



Snapshots in the Evolution of Family Studies in Ontario, 1897-1989



By Samantha Burbidge, Jessica David, Jennifer Lee and Christina Moura

Introduction

The evolution of education in Ontario has changed over the years largely as a result of social, economic, and political factors. The development of home economics demonstrates this precisely. This report offers snapshots of decades from 1897 to 1989 where significant changes in the home economics curriculum occurred. It examines the changes in the content, administration, and popularity of the subject as a result of both practical and conceptual considerations. Practical lessons largely stemmed from the progressive education movement following WWI, which emphasized learning through doing rather than simply memorizing theory. These practical methods of learning continued throughout the decades as they were beneficial to running a healthy and efficient home. For example, students learned the maintenance of proper hygiene, and how to prepare healthy meals to support good physical and mental health. The content of home economics courses was dependent on the historical context of each respective period. For example, in the late 19th century, germ theory resulted in the introduction of science into practical lessons such as cooking and cleaning.

Conceptual reasons, primary societal attitudes concerning a woman's place in the public and private spheres, also played a crucial role in the evolution and popularity of home economics. Initially, the subject was always taught with a woman's domestic role in mind. The importance of girls taking the subject was dependent on social attitudes. For example, following WWI and WWII, there appeared a greater need for women to enroll in home economics courses and return to their domestic roles. The importance of social attitudes can also be seen in reforms that took place within the subject in the 1970s, when males began to be included in what was now deemed family studies. The courses were less practical and more sociological, centering on the study of families. Immigration and cultural diversity also resulted in a shift from the focus on females, to offering courses where the entire family would benefit. This was beneficial, particularly with new immigrant families arriving to Canada. Based on the development of home economics during the 19th and 20th centuries, it is evident that social factors played a key role in any changes that were made. This stemmed from the content of the courses themselves, which centred on the nature of society and families. At any given time, home economics can therefore be considered a snapshot into Canadian cultural and social identity.

Domestic and Household Science in Ontario, 1897 to 1919



"Cooking Lab" at Lillian Massey Building in Toronto

From: "Celebrate 100 years of International Women's Day: Putting Women on the Map." Status of Women Office at the University of Toronto. Updated March 2011. <http://status-women.utoronto.ca/events/map_IWD.html>

Hypothesis

It was expected that Domestic Science was created in order to introduce a practice and methodology to the tasks of operating a household. However, through study, it is shown that the early curriculum developers of the subject were committed to the health and sanitation of Ontario citizens. Research also shows that this resulted from an increase in industry where women were employed outside of the home. Social reformers were concerned that these women would not be able to maintain proper levels of hygiene and food preparation to ensure that members of their families would not become sick as a result. In addition, by linking a subject in domestic tasks to the field of scientific inquiry would give the new subject legitimacy among other such courses.

Discussion of Sources

Primary Sources

Hoodless, Mrs. J. (1898). *Public School Domestic Science*. Toronto, ON: The Copp, Clark Company, Limited.

This book was instrumental in formulating ideas about the content and motivations for the Domestic Science curriculum in Ontario Schools. This book is the first Canadian published text on a Domestic Science curriculum, and may have been the last as we were unable to locate any other documents, which refer to the material by that nomenclature.

Ontario, Ministry of Education. (1918). *Ontario Teacher's Manuals: Household Science in Rural Schools*. Toronto, ON: W. Briggs.

This text provided an excellent comparison between the curriculum of domestic science and household science. It also illustrates the movement and changing ideas behind providing this education to students, as the text is focused on the rural schoolhouse and providing household science instruction in a rural setting rather than an urban centre.

Ontario. Dept. of Education. (1898). *Report of the minister of education (Ontario) for the year...* Toronto: C. Blackett Robinson.

Ontario. Dept. of Education. (1904). *Report of the minister of education (Ontario) for the year...* Toronto: C. Blackett Robinson.

Ontario. Dept. of Education. (1906). *Report of the minister of education (Ontario) for the year...* Toronto: C. Blackett Robinson.

Ontario. Dept. of Education. (1908). *Report of the minister of education (Ontario) for the year...* Toronto: C. Blackett Robinson.

Ontario. Dept. of Education. (1916). *Report of the minister of education (Ontario) for the year...* Toronto: C. Blackett Robinson.

Ontario. Dept. of Education. (1919). *Report of the minister of education (Ontario) for the year...* Toronto: C. Blackett Robinson.

These documents provided excellent reports, statistics and photographs about the instruction and classroom structure of domestic science classrooms and laboratories. The reports include data on the number of teacher who received qualifications to teach Domestic and Household Sciences. There was also information on the number of schools, which act as centres for the study of Household Sciences, and their respective financial standings.

Secondary Sources

Finkel, A. and Margaret Conrad. (2002). *History of the Canadian Peoples: 1867 to the Present* (Vol. II). Toronto, ON: Pearson Education Canada Inc.

This textbook was useful as it provided a source for creating temporal context. The information is presented clearly. There is a particular section on Schooling and Society, which discussed not only the creation and provision of domestic and household sciences for girls, but also the provision of technical and manual schools for boys in the same period of time.

Pedersen, Diane. (Summer 1987). The Photographic Record of the Canadian YWCA, 1890-1930: A Visual Source for Women's History. *Archivaria*, 24. Retrieved from <http://journals.sfu.ca/archivar/index.php/archivaria/article/view/11412>

The article on photographic records of the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) was an excellent resource. It provided us with images and associated content, which assisted in creating the temporal and historical context of the infancy of domestic science courses given to young workingwomen.

Pedersen, Diane. (1983). 'The Scientific Training of Mothers': The Campaign for Domestic Science in Ontario Schools, 1890-1913. In R.A. Jarrell and A.E. Roos (Eds.), *Critical Issues in the History of Canadian Science, Technology and Medicine* (pp. 178-194). Thornhill, ON: HSTC Publications.

An extremely useful resource for study was the article about 'The Scientific Training of Mothers.' This text provides information about domestic science in a greater societal perspective. The author discusses the legitimization and significance of the label 'science' when attached to the domestic sphere.

Smith, G. and M.L. de Zwart. (2010). Home Economics: A contextual study of the subject and Home Economics teacher education. *Teacher Inquiry articles and reports*, B.C. Teacher's Federation. Retrieved from <http://bctf.ca/publications/TeacherInquirer.aspx?id=14468>

To a lesser extent, the study from the B.C. Teacher's Federation provides assistance for determining the motivations for a domestic science curriculum in Canada. It is useful in that it provides clear and concise factors that played a role in the development of the field of educational study.

Snell, James. (2003). *Macdonald Institute: Remembering the past, embracing the future*. Toronto, ON: Dundurn.

This text discusses the significance of the Domestic Sciences and Household Sciences in relation to the school, the Macdonald Institute, which was instrumental in the development and continuance of the curriculum. The institution housed programs for training young women to become home economics teachers, and offered large spaces and laboratories for the students.

Strange, Carolyn. (Jun 1997). Sin or Salvation?: Protecting Toronto's working girls. *The Beaver*, 77.3, 8-13.

This article is used to assist in illustrating the issue of the single, working class, young woman who would have been a member of the YWCA. It also illustrates the difficulty that the middle-class woman would have had as they sought to negotiate the place for the young women in a rapidly changing time.

Introductory Photo: "Cooking Lab"

"Celebrate 100 years of International Women's Day: Putting Women on the Map."

Status of Women Office at the University of Toronto. Updated March 2011.

<http://status-women.utoronto.ca/events/map_IWD.html>

This photo was taken at the Lillian Massey School which is located in Toronto, and part of the University of Toronto. It was interesting and significant to note that it is not called a cooking class, as one might imagine, but called the cooking lab.

Figure 1-4:

Hoodless, Mrs. J. (1898). *Public School Domestic Science*. Toronto, ON: The Copp, Clark Company, Limited.

Figure 1: The first image represents the title page to Hoodless' manual for educators of the domestic science field.

Figure 2: The second is the table of contents to the manual, which contain the outline of all the information inside the text. This is interesting to note, as the majority of this manual contains information in relation to food specifically.

Figure 3: The third image is a picture, featured in the front of the manual. It represents the ideal of what a kitchen would look like for the Canadian household, and shows the young and happy housekeeper who would look after such a kitchen. She is young, and seems to be enjoying her task of taking care of the kitchen.

Figure 4: The fourth image is the lesson plan to be carried out by the educator of domestic science. It focuses on food as a course of study, and requests that cleaning and other household tasks be taught in addition to this, but provides little instructional assistance.

Figure 5:

Pedersen, Diane. (Summer 1987). The Photographic Record of the Canadian YWCA, 1890-1930: A Visual Source for Women's History. *Archivaria*, 24. Retrieved from <http://journals.sfu.ca/archivar/index.php/archivaria/article/view/11412>

This image of young women working in a domestic science class illustrates that women who took these courses were required to wear uniforms that resemble those of household domestic servants. This image was used to promote the YWCA centres, and also to illustrate that these women were happy in carrying out the function of cooking for people.

Figure 6:

Ontario. Dept. of Education. (1908). *Report of the minister of education (Ontario) for the year...; report of the minister of education (Ontario) for the year...* Toronto; Toronto: C. Blackett Robinson; C. Blackett Robinson.

This figure shows a domestic science laboratory. The image is taken from a report to the Minister of Education, where a large portion of the text reports on the status of the Manual and Domestic Sciences. The image is especially interesting as it features a workspace that resembles the laboratories of other science disciplines. It also illustrates that the girls and teacher are hard at work, conducting their experiments.

Figure 7:

Ontario, Ministry of Education. (1918). *Ontario Teacher's Manuals: Household Science in Rural Schools*. Toronto, ON: W. Briggs.

This image is taken from the table of contents of the Teacher's Manual of Household Science, which illustrates the increase in concentration towards the economy and management of the household. An increase in information on laundry, managing money, and clothing is notable as it indicates a difference in focus from Hoodless' manual for Domestic Science.

Context of Domestic Science in Ontario, 1897 – 1919

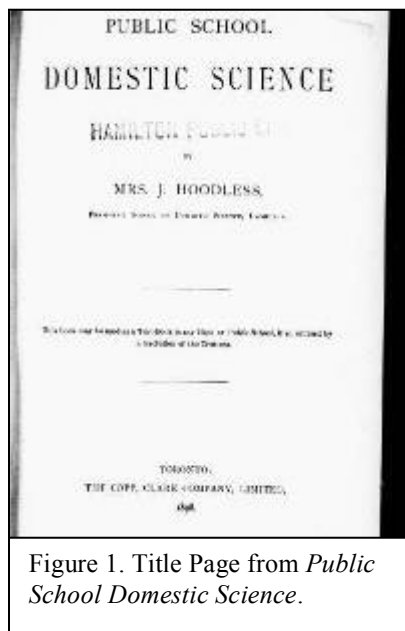


Figure 1. Title Page from *Public School Domestic Science*.

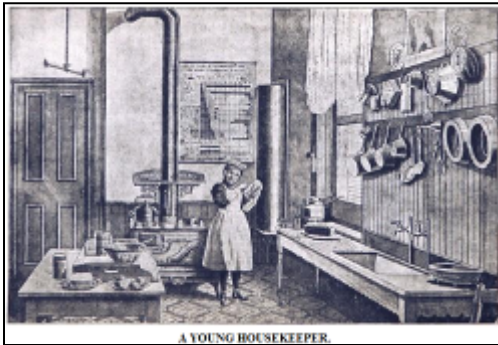
The domestic science curriculum in Ontario was officially introduced in 1897 with the creation of a manual for teachers and students. This manual as seen in figure one, was written by Adelaide Hoodless, the wife of a wealthy furniture manufacturer in Hamilton, Ontario, and was titled *Public School Domestic Science*. As a result of seeing her son die from drinking impure milk, Hoodless became dedicated to the cause of educating women in hygiene and food preservation within the domestic sphere. In the textbook *History of the Canadian Peoples* by Margaret Conrad and Alvin Finkel, they outline the foundations for Hoodless' social reforms, saying that, "Her major causes included domestic science courses in the schools, pure milk legislation, and public health reforms" (Conrad and Finkel 146). It was important to social

reformers to promote that people had good health and hygiene practices, and to teach people the best methods for ensuring this. In the book, *The Macdonald Institute*, which discusses the history of a key school that educated women on the domestic sciences, James Snell outlines the motivations for such and education. He says, "Good hygiene promised substantially improved health for all who practiced it, but first, knowledge of effective hygienic practices must be brought to all households" (Snell 16). It was important to social reformers such as

CONTENTS.		PAGE.
Preface		viii.
Suggestions to Teachers		1.
Composition of Food Materials (optional)		11.
Promoting Economy of Food (optional)		12.
CHAPTER I.		
The Relation of Food to the Body		13.
CHAPTER II.		
Food Classification		14.
CHAPTER III.		
Nutrition		18.
CHAPTER IV.		
Food and Economy		17.
CHAPTER V.		
Food-preserving Methods, or Nitrogenous Matter		22.
CHAPTER VI.		
Food and Oil		24.
CHAPTER VII.		
Carbohydrates, Foods		27.
CHAPTER VIII.		
Fats		31.
CHAPTER IX.		
Preparing Food		33.
RECIPIES:		
Bacon, Pudding and Bread		35.
Boiled		37.
Bacon and Milk Soups		38.
Boiled		39.
Boiled		40.
Boiled		41.
Boiled		42.
Boiled		43.
Boiled		44.
Boiled		45.
Boiled		46.
Boiled		47.
Boiled		48.
Boiled		49.
Boiled		50.
Boiled		51.
Boiled		52.
Boiled		53.
Boiled		54.
Boiled		55.
Boiled		56.
Boiled		57.
Boiled		58.
Boiled		59.
Boiled		60.
Boiled		61.
Boiled		62.
Boiled		63.
Boiled		64.
Boiled		65.
Boiled		66.
Boiled		67.
Boiled		68.
Boiled		69.
Boiled		70.
Boiled		71.
Boiled		72.
Boiled		73.
Boiled		74.
Boiled		75.
Boiled		76.
Boiled		77.
Boiled		78.
Boiled		79.
Boiled		80.
Boiled		81.
Boiled		82.
Boiled		83.
Boiled		84.
Boiled		85.
Boiled		86.
Boiled		87.
Boiled		88.
Boiled		89.
Boiled		90.
Boiled		91.
Boiled		92.
Boiled		93.
Boiled		94.
Boiled		95.
Boiled		96.
Boiled		97.
Boiled		98.
Boiled		99.
Boiled		100.
Boiled		101.
Boiled		102.
Boiled		103.
Boiled		104.
Boiled		105.
Boiled		106.
Boiled		107.
Boiled		108.
Boiled		109.
Boiled		110.
Boiled		111.
Boiled		112.
Boiled		113.
Boiled		114.
Boiled		115.
Boiled		116.
Boiled		117.
Boiled		118.
Boiled		119.
Boiled		120.
Boiled		121.
Boiled		122.
Boiled		123.
Boiled		124.
Boiled		125.
Boiled		126.
Boiled		127.
Boiled		128.
Boiled		129.
Boiled		130.
Boiled		131.
Boiled		132.
Boiled		133.
Boiled		134.
Boiled		135.
Boiled		136.
Boiled		137.
Boiled		138.
Boiled		139.
Boiled		140.
Boiled		141.
Boiled		142.
Boiled		143.
Boiled		144.
Boiled		145.
Boiled		146.
Boiled		147.
Boiled		148.
Boiled		149.
Boiled		150.
Boiled		151.
Boiled		152.
Boiled		153.
Boiled		154.
Boiled		155.
Boiled		156.
Boiled		157.
Boiled		158.
Boiled		159.
Boiled		160.
Boiled		161.
Boiled		162.
Boiled		163.
Boiled		164.
Boiled		165.
Boiled		166.
Boiled		167.
Boiled		168.
Boiled		169.
Boiled		170.
Boiled		171.
Boiled		172.
Boiled		173.
Boiled		174.
Boiled		175.
Boiled		176.
Boiled		177.
Boiled		178.
Boiled		179.
Boiled		180.
Boiled		181.
Boiled		182.
Boiled		183.
Boiled		184.
Boiled		185.
Boiled		186.
Boiled		187.
Boiled		188.
Boiled		189.
Boiled		190.
Boiled		191.
Boiled		192.
Boiled		193.
Boiled		194.
Boiled		195.
Boiled		196.
Boiled		197.
Boiled		198.
Boiled		199.
Boiled		200.
Boiled		201.
Boiled		202.
Boiled		203.
Boiled		204.
Boiled		205.
Boiled		206.
Boiled		207.
Boiled		208.
Boiled		209.
Boiled		210.
Boiled		211.
Boiled		212.
Boiled		213.
Boiled		214.
Boiled		215.
Boiled		216.
Boiled		217.
Boiled		218.
Boiled		219.
Boiled		220.
Boiled		221.
Boiled		222.
Boiled		223.
Boiled		224.
Boiled		225.
Boiled		226.
Boiled		227.
Boiled		228.
Boiled		229.
Boiled		230.
Boiled		231.
Boiled		232.
Boiled		233.
Boiled		234.
Boiled		235.
Boiled		236.
Boiled		237.
Boiled		238.
Boiled		239.
Boiled		240.
Boiled		241.
Boiled		242.
Boiled		243.
Boiled		244.
Boiled		245.
Boiled		246.
Boiled		247.
Boiled		248.
Boiled		249.
Boiled		250.
Boiled		251.
Boiled		252.
Boiled		253.
Boiled		254.
Boiled		255.
Boiled		256.
Boiled		257.
Boiled		258.
Boiled		259.
Boiled		260.
Boiled		261.
Boiled		262.
Boiled		263.
Boiled		264.
Boiled		265.
Boiled		266.
Boiled		267.
Boiled		268.
Boiled		269.
Boiled		270.
Boiled		271.
Boiled		272.
Boiled		273.
Boiled		274.
Boiled		275.
Boiled		276.
Boiled		277.
Boiled		278.
Boiled		279.
Boiled		280.
Boiled		281.
Boiled		282.
Boiled		283.
Boiled		284.
Boiled		285.
Boiled		286.
Boiled		287.
Boiled		288.
Boiled		289.
Boiled		290.
Boiled		291.
Boiled		292.
Boiled		293.
Boiled		294.
Boiled		295.
Boiled		296.
Boiled		297.
Boiled		298.
Boiled		299.
Boiled		300.
Boiled		301.
Boiled		302.
Boiled		303.
Boiled		304.
Boiled		305.
Boiled		306.
Boiled		307.
Boiled		308.
Boiled		309.
Boiled		310.
Boiled		311.
Boiled		312.
Boiled		313.
Boiled		314.
Boiled		315.
Boiled		316.
Boiled		317.
Boiled		318.
Boiled		319.
Boiled		320.
Boiled		321.
Boiled		322.
Boiled		323.
Boiled		324.
Boiled		325.
Boiled		326.
Boiled		327.
Boiled		328.
Boiled		329.
Boiled		330.
Boiled		331.
Boiled		332.
Boiled		333.
Boiled		334.
Boiled		335.
Boiled		336.
Boiled		337.
Boiled		338.
Boiled		339.
Boiled		340.
Boiled		341.
Boiled		342.
Boiled		343.
Boiled		344.
Boiled		345.
Boiled		346.
Boiled		347.
Boiled		348.
Boiled		349.
Boiled		350.
Boiled		351.
Boiled		352.
Boiled		353.
Boiled		354.
Boiled		355.
Boiled		356.
Boiled		357.
Boiled		358.
Boiled		359.
Boiled		360.
Boiled		361.
Boiled		362.
Boiled		363.
Boiled		364.
Boiled		365.
Boiled		366.
Boiled		367.
Boiled		368.
Boiled		369.
Boiled		370.
Boiled		371.
Boiled		372.
Boiled		373.
Boiled		374.
Boiled		375.
Boiled		376.
Boiled		377.
Boiled		378.
Boiled		379.
Boiled		380.
Boiled		381.
Boiled		382.
Boiled		383.
Boiled		384.
Boiled		385.
Boiled		386.
Boiled		387.
Boiled		388.
Boiled		3

Hoodless, that women learned the correct way of operating a household and ensuring the health of their families. Hoodless' motivation for creating a text on domestic science is evident in the material that she presents. In *Public School Domestic Science*, Hoodless created a course of study, featured in Figure 2, which includes instruction on food and nutrition, and how to care for children and invalids. This curriculum sought to improve the hygiene and health of the members of a household, through the efforts of the "young housekeeper," such as the one in Figure 3. The textbook contains a section about "Suggestions for Young Housekeepers," where information is provided in regards to dish washing, ventilation and sanitation, laundry or work with clothing. It also provides direction for planning mealtimes in the school for children. Hoodless stated that,

Figure 3. "A Young Housekeeper" from *Public School Domestic Science* by Hoodless. No page number is assigned, but this is located in the front before the table of contents.



An interval of at least half an hour should intervene after meals before any mental exertion is required. Constant nibbling at food between meals should be forbidden; it destroys the appetite, increases the saliva, and interferes with gastric digestion (Hoodless 151).

She also instructed on important components of the lifestyle habits of school children (Hoodless 155). *Public School Domestic Science* specifically outlines instruction on the construction of an infant diet, and for the emergency care of infants. In one section, Hoodless discussed bruises, and advised a

treatment of, "A flannel wrung out of very hot water, and laid on a bruise, relieves the soreness" (Hoodless 164). The textbook also contains information on the planning and serving of meals.

Figure 4. Schedule of Lessons for Public School Classes, page 191 from *Public School Domestic Science*.

SCHEDULE OF LESSONS FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL CLASSES.

LESSON.

- I. Information regarding the conduct of classes. Practice in measuring. Practice in lighting gas-burners and oven. Practice in lighting and regulating a range.
- II. Fruit—Applesauce. Coddled apples. Stewed prunes.
- III. Starch—Boiled rice. Potatoes, boiled and mashed.
- IV. Starch—Thickening liquids with flour.
- V. Starch—Practice in No. 4.
- VI. Vegetables—Onions, cabbage, parsnips, etc.
- VII. Eggs—Boiled eggs. Poached eggs. Toast.
- VIII. Eggs and milk—Boiled and baked custard.
- IX. Flour mixtures—Popovers, griddle cake.
- X. Flour mixtures—Milk biscuits. Corn bread. Apple pudding.
- XI. Bread—Making sponge, kneading, and setting to rise.
- XII. Bread—Moulding and baking.
- XIII. Fish—Boiled and baked fish. Creamed fish and sauce.
- XIV. Review of theory and recipes.
- XV. Meat—Roasting meat. Soup stock.
- XVI. Meat—Stewed meat.
- XVII. Meat—Cold meat and broiling.
- XVIII. Salads.
- XIX. Beans.
- XX. Plain puddings.

Broader Social, Economic and Political Contexts

In order to explore the significance for the creation and development of a domestic science curriculum in Ontario education, it is important to understand the concepts of both domesticity and science. During the latter part of the nineteenth century, a distinction was made between the private, or domestic sphere, and the public sphere. Women were expected to operate in the domestic sphere, whereas men were to inhabit the public sphere of society. The place for a female was considered to be in the home, where she could see to the efficient running and maintenance of her family and of the household. The mother was central to the health and happiness of her family, and it was her role to ensure that their needs were met. At the same time, industrialization continued to grow, and women were increasingly involved in work outside the home and in the public sphere. Diane Pederson, in an article about domesticity and motherhood, claims that, "Young women, they believed, were becoming alienated from home life, abandoning it for positions in the paid labour force" (Pedersen 183 Critical Issues). This caused nineteenth century moral and social reformers to become concerned for the sanctity of the household, specifically in terms of health and hygiene. As science had provided insight into various areas of inquiry, the women concerned with these items could use scientific methodology to assist in the promotion of hygiene and health in the home.

In nineteenth-century Canadian society, scientific thought, research and methodology were considered to be effective in promoting efficiency and good order. Up to this point, science had been a predominantly male pursuit, with new advances in various aspects of technology, medicine and understanding of the world and how it works. One significant advance is in the understanding of disease and how it spreads. In Snell's book on the Macdonald Institute, he speaks about the understanding of germs. Snell claims that, "Germ theory had flourished in the Western world since the early 1880s, when it was proved that a specific bacterium caused tuberculosis" (Snell 15-16). Knowledge of the transmission of germs and bacteria would have been alarming to women who were concerned for the wellbeing of her husband and children. With the advances in medical and scientific knowledge, many women began to become increasingly interested protecting their homes from disease and bacteria. Snell also says that, "Domestic science promised to raise to a new level of prestige the traditional household work of women, by recognizing the complexities of the tasks involved and by subjecting those tasks to scientific scrutiny and understanding (and few words carried more prestige in the twentieth century than "scientific")" (Snell 17).

The development of Domestic Science as a program of study occurred in part as a result of the increasing number of women who were participating in employment outside the home. This was most notable in industrial and urban settings, where they could expect to earn money without working as domestic servants. In 1898, the Minister of Education published a report on the state of Education in the province of Ontario. The report stated that,

Young women enter factories very often immediately on leaving the public school, and, as a consequence have had no training in housekeeping or cooking or the making of garments, all of which are important in domestic life (1898 Ontario Report on Education xxxvi).

This passage illustrates that many women were entering the workplace and were believed to have lost the skill to cook, clean, and care for their children. In fact, “Young women, they believed, were becoming alienated from home life, abandoning it for positions in the paid labour force” (Pedersen Critical Issues 183). This caused a discord in the minds of middle-class women, who were faced with increasing difficulty in employing domestic servants.

By introducing domestic work as a science where one could excel, social reformers sought to encourage women to return to their place in the private sphere. Domestic science aimed to legitimize work done in the home without altering the social order. Additionally, it would serve as a viable option where women could gain suitable employment. Women who wanted to work in the public sphere could gain distinction as domestic science teachers. They would not have to compete with men for positions, and they would be considered experts. Snell claims that,

For such people the domestic science movement was attractive since it gave women an enhanced role and status but did not directly challenge the predominant gender paradigm; in the domestic science movement women were not so much challenging the gendered order but rather working to enhance their role within that order (Snell 16).



Figure 5. Women in a Domestic Science classroom at the YWCA.



Figure 6. Page 572 in the *Report of the Minister of Education* (1908).

The idea of combining scientific processes with the methodology of keeping a house, taking care of a family and ensuring the health of a family provided women with an opportunity to participate in the workplace without challenging the social order. Through the examination of photographs of Domestic

Science in practice, it is evident

that the concept of scientific methodology was important. This can be seen in the layout and setup of a domestic science classroom. In figure 6, it shows the classroom setup in a laboratory style, where students can conduct their experiments, practice their studies, and make observations.

Shortly after the introduction of Domestic Science in the Ontario school curriculum, the term “Domestic” was altered to “Household.” This reflected the growth of the field of studies that centred in the home. In 1908, the field came under attack for being a cookery class that did not effectively teach girls how to cook. In a 1908 report to the Minister of Education, it states that Household Sciences was criticized for being predominantly interested in cooking. In the report, the minister stated that, “Household Science is much more than cookery, but cookery forms an essential part of it” (1908 Report Ministry of Ed 509). Although the field had been specifically designed to encourage young women to participate in homemaking and cooking for families, it became evident that working class women were not interested in participating in the scientific study of the household. According to Pedersen, “Servants [...] demonstrated a marked lack of enthusiasm for the classes while the more popular girls' classes strained the limited financial resources of the organization” (Pedersen Critical Issues 188-189). It was quite costly to provide these courses for women who were not interested in taking them. It became more profitable to recruit middle-class girls and instruct them on the running of a house, household aesthetics, and creating clothing. Social reformers and the new educators in the field of Household Science began to focus on the rural

HISTORICAL COLLECTION	
CONTENTS	
	PAGE
Preface	vii
Three Short Courses in Home-making	1
Introduction	1
A Library on Home Economics for the Rural School	2
Twenty Lessons in the Care of the Home	4
Suggestions to the Teacher	4
Equipment	5
Reference Books	6
Lesson I: Arrangement and Care of the Kitchen	7
Lesson II: Care of Cupboards and Utensils	10
Lesson III: Care of Foods	12
Lesson IV: Disposal of Waste	14
Lesson V: Making Soap	17
Lesson VI: Setting and Clearing the Table	18
Lesson VII: Waiting on Table	21
Lessons VIII and IX: General Cleansing of a Room	23
Lesson X: Care of the Bed-room	25
Lesson XI: Care of Lamps	27
Lesson XII: Prevention of Pests	29
Lesson XIII: Removing Stains, Bleaching Fabrics, and Setting Colours	32
Lesson XIV: Washing Dish-Towels, Aprons, etc.	34
Lesson XV: Ironing	35
Lessons XVI and XVII: Care of the Baby	38
Lesson XVIII: Cost of Food, Clothing, and House	39
Lesson XIX: How to Keep Accounts	39
Lesson XX: Care of the Exterior of the House	41
Reference Books	44
Twenty Lessons in Cooking	45
Suggestions to the Teacher	45
Abbreviations and Measurements	45
Table of Level Measurements	45
Comparisons Between Weights and Measures	45
Reference Books	45
Lesson I: Discussion of Foods and Cooking	50
Recipes	52

Figure 7, “Contents” from *Ontario Teacher’s Manual: Household Science for Rural schools*.

communities, and create texts that would provide instruction to girls. In the report to the Minister of Education in 1919, there is still concern that courses in household science were considered to be only cooking courses, but, as the report indicated, they wished to extend the study to other parts of household maintenance. The report stated that, “[...] many schools are now extending their work and are devoting a certain amount of attention to other features of home life” (Report of the Minister of Education 1919, 43). In 1916, the Ontario Ministry of Education published *Household Science for Rural Schools*. In Figure 7, most notable changes include an increase in focus on the management of the household budget can be seen. Homemaking and the care of the home take up a larger portion of the text compared to *Public School Domestic Science*.

Conclusions

Through the study of textbooks and curriculum documents, photographs and secondary sources, it is evident that the purpose for creating a domestic science curriculum was to encourage hygiene and good health, and to provide a place in Canadian society where women could become professionals without changing the social order of the time. This was in response to the increasing number of women who were entering the work force as labourers in factories with little time for maintaining a home. The curriculum and focus of content in these courses changes over time. It initially addressed the young women in urban and industrial centres, but would change to focus on the rural schoolgirls in Ontario. By 1919, there would be nearly 100 schools offering household science programs in Ontario (Report of the Minister of Education 1919, 43).

Household Science Education in Ontario, 1920-1930



Figure 1 – Household Science students at U of S, 1923

Hypothesis

Initially, we did not expect there to be a great deal of change in household science education in Ontario from its outset to the late 1920's, given that it was still a fledgling subject. Indeed, it was discovered that there was a fair amount of continuity between this period and the period of 1897 to 1919. Reports of the Minister of Education revealed that the initial focus of the household science curriculum remained the same. There was still an emphasis on promoting healthy citizens. This was best illustrated by the preoccupation with the preparation of hot lunches in schools. Also, gender stereotypes continued to inform the education and occupational prospects of female students. However, household science programs also experienced a lot of growth during this time. Due to progressive educational influences, an increasing population and new measures to ensure higher enrolment, there was a great deal of evolution in household science programs throughout the 1920's in Ontario.

Discussion of Sources

Primary Sources

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1920. Ryerson Press. Toronto, 1921.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1921. Ryerson Press. Toronto, 1922.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1922. United Press Ltd. Toronto, 1923.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1923. United Press Ltd. Toronto, 1924.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1924. United Press Ltd. Toronto, 1925.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1925. United Press Ltd. Toronto, 1926.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1926. United Press Ltd. Toronto, 1927.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1927. United Press Ltd. Toronto, 1928.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1928. United Press Ltd. Toronto, 1929.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1929. United Press Ltd. Toronto, 1930.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1930. United Press Ltd. Toronto, 1931.

The primary sources that were utilized for this paper were the annual Reports of the Minister of Education for the province of Ontario from the years 1920 through 1930. These reports provided a lot of insight into the evolution of household science in terms of enrollment, the nature and implementation of the curriculum and teacher education. They were very valuable, as comparing each year demonstrated clear evidence of the change and continuity of the household science program in Ontario during the twenties.

Secondary Sources

Christou, Theodore Michael. (2009). *Parallel Progressivist Orientations: Exploring the Meanings of Progressive Education in Two Ontario Journals, The School and The Canadian School Journal, 1919-1942* (doctoral dissertation). Queen's University. Kingston, Ontario.

This thesis was useful in that it provided good contextual information about the Progressivist educational movement in Ontario and how progressive thinking was directly applied to the teaching of household science.

De Zwart, Mary Leah and Gale Smith. (2010). *Home Economics: A Contextual Study of the Subject and Home Economics Teacher Education.* (A BCTF PQT/ Teacher inquiry project). Retrieved October 27, 2012, from, bctf.ca/thesa/pdf/inquiry_contextual.pdf

This report provides a lot of insight into how household science was taught and the motivations behind curricular changes that occurred during the twenties era. It was useful in terms of showing how progressive education directly influenced household science curriculum.

Hughes, V. (2006). Women in Public Life: The Canadian Persons Case of 1929. *British Journal of Canadian Studies*, 19.2, 257-1.

This article offers an explanation of the famous ‘Persons Case’ of 1929 and the impact of the First Wave Feminist Movement in Canada towards the end of the twenties. It was useful in that it provided good contextual information about the social plight of Canadian women during the period. I used this information to draw connections between the social conditions of Canadian women in the twenties and why it was emphasized in Ontario schools that household science was essential knowledge for young girls.

Senn, Patricia A. (1998). *Beyond Survival: Family Studies and Technological Education* (doctoral dissertation). University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario.

This thesis examines the history of family studies in Canada and why such programs have been historically significant. I used this information to draw connections between social, economic and political happenings in the twenties and the ways in which the household science program was implemented in Ontario and why it was considered important.

Strong-Boag, Veronica. (1979). The Girl of the New Day: Canadian Working Women in the 1920's. *Labour/Le Travail*, 4, 131-164.

This article was useful as it provided good insight into the plight of working women in Canada in the 1920's. The author provides a clear picture of the lack of viable career options available to young women upon the completion of their education. I used this information to draw a connection between female job prospects and the emphasis placed on the importance of household science education for girls in school.

Zacharakis, Jeff. (2008). Extension and Community: The Practice of Popular and Progressive Education. *New Directions for Adults and Continuing Education*, 117, 13-23.

This article provides insight into the concept and application of ‘progressive’ education. This information was useful in terms of giving context to the progressive educational movement that was happening in Ontario schools during the 1920's.

Images and Media Sources

Figure 1

University of Saskatchewan - College of Home Economics. *Household Science Classroom at the University of Saskatchewan, 1923* [photograph] Retrieved from <http://homeeconomics.usask.ca/history.html>

This photograph shows a household science class at the University of Saskatchewan in 1923. It is useful as it gives the reader a sense of what a typical classroom may have looked like at the time, helping them to visualize the classes and classrooms being discussed throughout this section.

Figure 2

Briggs, William. (1918). Ontario Teachers' Manuals: Household Science in Rural Schools. Toronto. *Fig. 34. – Household science equipment with drop-leaf table* [photograph]. P. 161.

This photograph shows the setup of the basic household science equipment used in rural Ontario schools in the twenties.

Figure 3

The Pratt Institute. (1923) *A dressmaking workroom at Pratt Institute* [photograph]
Retrieved from
<http://www.flickr.com/photos/prattinstitutelibraries/6166026301/>

This photograph shows a class of female students in a dressmaking workroom, sewing and pinning clothing on dress forms. It is useful as it shows the typical sewing equipment used in household science classes in the twenties. By featuring students pinning material on dress forms it also illustrates the practical applications of sewing being taught in schools.

Figure 4

Archives Canada. *Women packing olives for McLarens, Hamilton, Ont, c. 1920s*
[photograph] Retrieved from
<http://www.thecanadianencyclopedia.com/articles/women-in-the-labour-force>

This photograph shows uniformed women sitting around a table packing olives. It is useful as it demonstrates the dull and tedious nature of most typical occupations available to women during the twenties.

Context of Household Science Education in Ontario, 1920-1930

During the nineteen twenties, a clear evolution of the Ontario educational system occurred. This evolution can mainly be seen in the increased enrollment and attendance rates in elementary and secondary schools, the increased production and maintenance of school buildings and equipment, and the introduction of a more progressive curriculum. Consequentially, household science education in Ontario evolved and progressed along the same lines.

Attendance and enrolment rates in Ontario schools greatly increased during the twenties. This can be attributed to two factors: a steadily increasing Canadian population following WWI and the implementation of the Adolescent School Attendance Act in 1921. According to Statistics Canada, the population of the country increased by almost 2 million residents between 1920 and 1930. This increase was reflected in the population growth of Ontario, with the number of provincial residents increasing from 2,933,662 in 1921 to 3,431,683 in 1931. A growing population meant an increase in the potential number of students in Ontario. To ensure that these students were enrolled in, and attending school, the Adolescent School Attendance Act was introduced. The Act aimed to extend the period of mandatory education for youth to the age of sixteen and to enforce more regular attendance (Report of the Minister of

Education 1922, xi). It was largely a success. For example, in 1920 there had been 357,997 students enrolled in Ontario elementary schools (Report of the Minister of Education 1921, viii). In just one year, after the implementation of the Attendance Act, this number increased to 585,213 (Report of the Minister of Education 1922, vii). The pattern continued throughout the decade and by 1927, there were 623,231 elementary students enrolled in Ontario (Report of the Minister of Education 1927, vii). Given this success, response to the Act from all government and educational authorities was positive.

The increasing number of students led to an increase in the number of schools in Ontario. By the end of 1921, 100 more elementary schools were built bringing the total number in the province to 6,901 (Report of the Minister of Education 1923, vii). By 1923, Ontarians could “scarcely pick up a newspaper published in any part of the Province without reading an account of the opening of some new educational institution” (Christou, 18). The construction of new schools helped to increase the number of household science programs in Ontario elementary and secondary schools. New schools were constructed to include household science classrooms, or at the very least, appropriate space to hold the necessary household science equipment within the traditional classroom. The ideal physical setup of a household science program was outlined in a 1920 Report of the Minister of Education. It stated that,

The ordinary rooms of a house are supplied in the school building... in this way a successful attempt is being made to remedy the somewhat artificial conditions that have hitherto been obtained and to reproduce as far as may be possible in school the actual conditions of the home (Report of the Minister of Education 1920, 64).

Elaborate setups like this were more commonly achieved in urban schools, as they housed a greater population of the province’s students and thus benefitted from more funding (Report of the Minister 1920, ix). If urban schools were not able provide their own facilities, the ‘center system’ of instruction was utilized. This entailed equipping centrally located schools with all the necessary household science resources and materials. Then, students from other nearby schools would come to the central school at a designated time to use the facilities.

The need to share facilities was later eliminated in 1925, due to the increasing popularity of the rotary system (Report of the Minister of Education 1925, 25). Rural schools were typically not as well

Figure 2 – Household science equipment (small oil burning stove, cupboard and supplies)



FIG. 34.—Household Science equipment with drop-leaf table

equipped as urban schools. They typically did not have separate designated household science facilities. In most rural schoolhouses, a small oil stove and a cupboard for storing cooking utensils, such as those illustrated in figure 2, were located in one area of the classroom (Report of the Minister of Education 1925, 26). Students would then supply their own cups, plates and utensils, as well as some of the foodstuffs needed for cooking instruction (Report of the Minister of Education 1920, 64). Later, by 1928, all urban and rural schools were also supplied with illustrative materials concerning food preparation, charts showing the chemical composition of various foodstuffs, and government bulletins regarding food safety (Report of the Minister of Education 1928, vii).

As new schools were built and equipped, the number of household science programs in Ontario sharply increased. In 1920 the Report of the Minister of Education stated that, "Five years ago we had scarcely a school in the Province where household science was taught... now there are approximately 200 secondary schools where the subject is taught in an elementary but efficient way" (Report of the Minister of Education 1920, 61). By 1921, following the enactment of the Attendance Act, the subject was taught in 108 additional secondary schools (Report of the Minister of Education 1921, 47) and towards the end of the period this number increased to 899 secondary schools (Report of the Minister of Education 1928, 43). However, the integration of household science into the already established curriculum was a difficult process. Some regarded household science as an "extra" course. From the beginning, it struggled with this perception of being a "frill" subject that many considered "unnecessary in an already overcrowded curriculum" (Senn, 50). Several schools complained that they already had too many subjects and that there was no time to cover any more, refusing to implement the program. Even schools that did implement household science observed that something else needed to be omitted from the curriculum in order to really give the subject the time it needed. However, household science "forced its way by merit, not compulsion," into an increasing number of schools, (Report of the Minister of Education 1920, 65) thanks to its beneficial effects on the physical and mental health of students and school morale (Report of the Minister of Education 1922, 63).

Indeed, household science was very valuable, especially considering that the subject gained popularity in Ontario at a time when progressive education reigned supreme. Following WWI, Ontario's curriculum began to be influenced by progressive educational ideas (Christou, 8). The previously devised humanist curriculum, which emphasized passive forms of learning, like memorization, wasn't applicable to the changes that had occurred in Canadian society following the war (Christou, 82). Progressive education was concerned with learning by doing, rather than through passive absorption, and applying theoretical learning in practical ways (De Zwart et al., 20). A Report of the Minister of Education in 1928 emphasized this, stating that, "The training of character and... fitness for actual life... are the first importance in education." This new progressive curriculum was, "a many-sided effort to use the school to improve the lives of individuals" (De Zwart et al., 20). Training in household science was certainly a way to do this. One school inspector reiterated this, stating that, "The work [in household science] is assuming a practical character and articles for use in the home

and the school now predominate... a large quantity of useful educative work is being done" (Report of the Minister of Education 1920, 64).

Progressivist influences on household science curriculum can best be seen in the preoccupation with the preparation of hot lunches in rural schools throughout the twenties. The 1921 Report of the Minister of Education stated that, "The best method of approach to Household Science in the Rural School is through the medium of the hot noon-day lunch." Since many rural students lived far away from their respective schools the only food they had for the day was the cold lunches that they brought from home each morning. This was not conducive to the promotion of good health. When students brought their lunches they could eat them where and how they pleased. Often this involved rushing through their food because they wanted to play. Other times they did not eat at all because their food had been improperly packed and had absorbed the taste of the tin pail in which it was carried. Due to these conditions, students were thought to be receiving inadequate nutrition. "It is necessary, for both their physical and their mental development, that they should receive adequate nourishment served as attractively as possible," reported one school inspector (Report of the Minister of Education 1921, 48). Health matters represented the most pressing reason for relating schools to society (Christou, 58). As Frederick Minkler from the Ontario College of Education noted, "physiological needs—health and happiness—are the first concern of the progressive school" (Christou, 27). Fittingly, a monetary incentive in the form of a \$10 grant was afforded to schools providing at least one hot dish to students at lunch (Report of the Minister of Education 1921, 63). It was the responsibility of the household science class to prepare these hot dishes.

However, cookery was not the only practical application of the Ontario household science curriculum. In 1920, one school inspector observed that, "For many years the tendency was to regard Household Science as consisting of cookery only, but now that conception is broadening and instead of the kitchen and the stove being considered as the unit, the activities of the whole house are being considered" (Report of the Minister of Education 1920, 64). This included activities like bed making, table setting, laundry, simple first aid, shopping and sewing. Sewing and needlework in particular were becoming increasingly introduced into schools. Students were directed in the actual making of garments rather than merely practice stitching. This allowed them to

Figure 3 - A dressmaking workroom at Pratt Institute, showing students sitting around tables sewing and pinning clothing on dress forms. Inscribed on reverse: 'Dressmaking Workroom, 183 Willoughby Avenue, 1923.'



really see the application of the new skills they were learning. Student in secondary schools were also taught to assume responsibility for the management of the household. This entailed all of the above-mentioned skills as well as the economic responsibilities of running a household and the “mechanical operations necessary in the daily routine of housekeeping” (Report of the Minister of Education 1927, 42).

Broader Social, Economic and Political Contexts

In the 1920's there was a widely held belief that Canadian women were the cornerstones of the family unit. As mentioned in the previous section, the nation's greatness was believed to be dependent upon the maintenance of this unit and much of this work fell to women (Senn, 45). Because of this belief, there was an overwhelming consensus among most Canadians that the place of women was in the home and not in the public sphere. The Ontario curriculum reinforced this notion, setting out courses for male and female students along sexually stereotyped lines. For example, the 1919 Technical Education Act maintained an official interest in promoting domestic service careers for all girls. This was part of an earlier discriminatory pattern of female education (Strong-Boag, 135). From its origins, household science had indeed been viewed as education solely for female students, preparing them for their future destinies as homemakers, wives and mothers. As previously mentioned, the program was even cast within a homemaking model. It was believed that training girls for their domestic roles would contribute to the aforementioned making of strong families and good citizens (Senn, 46).

During the Great War, many women left the home and entered the public sphere, joining the workforce to help with production on the home front. However, upon the soldiers' return from Europe at the end of the war, many women vacated their positions and went back to the home. Given the deeply entrenched societal expectations of women, a long-term career in the public sphere was not the desire of the majority of

females at that time. In the 1920s, love and marriage were the goals for women set out by society (Strong-Boag, 157). Even if they were part of the workforce at some point in their lives, women were expected to stop and to care for their husbands and families once they were married. For those that did want to work, there were many obstacles to gainful employment, as the workplace was riddled with inequality. Professional women constituted a small atypical minority of the workforce and the fate of most working women was non-professional employment, usually in domestic service or clerical work.



Figure 4 – Women packing olives on an assembly line

Such jobs were characterized by low wages, irregular work, dull tasks and a tendency towards transiency (Senn, 145). Additionally, between 1921 and 1931 Canadian women only earned between 54% and 60% of male wages (Senn, 146). Such conditions reflected the fact that the great majority of Canadian citizens supported and employed socialization practices, which consigned each sex to different duties (Senn, 136). This socialization started in schools with the aforementioned selective programming, and such stereotyping effectively eliminated better “male” occupations from serious consideration for girls.

Although, the first wave feminist movement did make many gains in the twenties. Women in most provinces had obtained the right to vote in the immediate aftermath of the war and they then set out to build on that right. However, the political position of women in Canadian society in the twenties was precarious. In 1927, the ‘famous five’, a group of five leading activists for women’s rights, set out to have women declared legal ‘persons’ who were equal to men in all respects, in a groundbreaking legal battle known as the ‘Persons Case’. This was symbolically important and established women’s constitutional right to participate in all levels of government. Up until this point, women were considered ‘persons’ only in terms of being subjected to paying taxes and being punishable by law. They were not entitled the rights of ‘persons’ for participating in public or professional life (Hughes, 258). The case was brought to the Supreme Court of Canada on March 14, 1928 and the claim was unanimously rejected. The ‘famous five’ then appealed to the Privy Council, which decided that women should indeed be considered ‘persons’ and were entitled to hold any public office. The Lord Chancellor said that, “the word ‘persons’ ... may include members of both sexes, and to those who ask why the word should include females, the obvious answer is why should it not” (Hughes, 263). This was a huge breakthrough for sexual equality in Canada. By 1929 women were members of the House of Commons and the Senate. This greatly improved their access to the public sphere. By the end of the twenties, women had clearly made important strides towards empowerment. This would later be reflected in future household science curriculum.

Conclusions

There were certainly elements of both continuity and change within the history of household science in Ontario during the 1920’s. The impetus for including the program in schools was much the same as when the program was first introduced, albeit under the name of ‘domestic science’. There was a continued focus on the promotion of good health and hygiene. Household science programs also made great strides in Ontario schools during this period thanks to a growing population and legal measures enacted to ensure greater enrollment. Due to higher attendance rates, many new schools were built and with the building of new schools came the inclusion of more household science facilities within the school makeup, allowing for the introduction of more household science programs. Furthermore, progressive education and societal expectations made the inclusion of such programs essential. Preparing girls for their predetermined roles as homemakers was seen as very important work.

Home Economics in Ontario, 1945-1960

Hypothesis

In the decade following World War II and with the rise of consumerism, the enrolment and characterization of home economics' courses changed to reinforce the traditional role of women in the household.

Discussion of Sources

Primary Sources

Bondy, R., & Mattys W., *Canadiana Scrapbook- Years of Promise: Canada 1945-1963*.
Ontario: Prentice Hall, 1980.

This book was used for its primary source newspaper articles that offered an inside perspective into the public's perception of education after WWII. It was useful in conveying the attitudes of people during this time. I used the statistics that the book provided to link these attitudes to population increases in Ontario. I also linked the increased population to the frustration of overcrowding in schools, and a greater demand for teachers.

Christie N., & Michael G. *Cultures of Citizenship in Post-war Canada, 1940 – 1955*.
Montreal: McGill-Queen's University Press, 2004.

This book offers detailed insight into the political, social, and economic context of Canada. It argues for the extensive ideological diversity within those areas. The book was used for its commentary on how the concept of family was viewed by the state and the public after the war. Its pictures of ads from the 1950s (primary sources) were helpful in illustrating Canada's increasing capitalist attitudes.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1943. Ontario Department of Education: Toronto, 1945.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1947. Ontario Department of Education: Toronto, 1949.

Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario 1951. Ontario Department of Education: Toronto, 1953.

These primary source reports outline the changes and statistics concerning the Ontario curriculum. They do so by providing contextual information (this aspect was particularly useful) into enrolment and course changes. For example, the 1943 report discusses the impact of the war on boys' shop classes. The reports were also used for their statistics in enrolment for home economics courses, and how this increased after the war. General attendance of boys and girls during the post-war period was also

useful, as it revealed how many more girls were attending school, as well as taking home economics courses.

Smith, M. "Hello, Canada! It's fine to have you here": Canadian Nationhood, Women and Popular Fiction during the Second World War," *The Journal of Commonwealth Literature*. (March 2009), 44 (1), p. 5-22.

This article is both a primary and secondary source, which provides insight into the social commentary regarding women's roles during World War II. This is done primarily through exploring material from Canadian magazines, such as *Chatelaine*. The article also provides periodicals from the 1950s and discusses women's opinions about their changing roles. In the context of my research, it was used primarily for the latter. The first-hand perspectives gave an authentic look into the lives of women in the post-war era.

Secondary Sources

Bothwell, R. *Years of Victory 1939-1948*. Canada: Grolier Limited, 1987.

This book was used for its commentary on the social make-up of Canadians during and after WWII. It described the desire of Canadians to take advantage of the economic boom, and enter into an age of consumerism.

Enoch, J. "There's No Place Like the Childcare Center: A Feminist Analysis of Home in the World War II Era," *Rhetoric Review*. University of Maryland. Vol. 31, no. 422-442.

This article explores the social and political responses to women working outside the home during WWII. Its analysis on how the public viewed this shift from the traditional home, proved particularly useful in setting the context for attitudes following the war. The North American public wanted to get back to a stable life, and this meant a return to the traditional gender roles for men and women.

Pereira, A. "Home economics for a new generation", *University Affairs*, 2008. Nov. 10, 2012.<<http://www.universityaffairs.ca/home-economics-for-a-new-generation.aspx>>.

This website provides an overview of the history of home economics, and perceptions of the course overtime. It highlights the content of modern home economics courses that incorporate a greater science-based approach, as opposed to the courses throughout history (such as the post-WWII period) that *appeared* to focus more on cooking and cleaning. The article was used for its argument concerning the perception of these courses, historically, in terms of how they were viewed only for their domestic learning based activities.

Jordan, T. "Branching Out: Second-Wave Feminist Periodicals and the Archive of Canadian Women's Writing." (2010). *Project Muse*. Association of Canadian College and University Teachers of English. Vol. 36. pp. 63-90.

This article provides a crucial, alternative perspective to the idea that Canadian identity after WWII centred on consumerism and a return to domestic life for women in the suburbs. It examines feminist attitudes that were on the rise, and suggests that this desire to return to traditional lifestyles was in fact a proponent to the second-wave feminist movement.

Images and Media

College of Human Ecology, 2012. Cornell University Library: Rare and Manuscript Collections. Accessed Nov. 9, 2012 ,<http://hephotos.library.cornell.edu/image.php?record=708>>

These historical pictures proved useful in providing a visual representation of the specific activities in home economics courses. They also illustrate the trend of self-reliance, and that women had to learn to fix things on their own in their homes. The pictures were used to exemplify the general trend among North American women, which was to pursue home economics at the post-secondary level.

University of Guelph, Macdonald Institute, 1950-1975. Archival and Special Collections. Accessed Nov. 16, 2012. <http://www.lib.uoguelph.ca/resources/archival_&special_collections/the_collections/digital_collections/regional/macanivers03.htm>

The images taken from the Macdonald Institute's Archives demonstrate the growth of home economics in Ontario during the post-war period. They detail the specific types of courses offered, as well the expansion of the overall program.

Context of Home Economics in Ontario, 1945-1960

The post-war period saw a rapid growth of enrolment in home economics courses, and thus resulted in a shortage of qualified teachers. Examination of the 1947 education historical record reveals an increasing demand for home economics teachers, whereas the pre-war period (specifically in 1942) reveals less demand. The 1942 *Report of the Minister of Education of the Province of Ontario* stated that the subject had been introduced for the first time in many schools, and was not in demand. More importantly, the 1942 report demonstrates the importance of context. It states that,

One of the drawbacks in promoting this subject during the war is the difficulty of obtaining necessary equipment. Heavy items such as stoves, washing machines, refrigerators and sewing machines, have been frozen for the duration and are practically unobtainable (Report of Minister of Education: Province of Ontario, 1942).

This statement reveals the impetus behind the demand for these household items after the war was over, and offers insight into rise of consumerism as well. In addition, the popularity of the subject and demand for the subject can be illustrated in comparing the number of teachers who took home economics in 1947 and 1951. In 1947, only 86 teachers chose to enroll in courses in order to acquire new skills and become acquainted with the latest developments in home economics. This number increased drastically in 1951, with 107 teachers enrolled in regular summer courses. In addition, 25 new centers offered home economics instruction, and as a result, the program enrolled 47 more teachers (Report of Minister of Education: Province of Ontario, 1951). As stated previously, the conventional nature of men's and women's roles in the post-war period meant that women were once again at home. A rise in consumerism however, also meant that female students were spending more time in home economics classes in order to learn how to repair, fix, and even build basic items at home.

The pictures below illustrate women's home economics classes in higher education at Cornell University. The classes provide an overview of the general North American trends in home economics and how there was a growing interest to take these classes at the post-secondary level. While there are examples of women performing domestic tasks such as sewing, the classes also show them repairing and building household items such as furniture. There was a continued attitude of self-reliance among women in the private sphere that had been cultivated during the war. Many had suffered through difficult economic times, while others had to work outside the home while their husbands were at war. This attitude of self-reliance was transferred to its "rightful" place in the home, as husbands, at younger and younger ages, began long work hours in the North American capitalist age.



Caption reads: "Using a flexible tool such as a wooden ice cream spoon, force the material over each ring and down between the ring and the paper lining." Photo courtesy of Elmira Sunday Telegram. Date: 1950's
Source: College of Human Ecology, Cornell University Library: Rare and Manuscript Collections <[http://he-](http://he-photos.library.cornell.edu/image.php?record=708)

Extension training school in July 1946.' Source: College of Human Ecology, Cornell University Library: Rare and Manuscript Collections <<http://he-photos.library.cornell.edu/image.php?record=708>



Mrs. Doing showing a homemade cupboard in her apartment April 1948
Source: College of Human Ecology, Cornell University Library: Rare and Manuscript Collections <<http://he-photos.library.cornell.edu/image.php?record=708>>



An example the growing interest to take home economics at the post-secondary level can also be seen in the expansion of the Macdonald Institute in Guelph, Ontario. For years, renovation and expansion was hindered by a lack of facilities. Post 1945 plans included additions of two new wings. The wings housed areas for textiles, home management, and craft work. The picture below shows how Macdonald Institute looked with these additions.



Above: The Macdonald Institute, Guelph, Ontario
Source:
http://www.lib.uoguelph.ca/resources/archival_&_special_collections/the_collections/digital_collections/regional/macanivers03.htm

Below: One of the many courses offered at the Macdonald Institute was tailoring

Source: http://www.lib.uoguelph.ca/resources/archival_&_special_collections/the_collections/digital_collections/regional/macanivers03.htm



There was a significant rise in population after the war, with Ontario and Quebec being the most highly populated provinces. This resulted in greater enrolment in schools. The chart below shows Canada's baby boom in the post-war period. There is a steady increase in the population following 1945. This can be seen particularly in the "rate" of the population, which increased dramatically to 18.1 following the war.

Natural Increase and Rates per 1, 000 population

Year	Number	Rate
1936- 1940	123, 257	10. 8
1941- 1945	161, 748	13.7
1946- 1950	235, 310	18.1
1951- 1955	289, 668	19.5
1956- 1960	332, 886	19.6

Canadiana Scrapbook- *Years of Promise: Canada 1945-1963* Bondy, R., & Mattys W., 1980

A 1957 article in *Maclean's Magazine* reveals the impact of the increase in population on school enrollment and the hiring of teachers. It reads:

In a week or so, three million Canadian children- quarter more than last year will experience one of the most peculiar highlights of their young lives: the first day of another school year. What are the prospects for School Year 1957-1958? Foremost, perhaps is that schools...will be overcrowded. Enrollment in Ontario, for example, has jumped 60, 000 since last year. As usual, there aren't enough trained teachers to go around. Most provinces are hiring teachers who have not completed normal-school courses to fill the gap. Provinces are wooing teachers with better pay, plus fringe attractions. In Ontario, schools offer rent-free homes (*Maclean's* 1957, p.1).

This article demonstrates the demand for schoolteachers, but also reveals the demand for mothers at home. Given the rise in population, while many girls were going to school, it was largely in order to prepare for their roles as housewives later on. A 1955 ad in *Maclean's* commented on the younger age of married couples. It states that, "Today, over half the grooms are under 25 and nearly two-thirds of the brides are under 23- almost 5 years younger than the average couple ten years ago" (Bondy, R., & Mattys W., Canadiana Scrapbook, 1980). A connection can be made between lower enrolment rates in shop class for boys, and higher enrolment rates more enrolments in home economics for girls. Boys went into the workforce sooner, while girls prepared for domestic life. An increase in the teachers needed for home economics programs can be observed in how many took the summer courses that both updated and trained them for the school year. In 1947, there were 86, and that number increased to 130 in the year 1957 (Report of Minister of Education: Province of Ontario, 1947 & 1957).

Broader Social, Economic and Political Contexts

During WWII, home economics focused on how to make household tasks easier for women, while also increasing their self-reliance in the home. The courses wanted to equip women to use their own skills more and more. Students were taught not only to "learn the skills and knowledge essential to homemaking, but also [to] develop initiative [and] resourcefulness" (Report of Minister of Education: Province of Ontario, 1947). Gustaaf Sevenhuysen, Dean of the University of Manitoba's Faculty of Human Ecology, says he is astonished by the social impact that the area of study had during WWII because it brought "the knowledge of science, engineering and medicine into regular folk's homes" (Pereira, A., 2008). However, these subjects did not take precedence in home economics courses, particularly in the case of women. One could argue that this was because the "working woman" during wartime left a quite a noticeable absence at home. She was away from her motherly duties and this resulted in a resurgence of domestic activities in home economics courses. An example of the "forgotten household" is when the state had to step in and provide "war nurseries" to curb a situation known as the "motherless home" (Enoch, J. 2012). Katherine Glover, author of

“Women at Work in Wartime” (1943) encapsulates this: “When those who keep the home pots boiling, the hearths dusted, the children fed and cared for, leave the home shift for the factory shift, households and families are shaken from the center to circumference” (Enoch, 2012). This demonstrates the overall anxiety that arose over what would become of the home and family, as jobs often forced women to move from their homes to work in factories in other cities. This meant fewer resources for them, as they were distanced from friends and family who could otherwise care for their children. With the aid of the war nurseries, mothers could leave the “home shift for the factory shift”; feeling assured that they were not shaking their households from “center to circumference” (Enoch, J., 2012). At the height of the war in America, 6.3 million mothers entered the factory to support the war effort (Enoch, 2012). 25, 251 Canadian women served in the active army. It should be noted that this does not include the tens of thousands who volunteered and worked in factories. (<http://www.canadaatwar.ca/content-7/>). It is important to recognize the paradoxical nature of women’s roles during this time. While they were seen as heroic and patriotic, their absence from the home only drew attention to the need for their presence in it, as illustrated by the state’s war nurseries. In her work on the lives of women during World War II, Penny Summerfield states that:

popular representations constructed women’s participation in war work as heroic, but contingent and temporary...she would remain for just as long as that action lasted. Afterwards, she would relinquish the job to a man, and replace her heroic war identity with a conventionally feminine one, centred on the functions considered natural to her (Smith, M. 2009).

Summerfield has highlighted the temporarily of women in the workforce. She discusses the dominant attitude at the time of the war. While women’s actions were considered heroic, it was understood that they would soon return to their “rightful” place in the home.

The desire for traditional women’s roles was apparent after the war, as free child-care and tax allowances were withdrawn in order to both encourage women to leave the workforce, as well as pave the way for family allowances that helped families rebuild after the cost of war. Many Canadians wanted to make up for what they missed in the Great Depression and World War II. It had been a long time since they had been able to buy anything other than basic necessities such as food and clothing. As can be seen in the 1945 elections and strikes, this impacted the general culture and gender role for women. Citizens told their leaders that they wanted money, security and opportunity. More importantly, in their opinion the things that made this possible were marriage, children, and a home to raise a family (Bothwell, R., 1987). Thus began the rise of the suburbs and the desire for traditional family life. There appeared to be general attitude and desire to go back to the “good old days”. This meant stability in the home and workforce, and resulted in men and women occupying their traditional gender roles. After the war home economics courses emphasized the importance of “strengthening home and family life” (Report of Minister of Education: Province of

Ontario, 1947). Ruth Roach Pierson's comparison demonstrates a similar view. She writes that:

Egalitarian rhetoric was the main legacy of the Second World War's assault on sex roles, for the talk of equality of opportunity and accessibility was constantly belied by rehabilitation training schemes designed to perpetuate a sex-stereotype and sex-segregated labour market, as well as by a general full employment policy that rested...on the retirement of tens of thousands of women to domesticity (Smith, M., 2009).

As previously stated by Dr. Sevenhuysen, although home economics brought the knowledge of science and medicine into people's homes, it also perpetuated women's specific roles. He states, "High school home economics classes that focused on cooking, cleaning and sewing helped perpetuate stereotypes about the field that set off an identity crisis at Canadian universities that continues today" (Pereira, A., 2008). This attitude can be seen in the historical record. The trend towards traditional roles continued, as can be seen in the characterization of home economics classes. Science and medicine took a backseat to the domestic science aspect of home economics courses. This is also evident in the enrolment of boys in general "shop" classes, which in 1947 decreased significantly. In 1942 a "serious shortage of general shop teachers [was] developing, due to the competition of war industry and enlistment in the Armed Forces" (Report of Minister of Education: Province of Ontario, 1942). This trend appears to have continued after the war, as the rise in consumerism and an affluent lifestyle led many boys chose to work instead, thus reinforcing the traditional male breadwinner role.

The figure below illustrates the idealized desire to return to and perpetuate a traditional and more prosperous way of life. Elaine Tyler May argues that the leaning

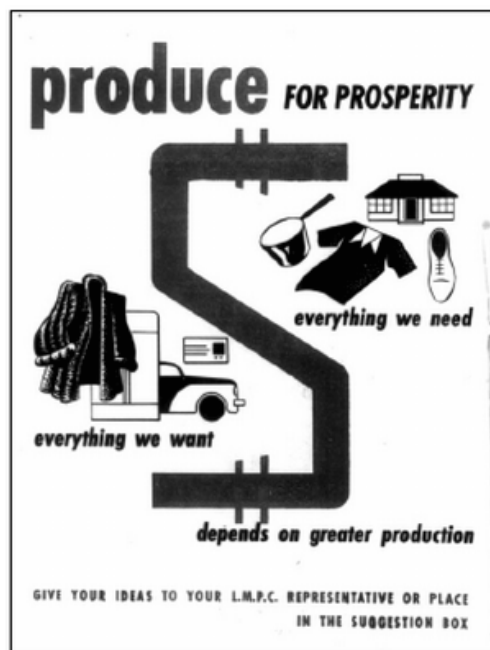


Figure 2: NA, C 142804

towards more organized and bureaucratized blue-collar jobs led to an image of the home as a "warm hearth" of freedom and individuality. The picture conveys this connection, with a dollar sign in the middle. There are also illustrations of household necessities such as a dress, a kitchen pot, a shoe, and a new house in which to place them. Depicted on the other side of the dollar are products of desire, such as a radio and refrigerator. The description reads: "Everything we need- everything we want- depends on greater production." The goal of the overall picture was for these attitudes and desires to be passed on to the male breadwinner by his spouse. It is interesting to note the "everything we want" images include a full-length fur coat. This furthered female stereotypical behaviour of

obvious consumption and an obsession with general aesthetics (Christie, N. & Michael G., 2004).

Conclusion

As a result of World War II, Canadians saw an eventual rise in population in what is known as the post-war economic boom, or the Golden Age of Capitalism. Men and women married younger and returned to their respective pre-war gender roles. This was largely a result of nostalgia, more job opportunities, and consumerism. While families at home were impacted the most by this return to conventional attitudes, the post-war trend in education is also a significant factor. The change in enrolment can be viewed as an example of this. It began with an increase of girls and teachers in schools, particularly in home economics courses. The nature of these courses changed to suit the modern age, but the goals of educating girls for a life of domesticity remained the same.

Family Studies Education in Ontario, 1960-1989

Hypothesis

The greater focus on civil liberties from 1960-1989 in Canada caused a significant change in the way Family Studies was taught in the classroom. The intent changed from educating women on how to fulfill their domestic role to giving both males and females the tools to operate a household and understand the concept of family in a more global sense.

Discussion of Sources

Primary

Education Reports: Honour Graduation Level Final Results Obtained During the 1972-73 School Year. (December 31, 1973). Education Statistics Ontario 1973. Ottawa, ON: Ontario Ministry of Education. 51.

Education Reports: Honour Graduation Level Final Results obtained during the 1973-74 school year. (December 31, 1974). Education Statistics Ontario 1974. Ottawa, ON: Ontario Ministry of Education. 73.

At this point, after these two years, the subject is referred to as Home Economics in the table.

Education Reports: Honour Graduation Level Final Results obtained during the 1976-77 school year. (December 31, 1977). Education Statistics Ontario 1977. Ottawa, ON: Ontario Ministry of Education. 88.

Education Reports: Honour Graduation Level Final Results obtained during the 1978-79 school year. (December 31, 1979). Education Statistics Ontario 1979. Ottawa, ON: Ontario Ministry of Education. 84.

At this point the subject is now referred to as Home Economics, Family Studies and Sociology.

Education Reports: Honour Graduation Level Final Results obtained during the 1979-80 school year. (December 31, 1980). Education Statistics Ontario 1980. Ottawa, ON: Ontario Ministry of Education. 100.

At this point candidates are now additionally organized by sex.

Education Reports: Grade 13-level Candidates by Sex and Subject During the 1981-82 school year. (December 31, 1982). Education Statistics Ontario 1982. Ottawa, ON: Ontario Ministry of Education. 111.

The title of the table has now been changed to note this new categorizing of students. All of these reports contain tables demonstrating the enrolment of students in Home Economics/ Family Studies honour programs. The variance we can see in the way the information is being documented over the years can tell us a great deal about the changes taking place in the program. First we see the name change from Home Economics to include Family Studies and Sociology. This provides evidence for the

greater professionalization of the subject and focus on academic pursuits rather than education on common, concrete tasks. It also indicates a greater focus on the development of the term family as it relates to a more abstract, global conception or idea rather than the concrete, individual study of one's family. The categorizing by sex indicates that the subject is no longer female centred and appeals to males. In order to accomplish this, the subject would have had to move away from the primary goals, educating women on household maintenance, of the past to a broader subject that relates equally to males and females.

Secondary

Birol, O.H. (2012). Globalization in Historical Perspective [Electronic Version].

International Journal of Business and Social Science, 3(8), 92-98.

This article is intended to provide a background into the globalization occurring during the 60's-80's and is meant to provide context for the altering sense of self portrayed in the family studies curriculum.

Cruxton, J.B., & Wilson, W.D. (2000). Spotlight Canada (4th ed.). Don Mills, ON:

Oxford University Press.

This text provides a general context for what is occurring at the time these changes are developing in Canadian Society.

Schlesinger, B. (1978). Remarriage in Canada. Toronto: The Governing Council of the University of Toronto.

This is a book dealing with children growing up in families where divorce is a very real issue. There are sections on marriage breakdown and remarriage, adjustment, adoption, and etc. Its aim is focused on educating people on the issue of divorce in Canada. The fact that the book was necessary points to rising levels of divorce, which has now clearly impacted education. This book demonstrates how rising levels of divorce altered the way families were portrayed or studied in Home Economics.

Cowan, B. (1979). A Family is... Family Studies Series/ Advanced Revised. Toronto:

Copp Clark Pitman.

In this text we can see multiple cross-cultural references to families around the world. There is a stated movement away from the stereotypical nuclear family. Furthermore the text is part of a Family Studies Series indicating that the name of the program has now been changed. This text is a conclusive example of the changes, which have taken effect prior to its release. The book encourages a focus on research further indicating the movement toward an academic and critical view of the subject.

Secondary Sources

Jones, E.G., & Burnham, H.A. (1963). Junior Homemaking. Philadelphia: J. B.

Lippincott Company.

This is a textbook first published in 1958 and revised in 1963. It presents a snapshot of a very different curriculum from that which emerges in the late 70's. In its preface it discusses family studies in relation to females only. The book is clearly directed towards a feminine education in homemaking. It is important in that it provides context to demonstrate how emerging civil liberties alter the curriculum to fit the new society forming.

Meiklejohn, P.J. (1969). *The Family: Selected Sources*. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart Limited.

This book still possesses ideas that are very similar to that of Junior Homemaking. It mentions multiculturalism but only very superficially and in fact reiterates that even though families look the different they are still essentially the same in the preface. The book then shows some development in the curriculum where we can see it moving towards a more equal representation of humans but the limitations it conveys demonstrate that at this point change is in progress but there is still a long way to go.

Lewis, D.S., Banks, A.K., Banks, M., Smith, I.M.E., Taylor, V.E. (Eds.). (1973). *Teen Horizons at Home and School* Canadian Edition. Don Mills, ON: Collier Macmillan Canada, Ltd.

Here is another textbook published ten years later than Junior Homemaking. There is a demonstrated focus on females in this textbook but there is some attempt to remain ambiguous and male aspects are included, however, they are far less frequent. By examining this text we can see the gradual change taking place toward a more equal and diverse study of Home Economics/ Family Studies.

Ishwaran, K. (1976). *The Canadian Family Revised*. Toronto: Holt Rinehart and Winston of Canada, Limited.

In this text they are widening the scope of the subject of the family. It is moving away from being person-centred to being more global oriented. It is now incorporating sociology and examining differences among multiple types of families across the globe. It is becoming increasingly academic and scientific.

Brinkley, J.H., Chamberlain, V.M., & Champion, F. (1978). *Teen Guide to Homemaking* (2nd ed.). Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson Limited.

It is in the later years of the 70's that we can see a marked difference in the curriculum of Home Economics and nothing could demonstrate this better than this text. Males are more equally included in the study of homemaking. The front cover and several pictures throughout the text portray males in traditionally female household roles. Furthermore the preface describes a progression towards critical thinking rather than facts based education.

Gentleman, J., & Park, E. (1996). *Patterns of Divorce in Canada: 1970-1993*. SSC Annual Meeting. Ottawa, ON: Statistics Canada.

This document portrays how divorce rates affected Canadians throughout the 70's and 80's and offers valid statistics to demonstrate the focus of divorce presented in the Home Economics/ Family Studies resources.

Images and Media

Table 3.54 Honour graduation level final results obtained during the 1972-73 school year

Subject	Candidates by subject	Candidates successful	Per cent successful
English	55,999	53,127	95
History	25,644	24,147	94
Geography	21,499	20,350	95
Mathematics	69,518	63,989	92
Biology	32,003	29,500	92
Physics	18,138	16,545	91
Chemistry	27,351	25,221	92
Latin	1,712	1,687	99
French	18,438	17,834	97
Français	1,898	1,861	98
German	2,420	2,378	98
Greek	44	44	100
Spanish	1,556	1,518	98
Italian	754	739	98
Russian	106	105	99
Art	3,907	3,777	97
Music	2,857	2,797	98
Accountancy Practice	1,514	1,389	92
Secretarial Practice	190	180	95
Home Economics	24,410	11,747	95
Economics	3,768	3,517	93
Theatre Arts	515	495	96
Miscellaneous Languages	89	89	100
Physical Education	396	364	92
Miscellaneous Science & Technology	668	622	93
Miscellaneous Special Approvals	652	635	97
Total Number of Candidates	70,029		

Education Reports: Honour Graduation Level Final Results Obtained During the 1972-73 School Year. (December 31, 1973). *Education Statistics Ontario 1973*. Ottawa, ON: *Ontario Ministry of Education*. 51.

Figure 1-

Education Reports: Honour Graduation Level Final Results obtained during the 1979-80 school year. (December 31, 1980). *Education Statistics Ontario 1980*. Ottawa, ON: *Ontario Ministry of Education*. 100.

These tables illustrate the honour graduation level final results, which are discussed above and are intended as an example to show how the data was organized and give a snapshot of how it changed in 1980.

Figure 2 -

Wallace, S. (1985). Families: Family Ups and Downs. *Living Social Studies: A Canadian Social Studies and Supplementary Reading Program for the Primary Grades*. Toronto: Oxford University Press. 4-8.

The images show a mother and a father leaving for work. They are important because they illustrate a growing acceptance of working mothers, demonstrating the increased sexual equality of the period.

Figure 3 -

Cowan, B. (1979). *A Family is... Family Studies Series/ Advanced Revised*. Toronto: Copp Clark Pitman. 12.

This diagram illustrates alternatives to the traditional monogamous family type. By including this picture the text demonstrates its desire to reach outside the regular stereotypical bounds of our understanding of families. At this stage Family Studies is becoming more inclusive and is broadening its horizons of study.

Figure 4 -

Wallace, S. (1985). *Families: Family Ins and Outs. Living Social Studies: A Canadian Social Studies and Supplementary Reading Program for the Primary Grades*. Toronto: Oxford University Press. 62-64.

This image shows a Christmas tree and a menorah standing side by side. It is important because it reflects the growing acceptance of multiculturalism and religious tolerance of the period and the need for teaching this acceptance in schools.

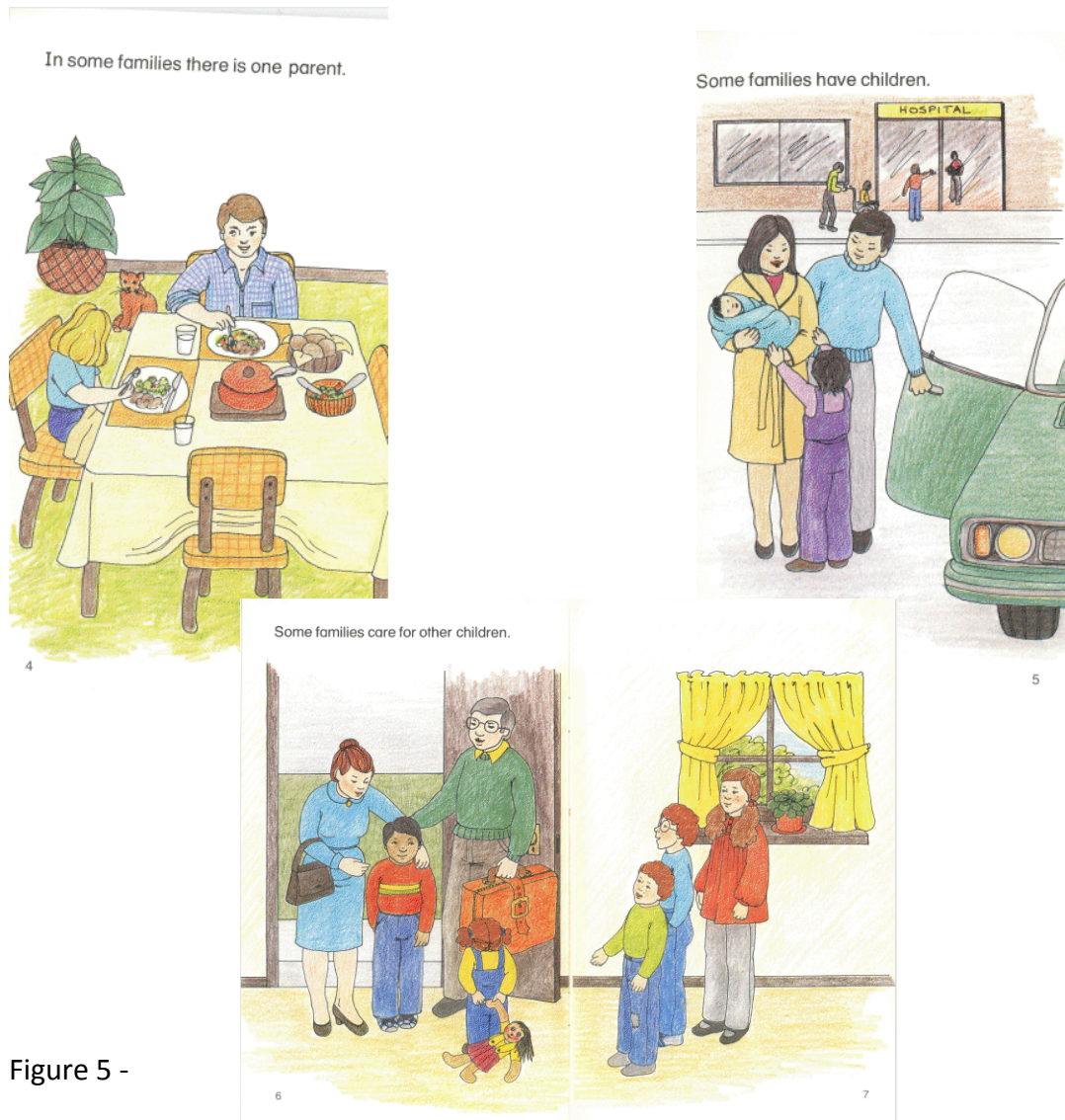
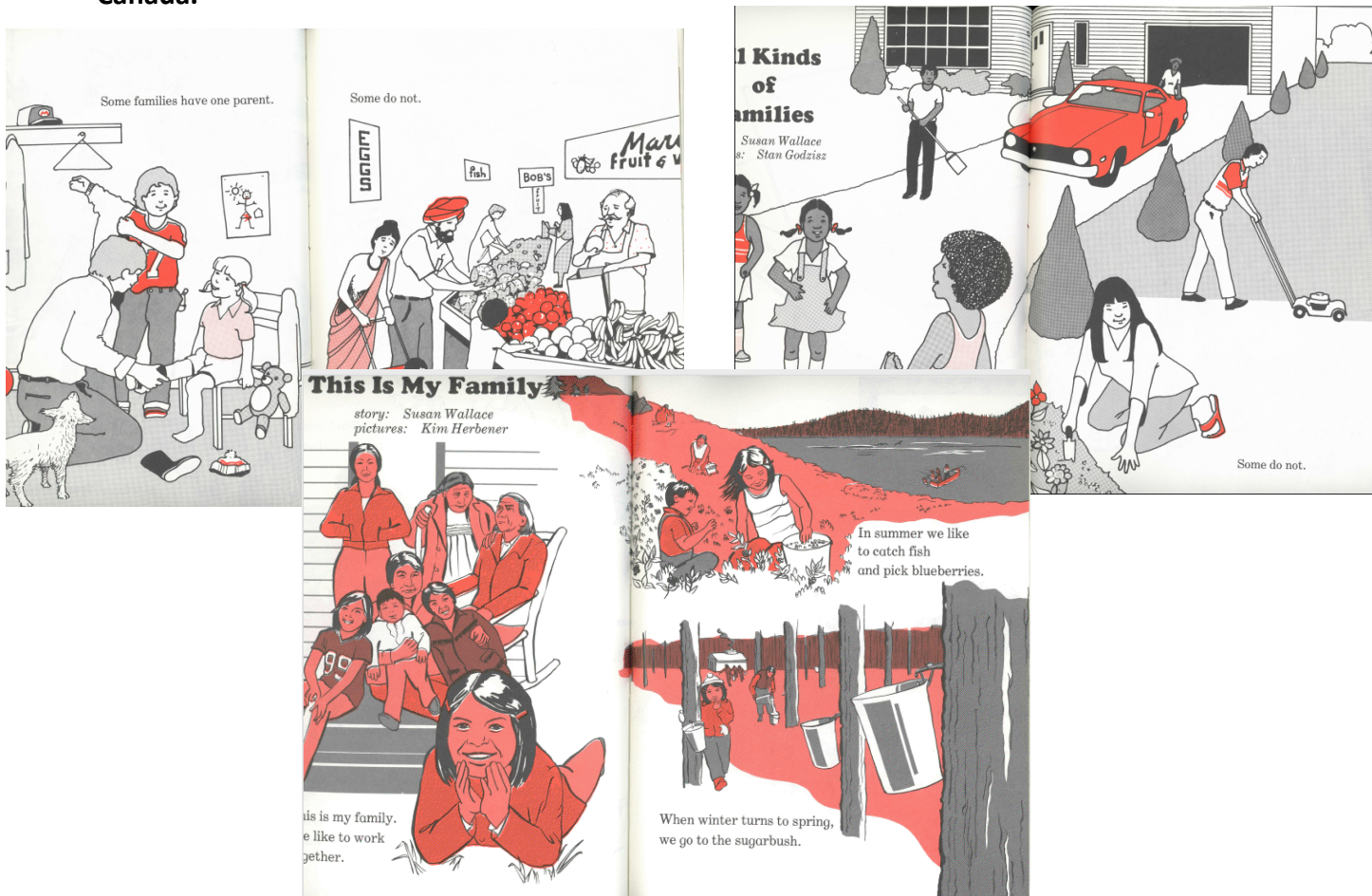


Figure 5 -

Hobal, J., & McKay, R. (1981). *Can you Tell we are a Family?...There are Many Kinds of Families!.* Edmonton: Globe/ Modern Curriculum Press.

Hobal, J., & McKay, R. (1981). *Can you Tell we are a Family by the way we Change?.* Edmonton: Globe/ Modern Curriculum Press.

These images come from curriculum guidebooks for children and provide early education on family studies. The issues depicted in these stories relate to broader social issues. We can see an effort on the part of the government to be more inclusive and recognize single parent households as well as adoption and multicultural families. The broader issues these illustrations depict are that which are developing throughout Canada.



Wallace, S. (1985). *Families: Family Shapes and Sizes. Living Social Studies: A Canadian Social Studies and Supplementary Reading Program for the Primary Grades.* Toronto: Oxford University Press.

These two images come from a book aiming to educate young students on family issues. In these two images we can see that they deal with multicultural issues and are evidently an attempt at inclusive education. The first depicts several different races and types of families while the second depicts a native family. Each represents government steps taken to ensure basic human rights outlined in the Charter of Rights and Freedoms which was a part of the Constitution Act in 1982.

Context of Family Studies Education in Ontario, 1960-1989

Until the 1970's the Home Economics curriculum had been designed specifically for the purpose of domesticating female students in Ontario. As explored in the previous section, the 1950's were characterized by the returning of women to the private sphere. The 1960's reflected a continuation of these values and practices. In the 1963 textbook, *Junior Homemaking*, Jones and Burnham state, in the preface,

The developmental needs of young adolescent girls are the basis for the selection of subjects and learning experiences. Teen-age girls want freedom to make their own choices and decisions, but at the same time they want the security of family love and protection... Girls learn that in the performance of daily tasks within their households they have the opportunity to show their sense of responsibility and to prove that they are becoming adults (p. v).

There is no mention of males in the explanation of the textbook's intent and the ideas surrounding female development are very far removed from current ideas of equality among the sexes. It is clear from this passage that the role of women at this point in time was very much sequestered to the household and the subject of homemaking geared towards women and not men. This changed, however, and by 1973 in *Teen Horizons at Home and School* we can see more inclusion of content relating to males. For example, in the section on "Improving your personal appearance," the textbook includes male hairstyles and how males should dress for specific occasions. However,

Table 6.10 Honour Graduation-level final results (including summer) obtained,¹ 1980

Code ² and subject	Candidates by subject ³		Candidates successful	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
11 Multidisciplinary studies	38	33	30	32
12 Classical studies	77	134	71	130
13 Canadian studies	30	42	29	41
19 Other multidisciplinary studies	171	310	151	299
20 English	27 688	32 568	25 702	31 623
21 Français	479	971	452	960
22 French	3 630	10 273	3 507	10 092
23 Anglais	56	72	52	69
24 English as a second language	143	38	134	36
30 Classical languages	337	611	328	602
31 German	501	1 208	485	1 191
32 Italian	230	669	223	654
33 Russian	19	47	19	47
34 Spanish	158	718	153	706
35 Other modern languages	86	102	85	101
37 Eastern and oriental languages	76	54	75	52
40 Applied mathematics	2 741	2 179	2 509	2 037
41 Pure mathematics	51 890	32 156	47 522	30 669
50 Biology, pure and applied	11 623	15 341	10 688	14 630
51 Chemistry, pure and applied	15 614	10 302	14 562	9 864
52 Environmental science	137	83	128	75
53 Earth science, pure and applied	159	89	143	83
54 General science	46	72	39	64
55 Physics	14 975	5 542	13 771	5 323
60 Economics	7 947	7 140	7 405	6 844
61 Geography	10 588	8 802	9 938	8 532
62 History	10 193	11 950	9 431	11 492
63 Home economics, family studies, and sociology	5 803	13 494	5 251	13 091
64 Law	311	384	292	375
65 Politics	213	202	208	198
66 Religion	138	180	136	179
69 Other social sciences	165	152	157	151
70 Visual arts	1 909	3 388	1 796	3 287
71 Dramatic arts	426	918	405	895
72 Music	1 436	2 096	1 405	2 071
73 Physical and health education	2 074	2 107	1 870	2 034
74 Screen education and media arts	135	162	123	159
80 Accounting	6 199	6 192	5 687	5 814
83 Marketing and merchandising	76	65	73	62
84 Secretarial	6	235	6	228
90 Communication arts technology	220	112	206	111
91 Construction	153	41	147	40
92 Electrical	85	4	80	4
95 Manufacturing	34	1	32	1
96 Materials, processes, and design	256	46	244	46
99 Transportation	25	3	22	2
Total number of candidates	53 390*	53 182*		

the textbook was still very much geared towards female instruction. Most inclusion of males in the text is only in relation to how women are to behave with and take care of them as a part of the household. Significant change did not come until the 1978 textbook, *Teen Guide to Homemaking*. On the front cover there is an image of a teenage male mopping the floor in the kitchen and pictures inside included more males promoting a greater sense of sexual equality. Furthermore, in the Education Statistics of Ontario, the chart demonstrating 'Honour Graduation Level Final Results' is expanded in 1980 to differentiate by sex, indicating a greater male enrolment into the program. The

Figure 1 – Honour Graduation-level final results

program also takes on the name of Family studies as early as 1979 as seen in the text *A Family is...* and in the Education Statistics tables, the name changes to include family studies and sociology in the 1978-79 school year. This is greater indication of the change

in subject matter and goals of the program. By calling it family studies they open it up to more possibilities besides domestic concerns and make it more accessible to both sexes.

A prominent theme included in the textbooks at this time was an exploration and recognition of women in the workforce. Instead of treating women in the workforce as an unfortunate necessity, as seen in the post WWII culture, it has now become an accepted practice and children are being taught how to deal with both male and female working parents equally as seen in Susan Wallace's preschool family studies story "Work, Work, Work." In these images the boy asks where this place his mommy goes everyday. There is not, however, only a questioning of the mother but also of his father. The sexes are being treated more equally in these scenarios.

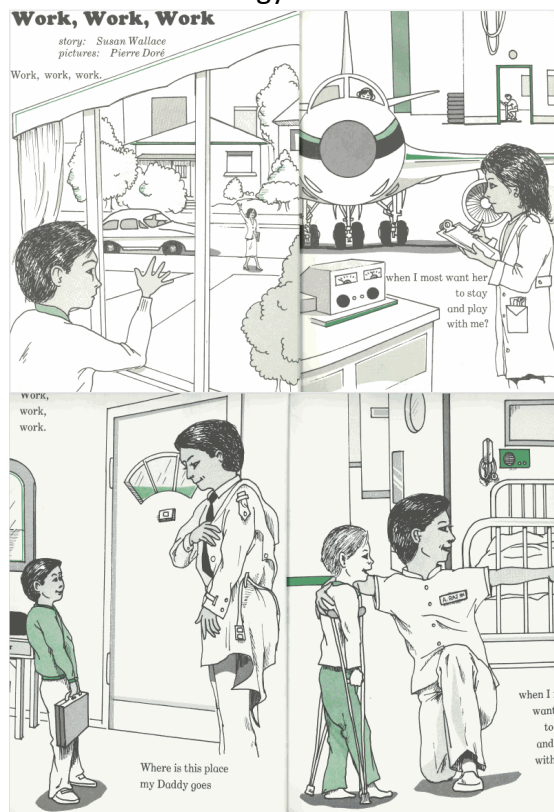
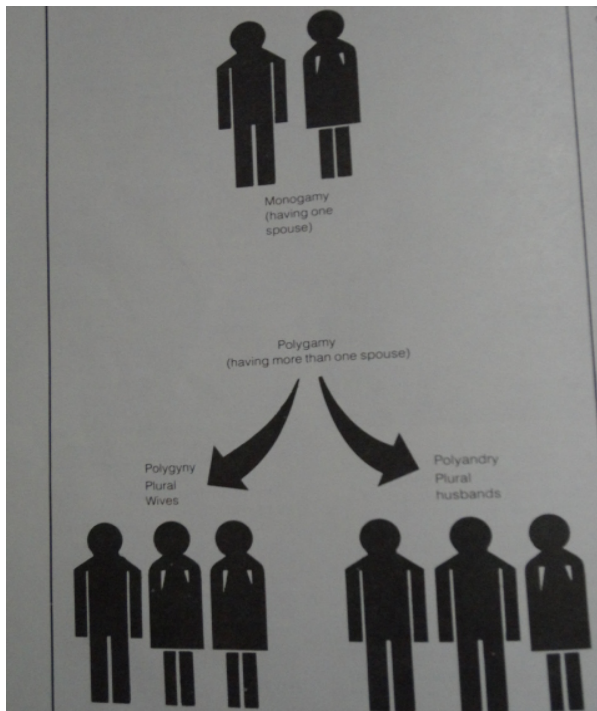


Figure 2 – Depiction of mothers and fathers going to work

Broader Social, Economic and Political Contexts

The texts begin to address issues of cultural diversity in the late seventies. The late 50's to 60's saw a great influx of immigration into Canada (Cruxton & Wilson, 2000, p. 309). At this point Canada's population became even more diverse and the need for change as a result was recognized first by Trudeau's government. Multiculturalism became policy by 1971 and the Immigration Act of 1978 was improved allowing more people from developing countries to enter Canada (Cruxton & Wilson, 2000, p. 65). This is gradually reflected in family studies teacher resources. In *the Canadian Family Revised*, Ishwaran (1976) broadens the scope of families studied to become more racially diverse (p. vii). Also the Ontario textbook for Family Studies in 1979 called *A Family is...* makes a concerted effort to become more diverse by recognizing, in the first chapter, the idea of the Canadian middle class nuclear family as being a stereotype (Cowan, 1979, p. 3). Further exploration of the text shows pictures illustrating racially diverse families and different families in regards to income and set up. Figure 3 illustrates how teacher resources are attempting to move away from the atypical idea of the family.

Figure 3 – monogamy, polyandry and polygamy diagram



By the time the Charter of Rights and Freedoms is included as part of the Constitution Act of 1982 these ideas are clearly already being introduced to students. By 1985 in Susan Wallace's 'Families' series for *Living Social Studies: A Canadian Social Studies and Supplementary Reading Program for the Primary Grades*, ethnically diverse families and the idea of political correctness when examining culture is

highly important. In the last pages of 'Family Ins and Outs' with a celebration of Christmas she includes Hanukah and the Chinese New Year (Wallace, 1985, p. 62-64). These changes are significant because they



Figure 4 – Celebrating Christmas and Hanukah

Figure 5 – dealing with divorce



showcase the broader social

concerns of the time and demonstrate how they altered the family studies curriculum.

Another national circumstance affecting the Family Studies curriculum was the rising divorce rates. Gentlemen and Park (1996) in their study 'Patterns of Divorce in Canada: 1970-1993' state "the results show that, except for a peak in 1987 after liberalization of divorce laws in 1985, the general trend over the 24 years has been for the divorce rate to increase gradually" (p. 197). This note on divorce rates in Canada is highly significant as Home Economics resources released around the same time continually included ways of dealing with the issue of divorce. As early as 1978, in the text *Remarriage*, divorce is being addressed as a huge issue in the lives of children. Hobal, J., & McKay, R (1981) in the text *Can you Tell we are a Family by the way we Change?* further illustrate this concern by including single parent households.

Social concerns being incorporated into the Family Studies curriculum demonstrated how the countries socialist movements were informing upon the curriculum. Here, for the first time, we an effort to educate all students to be democratic citizens by becoming more inclusive and educating students on current concerns of the country.

In the late 70's a shift occurs in the nature of the Home Economics program which placed an emphasis on sociology. This makes it less about practical, hands on how-to's about household management and more about sociological significances of the concept: family as it relates to the whole world. Birol, in his article 'Globalization in Historical Perspective,' states that prior to the "mid- '70s less developed countries (LDC) and newly industrializing countries (NICs) implemented a closed economy, import-substitute industrialization model with excessive interventionism and protectionism... since mid '70s most moved to market economy, outward orientation and export encouragement" (2012, p. 92). This globalization of the economy pushes for a greater understanding of the rest of the world in Canadian education. As seen in *the Canadian Family Revised* there is a new shift to studying societies and families around the world and how the Canadian families relate to each other as opposed to a singular focus on Canadian families demonstrated in previous years.

Conclusion

To fully understand the history of Family Studies in Ontario it is important to examine greater societal and educational trends that occurred between 1960-1980. It is in these three decades that education in Ontario began to take on the shape it resembles today. Home Economics, so clearly defined by the individual in society, was greatly affected by the newly formed ideas concerning civil liberties. The most significant changes fall in line with the national transformations occurring at the time. The Family Studies curriculum reflects the steps taken in establishing the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms. By looking at the 70's we can see this change take place. Most significant is how the curriculum begins to deal with issues regarding equality for minority groups. Present is the shift in society from the nuclear, static, Caucasian family established prior to the seventies to more inclusive multicultural and variable family units.

If we first examine the emerging differences in the treatment of the sexes of this time we can see huge changes occurring. In the Home Economics teacher resources, issues surrounding divorce and working mothers are increasingly being included and discussed. There is a clear effort to offer representations of multiple types of families. At the same time males are being included in the curriculum. In 1980 there is recognition in the education statistics that males are present in these classes and textbooks are beginning to break down the traditional female roles to include males. This point in the history of Home Economics is important because it was when it began to really resemble the current curriculum.