The family was defined operationally as two or more interacting individuals who share living space and some common resources and have a commitment to each other over some period of time.

Family in the Middle Stage of the Family Life Cycle--A family with at least three members including two adults and a teenager. Approximate ages of family members were 13-19 years of age for teenage child and 35-55 years of age for adults.

Blue Collar--Socioeconomic status based upon varying criteria including occupation, education, income, condition of housing, etc.

For this study, Hollingshead's occupational categories (1957) was used to determine if the employment of the head of the household is classified as blue-collar.

Human Resources--Human resources are abilities and characteristics of the individual along with other resources which cannot be utilized independently of the individual (Wetters, 1967). Specific human resources include time, abilities, skills and attitudes.

Nonhuman Resources--Nonhuman resources are those which are external to the individuals but which are possessed, utilized or controlled by the individual (Wetters, 1967). Specific nonhuman resources include money, space, material goods and community services.

Learning--Learning is the acquisition of new behavior as a result of experience (Pickering, 1969).

Conceptual Orientation

Nye and Berardo (1966, p. 4 & 5) suggested that conceptual frameworks have three functions: (1) identification of variables that enter into the behavioral processes; (2) tracing the sequence of various stages of behavioral processes; and (3) description of structural relationships between and among factors suspected to be associated with observed behaviors. This study was primarily concerned with the first of these three functions; that is, the description of factors which characterize the learning of family members within the home setting. The conceptual orientation of this study combined two theoretical viewpoints: family development and human ecological perspective.

The family development approach as conceptualized by Havinghurst (1953), Duvall (1967) and Hill (1964) is used to study the family system over its life history. This conceptual framework enables the researcher to study the growth and development of the family as a system over its life span or during a part of its life span. Application of this theoretical framework delineates the basic changes in structure and tasks which result from growth, maturation and development of family members (i.e., assisting teenage children to become responsible and happy adults; developing adult leisure-time activities, accepting and adjusting to the physiological changes of middle age).

Whether one accepts the notion of a fixed sequence of developmental stages or prefers to conceive of maturational and educational changes over time in less linear sequencing, the idea of individual development over the life cycle is central to understanding the nature of family organization and interaction (Leichter, 1974, p. 181).

The human ecological perspective is a conceptual orientation which is used to study the interdependent relationships between man and his environments (Hook and Paolucci, 1970; Morrison, 1974). Application of this conceptual orientation enables the researcher to study the reciprocal interactions between man and his environments: natural, man-built and behavioral (Morrison, 1974). Application of this conceptual framework provides a means for understanding the ways in which the family as an open system carries out its educational role in the context of numerous significant external influences (i.e., systems such as school, community, work). The family is an open system as well as an environment for family members. Thus, educational encounters within the home and family environment are the result of experiences both within and outside the family.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The rapidity of change in a modern, technological society necessitates lifelong learning. Learning generally proceeds via many individuals and institutions (i.e., parents, peers, siblings and friends as well as families, churches, libraries, museums, summer camps and colleges). Family members as individuals learn outside the home in their roles as student, employee, church and/or community member and volunteer. This self-learning outside the home enriches the home and family environment as a place for learning.

In this chapter, literature related to self-learning and learning in the home and family environment was reviewed. The review was organized around: the self-learner and lifelong learning, individual learning pursuits, family as educator, resources utilized for learning within the home environment, and learning needs and interests of families with teenage children.

The Self-Learner and Lifelong Learning

Support for the claim of the individual's abilities as a self-learner can be found among the early Greek philosophers. Socrates was a self-learner who learned from everyone and everything around him. Aristotle discussed the potentiality for developing wisdom in every person both through self-education and through

education by others (Kulich, 1970). The works of Roman writers are rich with illustrations of self-learners. For example, Cato learned Greek at age eighty, and Caesar attempted to plan each day to include time spent in study and writing (Houle, 1961). In the United States, an outstanding self-learner was Benjamin Franklin, a self-educated inventor, scientist and author. "From my infancy I was passionately fond of reading, and all the little money that came into my hands was laid out in the purchasing of books" (Franklin, 1958, p. 10). Franklin (1958) urged men and women to be industrious and spend time every day in reading and discussion to improve their minds. The brilliant career of Ellen Swallow Richards had its roots in her intense desire to learn. Much of Richards' knowledge about food, water, air, nutrition and public health was accumulated by self-learning. She organized this knowledge to mobilize the environmental movement, Oekology, in the late eighteenth century and laid groundwork for the field of home economics (Clarke, 1973).

Men and women with keenly inquiring minds who engage in a lifelong self-learning process live in every era. The lives of these outstanding individuals are recorded for future generations. A larger number of people who managed to live in a changing world by learning to adapt to their environments are forgotten. Houle stated that "it would be hard to think of any adult so content with a semi-vegetative routine of eating, working, sleeping and staring at the basilisk eye of television that he does not wonder and act as a result of his wonderment" (1961, p. 4).

The concept of lifelong learning has been and is gaining wider acceptance by educators. In 1965 the United Nation's Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization Committee for the Advancement of Adult Education recommended that:

UNESCO should endorse the principle of lifelong education ". . . which may be defined briefly as the animating principle of the whole process of education, regarded as continuing throughout an individual's life from his earliest childhood and continuing to the end of his days . . . The necessary integration should be achieved both vertically, throughout the duration of life, and horizontally to cover all the aspects of the life of individuals and societies" (Jessup, 1969, p. vii).

Lifelong learning can assist individuals to deal creatively with the developmental tasks faced in various life stages (i.e., child, adolescent, adult). Lifelong learning also can prepare the individual for various roles within the family, school, community and world of work.

In a rapidly changing technological society, lifelong learning is a necessary process which helps youth and adults combat obsolescence in work, in leisure, in understanding self and in understanding the world (Goldhammer and Taylor, 1972; Paolucci, 1973). Learning, unlearning and relearning are lifelong tasks which can help people adjust and adapt to their environments. Frank stated, "We have not fully recognized that maturation from infancy on through old age involves a succession of transitions" (1955, p. 5). In the years of later maturity, for example, elderly individuals may be forced to retire from their roles in the work world. During the later adolescent years, the young adult generally assumes a role in the world of work and establishes independence from parents.

Thus, individuals must unlearn--relinquish--what they previously learned and begin to replace that role with a new role.

Unfortunately, however, in our homes and schools we often teach children and youth in ways that hamper or block new learning, and fixate what they should soon give up if they are to mature. This pattern of indoctrination and fixation was more or less appropriate, if not necessary, for living in a relatively stable society where there was little or no alteration in the basic traditions and where there was a relatively short span of life for most individuals. But today it has become increasingly burdensome, a self-defeating handicap for longer-living individuals and for our society as a whole. We are reared in our families and homes and in our schools for living in a society which no longer exists (Frank, 1955, p. 5).

Frank (1955) believed that the emphasis in education should be lifelong learning (i.e., learning, unlearning and relearning) which mobilizes the human ability to live in contemporary society.

Lifelong learning itself is becoming a goal of individuals (Tough, 1971). As more and more people in postindustrial nations are moving beyond material goals such as food, clothing and shelter, they are setting a new goal for themselves. Maslow (1959) defined this goal as self-actualization, that is, the realization of enormous human potential through better self-understanding, increased knowledge and skills and more sensitive interactions with other people.

In a discussion of his philosophy of education, Jessup stated:

There is a time to seek and a time to lose, a time to keep, and a time to cast away; different phases in the life of a man or woman bring different problems, different potentialities, and call for different educational opportunities--and even abstention from organized forms of education. Discontinuity in education is natural; discontinuance of education is like a mental amputation (1969a, p. 25).

He further suggested that:

Lifelong learning, then is not the enunciation of a simple, grand strategy for education, any more than the Christian's belief that every man is a child of God constitutes a programme for action. It is an ideal that comes out in countless ways. It is a temper, a quality of society, that evinces itself in attitudes, in relationships, and in social organization (Jessup, 1969a, p. 31).

Individual Learning Pursuits

Over the last fifteen years, researchers have studied how individuals learn from the learners' perceptions. Almost 70 percent of the learning activities which individuals discussed were self-planned outside the institutional frameworks of educational systems (Tough, 1971).

Cyril O. Houle (1961) suggested the need to study the individual's whole pattern of educational effort. He investigated the nature and activities of active continuing learners from their own perceptions. Houle's basic thesis was that the desire to learn, like every other human characteristic, is not shared equally by everyone. This thesis was supported by his research findings. From the results of intensive interviews with 22 adults, Houle developed a theoretical typology which defined types of participants in continuing education according to their learning orientations. He classified continual learners as (1) goal-oriented: those who use education as a way to accomplish specific objectives; (2) activity-oriented: those who use education as a means to satisfy social needs; and (3) learning-oriented: those who seek knowledge for its sake (1961; pp. 15-16).

Houle's conceptualization of educational participation was followed by efforts to develop instruments to obtain empirical data about a broad range of learning behavior (Sheffield, 1962; Ingham, 1963; Litchfield, 1965). Litchfield (1965) devised a scale, Leisure Activity Survey, on which the total educative activity of individuals could be measured. Adult education was broadly defined in Litchfield's study as "the process by which adults (either alone or in groups) consciously and voluntarily try to improve themselves by increasing their skill, their sensitivity or their knowledge" (1965, p. 22). All the men and women she studied participated to some extent in educational activities (N=1149). Litchfield's results lend support to Houle's assumption that all men and women possessed in some measure the desire to learn. Litchfield concluded that:

There no longer appears to be any validity in the belief, long held by many adult educators, that there are participants and nonparticipants in adult education. All men and women partake of adult education to some extent. The focus now must be upon questions of the degree and kinds of that participation The uses and the meaning of leisure time (the educational uses as well as other uses and the educational uses in combination with other uses) will assume more importance than ever before as present changes toward the work-success ethic and as perceived and actual leisure time available to people in our society continue to move in new directions. Educational activities for adults during their leisure will have to be directed toward the use and meaning of that leisure and toward adjustment of value patterns to incorporate different ideas of and toward leisure (1965, pp. 188-189).

One of the most comprehensive studies about the educational pursuits of American adults was a national sample survey conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) (1965). Researchers

found that learning by people either 21 or over, married or the head of the household is a major part of total educational effort in the United States. Educational activities were defined broadly to include "all activities consciously and systematically organized for purposes of acquiring new knowledge, information or skills" (1965, p. 1). In a 12-month period some 25 million American adults (more than one person in five) tried to learn a certain topic. Three of five Americans engaged in one or more educational activities since finishing their formal schooling.

The NORC researchers found that self-teaching was quite common among adults. An estimated nine million adults engaged in at least one self-structured project during the year preceding the interview. Johnstone and Rivera (1965) stated that self-learning among adults was "surprising" and "much greater than we had anticipated." The authors suggested "that self-instruction is probably the most overlooked avenue of activity in the whole field of adult education" (1965, p. 37).

The concept of independent self-education was not defined by Johnstone and Rivera but was referred to as "activities carried out independently, without an instructor" (1965, p. 30) and an attempt "to teach themselves something on their own" (1965, p. 2). The category of self-education was regarded as a residual category of adult studies and no additional data about learning materials and methods employed were collected.

Approximately 8 percent of all adults who reported at least one educational activity during the year participated in

independent study. When people were asked whether or not they ever participated in independent study since leaving school, 38 percent recalled at least once when they had tried to instruct themselves.

The incidence of independent study might well have been greater than was reported in this study on the nature of adult education in America because respondents were allowed to name only two independent study subjects. Some adults may have studied more than two subjects by self-teaching. In addition, interviewers asked only one general question about independent study. They did not probe for other examples of self-teaching nor explain the concept of independent study.

Classification by Johnstone and Rivera (1965) of all the self-taught subjects showed that the categories most frequently self-taught were in the areas of home and family, and agriculture. Fifty-nine percent of the learning efforts in each of these areas were self-taught rather than learned by another method (i.e., attendance at classes, discussion groups, talks or lectures, correspondence, private teacher, educational television, on-the-job training). Forty-three percent of the learning activities in hobbies and recreation were self-taught, as were 40 percent in general education, 30 percent in personal development, 25 percent in vocational subjects, 23 percent in public affairs and 13 percent in religion (1965, p. 56). A more detailed analysis of 49 types of subjects indicated that at least 50 percent of all subjects in technical arts and hobbies, gardening, home improvement skills,

foreign languages, agricultural subjects, sewing and cooking and music were self-taught (1965, p. 58).

A national sample of adolescents and very young adults ages 17 to 24 (many full-time students) also were interviewed in the course of the NORC's survey. Independent studies were undertaken and completed often among 17 to 24 year olds. Fifty-two percent of the adolescent, young adult sample reported they had organized an independent program of study to further their learning.

Johnstone and Rivera (1965) investigated those personal, social and ecological characteristics that distinguish participants in learning activities from nonparticipants. The first distinctive feature of the continuing learners was that they were more than six years younger than average American adults (42.5 years). The second characteristic of the participants was they they were better educated than average adults. During the previous year, rates of participation in learning ranged from 4 percent among persons with no formal schooling to 47 percent among those who attended school for more then 16 years. Continuing learners also were likely to hold white-collar, rather than blue-collar jobs. Rates of study among persons in white-collar jobs were almost twice as high as among those in blue-collar categories (32 compared to 17 percent). In addition, participants in adult education had median family incomes almost \$1200 higher than the average family income. Of the three indicators of socio-economic position (education, occupation, income), education was found to have by far the most powerful influence on rates of learning activity.

Factors associated with the persistence of learning new things in adult life were age and years of formal schooling. Interest in learning new things was found to decrease sharply with increasing age. Interest in learning new things was significantly more prevalent among persons who had completed more years of school.

In summary, the NORC researchers (1965) documented a higher than anticipated incidence of self-learning and contributed information about specific characteristics of non-school learners thus adding to the growing body of empirical data about the adult who learns throughout life. Many questions such as how much time the adult spends in learning, who plans the learning and where does the adult learn, however, remained to be answered.

Beginning with Tough's work (1965), a systematic study of the self-learner has emerged. Tough (1965) defined self-planned learning as an individual's attempt to learn specific knowledge and/or skill in which the learner plans the why, what, how, when and where to learn. The individual may obtain knowledge and skill from a variety of sources (i.e., individuals, books, television) but still maintain the responsibility for deciding what resources to use in learning.

Tough (1971) interviewed 86 individuals from nine populations: blue-collar factory workers, women and men in jobs at the lower end of the white-collar scale, beginning elementary school teachers, municipal politicians, social science professors, upper-middle-class women with preschool children, 16-year-old boys and

10-year old children about learning activities. Probe questions and handout sheets listing a wide range of potential learning activities and learning methods were developed by Tough to help people recall their learning efforts. Despite intensive efforts, Tough reported that "the interviewers feel that in some interviews we failed to uncover all the learning projects. Perhaps the self-planned learning is more common than our figures indicate" (1971, p. 89).

The average or typical interviewee spent 700 to 800 hours per year in deliberate learning activities. The typical adult conducted about eight learning projects per year. During a year, a representative interviewee spent approximately 90 hours in each learning project. Approximately two-thirds of this learning was planned, implemented and evaluated by the learner, with some help from human resources (i.e., friends, neighbors, relatives, professionals) and/or nonhuman resources (i.e., books, pamphlets, newspapers, television). Adults initiated less than 1 percent of all learning projects for academic credit.

The social science professors averaged more time (1491 hours) in learning than any other group. The other sample populations devoted less time to learning: municipal politicians (1189 hours), lower-white-collar men (907 hours), blue-collar factory workers (800 hours), 16-year-old boys (609 hours), lower-white-collar women (430 hours), elementary school teachers (395 hours), upper-middle-class women with preschool children (331 hours) and 10-year-old children (139 hours). The four groups spending the most time in learning were predominantly male.

Other studies which utilized Tough's research design have been completed since 1971. These studies employing different sample populations provide additional data about a high incidence of self-planned learning among a variety of groups including professional men in Toronto, Canada (McCatty, 1973); practicing pharmacists in Atlanta, Georgia (Johns, 1973); professional teachers and managers in Africa (Denys, 1973); adults who earned a high school diploma or high school equivalency certificate (Johnson, 1973); and mothers of young children whose oldest child was preschool age (Coolican, 1973). All researchers reported a high incidence of self-planned learning ranging from 56 percent in Johns' (1973) study to 76 percent in McCatty's (1973). Most adults used many approaches to learning outside the framework of adult educational institutions.

Coolican (1973) found that 59 percent of learning activities of mothers of preschool children were in the area of developing family and personal competence. Within that category 80 percent of the learning projects were related to home and family competence [i.e., child development, family relations and family planning, consumer education, sewing, nutrition and food preparation and family finance (1973, p. 97)]. Mothers who were interviewed reported being "very satisfied" with 76 percent of their learning projects. An analysis of subject matter showed that the major emphasis in learning projects of these young mothers was on the practical rather than the academic, on the applied rather than the theoretical and on skills rather than knowledge. Results of

Coolican's study indicated that learners seemed to prefer learning in the home as an integral part of their daily lives rather than as a separate and isolated activity. At the same time, the self-learner needed and wanted help. Interviewees reported a need for additional help with 36 percent of the self-planned projects studied.

In 1972, the Commission on Non-Traditional Study researchers gathered current data about participation and potential interest in adult learning (1974). The survey questionnaire included questions about respondents' learning interests, preferred mode of learning and place of study. The researchers provided current statistics to update the Johnstone and Rivera (1965) study.

Three-fourths of all American adults expressed interest in continued learning, that is, 80 million Americans between the ages of 18 and 60 who were not studying full-time were interested in continuing their learning. Johnstone and Rivera reported that approximately one in five adults engaged in some kind of learning outside of full-time schooling. The Commission on Non-Traditional Study researchers (1974) reported that close to one in three adults (31 percent) engaged in part-time learning activities in the last year.

Adults expressed interest in a wide range of learning subject matter areas. Most of those interests were generally pragmatic and nonacademic in nature. Vocational subjects ranked as first choice for 43 percent of potential learners followed by general education, hobbies and recreation and home and family

living, 13, 13 and 12 percents respectively. The Commission on Non-Traditional Study researchers provided additional support for the finding that a significant number of adult learners want to learn practical, applied skills and knowledge rather than academic, theoretical subjects (Johnstone and Rivera, 1965; Tough, 1971; Coolican, 1973).

Adult learners were asked to identify the locations for their learning since another concept of nontraditional study is that learning can occur in a variety of settings (Commission on Non-Traditional Study, 1974). More people said they learned at home than at work. The home was preferred as a place for learning by 10 percent of the would-be learners and was used by 17 percent of the learners.

Review of recent research indicated that people continue to learn throughout life. Many lifelong learning efforts were planned by the individual outside of any institutional setting. The home specifically was identified as a location for learning by some researchers (Coolican, 1973; Carp et al. 1974). However, little study of learning within the home and family environment (i.e., subject, method, resources for learning) has been completed. Study of educational encounters within the home can contribute information to knowledge about education in general.

Family as Educator

Through time, the home and family environment has been the primary setting for family members to learn basic life tasks. The

pervasive influence of the family upon its children is widely acknowledged in the literature. White and Watts (1973) identified the 10-to 18-month age range as the most critical in the child's development based upon intensive research with 31 young children (Harvard Preschool Project). During this stage of the child's life when language-learning ability, locomobility and orientation toward self and others emerge, "the curriculum of the home is not hidden or unsystematic; it is observable and focused on the intellectual development as an important goal for the young child" (White and Watts, 1973, p. 200). In a classic bulletin, Principles for Child Guidance, which has not been changed substantially since the 1930's, Ethel B. Waring (1939) outlined guidelines for parents who wanted to provide learning experiences for children which would help them develop into happy, healthy grown-ups.

Bronfenbrenner (1970) expressed concern about the quantity and quality of learning in the home and family environment. In recent decades, the amount of interaction and learning between American parents and their children has decreased. Urbanization, child labor laws, commuting, the abolishment of the apprenticeship system, centralized schools, the power of television for keeping children occupied--all these manifestations of progress seemingly have decreased the opportunity for interaction among and between other family members and children. Bronfenbrenner (1970) viewed these changes as cause for alarm.

In short, it is the parents and other close companions of the child who are the primary determiners not only of what the child learns, but what he fails to learn. It

follows that any appreciable, enduring improvement in the child's development can be affected only through an appreciable, enduring change in the environment and behavior of the persons intimately associated with the child on a day-to-day basis" (Bronfenbrenner, 1970, p. 142).

In his book, Two Worlds of Childhood, Bronfenbrenner proposed changes in home and family which would increase opportunities for parents and older children to engage in meaningful interrelationships with the young and thus enhance the child's learning potential.

Frankena (1970) stated that the family's educative function should be re-emphasized. "Some of our trouble today is due to the fact that parents have slighted this function, leaving it too much to the schools (Frankena, 1970, p. 12). From Frankena's perspective, the foundations for humanness are built in the home and family environment as one learns to test out a set of attitudes and values, to develop skills of decision-making and communication, to achieve identity of self-direction and to develop the ability to love and trust. Frankena believed that society has much to gain if attention is paid again to the vital significance of the family and home environment as a place for the education and socialization of family members.

The nuclear family in urban, industrial societies has been the focus of much of the educationally-oriented literature about the family. Generally, mother-child relationships have been studied out of the context of other relationships in the family. White and Watts (1973) observed the child-rearing practices of two

sets of families during the child's second and third years of life. Data on the child's social experience, mother's interactions with child and utilization of the physical environment were collected (White and Watts, 1973). These researchers concluded that mothering is a vastly underrated occupation and "that the mother's direct and indirect actions with regard to her child, especially during the second year of life, are, in our opinion, the most powerful formative factors in the development of the preschool child" (1973, p. 42). Moore (1968) provided additional evidence to support the important role of parents, especially mothers, as educators of children. Ratings of quality and quantity of verbal stimulation and the quality of mother-child interaction in the home setting were related significantly to the child's IQ at three years of age but were related more highly to the child's IQ at eight years of age. The parents within the home environment, particularly the mother, established the child's level of intellectual functioning. White and Watts (1973), Moore (1968) and other researchers (Escalona, 1973; Leibowitz, 1974; 1974a) have provided information about the significant influence of the home and family environment on the child's development.

Researchers (Radin, 1969; Schaefer, 1972; Levenstein, 1970; Karnes, et. al. 1970) who recognized the importance of the family as educator of pre-school children have designed home-based early intervention programs to increase the parents' effectiveness in developing their children's intellect. These early intervention programs generally did not involve parents from all socioeconomic

groups. Instead, the strategy of the programs was to counteract the effects of poverty on human development. The mother-child relationship was most often the target of intervention. Methods of intervention included tutoring of infants by experts and demonstrating and encouraging use of educational materials to foster mother-child interaction. Effects of home-based intervention included gains in IQ for subjects in the experimental groups. These gains were maintained three to four years after termination of the programs.

Bronfenbrenner (1974) has reviewed the results of a number of early intervention programs and stated principles specifying elements essential for effective programs.

The evidence indicates that the family is the most effective system of fostering and sustaining the development of the child. The evidence indicates further that the involvement of the child's family as an active participant is critical to the success of any intervention program. Without such family involvement, any effects of intervention, at least in the cognitive sphere, appear to erode fairly rapidly once the program ends. In contrast, the involvement of parents as partners in the enterprise provides an on-going system which can reinforce the effects of the program while it is in operation and help to sustain them after the program ends (1974, p. 55).

Schaefer (1972) discussed the family as an important educational institution for family members from birth to maturity. Ten characteristics of families that suggested the great cumulative impact of the family upon child development were stated by Schaefer:

Priority--The family influences the early development of relationships, and interests and language.

Duration--The family maintains contact with the child from birth to maturity.

Continuity--Prolonged separations of parents and children are rare. Separations are often investigated under the concept of maternal deprivation.

Amount--The total amount of interaction of children with parents tends to be greater than with any other adults.

Extensivity--Parents and children interact in many different situations and share many different experiences.

Intensity--The degree of involvement of the child with the parent tends to be more intense than with other adults.

Pervasiveness--The parent influences the child's contacts with other persons and institutions and controls the child's access to society and society's access to the child.

Consistency--The parents' behavior with the child tends to be consistent over time.

Responsibility--Both parents and society recognize the parents' primary responsibility for the child's welfare and development.

Variability--The extreme variability of family care and education, from extremes of acceptance, involvement, and stimulation to extremes of neglect, abuse, and physical deprivation, is related to variability in child's development (1972, p. 28).

The cumulative effect of these different characteristics and family care of children is the basis of the primary importance of the family in the educational process.

The family as educator can play an important part in preparing family members for their career roles. Havinghurst (1964) identified both broad and more specific developmental tasks in his analysis of the lifelong process of career development. Only the first and sixth stages and developmental tasks of each will be discussed here.

Stage I. Identification with a Worker (Ages 5-10).

The child identified with father, mother or other significant persons.

The concept of working becomes an essential part of the ego-ideal.

Principal Developmental Tasks of Middle Childhood:

1. Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating.

2. Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games.
 3. Learning to get along with age-mates.
 4. Learning an appropriate masculine or feminine social role.
 5. Developing concepts for everyday living.
 6. Developing conscience, morality and a scale of values.
 7. Achieving personal independence . . .
- Stage VI. Contemplating a Productive Life (Ages 70 plus).
1. The person is retired from work or is in the process of withdrawing from the worker role.
 2. The individual looks back over the work role to determine contributions to society.
 3. The individual may substitute other interests for the work role (Havinghurst, 1964, p. 216).

The setting for several of these career development tasks at an early and later life cycle stage is the home and family environment. Thus, the family as educator provides lifelong learning opportunities for family members.

Goldhammer and Taylor stated that "career education is designed to capacitate individuals for their several life roles: economic, community, home, avocational, religious and aesthetic" (1972, p. 6). Goldhamer and Taylor (1972) recognized the centrality of careers in shaping family life by determining or limiting where families work and live. One of four models of career education proposed for career development by Goldhammer and Taylor (1972) is the home-based model. Purposes of the home-based model for career education include: development of educational delivery systems into the home, provision of new career education programs for adults and enhancement of the quality of the home as a learning center.

Simpson (1973) elaborated on the concept of the home and family as a career education center. As a result of new

technological advances in communication mass media (i.e., audio-visual cassettes, microfilm, television-telephone computer hookups), home learning opportunities increased in the last twenty years. Simpson (1973) suggested that the home and family as a learning center may serve the following purposes: development of children's concepts of work, leisure and occupational possibilities; training and re-training young persons and adults for occupational competency; preparing older workers for new careers; developing competencies of men and women for their homemaking and family life responsibilities; and promoting personal development and a sense of worth for persons of all ages. A home-based educational system has the advantages of feasibility at all stages of the life cycle, at all social and economics levels and in all geographical areas.

Aberle and Naegele (1968) investigated the relationship between middle-class fathers' occupational roles and their behavior toward children at home. They argued that fathers' occupational roles developed certain values and attitudes which affected how fathers and children interacted at home. Fathers who were interviewed indicated they would not choose their children's occupations. They would attempt, however, to teach their children attitudes and values which the fathers thought were necessary for career success in middle-class occupational life. Attitudes and values which the fathers said were important included responsibility, initiative, competency, aggression, emotional stability and self-restraint. Fathers seemed to be more concerned about developing these characteristics in their sons than in their daughters.

Socialization experienced by persons in childhood cannot prepare them for all the roles they will be expected to fill in later years. Brim (1966) stated that people move through a sequence of different positions in society, in accord with different stages of the life cycle. Changes in the demands upon them arise from geographical and social mobility and from cultural expectations which may vary during their lifetimes. During the last half century, researchers studied socialization of children. There has been much less work, almost none, on socialization at later stages of the life cycle.

The situation for most men is much more difficult [than for men in relatively unchanging societies], because they live in complex and changing societies. The inadequacies of early socialization for the role the person will play during his lifetime are much greater. The geographical mobility associated with the modern age and the social mobility characteristic of the achievement-oriented open-class society both contribute to the characteristically unforeseeable career pattern of modern man. The heterogeneity of subcultures in complex modern societies compounds the effects of mobility by the novel and unpredictable role demands placed on the individual. So, also, do the rapid social changes occurring during a lifetime render inadequate much childhood learning: technological obsolescence in one's occupation, shifts in sexual folkways, opportunities for equality in employment for minority group members, are but a few of a myriad of examples that might be set forth. Discontinuities between what is expected in successive roles are greater; the inabilities of the socializing agents to do an effective job rise as the rate of change increases . . . Faced with these challenges, complex and changing societies might try to lay the groundwork for the necessary learning in later life, when the child will be confronted with adult roles as yet only dimly seen, by providing the individual with initiative, creativity, the power of self-determination, insight, flexibility and intelligent response to new conditions; to move, that is, away from indoctrination and habit formation toward development of broadly useful traits and skills enabling him to meet a variety of social demands (Brim, 1966, pp. 19-20).

Brim suggested that the family and other educational institutions have a role to play in adult socialization.

The family, like any other educational institution, originates some educative efforts, mediates others and actually insulates its members from still others. Educative efforts within the family involve not only parents teaching children but children teaching parents, parents teaching one another and children, and children teaching one another.

Resources Utilized for Learning Within the Home Environment

The family organizes and uses a complex of resources as it strives to achieve family and individual goals. Resources are human and nonhuman means for reaching goals (Maloch and Deacon, 1966). The ends or goals are those outcomes desired by individual members and by the family as a group. Management within the home helps a family create an environment in which members can perform, grow and develop as individuals while cooperating to attain group goals (Paolucci, 1966). Development of human capital, that is, the production of healthy, responsible and creative individuals, is among the family's primary goals (Paolucci, 1966; Schultz, 1971). The distinctive characteristic of human capital as compared to other forms of capital is that it is a part of the individual. Human capital is human because it is embodied in the person, and it is capital because it is a source of future satisfactions, future earnings or both (Schultz, 1971). Paolucci stated that the

development of human capital within the family "is comprised of a plurality of individual needs, wants, attitudes and values" (1966, p. 339).

Family use of resources for specified goals (in particular, money, time and energy) has been a topic of study for students of the family for many years. The micro-economics of the home and family environment in the allocation of women's time to develop human capital in children has been neglected, however, in both economics and home economics (Schultz, 1972). Few researchers have looked at family resource use in the development of human capital of family members.

Johannis (1957) measured participation by family members in selected child care and control activities. He included at least four activities (teaches children right from wrong and correct behavior, teaches children facts and skills, helps children choose what they will do after finishing school and helps children with homework) in which mothers, fathers and teenage sons and daughters contributed to the development of the human capital of younger children. More than half of the mothers, two-fifths of the fathers and one-fourth of the teenage sons and daughters spent time assisting children with school work. Mothers were more active than fathers in teaching children right from wrong and correct behavior and in helping children with school work. Both parents participated equally in teaching children facts and skills and in helping children choose what they will do after finishing school. Three activities (teaching children right from wrong, teaching children

facts and skills and helping children choose what they would do after finishing school) were shared responsibilities by two or more family members in at least 56 percent of the families. Although Johannis (1957) did not attempt to define or measure the resources family members used in selected child care and control activities, fathers, mothers and teenage sons and daughters invested both human (i.e., time, abilities, attitudes, moral support) and nonhuman resources (i.e., money, space, material goods) in the development of young children.

Baker (1970) described the family as an environment consisting of available resources that can be managed to shape the development of individuals. She hypothesized that resources, defined as events, activities, spaces, objects or persons within the family and family-linked surroundings are available for use in helping prepare the preschool child for successful participation in the formal educational system. Family resources which were measured included space, movement, care and appearance, play, task and work, child's learning, family learning, child's social contacts and family social contacts. Baker indicated that the level of family resources for educability was related significantly to family status characteristics (education, income, residence), but not to family structure characteristics (nuclearity, size, age and sex of preschool children). Baker (1970) suggested that intervention, change or education probably is needed at and between all levels--societal, family and individual--to better organize resource patterns which contribute to educability.

Bell (1973) investigated family resources and relationships of resources used to selected family characteristics when the family's first child was in first grade. She viewed the child's education as a mutually-shared goal between family and school. Parental time estimates of frequency and extent of time use were collected to describe parental inputs to school-related activities. Mothers also were asked about family money use for items related to children's education. Ninety-nine, ninety-eight and eighty-four percent of the parents used time to discuss the school day with their children, to assist children with school work and to read to children, respectively. Seventy-five percent bought reference materials for children's use at home. Six of the school-related activities were primarily at-home activities. Bell provided evidence that parental commitment of resources (i.e., frequency and extent of time use) to school-related activities was greater in activities carried out at home than at school and that the home and family environment functioned as a co-educator with schools. The family, however, rarely realized how they facilitated the child's educational development.

Leibowitz (1974) demonstrated that women and men with more education (at least one year of college) spend more time in child care than women with less education (up to four years of high school) despite the greater cost of their time as measured by foregone market earnings. Time inputs to various domestic outputs were calculated from time budgets of about 1,300 New York families. Total

time inputs to educational care of children over a two-day period by the wife and husband in the high-education group (at least one year of college) were 91 minutes and 41 minutes, respectively. In the low-education group (up to four years of high school), the wife spent 79 minutes during a two-day period in educational care of children and the husband spent 32 minutes. While the cost of child care measured in foregone market earnings was higher for women with at least one year of college, they devoted more total and per child time to child care than did women with up to four years of high school. It seemed that productivity and efficiency of women with at least one year of college made their time more valuable in the home when children were young than the earnings they lost by leaving the labor force.

Leibowitz (1974) also analyzed the human resources which might be substituted for the mother's time in child care. Time inputs by others--older children, babysitters, and/or grandparents--seemed to act as substitutes for the mother's time in the low-education group but not for those mothers with more years in school. The substitutes were similar in education and ability to the mothers in the low-education group. If education increases the productivity of time in child care as Leibowitz seemed to indicate, women with more education would find these other workers relatively unsatisfactory substitutes for their human resources. Mothers in the high-education group spent the same amount of time in child care whether or not other people cared for their children. The time devoted to child care within the home and family environment by

better-educated parents represented investment of their human resources in the human capital development of their children.

Leibowitz (1974a) also attempted to explain the development of significant differences in verbal and mathematical ability in children at age six. She suggested that these differences reflected variations in inherent ability and the amounts of human capital which children acquire before they are six years old. Acquired human capital in children, in turn, reflected varying inputs of time and other resources (i.e., money, moral support, abilities, knowledge) by parents, brothers and sisters and the child. The process of acquiring preschool human capital by young children, primarily in the home and family environment, was analogous to the accumulation of human capital by students and workers through schooling or on-the-job training.

To investigate the possible returns to home investment of resources in children by family members, Leibowitz (1974a) developed a model in which the success of the child in school (measured by IQ in grade school and final schooling level) and success of the adult in later life (measured by income) was expressed as a function of the quantity and quality of parental time inputs into home education of children.

Leibowitz (1974a) re-analyzed Terman's longitudinal data (1959) about the physical, mental and personality traits of California school children and their success in later life. Findings cannot be generalized to the whole population because the sample

population's IQ exceeded 140 in childhood. Leibowitz (1974a) indicated, however, that home investments do increase childhood human capital. Home-investment variables were associated positively and significantly with a measure of human capital (IQ) for all boys in the sample and for a subset of older girls. The mother's education was related significantly to the child's IQ, while the father's education was not, which suggests that home investments in childhood human capital rather than wholly genetic factors underlie the relationship. The quantity of home educational inputs was not found to affect schooling attainment. The quality of home educational inputs as measured by parents' education, however, did have a significant impact on the final schooling level attained by all children. Although early home investments in children had no direct effect on income in later life, the positive relationship between income and amount of schooling suggested that investment in the human capital of children in the home and family environment played an important indirect effect on income earned in later life.

Leibowitz's (1974a) findings lend support to the hypothesis that family investments in children affect early achievement of children, ultimate level of schooling and adult earnings. Parents who have completed more years of schooling invested more human and nonhuman resources in children. These resource expenditures affected aptitude and/or achievement in school which ultimately lead to greater economic success.

Researchers have studied families' utilization of resources to develop the human capital of family members, particularly young

children (Baker, 1970; Bell, 1973; Leibowitz, 1974, 1974a). Resource investment in the human capital of other family members within the home and family environment has received little attention. For example, there have been few studies about the resources used within the home to prepare teenagers for their first jobs or to prepare mothers who return to work when their children are in junior high school. Schultz stated, "The use of leisure time to improve skills and knowledge is widespread and it, too, [in addition to the investment of parents in the human capital of children] is unrecorded" (1971, p. 25). Thus, there is a need for research about the development of human capital of all family members throughout the life cycle. The study of learning experiences within the home and family environment and of resources committed to home learning may be one way to implement the development of human capital research efforts.

Learning Needs and Interests of Families With Teenage Children

Families grow, develop and age over the years. The family developmental approach (Duvall, 1967; Hill, 1964) is a way of studying the family as a system during all or a part of the family life cycle. The concept of individual and family development over the life cycle is central to understanding the learning needs and interests of families.

The family life cycle may be divided into few or many stages. One stage generally included in the categorization of the family life cycle is the family with teenage children (Duvall, 1967).

Both teenagers and adults are faced with a series of tasks to learn during this period in the family's development. The tasks which families with teenagers must learn, the developmental tasks of life, are related to the biological, intellectual, social and psychological growth of both individuals in the family and the family as a group.

Havinghurst defined a developmental task as stated below.

A developmental task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks (1953, p. 2).

The origin of developmental tasks includes cultural expectations, physical maturation and the personal values and aspirations of the individual. Understanding the concept of developmental tasks is useful to families in identifying teachable moments when conditions are most favorable for individual and/or family learning.

Havinghurst (1953) described tasks appropriate to children, adolescents and adults. The developmental tasks of adolescents (ages 12-18) and adults in the middle years (ages 35-55) were of interest in the present study because the developmental tasks of a particular life cycle stage can relate to individual and family learning needs and interests. Most adolescents and individuals in the middle years of life are members of families. As family members, the adolescents and adults have several functions and roles (i.e., father, husband, wife, mother, daughter, sister). Within the family, individuals live and grow in relation to one another. The developmental tasks of family members, then are reciprocal. For example,

the adolescent's striving for emotional independence from adults affects interrelationships within the family. The developmental tasks of adolescence include achieving new and more mature relationships with age-mates of both sexes, achieving a masculine or feminine social role, accepting one's physique and using the body effectively, achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults, achieving assurance of economic independence, selecting and preparing for an occupation, preparing for marriage and family life, developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence, desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior, and acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior (Havinghurst, 1953). The developmental tasks of middle age include achieving adult civic and social responsibilities, establishing and maintaining an economic standard of living, assisting teenage children to become responsible and happy adults, developing adult leisure-time activities, relating oneself to one's spouse as a person, accepting and adjusting to the physiological changes of middle age, and adjusting to aging parents. Examples of learning interests and needs of families with teenagers related to these developmental tasks might include financial aid available for teenager's education, health care alternatives for aging parents, possible career choices for adolescents, or shared leisure activities for parents.

Havinghurst (1964) also identified developmental tasks in his analysis of the lifelong process of career development.

Families with teenagers might be faced with the developmental tasks of Stages II, III, IV and V which are outlined briefly:

- Stage II: Acquiring the Basic Habits of Industry (Ages 10-15).
Developmental tasks include learning to organize one's time and energy to get a piece of work done and learning to put work ahead of play in appropriate situations.
- Stage III: Acquiring Identity as a Worker in Occupational Structure (Ages 15-25).
Developmental tasks include choosing and preparing for an occupation and getting work experience as a basis for occupational choice and for assurance of economic independence.
- Stage IV: Becoming a Productive Person (Ages 25-40).
Developmental tasks include mastering skills of one's occupation and moving up the ladder within one's occupation.
- Stage V: Maintaining a Productive Society (Ages 40-70).
Developmental tasks include achieving one's career peak and preparing for retirement (Havinghurst, 1964, p. 216).

Polk (1964) suggested that family values are influenced by the stage in the family life cycle. Families with teenage children will attempt to prepare adolescent children to be independent and responsible in work and marriage. Middle-class parents also will be likely to sacrifice personal wishes to provide education and training opportunities for their children because they value education. At the same time as parents are preparing children for new roles, parents are defining what their values and roles in future years might be. The home and family environment provides a setting for learning new values, preparing for new roles and mediating conflicting goals.

Many educators have suggested conceptual orientations for studying the learning needs and interests of families with teenage

children (Havinghurst, 1953; Duvall, 1967; Polk, 1964). Few researchers, however, have studied empirically the learning activities of families with teenage children. Two related research studies will be reviewed briefly.

Tough (1971) interviewed 16-year-old boys about their out-of-school learning activities. The boys spent an average of 609 hours per year in nine learning activities. Much of the boys' learning related to athletic skills, musical instruments, future career possibilities, and other general topics of interest. Tough (1971) did not interview other family members to gain information about the day-to-day learning which took place in the home and family environment between children and children, parent and parent, and child(ren) and parent(s).

Alers-Montalvo, Ibsen and Brown (1966) investigated educational problems, needs or wants created in areas losing or gaining population. They attempted to find ways Cooperative Extension might provide educational help to solve the identified problems or needs. Housewives reported family needs and high school sophomores reported educational needs of youth. Areas of family needs expressed by housewives from most to least interest included: home and home surroundings, financial and legal matters, food and nutrition, desires and wants for children, clothing and appropriate dress, home management, better life for yourself and your family, teenagers, older people, job and job opportunities, and business management. Younger age groups, higher educational attainment groups and

higher occupational status groups tended to show more interest in almost all items of family needs.

The researchers asked high school sophomores what they would like to learn about in a club. Boys and girls were given questionnaires with different possible responses. Activities included in the questionnaire were skills and developmental tasks. Boys frequently expressed interest in skills related to motors and cars, carpentry, electricity and repairing household appliances. Developmental tasks in which boys expressed interest included decision-making in a club, accepting physical characteristics and learning how to get along with girls. Girls frequently expressed interest in skills related to selecting and buying clothes and fabric, caring for clothes and dresses and decorating home interiors. Girls indicated a high interest in all developmental tasks included on the questionnaire (i.e., getting along with boys, accepting physical characteristics, making decisions, preparing for marriage).

There have been few research studies about home-centered learning activities which contribute to human capital development of families with teenagers. Wolf (1966) emphasized the need to investigate how parents and children learn in the home and family environment. Researchers who study about learning in the home and family environment can contribute to existing knowledge about the family's educative role. Application of research findings can have implications for developing alternative methods of structuring the home environment so teenagers and parents in the middle years have

opportunities to learn the developmental tasks of that family life cycle stage. Results of research about home-centered learning also can provide guidelines for developing educational programs which facilitate learning within the home and family environment.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate how families with at least one teenage child perceived and utilized the home as a place for learning. It was part of a larger study entitled "The Home as a Learning Center," Department of Family Ecology, College of Human Ecology at Michigan State University, which was funded by the Curriculum Branch of the United States Office of Education. This researcher participated in all stages of the research project including developing the interview schedule, screening and interviewing families, coding data and developing the conceptual framework paper.

In this chapter, the following points will be discussed: description of the sampled community, sample design and selection, selection of the subsample, description of the subsample, research methodology, development of the interview schedule, the interviewing process and collection of data, and data processing and analyses.

Description of the Sampled Community

The initial sample selected for the larger study was drawn from the population in Vevay Township, Michigan. This is a well-defined community which contains a unique diversity of functions.

The area is the seat of county government, and it includes several smaller industries and service-oriented agencies. Vevay Township, Michigan, is located within commuting distance of several major employers: the state government, light and heavy industry primarily related to the automobile industry and a major university (Michigan State University). It can be defined as an area geographically located between two larger metropolitan areas (Lansing, Michigan, and Jackson, Michigan) of commercial enterprise and activity, surrounded by a productive, diversified agricultural sector.

Vevay Township, Michigan, was chosen for this study because it is a relatively contained geographical area with a diversified blue-collar socioeconomic population from which it would be possible to draw a random sample of families. This type of sample offered the research team the opportunity to study how blue-collar families with access to similar educational resources utilized the home as a learning center.

Sample Design and Selection

A systematic random sampling design that assured the probability of proportionate representation of city blocks and rural sections was used for the sample selection in Vevay Township. Each city block or rural section was assigned a random starting point. A total of 370 households were selected randomly for initial contacts to assure that family responses would represent female spokesperson, male spokesperson and whole family (three members of families with at least one teenage child). The criteria for final

sample selection were: (1) blue-collar occupational employment of head of the household and (2) person(s) presently living in household had lived together during the last year.

Specific information about sample design and selection for "The Home as a Learning Center Project" is on file in the Department of Family Ecology, College of Human Ecology at Michigan State University.

Selection of the Subsample

The screener who initially contacted families for the larger sample was instructed to identify families who met the following criteria: (1) blue-collar occupational employment of head of household, (2) family of at least three members including one teenager (ages 13 to 19) and two adults (approximate ages 35-55) and (3) family who lived together during the last year. If the family met the above criteria and lived in a randomly selected block or section designated for a three-member family interview, the screener asked if they would agree to a group interview with this researcher.

Sixty contacts were made in order to acquire families who would agree to participate in a group interview. Fifteen families who were selected by this process agreed to participate in a group interview.

Description of Subsample

This section described the characteristics of the subsample of 15 families with at least one teenage child and two adult members.

Occupations of Adult
Family Members

Occupations of employed adults were categorized according to the Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Social Position (1957).

TABLE 1.--Occupations of Adults.

Hollingshead's Occupational Categories	Number	
	Male (N=15)	Female (N=15)
Level 4: Clerical & sales workers	5	5
Level 5: Skilled manual employees	10	2
Level 6: Machine operators and semi-skilled employees	0	2
Not employed within last year	0	6

Clerical and sales workers included: claims examiner, book-keeper, secretaries, inspector, sales route manager and sales clerk. Skilled manual employees included: millwright, assembly production line worker, carpenter, hair stylist, construction worker and county road worker. Machine operators and semi-skilled employees included a school bus driver and a cook.

Two of the males were not working at the time of the interview. One was laid off from the automobile industry due to the economic situation in Michigan. Another was temporarily unemployed because of a medical disability. However, all males reported they

were employed full-time during most of the previous year (Table 2). Forty percent of the females were not employed and had not worked in the last year. The number of hours worked per week by employed adult family members is summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2.--Number of Hours Employed Adult Family Members Worked Per Week.

Hours Worked Per Week	Number	
	Male (N=15)	Female (N=9)
10-19	0	1
20-29	0	3
30-39	0	1
40 or more	100	4

Family Income of Adult Workers

Family income of adult members only ranged between \$14,000 to \$19,999 for one-third of the 15 families. Both husband and wife worked in nine of the 15 families, hence family income may reflect the income of two workers. The data on family income are summarized in Table 3.

Part-Time Employment of Teenagers

Twenty-two of the 28 teenagers in the 15 families studied were employed part-time during the past year. Their employment included: babysitter, licensed practical nurse, custodian,

TABLE 3.--Family Income.

Income Categories	Number of Families (N=15)
\$2,000-7,999	2
\$8,000-13,999	4
\$14,000-19,999	5
Over \$20,000	4

housekeeper/companion, fast food service worker and attendant at a trap shoot. Of the ten teenage males in the sample, nine were employed during the past year and one was not employed. Thirteen of the 18 teenage females had been employed in the last year; five had not been employed. Income for employed teenagers ranged from less than \$100 to over \$400 (Table 4).

TABLE 4.--Income of Employed Teenagers.

Income Categories	Number (N=22)
\$1-100	4
\$101-200	10
\$201-300	4
\$301-400	3
Over \$400	1

Educational Attainment of Selected Families

All but seven of the adults had a high school education. More females than males completed high school. Most teenagers completed seven to 11 years of school.

TABLE 5.--Educational Attainment of Adults and Teenagers.

Years of Schooling Completed	Number		
	Male (N=15)	Female (N=15)	Teenagers (N=28)
Less than 7 years	0	0	0
7-9 years	1	1	15
10-11 years	4	1	11
High school graduates	6	11	2
Vocational/technical training	0	1	0
Some college	3	1	0
College graduation	1	0	0

Size of Selected Families

The average family had five members living at home. In three families, size of family changed within the last year. Three older children joined the service, married or moved away from home. The birth of a child increased the size of one family. Number of children living at home ranged from one to four. Five families had both male and female teenagers, seven families had female teenagers, and three families had male teenagers.

TABLE 6.--Size of Selected Families.

Number of family members	Number (N=15)
3	1
4	3
5	5
6	6

Ages of Family Members

Ages of family members in the 15 families ranged from one to 59 because the sample was selected to represent families in the middle stage of the family life cycle. Within these 15 families, teenagers of all ages were represented. Ages of family members are summarized in Table 7.

Changes in Families During Last Year

Family members were asked to identify changes in their families within the last year. Several children were attending different schools than they had previously (i.e., junior to senior high school). Three families moved during the last year. In eight of the 15 families, the employment status of one or more family members changes (i.e., beginning a new job, changing job responsibilities, medical disability) within the last year.

TABLE 7.--Ages of Family Members.

Age Categories	Number			
	Adult Male (N=16) ^a	Adult Female (N=15)	Male Children (N=17) ^b	Female Children (N=27)
1-6			0	1
7-11			5	5
12-16			10	15
17-19			2	6
22-29	1	0		
30-34	0	1		
35-39	5	7		
40-44	5	4		
45-49	4	2		
50-54	0	1		
Over 54	1	0		

^aOne family included two adult males living at home, the father and a 22-year-old son.

^bIn the fifteen families there were ten male teenagers and 18 female teenagers.

Research Methodology

Survey research, characteristically quantitative in nature, systematically describes current practices, attitudes, beliefs or situations (Compton and Hall, 1972; Isaac and Michael, 1971). The purpose of this research was to describe how families with at least one teenage child perceived and utilized the home as a place for learning. The personal interview (Kerlinger, 1964) has been noted as the most powerful and useful tool of social scientific survey

research. Compton and Hall (1972) indicated that a researcher may obtain more accurate information in greater depth through an interview schedule than through a self-administered questionnaire.

Development of Interview Schedule

The survey instrument developed for this study consisted of two parts: (1) an interview schedule and (2) a demographic questionnaire. A decision was made to collect data about two broad categories of learning activities: family and occupation.

The interview schedule included fixed-alternative and open-end items. Open-end questions about learning within the home (i.e., learning activities of family members in the last year; information families desired for use in home learning) were devised to elicit information about learning activities which involved one or all family members. Fixed-alternative items offering a choice among one or more answers were used to collect factual data about home-centered learning (i.e., time of year, week and day of learning; preferred location within the home for learning).

Probe techniques were developed to help respondents recall family learning activities. Neutral probes (i.e., I see; and then) were used to encourage respondents to describe learning activities. A probe card listing broad categories of possible family learning activities was used to obtain a complete listing of family learning activities at home.

The instrument was pretested in a pilot study with five families who met the same criteria as the sample families in the

larger study. Pilot interviews were tape recorded and responses were analyzed. The interview schedule was revised based upon analysis of pilot interviews (See Appendix C for a copy of the interview schedule). Probe techniques also were reviewed and changed after the pilot interviews. (See Appendix A for a copy of the probe card.)

The Interviewing Process and Collection of Data

Personal interviews and field notes were used to elicit and collect information about home-centered learning activities from the basic unit of analysis of this study, the family. Data were collected from February to April, 1975. The interviewing process consisted of three stages: (1) interviewer training, (2) the initial contact and (3) the personal interview.

All interviewers were trained prior to data collection. Interviewer training included how to use the demographic questionnaire, interview schedule, probe techniques and how to take field notes. Practice interviews were videotaped. Interviewing techniques then were critiqued by an experienced researcher who analyzed interviewing style and suggested improvements.

The second stage of data collection was an initial introductory contact to determine if the household met the criteria for the study, that is, (1) blue-collar socioeconomic employment of head of household, (2) family with at least two adults and one teenage child and (3) family who lived together during the last year.

Basic demographic data were collected from an adult family member at that time (i.e., names and ages of family members, occupations of employed persons). Interviewers explained purposes of the study and asked families who met the above criteria if they would agree to a group interview. The respondents were assured that information collected would be kept confidential.

The third stage of the interviewing process was a personal group interview. In initiating each interview, the interviewer introduced herself and asked if family members had any questions about the purpose of the study. The first few minutes of each interview were spent answering questions and establishing a friendly relationship so family members would feel free to share information about their learning activities within the home.

All interviews were held in the homes of the families. The interview setting was comfortable and informal, but not always private and quiet. Family members selected the place within the home for the interview. Eleven interviews were held in the living room and four were in the kitchen. At least three family members participated in each group interview. Other family members frequently observed and listened to the interview.

The average interview took 95 minutes, the range of time for interviews was 70-120 minutes. The variation in number of learning activities reported by the subjects accounted for the wide range in interview time. All three family members contributed some information in each of the 15 interviews. Generally, mothers

and teenagers were more active in describing learning activities than were fathers.

During the first few minutes of an interview, subjects had some difficulty recalling learning activities. Few people thought about learning in the home and family environment. However, most interviewees grasped the idea quickly once they recalled things they learned at home in the last year. The probe techniques used in the interview helped subjects recall learning activities. Field notes (i.e., location of interview in home, number of interruptions during interview, description of interview setting) were completed immediately after the interview. Madge (1953) reported the importance of detailed field notes in interpreting data.

Interviewees were cooperative, and no one refused to answer any questions. Several families said the interview was an interesting, enjoyable experience.

Data Processing and Analyses

After each interview, the data were checked for complete responses. The raw data were coded and transferred to mark-sense sheets by the researcher. Learning activities were coded to include: (1) all family members, (2) teenager(s), (3) parent(s) and teenager(s) and (4) parent(s). Judgements about coding learning activities into categories were verified by a second coder. Inter-rater reliability was 95 percent. Any discrepancies were discussed until consensus was reached. All data coded on the mark-sense sheets were re-checked for coding accuracy. A third person spot-checked

each interview schedule for coding accuracy and judgments. Mark-sense sheets were fed into an optical scanner and IBM cards were punched automatically. The use of the optical scanner provided greater accuracy and speed of keypunching (Babbie, 1973).

Data were analyzed on the Control Data Corporation 6500 Scope Hustler computer, using the Computer Institute for Social Science Research (CISSR) statistical package. Statistical procedures used to analyze data about home-centered learning activities of families with at least one teenage child included percentage and frequency distributions. The Oneway Analysis of the CISSR statistical package was the specific statistical procedure applied (Price and Ohare, 1974). The small number of cases in the study made it possible to do further hand tabulation analyses.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Results of this study are presented as follows: extent of learning activities that occurred in the home during the last year, learning activities in which one or more family members participated, learning activities in which parents and/or teenagers were involved, time and place of home-centered learning, human and nonhuman resources used in learning activities within the home, sources of information for home-centered learning activities, contacts outside the home which family members made to facilitate learning at home, family members' perceptions about what children need to learn at home to be family members and workers, sources of information family members would use to help children learn about being family members and workers, and information families desire about being family members and workers to be used in learning at home.

Extent of Home Learning Activity in the Past Year

The extent of learning activity during the last year was measured by counting the number of learning activities which family members reported. The three family members interviewed were asked to describe what all family members made an effort to learn and to indicate who participated in each learning activity. All learning

activities which met the criteria of being a special effort to learn something at home within the last year were included.

Number of Learning Activities

All 15 families were involved in learning activities during the last year, a participation rate of 100 percent. The number of learning activities per family ranged from nine to 34. The total number of learning activities reported by the 15 families was 307. The typical family mentioned about 20 learning activities in which one or more family members participated. The mean number of learning activities per family member was approximately four. The detailed data about number of learning activities reported are presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8.--Number of Learning Activities Reported Per Family.

Number of Learning Activities		Number of Families
	9	1
	13	1
	14	1
	16	1
	18	2
	19	1
	20	2
	21	1
	23	1
	25	1
	26	1
	31	1
	<u>34</u>	<u>1</u>
TOTAL	307	15

Mean = 20.47; Median = 20; Mode = 18,20.

Description of Learning Activities
in Which One or More Family
Members Participated

Each learning activity reported was coded into one of 47 specific kinds of learning activities (see Appendix A). Learning activities of these 15 families then were clustered into one of six broad areas of learning: (1) development and care of family members, (2) development of values, (3) household care and management, (4) leisure and recreation, (5) preparation for career and (6) other. The number of learning activities participated in by one or more family members and percentages for each category are summarized in Table 9. Subcategories within each category and percentages of total activities (307) also are included.

Household Care and Management

This category included learning activities related to repairing, maintaining and decorating the home, budgeting money resources, feeding and clothing the family and using household tools and equipment. The largest number of learning activities, 109 or one-third of the total (307), were in this category. Specific examples of family learning activities included learning about dieting, paneling the basement, cooking, sewing, planting berry bushes, refinishing a dry sink, repairing the roof, planting a garden, budgeting money for food, saving money to buy a bicycle or clothes, redecorating a teenager's room and using a saw, hammer or other tools.

TABLE 9.--Kind and Number of Times One or More Family Members Participated in Learning Activities.

Learning Activities	Number	Percent
<u>Household Care and Management</u>	109	35
maintaining, repairing and decorating the home	25	8
feeding the family	19	6
gardening and lawn care	16	5
using and maintaining tools and equipment	15	5
budgeting and using money wisely	13	4
sewing and clothing care	11	4
routine household skills	10	3
<u>Leisure and Recreation</u>	76	25
hobbies, crafts	35	11
enjoyment and recreation	22	7
music, art, dance	19	6
<u>Development and Care of Family Members</u>	45	15
caring for children	28	9
caring for adults	6	2
positive emotional support inside the family	6	2
positive emotional support outside the family	3	1
health	2	1
<u>Development of Values</u>	42	14
personal, social values	20	7
getting along with people outside the home	7	2
sharing in the family	6	2
spiritual values	5	2
getting along with people inside the home	4	1
<u>Preparation for Career</u>	28	10
applying for jobs	8	3
job-related activities	8	3
developing job-related skills	7	2
developing career interests	5	2
<u>Other</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>2</u>
TOTAL	307	101

Leisure and Recreation

The leisure and recreation category included learning activities related to enjoyment, recreation, hobbies, crafts, music, art and dance. This number was about one-fourth of the total learning activities (307), the second highest number of learning activities in a particular category reported by families. Specific leisure and recreation activities which parents and teenagers reported learning about were knitting, tap dancing, decoupage, woodworking, backpacking, fishing, playing the guitar and piano, square dancing, ceramics, baton twirling, glass painting, playing cards and trapping.

Development and Care of Family Members

The development and care of family members category included learning activities related to positive emotional support for family members and health-related concerns. Learning activities in this area were 15 percent (45) of all learning reported. Care and development of children was the majority (28 of 45) of learning activities in this subject matter area. Several teenagers said they were learning to take care of younger brothers and sisters. Parents in one family said they were relearning to care for a small child. They discussed teaching the child to say words, to understand yes and no, and to identify parts of her body. Family members in another family used flash cards to help a seven-year-old learn word meanings. One adult male developed his capabilities to conduct a meeting and

speak in public by reading books (i.e., Robert's Rules of Order, speech books) at home. Parents whose older children had moved from home learned to adjust emotionally to a smaller family. Learning activities related to positive emotional support included making new friends, spending time together in family activities and maintaining family morale while the father was unemployed.

Development of Values

The development of values category included learning about getting along with people, sharing with others and developing personal, social and spiritual values. Families mentioned 42 learning activities (14 percent of the total number) related to value development. Learning related to personal, social values occurred most frequently in this category. Parents stated that children learned more about values such as honesty, responsibility, patience and independence during the last year. Ways children and teenagers learned these values included caring for the house while parents were away, carrying out certain family tasks and making decisions about spending money. Learning to get along with people included developing a workable relationship between two teenagers and between a teenager and mother, communicating between parents and teenagers, and working together to achieve family goals. Five learning activities related to spiritual value development were described. These included being an altar boy, studying the Bible and being a lector in church.

Preparation for Career

The preparation for career category included learning about applying for jobs, developing career interests, developing job-related skills and other job-related activities. Twenty-eight career learning activities, 10 percent of the total, were mentioned. Both teenagers and adults made an effort to learn about how to apply for jobs during the past year. Job-related learning activities in the home included reading books about set design and drama production, studying psychology and studying to be a legal assistant. Developing job-related skills included practicing hypodermic injections, drawing and labeling a sheep's eye and using a welder. Several teenagers were discussing possible career interests with parents. Their interests included nursing, special education and retailing. One adult male was attempting to learn about potential careers he might pursue in retirement.

Other

Families described seven learning activities which did not fit into any of the above categories. These included learning about earth science, dogs, horses and rockets.

Kinds of Learning Activities Identified as Helpful for Family and/or Occupational Activities

Family members were asked if their learning activities were helpful in carrying out family activities and responsibilities and/or occupational responsibilities. The purpose of this question was to determine how families perceived their learning activities.

Families indicated that 220 of the 307 learning activities reported (72 percent) were helpful for carrying out family responsibilities and duties. Thirty-three learning projects (11 percent) were helpful exclusively for learning about occupations. Families identified 36 learning projects (12 percent) that were related to both family and occupational activities. Eighteen learning projects (6 percent) were not helpful for either family or occupational activities. The majority of learning projects in five categories (development and care of family members, development of values, leisure and recreation, household care and management, and other) were useful for family responsibilities and duties. Families perceived that 15 of the 42 learning projects in the development of values category were helpful for both family and occupational activities. Families also said that 26 of the 28 learning projects (93 percent) in the preparation for career category were helpful exclusively for occupational responsibilities (Table 10).

Learning Activities in Which Parents and/or
Teenagers Were Involved

Learning activities were clustered into the six broad areas of learning. Husband and/or wife, parents and teenager(s), father and teenager(s), mother and teenager(s), father and male teenager(s), father and female teenager(s), mother and male teenager(s), mother and female teenager(s), male and female teenager(s), male teenagers and female teenager(s) represented clusters of family members. The number of times a particular family cluster reported participating in a learning was recorded.

TABLE 10.--Kind and Number of Learning Activities Useful for Family and Occupational Responsibilities.

Kind of Learning Activity	Number of Activities				Total	% of Total
	Family	Occupational	Both	Neither		
Development & Care of Family Members	37	5	3	0	45	15
Development of Values	27	0	15	0	42	14
Leisure and Recreation	60	0	2	14	76	25
Household Care & Management	93	2	14	0	109	35
Preparation for Career	0	26	2	0	28	10
Other	3	0	0	4	7	2
TOTAL	220	33	36	18	307	
Percent of total	72	11	12	6	101	101

Family composition of the 15 families was 15 mothers, 15 fathers, ten male teenagers, 18 female teenagers, one other adult male and 16 children (male and female) under age 13. Five families had both male and female teenagers, seven families had only female teenagers and three families had only male teenagers.

Data about learning activities in which parents and/or teenagers were involved are summarized in Tables 11, 12, 13 and 14.

TABLE 11.--Kind and Number of Learning Activities of Husbands and/or Wives.

Kind of Learning	Husband and/or Wife (N=30)
Household Care & Management	16
Leisure & Recreation	13
Development & Care of Family Members	7
Preparation for Career	2
Development of Values	1
Other	1
TOTAL	40

Husbands and/or wives reported 40 learning activities in which one or both spouses were involved (Table 11). No children or teenagers participated in these learning activities. About 75 percent of these activities were in household care and management and leisure and recreation. Only four of the 40 learning activities (10 percent) involved both husband and wife. The remaining 36 learning projects mentioned (90 percent) were individual learning for either husband or wife. Specific learning activities included making cheese, building a door, organizing time, dieting, restoring old cars, revarnishing golf clubs and remodeling a camper.

One or both parents and one or more teenagers reported 101 shared learning activities (Table 12). This was 33 percent of all learning activities described by the 15 families (307). Slightly over one-half (53 percent) of the learning activities involving

TABLE 12.--Kind and Number of Learning Activities of Parent(s) and Teenager(s).

Kind of Learning	Parents and Teenagers	M,m,f ^a	F,m,f	M,m	M,f	F,m	F,f	Total	Percent of Total
Household Care and Management	17	5	1	6	10	0	10	49	49
Leisure and Recreation	8	1	0	2	2	1	1	15	15
Development and Care of Family Members	8	0	0	0	2	0	2	12	12
Development of Values	16	0	0	1	1	0	1	19	19
Preparation for Career	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	5	5
Other	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
TOTAL	54	6	1	10	15	1	14	101	
Percent of Total	53	6	1	10	15	1	14		101

^aM,m,f: male adult, male teenager(s), female teenager(s)
F,m,f: female adult, male teenager(s), female teenager(s)
M,m: male adult, male teenager(s)
M,f: male adult, female teenager(s)
F,m: female adult, male teenager(s)
F,f: female adult, female teenager(s)

parent(s) and teenager(s) included both parents and one or more teenager(s). The other 47 percent of parent-teenager learning activities involved one parent and one or more teenagers. Learning activities in the household care and management area were 49 percent of shared parent and teenager learning projects. Learning related to development of values was mentioned as the second most frequent kind of learning activity involving parent(s) and teenager(s).

Information about specific learning activities in which one or more teenagers were involved is summarized in Table 13.

TABLE 13.--Kind and Number of Learning Activities in Which Teenager(s) Reported They Participated.

Kind of Learning	m,f ^a (N=28)	m (N=10)	f (N=18)	Total	Percent of Total
Leisure & Recreation	6	15	19	40	38
Development & Care of Family Members	3	3	13	19	18
Preparation for Career	1	3	14	18	17
Household Care & Management	3	8	6	17	16
Development of Values	0	2	6	8	8
Other	0	2	1	3	3
Total	13	33	59	105	
Percent of Total	12	31	56		100

^am,f = male teenager(s) and female teenager(s)
 m = male teenager(s)
 f = female teenager(s)

One or more teenagers participated in 105 learning activities with another teenager or alone. This was 34 percent of all learning activities described by the 15 families (307). Leisure and recreation was the kind of learning activity described most frequently by teenagers (40, 38 percent). Kind of learning activity most frequently mentioned in other family clusters [i.e., husband and/or wife, parent(s) and teenager(s)] was household care and management. Thus, extent of involvement in types of learning activities which involved only teenagers differed from the type of learning activities which included parents and teenagers.

Female teenagers were involved in 14 preparation for career learning activities and 13 development and care of family member learning activities while male teenagers reported only three learning activities in each of these categories. Part of this difference may be attributed to the larger representation of female teenagers in the sample (N=18 female teenagers; N=10 male teenagers). The average number of individual learning projects for both male and female teenagers was 3.3.

The total number of learning activities involving parent(s), parent(s) and teenagers(s) and teenager(s) was 246 (Table 14). This was 80 percent of all learning activities (307) reported by the 15 families. The remaining 61 learning activities described by family members involved individuals or family clusters other than parent(s) and/or teenager(s) (i.e., younger children, other adult family members).

TABLE 14.--Number of Learning Activities in Which Parent(s) and Teenager(s) Participated.

Clusters of Family Members	Number of Learning Activities
Husband and/or wife	40
Parents and teenager(s)	54
Father, male & female teenager(s)	6
Mother, male & female teenager(s)	1
Father & male teenager(s)	10
Father & female teenager(s)	15
Mother & male teenager(s)	1
Mother and female teenager(s)	14
Male & female teenager(s)	13
Male teenager(s)	33
Female teenager(s)	59
TOTAL	246

Time and Place of Home-Centered Learning

Families were asked to identify those times of the year, day, and week when most of the family learning activities occurred. Eight families said that time of the year did not affect the extent of learning at home. These families said they might learn different things in different seasons of the year (i.e., gardening in summer, skiing in winter), but they said their families learned through the year. Four families stated they learned more at home during the winter months when they couldn't be outside. Another family who played golf in summer, spring and fall said they learned at home during the winter when they couldn't golf.

Ten families said the time of the week does not affect extent of involvement in home learning. Three families learned more at home on weekdays and two families learned more at home on weekends. Time of day seemed to affect participation in home learning more than either time of year or week did. Ten families identified evening as the time of day when most learning at home occurred. Data about when families learn at home are summarized in Table 15.

TABLE 15.--Time When Families Learn and Number of Families.

Time	Number of Families (N=15)
<u>Time of Year</u>	
January	3
February	3
March	3
April	1
May	1
June	3
July	2
August	2
September	1
October	2
November	4
December	4
No particular time of year	8
<u>Time of Week</u>	
Weekday	3
Weekend	2
No particular time of week	10
<u>Time of Day</u>	
Morning	0
Afternoon	1
Evening	10
No particular time of day	4

Families indicated where within the home they used sources of information for learning (i.e., television, radio, newspaper, magazines, books and flyers and pamphlets). Rooms most frequently mentioned were the living room, bedroom and kitchen (Table 16).

Parents and teenagers identified where family members preferred to learn within the home. Four families expressed no preference and stated where they learned in the home depended on what they were learning. The living room, bedroom and kitchen were mentioned most frequently as where family members preferred to learn (Table 17).

Human and Nonhuman Resources Used for Learning Within the Home

Families made changes in human and nonhuman resource allocation to facilitate learning activities which contributed to learning about family activities and household tasks and occupations. These resources included time, money, space and human capital. All 15 families purchased materials, tools, equipment and supplies for learning activities. Two-thirds or more of the 15 families managed the following resources for home-centered learning activities: time (i.e., rearranged schedules, participated in learning activities), money (i.e., purchased supplies, materials, tools, magazines or books), space, (i.e., rearranged home), human capital (i.e.) helped another family member learn something, provided moral support, taught another family member something, changed work patterns), or community services (i.e., library, Extension, church). Over one-half of the families who managed time, money, space, human capital

TABLE 16.--Where Family Members Use Sources of Information in the Home.

Room in Home	Number of Responses					
	television	radio	newspaper	magazines	books	flyers total
Living room	11	3	12	14	11	4 55
Bedroom	5	12	14	10	9	3 53
Kitchen	0	6	7	3	3	4 23
Family room/den	3	2	0	1	2	4 12
Basement	1	1	0	0	0	1 3
Study	0	0	1	0	0	0 1
Bathroom	0	0	3	5	1	1 10
Other	0	2	0	0	0	1 3

TABLE 17.--Where Family Members Prefer to Learn Within Home.

Room of House	Number of Responses				
	Whole Family	Adult		Children	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
Living Room	1	4	2	2	5
Bedroom	1	0	1	6	5
Kitchen	1	1	2	6	0
Family room/den	2	1	0	0	0
Basement	0	0	0	1	0
Garage	0	0	1	0	0
No Preference	4	2	1	0	1

(except for moral support) and community services indicated that the resources were used in family-related learning activities. Both time and human capital were allocated to learning activities which family members said were related to both family and occupational learning activities. Few resources were utilized exclusively for occupational-related learning activities (Table 18).

Sources of Information for Home-Centered Learning Activities

Over 67 percent of the 15 families in this study used radio, television, newspapers, magazines, books and flyers and pamphlets as sources of information for learning activities at home. Eighty percent of the families used the telephone to obtain information related to home-centered learning activities.

Types of television and radio programs which were a source of information for family learning activities included news and

TABLE 18.--Changes in Resource Use for Family and Occupational Learning Categories.

Resources	Number of Families in Learning Category			
	Family	Occupational	Both	Total
Time				
rearranged schedule for own learning	7	1	3	11
rearranged schedule for other family members' learning	7	0	7	14
Money				
books/magazines	7	0	3	10
courses, lessons	6	2	1	9
materials, tools, supplies	12	1	2	15
transportation	4	2	1	7
child care	1	0	0	1
eating out	1	0	0	1
convenience foods	3	1	0	4
Space in home				
rearranged home	9	2	0	11
added a room to house	2	0	0	2
other	1	0	0	1
Human Capital				
helped another family member learn something	9	0	5	14
provided moral support	5	1	7	13
changed work patterns	6	0	4	10
taught another family member something	8	0	6	14
used community services	7	1	6	14
other	3	0	0	3

weather, specials, current events, children's shows and family shows (Table 19).

TABLE 19.--Kind of Radio and Television Program and Number of Individuals and Whole Families Who Used for Learning.

Kind of Program	Number of Families and Individuals									
	Radio					Television				
	WFA ^a	M	F	m	f	WF	M	F	m	f
News, weather	7	2	2	0	3	7	3	1	2	5
Current events, specials	3	0	0	0	3	7	2	0	2	5
Sports	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
Music	2	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0
Children's shows	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	3
Family, variety	0	0	0	0	0	7	1	0	1	3
Other	5	0	0	0	3	5	1	0	1	2

^aWF = Whole Family
M = Male adult
F = Female adult
m = male children and teenagers
f = female children and teenagers

Five individuals and seven whole families said they used family television shows as a source of help for home learning projects. The greatest number of whole families and individuals listened to the radio or viewed television for news and weather. The researcher questions whether or not this listening and viewing contributed to learning activities identified by families; these programs, however, may have provided general information useful to families.

Eight families spent six to 15 hours per week listening to radio programs related to home-centered learning. Eight families spent six to 15 hours per week watching television programs related to home-centered learning (Table 20).

TABLE 20.--Amount of Time Families Used Radio and Television for Learning.

Range of Time	Number of Families (N=15)	
	Radio	Television
No response	1	1
None	2	0
1-5 hours/week	2	0
6-10 hours/week	6	4
11-15 hours/week	2	4
16-20 hours/week	1	3
21-25 hours/week	0	2
26-30 hours/week	1	1
Over 31 hours/week	0	0

Newspapers and magazines also were a source of information for family learning. Specific types of articles families read to get information for learning included current events, news, editorials, consumer hints, hobbies, crafts and sports. Nine whole families read newspapers to learn about current events (Table 21).

Families were asked how much time they spent reading the newspaper. Twelve families spent one to one and one-half hours per day reading the newspaper. This is a total time for all family

TABLE 21.--Kind of Newspaper and Magazine Article and Number of Individuals and Whole Families Who Used for Learning.

Kind of Article	Number of Families and Individuals									
	Newspaper					Magazines				
	WFa	M	F	m	f	WF	M	F	m	f
Current events, news	9	3	3	1	2	5	1	1	3	1
Editorials	3	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Action Line	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sports	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Consumer hints	2	1	1	0	0	5	2	3	1	4
Repair, maintenance	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	0	1
Financial	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Personal appearance	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	2	0	2
Psychological advice	1	2	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0
Employment	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Religious	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Hobbies, crafts	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0
Child care	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Travel	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
Other	3	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0

^aWF = Whole family
M = Male Adult
F = Female adult
m = Male children and teenagers
f = Female children and teenagers

members who read the newspaper. Seven families could not estimate the number of magazine articles they read per week. Three families said they read nine to 12 articles per week.

Kinds of books families used for information included reference books, sports, fiction and historical (Table 22). Eleven

of the 15 families obtained information for learning at home from books. Four families used six to 10 books per month for learning. During the interview one mother counted the number of library books checked out to family members. She counted 20 books and estimated that her family reads 40-60 library books per month.

TABLE 22.--Kind of Books and Number of Individuals and Whole Families Who Use for Learning.

Kind of Book	Number of Families and Individuals				
	WF ^a	M	F	m	f
Reference	8	1	3	7	9
Sports	1	0	0	1	3
Auto repair	1	0	0	0	0
Historical	4	0	0	0	0
Fiction	3	0	0	0	0
Children's	0	0	0	1	0
Other	4	1	2	3	3

^aWF = Whole family
M = Male adult
F = Female adult
m = male children and teenagers
f = female children and teenagers

Reference books (i.e., dictionary, encyclopedia) were the books most frequently used as a source of information by families. In contrast, only one child used children's books for learning.

Flyers and pamphlets were a source of information for ten families. Three adult females and one adult male used flyers and

pamphlets to learn about where to purchase items. Three whole families received technical information from pamphlets.

Six families gained information for learning from cassette tapes. Types of cassette tapes used were religious, speech, foreign language, and music. One teenager taped guitar music which he learned to play.

Five families used records for learning. Types of records used were foreign language, speech, religion and children's records.

Contacts Outside the Home to Facilitate Learning at Home

Family members were asked to indicate contacts which they made outside the home to facilitate learning within the home. They also were asked to identify which family member was the linkage between the family and environments outside the family. Family members contacted libraries, neighbors, friends and relatives as a source of information more frequently than they contacted social/civic groups, businesses, or health professions. Contacts to relatives, neighbors and friends were over 45 percent of the total number of contacts made. Over 50 percent of the contacts were made to personnel who might be considered experts in a particular area (i.e., school, health professions, business, social/civic groups, libraries, Extension). Approximately the same number of contacts were initiated by mothers, male and female children. Data about contacts outside the home related to learning are summarized in Table 23.

TABLE 23.--Kind and Number of Contacts Made Outside Home to Facilitate Learning Within Home.

Kind of Contact	Number of Contacts					Total	Percent of Total
	Adult		Teenager(s) and Children				
	Male (N=15)	Female (N=15)	Male (N=17)	Female (N=27)			
Library	2	8	16	14	40	17	
Neighbor	8	8	11	12	39	16	
Friend	8	9	11	9	37	15	
Relative	7	9	6	11	33	14	
School	3	9	7	8	27	11	
Church	2	7	7	1	17	7	
Extension	1	6	3	6	16	7	
Business	4	3	2	5	14	6	
Health professions	1	9	1	0	11	5	
Social/civic	2	0	1	2	5	2	
TOTAL	38	68	65	68	239		
Percent of Total	16	28	27	28		100	

Family members were asked to indicate why they made particular contacts and how they knew to contact certain sources of information. The major reasons for making contacts were related to the family's belief that the contact was a trusted expert or the family knew about the source from past experience (Table 24).

TABLE 24.--Number of Contacts Outside the Home for Learning and Reasons for Contacts.

Reasons for Contacts	Number of Responses
Trusted expert	13
Knew about	8
Convenience	6
Friend	5
Close to home	1
Free	1
Person had information (not expert)	1

The source of information about the contact was previous experience (i.e., used before, past experience, always knew about) in 30 of 54 (56%) responses (Table 25).

Families were asked what kind of additional help for learning projects they would have liked. Nine of the 15 families identified additional assistance they desired for learning at home. Families mentioned wanting additional information about electrical wiring, playing softball, plumbing, remodeling, fixing appliances, drilling a well, getting along with others and math. Three families

TABLE 25.--Source of Information About Contacts Outside the Home for Learning and Number of Responses.

Used before	12
Past experience	10
Always knew about	8
Referred by professional source	6
Referred by friend, neighbor, relative	4
Newspaper	3
Radio	3
Magazine article	2
Special flyer	2
Yellow pages	2
Television	1
Word-of-mouth	1

said they did not have enough money to learn what they wanted to learn within the home. Two families wanted the local school system to offer a wide range of low-cost adult education classes. One family suggested that educational information on cassette tapes would facilitate their learning at home. Six families felt they had adequate sources of information for home-centered learnings. Two families commented they normally used many community resources to get needed information.

Perceptions of Family Members
About What Children Need to
Learn at Home to be Family
Members and Workers

Another perspective about learning within the home setting is what family members think children need to learn at home.

Families described what they thought children need to learn at home about being family members and about being workers. Responses are summarized in Table 26.

TABLE 26.--Kind of Learning Activity and Number of Responses: What Family Members Think Children Need to Learn at Home to be Family Members and Workers.

Learning Activities	Number of Times Mentioned		Total	Percent of Total
	Family Member	Worker		
Development of Values	45	51	96	69
Household Care and Management	27	2	29	20
Development and Care of Family Members	11	1	12	9
Leisure and Recreation	1	0	1	1
Preparation for Career	0	2	2	1
Other	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	84	56	140	
Percent of Total	60	40		100

Family members would help children learn to be better family members and workers through development of values learning experiences. Specific values related to being part of a family included respect, trust, cooperation, consideration, love, kindness, moral standards, self-sufficiency and spiritual values. Specific values related to helping children become workers included "work

before play," "do it right," "be on time," "do what others say because you'll always have a superior over you," "follow directions," "do jobs you don't like first," "if you start a job, finish it." Fifty-one of the 56 things (91 percent) people would help children learn about being a worker were development of values. Parents identified very few skills to help children succeed in the work world. This may relate to living in a modern technological society in which parents' may not view their occupational skills as useful for their children.

Family members said children should learn about household care and management to be part of a family. Specific items mentioned were home repair, clothing care, self-sufficiency in running a house, ability to choose priorities, cooking and carpentry. All 15 families would teach the same things about being a worker to boys and girls. Ten families also would teach the same things about being part of a family to both boys and girls. Family members in the other five families said they would teach different things about family responsibilities and duties to boys and girls. One father stated that girls are more mature and easier to control than are boys. He felt parents have to be sterner with boys than with girls. Another father believed boys have to learn to be more responsible than girls because "they provide for families." Three mothers said they would teach girls "homemaking skills" (i.e., cooking, sewing, cleaning), which they would not teach boys.

Sources of Information Family Members Would Use
to Help Children Learn About Being
Family Members and Workers

Family members discussed sources of information they would use to help children learn about being family members and workers. The major source of information mentioned about both family and work was the individual's own experience (i.e., "how I was raised," "from what I know," "from my past experience"). Other sources of information referred to included books, pamphlets, schools, other parents, specialists in an area, church and Extension. These sources of information, however, were mentioned less frequently than personal experience (Table 27).

TABLE 27.--Kind of Information Sources for Learning About Family and Work and Number of Times Mentioned.

Source of Information	Number of Times Mentioned		Total	Percent of Total
	Family Learning Activities	Occupational Learning Activities		
Personal experience	20	18	38	57
Other parents	3	2	5	7
Formal education	5	4	9	13
Professional sources	1	1	2	3
Nonformal education	5	0	5	7
Media (books, pamphlets)	6	1	7	10
Work World	0	1	1	1
TOTAL	40	27	67	
Percent of Total	60	40		100

Information Families Would Find Most Useful
for Learning About Family and Occupations

Family members were asked to identify information related to family responsibilities and duties related to being a worker which they wanted for use in home-centered learning activities. The same classification of learning activities was used to cluster this information as was used in clustering what families learned in the last year. Two families stated they either had all the information they needed for home learning in these areas or they could locate adequate sources of information. The responses to questions about desired information for home learning of the other 13 families are summarized in Table 28.

TABLE 28.--Kind of Information Families Want for Learning About Family and Work and Number of Responses.

Category of Desired Information	Number of Times Mentioned	
	For Family	For Occupation
Household Care and Management	15	2
Development and Care of Family Members	9	2
Leisure and Recreation	5	0
Preparation for Career	0	10
Development of Values	0	0
Other	11	8
TOTAL	40	22

Information related to family responsibilities and duties was mentioned 40 times. The category most often mentioned was

household care and management (i.e., sewing, cooking, decorating the home, using money wisely, household skills, how to use the metric system, and home handyman skills). Information about development and care of family members was mentioned as desired nine times (i.e., getting along with teenagers, motivating children, teaching children to learn, retirement, health hints, childhood diseases). Technical information was mentioned 11 times (i.e., working with metals, drilling a well, tuning up cars, making furniture, woodworking and speed reading). This information was classified in the other category.

Most information families desired about being a worker related to either preparation for career or technical information. Specific kinds of information wanted about career preparation included how to apply for jobs, write a resume, complete an application, what jobs are available in a geographical area, and how to get information about job descriptions, benefits and responsibilities. Desired technical information included interior decorating, metric information, carpentry, drawing, mechanics, welding, cooking, and lathe work. How a family member planned to use specific information related to whether or not the information was job or family-related. For example, one man who was a shipping clerk said he had to learn the metric system to carry out his job responsibilities. One woman stated she needed to learn the same information to carry out household responsibilities.

Reasons why family members wanted certain information included personal interest, relaxation and need related to either

family or work. One teenager said his family had an immediate need to know how to clean up flood water and the damage it caused. Several teenagers mentioned a lack of knowledge about how to fill out a job application.

Data about preferred delivery systems for information used in home-centered learning activities were collected. In 23 of 43 responses interviewees indicated they preferred some form of written information (Table 29). Respondents said they enjoyed reading and wanted to be able to refer back to the information. Convenience of using written materials at any time was also a reason for preferring that delivery system. Flyers and pamphlets with specific information were mentioned most frequently as the form of written information family members desired. Respondents said media delivery systems were preferred because they can provide immediate up-to-date information. One individual preferred television because he could hear and see the information simultaneously. Seven individuals wanted to talk with someone who had the information they needed; the person was considered to be an expert who had the exact information needed.

TABLE 29.--How Families Want to Learn at Home.

Preferred Delivery Systems	Number of Times Mentioned	
<u>Written information</u>	23	
flyers, pamphlets	14	
books	7	
magazines	2	
<u>Other</u>	13	
someone who has experience	7	
classes	3	
lessons at home	3	
<u>Media</u>	7	
television	6	
radio	1	

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter includes a summary of findings which provide answers to research questions. Implications of these findings for formal and nonformal education, public policy and research are suggested.

Purposes and Methodology of Study

The purpose of this study was to describe how families with at least one teenage child and two adults perceived and utilized the home as a learning center. It was part of a research project entitled "The Home as a Learning Center," Department of Family Ecology, College of Human Ecology, Michigan State University, funded by the Curriculum Branch of the United States Office of Education. Learning activities reported by family members which met the criteria of a special learning effort made at home within the last year were studied.

A systematic random sampling design that assured the probability of a proportionate representation of rural sections and city blocks was used in the larger study. The sample was drawn from Vevay Township, Michigan. The subsample consisted of 15 blue-collar families with at least one teenage child age 13 to 19 and two adults ages 35 to 55 who had lived together during the last

year. There were 10 male teenagers and 18 female teenagers in these families.

Data were collected through a group interview with mother, father and at least one teenage child. The survey instrument developed included an interview schedule and a demographic questionnaire. Open-end questions and probe techniques were used to elicit information about learning activities in the home.

Summary of Findings Which Provide Answers to Research Questions

In this section, the major findings of this study are related to specific research questions.

1. What learning within the home and family environment have families and/or family members with at least one teenage child been involved during the past twelve months?

All 15 families were involved in home-centered learning activities in the last year, a participation rate of 100 percent. These families reported a total of 307 learning activities in which one or more family members participated; this is an average of 20.47 learning activities per family. The number of learning activities per family ranged from nine to 34.

Learning activities reported by family members were clustered into six categories to describe learning within the home. The number and percentage of learning activities reported in each category are as follows: household care and mangement, 109, 35 percent; leisure and recreation, 76, 25 percent; development and care of family members, 45,15 percent; development of

values, 42, 14 percent; preparation for career, 28, 9 percent; and other, 7, 2 percent.

Several of these results are similar to Collican's findings (1973) about the learning styles of young mothers. Household care and management and development and care of family members in the present study are similar to Coolican's classification of personal and family competence (i.e., child development, nutrition and food preparation, sewing, gardening, family finance) (1973, p. 97).

Fifty-nine percent of the learning projects described by the 15 families in this study were related to personal and family competence. Both young mothers and families reported between 20 and 25 percent of all learning activities which were related to leisure and recreation. The percentage of learning activities in vocational competence/preparation for career also was similar: 6 percent for young mothers and 9 percent for families with teenagers.

Family members indicated that 220 of the 307 learning activities (72 percent) were helpful for carrying out family responsibilities and duties. Eleven percent of all learning activities were helpful to family members in their occupational responsibilities. Thus, family members more often perceived the home as a place for learning about family responsibilities than as a place for learning about occupations.

Families in this study did perceive and utilize the home as a place for learning. Some families said learning at home was an integral part of day-to-day family living. Most learning activities reported by family members were practical, applied

skills and information rather than academic, theoretical knowledge. The majority of learning activities were perceived as helpful in carrying out family responsibilities and duties rather than occupational responsibilities.

2. Who participated in learning within the home and family environment?

Husbands and/or wives reported 40 learning activities in which one or both spouses were involved. One or more parents and one or more teenager(s) reported 101 shared learning activities. This number accounted for 33 percent of all learning activities described by the 15 families. One or more teenagers participated in 105 learning activities with another teenager or alone. The total number of learning activities (246) involving parent(s) and/or teenager(s) was 80 percent of all learning activities reported. One or more teenagers participated in 67 percent of all family learning activities reported. The average number of individual learning activities for both male and female teenagers was 3.3. Sixty-one learning activities involved individuals or clusters of family members (i.e., younger children) other than teenager(s) and/or parent(s).

3. What human and nonhuman resources were committed to home-centered learning.

Families made changes in resource allocation to facilitate learning within the home. Two-thirds of the families managed time, money, space, human capital and community services for home-centered learning. Over one-half of the families who managed these

resources for learning at home indicated the resources were used in family-related activities. Family commitment of human and non-human resources to home-centered learning is an indication that these families functioned as informal educators for family members.

4. What contacts outside the home did family members make to obtain help for learning within the home?

Family members initiated contacts outside the home to get information related to home-centered learning. A total of 239 contacts to a variety of environments outside the family were made. More than 50 percent of the contacts were to personnel who might be considered experts in a particular area. Contacts to neighbors, relatives and friends were more than 45 percent of total contacts made. Nine of the 15 families identified additional assistance they desired for learning at home.

5. When and where does home-centered learning take place?

Time of day seemed to affect participation in home-centered learning more than either time of year or week did. Ten families said evening was the time of day when most learning at home occurred. The living room, bedroom and kitchen were the rooms most frequently identified as places within the home where family members learned.

6. What do families with teenage children think children need to learn at home to be family members and workers? Where would families get information about being family members and workers for learning within the home and family environment?

Development of values was mentioned most frequently as what family members would help children learn to be family members and workers. Sixty-nine percent of the responses about what

children need to learn to be family members and workers was related to development of values. Sources of information family members would use to help children learn about being family members and workers included personal experience, other parents, nonformal and formal education, and books and pamphlets. Personal experience was mentioned most frequently as a source of information about family and work.

There was a discrepancy between the learning activities families reported in the last year and their perceptions about what children need to learn at home to be family members and workers. Learning activities related to the development of values was 14 percent of the total learning projects in which families were involved during the last year. Sixty-nine percent of the responses about what children need to learn about family and work was value development (i.e., responsibility, honesty, patience, promptness).

7. What information about family responsibilities and duties and about being a worker do families want to use for learning within the home?

Information families identified about family responsibilities and duties which they wanted to use for home learning related to household care and management, the development and care of family members and technical information. Although family members said children needed to learn values at home, no information about value development was requested. Desired information about being a worker related to preparation for career and technical information. No information about value development related to the world of work was requested. Families preferred to receive desired

information in written form (i.e., easy-to-read pamphlets, books and magazines).

Other Findings

At least 67 percent of the 15 families in this study used radio, television, newspapers, magazines, books and flyers and pamphlets as a source of information for learning at home. Eighty percent of the families used the telephone to obtain information related to home-centered learning activities. Although the researcher questions whether or not families used all of the above sources of information for home-centered learning activities, the responses of family members did indicate what sources of information families have in the home.

Findings indicate that the home is an active learning center. Families do recognize that learning related to family responsibilities and duties and occupational responsibilities does occur in the home. Resources including time, money, space, and human capital were committed to learning within the home. Information from this study should be valuable to educators in assisting them to meet families' in-home educational needs.

Implications

Implications for formal and nonformal education, public policy and research based upon the results of this research are discussed in this section.

Implications for Formal Education

Family members interviewed in this study initially had difficulty relating to the concept of learning within the home setting. At the beginning of the interview, family members commented that they had not learned anything at home within the last year or that what they learned was unimportant. A frequent side effect of the interview was a heightened awareness of the extent of participation in home-centered learning. A major role of the formal educational system should be to develop a favorable attitude about lifelong learning and produce family members who are competent to direct their own and other family members' home-based learning activities.

Educators in the formal school system may be able to facilitate the preparation of teenagers for the world of work. The teenagers in this study reported a total of 28 preparation for career learning activities in which they were involved. Five of these career preparation learning activities were shared with parents; 23 involved only teenagers. These learning activities are related to Havinghurst's (1964) identification of developmental tasks in the lifelong process of career development. He suggested that between the ages of 15 and 25 an individual acquires identity as a worker in the occupational structure. Parents and teenagers requested information about applying for jobs, writing a resume, completing a job application, analyzing job descriptions, requirements and responsibilities. Integrating family, school and work experiences may be one way to more adequately prepare teenagers

for their roles as workers. Formal educational systems might involve parents in decisions about teenagers' career choices more frequently.

Families described 76 learning activities, 25 percent of the total, related to leisure and recreation. The school system may be able to provide information to families so they can learn about recreation and leisure alternatives within the home. Much of the actual examination of leisure and recreation alternatives seems to take place in the home setting.

If other researchers verify the finding that the home is a learning center for family members, professionals in the formal educational system (i.e., teachers, counselors, nurses, administrators) should learn about the family's educational role and coordinate educational programs with home-based learning activities. Curriculum design in teacher education should be adapted to help teachers understand the family's educational role and provide continuity of learning between home and school. Families in this study did not contact the school as a source of information for home-centered learning activities as often as they contacted the library, friends, neighbors or relatives.

Implications for Nonformal Education

Professionals in nonformal education might use parts of the survey instrument developed for this study as an effective planning tool for analyzing learning interests of families. Educators could gain information about client interests and learning

patterns by interviewing representative families of a target audience about their learning activities in the last year.

If other researchers find that families prefer to learn at home, nonformal educators might consider expanding educational programs and using delivery systems (i.e., newsletter series, television, radio programs, lending libraries of slide-tape programs) which facilitate home learning rather than offering educational programs outside the home. Several adults said they were too tired in the evening to attend a class at school. They might prefer learning at home by watching television or reading a pamphlet. Both husband and wife in one family said they would like cassette tapes of educational information. Community agencies (i.e., church, library, Extension) may be potential sites for cassette tape lending libraries.

Family members stated they preferred lessons at home or someone to teach them how to do something as a way of learning. Nonformal educational systems might organize an information referral service listing people who were willing to help others learn a particular skill.

Some family members used some nonformal educational institutions to facilitate their home-centered learning; other nonformal educational institutions were used less frequently as a source of information. What are the characteristics of educational institutions which families use as resources for home-based learning? Might nonformal educational systems better publicize how they can help families learn at home?

Implications for Research

Families in this study did utilize the home as a place for learning. Resources including time, money, space, human capital and community services were managed to facilitate family members' learning activities. A limitation of this research was its emphasis upon quantity of learning. Other researchers might study home-centered learning to determine if home-based learning affects family members' behavior, that is to examine the quality and effectiveness of home learning.

A fruitful area of research would be to examine the economic value of the investment in learning within the home. How does the home investment in informal learning of family members affect the development of human capital in children and adults? How important are the behavioral changes resulting from home-based learning to family members?

Families varied in the degree of participation in home-centered learning. Research could be conducted to determine factors affecting participation. Why do some families report more home-centered learning activities than other families? What are the variables which affect participation in learning within the home?

The socioeconomic status of families studied was blue-collar determined by classifying the occupation of the head of the household. Samples for future studies of home-centered learning might include families in other socioeconomic statuses (i.e., professional, white-collar, low-income, high-income). Are the

learning activities of families in other socioeconomic categories similar to or different from this sample of blue-collar families?

Instrumentation for measuring the amount of resources used in learning within the home needs to be developed further. How much money do families actually spend on home-based learning? How much time compared to other family responsibilities (i.e., physical care, work, community involvement) is spent in family learning activities at home?

A persistent problem in family research is that of identifying who speaks most accurately in describing family activities. This study focused on using a particular data-gathering method, interviewing three members of a family. Methodological research comparing data from male spokesperson, female spokesperson and family group response needs to be conducted. Critical in this examination is variation in cost in terms of time and money to acquire information from different family spokespersons. In addition, the difficulty in getting families to participate in research when more than two members of a family must commit joint time intensifies the problem.

Hypotheses to be tested in future research might be generated from the results of this study. Two examples are: (1) family members perceive and utilize the home as a place to learn about family responsibilities and duties more often than as a place to learn about occupational responsibilities and (2) families participate in more learning activities related to the development of skills (i.e., household care and management, crafts, technical

skills) than in affective learning (i.e., development of values, value clarification).

Implications for Public Policy

The 15 families with at least one teenager child in this study made special efforts to learn within the home. Moreover, a large part of this learning involved adults and children within the family. What resources are available to facilitate home-based learning? Bronfenbrenner (1974) stated that programs which enhance the quality of family interaction in the home should be funded. Who will decide what programs enhance the quality of family interaction in the home? How might educational resources be channeled to develop support systems which strengthen the home as a learning center? What support system will strengthen the family's educational role within the home? On the basis of this study, a case could be made for providing a variety of direct educational inputs to the family via mass media such as radio, television, and inexpensive, easily accessible reading materials.

Other Implications

Most families interviewed had media sources of information (i.e., radio, books, magazines, television, newspapers) in their homes. Some families used these sources of information for home-centered learning activities. Other families identified television and radio programs as a source of entertainment. One way to expand the use of media which families already have in the home is to educate families about how media sources of information can be used in

home-centered learning. Another way to expand use of media in home-centered learning is to develop and schedule more educational programs on television and radio. Two families desired more educational television programs from which they could gain information. Specific types of programs mentioned included sewing, retirement, crafts, child care, home repair and family relationships. Ten families said they learned more in the evening than during the day. Media personnel should consider this pattern of learning in scheduling educational television programs.

Families interviewed identified written information (i.e., flyers, pamphlets) as a preferred delivery system for educational information. Businesses, industry, banks, professionals, churches, educational systems and community agencies could make this form of information more easily accessible to families. Such written information might be placed in banks, laundromats, libraries, supermarkets, department stores, dentists' and doctors' offices and other places.

APPENDICES

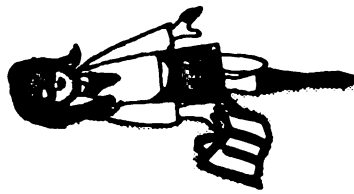
APPENDIX A

PROBE CARD



THINGS PEOPLE LEARN . . .

- TAKING CARE OF CHILDREN
- GETTING ALONG WITH PEOPLE
- FEEDING THE FAMILY
- USING MONEY WISELY
- DOING HOUSEHOLD TASKS
- PREPARING FOR THE FUTURE
- MAINTAINING & DECORATING THE HOME
- ENJOYMENT & RECREATION



THINGS PEOPLE LEARN . . .

- APPLYING FOR A JOB
- TAKING A JOB RELATED COURSE AT HOME
- APPLYING FOR UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION
- SKILLS FOR A JOB
- JOB OPENINGS



APPENDIX B

FAMILY LEARNING ACTIVITIES

APPENDIX B

Family Learning Activities in Which One or More Family Members Participated.^a

<u>Family Learning Activities</u>	<u>Number of Occurrences</u>
Getting along with people inside the family (other, unclassified)	4
Sharing inside the family	6
Positive emotional support (love, tolerance, appreciation, sympathy, empathy, encouragement, friendliness, acceptance) inside the family	6
Getting along with people outside the family (other, unclassified)	7
Positive emotional support (love, tolerance, appreciation, sympathy, empathy, encouragement, friendliness, acceptance) outside the family	3
Routine household skills (other, unclassified)	10
Apparel construction	2
Clothing care	6
Sewing	3
Financial preparation	1
Developing career interests	5
Maintaining and decorating the home	2
Use and maintenance of tools and equipment	15
Beautification: refinishing furniture, styles, colors	5
Repairing home: structural/functional (walls, wiring)	18
Lawn care	4
Feeding the family (other, unclassified)	2
Meal planning, nutritional planning, (diets, menus)	2

^aThere were no learning activities reported in the following categories: sharing outside the family, preparing for the future (other, unclassified), emotional development (children), moral values (right/wrong, fairness, honesty, truthfulness, being good), esthetic values, taking a job-related course at home, and outreach into community, politics, world affairs.

<u>Family Learning Activities</u>	<u>Number of Occurrences</u>
Food preparation	12
Gardening	12
Food preservation	3
Using money wisely	
(other, unclassified)	2
Thrift/conservation/fighting inflation	4
Investment for future/saving	3
Planning, budgeting	3
Enjoyment & recreation	
(other, unclassified)	4
Crafts/personal involvement	35
Nature/observation/travel	10
Sports	8
Music/art/dance	19
Care of children	
(other, unclassified)	16
Physical development (children)	5
Intellectual development (children)	5
Social development (children)	2
Care of adult family members	
(other, unclassified)	1
Physical development (adults)	1
Emotional development (adults)	1
Intellectual development (adults)	1
Social development (adults)	2
Learning values	
(other, unclassified)	1
Personal/social values	
(independence, responsibility, respect)	19
Spiritual values	5
Job-related activities	
(other, unclassified)	8
Developing job-related skills	7
Applying for a job	8
Health	2
Other (includes all responses that won't fit into any of the above categories)	7

APPENDIX C
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTRODUCTION

(INTERVIEWER: If children or teens answer the door, ask for the head of the household.)

(INTERVIEWER: Remember to include the following information in the INTRODUCTION:

1. Your name.
2. The "home as a place to learn."
3. Articles about the project from the local newspaper.
4. Letters of Introduction
(Superintendent of Schools,
Chamber of Commerce, and
Mayor or Township Clerk.)
5. Confidentiality.)

SAMPLE IDENTIFICATION

Screener: _____
 Cell: _____
 Family Number: _____
 Phone Number: _____
 Address: _____
 Interviewer: _____
 Location: _____
 _____ Housing Unit from Starting Point.

Additional description:

RECORD OF CONTACTS WITH FAMILY

1. Result of screening. _____ IN _____ OUT
 2. Date of screening. _____

3. Home Contacts Made.

	Date	Time
____ Not at home	_____	_____
____ Refused	_____	_____
____ Family Spokesperson	_____	_____
____ Not Available	_____	_____
____ Second contact	_____	_____
____ Third contact	_____	_____

4. Future appointments.

Date	Time	Interviewer scheduled
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

5. List reason for refusal below. (If given.)

DATA ON INTERVIEW

1. Desired Interviewee(s):
 _____ Male spokesperson
 _____ Female spokesperson
 _____ Whole family

2. Person(s) interviewed:
 _____ Adult male _____ Male child
 _____ Adult female _____ Female child

3. Date of interview (completed): _____

4. Day of interview (completed): _____

5. Time:
 Started: _____ A.M. _____ P.M.
 Ended: _____ A.M. _____ P.M.
 Length in minutes: _____

6. Type of Housing Unit:
 _____ Single Family Dwelling
 _____ Apartment
 _____ Mobile Home
 _____ Other _____

THE OCCUPATIONAL SCALE: HOLLINGSHEAD

CATEGORY 4

A. Clerical & Sales Workers

Bank Clerks, Tellers
Bill Collectors
Bookkeepers
Business Machine Operators
Claims Examiners
Clerical/Stenographic RR Conductor

Factory Storekeeper
Factory Supervisor
Post Office Clerks
Route Mgrs. - Salesmen
Sales Clerks
Shipping Clerks
Supervisors - Utilities, Factories
Tool Station Supervisors
Warehouse Clerks
Employment Interviewers

B. Technicians

Dental Technicians
Draftsmen
Driving Teachers
Expeditor, Factory
Experimental Tester
Instructors - Utilities, Factory
Inspectors - Weight, Sanitary, RR, Factory

C. Owners of Little Businesses

Flower Shop
Newsstand
Tailor Shop

D. Farmers

Owners
Truck Dispatchers

CATEGORY 5

A. Skilled Manual Employees

Auto Body Repairers
Bakers
Barbers
Blacksmiths
Bookbinders
RR Brakemen
Bulldozer Operators
Butchers
Cabinet makers
Carpenters
Casters (founders)
Cement Finishers
Chefs

Compositors
Dismakers
Diesel Engine Repair & Maintenance (trained)
Diesel Shovel Operators
Electricians
Electrotypists
Engravers
Externimators
Fitters - Gas, Steam
Firemen - City
Foremen - Construction, Dairy
Gardeners, Landscape (trained)
Gemsmiths

Garage makers
Hair stylists
Heat Treaters
Utility Linemen
Linoleum layers (trained)
Linotype Operators
Lithographers
Locksmiths
Lumberjacks
Trained machinists
Maintenance Foremen
Installers - Electrical Appliances
Masons
Trained Mechanics
Trained Moulders

Painters
Paperhangers
RR Patrolmen
Pattern & Model Makers
Piano Builders, Tuners
Plumbers
City Policemen
Postmen (women)
Printers
Radio, TV Maintenance
Repairmen, Home Appliance
Sheetmetal Workers
(trained)
Trained Shoe Repairmen
Licensed Stationary Engineers

B. Small Farmers

Owners
Tenants who own farm equipment

CATEGORY 6

A. Machine Operators & Semi-skilled Employees

Aides, Hospital
Apprentices - Electricians
Printers, Steamfitters
Toolmakers
Assembly Line Workers
Barbers
Building Superintendents (custodial)

Bus Drivers
Checkers
Coin Machine Fillers
Cooks - short order
Delivery Men
Dressmakers - Machine
Drill Press Operators
Duplicator - Machine Operators
Elevator Operators
Enlisted Men - Military Services
Filters, Benders, Buffers

Foundry Workers
Garage & Gas Station Assistants
Greenhouse Worker
Guards, Doorkeepers, Watchmen
Hairdressers
Housekeepers
Meat Cutters & Packers
Operator - Factory Machines
Paper Rolling Machine Operators
Photostat Machine Operators

Practical Nurses
Pump Operators
Receivers & Checkers
Roofers
Set-up Men - Factories
Shapers
Soldiers - Factory
Sprayers, Paint
Steelworkers (not skilled)
Stranders, Wire Machines
Taxi Drivers
Testers
Timers

B. Farmers

Small tenants who own little equipment

RR Trainmen
General Truck Drivers
Waiters/Waitresses (better Places)
Weighers
Spot Welders
Machine Welders
Machine Wood Workers
Wrappers - Stores, Factory

RECORD OF DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Occupations of Adults Who Live in Household

(INTERVIEWER: Obtain information about past occupations if family members have retired. Discuss occupational information so you can determine where occupations fit into Hollingshead categories. See opposite page for categories.)

Household Composition: Names & Ages

[illegible]

3. Has this group lived together for the last year?

YES _____ **NO** _____

(If "NO," probe.)

RESPONSES AFTER INTERVIEWER REVIEWS DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

A. FAMILY DOES NOT MEET CRITERIA:

Thank you for taking the time to answer these questions and help us with this study.
We might like to learn more about your family in the future.
Are there any questions you would like to ask?

Thank you very much!

B. FAMILY MEETS CRITERIA:

We would like to include your family in our study.
Could I talk with you for about _____? (approximate time)

IF INTERVIEWEE HESITATES:

If it is not convenient now, when might I come back to see you within the next
3-4 days for about _____? (approximate time)

C. FAMILY MEETS SPECIAL CRITERIA: IN THE MIDDLE STAGE OF FAMILY LIFE CYCLE, WITH ONE TEENAGER:

We would like to include your family in our study.
May I schedule an appointment with you when at least two adults and a teenager
can meet with a member of the project group?

_____ (name) will come back to your home to visit with
these three family members about your family's home learning.
This should take _____. (approximate time)

(INTERVIEWER: Leave identification card with family. Note appointment time if one
is scheduled.)

1. People learn many things at home. What kinds of things do you think people should learn at home? We mean, what do you think ought to be learned at home, not necessarily what is learned at home.

(INTERVIEWER: List items mentioned by the interviewee.)

<u> </u> M <u> </u> F <u> </u> - <u> </u> -	<u> </u> M <u> </u> F <u> </u> - <u> </u> -	<u> </u> M <u> </u> F <u> </u> - <u> </u> -

INTRODUCTION TO QUESTION 2

Now I'd like to visit with you about the things you and your family learned at home in the last year. When I say "learn," I don't mean the sorts of things people learn in school. Learning can be about skills, knowledge, attitudes or information, and you could have learned it in any way. Anything at all can be included -- regardless of whether it was big or small, easy or difficult, serious or fun.

I've set three guidelines to help me decide about recording what you mention:

1. I'll note those things you have learned in the last twelve months . . . so try to think of things you and your family learned since last _____.
2. The second guideline is that the learning where you made a special effort to learn something or how to do something will be recorded. All of us learn things as a result of visiting with people, watching T.V., or listening to the radio. That is an important kind of learning, too, but I will note the things you made a special effort to learn.
3. The third guideline is that I will record learning at home -- this could mean anywhere in the house, garage or yard. Because I am interested in what families learn at home, I will not record learning at the school, church or on family trips or vacations.

(INTERVIEWER: Ask Question 2 and record learnings mentioned.)

QUESTION 2 PROBES

A. Chronological probe:

Sometimes it is hard to remember back to a year ago. Maybe thinking about different seasons of the year, special holidays or job and school vacations will help you remember other learnings.

(INTERVIEWER: Record learnings mentioned.)

B. Probe card:

Sometimes it is hard to remember what we have learned. This card lists some different things that people learn. It is just to help you remember other things you and your family might have learned.

(INTERVIEWER: Hand probe card to interviewee. Give the person time to read the lists on both sides. Record any additional learnings mentioned.)

When interviewee seems to hesitate and it appears that the list has been completed, say the following.)

That gives us a fairly complete list. If you think of any other learnings while we are talking, be sure to mention them.

و

2.

(INTERVIEWER: Introduction on opposite page.)

In the past year, what have you and other family members made a special effort to learn at home? When we say "family" we mean all the people who live here.

ਅੰ

Who was involved in each learning?

PROBE: for all family members who participated.

You mentioned

**several things
that your family
members learned.**

Were any of them helpful for

4. 5.

carrying
out fami-
ly activi-
ties &
household
tasks?

ف.

How much time were your family members involved in these projects?

(INTERVIEWER: Give card and record category for each member.)

LEARNING

7.

 ∞

9

10.

11

12.

7.

(INTERVIEWER: Mention to interviewee the two learnings which took the longest period of time.)

Why did these projects take so long?

(INTERVIEWER: Record Learning Number.)

34

Enjoyed it more

Was more interested
in it

Took practice

Was more important

Materials had to be gathered

Trial and error

Was more complicated

1

1

2.

(INTERVIEWER: Introduction on opposite page.)

In the past year, what have you and other family members made a special effort to learn at home? When we say "family" we mean all the people who live here.

3.

Who was involved in each learning?

PROBE: for all family members who participated.

You mentioned several things that your family members learned.

Were any of them helpful for

4.

carrying out family activities & household tasks?

6.

How much time were your family members involved in these projects?

(INTERVIEWER: Give card and record category for each member.)

7.

(INTERVIEWER: Mention to interviewee the two learnings which took the longest period of time.)

Why did these projects take so long?

(INTERVIEWER: Record Learning Number.)

WF

M F

Enjoyed it more

Was more interested in it

Took practice

Was more important

Materials had to be gathered

Trial and error

Was more complicated

LEARNING

13.

14.

15.

16.

17.

18.

Sometimes families have to make changes in what they usually do in order to carry out learning projects.

8. What kinds of changes did your family make in the past year related to learnings about FAMILY ACTIVITIES AND HOUSEHOLD TASKS, like rearrange schedules, spend money for materials, find a space to work or get someone to help your family members?
9. What kinds of changes did your family make in the past year related to learnings about OCCUPATIONS, like rearrange schedules, spend money for materials, find a space to work or get someone to help your family members?

FAM	TIME	OCC	FAM	MONEY	OCC	FAM	SPACE	OCC	FAM	PEOPLE	OCC	FAM	OTHER	OCC
—	Rearranged sche- dule for own learning	—	—	Books	—	—	Rearranged home for learning activity	—	—	Helped another family member learn something	—	—	—	—
—	Rearranged sche- dule for other family member's learning	—	—	Courses	—	—	—	—	—	Provided moral support	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Tools	—	—	—	—	—	Changed work pat- terns (Alternate tasks)	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Transportation	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Child care	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Ate out	—	—	—	—	—	Taught another family member something	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	Bought conve- nience foods	—	—	—	—	—	Used free services	—	—	—	—

10. At what times during the year would you say that most of your family's learning projects took place?

MF	M	F	-	-	-	MF	M	F	-	-	-
January						July					
February						August					
March						September					
April						October					
May						November					
June						December					

11. During which part of the week did your family carry out most learning activities or projects?

MF	M	F	-	-	-
Weekdays					
Weekends					

12. During which part of the day?

MF	M	F	-	-	-
Morning					
Afternoon					
Evening					

13. As you think about these home learning projects, would your family have liked additional help? ☐ NO ☐ If so, what kind?

TOPICS	MATERIALS	PEOPLE	OTHER

Some people use various items in the home to help with their home learning projects. They might use RADIO, TELEVISION, NEWSPAPERS, MAGAZINES, BOOKS, CASSETTE TAPES for learning at home.

14. Has your family used any of these for learning in your home?	15. What kind of book or program or article was it? (TOPIC)	16. Where did you use it in the home?	17. Who participated? PROBE: for all members	18. How often did your family use these things for learning at home?
			M F - - - - -	hours/week
RADIO	programs:			
TELEVISION	programs:			hours/week
NEWSPAPERS	articles:			hours/day
MAGAZINES	articles:			articles/week
BOOKS				books/month
CASSETTE TAPES				tapes/month

Some people use various items in the home to help with their home learning projects. They might use RECORDS, FLYERS/PAMPHLETS, TELEPHONE, VIDEO-VIEWERS & AUDIO-VISUAL CENTERS, COMPUTER LINK-UPS for learning at home.

19. Has your family used any of these for learning in your home?	20. What kind of book or program or article was it? (TOPIC)	21. Where did you use it in the home?	22. Who participated? PROBE: for all members M F - - - -	23. How often did your family use these things for learning at home? ____ hours/month ____ pamphlets/month
RECORDS				
FLYERS/PAMPHLETS				
TELEPHONE				
VIDEO-VIEWERS & AUDIO-VISUAL CENTERS				
COMPUTER LINK-UPS				
OTHER				

24. Over the past year, what persons were contacted to help with your family's home learning projects? (INTERVIEWER: Have interviewee specify personnel.)	25. Which family member made the contact?	26. Why were these used?	27. How did the family member know to contact these sources?	28. Where in the home does each person prefer to learn?				
M	F			M	F	-	-	-
<u>School</u>		<u>Convenient</u>	<u>Television</u>	<u>KITCHEN</u>				
		<u>Free</u>	<u>Newspaper</u>	<u>FAMILY ROOM/DEN</u>				
<u>Library</u>		<u>Knew about</u>	<u>Referred by friend, neighbor or relative</u>	<u>BEDROOM</u>				
<u>Extension</u>		<u>Close to home</u>	<u>Referred by professional source</u>	<u>STUDY</u>				
<u>Relative</u>		<u>Trusted expert</u>	<u>Radio</u>	<u>LIVING ROOM</u>				
<u>Neighbor</u>		<u>Friend</u>	<u>Magazine article</u>	<u>BATHROOM</u>				
<u>Friend</u>			<u>Special flyer</u>					
<u>Church</u>			<u>Used before</u>					
<u>Health</u>			<u>Always knew about</u>					
<u>Business</u>			<u>Past experience</u>					
<u>Social/Civic</u>			<u>Yellow Pages</u>					
			<u>Don't know</u>					

29. Here is a houseplan with different rooms. Here are some envelopes with different items that a family might use to learn in the home. Would you select those things that your family uses and place them in the rooms where they are used?

(INTERVIEWER: Have the family spokesperson arrange the furniture and items in the model floor plan of the house. Record the letters of the items arranged, and indicate how many items are placed in each room.)

[illegible]

	S	BOYS	GIRLS	
31. What things about being a family member would you help children to learn?				
32. Would it be the same for boys and girls?				
33. Where would you get your information?				

35. Would it be the same for boys and girls?

36. Where would you get your information?

GIRLS

[illegible]

[illegible]

Some families might like some help with information about being a WORKER. If we could help members of your family learn about this by providing you with information in your home,

41. What subjects or topics would be most useful to your family?	42. Why?
- - - - -	- - - - -
- - - - -	- - - - -
- - - - -	- - - - -
- - - - -	- - - - -

43. What kinds of things would your family like to use to learn these things?	44. Why?
- - - - -	- - - - -

M F		M F	
Radio		Fliers/ Pamphlets	
Television		Telephone	
Newspapers		Video Viewers & Audio- Visual Centers	
Magazines		Computer Link-up	
Books		Other	
Cassette Tapes			
Records			

Sometimes families have to make changes in what they usually do in order to carry out learning projects, like experimenting with new time patterns, purchasing materials or tools, planning a special area for carrying out learning projects or teaching things to other family members.

What changes would your family be willing to make in the future to help with learning activities at home?

45. TIME	46. MONEY	47. SPACE	48. PEOPLE
☐ Rearrange schedule for own learning	☐ Books	☐ Rearrange home for learning activity	☐ Help another family member learn something
☐ Rearrange schedule for other family member's learning	☐ Courses	☐ Provide space and quiet	☐ Provide moral support
	☐ Tools		☐ Change work patterns (Alternate tasks)
	☐ Transportation		☐ Teach another family member something
	☐ Child care		
	☐ Eat out		49. OTHER
	☐ Buy convenience foods		

COMPLETION OF DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

I would like to have more information about your family to complete the interview.

7. Will you please look at this card and tell me which EDUCATION group best fits the people in your family? (INTERVIEWER: Hand the interviewee the EDUCATION card, record the response and ask the next two questions.)		8. Have any family members had Home Economics classes?	9. Have any family members had 4-H experience?	10. Will you please look at the other side of the card and tell me which INCOME group best fits the people in your family? (INTERVIEWER: Have the interviewee look at the other side of the card. If the person can only give hourly wage, record that information below.)		11. Do any of your children earn money? 12. If so, who? (INTERVIEWER: Record information below.)				
FAMILY MEMBER	EDUCATION	HOME EC	4-H	INCOME	HOURLY WAGE	HOURS/ WEEK	WEEKS/ YEAR	AGE	AMOUNT	N.A.
M	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
F	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Other Adult	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Children	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

13. Have there been any major changes in your family during the past year? _____ NO _____ (INTERVIEWER: If "Yes," record below.)		<table border="1"> <tr> <th>FAMILY SIZE</th> <th>EMPLOYMENT</th> <th>SCHOOL</th> <th>HOUSING</th> </tr> <tr> <td> Death of adult _____ Death of child _____ Divorce/Seprn _____ Birth of child _____ Major illness of family member _____ </td> <td> Change of employment _____ Shift change _____ Lose job _____ Start new job _____ Second job added (wife working, moonlighting) _____ </td> <td> First child enters school _____ Last child enters school _____ Change to different school _____ Change to different schedule _____ </td> <td> Move to new location _____ Major change in houseplan (remodeling) _____ </td> </tr> </table>		FAMILY SIZE	EMPLOYMENT	SCHOOL	HOUSING	Death of adult _____ Death of child _____ Divorce/Seprn _____ Birth of child _____ Major illness of family member _____	Change of employment _____ Shift change _____ Lose job _____ Start new job _____ Second job added (wife working, moonlighting) _____	First child enters school _____ Last child enters school _____ Change to different school _____ Change to different schedule _____	Move to new location _____ Major change in houseplan (remodeling) _____
FAMILY SIZE	EMPLOYMENT	SCHOOL	HOUSING								
Death of adult _____ Death of child _____ Divorce/Seprn _____ Birth of child _____ Major illness of family member _____	Change of employment _____ Shift change _____ Lose job _____ Start new job _____ Second job added (wife working, moonlighting) _____	First child enters school _____ Last child enters school _____ Change to different school _____ Change to different schedule _____	Move to new location _____ Major change in houseplan (remodeling) _____								

CLOSING

The information you have shared with me gives me a good idea of how your family learns at home. This information will be kept confidential. We do need your permission to use these data in order to complete the study. Your name and address on this form will give us that permission. Do you have any questions?

(INTERVIEWER: Have the interviewee sign the permission form.)

You have been a great help to us. We really appreciate your taking time to answer these questions and helping with this study so we can assist families like yours! It is possible that you may receive a call from the project office should we need clarification from you regarding the interview.

Would you be interested in hearing the results of our study? If so, we can arrange to have the popular magazine article sent to you once it is written.

(INTERVIEWER: Indicate below whether or not the person is interested in receiving the magazine article. If so, copy the address from the next page.)

Thank you very much!

___ Do send the article	Name: _____
___ Do not send the article	Address: _____

CONSENT FORM

for the HOME AS A LEARNING CENTER PROJECT

I _____, the undersigned, willingly consent to participate in an interview related to a study on the Home As A Learning Center.

I do so with the understanding that my responses will contribute to the goals of this research project being conducted by Michigan State University and the U. S. Office of Education, which has been explained to me.

Those responsible for the investigation have given me full assurance that my name will in no way be linked to the answers I have given.

Signature

Date

Address

REFERENCES CITED

REFERENCES CITED

Books

- Aberle, David F., and Naegele, Kaspar D. "Middle-Class Fathers' Occupational Role and Attitudes Toward Children." In A Modern Introduction to the Family, pp. 188-198. Edited by Norman W. Bell and Ezra F. Vogel. 2nd ed. New York: The Free Press, 1968.
- Babbie, Earl R. Survey Research Methods. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1973.
- Brim, Orville, Jr. "Socialization Through the Life Cycle." In Socialization After Childhood: Two Essays, pp. 3-49. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966.
- Bronfenbrenner, Urie B. Two Worlds of Childhood: U.S. and U.S.S.R. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1970.
- Carp, Abraham; Peterson, Richard; and Roelfs, Pamela. "Adult Learning Interests and Experiences." In Planning Non-Traditional Programs, pp. 11-53. Edited by K. Patricia Cross, John R. Valley and Associates. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1974.
- Clarke, Robert. Ellen Swallow: The Woman Who Founded Ecology. Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1973.
- Compton, Norma H., and Hall, Olive A. Foundations of Home Economics Research. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1972.
- Duvall, Evelyn M. Family Development. 3rd ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1967.
- Frank, Lawrence K. "Education for Aging." In Education for Later Maturity, pp. 1-18. Edited by Wilma Donahue. New York: Whiteside, Inc., and William Morrow and Co., Inc., 1955.
- Franklin, Benjamin. Autobiography. Edited by Russell B. Nye. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The Riverside Press, 1958.

- Goldhammer, Keith, and Taylor, Robert E. Career Education: Perspective and Promise. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972.
- Havinghurst, Robert J. Human Development and Education. New York: David McKay Co., 1953.
- _____. "Youth in Exploration and Man Emergent." In Man in a World at Work, pp. 215-237. Edited by Henry Borow. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964.
- Hill, Reuben, and Rodgers, Roy H. "The Developmental Approach." In Handbook of Marriage and the Family, pp. 171-211. Edited by Harold T. Christensen. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1964.
- Houle, Cyril O. The Inquiring Mind. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1961.
- Isaac, Stephen, and Michael, William B. Handbook in Research and Evaluation. San Diego: Robert R. Knapp, Publisher, 1971.
- Jessup, F. W. "Foreword." In Lifelong Learning, p. vii. Edited by F. W. Jessup. New York: Pergamon Press, 1969.
- _____. "The Idea of Lifelong Learning." In Lifelong Learning, pp. 14-31. Edited by F. W. Jessup. New York: Pergamon Press, 1969a.
- Johnstone, John W. C., and Rivera, Ramon J. Volunteers for Learning: A Study of the Educational Pursuits of American Adults. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965.
- Kerlinger, Fred N. Foundations of Behavioral Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.
- Madge, John. The Tools of Social Science. Garden City, New York: Anchor Books, Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1953.
- Maslow, Abraham H. New Knowledge in Human Values. New York: Harper and Bros., 1959.
- Nye, F. Ivan, and Berardo, Felix M. Emerging Conceptual Frameworks in Family Analysis. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966.
- Paolucci, Beatrice. "Computerized Families Are on the Horizon, But You and I will Still Call the Shots." In 1973 Yearbook of Agriculture: Handbook for the Home, pp. 2-6. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1973. Compiled by the United States Department of Agriculture.

- Pickering, Sir George. "Education for Tomorrow: A Biologist's View." In Lifelong Learning, pp. 1-13. Edited by F. W. Jessup. New York: Pergamon Press, 1969.
- Schaefer, Earl S. "The Family and the Educational Process." In Families of the Future. Foreward by Helen LeBaron Hilton. Symposium Collection: result of conference, Families of the Future--A Search for Meaning, held Iowa State University, October, 1971. Ames, Iowa: The Iowa State University Press, 1972, pp. 26-46.
- Schultz, Theodore W. Investment in Human Capital. New York: The Free Press, 1971.
- Tough, Allen M. The Adult's Learning Projects: A Fresh Approach to Theory and Practice in Adult Learning. Toronto: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1971.
- White, Burton L., and Watts, Jean C. Experience and Environment. Vol. 1. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973.
- Wolf, Richard. "The Measurement of Environments." In Testing Problems in Perspective, pp. 491-505. Edited by Anne Anastasi. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1966.

Journals

- Escalona, S. K. "Basic Modes of Social Interaction: Their Emergence and Patterning During the First Two Years of Life." Merrill-Palmer Quarterly 19 (January 1973): 205-232.
- Hill, Reuben. "Modern Systems Theory and the Family: A Confrontation." Social Science Information 10 (1971): 7-26.
- Hook, Nancy C., and Paolucci, Beatrice. "The Family as an Ecosystem." Journal of Home Economics 62 (May 1970): 315-318.
- Johannis, Theodore B., Jr. "Participation by Fathers, Mothers and Teenage Sons and Daughters in Selected Child Care and Control Activity." The Coordinator 6 (December 1957): 31-32.
- Karnes, Merle B.; Teska, James A.; Hodgins, Audrey S.; and Badger, Earladeen D. "Educational Intervention at Home by Mothers of Disadvantaged Infants." Child Development 41 (December 1970): 925-935.

- Kulich, Jindra. "An Historical Overview of the Adult Self-Learner." International Congress of University Adult Education Journal 9 (September 1970): 22-32.
- Leibowitz, Arleen. "Education and Home Production." The American Economic Review 64 (May 1974): 243-250.
- _____. "Home Investments in Children." Journal of Political Economy 82, Part II (March/April 1974a): 111-131.
- Leichter, Hope J. "Some Perspectives on the Family as Educator." Teachers College Record 76 (December 1974): 175-217.
- _____. "The Family as Educator." Teachers College Record 76 (December 1974a): 173-174.
- Levenstein, Phyllis. "Cognitive Growth in Preschoolers Through Verbal Interaction with Mothers." American Journal of Orthopsychiatry 40 (April 1970): 426-432.
- Littman, Richard A.; Curry, John; and Jones-Pierce, John. "Where Parents Go for Help." The Coordinator 6 (September 1957): 3-9.
- Maloch, Francille and Deacon, Ruth. "Proposed Framework for Home Management." Journal of Home Economics 58 (January 1966): 31-35.
- Moore, Terence. "Language and Intelligence: A Longitudinal Study of the First Eight Years." Human Development 11 (January 1968): 1-24.
- Morrison, Bonnie M. "The Importance of a Balanced Perspective: The Environments of Man." Man-Environment Systems 4 (May 1974): 171-178.
- Paolucci, Beatrice. "Contributions of a Framework of Home Management to the Teaching of Family Relationships." Journal of Marriage and the Family 28 (August 1966): 338-342.
- Radin, Norma. "The Impact of a Kindergarten Home Counseling Program." Exceptional Children 36 (December 1969): 251-256.
- Schaefer, Earl S. "Parents as Educators: Evidence from Cross-Sectional, Longitudinal and Intervention Research." Young Children 27 (April 1972): 227-239.
- Simpson, Elizabeth J. "The Home as a Career Education Center." Exceptional Children 38 (May 1973): 626-630.

- Sussman, Marvin B. "Family Systems in the 1970's: Analysis, Policies, and Programs." The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science 396 (July 1971): 40-56.

Bulletins and Monographs

- Alers-Montalvo, Manuel; Ibsen, Charles A.; and Brown, Coleen. "The Role of Extension Education in a Changing Community." Cooperative Extension. Fort Collins, Colorado: 1966.
- Bronfenbrenner, Urie B. "A Report on Longitudinal Evaluations of Preschool Programs: Is Early Intervention Effective?" U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, Vol. 2, 1974.
- Price, Leighton A. and O'Hare, William P. "Percentage and Frequency Distribution." Computer Institute for Social Science Research, Technical Report No. 74-6. East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1974.
- Waring, Ethel B. Principles for Child Guidance. Cornell Extension Bulletin No. 420. New York State College of Home Economics. Cornell University: Ithaca, New York, 1939; reprinted 1968.

Unpublished Materials

- Baker, Georgianne R. "Patterning of Family Resources for Educability: Conceptualization and Measurement in Costa Rican Families." Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970.
- Bell, Helen B. "Family Resources Used in School-Related Activities." Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1973.
- Coolican, Patricia M. "The Learning Style of Mothers of Young Children." Ph.D. dissertation, Syracuse University, 1973.
- Davey, Alice J. "Relationship of Family Interaction to Family Environment." Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1971.
- Denys, Laurent. "The Major Learning Efforts of Two Groups of Accra Adults." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Toronto, 1973.

- Frankena, William. "Toward a Philosophy of the Family." Paper read before the Clara Army Symposium, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, March, 1970. (Mimeographed.)
- Hollingshead, August B. "Two Factor Index of Social Positions." 1965 Yale Station, New Haven, Connecticut, U.S.A.: August B. Hollingshead, 1957. (Mimeographed.)
- Ingham, Roy J. "The Measurement of Educative Behavior and Its Relationship to the Leisure Satisfactions of College Alumni." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1963.
- Litchfield, Ann. "The Nature and Pattern of Participation in Adult Education Activities." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1965.
- Johns, Will Jr. "Selected Characteristics of the Learning Projects Pursued by Practicing Pharmacists." Ed.D. dissertation, University of Georgia, 1973.
- Johnson, Edwin A. "Selected Characteristics of the Learning Projects of Adults Who Have Earned a High School Diploma and/or a High School Equivalency Certificate." Ed.D. dissertation, University of Georgia, 1973.
- McCatty, Cressy. "Patterns of Learning Projects Among Professional Men." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1973.
- Polk, Edward V. "How Values of Families are Influenced by the State of the Family Life Cycle." Speech delivered at National Home Management Specialists Workshop, of Chicago, 1964. (Mimeographed.)
- Schultz, Theodore W. "Woman's New Economic Commandments." Summary of a seminar, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, January, 1972. (Mimeographed.)
- Sheffield, Sherman B. "The Orientations of Adult Continuing Learners." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1962.
- Tough, Allen M. "The Learning Tasks Performed by Adult Self-Teachers." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1965.
- Wetters, Doris. "Creative Aspects of a Homemanager's Resourcefulness." Ed.D. dissertation. Pennsylvania State University, 1967.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES



31293100156391