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FOOD PRACTICES OF HOMEMAKERS IN A SURBURBAN AREA OF GREENSBORO, NORTH CAROLINA

by

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6570

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the Faculty of the Graduate School at
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Approved by

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APPROVAL SHEET

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND PROCEDURE

The advancement of technology, the shift of social and economic forces, the population expansion, and the change in age group distribution affect today's home life. These changes along with family mobility, increased urban living, earlier marriage and parenthood, and the multiplicity of new goods and services available require new approaches to education for homemaking. Wood, Hill, and Amidon in a bulletin on the employed homemaker and management state that "Education adapted to the changing times and geared to significant needs of the homemakers of today can play a vital role in helping family members to meet new problems and to live enriched lives under the ever-changing conditions."

Most educators today believe in basing the curriculum on current practices and recognized needs of the students whom they teach. If this is to be done in the field of foods and nutrition, then it is necessary to know current food practices of homemakers. These practices are undoubtedly influenced by increased variety of products in the grocery

¹Mildred Wood, Alberta Hill, and Edna Amidon, Management Problems of Homemakers Employed Outside the Home. Vocational Division, Home Economics Education, Bulletin 289 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1961), page ix.

stores, dual roles of homemakers, and mass media. Since food practices are not the same in all parts of the country, it is necessary to study an area of North Carolina. Studies similar to this have been made in other states, but a review of the literature reveals no such study to have been made in North Carolina. This study was made of a middle-income group from which come most college students. The study included employed and non-employed homemakers. By learning what today's homemakers practice, a more functional educational program can be adapted.

I. THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to obtain a description of the food practices of homemakers in a suburban area of Greensboro, North Carolina. It was designed to obtain information with regard to the homemaker's knowledge of nutrition; the relationship of this knowledge to the feeding of her family; and the problems and practices of the homemaker in regard to planning, buying, and preparing food for her family.

II. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Food practices. The procedures the homemakers use in purchasing, preparing, and serving foods for her family are included.

<u>Chain stores</u>. These are stores that are a part of a cooperative buying unit including voluntary chain stores.

<u>Independent</u> stores. These are stores owned and operated as a single unit.

Foods budget. This is labeled as such if there is a predetermined amount spent weekly or monthly for grocery items.

Record of spending for groceries. This may be any set method of recording what was spent for groceries whether it be an itemized record or a check stub.

Basic Seven. This refers to the common check list of groups of foods needed daily, as recommended by the United States Department of Agriculture.

Prepared mixes. Included in this group are packaged mixtures that require only the addition of liquid and/or eggs to complete the product.

Convenience foods. This includes all foods in which some preparation has been done ahead of the actual mealtime preparation.

Food management. The securing, care, preservation, storage, preparation, and serving of the family's foods are included in this term.

To study food practices of homemakers, a stratified random sample was drawn of the General Greene School District of Greensboro, North Carolina. The stratification was done by class divisions of the school, thus giving variation in the ages of the children in the homes. The random sample was used so that everyone would have the possibility of being chosen and so that those chosen would represent a picture of the whole group. Because this sample seemed to be a rather mobile group, this may represent a picture of a population larger than the General Greene School District alone.

The list of students, with their parents' initials, their addresses, and their telephone numbers, was provided by the school. This was a list given by the school to all Parent Teacher Association members in the fall semester and brought up to date by the interviewer with the permission of the school principal. The list of the population contained 549 families. The names of 4 families from each class were drawn by the use of a table of random numbers, and 5 were drawn from those classes having 30 or more class members. This resulted in a total of 76 homemakers to be interviewed. Those eligible for the study must have had husbands and children home 5 days per week and have served at least one meal per day in the home.

An interview schedule Appendix A was designed and pretested with 4 staff members of the School of Home Economics at the Woman's College and 2 homemakers known by the interviewer. The pretesting was done to familiarize the interviewer with the procedure and to test the schedule for clarity and suitability of purpose. The final interview schedule required 20-25 minutes to be completed.

In collecting the data in the survey, the interviewer used the following procedure:

- Introduced self, explained overall purpose of visit, asked for time to conduct the interview.
- 2. Offered to call at a later time if that time was inconvenient for the homemaker.
- 3. Presented letter of introduction Appendix B from the school of Home Economics at the Woman's College.
- 4. Asked about family characteristics to determine eligibility for the study. The interviews were completed unless one parent was no longer a member of the family.
- 5. Collected interview data, explaining more thoroughly the purpose of the study with the interview section on convenience foods.
- 6. Thanked the homemaker for her cooperation and time.

After the interviews were completed, the data of those homemakers whose husbands held traveling occupations were

observed for consistent meal pattern differences. Since their husbands' occupations seemed to have no effect upon their food practices, all interviews were included. Two homemakers declined interviews; both refusals were preceded by 2 visits and a phone call in attempt to make an appointment. Repeated attempts were made at all homes until the homemakers were located.

The list of homemakers was precoded and the interviewer was guided by the house address; she never requested nor referred to the name unless a house was empty or the occupants had no children. The names of those who had moved were used to consult a new telephone directory for their new address. If they were still in or near the district they were then interviewed.

Seventy-six homemakers were sampled from a population of 549 (Table I). Sixty-seven interviews (88 per cent of the sample) were completed. The remaining 9 were excluded for various reasons shown in the table. Of the 67 interviews completed, 15 were of employed homemakers.

TABLE I
DISPOSITION OF THE SAMPLE

Disposition	Number of Homemakers	Per Cent	
Total interviews completed	67	88.2	
Employed homemakers	15	19.7	
Nonemployed homemakers	52	68.4	
Declined interviews	2	2.6	
Unqualified interviews	1	1.3	
Families moved out of area	6	7.9	
Total Sample	76	100	

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Various studies of food practices of homemakers include the homemaker's knowledge as compared with her practices in the areas of marketing, preparing and serving meals, and nutrition. Studies have been made on marketing, on meal planning, on use of convenience foods; some have included many phases of food management.

I. KNOWLEDGE OF NUTRITION

In Young's study of homemakers in Rochester and Syracuse, New York, approximately one quarter of the homemakers appeared to have a fair understanding of nutrition as related to the feeding of their families. In contrast, more than half of the homemakers in a study in Appomattox County, Virginia, by Cameron had little or no information on nutrition. Seven per cent of those Virginia homemakers had a good working knowledge of nutrition, 24 per cent knew

¹C. M. Young, B. G. Waldner, and K. Berresford, "What the Homemaker Knows About Nutrition: Level of Nutritional Knowledge," <u>Journal of the American Dietetic Association</u>, XXXII (March, 1956), 222.

Production and Conservation Practices of Rural Home-makers in Appomattox County, Virginia, July, 1951, (Blacksburg, Virginia: Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Mimeograph Report, April, 1952), p. 13.

something about it, and 69 per cent knew little about how to feed their families well. There were 19 per cent who knew the amount of milk required per person and served the correct amount.

Muse in a Vermont rural study³ found that many of the homemakers owned or were familiar with the colorful "pie" or "wheel" chart picturing the foods of the 7 foods groups that plainly gave the number of servings per day of each group suggested for an adequate diet. The study did not conclude, however, that any woman was actually using the idea of the Basic Seven in planning meals for her family. Most of the housewives considered all vegetables to be of equal nutritive value and seldom used the more valuable sources of Vitamin A.

Tucker and Lovee in a study of nutritional data from 75 homemakers in a rural community of a Louisiana bayou area found in 1953⁴ that there were only 4 who knew a day's food needs. Their poor nutritional practices were attributed in part to lack of money, lack of education, scarcity of foods, lack of desire to improve, unsatisfactory attitudes toward

³Marianne Muse, Food Management in Some Vermont Farm Homes, (Burlington, Vermont: Agriculture Experimental Station, University of Vermont and State Agriculture College, Bulletin 601, June, 1957).

⁴Clara Tucker and Ray Lovee, "Hurdles to Good Food Practices," Journal of Home Economics, XLV (November, 1953), 654-657.

foods, and unsatisfactory family and community living patterns. Lack of a desire to improve and the unsatisfactory family and community living patterns were common to all families. Some seemed to think that adequate food meant serving the family foods that satisfied the appetite and tastes of its members.

II. NUTRITION PRACTICES

Young⁵ states in her study that the homemaker's actual performance in feeding her family was considerably better than her theoretical knowledge. The food groups of which the homemakers' knowledge was weakest were also those most poorly used: citrus fruits, tomatoes, and cabbage; green, leafy and yellow vegetables; and milk, cheese, and ice cream. The younger homemakers appeared to do a more adequate job in feeding their families than did the older homemakers. Perhaps the difference is due to the superior level of educational attainment of the younger homemakers. The adequacy of food used and nutritional knowledge appeared to be related.

Cameron⁶ in a study in Appomattox, Virginia, found that of those who said it was important to serve salad greens

⁵C. M. Young, K. Berresford, and B. G. Waldner, "What the Homemaker Knows About Nutrition: Relation of Knowledge to Practice," <u>Journal of the American Dietetic Association</u>, XXXII (April, 1956), 326.

⁶Cameron, op. cit., page 13.

once a day, only one-third served them that often. Twentynine per cent of those who said citrus fruits should be
served once a day served them that often. Seventy per cent
of those who said it was important to serve meat once a day
served it that often or more often.

Technological developments may cause the food activities of the homemakers of tomorrow to consist largely of opening cans and packages, adding water to concentrated foods, operating a freezer-refrigerator, and subjecting food to a limited heat or microwave treatment. Those developments will in no way decrease the importance of understanding the relationship between nutrition and health. People will still need to know what to select for adequate nutrition. In fact, there appears to be, if anything, an increased need for sound nutrition education and education concerning food and its role in health, in order to interpret available information relating to the foods.

The literature on nutrition points to a need for more effective nutrition education. That the homemaker's practice of serving daily balanced meals is weak and that the future seems to demand an even greater knowledge of nutrition present challenges to nutrition education.

⁷Catherine J. Personius, "The Current Situation and Trends Pertinent to the Future Development of Food and Nutrition," <u>Journal of Home Economics</u>, LI (September, 1959), 577-588.

It was of interest to note in the report of a survey in Columbia, Ohio, by Methany et al. 8 that studies in Canada⁹, Mississippi¹⁰, and California¹¹ indicate that the dietary patterns of families in which the mother is gainfully employed do not differ from those of the unemployed homemaker.

III. MARKETING PRACTICES

Clark et al. report in the study, Food Consumption of Urban Families 12 in 1954, that an average of 26 dollars per week was spent for groceries. This was one-third of the family income for the week. Both quality and quantity accounted for higher food bills. Although large families spend more for food than smaller families, the cost per

⁸N. Y. Methany, F. E. Hunt, M. B. Patton, and H. Heye, "The Diets of Preschool Children: Nutritional Sufficiency Findings and Family Marketing Practices," <u>Journal of Home</u> Economics, LIV (April, 1962), 297-303.

⁹M. T. Doyle, M. C. Cahoon, E. W. McHenry, <u>Canada</u> <u>Journal of Public Health</u>, XLIV (1953), 259-262.

the Wife, (Mississippi Agriculture Experiment Station, Bulletin 558, 1958).

¹¹A. F. Morgan, <u>Nutritional</u> Status <u>U. S. A.</u>, (California Experiment Station, Bulletin 769, 1959).

¹²F. Clark, J. Murray, G. S. Weiss, and E. Grossman, Food Consumption of Urban Families in the United States, (United States Department of Agriculture Information, Bulletin No. 132, October, 1954).

person is not the same. Undoubtedly there are economies in the purchasing and preparation of meals for large families, so that some of the difference in expense between the small and the large households does represent savings.

Van Syckle in her study of 226 homemakers in Everette, Washington¹³, found that only 7 per cent of the homemakers said that they kept a regular record of what was spent on individual foods. Forty-six per cent indicated that they tried to keep within a certain amount of expense for food supplies. About one-fourth of the homemakers in Cameron's study¹⁴ in Virginia said that they limited their food purchases to a definite amount of money each week or each month. In Young's study¹⁵, two-thirds of the homemakers had a specified amount they allowed themselves to spend for food each week. The major portion of their food shopping was done by the homemaker and usually only once a week.

Going to the store to buy food is most frequently a once-a-week activity for homemakers in the West Virginia urban and rural areas studied by Porter et al.

Although wives usually do most of the food shopping, husbands participate in this activity--alone or in

¹³Calla Van Syckle, "Food Management Practices in an Industrial City," <u>Journal</u> of <u>Home Economics</u>, XLVII (February, 1955), 119-120.

¹⁴ Cameron, loc. cit.

¹⁵ Young, op. cit., page 326.

conjunction with their wives—to a greater extent in rural areas. The percentage of urban households with wives doing most of the shopping is usually lowest for the highest income category. The opposite prevails in rural areas. Urban wives and husbands are more likely to shop together in homes where homemakers have one or more years of schooling beyond high school. 16

In Gazaway and Marsh's study of homes in Anchorage and Fairbanks, Alaska¹⁷, half of the homemakers interviewed said that they made one trip a week for grocery shopping. Of the remainder, 17 made 2-5 trips, while 4 made 5 or more. Two homemakers reported making 7 trips to the store. Approximately 8 out of 10 homemakers said they shopped for food specials regularly.

Stubbs in a study of the state of Texas reported that

Homemakers have the major responsibility to purchase food for their families, but almost one-third reported their husbands cooperate in this homemaking responsibility. Thirty-seven per cent of the homemakers traded regularly at a locally-owned grocery; 47 per cent said they shopped at a district or national chain. 18

Seventy-two per cent shopped once weekly for their major grocery supplies. The homemakers bought fill-in purchases

¹⁶W. F. Porter, W. W. Armentrout, M. K. Conval,
R. Dimit, G. Lyon, C. E. Swank, and G. Ueland, Food Buying:
Knowledge - Concerns - Practices, (Morgantown, West Virginia:
West Virginia University Agriculture Experiment Station,
Bulletin 456, May, 1961), page vii.

¹⁷G. P. Gazaway, and C. F. Marsh, <u>Some Characteristics</u>
of <u>Anchorage and Fairbanks Households</u>, (Alaska Agricultural
Experiment Station, Circular 23, June, 1960).

¹⁸Alice C. Stubbs, Family Food Marketing Practices, (College Town, Texas: Texas Agricultural Experiment Station, March, 1961), pages 2-4.

two or more times a week. Seventy-one per cent made a list before going to the grocery store. A small number said they checked the pantry before going to the store and then bought from memory. 19

When the Vermont farm homemakers as reported by Muse²⁰ did their buying, they made most of their decisions in the stores, except that all but a few kept a running list of needed staples. The homemaker generally gave a list of some sort to the other persons of the household who bought foods. The family head did food buying far more frequently than he did any other food activity in the home.

Many of the homemakers of the various studies told of attempts to keep within a family foods budget. The homemakers were usually the grocery shoppers, except that many of the husbands of the rural areas cooperated in the shopping. Some type of grocery list, whether complete or partial, was used for most of the shopping.

IV. MEAL PLANNING PRACTICES

The writing out of meal plans by the homemakers was the exception rather than the rule in Van Syckle's study of Everette, Washington. About 80 per cent of them never wrote

¹⁹ Ibid.

^{20&}lt;sub>Muse</sub>, 1oc. cit.

out meal plans. The other 20 per cent did so only occasionally, sometimes for dinner, but mainly for special occasions, such as company meals or week-end and vacation trips.²¹

Van Syckle also reported that breakfasts were either not planned at all or the menu had become a fairly fixed one for the most part. Over 50 per cent of the homemakers said that breakfast was planned by what the other members of the family chose. About one-third replied that breakfast was a routine menu.²²

The main meal of the day in about 3 out of 4 of the homes was planned around meat or a meat substitute or, in the case of a few, around meat and potatoes. A special diet or a balanced diet was the basis of planning a menu by about 1 in 10 homemakers. For lunch or supper, over half said they had whatever was on hand or ate left-overs. One-third replied that they followed a general pattern such as soup and sandwiches. 23

One-fourth of the respondents to Van Syckle's study in Everette, Washington, said they had no main problems deciding what to serve. Food dislikes of families or finicky eaters to plan for were the most frequent difficulties mentioned. 24

²¹ Van Syckle, 10c. cit.

²² Ibid.

²³Ibid.

²⁴Ibid.

Young et al. in a study of Rochester and Syracuse, New York, found that "most homemakers did not plan meals much in advance. The younger, better educated homemakers with better incomes did more advanced meal-planning." 25

Young et al. also found that "ninety-two per cent of the homemakers felt their families were getting all the foods they needed. The most common explanation given for failure to do so was food dislikes of individual family members."²⁶

In a national study of home demonstration members²⁷ the problems of general family eating habits were mentioned less often as the educational level increased. The urban and rural nonfarm women planned meals further ahead than farm women. Those trained in home economics did more advanced meal planning, as did those aged forty or less. As the family income increased, so did the proportion of homemakers planning meals ahead.

²⁵C. M. Young, B. G. Waldner, and K. Berresford, "What the Homemaker Knows About Nutrition: Her Food Problems, Shopping Habits, and Sources of Information," Journal of the American Dietetic Association, XXXII (May, 1956), 429-434.

²⁶Ibid.

National Study of Home Demonstration Members, (United States Department of Agriculture, Federal Extension Service, Extension Service Circular 526, Nationwide Study of 1957).

The homemakers who knew more about nutrition tended to plan a day or so ahead in the study by Cameron. ²⁸ Farm homemakers tended to plan a day or so ahead more often than did nonfarm homemakers.

Muse found there was less planning for breakfast in the Vermont farm homes—as elsewhere—than for the other meals. This was because breakfast was generally a routine meal. The less time spent planning the meal, the poorer the nutritional balance tended to be. Often the supper was simply the leftovers from dinner. In the better balanced meals the night meal was planned in the morning with the idea of using some left-over foods with some other foods for variety.²⁹

Usually those homemakers who did the more advanced planning seemed to practice serving the more nutritious meals; this relationship was less marked among the younger homemakers who exhibited more knowledge of nutrition. The main problems deciding what to serve for meals were centered around the likes and dislikes of certain foods by the family members; however, the homemakers usually believed their meals were adequate for the family.

V. USE OF CONVENIENCE FOODS

Methany et al. listed the convenience foods: frozen soups, meat pies, dinners, dessert pies, and mixtures; canned

²⁸ Cameron, 1oc. cit.

²⁹ Muse, 1oc. cit.

soups and mixtures; cake, muffin, biscuit, and pudding and pie mixes; ready-to-eat cereal; and instant coffee. The homemakers' frequency of use and reasons for use were obtained:

The saving of time and energy through the use of each of the itemized convenience foods was the reason most frequently given by the homemaker for using them. The belief was expressed that the convenience food was less expensive than the comparable product prepared from the original ingredients by as many as 20 per cent of the users of some products; none of the users of other products held this view, however. Approximately one-fifth of those using instant coffee reported that it was less expensive than brewed coffee in their family situation. This was especially true in families where only one member drank coffee.

For from 5 per cent of users for certain products to 26 per cent for others, a better quality product was the inducement for convenience food. As a whole, few families found convenience foods to be less expensive or of higher quality than conventional items; however, homemakers expressed the belief that the time and energy saved compensated for the higher cost. 30

In the study of the frequency of use of those products, it was found that instant coffee and ready-to-eat cereals were the most frequently used of the convenience foods. Canned soups, pudding and pie mixes, and the cake, muffin, and biscuit mixes followed the coffee and cereals closely as compared to the canned mixtures or any of the frozen items. 31

³⁰ Methany, 1oc. cit.

³¹Ibid.

A pilot study in Washington, D. C.³², and a report in Agricultural Research³³ indicate that convenience foods do not account for a great percentage of the food dollar. One study considered the amount to be only 4 per cent. The pilot study by the Department of Agriculture Marketing Service attributed the gross increase in food spending to the rise in food prices, increase in population, higher farm production, movement of people off farms, and reduced output of food for farm use (food which does not enter the marketing system). In comparing serviced foods with nonserviced foods this study stated: "A consumer who bought one hundred dollars worth of unserviced foods in three Washington, D. C., chain supermarkets during December, 1957, would have had to pay only sixty-one cents--less than one per cent--more for the equivalent quantity in serviced foods."

Hefner compared the cost of the conventional versus premix cakes and found that time and labor costs were lower for the mix cakes, but the ingredient costs were higher.

From the standpoint of control of cost and other management factors for the institution, the mix was considered superior

Pilot Study in Washington, D. C., December, 1957, (Washington, D. C.: United States Department of Agriculture Marketing Service, Bulletin 257, August, 1958).

^{33&}quot;City Folks and Convenience Foods," Agricultural Research, V (March, 1957), 8-9.

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In Stitt's study of the frequency of use of prepared mixes by 2,169 homemakers in Alabama³⁵ the frequency of serving the product whether by use of mixes or the original ingredients was obtained. Stitt's study concludes:

Biscuits were served at least once a week by 61 per cent of the rural and urban families. This is similar to the finding in the study sponsored by the United States Department of Agriculture in which it reported that 67 per cent of the families in Birmingham served biscuits at some time during the week of the survey. In the Birmingham study waffle or pancake mix was reported as being the most frequently used of all mixes with cake mix next in preference. Of prepared mixes in Alabama, cake mix was the most frequently used, with other mixes in the following order of usage: puddings, pancakes, yeast rolls, pastry, icings, cookies, muffins, and biscuits.

The larger families served biscuits, cookies, pancakes, puddings, and icings more often than did smaller households, but there was little difference in the frequency of their use of mixes for these foods.

The younger homemakers and those who were employed made more frequent use of mixes than the older or the

Versus Premix Cakes," Journal of the American Dietetic Association, XXXIII (March, 1957), 233-237.

³⁵Kathleen Stitt, "Frequency of Use of Prepared Mixes," Journal of the American Dietetic Association, XXXIII (June, 1957), 596-598.

the Use of Foods . . . Three Cities, 1953, (United States Department of Agriculture, Agriculture Information Bulletin 146, April, 1956).

full-time homemaker. However, there were only one-third as many employed homemakers as full-time homemakers so that employment may not have been a significant factor. The trend shown in this study was to more frequent use of mixes by homemakers who had a college education.³⁷

Although it was reported by several studies that convenience foods do not constitute a great percentage of the food dollar, generally the homemakers use them because they save time in preparation. A minority of the homemakers in the studies reported using the convenience foods because they felt that they were cheaper.

³⁷Stitt, loc. cit.

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The employed homemakers differed little in their food practices from the non-employed homemakers. In the findings of the present study the emphasis is on a general description of the homemakers of the total population interviewed. In some instances comparisons are made between employed and non-employed homemakers, between older and younger homemakers, and between homemakers with more years of schooling and those with fewer years of schooling.

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

Ages of homemakers and children. In the interview the homemaker was asked to indicate her age group classification from an interview card Appendix C7. These age groups were in spans of five years (Table II). The largest number of homemakers was in the group which ranged from 30-34 years. There were a few in the 25-29 year age group and one in the 45-49 year age group. The employed homemakers were more evenly distributed throughout the four groups between 25-44 years.

Because an elementary school record was used to choose the sample, most of the children were from 6-12 years of age. Of the 188 children of the homemakers in the survey, 120 were

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of the elementary school level. A slightly larger number of the other children in these families were pre-schoolers than were beyond the elementary school level.

TABLE II

AGE OF HOMEMAKERS

Age Group	Nonemployed Homemakers	Employed Homemakers	Tota1 Homemakers
25-29	3	4	7
30-34	21	4	25
35-39	18	4	22
40-44	9	3	12
45-49	1		1

Size of family. The families varied in size from 3-8 members (Table III). The greatest percentage of the families (48 per cent) had 2 children. About half that many families had 3 children.

Income level of family. Table IV, page 26, shows that one family had an income of less than 4,000 dollars for the year of 1961. The homemaker volunteered the explanation that this was because her husband had been unemployed for six months due to a business failure and hindrances in reinvestment plans. Two homemakers had no idea what their

TABLE III
SIZE OF FAMILY

Number in Family	Frequency	Percentage
3	3	4
4	32	48
5	15	22
6	12	18
7	3	4
8	2	2

TABLE IV

INCOME DISTRIBUTION OF THE FAMILIES

Income Range	Nonemp Homema		Emp1 Homem	oyed akers	Tot Homem	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
\$3000-3999	1	2			1	1
\$4000-4999	4	8			4	6
\$5000-5999	4	8			4	6
\$6000-6999	9	17	3	20	12	18
\$7000-7999	8	15	5	33	13	19
\$8000-8999	7	13	2	13	9	13
\$9000-Over	17	33	5	33	22	33
No Answer	2	4			2	3

family income had been; these, from appearances of the home and family, were neither extremely high nor low incomes.

Table IV shows that the employment of homemakers tended to raise the total family incomes. Considering the costs of being employed (loss of income tax deductions, maid expenses, and the like), the total family incomes of these families tend to appear higher than they actually are.

No accurate median income could be set for the homemakers in the present study since no exact income figures were given by the homemakers. The approximate median income for this district was \$7,150 or above. This amount is considerably higher than in Young's study¹ in the cities of Rochester and Syracuse where in 1953 their median income was \$4000-4499. The median income in the present study is also higher than reported in Dickens' study of the state of Mississippi² (data collected in 1958-1960) where the average incomes were \$2071 to \$5972, depending on whether the family lived in an urban or a rural location and on whether they were Negro or white. The lower incomes were among Negro and rural populations.

The median income in the present study was lower than Gazaway's study of Anchorage and Fairbanks, Alaska, where

¹ Young, op. cit., p. 216.

²Dickens, op. cit., p. 6.

in 1958-1959 40 per cent of the families in Anchorage and 60 per cent in Fairbanks received \$9000 or more and a third of the families in Anchorage received incomes of \$7000-9000.³ This report may be biased, for the report of the study states that both studies were made when business activity and employment were at a peak.

Educational levels. The majority of the homemakers were high school graduates and over half had attended college, as shown in Table V. Eleven of the 67 were college graduates and 2 of these had had graduate study. Nurse's training and business school were included in the category "some college."

About the same number of the husbands of the homemakers were high school graduates. A larger number had completed college, and several had done graduate study. (Table V)

Over 50 per cent of these homemakers and their husbands had had education beyond high school. Gazaway's study of Anchorage and Fairbanks⁴ reported that 38 per cent and 35 per cent, respectively, had had education beyond high school. The present study, however, deals with a school district area of a city rather than, as in Alaska, with the whole city.

³Gazaway, op. cit., p. 6.

⁴Gazaway, op. cit., p. 6.

TABLE V
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF HUSBAND AND HOMEMAKER

Educational Level	Homen	naker			Tot	a1
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Eight grades or less	3	4	5	7	8	6
Grades nine through eleven	2	3	1	1	3	2
High school graduate	25	37	27	40	52	39
Some college	26	39	8	12	34	25
College graduate only	9	13	21	31	30	22
Graduate work after college	2	3	5	7	7	5

Occupations. The occupations of the husbands and employed homemakers are shown in Table VI. The charting of these occupations was patterned after that in Young's study. The larger number of the household heads were white collar workers. There were many salesmen, especially travelling salesmen, in this area of Greensboro. Skilled workers were almost as large a group as white collar workers; managers and proprietors constituted the third largest group. Most of the employed homemakers held white collar jobs, the professional group being next in size. None of the employed homemakers held skill jobs.

II. SOURCES OF INFORMATION REGARDING NUTRITION AND FOOD PRACTICES

The homemakers were asked to check the sources of their information on grocery shopping, food preparation, and nutrition. Some homemakers placed a check in every space provided while others indicated that they learned it all from actual experiences. All those who checked radio as a source of information also checked television. Radio was not as frequent a source of information in any area as was television.

Since the district studied is a city district, there were few adult classes or home demonstration clubs. Each was

⁵Young, op. cit., p. 217.

TABLE VI
OCCUPATIONS OF HUSBANDS AND EMPLOYED HOMEMAKERS

Occupations*	Husbands No.	(67) %	Homemakers No.	(15)
Unskilled workers	5	8	2	13
Semi-skilled workers	7	10	1	7
Skilled workers	18	27		
White collar workers	24	36	7	47
Professional	5	8	4	27
Manager, proprietor	8	10	1	7

^{*}Unskilled - truck driver, painter, sewing machine operator.

Semi-skilled - textile workers, mechanics.

Skilled - engraver, technician, chemist, electrician.

White collar - clerical, supervisor, traveling salesman, inspector, buyer, secretary.

Professional - nurse, teacher.

given as a source by a few homemakers. Neither was listed as a source of information by the employed homemakers.

A few homemakers replied that experience had been their only teacher. Others added sources of information as co-workers (sharing recipes for quickly-prepared foods), nurse's training, the family doctor, and books and pamphlets. One homemaker asked for dependable sources of information on nutrition.

Grocery-shopping information. Table VII shows the most frequent sources of grocery shopping information.

Fifty-two per cent of the homemakers listed relatives and acquaintances and newspapers as sources of information.

Magazines and cookbooks were the second most frequent sources. Television and high school classes were the third most frequent sources. Several homemakers remarked that they shopped the newspaper advertisements regularly. Only a few of the homemakers listed college classes as a source of grocery shopping information.

In the present study 30 per cent reported high school as a source of information, 4 per cent home demonstration clubs, and 9 per cent college. Referring to high school, college, and home demonstration as "formal training" there were 34 per cent who had had formal training in grocery shopping through one or more of these sources. In the study of Family Food Marketing Practices in Texas in 1958, Stubbs

TABLE VII

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON GROCERY SHOPPING,
FOOD PREPARATION, AND

NUTRITION

Source	Groc Shop	ery		Food Preparation		ition
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
High School	20	30	41	61	42	63
College	6	9	5	8	13	19
Home demonstration	3	4	9	13	6	9
Relative and acquaintances	35	52	38	57	28	42
Radio	13	19	12	18	14	21
Television	20	30	30	45	28	42
Adult classes			1	2		
Newspapers	35	52	24	36	20	30
Magazines	25	37	40	60	38	57
Cookbooks	27	40	50	75	46	69
Other sources27*						

^{*}Experience (17), co-workers (1), nurse's training (5), family doctor (2), books and pamphlets (2).

reported "only 16 per cent had had any formal training in food buying. Ten per cent had had this training in high school, 2 per cent in home demonstration club work and 2 per cent in college."

Food preparation information. Cookbooks were most frequently a source of information on food preparation.

Classes in high school were second; magazines were ranked slightly above relatives and acquaintances as a third source. High school classes were the most frequent educational sources of information. Most of the homemakers remarked as they checked "magazines" and "cookbooks" that there are a lot of recipes in them.

Nutrition information. As shown in Table VII, cook-books outranked high school classes as a source of information for nutrition. Magazines were third in frequency. Of the 26 homemakers who had attended college (Table V, page 29), 13 reported college as a source of information on nutrition.

Methany et al. on the diets of preschool children in which the mothers rated their sources of nutrition information as first, second, and third in importance. Past experience and

⁶Stubbs, op. cit., p. 8.

⁷Methany, loc. cit.

education were first in importance to 35 of the 94 mothers; printed materials were first in importance of the sources to 29 of the mothers. The two were rated as second in importance in the same order. Relatives were separated from friends and neighbors as a source of information in Methany's study. Were they combined as in the present study they would rank as the third major source of information. Of least importance to the mothers of the preschool children were radio and television.

In Greensboro, homemakers in the General Greene School District had more training in nutrition than did the homemakers in Stubbs' study in Texas. 8 In the present study over 50 per cent had received nutrition information in high school. Only 25 per cent of the Texas homemakers received nutrition education. "Fifteen per cent secured this training in high school, 3 per cent in home demonstration work, and 3 per cent in college." The homemakers interested in nutrition classes in Texas preferred to have these classes on television.

Considering the frequency of cookbooks, magazines, and printed materials as sources of information, one might conclude that it is necessary for them to maintain accurate and possibly add more thorough information on nutrition.

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⁸Stubbs, op. cit., p. 8.

In order to obtain a description of food-shopping practices several questions were asked. Usually answers were readily given. Occasionally the homemakers were hesitant in replying, for they seemed to feel that their method was inferior compared with what a home economist would practice or teach. A few said that they hated cooking and grocery shopping. Their resulting methods were extremely organized or extremely disorganized. One such homemaker planned weekly detailed menus and made her grocery list accordingly. Another, completing a heavy meal, left the evening dinner table to go shopping with no list or memorandum of any type.

Who does the shopping. As is presented in Table VIII, most homemakers (90 per cent) said that they did the grocery shopping. Three of the nonemployed homemakers had their husbands do it. One employed homemaker and 3 nonemployed homemakers had their husbands help them regularly with their grocery shopping. Later in the interview several members of the families were credited with helping with the grocery shopping (Table XX, page 62).

The present study is similar to Porter's study in West Virginia, in which urbanism was related to the grocery shopping. Eighty-nine per cent of the shoppers in the urban

areas were the homemakers, whereas 82 per cent of the shoppers in the rural areas were the homemakers. The husband-wife team pattern seemed to be more frequent there. 9

TABLE VIII

THE FAMILY MEMBER DOING THE GROCERY SHOPPING

Family Member	Employed Homemakers		Nonemployed Homemakers		Total Homemakers	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Husband			3	6	3	4
Homemaker	14	93	46	87	60	90
Both	1	7	3	6	4	6

Stubbs reported in her study of Texas homemakers 10 that 91 per cent of the homemakers did the family food shopping. In 4 per cent of the families the husbands did the grocery shopping and in 5 per cent of the families the shopper was some other person or some combination of family members. These results are similar to the findings of the present study.

In the present study the practice of homemakers doing the shopping is greater than in Young's study in Rochester and Syracuse¹¹, where approximately 66 per cent of the homemakers did the shopping. Seventeen per cent of those

⁹Porter, op. cit., p. 9.

¹⁰Stubbs, op. cit., p. 3.

¹¹ Young, op. cit., p. 430.

homemakers were accompanied by their husbands. In 9 per cent of the homes the husbands did the shopping alone.

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Where shopping is done. Only 2 homemakers said they usually or always did their shopping at an independent grocery store. One of these 2 homemakers secured her groceries from her husband's fruit and vegetable store; the other worked near a locally-owned store and found it more convenient. The latter sometimes shopped at a supermarket. Sixty-five of the 67 homemakers usually or always shopped at a chain store or supermarket. None of the 65 who usually shopped at supermarkets shopped at independent grocery stores with any degree of frequency.

In the present study 97 per cent of the homemakers usually shopped at a district or national chain store; this is considerably higher than is reported in Stubbs' study of the state of Texas¹², where only 47 per cent shopped in chain stores. The difference is perhaps due to the urbanization of the Greensboro group. Only one-third of the Texas rural families shopped at any type of chain store.

How often shopping is done. As shown in Table IX, shopping once a week for groceries with fill-in items purchased once or twice a week was the most frequent pattern of

¹²Stubbs, op. cit., p. 4.

TABLE IX
FREQUENCY OF GROCERY SHOPPING

Time	Frequency	Percentages
Major shopping:	of the dep	
Once a week	53	79
2-3 times a week	6	9
2 times a month	5	7
1 time a month	2	3
No routine	10 11 11	100
Minor shopping:		
Dai1y	2	3
2 times a week	36	54
3 times a week	6	9
1 time a week	15	22
Never	8	12

grocery shopping. Shopping once a week was done by 79 per cent of the homemakers. Fifty-four per cent of the homemakers bought fill-in purchases twice a week and 22 per cent did so only once a week. Other patterns of frequency may be observed in the table.

Almost 80 per cent of the homemakers in the present study shopped once a week for major groceries, whereas 72 per cent in the Texas survey¹³ shopped once weekly for their major grocery supplies. Most of the Texas homemakers bought fill-in purchases two or more times a week as compared with only one or two times a week in the present study. Porter et al. related the frequency of fill-in purchases to the living locality when in the report on the West Virginia survey they reported that "the more urban the area, the greater the average number of trips to the food store in any given week."¹⁴

Pattern of grocery shopping. When the homemaker was asked how she decided what to buy at the grocery store, more than one reply was usually made. Only the first reply was recorded and used in presenting the data in Table X. A complete grocery list was used most often by nonemployed homemakers. Proportionately, more employed homemakers replied

¹³Stubbs, loc. cit.

¹⁴ Porter, op. cit., p. 11.

TABLE X
PREPARATION FOR GROCERY SHOPPING

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Method*	Employed Homemakers	Nonemployed Homemakers Ho		Per Cent
Read Advertisements		5	5	7
Make partial list, choose minor items	3	4	7	10
None	9	14	23	34
Check cupboard (and memory)	2		2	3
Make complete list	1	27	28	42
Keep running list		2	2	3

^{*}First answer given. In addition to other methods, advertising was mentioned four times by those employed and seven times by those not employed. It was the most frequent second answer.

that no list was used. No list used was the second most frequent description of method with the nonemployed homemakers, too. Checking the newspaper advertisements for specials was frequently a second step in their plan of shopping, as was checking the cupboard to see what was needed.

In the present study about 33 per cent of the homemakers shopped without a list. Sixty-six per cent used the other methods which included the use of a list. Between two-thirds and 75 per cent of the homemakers in Stubbs' report of Texas¹⁵ shopped with a list. That left the other homemakers with various patterns including "no list." The two reports are similar—only slightly more unplanned purchasing is indicated in the present study than in the Texas study.

Budgets and records. When asked if the weekly food expenditure was planned in a budget, 21 homemakers replied in the affirmative and 46 in the negative. Their weekly food cost was more usually a weekly occurrence than a plan. The percentage who had an established food budget was greater for the nonemployed than for the employed.

The bases for planning a set amount for foods in the budgets were varied. The replies ranged from one dollar per person per day to the allotting of amounts for the food

¹⁵Stubbs, op. cit., p. 6.

groups. More frequently the reply was that the budget was a by-product of experience. The reply was also made several times that a limited amount had been set and had been expanded as the family expanded. One homemaker remarked that their budget increased five dollars a week with each child added to the family.

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TABLE XI

NUMBER OF HOMEMAKERS PRACTICING BUDGETING

Rep1y	Employed Homemakers	Nonemployed Homemakers	Tota1 Homemakers	Percentage
Yes	3	18	21	31
No	12	34	46	69

Van Syckle pointed out from her study in Everette, Washington 16, that 9 out of 20 homemakers budgeted for food supplies and on the whole found that the budgets worked. She pointed out that this should be encouraging to home economists. That budgeting should be maintained in the curriculum is further supported by the fact that in the present study almost one-third of the homemakers budgeted.

Twenty-five per cent of the homemakers in the present study kept a record of grocery spendings. Seven per cent of

¹⁶ Van Syckle, op. cit., p. 120.

the homemakers in Everette, Washington¹⁷, kept a record of what they spent for groceries. The records in the present study included check stubs and old grocery tickets.

Amount spent for groceries. The homemaker gave from an interview card Appendix C7 the letter that represented the amount spent for groceries in a week; this included the milk and egg bill but excluded the non-grocery items. The letter groups were in spans of five dollars. As shown in Table XII, 17 indicated each group of \$21-25 and \$31-35. Thirteen indicated \$26-30 per week. Those who did not know how much was spent for groceries or who spent \$40 and over per week had larger families where there were 5-8 members in the families. The ones who spent only \$11-15 per week had 4 or 5 members in the family.

In a report in <u>Family Economics Review</u> published by the United States Department of Agriculture¹⁸, the trends in the consumer price index for food during the past ten years (1951-1961) were given. Food purchased in the grocery store cost the homemaker about 2 per cent more in December, 1961, than in December, 1951. Restaurant meals were a

¹⁷ Van Syckle, op. cit., p. 120.

¹⁸Eloise Cofer and Bertha Friend, "Trends in the Consumer Price Index for Food During the Past Decade,"
Family Economics Review, (Washington, D. C.: United States Department of Agriculture, June, 1962), pp. 12-15.

TABLE XII

AMOUNT SPENT WEEKLY FOR GROCERIES

Amount	Total Homemakers	Percentage Homemakers	
\$11-15	2	3	
\$16-20	7	10	
\$21-25	17	25	
\$26-30	13	19	
\$31-35	17	25	
\$36-40	7	10	
\$40 and over	3	4	
Do not know	1	1	

23 per cent greater cost in December of 1961 than in January of 1953 when they were first reported in the Consumer Price Index. The 5 subgroups of foods purchased in the grocery store showed a wide diversity of price trend. During the ten-year period the prices of cereals and bakery products rose 22 per cent; retail costs of meats, poultry, and fish were reduced by 7 per cent; dairy products became 8 per cent higher; fruits and vegetables rose 7 per cent higher; and other foods used in the home (beverages, fats, sweets, eggs) cost 6 per cent less. It should be noted that the present study was made in the summer of 1962 and there may be since that time another slight increase or decrease in the consumer price index for food.

week. Using the largest number of the group span to represent the grocery cost, this number was divided by the number in the family to obtain the cost of groceries per person per week. It was found that the most frequent amount spent for groceries per person per week was six dollars. An expense of five dollars was next in frequency and seven dollars third. Because 3 families had spent an undetermined amount over forty dollars and one did not know how much was spent for groceries, there was no way of determining their cost per person per week. Excluding the four families the average spent per person per week was \$6.24. In Van Syckle's study

TABLE XIII

COST OF GROCERIES PER PERSON PER WEEK

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Amount per person per week	Total number of homemakers replying
\$3	and Activity and Activity
\$4	4
\$5	CHARGE AND 1172 PARTY
\$6	27
\$7	10
\$8	5
\$9	3
\$10	2
Do not know	4

in Everette, Washington, in 1953¹⁹, the range was from \$2.24 to \$12.46 per person per week. Young et al. in a study in Rochester and Syracuse²⁰ in 1953 found that the mean and median food expenditure per person per week was roughly seven dollars, slightly higher than in the present study.

The amount spent for groceries by income level is shown in Table XIV. One of those with the highest income was in the same range of grocery spending as the one with the lower incomes. However, the amount of money spent for food by any particular family is not determined entirely by income level. Several factors, such as the number and ages of family members and family values and goals will operate to influence the food expenditure.

Foods budget and adjustment. The question, "If you had to cut your foods cost, in what general area would you cut?" brought replies varying from "I could not cut" to ready answers. More of the reduced grocery expenditures would be in meats, desserts, and snacks. Other answers given in order of frequency were: cookies, soft drinks, frozen foods (by using canned foods instead), and milk. Starchy food groups were mentioned in various ways. One

¹⁹ Van Syckle, op. cit., p. 120.

²⁰ Young, op. cit., p. 430.

TABLE XIV

FAMILIES SPENDING VARIOUS AMOUNTS FOR GROCERIES

BY INCOME LEVEL

Amount Spent	\$3000- 3999	\$4000- 4999	\$5000- 5999	\$6000- 6999	\$7000- 7999	\$8000 <u>-</u> 8999		Tota1
\$11-15		1			1			2
\$16-20			2	3	1			6
\$21-25	1		1	3	6	3	3	17
\$26-30		1		2	4	1	5	13
\$31-35		2	1	3	1	4	6	17
\$36-40				1		1	5	7
\$40-0ve1			and the				3	3
Tota1	1	4	4	12	13	9	22	65*

^{*}One did not know how much was spent for groceries. Another did not know how much income the family received.

remarked that her reductions would be on a little of everything.

IV. NUTRITION

questioned the homemakers on their knowledge of nutrition with a series of questions related to nutritional needs. Later in the interview she questioned their frequency of serving the important groups of foods and compared the two. As in Cameron's study the homemakers in the present study were asked four questions to determine their nutritional knowledge Appendix A. Later in the interview they were asked how often they served the food groups in the Basic Seven. Near the end of the interview they were asked if they were familiar with the term "Basic Seven."

Nutritional knowledge. The information obtained from the questions on nutritional knowledge was scored, using an arbitrary weighting system for questions asked Appendix D7. Twelve points were assigned to the completely answered question "What foods should be included in the family meals each day?" and two points each to their correct answers for citrus substitutes (for oranges, tomatoes, and grapefruit), protein substitutes (for meats), and milk substitutes (for

²¹ Cameron, 1oc. cit.

milk when family members do not care to drink it). The maximum number of points was 18.

Three homemakers had a score of 17-18 on nutritional knowledge (Table XV): 2 of these were home economists. Forty-nine homemakers scored between 11 and 16 points. The greatest number made 11-12 points either because of incompleteness of the foods needed for a day or because of inability to give proper food substitutes for citrus fruits, meat dishes, or milk for drinking. Those who scored quite low were usually rather indifferent or seemed to feel "put on the spot" in that they had insufficient time to think. It was the opinion of the writer that the scores as a whole would be considered high, as might be expected of a group with relatively high educational attainments.

Nutritional practices. The homemakers were given an interview card Appendix C7 on which to indicate how often each week the food groups listed were served in the home. These groups were the Basic Seven groups broken down still further; the highest possible score was 12 Appendix D7. Table XVI, page 53, indicates that 32 of the 67 had a score of 9-10 points and 20 had a score of 11-12 points. Often the homemakers would think in terms of "daily" without thinking how often a day that particular group was served. For example, they often replied that bread was served daily

TABLE XV
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ON NUTRITIONAL KNOWLEDGE

Scores	Total Homemakers	Employed Homemakers	Nonemployed Homemakers
17-18	3		3
15-16	13	2	11
13-14	15	4	11
11-12	21	5	16
9-10	8	3	5
7-8	5	1	4
1-6	2		2

TABLE XVI
DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES
ESTIMATING ADEQUACY OF MEALS SERVED

Scores	Total Homemakers	Per cent of total	Nonemployed Homemakers	Employed Homemakers
11-12	20	30	15	5
9-10	32	48	26	6
7-8	12	18	10	2
5-6	2	3	1	1
0-4	1	1		1

or 7 times a week but would not consider that toast for breakfast, bread in the form of sandwiches, and a hot bread at night made a much higher total. Although they said they served tomatoes (at their peak season of the year) once or twice a day and that orange juice was common for breakfast, they failed to indicate this in totaling their servings for the week. It was of interest to note that the employed homemakers had higher scores for frequency of serving those foods needed daily although they usually had only 2 meals a day served in the home.

The weakest point in the nutritional group practices was the bread group--obtaining the three servings of bread per day. The milk group was low because of the low number of adult servings. Usually the children received the needed amount, but adults received only one glass or only the small amount used in their hot beverage. The children often ate cereals, but cereal was rarely eaten by adults.

Nutritional knowledge compared with nutritional practices. With 12 points assigned to "what should be served daily" and 12 points to "how often a week these were served," Table XVII shows that 4 homemakers knew what should be served and practiced serving them. There was a total of 20 who practiced serving all of what was needed. Thirty-two failed in 2 or 3 food groups of serving what was thought

TABLE XVII

COMPARISON OF KNOWLEDGE OF NUTRITION SCORES

WITH ADEQUACY OF MEALS SERVED

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Adequacy	Knowledge of Nutrition								
of Meals (Points)	0-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	11-12	Tota1			
0-4		1				1			
5-6	1			1		2			
7-8	3		5	3	1	12			
9-10	1	2	11	16	2	32			
11-12	1	5	3	7	4	20			
Tota1	6	8	19	27	7	67			

needed for the family. Seven who knew 9 or 10 of the foods that should be served indicated that they served all 12 of them. Seven knew what should be served daily--20 served what should be served daily. Twenty-seven failed in knowledge of only 2 or 3 of these needed daily servings--32 lacked serving only 2 or 3 of those needed daily servings. It seems that some of the homemakers served more adequate meals than they indicated knowledge of serving.

Knowledge of "Basic Seven." When questioned about the term "Basic Seven," several replied that they were not familiar with it. Rewording it with descriptive phrases such as "pie shaped" or "wheel" they would recall some knowledge of it. Twenty-seven gave answers indicating that they knew what "Basic Seven" meant and 26 were familiar with it (Table XVIII). Fourteen were not familiar with the "Basic Seven." Similarly there were 14 who mentioned half or less of the foods needed for a nutritionally adequate diet (Table XVII, page 55).

Four-fifths of the homemakers in the present study knew or were familiar with the seven basic food groups.

This is higher than reported in many of the other studies. Young in her study of the two cities in New York²² in 1953

²²Young, op. cit., p. 219.

reported that one-third to one-half of the sample gave no evidence of nutritional knowledge. A study by Cameron²³ of Appomattox County, Virginia, in 1951 and a study by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics²⁴ of an urban community of Virginia in 1948 reported the homemaker's knowledge of nutrition. Over 67 per cent of the rural and 50 per cent of the urban Virginia homemakers were classified as having little or no knowledge of nutrition.

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TABLE XVIII
KNOWLEDGE OF BASIC SEVEN

Replies	Total Replies	Percentage	Replies
Yes	27	40	
No	14	21	
Some knowledge	26	39	

Adequacy of meals for the family. The homemakers were asked whether they felt that their meals were adequate for the family. They usually based their affirmative reply on one of the two results: (1) the meals satisfied the family; or (2) the meals were adequately prepared, although some

²³Cameron, op. cit., p. 13.

²⁴Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Homemaker's Acceptance of Nutrition Information in an Urban Community, (United States Department of Agriculture, Mimeograph Report, February 1948).

members of the family rejected some foods because of personal dislikes. Seventy-six per cent said their meals were adequate for the family. Three felt that the foods did not meet the needs of the family; twice this referred only to the children. Thirteen said their meals were usually adequate for the family; once this referred to children only.

The number of homemakers in the present study (76 per cent) who believed that their meals were adequate for the family is less than is reported in Young's study in Rochester and Syracuse, New York²⁵ but higher than is reported in Cameron's study in Virginia.²⁶ Young's study reported that 92 per cent of the homemakers believed their families were getting all the foods they needed. In Cameron's study 61 per cent of adults and 63 per cent of children were reported as having adequate family meals.

V. MEAL MANAGEMENT

An attempt was made in the present study to learn family eating patterns, meal planning patterns, meal-time preparation procedure, meal preparation time, and the frequency of use of certain convenience foods.

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²⁵ Young, op. cit., p. 434.

²⁶ Cameron, 1oc. cit.

Families that eat together as a group. On the assumption that Saturday, Sunday, and the week days have different meal patterns, the homemakers were asked to check which of the three meals on these days were eaten together as a group or family. Table XIX indicates that the evening meal was the meal most frequently eaten together as a family. Breakfast on Monday through Friday was the meal least frequently eaten together. More often, especially in the summertime, this meal was eaten in shifts. Because Sunday morning breakfast was usually served later in the morning, it was more likely to include everyone. All persons at home ate together all of the time in about one-third of the homes.

Family members were away from or skipped meals most frequently at noon on Monday through Friday. Many of those absences from meals were because of jobs which made it inconvenient to return home at that time. Absences during the school year were not considered, since the study was made in the summer.

TABLE XIX

NUMBER OF FAMILIES THAT EAT TOGETHER AS A GROUP

Mea1	Monday-Friday		Saturday		Sunday*	
	No.	- %	No.	%	No.	%
Breakfast	29	43	38	57	43	64
Lunch	35	52	38	57	49	73
Dinner	60	90	63	94	61	91

^{*}For Sunday only, lunch means the evening meal and dinner the noon meal.

Help received with management of meals in the home. The activities associated with preparing, serving, and clearing after a meal were listed, and the homemakers were asked to check whether help was received with them. In only a few areas did the employed homemaker receive more help proportionately than did the nonemployed homemaker (Table XX). Proportionately, the employed homemaker received more help with dishwashing, putting groceries away, and the preparation of food by the daughter or by the maid than did the unemployed homemaker. As a whole, more help was received with the dishwashing and setting the table by all homemakers. Putting the groceries away was the third highest in help received. Eight homemakers owned and used dishwashers. Six homemakers simply replied that no help was received in any area of meal management.

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Time of meal planning. Purchasing food in advance and having it on hand seemed to be the greatest aid to planning meals, since the majority of the homemakers plan at the beginning of the day (Table XXI, page 62). The second largest number plan as they prepare the meal. One homemaker had a weekly pattern which she followed with slight variation from one week to another.

Bases of meal planning. Almost 45 per cent of the families served whatever the family wanted for breakfast.

TABLE XX
HELP RECEIVED WITH MANAGEMENT OF MEALS IN THE HOME

Item	Husb Non.	and Em.	Non.	n Em.	Daug! Non.	hter Em.	Rela Non.		Ma. Non.	id Em.	Tota1
Grocery shopping	19	4	4	1	4	3		1			36
Putting groceries away	15	4	15	7	19	12	1		1		75
Setting the table	7	4	16	7	31	12	1		1		79
Preparation of food	8	1	5	1	13	6	1	1	2	2	40
Serving food up	7	3	3	1	7	5	1		1		28
Storing left-over food	5	2	3	1	7	3	1		2		24
Dishwashing	16	4	13	6	24	10		1	4	4	82
Putting dishes away	7	4	7	2	19	7	1	1	5	1	54

TABLE XXI
WHEN THE HOMEMAKER DECIDES WHAT TO SERVE

Time of planning	Total replies	Percentage	replies
Decide as preparing	17	25	
At beginning of day	26	39	
Few days ahead	11	16	
Week or more ahead	12	18	
Weekly pattern	1	1	

The greater part of the other families had a set pattern for breakfast (Table XXII).

Lunch was "whatever the family wanted" for the greater percentage of the families. "A daily set pattern" was second, as with breakfasts, but closely followed by "whatever is on hand."

Dinner was planned by "what was good for the family."

Many referred to this as being their "balanced meal for the day." Greater emphasis seemed to be placed on this meal, for more of the family members would be present. Planning from "what is on hand"--or those foods already purchased--was second in frequency of planning methods. Special diets, efforts to include variety in the diet, and time factors influenced many homemakers in what they planned for this meal.

The findings of the present study are similar to those of Van Syckle in Everette, Washington²⁷, where breakfasts were not planned but were generally a set pattern or whatever the family wanted. Three out of 4 homemakers in Van Syckle's study planned meals around a meat or a meat substitute. Planning the evening meal around a meat was also mentioned with much frequency in the present sample.

²⁷ van Syckle, op. cit., p. 119.

TABLE XXII
HOMEMAKERS' BASES FOR MENU PLANNING

Bases for Planning	Break	fast	Total I Lur		Dinr	ner
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Left-overs			4	6		
Daily set pattern	27	40	16	24		
What is on hand	2	4	10	15	15	22
What can afford					1	1
What is good for them	3	4	1	1	26	39
What they want	30	45	23	34	10	15
Other (variety, diet, time)	4	6	5	7	13	19

Young's study in Rochester and Syracuse²⁸ reported the homemakers' answers in their own words, but the answers fell into eight categories with "what's good for them" as the most frequent answer to how they decided what to serve. The second most frequent answer was "likes and dislikes" of family members. Young's study did not include a breakdown into the three meals a day as did Van Syckle's or the present study.

Problems of deciding what to serve. How to get variety in menus was the problem confronting homemakers most frequently. Several homemakers expressed problems of planning meals that both pleased the family and provided for adequate nutrition. Food likes and dislikes of the family members hindered both the effort to provide an adequate diet and the effort to give variety to the menus. Other problems suggested were concerned with expense, the amount of time available, the weather, the need for variety in the serving of specific foods groups, and the need for new ideas in general. One homemaker replied that she had no problems. Several could give no specific answer at that moment.

Information and help needed. An open-end question was asked to find in what area or areas of food management the

²⁸ young, op. cit., p. 429.

homemaker felt she needed help or information. The replies were numerous; no one answer was given with much frequency. Six homemakers stated a need for more information on budgeting. Other suggested problem areas included preparing foods to preserve their nutritive value, getting variety into the menu, canning and freezing foods for winter use, planning with special diets, learning where to obtain information, learning cuts of meat and how to serve foods attractively, and improving family eating habits. Several homemakers suggested that they knew where to obtain the needed information but did not make the necessary effort.

Forty (60 per cent) gave a reply to the question on their need for information and help. Of the homemakers in the Rochester and Syracuse studies by Young²⁹, only 33 per cent or about half as many as in the present study, expressed their need for information about planning, and about buying and preparing foods.

Meal preparation time. Breakfast preparation time was only the time required to prepare the first breakfast in homes where the families ate in shifts. Since employed homemakers did not always prepare meals, there is not always the total of fifteen replies. As can be seen in Table XXIII, the

²⁹Young, op. cit., p. 431.

TABLE XXIII
TIME FOR BREAKFAST PREPARATION

TOW.

Time Minutes	Total Re	plies %	Nonemployed Homemakers	Employed Homemakers
5-10	2	3	2	
11-15	14	21	9	5
16-20	20	30	13	7
21-25	7	10	6	1
26-30	21	31	19	2 .
31-45	3	4	3	

preparation time for breakfast ranged from 5-45 minutes. Twenty-six to 30 minutes was the time used by 21 homemakers and 16-20 minutes was the time used by 20 others. This would place the average breakfast preparation time between 16 and 30 minutes. The employed homemakers used less time proportionately than did the nonemployed homemakers: the same was true for lunch when it was prepared in the home.

Three time spans were of equal frequency in the preparation time of lunch (Table XXIV, page 69). These were 11-15, 16-20, and 26-30 minutes. Three homemakers spent more than 45 minutes in the preparation of lunch; for them, however, lunch was the main meal of the day.

Dinner was the most time-consuming meal, requiring from about 30 minutes to more than an hour and a half.

Approximately an hour was the most frequent time span

(40-70 minutes) as shown in Table XXV, page 70.

VI. USE OF CONVENIENCE FOODS

Several studies have included a report of the frequency of the use of convenience foods by the homemaker and the reasons given for using them. In the present study the section on convenience foods was designed to include frozen dinners, desserts, vegetables, and other items that aid in faster meal-time preparation; canned soups, biscuits, and mixtures of vegetables or meat and vegetables; and other

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Time		Replies	Nonemployed	Employed
Minutes	No.	% *	Homemakers	Homemakers
5-10	6	9	6	
11-15	16	24	12	4
16-20	16	24	15	1
21-25	2	3	1	1
26-30	16	24	14	2
31-45	3	4	2	1
Over 45	3	4	2	1

^{*}Figured on basis of sixty-seven homemakers. Not all employed homemakers prepared lunch.

Time	Total R		Nonemployed	Employed
Minutes	No.	%	Homemakers	Homemakers
-30	4	6	4	
31-40	2	3	1	1
41-50	7	10	4	3
51-60	29	43	20	9
61-75	11	16	9	2
76-90	9	13	9	
Over 90	5	7	5	

quickly prepared items, such as prepared cereals, instant coffee, minute rice, and instant potatoes.

Frequency of serving baked products. Table XXVI summarizes the frequency of serving baked products whether made from the original ingredients at home or from a prepared mix. The products prepared from the mix listed in descending order of frequency were pancakes, cakes, biscuits, icings, cookies, puddings, pastry, yeast rolls, and muffins. Twenty per cent of the homemakers replied that they served cookies daily. Only about 12 per cent served biscuits daily. Pancakes and cakes were reported by 37 per cent of the homemakers as served one to two times a week. Biscuits were served one to two times a week by about 33 per cent of the homemakers. Muffins was lowest on the list of baked products reported served by the homemakers: 40 per cent of the homemakers served them sometimes; 20 per cent, never.

Frequency of serving baked products prepared from the prepared mixes. The total number of homemakers (Table XXVII, page 73) using a prepared mix (whether always, usually, or sometimes) indicates that pancake mix was the most often used and icing mix the least used. Ranging between these two extremes, from higher frequency of replies to lower frequency of replies, were puddings, cakes, yeast rolls, muffins, biscuits, pastry, and cookies. Pancakes were

TABLE XXVI
FREQUENCY OF SERVING BAKED PRODUCTS

Item	Total Replies	Dai	1у	1-2 wee		3-4 wee		Some	etin	nes	Nev	er		tal ving
BLUE B		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.		%	No.	%	No.	
Biscuits	65	8	12	22	33	14	21	18		27	3	5	62	93
Yeast Rolls	55	4	6	18	27	7	10	18		27	9	13	46	69
Muffins	49			7	10	1	2	27		40	14	21	35	52
Cakes	65			25	37	. 4	6	35		52	1	2	64	96
Cookies	61	14	21	11	16	13	19	21		31	2	3	59	88
Pancakes	67			25	37	4	6	38		57			67	100
Puddings	63			19	28	5	8	34		51	5	8	58	87
Pastry	60	1	2	16	24	3	4	36		54	4	6	54	80
Icings	63			16	24	4	6	40		60	3	5	60	90

^{*}Includes all but the "never" reply.

TABLE XXVII
FREQUENCY OF USING PREPARED MIXES FOR BAKED PRODUCTS

	Tota1	Always		Usually		Somet	Sometimes		er	Tota	11*
Item	Replies	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	Using	Mix
Biscuits	61	11	16	5	8	16	24	29	43	32	47
Yeast Rolls	52	15	22	8	12	11	16	18	27	34	51
Muffins	63	20	30	2	2	13	19	29	43	34	51
Cakes	62	11	16	10	15	28	42	13	19	49	73
Cookies	59	5	8	6	9	15	22	33	49	26	38
Pancakes	66	32	48	9	13	12	18	13	19	53	79
Puddings	59	20	30	13	19	17	25	9	13	50	75
Pastry	58	5	8	10	15	17	25	26	39	32	47
Icings	57	7	10	2	2	14	21	34	51	23	34

^{*}Includes all but the "never" reply.

reported by about 48 per cent of the homemakers as always prepared from the mix. Almost 30 per cent reported that they always used the prepared mixes for muffins and puddings. Almost 40 per cent of the homemakers replied that they used cake mixes only sometimes and about 44 per cent indicated that they never used the biscuit or the muffin mix. Slightly over 50 per cent never used the prepared icings.

The interview schedule form for obtaining the frequency of use of convenience foods Appendix C7 was quite lengthy and was used near the end of the interview. For these reasons the writer feels that possibly the homemakers did not wish to take any more time with the interview and simply answered in part rather than completely. The total number of replies is given in the left of the tables but the percentages are figured on the basis of 67 possible replies.

Frequency of serving convenience foods besides prepared mixes. Over two-thirds of the homemakers (Table XXVIII)
reported serving prepared cereals, canned soups, frozen
green vegetables, canned biscuits, and meat pies with some
degree of frequency. Many of these were served daily or at
least once or twice a week; frozen meat pies and canned
biscuits, however, were more frequently indicated as items
served only sometimes. Only 6, or less than one-tenth, of

TABLE XXVIII FREQUENCY OF USE OF CONVENIENCE FOODS OTHER THAN PREPARED MIXES

Item 1	Total Replies	Dai	1у	1-2 wee		3-4 wee		Somet	imes	Nev	er	Tot	tal ving*
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Frozen Soups	60			1	2	1	2	15	22	43	64	17	26
F. Meat Pies	64			3	2 4	1	2	41	61	19	28	45	67
F. Dinners	62							17	25	45	67	17	26
F. Dessert Pies	64			7	10			45	67	12	18	52	76
F. Mixtures** F. Vegetables	66			1	2			5	8	48	72	6	9
Green	64	4	6	26	39	11	16	16	24	7	10	57	85
Yellow	56	1	2	17	25	3	4	19	28	16	24	40	60
Potatoes	51	1	2	5	8	4	6	16	24	25	37	26	39
Canned Soups	62	1	2	24	36	15	22	17	26	5	8	57	85
C. Mixtures***	62			10	15	5	8	27	40	20	30	42	62
Canned Biscuits		3	5	9	13	5	8	30	45	15	22	47	70
Prepared Cereal	s 67	23	34	8	12	23	34	12	18	1	2	66	98
Instant Coffee	64	18	27	2	2	7	10	16	24	21	31	43	64
Minute Rice	62			11	16	3	4	28	42	20	30	42	62
Instant Potatoe	s 62			3	4			16	24	43	64	19	28

^{*}Includes all but the "never" reply.

**Chop suey, macaroni, spaghetti.

***Stew, chili, spaghetti.

Instant coffee, minute rice, canned mixtures (stew, chili, spaghetti), and frozen yellow vegetables were served by slightly less than two-thirds of the homemakers: most often they were served only sometimes.

vegetables was not as good as that of canned. The frozen vegetables were grouped as green, yellow, and potatoes. They were used with more frequency in the order in which they were listed--85 per cent of the homemakers used frozen green vegetables, 60 per cent used frozen yellow vegetables, and 39 per cent used frozen potatoes. Often the homemakers had to be reminded of the forms of frozen potatoes before they recognized that they used them.

The homemakers often felt that if the product had been used even twice then it should be checked as being used sometimes. Frequently they mentioned their having tried the product and not having been pleased with it; in that case, they were encouraged to indicate the item as never being used.

It seems that the percentages under "never" were lower in the present study than reported by Methany et al. who used "occasionally" instead of "sometimes" in their

interview form.³⁰ Eighty-nine per cent in that study never used frozen mixtures, 82 per cent never used frozen soups, and 81 per cent never used frozen dinners, as compared with the present study which shows a lower number not using these items: 72 per cent (frozen mixtures), 64 per cent (frozen soups), and 67 per cent (frozen dinners). Instant potatoes were added to the present study: 24 per cent of the homemakers used them only sometimes.

Reasons for using convenience foods. The homemakers were questioned as to why they used convenience foods in general or why they did not use them. That they save time in meal preparation was the reason most often indicated for using convenience foods; that the family preferred the homeprepared product was the reason most often indicated for not using convenience foods.

³⁰ Methany, loc. cit.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A stratified random sample of homemakers of the General Greene School District of Greensboro, North Carolina, was studied to learn of their food practices. Of the 76 homemakers in the sample, 67 were interviewed; there were 2 who declined interviews, one who did not qualify for the study, and 6 who had moved out of the area.

The purpose of the study was to obtain a description of today's homemakers' practices in feeding their families. It was designed to obtain information with regard to the homemaker's knowledge of nutrition; the relationship of this knowledge to the feeding of her family; and the problems and practices of the homemaker in regard to planning, purchasing, and preparing food for her family.

The most frequent sources of information on grocery shopping, and equal in their frequency, were (1) relatives and acquaintances, and (2) newspapers. Magazines and cookbooks were almost equal as being the next most frequent source of information. When high school classes, college classes, and home demonstrations are referred to as "formal training," only slightly more than one-third of the homemakers had received formal training on food buying.

Cookbooks were the most frequent source of information of food preparation. Classes in high school were the second most frequent source, and relatives and acquaintances third. High school and college classes had been a source of information for about two-thirds of the homemakers.

Cookbooks outnumbered high school classes as a source of information for nutrition. Magazines were third in frequency of offering nutrition information to the homemakers.

Considering the frequency of cookbooks, magazines, and printed materials as sources of information in all three areas, one might conclude that it is important that they offer accurate and thorough information on nutrition and on grocery-shopping.

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Ninety per cent of the homemakers did their own grocery shopping. About 4 per cent of the homemakers had their husbands do the shopping and in 6 per cent of the situations the husband and wife did it together. The grocery shopping by 97 per cent of the homemakers was usually done in a chain store. Only 13 per cent of the homemakers sometimes shopped in a locally-owned store.

The nonemployed homemakers used a complete grocery list for a guide in their grocery shopping with greater frequency than did the employed homemakers. Of the total number of homemakers in the study, 42 per cent made a complete grocery list before grocery shopping and 34 per cent

made no list. Ten per cent of the homemakers made a short list and then chose at random the rest of the grocery items.

Thirty-one per cent of the homemakers employed the use of a foods budget. For most of the homemakers the amount spent for food had been established through weekly experience. The most frequent amount of money spent for groceries per person per week was six dollars. Five dollars per person per week was the second most frequent amount spent for groceries. Because the homemakers appeared to be overly conservative in their estimation of weekly spending (indicated in spans of five dollars), the upper limit of each five-dollar span was used to estimate an average. This average was \$6.24 per person per week.

Forty per cent of the homemakers knew the Basic Seven daily guide to adequate meals. Thirty-nine per cent had some knowledge of it. This amount of familiarity with the Basic Seven is relatively high, as might be expected of this population with its higher educational level.

Four of the 67 homemakers knew the foods that should be served daily and practiced serving them, although 3 with the same knowledge served only some of them. A total of 20 practiced serving what was needed daily. The homemakers seemed to serve more nutritionally adequate meals than their nutritional knowledge indicated they knew to do.

Dinner was the meal most frequently eaten with all of the family together. Meals were eaten away from home or

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About 39 per cent of the homemakers planned their meals at the beginning of the day. Purchasing foods in advance and having them on hand was their greatest aid in planning meals. Twenty-five per cent of the homemakers worked out their menu as they prepared the meal.

About 45 per cent of the homemakers did not plan their breakfasts. Breakfast for them was whatever the family wanted. About 40 per cent of the homemakers had a daily set pattern for breakfast. For lunch about one-third of the homemakers served what the family requested. About one-fourth had established a daily pattern to follow. Dinner was planned by what was judged good for the family by 39 per cent of the homemakers. Many of the homemakers referred to this as their "balanced meal for the day." Twenty-three per cent of the homemakers planned by what was on hand. Such factors as time, special diets, and efforts to get variety in the meals influenced the menus of about 20 per cent of the homemakers.

Several problems concerning what to serve for meals were reported by the homemakers: how to get variety in the meal, how to plan meals to fit the likes and dislikes of the family members, how to keep within the foods budget but serve good meals, and how to get new ideas for serving the same old foods.

The average time required to prepare breakfast was between 16 and 30 minutes. For lunch the average time spent in preparation was between 16 and 25 minutes. About 25 per cent of the homemakers required the time in each of three time-spans of 11-15 minutes, 16-20 minutes, and 26-30 minutes. The preparation time for dinner averaged between 40 and 75 minutes; the average requirement was an hour.

pancake mix was the commercial mix used most frequently by the homemakers. About 48 per cent of the homemakers reported that they always prepared pancakes from the commercial mix. Almost 30 per cent of the homemakers reported using the mixes for their muffins and puddings.

About 40 per cent used cake mixes only sometimes, and slightly over 50 per cent never used the prepared icings.

Over two-thirds of the homemakers reported serving prepared cereals, canned soups, frozen green vegetables, canned biscuits, and meat pies with some degree of frequency. Many of these were served daily or at least once or twice a week; frozen meat pies and canned biscuits, however, were

more frequently indicated as items served only sometimes. Instant coffee, minute rice, canned mixtures, and yellow vegetables were served by slightly less than two-thirds of the homemakers; in most cases they were served only sometimes. Instant potatoes were never served by 64 per cent of the homemakers; 24 per cent used them only sometimes. The reason most frequently given for using convenience foods was that they saved time in meal preparation. That the family preferred the home-prepared product was the reason most often stated for not using convenience foods.

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CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TEACHING OF FOODS AND NUTRITION

There are implications in the present study for the teaching of foods and nutrition in many fields. The food demonstration worker may see implications for specific needs in her field, as will the Home Economics Agent, the journalist, the research worker, and the teacher.

The homemaker's problem of deciding what to serve for meals was frequently influenced by the likes and dislikes of various members. There appeared to be a conflict between planning meals that pleased the family and meals that also provided adequate nutrition. Since food habits are established early in life, this implies a need for teaching good food selection at an early age. Nutrition education should be continuous because nutritional needs and food habits change with age. In home economics classes, the students need to be introduced to new foods and encouraged to broaden their food likes. Nutritive needs are more readily met when the diet consists of a variety of foods.

Four of the 67 homemakers served those foods which they said should be served daily. The food plans developed as a guide to daily nutritionally adequate meals, such as the Basic Seven or the Basic Four groups, should be stressed in both knowledge and practice. That the three meals for

when instructing groups in meal planning, whether the groups do advanced planning or make impromptu decisions about menus. Class assignments should provide for the practical application of these to daily meals. It is the homemaker's responsibility to plan and prepare meals to insure good nutrition for the entire family. This responsibility becomes even greater as more and more people eat the noon meal away from home.

Many of the homemakers seemed to feel at a loss when asked for substitutions for citrus fruits, for substitutions for complete protein dishes, and for various ways of including milk in the diet other than drinking it. This demonstrated a need for the knowledge of more alternatives that may be used for the specific foods. For example, it is important to know that deep green, leafy, and yellow vegetables must be included in the diet and some foods which might be substituted for those most commonly used. Using meat substitutes, or combinations of plant and animal protein, may be a means of reducing grocery expenditures. This information might be presented to the people by various means, whether they be of a formal educational type or simply a pamphlet from the milk company or an article published in the local newspaper.

Homemakers' shopping practices vary from the pattern of using a complete grocery list to that of using no list.

With the multiplicity of goods and services available, only the informed consumer can get the maximum value for her food dollar. Today's homemakers have various brands, different grades, and assorted sized packages of the same products from which they must choose. Buying practices will affect food costs. Well-planned marketing may bring about reduced food costs as well as would the critical evaluation of the products available on the market. For these reasons food economics needs to be offered to students in their food educational curriculum or in publicized materials.

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Homemakers varied widely in the time required for the preparation of a meal, perhaps because of poor management which may be improved with education and practice. The factor may also be one of not knowing the time needed for the preparation of foods. The homemaker needs to be aware that under some conditions the nutritive value of foods may be destroyed. She needs to know how to prepare foods so as to preserve nutritive values.

To some homemakers diet problems entered into meal planning. This demonstrates the need for instruction in planning low calorie diets that are nutritionally adequate and for understanding the relationship between adequate nutrition and physical and psychological fitness.

Many of the homemakers indicated that they would buy less of the usually less-nutritious snacks if their grocery

budgets were reduced. It is important that homemakers know and choose nutritious snack foods. Because fruits, raw vegetables, cereals, or milk products contribute more nutritive value and often less calories, they should become the usual snacks in the home.

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Friends and acquaintances, magazines, cookbooks, radio and television, and newspapers were very frequently a source of information to the homemakers. This indicated a need for the homemaker to be prepared to evaluate the information that is received. She needs to know where and how to find accurate information and how to evaluate publicized information. Because relatives and acquaintances were often a source of information to the homemakers, these persons, informed in nutrition, need to know how they may be of help in sharing information with others.

The wide variety of convenience foods on the market is important to homemakers as indicated by their frequent use by homemakers in this study. The cost, quality, and degree of convenience of these products should be considered by the homemaker in making decisions to use them. The decision of the informed homemaker should also include considerations of other possibilities available to her. For example, the homemaker may choose between the home prepared product or the products of the homemade mix or the commercial mix.

The most frequent reason for not using convenience foods was that the family preferred the home prepared products. Creativity with convenience foods is needed. Homemakers may take a convenience food and prepare and serve it in a manner acceptable to the family by applying principles and procedures taught to them in foods classrooms or demonstrations.

Current situations and trends point to the need for an even greater knowledge of foods and nutrition. The understanding of the basic principles would be but a beginning in interpreting new information. Known information is a stepping stone to the future. This stepping stone needs to be firmly implanted by the understanding of the principles and procedures of foods and nutrition of today's homemakers.

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APPENDIXES

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APPENDIX A. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

General Information About the Family -

- 1. How many family members are there? (CARD 2)
- 2. How old are your children? Boys? Girls?
- 3. How many family members are usually present for each of the meals? (CARD 3)
- 4. Place a check beside each of the meals that you usually sit and eat together as a family.
- 5. What type of work does your husband do?

 If you work outside the home, what type of work do you do?

 How long have you been employed?
- 6. Under section II which is the educational level of your husband? You? (CARD 1)
- 7. In section III give the letter of your age group.
- 8. You have received (A) grocery shopping, (B) food preparation, and (C) nutrition information from which of the following sources? (CARD 4)

Level of Nutritional Knowledge -

- 9. What foods should be included in the family meals each day? (CARD 5)
- 10. What might be substituted for grapefruits, tomatoes, and oranges and give the same food value?
- 11. Suggest two foods that might be substituted for lean meat, fish, or poultry.

12. If your family did not care to drink milk, how or from what foods might they obtain the same food value as is in milk?

Shopping Practices and Budgeting -

- 13. Who usually does the family grocery shopping?
 - a. Husband; b. homemaker; c. husband and homemaker;
 - d. homemaker and children; e. other.
- 14. How often is the grocery shopping done?

(Major) f. once a week; g. 2 or 3 times a week; h. twice a month; i. once a month.

(Minor) j. daily; k. 2 times a week; 1. 3 times a week; m. once a week.

- 15. How do you decide what groceries to buy?
 - n. Choose majority of items from sales advertising in newspaper, store;
 - List briefly items needed and choose others on sight in the store;
 - p. Shop without list;
 - q. Look at grocery shelves and then shop from memory of needs;
 - r. Make a complete list of all items before going to the
 store;
 - s. Keep a running list.
- 16. In what type of grocery store do you shop? 1. Supermarket or chain; 2. Locally-owned grocery store or curb market.

- 17. What letter in section IV represents the group in which your weekly grocery cost falls? (Exclude non-grocery items and include the milk bill)
- 18. Is this amount set by a family budget?
- 19. If it was planned in a budget, on what basis was the amount set?
- 20. Do you keep any type of record of expenditures for groceries?
- 21. Under section I of the card, give the letter of the group in which your combined family income of 1961 fell.
- 22. If you were to cut your foods cost, in what area would you cut?

Planning -

- 23. When do you decide what to have for meals?

 t. Work out as preparing; u. one day ahead; v. a few days ahead; w. a week or more ahead; x. other method.
- 24. How do you usually decide what to serve for breakfast? lunch? dinner?
 - a. Plan from left-overs; b. daily set pattern; c. what is on hand; d. what we can afford; e. what is good for them; f. what they want; g. other.
- 25. What are your main difficulties in deciding what to serve?

Nutritional Practice -

26. How often each week do you usually serve these foods?
(CARD 6)

- 27. Do you feel that your family meals are adequate in food values? h. Yes; i. no; j. undecided; k. usually.
- 28. Have you heard of the term "Basic Seven" and what does it mean to you? 1. Knowledge of term; m. no knowledge of term; n. incomplete answer.

Meal Management -

- 29. Indicate, if help is received, who helps you with these.
 (CARD 7)
- 30. Approximately how long do you spend in the preparation of breakfast? lunch? dinner?
- 31. How often do you serve these foods? How often do you use the prepared mixes? (PAPER)
- 32. Why do you, or why do you not, use convenience foods?
- 33. In what area or areas of food management do you feel that you need more information or help?

APPENDIX B

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO HOMEMAKERS

SCHOOL OF HOME ECONOMICS

99

Dear Homemaker,

This is to introduce to you Phyllis Harris, a graduate student in the school of Home Economics at the Woman's College. Miss Harris is making a survey of food practices of homemakers to fulfill the thesis requirements for her Master's degree.

We appreciate the time and help that you are giving to make this study possible. Thank you for a most important contribution.

Cordially yours,

Mary Dickey, Assistant Professor, Foods and Nutrition

APPENDIX C. CARDS FOR RECORDING INTERVIEW INFORMATION

(CARD 1)

SECTION I		30-34 L. 40-44 35-39 M. 45-49	N. 50-54 0. 55-59 P. 60 and over
SECTION II	Q. \$5-10 R. \$11-15 S. \$16-20	T. \$21-25 U. \$26-30 V. \$31-35	W. \$36-40 X. \$40 and over Y. Do not know
SECTION III	A. \$3000-3999 B. \$4000-4999	C. \$5000-5999 D. \$6000-6999	E. \$7000-7999 F. \$8000-8999 G. \$9000 and over

CARD FOR INTERVIEW NO. 1. 2. B G 3. CARD (3) 4. CARD (3)	20. Yes No 21. 22.	
5.	23. (1) (2)	(3)
6. Husband	26. CARD (6) 27Adults	Children
7. 8. CARD (4)	28. 29. CARD (7) 30. B	
13. 14. 15.	D 31 and 32 PAPER	
16.	33.	
18. Yes No		

(CARD 3)

How many family members are usually present for each of these meals?

Monday-Friday	Saturday	Sunday
Breakfast	Breakfast	Breakfast
 Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
Dinner	Dinner	Dinner

And now place a check beside the meals above that you usually sit and eat together as a family.

You land	nave (C) no	recei utrit	ved (A) grocery shion information fr	opping,	(B) the of the	che f	preparation, ollowing
(A)	(B)	(c)	High School	(A)	(B)	(c)	Adult Class
_	100		College Home Demonstratio	n =	\equiv	_	Newspapers Magazines
			Relative and Acquaintances	_	\equiv		Cookbooks Other
		_	Radio Television	List			

(CARD 5)

9. What foods should be included in the family meals each day?

	Servings:	one	two	more
Green and yellow vegetables				
Oranges, tomatoes, or grapefi				
Potatoes, other vegetables &	fruit			
Milk and milk products				
Meat, poultry, fish, and eggs	3			سساه
Bread, flour, cereals				
Butter and margarine				
Desserts				
10. Citrus substitutes				
11. Protein substitutes				
12. Milk substitutes				

How often each week do you usually	serve these foods?
1. Green and yellow vegetables 2. Orange, grapefruit, or tomatoes	Company Company
3. Other fruits 4. Potatoes and other vegetables 5. Raw vegetables	
6. Eggs	
7. Meat, fish, or poultry 8. Breads	
9. Cereals 10. Milk (amount daily) Adults	Children

(CARD 7)

Indicate, if help is received, who helps you with these.

	Husband	Son	Daughter	Relative	Maid
Dishwashing					
Putting dishes away					
Grocery shopping					
Putting groceries away					
Setting the table					
Preparation of food					
Dishing up food		N. W.			
Storing left-over food	Marie Marie				

How often do you serve these foods? How often do you use the prepared mixes?

How often served			Frequency of using prepared mixes						
	Daily	1-2 per week	3-4 per week	Some- times	Never	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never
Biscuits							ALL L		
Yeast rolls									
Muffins									
Cakes									
Cookies									
Pancakes									
Puddings			P-1						
Pastry									
Icings									

	How often served				
	Daily	1-2 per week	3-4 per week		Never
Frozen soups					
Frozen meat pies					n.e.
Frozen dinners					
Frozen dessert pies					
Frozen mixtures*					
Frozen vegetables: Green					
Yellow					
Potatoes					
Canned Soups					
Canned mixtures**					
Canned biscuits					
Ready-to-eat cereal					
Instant coffee					
Minute Rice					
Instant Potatoes					

*Chop suey, macaroni and cheese, etc. **Spaghetti, chili, stew, etc.

Why do you, or why do you not, use	convenience foods?
Do Saves time in preparation	<u>Prefer home-prepared produc</u>
Product turns out better	Costs more Bakery product easier to us
Cheaper Other	Other

APPENDIX D

SCORING GUIDE FOR NUTRITION KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICES
Scoring the Nutritional Knowledge--Correlated with Card 5:

Question related to	Correct answer worth (points)
Green and yellow vegetables	
Oranges, tomatoes, or grapefruit	4
Potatoes, other vegetables & frui	it
Milk and milk products	1
Meat, poultry, fish, and eggs	2
Bread, flour, cereals	14
Butter and margarine	1
Desserts	12 (total)
Citrus substitutes	2
Protein substitutes	2 2 2
Instead of milk to drink	2
	18 (complete total)

Scoring the Nutritional Practices -- Correlated with Card 6:

Question related to	Correct answer worth (points)
Green and yellow vegetables	1
Orange, grapefruit, or tomatoes	1
Other fruits Potatoes and other vegetables	2
Raw vegetables Eggs	1
Meat, fish, or poultry Breads	2 1 ₄
Cereals Milk	$\frac{1}{12}$ (total)