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A DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL OF EDUCATION FOR
PARENTS OF CHILDREN UP TO THREE YEARS OF AGE

A Dissertation Presented

By

Michael F. Kalinowski

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

August 1976

School of Education

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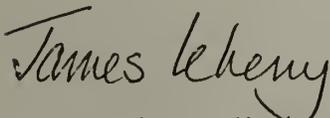
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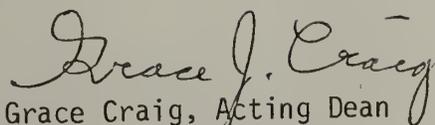
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ABSTRACT

A Developmental Model of Education For
Parents of Children Up to Three Years of Age

August, 1976

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The purpose of this dissertation is to present a general model of parent education which can be implemented in a variety of settings. Because any determination of good parenting depends on one's definition of childhood, this dissertation begins with a review of the concept of childhood. Historically considered, the definition of childhood proceeded through a number of distinct phases. Parents were indifferent, and then ambivalent about young children. Children were then coddled, seen as fit for redemption, as valuable and finally as cultural heroes. It was only recently that adults took up the responsibilities of defining parenthood carefully and began to consider children in a way which emphasized the fulfillment of their potential as unique individuals with a diversity of talents.

Chapter One discusses the major philosophical positions concerning the nature of man and his development. Both the mechanistic and organismic world views are considered in terms of their basic metaphors, their cosmologies, their views of the organism, their resulting epistemological positions, and their histories. After analyzing both, the organismic position is adopted, and the particular philosophical, developmental and pedagogical perspectives of the Anisa model is assumed.

Chapter Two reviews a number of programs involving parent education as an important component; the review demonstrates the need for a general model which could be implemented in a variety of settings. The parent education components of major federal programs-- Head Start, Follow Through, Home Start, and Parent and Child Centers-- are examined, and some less important federal programs are also discussed. Non-federal parent education programs delivering services in home and center settings are also reviewed.

Chapter Three focuses on one successful model of parent education and its initial implementation in Cincinnati. The four major components of the model include: observation, presentation, participation, and conversation. Observation is the method for determining at any given moment where a child is in order to prepare an appropriate developmental activity. Presentation is the method of delivering that activity to the child; the activity, properly presented, introduces new concepts and materials to the child. Participation is the method the adult uses for interacting with the child in order to promote his development. Conversation is the method Facilitators in the model use for teaching parents developmental principles, thereby increasing the parents' ability to make more effective use of interactions with their children. Evaluating each component every session is essential for planning future sessions.

Chapter Four discusses the evaluation and measurement of the effect of the specific model analyzed: the establishment of the program in Cincinnati; suggestions for implementing the model in other settings, and a presentation of possibilities for further research in the area of parent education.

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INTRODUCTION

Childhood Considered

Children have always existed; a conception of that existence as special, however, had to be discovered.

As Kessen (1965) points out, charting the rise of the concept is an exciting if difficult task. Until recently, most historians interested in the 'ancien regime' paid little attention to either children or the family. Thankfully a number of good discussions on the discovery of childhood are readily available (Aries, 1962; de Mause, 1974; Hunt, 1970; Shorter, 1975), for an examination of the concept of childhood is central to establishing a context for this dissertation on parent education.

Aries (1971, 1962) detailed the evolution of the image of the nature of children through the paintings, diaries, and literature of four centuries.

No doubt the discovery of childhood began in the thirteenth century, and its progress can be traced in the history of art in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. But the evidence of its development became more plentiful and significant from the end of the sixteenth century and throughout the seventeenth.¹

Certainly nothing in medieval dress distinguished the child from the adult. It was not until the seventeenth century that the child began to have an outfit reserved for his age group.² In America Earle (1893) noted young children of Boston society decked out in 1771 as little images of their elegant mammas. Partridge and Otto (1946) mentioned that as late as 1875, children in parts of America were but smaller copies of grownups.

With the exception of Hellenistic iconography, childhood was not portrayed in art until the twelfth century. Artists first depicted children as smaller adults, with no difference in the expression of features other than scale. The angel began to appear in art in the thirteenth century, followed by the infant Jesus. Both, however, were pictured as adults in miniature. Later into the Gothic period came the naked child. From this "religious iconography of childhood, a lay iconography detached itself in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries."³ Portraits of children mingled with adults began to be frequently found in anecdotal paintings. The custom of portraits of children alone did not originate until the seventeenth century.⁴

Childhood was portrayed in countless medieval texts within the theme of 'the ages of man,' one of the most common early ways of discussing human development.⁵ One such text, Le Grande Proprietaire de Toutes Choses, presents an idea which persisted well into the nineteenth century:

The first age of childhood is when the teeth are planted, and this age begins when the child is born and lasts until seven, and in this age that which is born is called an infant....⁶

A child younger than seven--one who still required the attention and solicitude of grownups--was treated with "indifference;"⁷ after seven a child was integrated into adult society.⁸ This precocious participation in adult life was a most characteristic feature of medieval childrearing.⁹ At this point, parents had "no awareness of the particular nature of childhood," and apart from "participation in adult life," no detailed plan for the raising of children.¹⁰

The infant who was as yet too fragile to enter the labor force, in the words of Moliere: "did not count." In sixteenth and seventeenth century England, the word 'baby' denoted a child of school age, and it was only in the latter that 'little child' began to take on the meaning we give it. Indeed, there was no French word for a child in the first months of life until the nineteenth century, when 'bebe' was borrowed from the English (who by then had lowered the definition to signify one who could not yet walk or talk).¹¹

Thus, at least until the seventeenth century, childhood had little significance, many feeling, with Montaigne, that children had "neither mental activities nor recognizable bodily shape."¹² Infancy referred to a period of transition which passed quickly and was just as soon forgotten. There were two major reasons for this feeling of indifference.

In the first place, children dropped like flies. With survival problematical, parents did not become too attached to something that was regarded as likely to depart at any minute.¹³

Barely possessing souls of their own, they came at the Will of God, departed at His Behest, and in their brief mortal sojourn deserved little adult sympathy or compassion.¹⁴

The seventeenth century had almost closed before a child born in London had an even chance of surviving until his fifth birthday.¹⁵ In Central Europe the odds were even worse. In Paris, the odds depended a great deal on whether the infant was farmed out to a mercenary wet nurse (an exceedingly common practice which generally assured an infant's demise) or kept at home.¹⁶ Everywhere death was greeted with equanimity.

"There is nothing in this callousness which should surprise us: It was only natural in the community conditions of the time."¹⁷ Dying babies were left "lying in the gutters and rotting on the dung-heaps of London."¹⁸ Often unbaptized babies would be buried almost anywhere. If there was a funeral, neither parent might attend. Or they might take turns. In early America the mortality rate was high as well. As Earle (1893) notes, of Cotton Mather's fifteen children, only two survived him, the majority dying in infancy.

Fortunately things changed, and from the appearance of Cadogan's Essay on Nursing (1748), one can discern the beginnings of two relatively uninterrupted lines in medicine that caused the change: (a) the development of research that has significantly reduced the infant death rate, and (b) the hardly less important chain of clinical pediatricians who have given advice and comfort to parents for over two hundred years. Saving the life of the infant was a necessary condition for high valuation.

Secondly, the nuclear family during the middle ages was a relatively insignificant institution. Through the time of Bruegel the Elder, there was little time for a private sector. For work or play, family members "spent more of their time in other groups, and thought these groups were more significant than the one centering around the hearth."¹⁹ Blood ties were important, but it was the line, or extended kinship group rather than the conjugal family, which counted in people's minds. People often did not remember how many children they had; it was only gradually that the nuclear family became important. The emergence dates again, around the seventeenth century. Depending upon the historian, the transition

from traditional to modern²⁰ family was due to: a surge of sentimentality (Shorter, 1975), increasing affluence (Plumb, 1975), the absolutist monarchy (de Toqueville), the emotions aroused in parents at seeing the physical similarity of their children to themselves (Erasmus), or to the development of a new relationship between parents and children (Aries, 1962). In any case, the evolution of the modern concept of the family is inseparable from the developing concept of childhood. In Western culture at least, as the family itself changed, so did its attitudes towards children.

Thus after centuries of indifference, adults began, albeit slowly, to develop a marked interest in young children, eventually expanding the concept of childhood itself beyond infancy into adolescence. This process is marked by a number of distinct phases. For a long time, children, although recognized, were treated with ambivalence (Shorter, 1975). Then they were coddled (Aries, 1962) and seen as fit for redemption (Aries, 1962). More recently, children became valuable (Hunt, 1965), irreplaceable (Aries, 1962), and lately, cultural heroes (Kessen, 1965).

The Practice of Parenting

After the seventeenth century, when infants became integrated into the world of the living, there ensued a period of ambivalence. The place of infancy in the chain of being consisted of a separate link, connecting the animal and human worlds without belonging completely to either one. It is interesting to note that in the frontispiece to the Tabula-Cebetis Merian has:

placed the little children in a sort of marginal zone,

between the earth from which they have emerged and the life into which they have not yet entered, and from which they are separated by a portico bearing the inscription Introitus ad vitam.²¹

Parents would refer to their tiny offspring as "it" or "le creature."²² It was commonly believed during this phase that a mother's milk was actually whitened blood, nursing being seen not as a cooperative venture, but as a struggle in which the infant "prospered at the expense of his mother, from whose body he plucked the precious substance he needed for his own survival."²³ Fear of being bitten added to the picture of a young child as a "predatory and frightening creature capable of harming the woman whose duty it was to care for him."²⁴ In a tale of the time, a nourishing infant was transformed, when a nursing Strasbourg mother fell asleep, into a rapacious serpent with poisonous fangs which remained fastened to her breast--growing to enormous size and carried around in a basket--until finally tempted away by the magic charms of a sorceress ten months later.²⁵

This image of children as intermediate beings affected such interaction as there was between parents and infants in the seventeenth century. As Hunt (1970) describes it, the notion of 'playing' with children had an ambiguous ring, some believing that it betrayed a careless, self-indulgent attitude on the part of adults. "It is as if," commented Fleury, "the poor children had been made only to amuse the adults, like little dogs or little monkeys."²⁶ This image of children as pets became common and ingrained in the literature. In describing the battle of Paris, Jean Burel wrote that the Parisians were "beseiged by the King of Navarre so closely that they were forced to eat animals: dogs, horses, everything right up to, and almost including, little children"²⁷ Swift,

(1729) proposes this very thing, when, outraged by the failure of Irish leaders to make any provision for the care of children, he satirically suggests,

that a young healthy child well Nursed is at a year Old a most delicious, nourishing, and wholesome Food, whether Stewed, Roasted, Baked, or Boyled, and I make no doubt that it will equally serve in a Fricasie, or a Rogoust.²⁸

In order to explore how these parental attitudes carried over into the whole of relations with the child during the first year of life, let us briefly review a common practice--the custom of swaddling. The reasons for our interest in swaddling are as follows:

1. It allows us to focus on relations with very young children. Hunt (1970) correctly points out that Aries, following in the footsteps of his medieval forebears, demonstrates only a superficial interest in the first part of life.
2. It provides us with an excellent example of early parent-child interaction, since swaddling was a regular, daily activity, and a deeply routed routine put into practice almost automatically for generations.
3. It enables us to analyze in detail what adults thought of early life, since the act of swaddling itself represented a point-of-view towards childhood.
4. Finally it serves as a means by which to contrast the literature on the importance of the first years of life.

There is a remarkable confluence of opinion among the "Great Thinkers" on the importance of the early years. Quintilian, Comenius, Fenelon, Rollin, and Watts believed, with Plato, that:

The beginning is always the most important part especially when you are dealing with anything young and tender. That is the time when the character is easily molded and easily takes any impress one may wish to stamp upon it.²⁹

and Plutarch.

Childhood is a tender thing and easily wrought into any shape.³⁰

It is somewhat surprising then at first glance, to find that through the eighteenth century, the shape into which the infant was most often "wrought" and "molded" was that of a mummy.

Scarcely is the infant out of the womb of his mother, scarcely is he at liberty to move and to stretch his limbs, when he is given new bonds. He is swathed, put to bed with his head fixed and his legs extended, his arms at his sides; he is wrapped in linen and bandages, to the extent that he cannot change position. He is lucky if he is not squeezed so hard that he is unable to breathe, and if he has been placed on his side, so that the water which has to pass through his mouth can run out of its own accord, for he is not able to turn his head.³¹

Most infants spent their first eight to nine months swathed, immobile, often alone for long stretches of time, "left to squirm and cry for hours in their smelly swaddling clothes, little bottoms red and inflamed...."³² Left unattended by the hearth, they'd perish when their garment caught fire;³³ tossed into a corner unguarded, they'd be attacked and eaten by the wandering barnyard hogs.³⁴ Others might be suspended from a nail "so that the bands tightened, suffocating the child and choking off his cries."³⁵ Later, they would be knocked into a groggy sleep through benumbing rocking and shaking of their narrow cradles.³⁶ While this is hardly the image conjured up when reading Caxton (1491):

A lytyll bende to swadle a lytyll chylde beynge in his cradle.³⁷

and while there were certainly exceptions to the preceding gallery of cruel images, it appears to be a representative description of the times. Thus, while Godwin, father-in-law of Shelley, was recalling the lines of the ancients in stating:

The more inexperienced and immature is the mind of the infant, the greater is his pliability.³⁸

his compatriots were busy testing the limits of infant plasticity through binding. It was only after Rousseau had indicated:

Children are always in motion; quiet and meditation are their aversion;...neither their minds nor their bodies can bear constraint.³⁹

did infants begin to be liberated from 'the tyranny of the maillot.'

The practice enraged many late eighteenth and early nineteenth century medical writers, but Shorter (1975) finds no sign that the practice had begun to lose its hold among the 'common rural folk' before 1850, the decline beginning perhaps a century earlier among the urban middle and upper classes.

Hunt (1970) mentions that three reasons were given for swaddling.

1. To keep the infant warm.
2. To help the infant's limbs grow straight.
3. To serve as a substitute for adults attention.

In thinking of swaddling as a childrearing practice, it is this last reason which is most interesting, for the 'maillot' was, in essence, a babysitter. It allowed poor women an opportunity to spend long periods of time away from their infants; it immobilized their children, preventing them from hurting themselves.

In thinking of swaddling as representing a point-of-view towards

childhood, other reasons for the practice present themselves. Most assuredly, swaddling helped protect an infant from his parents as well, since it "allowed parents to defend against the consequences of their own distaste."⁴⁰ Mariceau (1668) observed that children were swaddled in fear that they would otherwise never learn to stand erect, but would always crawl on all fours like little animals. Finally, since parents felt apprehensive about what would happen if the baby were left free to develop according to his natural impulses, swaddling was a device for molding and fashioning the child in an acceptable way, deflecting his growth from "its regular, and possibly dangerous channels."⁴¹

Most importantly for our purposes, however, swaddling severely inhibited parent-child interaction. It prevented infant movement. (While there is no evidence to suggest that swaddling crippled children, and little to suggest that the practice significantly retarded subsequent motor development, it did have an effect upon later development.)⁴²

A child lying stiff in swaddling clothes was unable to wave its hands and feet in the air, incapable of reaching out to grasp some dangled object, forbidden by its bonds to respond to maternal playfulness.⁴³

It discouraged spontaneity. Parents were unlikely to become very playful with an unyielding wrapped log of wood. When mothers were with their children, Shorter (1975) notes little of the affectionate concern, the playful efforts to help the infant develop as a person, that characterizes the modern mother, and finds the following account typical:

Here they care for infants only with this phlegmatic tranquility characteristic of the pituitary temperament. If they hold them in their arms, if they walk them, it's in stillness, the silence of resignation to their

duties, which the mothers and servants execute with exactitude but seldom go beyond. They don't sing; they don't talk to the infant; they don't try to awaken its senses; they make no effort to develop the child's sensations through merriment or through the little coquetries of maternal tenderness.⁴⁴

Thus, liberating the infant from its linen bonds would mean liberating it to interact, and one would expect the liberation to have a marked effect upon the entire family. The effect was immediate and significant. Infants acted, and as parents reacted to their 'antics,' they would henceforth "...no longer hesitate to recognize the pleasure they got from watching children's antics and 'coddling' them."⁴⁵

Several critics railed at this 'coddling' attitude, finding insufferable the attention beginning to be paid to infants. One bristled, "I cannot abide that passion for caressing new-born children...."⁴⁶ However, as the mortality rate declined, and the family drew inward, setting itself off from larger society, parents began to perceive that they had a responsibility greater than previously acknowledged. The fondness for childhood and its special nature which found expression in amusement and 'coddling' continued, giving rise to psychological interest and moral solicitude. Young children became, thanks to gentlemen of the robe and legions of moralists, "fragile creatures of God who needed to be both safeguarded and reformed,"⁴⁷ and slowly irreplaceable.

Parents understood, finally, that their actions had an effect upon their infant's survival; now they would begin to understand that their actions also had an effect upon the quality of their infant's development. It was only yesterday in human history that adults took up these responsibilities of parenthood. On the other hand, accounts of family life show how poorly prepared they were for the job, how the conditions

of daily existence seriously hindered their efforts, and how children suffered from the resulting breakdown in parental care. Accounts of family life today show much the same results.

One should not be too discouraged that the conclusions remain the same. After all, good parenting is a relatively recent invention, and whether it can be taught, as well as the effect such teaching might have on altering those conclusions, has yet to be determined.

It is my belief that the determination will depend, in large part, on how we define childhood. Are children to be considered in the future as we have considered them in the past, or can we begin to define childhood in yet some other way--a way that emphasizes the fulfillment of their potential as unique individuals with a diversity of talents? We have seen that we have been unable to consider children without considering adults and society; likewise, in the words of Kenniston (1975) we:

...cannot consider the future of children without considering the future of mankind. There is no escaping the question of our deepest values.⁴⁸

1. Aries, Philippe. Centuries of Childhood: A Social History of Family Life, trans. Robert Baldick, (New York: Vintage Press), 1962, p. 47.
2. Aries, Centuries, p. 50.
3. Aries, Centuries, p. 37.
4. Aries, Centuries, p. 42.
5. The 'ages of life' occupied a considerable place in the scientific treatises of the Middle Ages. Aries notes that a man's 'age' was a "scientific category of the same order as weight or speed for our contemporaries; it formed part of a system of physical description and explanation which went back to the Ionian philosophers of the sixth century B.C." (Aries, Centuries, p. 19). The conceptualization was an early forerunner of the modern developmental construction called 'stage,' and is still widely used. See for instance Erikson, Erik. Childhood and Society, Harmondsworth (England): Penguin, 1970, Chapter 7.
6. Le Grand Proprietaire de toutes choses, tres utile et profitable pour tenir le corps en sante, trans. Jean Corbichon, 1556. This reference was a thirteenth century encyclopedia, and the selection was quoted in Aries, Centuries, p. 21.
7. Aries, Centuries.
8. The importance of the seventh birthday in the transformation from child to adult can be found in, among other works: Heroard, Jean. Journal de Jean Heroard sur l'enfance et la jeunesse de Louis XIII, 1601-1628; Blackstone, William, Commentaries on the Law of England, 1769; the Catholic canon law. Modern analyses on the significance of the seventh birthday in developmental psychology can be found in White, Sheldon. "Some General Outlines of the Matrix of Developmental Changes Between Five and Seven Years" in Bulletin of the Orton Society, 1970, 20, 41-57, or Kalinowski, Michael. "The Five to Seven Shift," unpublished manuscript, 1974.
9. Aries, Centuries, p. 128.
10. Aries, Centuries, p. 128, 368.
11. Aries, Centuries, p. 29.
12. Montaigne, Michel de. Essais, II, 8.

13. For whatever reason, a shocking number of children died. This mortality rate has been well documented. Hunt, David. Parents and Children in History, (New York: Harper, 1970).
14. Shorter, Edward. The Making of the Modern Family, New York: Basic Books, 1975, p. 169.
15. Kessen, William. The Child, (New York: John Wiley), 1965, p. 8.
16. Shorter, Making, pp. 175-199. See also Appendix V.
17. Aries, Centuries, p. 39.
18. de Mause, Lloyd, Ed. The History of Childhood. New York: Psychohistory Press, 1974, p. 531.
19. Hunt, Parents and Children, p. 35.
20. Shorter (1975) would define traditional families against modern families by contrasting: The traditional family displayed a willingness to put the demands of the community above their personal ambitions and desires, had a preference for authority and custom, and was suspicious of sexuality. The modern family's wish to be free triumphed over the community's demands for obedience and conformity, and felt a preference for free individual choice and spontaneity, and a right to sexual gratification. For a further explanation, see Shorter, Making, pp. 18-20.
21. Merian, Tabula Cebetis, 1655. Quoted in Aries, Centuries, p. 39.
22. Shorter, Making, p. 172.
23. Hunt, Parents and Children, p. 120.
24. Hunt, Parents and Children, p. 121.
25. Bourgeois, Louise. "Observations diverses sur la sterilité, perte de fruit, focondité, accouchements et maladies des femmes et enfants nouveaux naiz...." Rouen, 1626.
26. Fleury, Claude. Traite du Choix et de la Methode des Etudes, 1686. Quoted in Aries, Centuries, p. 131.
27. Burel, Jean. Memoires de Jean Burel, bourgeois de Puy, 1875. Quoted in Hunt, Parents and Children, p. 125.
28. Swift, Jonathon. A Modest Proposal for Preventing the Children of Poor People from Being a Burden to their Parents, or the Country, and for Making Them Beneficial to the Publick. (Dublin: S. Harding), 1729, pp. 6-7.

29. Plato, Republic, Book 2, 377.
30. Plutarch, in Monroe, P. Sourcebook of the History of Education, Greek and Roman Period. (New York), 1906.
31. Buffon, George. Histoire Naturelle de L'homme. 1749-1767, XIII, pp. 30-31.
32. Quoted in Shorter, Making, p. 196.
33. Documented in Pfeufer, 1810, and Bancel, 1866. Quoted in Shorter, Making, p. 171.
34. Documented in Pfeufer, 1810, and Bancel, 1866. Quoted in Shorter, Making, p. 171.
35. Rousseau, Jean. Emile, ou de L'education, 1762, 11, and Buffon, Histoire Naturelle, XIII, p. 35.
36. Shorter, Making, p. 170.
37. Caxton, William. Vitas Patr., 1495. Quoted in Compact Edition of the Oxford English Dictionary, (New York: Oxford University Press), 1972, p. 3182.
38. Godwin, William, The Enquirer, 1797. Quoted in Elizabeth Lawrence. The Origins and Growth of Modern Education, Harmondsmith (English): Penguin, 1970, p. 171.
39. Rousseau quoted in Lawrence, Origins and Growth, p. 164.
40. Hunt, Parents and Children, p. 130.
41. Hunt, Parents and Children, p. 132.
42. The argument of early effects upon later developments will be taken up elsewhere in this dissertation. For an engrossing discussion of the effects of swaddling on Maxim Gorky's life (and on the practice in Russia), see Erikson, Childhood, pp. 378-383.
43. Shorter, Making, p. 196.
44. Bucquet, J., 1808 quoted in Shorter, Making, p. 172.
45. Aries, Centuries, p. 130.
46. Quoted in Aries, Centuries, p. 130.
47. Aries, Centuries, p. 133.

48. Kenniston, Kenneth. "'Good Children' (Our Own), 'Bad Children' (Other People's), and the Horrible Work Ethic."

CHAPTER ONE

SETTING THE STAGE

1.1 RATIONALE

1.2 MODELS OF MAN

1.2.1 The Nature of Models

1.2.2 The Mechanistic Model of Man and the World

1.2.3 The Organismic Model of Man and the World

1.2.4 Conclusion

1.3 THEORIES OF DEVELOPMENT

1.3.1 The Nature of the Theories

1.3.2 Mechanical Mirror Theories

1.3.3 Organic Lamp Theories

1.3.4 Conclusion

1.4 THE ANISA PERSPECTIVE

1.4.1 The Nature of Anisa

1.4.2 The Anisa Model of Man

1.4.3 The Anisa Theory of Development

1.4.4 Conclusion

1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE DISSERTATION

1.5.1 Ethical Considerations

1.5.2 Societal Considerations

1.5.3 Developmental Considerations

1.5.4 Conclusion

1.1 RATIONALE

In the long run the fate of a civilization depends not only on its political system, its economic structure, or its military might. Perhaps, indeed, all of these ultimately depend in turn upon the faith of the people, upon what we believe and feel about Man; about the possibilities of human nature....

Joseph Wood Krutch¹

The reasons for undertaking this study will be more easily understood if one is acquainted with the major philosophical positions with regard to the nature of man and his development. An examination of such premises is, according to Uzgiris and Hunt (1975), "without question extremely important both for the sake of clarity in theoretical discussions and for consistency of approach to empirical work."² That is one reason why this paper will begin with a brief sketch of models of man and theories of development.

A second reason stems from the fact that the assumptions one makes about the nature of man will determine one's definition of childhood, inform one's theory of development, and together seriously affect one's suggestions for parent-child interaction through the creation of a model of parent education.

For example, the ancient definition of children as 'miniature adults' supported a preformationist conception³ of development, the fundamental thesis of which is that the basic properties and behavioral capacities of man are presumed to exist preformed at birth.⁴ The thesis was foreshadowed by Hippocrates, Anexogoras, and Seneca:

In the seed are enclosed all the parts of the body of the man that should be formed. The infant that is born in his mother's wombe hath the rootes of the beard and hair that he shall weare one day. In this little masse likewise are all the lineaments of the bodie and all that which Posterity shall discover in him.⁵

This conception led to homuncular explanations of reproduction and gestation, epitomized by Hartsoeker's (1694) famous drawing of a tiny man curled up inside a human spermatozoon. The homuncular explanation remained dominant until a century after the microscope had been invented. Then Wolff (1768), in controversy with von Haller (1767), finally disposed of the preformation conception at the level of embryology. Ausubel and Sullivan (1970) trace the origins of this conception to the theological conception of man's instantaneous creation and to the widespread belief in the innateness of the individual's personality, noting in addition that,

the disposition to perceive the infant or child as a miniature adult is largely an outgrowth of the ubiquitous tendency towards anthropomorphism in interpreting phenomena remote from own experience or familiar explanatory models. What is easier than to explain the behavior of others in terms of one's own response potentialities.⁶

We have already seen the implications this perception had for parent-child interaction through history. Even today perhaps, the man in the street makes little distinction between adults and children, and as one might expect, the implications remain frightening. Since inappropriate assumptions lead to inadequate programs, a view more compatible with the author's will be developed in this chapter.

1.2 MODELS OF MAN

You know, there is a familiar old maxim which assures us that man is the noblest work of God. Well now, who found that out?

Mark Twain⁷

1.2.1 The Nature of Models

Aristotle distinguished between conceiving of man as an actor who, "spontaneously initiates his own actions, which move his surroundings

to react,"⁸ and man as a patient, "whose behavior is merely a response to external agents, which move him to react in ways that conform to the demands inherent in their stimulation."⁹ From this conception of man as active or passive have come two basic models of man which have had a pervasive effect upon the field of developmental psychology. We shall discuss each of them briefly in terms of their basic metaphor, their cosmology, their view of the organism, their resulting epistemological position, and their history. First however, we must define 'model.'

Models, to Reese and Overton (1970), originate in metaphor and exist on several levels ranging from all inclusive metaphysical models to narrowly circumscribed models of specific features of theories. Models at the more general levels form the determining logical context for models at lower levels.

The different degrees of models are characterized by different degrees of generality, openness, and vagueness. At one extreme are implicit and psychologically submerged models of such generality as to be capable of incorporating every phenomenon. These metaphysical systems are...world hypotheses....They are basic models of the essential characteristics of man and indeed of the nature of reality.¹⁰

Because these models are based on metaphors, they cannot be true or false; they can only be more or less useful. Reese and Overton note as an example the mathematical theory of astronomy developed by Laplace in the early nineteenth century, a theory which only makes sense in a deterministic universe.

The deterministic universe is a model of reality, not a description of reality....Whether or not the universe is "really" deterministic is beside the point. Thus, Laplace's activities depended upon a belief in, or at least acceptance of or assumption of, a deterministic universe, a belief or

assumption that not only motivated the activities but also made possible the success.¹¹

The point is important. Within these models, 'X' is not 'Y'; 'X' behaves as if it were 'Y'.^{12*}

1.2.2 The Mechanistic Model of Man and the World

The basic metaphor employed for the mechanistic model is that of the machine, and whether the specific product manufactured is that of computer or watch, the fundamental categories remain constant and ultimately result in the same theoretical attitudes.

As a cosmology, the model presents the universe as a machine, composed of discrete pieces in a spatio-temporal field.

The pieces--elementary particles in motion--and their relations form the basic reality to which all more complex phenomena are ultimately reducible. In the operation of the machine, forces are applied and there results a discrete chain-like sequence of events. These forces are the only efficient or immediate causes; purpose is seen as a mediate or derived cause. Given this, it is only a short step to the recognition that complete prediction is in principle possible, since complete knowledge of the state of the machine at one point in time allows inference of the state at the next, given a knowledge of the forces to be applied. A further characteristic of the machine, and consequently of the universe represented in this way, is that it is eminently susceptible to quantification.¹³

In the sphere of epistemology and psychology, the mechanistic model of the universe has resulted in what has been variously termed the reactive, passive robot, or empty organism model of man. In its ideal form this model characterizes the organism, like other parts of the universal machine, as inherently at rest. Activity is the result of external or peripheral forces.

*What follows concerning this topic is a synopsis of these models as interpreted by Reese and Overton (1970).

The epistemological position that derives from this model is that of "naive" realism, a copy theory of knowledge according to which the knower plays no active role in the known, and inevitably apprehends the world in a predetermined way.

The history of this model stems from the time of Locke, who reacted against the seventeenth century procedure of solving problems on the basis of appeals to phenomena that were even less well known (i.e., "Descartes solution to the problems of epistemology by making an ultimate recourse to God as the source of all knowledge"¹⁴) and accepted the Newtonian ideal by proclaiming his famous dictum of the tabula rasa:

Nothing is in the intellect which is not first in the senses.¹⁵

From this point forward the empiricist movement in philosophy and psychology from Berkeley and Hume through the Mills, and down to the twentieth century behaviorists, can be viewed as "an attempt to bring the reactive organism model progressively closer and closer to the logic of the mechanistic model of the universe."¹⁶

1.2.3 The Organismic Model of Man and the World

The basic metaphor employed for the organismic model is that of the organism--a living, organized system presented to experience in multiple forms.

As a cosmology this model was first systematically elaborated by Leibniz. In his monadology, Leibniz began from an organic base with the assertion that:

The essence of substance is activity rather than the static elementary particle proposed by the mechanistic model. This

activity was viewed as consisting "in a continuous transition from one state to another as it produces these states out of itself in unceasing succession (Cassirer, 1951, p. 29)."... (F)rom such a point of view, one element can never be like another, and as a consequence, the logic of discovering reality according to the analytic ideal of reducing the many qualitative differences to the one is repudiated. In its place is substituted a search for unity among the many: that is, a pluralistic universe is substituted for a monistic one, and it is in the diversity which constitutes unity. This unity is found in discovering the rules of transition from one form to another and in establishing the system in which the transition occurs. Thus, unity is found in multiplicity, being is found in becoming, and constancy is found in change.¹⁷

In this representation then, the whole is organic rather than mechanical in nature. The nature of the whole, rather than being the sum of its parts, is presupposed by the parts and the whole constitutes the condition of the meaning and existence of the parts.

According to the principle of activity of the monad, through progressive acts of differentiation or individuation, the monad is in continuous progression from one state to another.¹⁸ This notion of progressive development does not involve the mechanical connection of efficient causes leading to additive effective, but rather involves a teleological relationship. Efficient cause is replaced by formal cause (i.e., "cause by the essential nature of a form"¹⁹). In the organismic model, it is not possible for the universe to be strictly predictive and quantifiable.

In the sphere of epistemology and psychology, the organismic model of the universe has resulted in the active organism model of man. This model characterizes the organism as inherently and spontaneously active, and as the source of acts, rather than as the collection of acts initiated by external (peripheral) force. This model represents man as an organized entity, a configuration of parts which gain their

meaning and function from the whole in which they are embedded.

The epistemological position which derives from this model is that of "constructivism," a theory of knowledge according to which the knower, on the basis of his inherent activity and organization, actively participates in the construction of the known reality, and apprehends the world only through the structures which mediate his behavior. As these structures change, there is a qualitative change in the mode of knowing the world.

The elaboration and evolution of this model began, as stated, with Leibniz's psychological and epistemological speculations, and his re-introduction of a Platonic theme that, "all the thoughts and actions of our soul come from its own depths and cannot be given to it by the senses."²⁰ Following his cosmology, Leibniz maintained that the fundamental nature of mind consists in its activity.

Whereas LOCKE has come to be taken, perhaps unfairly, as the progenitor of all those theories of mind that conceive of development in terms of a widening set of associative among elementary units, connections established in an essentially passive organism, LEIBNIZ may be regarded, fairly, as a major forerunner of those modern theories of mind that conceive development in terms of a teleological process, a process inherent in the nature of the organism as a center of dynamic activity.²¹

He viewed mind as a whole composed of formative forces, and this idea set the stage for the future task of the eighteenth century German Enlightenment, the task of specifying those forces in their reciprocal relations. Later, Kant built upon this base his critical idealism, which provided an empirical dimension well captured in his aphorism: "Concepts without percepts are empty, percepts without concepts are blind."²² Hegel later elaborated his own developmental concept of the dialectic.

Today the model is exemplified in the philosophy of Ernst Cassirer (1953).

1.2.4 Conclusion

Theories built upon different world views are by their nature logically independent and irreconcilable according to Kuhn (1962) and Pepper (1942).

...the proponents of competing paradigms practice their trades in different worlds...Both are looking at the world, and what they look at has not changed. But in some areas they see different things, and they see them in different relations one to another.²³

Thus it would follow that an attempt at synthesis of first principles should be futile and lead to confusion. In the first place, as Reese and Overton (1970) point out: "Different world views have different criteria for determining the truth of propositions, and therefore a synthesis that mixes world views also mixes truth criteria."²⁴ Furthermore, across metaphysical models there cannot be a common language because the very nature of different models dictates different language and different definitions.²⁵ A total integration of the mechanistic and organismic models cannot be entertained as long as the first principles of both systems remain first principles.²⁶

We are left with three choices. The first choice involves an eclectic approach which includes more than one world view, but keeps the paradigms separate and specifies when each is to be applied. Many authors have chosen this approach, implicitly assuming one model--the mechanistic one, in explaining prenatal and infant behavior (and often child behavior in general), and another model--usually the organismic

one, in accounting for adolescent and adult behavior. S. H. White's (1965) analysis of the transitions that occur between about five and seven years of age in children are but one example of this approach. Before the transition, a mechanistic, associative model accounts for behavior; after the transition, an organismic, cognitive model is utilized.²⁷

While Reese and Overton (1970) believe this kind of eclecticism is necessary at our present stage of knowledge to account for the whole range of human behaviors throughout the life span, this combined approach is, at best, controversial.

Black (1962) has stated that a model when formed becomes a lens through which one looks at one's subject matter in a new way. The primary advantage to the eclectic approach would appear to be one of widened scope which increases the range of phenomena that can be interpreted. Utilizing Black's metaphor, the approach is perhaps akin to sighting through a pair of unique binoculars, each half corresponding to a different world view. In looking at anything, one chooses the lens (model) which presents the phenomena in sharper focus. The difficulties with these special binoculars, however, are enormous. There is the obvious tendency towards eyestrain and fatigue caused by looking through two different 'lenses,' and keeping track of which world view one is using; there is, more importantly, the frustration caused by an inherent impossibility of comparing behavior if the different phenomena being examined have been 'sighted' through more than a single 'lens.' With this approach then, confusion is also likely and true comprehensive vision cannot be attained. Thus the eclectic approach has limited use-

fulness.

Another possible choice is selection, or creation of a world view other than the mechanistic or organismic ones. Unfortunately, none with the precision and scope²⁸ of the two major models are presently available, and it is beyond the scope of this paper to create a new world view.

We return to the obvious choice: reliance upon a single world view. It is important to remember that because the mechanistic and organismic models are based on metaphors, any evaluation must be pragmatic. Therefore in deciding which 'lens' to choose, let us look at the developmental theories which derive from these models as a way of analyzing which will be most useful for our purposes.

1.3 THEORIES OF DEVELOPMENT

It is a capital mistake to theorize before one has data.

Sir Arthur Conan Doyle²⁹

1.3.1 The Nature of Theories

A theory is an attempt to describe how nature works; it is a scheme or system of ideas or statements intended to provide an explanation for a group of facts or phenomena. One can speculate that a turning point in the development of civilization came when people began to construct theories in an effort to understand their environment. This attitude of intellectual curiosity is a keystone of modern science.³⁰

A primary function of a science is to establish general laws on the basis of experience. Scientific thinking is essentially thinking concerned with connecting pieces of empirical knowledge with each other.³¹

Theoretical concepts are only a particularly elaborate way of making these connections:

A scientific hypothesis is a general proposition about all the things of a certain sort. It is an empirical proposition in the sense that it is testable by experience; experience is relevant to the question as to whether or not the hypothesis is true, i.e., as to whether or not it is a scientific law.³²

Following the terminology of Braithwaite (1955), a scientific theory is a deductive system in which observable consequences logically follow from the conjunction of observed facts with the set of fundamental hypotheses of the system. The deductive system consists of a set of initial propositions from which all other propositions (deduced propositions) follow according to logical principles. Those statements which are not deduced from any other set of statements in the system are known as assumptions or definitions.³³

Another way of stating this is: a scientific theory is a set of statements, including (a) general laws and principles which serve as axioms; (b) other laws, or theorems, that are deducible from the axioms; and (c) definitions of concepts.³⁴

Scientific theory represents the results of centuries of development of the natural sciences and emphasizes certain basic assumptions about the nature of evidence: that it should be publicly verifiable,³⁵ testable,³⁶ and have clear logical derivations and clear empirical definitions. In addition, evidence should promote the theory's fertility.³⁷ The theory should also conform to the law of parsimony.³⁸ These are the minimum requirements for a scientific theory.

Theories serve several important functions in science. They serve as guides in the collection of normative data;³⁹ they delimit the scope

of observation.⁴⁰ They make possible the seemingly miscellaneous and unrelated facts and fragments of knowledge under more inclusive generalizations.⁴¹ They lead to a greater economy of research effort by structuring specific explanatory hypotheses along lines that are consistent with a larger body of interrelated principles and empirical findings.⁴² They aid the search for data that can reasonably be related to other data,⁴³ and prescribe what appropriate next steps in research might be.⁴⁴ Theories also bind groups of researchers together, providing networks of communication and exchange which increase the probability of meaningful effort as well as the likelihood of replication of results.⁴⁵ Finally, they allow us to make predictions.⁴⁶ To educators, the ability to predict phenomena is one of the main advantages of a theory, and enables one to expound that nothing is so practical as a good theory.⁴⁷

Theories of development are guides for understanding the perfectability of man as well as his vulnerability. They define man's place in nature and signal opportunities for changing his lot by aiding growth.⁴⁸

Reese and Overton (1970) note that theories (even within a single field of knowledge) can be classified into "families."⁴⁹

A family is a set of theories that are based upon the same model, although not necessarily upon the same content area.⁵⁰

Langer (1969) has ordered clusters of hypotheses within the field of developmental psychology into three "main contemporary streams of thought."⁵¹ He calls these three families of developmental perspectives the psychoanalytic, the mechanical mirror, and the organic lamp theories. We shall concern ourselves here with the mechanical mirror and the organic lamp viewpoints.⁵² Differing conceptions of man and change lead

these two major contemporary 'families' to focus upon different types of phenomena, methods of inquiry, and forms of explanation. The general outlines of their respective approaches will be sketched in order to facilitate the selection of a single world view.

1.3.2 Mechanical Mirror Theories

Within the Mechanical Mirror family of theories, development is defined as the continuous, quantitative accumulation of behavior.⁵³ At the core of this perspective (Langer, 1969) is the thesis that man grows to be what he is made to be by his environment. In the history of philosophical thought, this thesis has been based upon two assumptions: (a) that the content of the mind can be analyzed into constituent elements; and (b) that external forces impinge upon the child's sensorium and leave elementary impressions.⁵⁴ The most basic principle is that man's psychological nature is his behavior.

The child is born empty of psychological content into a world of coherently organized content. Like a mirror, however, the child comes to reflect his environment; like an empty slate he is written upon by external stimuli; and like a machine he may be made to react in response to stimulating agents.⁵⁵

Growth is a continuous process of learning (acquiring, remembering, and performing) behavior: "like a sculptor who shapes a lump of clay," the environment gradually shapes the behavior of the child (Skinner, 1953).⁵⁶

Contemporary Mechanical Mirror conceptions focus upon behavioral reactions, rather than impressions, that the child can be observed to make in response to environmental stimulation, and upon his behavioral achievements, particularly those that bring him into increasing conformity with his physical and social milieu. The theoretical aim is to formulate the long term efficient causes of (or antecedent condi-

tions that lead to) the child's behavior, that is, how earlier events in life are remembered and may influence responses to stimulation later in life.

There are obvious methodological advantages that result from a focus upon behavioral reactions rather than impressions. It is much easier to observe and record a child's reactions to, rather than his impressions or images of, controlled conditions.

The empirical focus is upon the efficient cause of short-term (or local) change: the general aim is to determine how a given impression, association, or response is acquired over a short period at any given time of life. The idea is that gradual and continuous acquisition of these elements adds up to growth observed at any age.

The aim is to elucidate the general conditioning, imitative, and mediational mechanisms that govern the child's acquisition of associations of stimuli and responses at any age. These three mechanisms define the domain of scientific inquiry.⁵⁷

A choice of research method is intrinsically related to one's theoretical approach to psychological phenomena and development. Certain research methods are typically preferred by each perspective. Proponents of the Mechanical Mirror view have become wedded to cross-sectional experiments (Zaporozhets, 1965) and longitudinal experiments (Hicks, 1965), and variants of the experimental and correlational methods as their ideal tool of investigation.

Within the Mechanical Mirror perspective, there is a wide spectrum of approaches to development. At the fundamentalist end there is the view, represented by such theorists as Skinner or Bijou and Baer, that the underlying mechanism is the conditioned reflex.

The attempt is to demonstrate that the acquisition and modification of all behaviors, whether motoric, social, linguistic, or logical, can be attributed to respondent and operant conditioning.⁵⁸

In the middle ground is the social learning view, which is heavily influenced by psychoanalytic hypotheses. This view is most concerned with the mechanism of identification in the acquisition and modification of social behavior.

The most general formulation of identification postulates four factors...: (1) The child observes possessions that others (particularly parental figures) have and that he desires. (2) The child believes that having the attributes of these others leads to possession of the desiderata. (3) The child notices and attempts to copy some of the attributes of these others. (4) The environment selectively reinforces his efforts to copy some, but not other, attributes, depending upon what it considers socially appropriate.⁵⁹

At the revisionist pole of the mechanical mirror perspective, we find primarily the views of the Soviet theorists, particularly Vygotsky and Luria. These theorists make fewer assumptions about the nature of the mechanisms of acquisition.

They are more concerned with determining what mechanisms the child uses to acquire complex programs for interacting with the environment. In this sense, the revisionist position is more allied with the organic lamp view...If the revisionist position had a more comprehensive formulation, it would be more appropriate to discuss it separately under the label "mechanical lamp."⁶⁰

1.3.3 Organic Lamp Theories

Langer (1969) never really defines development within the organic lamp family of theories, other than to say it is the process of interaction between organismic and environmental factors.⁶¹

Central to this perspective is the thesis that man develops to be what he makes himself by his own actions. Developmentally, humans are

actors who function to keep themselves adaptively interacting with the environment, thereby conserving their own organization at the same time as they transform it.

The person is a self-regulatory organization of functional structures that continuously renew and transform themselves by their own actions upon (interactions with) the environment. These actions lead to the developmental reorganization (equilibration) of the person's structures, which subserve these actions, at a new functional level or more stable stage of adaptation.⁶²

The organic lamp thesis is historically based upon the following assumptions: (a) that creativity (self-generating growth) is the first power of all organic systems;⁶³ (b) that organic systems (as self-organizing beings) can only be understood as if they were natural purposes or functions.⁶⁴

It is as if the development of organisms represented a directedness towards ends imminent in their organization. This is possible because the most important characteristic of organic structures is that they have functions; that is, they are both agencies (means) for action and the end products (purposes) toward which action is directed.⁶⁵

The understanding of genetic emergence and of developmental transformation is the major focus of organic lamp theory. Contemporary organic lamp theorists are particularly concerned with the processes that underlie psychological acts and how these acts generate development,⁶⁶ through a determined sequence of stages. The central hypothesis is that stages of evolution are like a sequence of geometric theorems, each of which is rendered necessary by the preceding ones without being contained by them.⁶⁷ The theoretical aim becomes to explain the emergence of each stage within the sequence as well as determining the process of transformation from stage to stage. This task is complicated by the interweaving of two antithetical tendencies: the

maintenance of continuity for conservation of integrity as fundamental to both organizational coherence and survival, and the elaboration of discontinuity as a necessary condition for development.⁶⁸

The empirical focus is upon both taxonomic and process tasks. Organic lamp theorists propose that much of man's psychological functioning grows out of and is the highest expression of his biological functioning. Psychological organization is the end product toward which biological evolution is directed.

The problem is to determine how psychological action systems such as thinking and perceiving develop out of, and become integrated with, biological foundations to create the total organismic unity which constitutes the mature person.⁶⁹

The first task is a taxonomic one, to determine what Aristotle called formal and material causality.⁷⁰

The formal task for developmental psychology is to determine the configuration of psychological activity that constitutes an organized stage of the child's life, while its material task is to determine the form of the preceding stage, which was its source.⁷¹

After comprehensive 'interpretive-descriptive' data⁷² on each stage of development are obtained, it then becomes necessary to explain the process of development from one stage to another. To this point, two major kinds of theoretical assertions have been made about this process of transformation: orthogenesis⁷³ (Werner, 1949) and equilibration⁷⁴ (Piaget, 1967).

In Langer's view, adherents of the organic lamp perspective tend to be more eclectic in their use of research methods. Strict adherents in cognitive development maintain that the only consistently valid method is the clinical one. Others, however, in addition to observational methods,

are willing to use any research technique that generates interesting and relevant findings.⁷⁵

1.3.4 Conclusion

The prevailing conceptions of ontogenetic development discussed relate to different philosophical positions with respect to the nature of reality, the nature of man, the metaphoric model for the functioning of man, and even to the essential criteria deemed significant. These conceptions have been discussed in order to furnish a setting for our position on creating a model of parent education.

This dissertation will utilize the organismic model of man and the world because for our purposes this model is more useful and its family of developmental theories more adequate. As Chapanis (1961) pointed out, "Models are judged by criteria of usefulness; theories, by criteria of truthfulness."⁷⁶

The organismic position is more useful because it increases the horizon and provides a wider scope with which to view the real world. In addition, the real world appears to behave as if it were more organismic than mechanistic in nature. Thus the organismic position has more explanatory power.

Organic lamp theories have been more fruitful in generating developmental research. Mechanical mirror theory has generated little research based on a developmental rationale. The mechanical mirror approach is more concerned with establishing a systematic research program than a comprehensive theoretical position.

While a core concept in both families of theories is interaction, mechanical mirror theory emphasizes the action of the environment

while organic lamp theories assert that the action of the organism is the primary source of interaction. This conception of the child's actions as also the primary cause of his psychological development is more consistent with the progressive conception of childhood discussed in the Introduction.

These two families of theory also have different focal concerns. Mechanical mirror theory is concerned with how the environment modifies behavior; organic lamp theory is concerned with how the individual transforms his mental structures and functions. The organic lamp theory is more in keeping with a model of parent education because over a lifespan the wiser single choice would be to address an individual's transformations rather than environmental arrangements. The reason is simple: the effect should be greater.

1.4 THE ANISA PERSPECTIVE

Any new educational system which will help humanity to survive in the future must be based on an accurate conception of the nature of man. It must enable him to grasp a noble vision of his destiny and give him the power to deal with all of the critical exigencies facing him at this perilous juncture in history.

Daniel C. Jordan⁷⁷

1.4.1 The Nature of ANISA

The ANISA Model⁷⁸ is a blueprint for an educational system and an attempt to develop a comprehensive plan for educational renewal.

The Model is based on a redefinition of education as those processes or experiences that underlie the development or release of human potential. Starting prior to conception of the child and spanning approximately the first fifteen years of life, the Model is

concerned with the development of all human potentialities.

As a model, ANISA is distinctive for its coherence, comprehensiveness, scope, and precision. This dissertation will rely upon the Model's philosophy as well as its theories of development, and pedagogy.

1.4.2 The ANISA Model of Man

The ANISA model of man is a refinement of the basic organismic position of man as actor. Within the ANISA philosophy man becomes cast as "managing director...of evolution."⁷⁹ This important promotion is due to a fundamental assumption about man as the pinnacle of creation and the highest expression of the organization of matter in the universe. To Teilhard de Chardin (1959), man is like the "tip of an ever ascending arrow";⁸⁰ to Huxley, man is "the only repository of cosmic self-awareness."⁸¹

The ANISA model rests upon a clear affirmation of the spiritual nature of man and of his endowment with an infinitude of potentialities, each of which can be developed for the good of himself and the good of his fellow man. By this we mean that man is more than an animal; since he can know that he knows, know what he loves, love what he knows, and be conscious of all this, he is a creature different from other beings on the planet: the only one who can take an active part in the shaping of his own destiny.⁸²

The model is based on the premise that knowing and living are the two most basic capacities of man.⁸³ From these two capacities derive an infinite number of potentialities. Development--the process of translating potentiality into actuality--depends upon man's ability to know and to love and to organize these capacities in terms of purpose or aim.

Within the ANISA model the actual world (reality) is redefined as

process. This redefinition introduces the factor of potentiality as an indispensable ingredient of existence. The notions of process and existence presuppose each other.

...process implies transition, constant becoming: An actual entity is always in the process of becoming something and that something is itself potential unrealized.⁸⁴

Being, therefore, cannot be considered separate from becoming.

...how an actual entity becomes constitutes what that actual entity is...Its 'being' is constituted by its 'becoming.'⁸⁵

Because this process of becoming is a given, change is constant, and thus no end point or final state of development can be posited. By its nature development must be open-ended and represent the continual, "creative advance"⁸⁶ into novelty.

1.4.3 The ANISA Theory of Development

The ANISA theory of development⁸⁷ is a single achievement. It is an attempt to encompass within a single theory the vast body of accumulated data in the field of developmental psychology. It arises from and is consistent with a rich view of the nature of man and his world. It includes clear logical derivations and definitions, invites public verification, is relatively parsimonious, and has proven itself fertile for a wide range of educational innovations.⁸⁸

In this theory, development is synonymous with the process of becoming--the process of translating potentiality into actuality. It encompasses those changes which have a continuous direction and which culminate in phases which are qualitatively new.⁸⁹

Potentiality is the one general metaphysical character attaching

to all entities; it includes all that which might be. Human potential is infinite. Actuality refers to that potential which has become expressed; it includes all that which is. A potential is an unrealized possibility while an actuality is a realized one. Of potentialities, there are two classes: biological and psychological.

Process denotes the ordered expression of a potentiality. Processes are central if they have significant import for further development.

The importance of a process is defined by two criteria: (1) the degree to which it engenders effectance (i.e., the degree of control over the environment it brings to the organism), and (2) the extent to which it is fundamental to other processes (i.e., the extent to which it creates or extends potentiality).⁹⁰

All processes are initiated and maintained through interaction with the environment. While interaction is, as we have seen, a core concept in both Mechanical Mirror and Organic Lamp families of theories, the ANISA interpretation is a further refinement of the basic positions of each. In this theory the process accounting for developmental change may be conceived of as an interaction of an organism possessing a certain constellation of competencies with a given set of environmental conditions. The quality of the interaction determines, in large part, the quality of the expression. As Hunt and Uzgiris (1975) note:

The ordering of transformations is thought to reside neither within the organism nor within environmental conditions separately, but in the back-and-forth transactions between them...(This) position...posits a regulatory process in the "fit" of circumstances to the organism's level of organization with both organism and circumstances contributing to the regulation. Thus, it admits a variation in the rate of developmental progress depending upon the availability of environmental opportunities, but it also leaves open the possibility

of alternative orders in the achievement of competencies arising from the plasticity of the organism in adapting to variations in opportunities.⁹¹

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Of the two basic categories of potentialities, nutrition is the primary element in the actualization of biological potentialities and learning is the key factor in actualizing psychological potentialities. Biological integrity is a necessary condition for the development of psychological potentialities. "In other words, the possibilities of learning depend in the first place on the existence of a sound physical and neurological base."⁹²

The psychological potentialities of man can be subsumed under five categories: psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional. Central processes have been identified for each category. The ANISA model is functionally defined by specifications⁹³ which have been written on each of these central processes.

Learning competence (the capacity for mastering the actualization of one's psychological potentialities) is:

the ability to differentiate aspects of experience, whether internal or external, integrate them into a new whole, and generalize the whole to different situations.⁹⁴

Thus differentiation, integration, and generalization within this model constitute the common denominator of all types of learning. Knowing how to learn allows man to go beyond any present state of being and to assume the role of managing director of evolution.⁹⁵

The theory of development has established four categories of environments: physical, human, unknown, and self. The physical environment includes everything except human beings and can be further broken down into three sub-categories: mineral, vegetable, and animal. The human environment includes all human beings. The unknown environment

contains all that which is not known or discovered. Both the human and physical environments have unknown aspects to them. The environment of the self is a reflection of the other three environments in a particular human being.

As the self interacts with the environment, its potentialities (expressed through the processes) are actualized--that is, they become powers. Because development is ordered, these powers are not expressed in random fashion; they are structured. And as they are structured, factual information (which, for the most part, is the culture being transmitted to the next generation) is fused and structured with them to form the attitudes and values which constitute the character and personality of the human being....(T)he development of a Self--the structuring of process fused with content, the formation of values--is the fundamental expression of creativity inherent in all human beings. The quality of this integrated structuring determines personal effectance--its mastery in relating to the environment and thus the capacity for self-transcendence and continuing development.⁹⁶

Within the ANISA theory, development is ordered.⁹⁷ A developmental sequence is the order of changes in an organism that yield relatively permanent but novel increments not only in its structure but in its modes of functioning as well. "These changes involve passage through successive stages, each of which presupposes its antecedent and is in turn a prerequisite to its successor."⁹⁸ If the order of passage through successive stages is universally constant, that developmental sequence is an invariant one. A stage is a section of a developmental sequence circumscribing a single, basic unit of change.

In the actualization of biological potentialities, a stage consists of differentiation and integration. In the actualization of psychological potentialities, a stage consists of differentiation, integration, and generalization. Completing one stage prepares the organism for the next stage in the sequence.

Differentiation is the ability to break down experience, whether internal or external, into separate contrastable elements. Integration is the ability to combine those elements in a new way thereby providing new information, new feelings, new skills, and new perceptions which may or may not become expressed in some form of overt behavior. Generalization is the ability to utilize that recombination in other situations. Through this process potentiality is translated into actuality, and another stage is negotiated.⁹⁹

The ANISA theory of development also emphasizes the importance timing plays in ontological change. The dimension of time is an intrinsic property of process. It is also a crucial factor in considering the release of potentialities at an optimum rate.

The theory focuses attention on sensitive periods, a limited period during which an organism is particularly amenable to certain experiences which will usually bring about significant and lasting changes in biological and/or psychological functioning. Examples of sensitive periods include: critical periods,¹⁰⁰ growth spurts,¹⁰¹ portions of specific biological rhythms,¹⁰² and acquired or transitional periods.¹⁰³

This, briefly, is the ANISA theory of development. The theory has considerable implications for education.

The symbol system which mediates the assimilation of content and process in interactions with the physical environment is mathematics; the values and attitudes formed as a result of such interactions are one's technological competence. The symbol system which mediates interactions in the human environment is language; moral competence is the result of successful interactions within this environment. Art is the symbol system for interacting with the unknown environment; spiritual competence is the result of successful interaction here.

From the preceding theory of development, a theory of pedagogy has been derived. Not an independent theory, its coherence and efficacy depend upon its congruence with the ANISA theory of development. Since development proceeds from and is sustained by interaction with an environment, it would follow that teaching would take its definition from this premise.

Thus teaching, within the ANISA model, means the process¹⁰⁴ of arranging environments and guiding interactions with them in order to promote development. Underlying the explication of this theory is Hunt's (1961) seminal concept: "the problem of the match."¹⁰⁵ This notion of 'match' relates to the fit that is achieved between what the child already knows and the circumstances encountered which will draw him beyond.

....If the circumstances encountered are to be attractive and interesting and yet challenging enough to call forth these accommodative changes, within the structure of central processes that presumably constitute learning, they must be properly 'matched' to those standards which the child has already developed in the course of his past experience.¹⁰⁶

We really know very little about the 'match' between individual development and external stimulation, at various stages of growth. However, the research literature is beginning to offer tentative suggestions for the period from birth to age three. This research, and the ANISA theory, support the view that individualization - the action of preparing 'matches' for specific children at specific moments - must become the single pedagogical principle.

It remains difficult to discover examples of educational models where children are considered as individuals. The educational practice of Maria Montessori is a rare, excellent example. Therefore, this

dissertation will draw heavily upon the Montessori method, since this method is consistent with the Organismic position as well as the ANISA perspective of man and his development.

1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE DISSERTATION

Progress, they say, implies some form of betterment; and why should we consider ourselves in any way better than the worms? A short answer to this is similar to Dr. Johnson's answer to those who queried the reality of the external world. He kicked his foot against a stone. We might say that we will take seriously the worm's claim to be our equals when the worms come and present it, but not before.

C. H. Waddington¹⁰⁷

1.5.1 Ethical Considerations

Man is, in the first place, a species of animal. As such he is subject, like the rest of the living world, to the processes of evolution. Man is also, however, the most highly evolved; evolutionary progress is a reality. The particular importance of this fact for man arises from the peculiarity of his nature and of the way in which his biological situation changes. Man has in effect produced a mechanism which brings about alterations in his relations with the rest of the world as generations pass. It is, to Waddington (1961), a new method of evolution, a "human evolution" or "socio-genetic evolution"¹⁰⁸ since it operates by a method different from that on which biological evolution depends.

What the human species has developed is a new method of transmitting potentialities to later generations. This depends on the use of language. Items of fact, or methods of operation, can be taught by one generation to the next. Processes of teaching and learning carry out a function exactly analogous to that of biological heredity, in that they serve to specify the character of the new generation.

This similarity in result can be indicated by referring to this method of passing on information as 'socio-genetic' transmission.¹⁰⁹

Despite changes in the structure of and conceptions about the family,¹¹⁰ it is our assumption that parents remain best suited for the early preparation of new generations. In the final analysis, in our society, parents are the only ones who are wholly accountable for their children. If learning can be learned, it should follow that parenting (a form of learning) can be learned. If parenting can be learned, it is probable that it can also be taught. Our position will be that parenting, the process of preparing one's children to become managing directors of evolution, must be learned, can be taught, and that a plan for this method of 'socio-genetic' transmission should be developed.

People comprise the single most important resource of any and all nations. It is only prudent to insure that all children are born wanted and needed, and ensure that they will become assets to the nation and the world as they assume adult responsibilities.

There are approximately 78 million children in the United States. One in every three American citizens are infants, children or adolescents. These individuals represent the future of our country. This is a simple fact. As Talbot (1976) points out, "If they're in trouble, we're in trouble."¹¹¹ If they're in trouble, mankind is in trouble.

If this transmission of knowledge and love¹¹² from one generation to the next by teaching and learning is to be effective, the requirements for any processes involved need to be considered carefully. As Waddington (1966) says:

For such a process to be effective, it is not only necessary for a language to be developed in which the information can be expressed, but it is essential that the recipient should be brought into a frame of mind in which he is prepared to receive the information which is transmitted to him. In the process of biological heredity the new individual cannot avoid receiving the transmitted information, since half of it is already incorporated in the egg nucleus, and the other half is brought into the egg by the fertilizing sperm. In a process of cultural or socio-genetic transmission there must be some analogous function which ensures that the message is actually received.¹¹³

Waddington here refers to what Hunt (1961) has termed the 'problem of the match,' already discussed. An efficient method of solving this problem in regard to socio-genetic transmission would be to develop a general model of parent education, adaptable both by different cultures (for their goals) and to specific children (for their needs).¹¹⁴ The purpose of this dissertation shall be to develop such a general model of parent education.

15.2 Societal Considerations

The special needs of parents and their young children have not been a major concern of our country. White House conferences on children, held regularly since 1903, have brought no major legislative action. The many wise and foresighted recommendations have been an exercise in futility for those involved. Unlike Russia, the Scandinavian countries, and China, the United States has not demonstrated commitment through national programs to the healthy development of its youngest children. The priorities of our nation, as revealed through national and state spending, have never demonstrated great concern for young children and their parents. Even today, education and health budgets are rarely designed to benefit children most at risk. Such budgets

never equal those for defense.

We pay little attention to the impact of our world upon our citizens and especially upon the next generation. We find ourselves in a nation where our children are increasingly poor, are increasingly dropouts, are increasingly delinquent and drug addicted, are increasingly mentally defective, and are increasingly mentally ill.

The facts of life today are not realized or believed by a nation still living with the Horatio Alger dream that "any person can become President." These realities affect not only the poor and minorities, but increasingly are spreading to middle-class white children from families of white and blue collar, business, and professional backgrounds. We must face these facts. The time is now for a stand on behalf of our children.¹¹⁵

We are wasting much of our most precious natural resource--the people of our next generation--and we are allowing the quality of life for many of our families to be far more stressful and far less rewarding than it might be. Few of our children, regardless of the type of family in which they are raised, get as much out of the education of their first years as they could. Few of our parents negotiate the guidance of these early years as masterfully as they should.

This year six million Americans will take a step that will significantly change their own lives and profoundly affect the next generation: they will have children.¹¹⁶ How they raise these children will have a greater impact on our society than the way they vote, the technologies they produce, the wars they wage, or the art they create. Yet, perhaps never before in American history have parents faced more choices, felt more pressures or sought more professional help in the rearing of their children. "The things we're trying to cope with today are just

more complex than our parents had to deal with," says John Anderson, a Director for Family Service of Detroit. "Parents have lost control over their families. They feel inadequate, overwhelmed...."¹¹⁷

There are numerous effects of this feeling:

1. Divorce rates, already the highest in the world, continue to rise, even among older Americans. There is now one divorce for every two marriages in the U. S. and the rate is rising most rapidly among families with children.¹¹⁸ In 1974 the parents of more than one million children were divorced--twice the number of a decade ago. By 1990, based upon current trends, there will be 63 divorces for every 100 marriages.¹¹⁹ While some fathers are demanding, and receiving custody of their children, in an increasing number of divorce proceedings, neither parent wants the children.
2. One child in six is now being raised by a single parent.¹²⁰ Sixty-five per cent of single parents are working. The bulk of these families are poor and include at least ten per cent of all American children under six.¹²¹
3. A recent Gallup sampling of American parents suggests that there are approximately 5.5 million parents of children under 18 who would not want to have children again. More than one quarter of those parents in the sample who responded negatively said that children are too much responsibility.¹²²
4. Child abuse has become a serious public health problem.

The National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect's Director estimates that there are about 450,000 cases of abused children reported in the United States annually and that the true, unreported figure could be "two, three, or four times as many."¹²³ Dr. Vincent Fontana, chairman of New York Mayor Abraham Beame's task force on child abuse and neglect believes that for "every child abuse case reported there are 50 to 100 that go unreported."¹²⁴ Child abuse is the leading cause of death among children and often results in juvenile delinquency, drug addiction and alcoholism problems for those who survive. Dr. Fontana warns: "The battered child of today becomes the battering parent of tomorrow."¹²⁵

5. Teen-age drug abuse and alcoholism are on the rise.¹²⁶
6. Suicide has become the second leading cause of death among young Americans between the ages of 15 and 24, and the rate of juvenile delinquency is increasing at such a rate that today one child in nine can be expected to appear in court before the age of 18.¹²⁷
7. Every year, at least one million children, most of them from middle-class families, run away from home.¹²⁸
8. Despite the considerably increased availability of birth-control devices and abortions, the rate of illegitimate births among adolescents continues to mount. By the age

of 18 one out of every ten American women (married and unmarried) is a mother.¹²⁹ Until at least the 1980's, society must figure out how to handle the enormous problems resulting from births to teenagers of more than 600,000 babies each year.¹³⁰

The incidence of family pathology illustrated here spreads across all sectors of our society. "In terms of broken homes, working mothers, and child abuse," observes Dr. Urie Bronfenbrenner, "the middle-class family is approaching the level of social disorganization that characterized the low-income family of the early 1960's."¹³¹ Margaret Mead takes even a dimmer view. "We have become a society of people who neglect our children, are afraid of our children, find children a surplus instead of the *raison d'etre* of living."¹³²

While it is possible to reject these two conclusions as too pessimistic, it is difficult to overlook the indicators of this pathology or to ignore the likelihood that the consequences of losing control are indeed significant. Parents need help. In their distrust of their own experience, more and more parents are turning to experts for advice. The market for how-to-parent books is booming. Over one quarter of a million parents will take courses in child raising this year.¹³³ Doubtless the several interrelated problems illustrated will not be eradicated simply by books or courses, but they can be good beginnings. Unfortunately, however, few of them arise from an understanding of how children develop.

1.5.3 Developmental Considerations

Kagan (1971) notes that recent interest¹³⁴ in the young child,

especially the infant, has drawn its force from four divergent sources. First, a commitment to historical explanation has always influenced domestic empiricism, and experimental studies with animals have often posed developmental questions.

The influence of psychoanalytic theory (although waning rapidly) also directed interest to the young child. As the seminal theory of personality development, it issued strong statements about the long-term effect of family experience during the first five years.

Third, the deep concern with educational progress in the child of poverty, a phenomenon which has always been in the background and recently become prominent, has catalyzed a series of investigations into the mental life and experience of very young children.

The belief in sensitive periods of development, which lurks in the essays that seek to interpret this social dilemma, has been the fourth force behind the zeal for child watching.

To Kagan's four sources, I would add two more. Theories within the organismic model of man and the world focus on the importance of the first years of life because logical consistency demands they do so. Within these frameworks for development, later stages arise, of necessity, out of earlier ones. The earliest stages, therefore, form a base. Somewhat like a pyramid, the quality of the higher blocks (later stages) in terms of placement depends to a large extent on the integrity of the foundation. It is only natural that the earliest years, which form the developmental foundation of man, receive attention.

Finally, the influence of pediatricians and physicians on this matter should be recognized. From Herouard, the doctor appointed by

Henry IV to look after his son and heir--the future Louis XIII, to Spock (1945) and Brazelton (1969), men of medicine have encouraged:

...each parent to see each baby as an individual with strengths and weaknesses, with a special way of reacting to his world--and to foresee how all this goes to make up a unique, exciting person.¹³⁵

Interest in the young child has shown us that while blooming, the first years of life are neither buzzing nor a confusion, William James to the contrary. From his earliest days, every infant is an active, perceiving, learning and information-organizing individual. While developmental psychologists, pediatricians, and a few others are aware of this fact, most of us remain in the dark. In words of Stone et. al. (1973):

From our perch overlooking the vast new landscape of knowledge of infancy, a landscape thrown up like a new volcanic island in the past decade and a half, we have come not only to marvel at how much new information has been produced but also to see how badly it needs to be digested and to be made available to the enormous lay audience--parents, day care-planners, and caretakers--that would benefit from such information.¹³⁶

In looking at it another way, the enormous thrust of the new comprehension of the first years of life appears at the verge of becoming a new and dominant force for all of psychology. We are on the threshold of new concepts of what is universal in human development and of discovering ways in which human nature may creatively and constructively shape itself. We are also now in a position to provide powerful information to guide wise parental choices and social decisions, to ensure that the right of every child to develop to his full potential is protected.

1.5.4 Conclusion

Taking parenthood for granted can have disastrous effects. People can and do become parents without any awareness whatsoever of the responsibilities, as well as the joys, the worries, and the tremendous effort that parenthood requires.

This dissertation will present a general model of parent education derived from the ANISA perspectives on man, development, and pedagogy. The model will emerge from an understanding of how young children develop. This dissertation will concern itself with those parents who have children under three years of age for the following reasons:

1. The nature of a dissertation demands a restricted focus. Although the model, as general, will be applicable to other parents, its content will here address parents with children from birth to three.
2. The first three years of life are a most important phase, developmentally speaking. The restricted focus makes the model here presented a preventive and early interventive program.
3. Parents (especially those having their first child) are likely to feel especially overwhelmed with children this age.
4. Other models have been developed for parents with older children as well as for those who are not yet parents.

For purposes of this dissertation, the term parent shall be assigned a broadly conceived definition and shall signify any adult

having major responsibility for a young child. While this definition is not designed to include the occasional babysitter, it does include all adults having a primary responsibility for an extended period of time. It is obvious then, that a particular child might have more than two parents. Other significant terms shall be defined as they are introduced.

1. Joseph W. Krutch, "Speaking of Books," New York Times Book Review, 16 August, 1953, p. 2.
2. Ina C. Uzgiris and J. McV. Hunt, Assessment in Infancy: Ordinal Scales of Psychological Development (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1975) p. 3.
3. The fundamental thesis of preformationism is a denial of the essential occurrence and importance of development in human ontogeny. Everything is already prestructured, and either undergoes limited quantitative modification with increasing age or merely unfolds sequentially on a prearranged schedule.
4. David P. Ausubel and Edmund V. Sullivan, Theory and Problems of Child Development (New York: Grune and Stratton, 1970) p. 20.
5. Elizabeth Lawrence, Origins and Growth of Modern Education, (Baltimore: Penguin, 1970) p. 41.
6. Ausubel and Sullivan, Child Development, p. 21.
7. Hal Holbrook, Mark Twain Tonight, Columbia Records, undated.
8. Jonas Langer, Theories of Development (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969) p. 4.
9. Ibid.
10. Hayne W. Reese and Willis F. Overton, "Models of Development and Theories of Development," in Life-Span Developmental Psychology, eds. L. R. Goulet and Paul B. Baltes (New York: Academic Press, 1970) p. 117.
11. Ibid.
12. "Thinking of scientific theories by means of models is always as-if thinking." Richard B. Braithwaite, Scientific Explanation: A Study of the Function of Theory, Probability and Law in Science (Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1955) p. 93. See also Kant, Stanislawski, and Gray for interpretations of the "as-if" in other disciplines.
13. Reese and Overton, "Models," p. 131.
14. Ibid., p. 132.
15. Ibid.
16. Ibid.

17. Ibid., p. 133.
18. Ibid.
19. Ibid. For Leibnitz, the specific nature of the teleological relationship was preformistic or vitalistic rather than epigenetic. Today a true epigenesis replaces preformistic or vitalistic notions. See for example, von Bertalanffy, 1962.
20. Lawrence, Modern Education, p. 29.
21. Ibid.
22. Reese and Overton, "Models," p. 135.
23. T. S. Kuhn, The Structure of Scientific Revolutions (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962) p. 149.
24. Reese and Overton, "Models," p. 121.
25. Ibid. "It is important to note, however, that translation of a theory from one model to another is not the same as synthesis or assimilation. Translation involves taking the terms and propositions from one theory (and one model), redefining them consistently with the new model, and relating them to the other terms in the new theory. Translation, in other words, is actually the construction of a brand-new theory with an unmixed model." p. 121.
26. However, if the first principle of one system became a second principle of the other system, integration would occur. For a further discussion, see Kuhn (1962) or Chomsky (1972).
27. Sheldon H. White, "Evidence for a Hierarchical Arrangement of Learning Processes," eds. L. P. Lipsitt and C. C. Spiker, Advances in Child Development and Behavior, v. 2, (New York: Academic Press, 1965) pp. 187-220.
28. The Adequacy of a world hypothesis is determined by its precision and its scope. "Precision is the ability to produce an adequate or compelling interpretation of a fact, and the ability to produce only one such interpretation (or at most a few such interpretations)...Scope refers to the range of facts that can be interpreted." Reese and Overton, "Models," p. 122. See also Pepper, 1942.
29. Oxford Dictionary of Quotations (London: Oxford University Press, 1943) p. 135. Popper, of course would be sharply critical of what he called the empiricist fallacy, that is, the ex-

clusion of theory until empirical observations are gathered. "Hunches often consist in narrowing down the originally wider program of inquiry." Michael Polanyi, "Object and Psychology" American Psychologist 23 (1), 1968, p. 41. If theorizing necessarily followed the empiricists' dictum, then the imaginative meta-theory which stems from Piaget's background in mathematics, philosophy, and biology (Piaget, 1960) would be ruled out of the scientific arena.

30. See, for example, Braithwaite, Scientific Explanation, p. 1.
31. Ibid., p. 9.
32. Ibid., p. 2.
33. Ibid., p. 22.
34. Ausubel and Sullivan, Child Development, p. 8.
35. Alfred Baldwin, Theories of Child Development (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1967), p. 5.
36. Paul H. Mussen, ed., Handbook of Research Methods in Child Development (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1960), p. 14.
37. "...the fitness of a theory to be generalized, to be the basis of a new theory that does not logically follow from the original one, and to allow prediction of more observable facts." P. G. Frank, ed., The Validation of Scientific Theories (New York: Collier, 1960) p. 16.
38. Ausubel and Sullivan, Child Development, p. 9.
39. Ibid.
40. William Kessen, "Research Design in the Study of Developmental Problems" in Mussen, ed., Handbook, p. 59.
41. Ausubel and Sullivan, Child Development, p. 9.
42. Ibid.
43. Kessen, "Research Design," p. 59.
44. Ibid.
45. Ibid.
46. Paul H. Mussen, John J. Conger, Jerome Kagan, Child Development and Personality (New York: Harper & Row, 1969) p. 14.

47. The importance of "predictive reliability" was first proposed by C. S. Pierce in 1877-78 in a series of articles which appeared in Popular Science Monthly. For further information, see Braithwaite, Scientific Explanation, p. 264, and Streets and Jordan (1973), p. 30.
48. Jerome Bruner, "Poverty and Childhood," in R. K. Parker, ed., The Preschool in Action (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1972P, p. 23.
49. Reese and Overton, "Models," p. 124.
50. Ibid.
51. Langer, Theories, p. vii. Langer does not explain his reasoning for choosing (nor does he define) the mechanical mirror and organic lamp images.
52. Psychoanalytic theory has great potential for studying both normal and pathological personality development. To date however, its long-standing promise has not really been fulfilled. It has produced little systematic research on normal or abnormal development, and will not be considered here.
53. Langer, Theories, p. 84.
54. Ibid., p. 4.
55. Ibid., p. 51.
56. Ibid., p. 159.
57. Ibid., p. 55.
58. Ibid., p. 85.
59. Ibid.
60. Ibid., p. 86
61. Ibid., p. 157.
62. Ibid., p. 161.
63. Ibid., p. 7.
64. Ibid. See also footnote 12.
65. Ibid.
66. Ibid., p. 8.

67. Ibid.
68. In Langer's exposition the task is further complicated by his reliance on solely Piagetian conceptions in regard to stage, sequence, and structure.
69. Langer, Theories, p. 88.
70. Formal causality is the definition, the figure or form, of an entity. Material causality is the source of the present entity, that is, the original entity out of which it came.
71. Langer, Theories, p. 8.
72. Ibid., p. 9.
73. Werner (1948) adapted the biological principal of orthogenesis as the process governing long-term psychological development. The central idea is that the initial stage of the child's mental organization is global. The orthogenetic process is directed towards increasing differentiation, centralization, and hierarchic integration of the child's mental organization. For a fuller explanation see Langer, pp. 91-93.
74. Piaget (1967) characterizes development as an equilibration process. The idea is that development proceeds from relative disequilibrium to increasing equilibrium, such that when the child is in disequilibrium (due to internal imbalance in interaction with external perturbation), he will operate to establish greater equilibrium. As a consequence the child changes himself and develops. It is both a general (life-long) and particular (to every moment) notion and is a refinement of Gesell's (1946) notion of development as a process of formative instability combined with a progressive movement toward stability. For a fuller discussion see Langer, pp. 93-96.
75. Langer, Theories, p. 12.
76. A. Chapanis, "Men, Machines, and Models" American Psychologist, 1961, 16, p. 113.
77. Daniel C. Jordan and Donald T. Streets, "The Anisa Model: A New Educational System for Developing Human Potential" World Order, 1972, 3, p. 23.
78. The ANISA Model has been developed conceptually primarily at the Center for the Study of Human Potential in the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts. The most intensive phase of working on the model began in 1971 with the assistance of a \$242,000 grant from the New England Program in Teacher Education. Implementation of aspects of the model began in 1972

on a pilot basis in four sites around the country. The model is still being developed and tested.

79. Julian Huxley, Knowledge, Morality and Destiny (New York: Mentor Books, 1960), p. 13.
80. Pierre Teilhard de Chardin, The Phenomenon of Man, trans. Bernard Wall (New York: Harper, 1959), p. 36.
81. Huxley, Knowledge, p. 13.
82. Jordan and Streets, "Anisa Model," p. 23.
83. Ibid.
84. Patrick Conway, "Purpose and the Construction of Experience," (Ed.D. dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1973), p. 23.
85. Alfred N. Whitehead, Process and Reality (New York: Free Press, 1969), p. 28. The term 'actual entity' refers to a res vera in the Cartesian sense of that term. To Whitehead, it is a Cartesian 'substance' but not an Aristotelian 'primary substance.'
86. Ibid., p. 26.
87. What follows is a review of the presentation by Michael F. Kalinowski and Daniel C. Jordan in "Being and Becoming: The ANISA Theory of Development," World Order, 1973, 4, pp. 17-26.
88. The ANISA Model has served as a basis for educational innovations in public primary schools, day care centers, Head Start classrooms, and Parent and Child Centers among others.
89. Kalinowski and Jordan, p. 18.
90. Ibid., p. 19.
91. Uzgiris and Hunt, Assessment, p. 9.
92. Pattabi Raman, "Role of Nutrition in the Actualization of the Potentialities of the Child: An ANISA Perspective," Young Children, 1975, 1, p.
93. Each specification contains the following: a definition of a particular process; its theoretical and empirical justification supported by a review of the pertinent literature; an expression of the process in terms of an educational objective; an explanation of the kinds of experiences a child must have at given developmental levels in order to achieve the objective; and a statement on how the experiences can be evaluated. See

Donald T. Streets and Daniel C. Jordan, "Guiding the Process of Becoming: The ANISA Theories of Curriculum and Teaching," World Order, 1973, 4, pp. 29-40.

94. Streets and Jordan, "Guiding," p. 31.
95. Knowing how to love allows man to succeed in that role.
96. Kalinowski and Jordan, pp. 21-22.
97. Ibid., p. 23.
98. Ibid., p. 22. See also Polanyi (1968) and Whitehead (1969).
99. Ibid., p. 23.
100. The effects of the tranquilizer Thalidomide and the disease rubella on unborn children are examples of teratogens which can cause abnormalities only at critical periods of development.
101. Early and adolescent growth spurts are well known.
102. Circadian and other bodily rhythms affect our ability to be present to the moment.
103. For an explanation, see Kalinowski and Jordan, "Being," p. 25.
104. Here 'process' refers to a definition similar to that utilized in law: the whole course of proceedings in a cause.
105. J. McV. Hunt, Intelligence and Experience, (New York: Ronald Press, 1961), p. 267.
106. J. McV. Hunt, "Introduction" in Maria Montessori, The Montessori Method (New York: Schocken, 1964), p. xxviii.
107. C. H. Waddington, The Nature of Life (New York: Harper, 1966), p. 107.
108. Ibid., 110.
109. Ibid., 111. There are, of course, many forms of 'language.'
110. See for instance, Shorter (1975), Novak (1976) or cover story features in 27 October, 1975 U. S. News and World Report, or 22 September, 1975 Newsweek.
111. Nathan B. Talbot, Raising Children in Modern America (Boston: Little, Brown, 1976), p. 3.

112. Within this framework utilized knowing and loving are the two most basic capacities of man.
113. Wasdington, Nature, p. 111.
114. Other inefficient ways of tackling this problem would be to develop separate models for various cultural or national groupings of parents and children, or, even more inefficiently, more localized models.
115. Irving N. Berlin, ed., Advocacy for Child Mental Health (New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1975), p. 4.
116. U. S. Census Bureau projected data for 1976.
117. "The Parent Gap," Newsweek, 22 September, 1975, p. 48.
118. Ibid.
119. "Family Trends Now Taking Shape," U. S. News and World Report, 27 October, 1975, p. 32.
120. Bruno Bettelheim, quoted in Newsweek, p. 53.
121. Ibid.
122. "Right Now," McCalls, November, 1975, p. 37.
123. Douglas J. Besharov, quoted in "A Satisfying Job: Helping End the Abuse of Children," New York Times, 24 August, 1975, Section E.
124. "Child Abuse Viewed as Rampant," Hartford Courant, 31 October, 1975, p. 5.
125. Ibid.
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C H A P T E R T W O

RECENT PARENT EDUCATION EFFORTS

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2.1 PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATION

Traditionally, parents have been seen as the suppliers of children and the supporters of bond issues, but as incapable of participating directly, whether in the education of their own children or in decision making about the community's children. As Lambie, Weikart, and Bond (1974) point out,

The majority of center-based and home-based day care programs do not or cannot involve parents in any significant way. The assumptions about parents among the administrators and program developers in this category vary considerably, but the range can be fairly summarized in these two statements: (1) Parents, especially mothers, need time for activities other than child-rearing, and an infant program is essentially a "child care" service. (2) Child rearing is too important to be left to parents alone; parents in general or particular groups of parents are inadequate in child-rearing, and adequate training is impossible or beyond reasonable resources. Also, professional child-rearers are more efficient and cost effective.¹

Fortunately, this view is under sharp attack at the present time. In the first place, as Schaefer (1972) suggests, besides the primary responsibility borne for the child, parents have a relation with the child which exceeds that with other adults in priority, duration, continuity, amount, extensity, intensity, pervasiveness, and consistency. "The continuation of these different characteristics of parent-child interaction suggests that their cumulative impact upon the child's development would be substantial."²

Indeed, a considerable body of research literature³ indicates that a major source of a student's pattern of achievement and motives for achievement, as well as his personality structure, is in the home in which he grows up. The behavior and attitudes of his parents, as well

as the nature of the physical environment, have a direct impact on his behavior before and during the school years.

After an in-depth survey of the effects of a variety of intervention programs, Bronfenbrenner (1974) concluded:

The evidence indicates that the family is the most effective and economical system for fostering and sustaining the development of the child. The evidence indicates further that the involvement of the child's family is critical to the success of any intervention program. Without such family involvement, any effects of intervention, at least in the cognitive sphere, are likely to be ephemeral, to appear to erode rapidly once the program ends.⁴

This conception of intervention is based on a number of propositions or beliefs (Hunt, 1971).

- 1) There is a belief in the plasticity of behavioral development, especially during the early years, which has cumulative effects.
- 2) There is a belief that competence does not develop automatically in genotypes of even the highest potential. In other words, genius will not out--automatically. Competence must be developed in the course of an individual child's adaptive and informational interactions with his environmental circumstances.

By competence, I do not mean innate potential, which can never be directly assessed or known. By competence, I do mean those abilities, motivations, and standards of conduct required for a reasonable degree of academic success and for obtaining and holding employment in our increasingly technological culture.⁵

Schaefer (1973), who has surveyed the effects of intervention programs, has concluded that a more comprehensive definition of education is necessary, a definition which would lead to new objectives for professional educators:

This objective would require that educators involve themselves in training parents and future parents in family care and education skills....Ideally, professional education will provide support for family education of the

child....Schools are necessary but not sufficient for the education of children.⁶

This chapter will examine a number of different approaches to parent education, which have been developed in the past decade, in order to demonstrate the following points:

1. That a historical look at the migration in educational thinking will reveal that child development programs have moved the timing of their efforts closer to the birth date of children.
2. That this same historical look will reveal a significant increase on the emphasis given to the family and the importance of parents as educators.
3. That there is at present a wide range of formal and informal parent education efforts utilizing a variety of delivery systems.
4. That there exists a need for a flexible and adaptable general model of parent education.

2.2 FEDERAL PARENT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

2.2.1 The Nature of Federal Programs

The United States is now emerging from a decade of experimenting with early childhood education. The purpose of this experimentation has been to give poor children a head start in order to make up for what they purportedly had no opportunity to learn at home, so that they might be able to perform more adequately in the elementary and secondary schools. The experimentation has included a number of major federally supported and administered projects.

Eight of the more important federally funded programs which have focused on parent education will be discussed in order to demonstrate the following trends:

1. A realization of, and focus upon, years outside the 3-5 age range (especially, for our purposes, younger children) as important times for development.
2. An increasing commitment to substantive parent involvement, and understanding of the importance of the parents' role as primary educator.
3. An increasing emphasis on supporting the family unit.
4. A decreasing scale in demonstration programs.
5. A shift to fewer, more manageable and more realistic objectives and expectations for demonstration programs.

The primacy of the family is a clearly recognized and practiced tenet of American society. For the most part Americans, both citizen and expert, believe that the fundamental responsibility for the nurturing and development of children should lie with parents. Furthermore, they believe that whatever interventions are to take place ought to consider the family as the most basic instrument. Sugarman (1976) believes there are two reasons for these beliefs:

First, the general reluctance of individuals to interfere with the private lives of other individuals; second, an almost instinctive understanding of the limitations on the effectiveness of dealing with children outside the family. We have tried in many ways to improve the lot of children through some form of parent surrogate: the use of foster or institutional care for children who are neglected; the use of preschool programs where the child does not appear to be developing to his potential; the removal from their own homes of delinquent children and others needing supervision. Each such approach finds a similar phenomenon:

namely, that there is some positive and strengthening quality about the interaction with parents that simply cannot be replaced by parent surrogates.⁷

The body of public opinion, history and law supports intervention over the objection of parents only in extreme situations. Feelings do vary considerably across the country, and the public's views about intervention are not necessarily the same with respect to the rights of all parents. Intervention in the lives of welfare families, blacks, American Indians, Mexican Americans and poor people generally is more widely accepted. However, the government has become increasingly involved, as an important government formulator of early childhood programs notes "because it is the last recourse when private action cannot meet the problem."⁸ This paper cannot, of course, address the myriad other reasons for governmental interventions. I think it is important, however, to enumerate some of my perceptions based upon my experience with several federally funded programs:⁹

- 1) Generally these programs will affect very large numbers of children. Although the characteristics of the children addressed and the problems they may face are likely to be very diverse, the guidelines for these programs developed for them frequently restrict diversity in program design and implementation.
- 2) Too frequently, expertise and dedication are not high enough priorities in staffing government funded child development programs.
- 3) Many writers of grant proposals and other program advocates tend to oversell their approach, and exaggerate what can actually be done, or what has already been accomplished.
- 4) Paraprofessional staff and some members of the community may not understand the abstract social or pedagogical objectives which proposers of the original program established.
- 5) When a project becomes successful, various people--usually for political reasons--wish to associate themselves with it.

This complicates matters for project administrators in two ways: a) their involvement consumes valuable time which could be spent with the project staff and participants, and b) it requires energy to negotiate unsolicited suggestions about changes.

6) When a project begins to fail, many people involved in it will disavow their association with it and criticize the project. Such criticisms should not always be ignored.

7) Because the budget is an important controlling instrument of the project, whoever plans, receives and disperses funds becomes very powerful. This person may or may not be knowledgeable about the project and its needs.

8) Some people may claim expertise about the project which they do not have.

9) The beneficiaries of a program, or their parents, or community representatives claiming to represent the beneficiaries (usually children) will sometimes argue that the only real beneficiaries are the project's sponsors and staff.

10) Public support often develops a surprising lobby before a program concept is fully realized. Because this support for new ideas is often short-lived, a good administrator must learn how and when to use this support constructively.

11) While an accurate evaluation of any program is essential, such evaluations are very difficult because goals cannot always be measured objectively. In the past some programs (e.g., PCC's) have not provided sufficient money for evaluations. Sugarman (1976) knows of "no major policy decision on children's programs that was made on the basis of scientifically valid evaluation."¹⁰

These observations are not intended to argue against starting new programs or extending existing ones. If anything, they are intended as evidence for the need for changes. Many government programs, in spite of difficulties listed above, have had important and positive effects on children and their parents.

The relationships between staff and participants (or the parents of participants) are probably the most controversial element of public programs. All the following federal programs have been affected by the

polar opinions that either money should simply be given to professionals who should then have total control over how it will be used, or that participant and community control are essential. There is no body of theory to support one approach over the other. Those who have dealt with parents in the field, understand the importance of participant input as a requisite to substantive involvement and acceptance of public intervention. Unfortunately, many of the following programs had planners who held one view (generally the professional expertise one) and supervisors who held the other view.

The final factor which should be kept in mind during the following review is that most of the programs which grew out of the Great Society effort initiated during the mid sixties segregated children and their families along socio-economic class lines, a decision which significantly affected the program results and effects on participants, as well as our knowledge of assistance which primarily derives from those efforts.¹¹

2.2.2 Head Start

Under the auspices of the Office of Economic Opportunity, Head Start programs were initiated on a national scale in the summer of 1965, as part of the Kennedy-Johnson War on Poverty. Hunt (1974) notes three kinds of considerations that appear to have participated in the launching:

One was ethical. Our forefathers founded these United States on the ethical assumption of equality of opportunity for all. The second was the serious needs of children from families of poverty. It is the children of poverty who most commonly fare badly in school and drop out before they have achieved the credentials (Jencks, 1972) or the skills required for employment in our increasingly technological society. The third was the evidence of plasticity in psy-

chological development (see Hunt, 1961). These evidences made the ethics of equality of opportunity relevant to the fates of the children born by accident to families of poverty. The combination of these three kinds of considerations produced a challenge with ethical compulsion behind it.¹²

The goal of Head Start was to utilize preschool experience to compensate for the effects of the opportunities for learning missing during the early years by infants and young children of poverty with little educational background.¹³ In a report which became the springboard for Project Head Start, Dr. Robert Cooke, Pediatrician-in-Chief of Johns Hopkins Hospital and chairman of the panel of experts asked to draw up the blueprint wrote:

There is considerable evidence that the early years of childhood are a most critical point in the poverty cycle. During these years, the creation of learning patterns, emotional development and the formation of individual expectations and aspirations take place at a very rapid pace. For the child of poverty, there are clearly observable deficiencies in these processes, which lay the foundation for a pattern of failure, and thus a pattern of poverty, throughout the child's entire life.¹⁴

In other words, Head Start was designed as a massive social experiment to break the cycle of poverty. Evaluated against this criterion for success, it has obviously failed. It is one thing to have evidence that something is possible; it is quite another to have the technological competence to pull it off. Hopes were set unrealistically high.¹⁵

Despite the evidences of plasticity in early development (Hunt, 1961) (Kagan, 1971) (Lewis, 1976), the expectation that a summer or year or two of nursery schooling would enable children of poverty to catch up and to compete on equal terms with middle-class children was entirely unrealistic. The fourth and fifth years of life have been shown to be a poor time to attempt such a catch-up.¹⁶ The findings of such large scale surveys as

that by the United States Commission on Civil Rights (1967) and by the Westinghouse Corporation (Cicarelli, 1969)¹⁷ indicated not only that Head Start had failed to fulfill the unrealistic hopes for catch-up, but had produced only temporary gains.

This project originally used the traditional nursery school program most prevalent at that time.¹⁸ This type of unstructured programming was poorly suited for the compensatory function demanded by the high hopes of Head Start.¹⁹ A number of other programs devised to teach children of poverty were readily (or about to become) available (Biber, 1939) (Deutsch, 1960) (Gray, and Klaus, 1965) (Bereiter and Engelman, 1966) (Weikart, 1967).

Individual programs were (and for the most part remain) fraught with problems of management compounded by a lack of expertise and initiative at every level. In addition, at each bureaucratic level, groups withdrew for survival rather than cooperating. Finally, what information there was never got disseminated down to the front lines.²⁰

Head Start did accomplish many things.²¹ Of particular interest to this dissertation are the following:

- 1) The awesome scope of Project Head Start²¹ served to augment a number of related enterprises that were already underway on a small scale when Head Start was launched, and set still other projects in motion.
- 2) It greatly increased the concern of investigators and educators with the nature of class differences in various aspects of competence and motivation.²²
- 3) It also greatly increased investigators' concerns for class differences in the opportunities to develop the cognitive abilities and the motives underlying competence as well as the values that help to control conduct.²³
- 4) It motivated the development of a variety of educational innovations designed specifically to compensate children of

poverty for the opportunities missed within their families.²⁴

5) It facilitated the earlier identification of children with physical and mental health problems which might otherwise have gone unnoticed or been inadvertently overlooked.²⁵

6) It stirred early and often enthusiastic support from parents who themselves may have been alienated from formal education and otherwise may never have identified with it.²⁶ In addition, the various attempts to involve parents in compensatory education produced findings that suggested modification in earlier approaches to modifying child rearing techniques and set off new kinds of attempts to teach parents of poverty to be more effective educators of their infants and young children.²⁷

Other things being equal, indications are that program success in Head Start is enhanced in all respects when intervention strategies include efforts to actively involve and educate parents (Gordon, 1968) (Klaus and Gray, 1968) (McCarthy, 1969) (Weikart and Lambie, 1968) (Willmon, 1969).

Evans (1971) explains why the involvement of parents with the process of their children's learning in ways consistent with a given compensatory program is advantageous:

First, such involvement often bridges a continuity gap which may exist between home and school. Secondly, use of inexpensive educational materials and parental-applied techniques can encourage the practice of important cognitive skills sorely lacking in many disadvantaged children. Third, the indirect efforts of parental self-worth and respect engendered by a meaningful contribution to their children's development may go a long way towards improving affectional relationships in the home.²⁸

Taking these, and other considerations into account, Head Start has toughened the Parent Involvement section of the updated Performance Standards,²⁹ and developed a guide, the Head Start Parent Handbook³⁰ to explain the Head Start Parent Participation guidelines and give suggestions for carrying them out in local programs.

2.2.3 Follow-Through

The extension of Head Start up the age scale was recommended by President Johnson's task force on early child development. An amendment to Title II of the Economic Opportunity Act which passed Congress in December of 1967, legalized Project Follow-Through as a community action program³¹ focusing on children of the poor. The legislation specifically related Follow-Through to Head Start both in program content and in the children to be served.³² Moreover it called for their parents to be involved in planning and decision making.

The basic purpose of this developmental research project was "to bring together the resources of school, community and family to continue to improve the learning environment of the child."³³ It is important to note this shift in focus to include the family. A fundamental assumption of this project was that further environmental planning can provide a more sustained pattern of early gains by Head Start, or at least increase the probability of long-term benefits.

A number of problems surrounding the implementation quickly developed. The legislation made no mention of research objectives. When Congress finally appropriated funds, it committed none to specific programs. Follow-Through received only \$15 million of the \$120 million expected. This severe funding limitation changed the primary purpose from service to children, to finding out what works. This change of basic purpose was never communicated to Congress, nor formalized legally, and this mistake became a source of continuing administrative difficulties.

The new emphasis caused by these problems permitted Follow-Through

to focus on extending, refining, and to a lesser degree evaluating that variety of approaches developed for compensatory education of disadvantaged preschool children to children in kindergarten through the third grade. Eventually 21 program models of early education became acceptable "Planned Variations," from which local committees could choose the kind of program they wished to implement.³⁴ It is readily apparent from early anecdotal records (Runke, 1969) and later evaluative studies (Stallings, 1974) (Becker, 1974) that the innovations in the technology of compensatory education stimulated by Head Start became utilized on a substantial scale within Follow-Through with promising results.

Instead of falling progressively behind, children of poverty in the Follow-Through programs are keeping up with the norms or surpassing them. Whether these children will maintain this greater progress once they leave their Follow-Through programs remains to be seen. On the other hand, it should be noted that these Follow-Through programs are changing the programs of the public schools. These early signs of the success of these changes strongly suggest that institutional modifications in the school programs may be far more profitable than attempting to push children of poverty through compensatory educational programs aimed at making them immune to the defects in traditional public schools.³⁵

Goldberg (1974) has reported evidence suggesting that Follow-Through may be influencing far more than the scholastic achievement of children of poverty in Philadelphia. Since Follow-Through attempts to consider the influences from the family and the culture on the child as well as his instruction, parents become critical to implementation. Participation in school through parent advisory committees among other means, have given parents the feeling that they have some control over their children's education. In an evaluative report 95 per cent of Follow-Through parents claimed the program helped them to develop a greater

interest in their children's education and more than 80 per cent felt confident that their opinions were respected by school personnel.

Goldberg also reported a lower than average teacher turnover rate, and a marked reduction in family mobility.³⁶

One of the 21 Follow-Through planned variations in elementary education combined home visitations with parent classroom participation.

This approach:

emphasizes the tie between teacher and parent as co-educators of the children. Home visitors regularly teach parents of kindergarten, first, second and third grade children how to help their child's development. The visitors coordinate the educational help the parents give their children with the child's classroom activities. Parents are encouraged to spend considerable time in the classroom as volunteers and aides. Teachers meet often with parents to learn from them about the child and to work out shared activities to foster the child's education....Parents whose children participate in (this) approach are more satisfied with their children's education and more optimistic about the value of education.³⁷

2.2.4 Parent and Child Centers

In 1966, HEW Secretary Gardner requested the establishment of a Task Force on Early Childhood Development composed of representatives from the various agencies within the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The purposes of this task force were to review the goals of the Department relating to child development, to focus on the needs of younger children, and to develop recommendations for actions to be taken on behalf of children.³⁸ The Task Force met through August into September, preparing a report entitled, Life Line for Children--which outlined needed services.³⁹ This report was made available to the then convening White House Task Force on Early Childhood, assembled at the request of President Johnson.⁴⁰ Work sessions of this Task Force were held throughout the fall

of that year, and at the conclusion of these sessions their final report, A Bill of Rights for Children, was submitted to the White House.

On February 8, 1967, (as a direct result of recommendations made by the White House Task Force), the President delivered a Special Message to Congress on Children and Youth. Item four of President Johnson's Twelve-Point Program designed to improve the health and welfare of children in this country was:

to create child and parent centers in areas of acute poverty to provide modern and comprehensive family and child care development centers.⁴¹

The President requested the initial development of 25 comprehensive service programs for families with children under three years of age to be called Parent and Child Centers (PCC's), and directed that resources from related programs within the Department of HEW, Labor, Housing and Urban Development were to support these centers.

In December of 1967, Congress included authorization of both Follow-Through and the Parent and Child Centers in amendments to the Economic Opportunity Act. The legislation authorizing the PCC's located their administration in the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO). The locus of administration was later changed to the Office of Child Development (OCS).⁴² Forty centers were organized and funded between 1968 and 1970. Sites were selected from applications with the view of obtaining a spread of urban, rural and ethnic representation (Keliher, 1969).

Each community selected was awarded \$10,000 in funds for the first year planning period; funding in the amount of \$175,000 was made available to each center for each of the first two years of operation (Dittman, 1969).

The general focus of the PCC program was to provide comprehensive services for economically disadvantaged families which had one or more children under the age of three (Johnson, 1973), with the primary goals being:

- 1) To improve the overall developmental progress of the child.
- 2) To increase the parents' knowledge of their own children's development, assisting them to be more effective parents and teachers of their children.
- 3) To strengthen the family unit and functioning by involving all family members in the program, and to create in parents an increased awareness of their community.⁴³

Proposals were to meet eight criteria, including have children's programs designed to facilitate physical, intellectual, and emotional development; parent activities designed to strengthen an understanding of child development, competence as family managers, and skills essential to making a living--including maximum opportunities for PCC employment. Parent activities planned were also expected to increase participants' self-confidence and self-image as parents, strengthen family relationships, including the role of the father within the family.⁴⁴ All programs were required to meet, in addition, all Head Start Performance Standards.

While the PCC's have had a great effect on the lives of hundreds of families, PCC programs have been plagued with problems from their inception.⁴⁵ A number of recurring problems arose in the proposal and funding process. Some communities did not have the local medical, professional, social service, or welfare resources to support a comprehensive PCC program.⁴⁶ Some of the target areas selected did not seem to have a

sufficient number of eligible families in the communities originally chosen.⁴⁷ Bureaucratic delays in large cities were common.⁴⁸ Proposal criteria required a high degree of coordination between administrative services (fiscal, personnel, and space) and local resources (medical, educational, and licensing). Neighborhood Service Programs (NSP's) were to provide three main core services: administration, health, and social services. In most cases the PCC's were ready for operation long before NSP's, and the plan for NSP's to facilitate PCC operations was never realized.⁴⁹ The first year federal contribution of \$175,000 was to be matched with a 20 per cent local contribution; many communities had difficulties obtaining this contribution and federal funds could not be released until this condition was met, or until communities gave indications of being able to meet it.⁵⁰

Again, major programmatic difficulties centered around planning hopes that were too high; lessons from the Head Start experience were not remembered. J. McVicker Hunt (1974), Chairman of the White House Task Force which recommended PCC's, concedes as much when he observes:

In retrospect, it is now clear, at least to me, that the responsibility of the Centers was originally conceived too broadly by both the Task Force that I chaired and the staff directing the organization of the program in the Office of Economic Opportunity.⁵¹

A central problem was one of scale. Many centers started with grants geared to large organizational tasks that were essentially impossible and out of scale for the neighborhood kind of centers that might have had more success.⁵² The emphasis on coordination of services distracted the directors of the various centers from focusing on the educational opportunities for parents and young children or even on their personal

needs. Much of the energies of PCC staffs in large cities was spent trying to organize other programs, in an attempt to integrate the various fragmented services available in the community.⁵³

After responsibility for PCC's moved to the newly created Office of Child Development, that office restricted the focus of the programs to the training of parents for fostering early child development.⁵⁴ That decision served to remind everyone of the primary goal, but it was not followed up with either suggestions to use or models to follow. As the Kirschner (1970) evaluation of PCC's noted:

New programs which depart from traditional practices need to direct their energies to developing workable models.⁵⁵

Instead, enormous amounts of time and energy were consumed by organizational, administrative, and political problems.⁵⁶ Moreover, since PCC directors were usually chosen for their skill in community organization, they were not so concerned with the intricacies of family life and knew little of the experiential requirements of infants and toddlers. As a result, most centers became and remained day care depositories offering passive, non-injurious custodial care where children were grouped according to whether they were less than 1, 2, or 3. Though in many centers parents were required to remain on the premises, little was offered them.

Hamilton (1970) does report that for two PCC's serving primarily Chicano migrant families, there was significant improvement in the amount and quality of "developmental home stimulation" as a result of the PCC intervention, with the greatest improvement in focal children in the areas of language development and vocal stimulation.

However, Holmes (1973) summarizes the entire program's impact on

parents, by saying that based on her findings,

it cannot be said that the PCC program as implemented had a profound effect on the majority of parents served.⁵⁷

Goslin (1974) optimistically suggests that the PCC's are a partial solution to a large problem:

The single most important thing we have learned from experience with the PCC's, in my judgment, is that as originally conceived, the program represents, at best, a solution to the problems of only a small proportion of poor children in the age range from 0 to 3, and their parents.⁵⁸

Richard Johnson, Chief of OCD's Parent and Child Center program, cited a number of important points which the PCC programs have learned, in addressing a joint conference of Home Start and the Child and Family Resource Programs. Among his points he included:

- 1) Parents often know very little about children and their problems (particularly infants and toddlers).
- 2) Parents really want to learn a great deal about their children.
- 3) Parents will respond to a program such as a PCC if they are treated with respect as individual human beings, and if they are integrally involved in the program.
- 4) Programs such as the PCC program can assist parents to cope with their problems and society in general if staff members work to develop trust with parents.
- 5) No single approach (whether it is home-based or center-based) can meet the needs of all low-income parents; rather, PCC's found that a combination of home visits and center-based activities was often more successful.
- 6) There is a tremendous need for more effective research to measure the long term gains of infants and toddlers from low-income families who participate in programs such as PCC's.⁵⁹

Others have also reviewed the PCC program (Keliher, 1969) Lazar and Chapman (1972), and Peiper (1970). While it is clear PCC's have helped large numbers of families, it is also true that, as a large intervention

effort, they have had at best mediocre results. I suggest that had the PCC's had available a general model of parent education with which to mold their own individual programs, the effect might have been far greater.

2.2.5 Parent Child Development Centers

The Parent Child Development Center (PCDC) program is treated here differently from the PCC program for several reasons. Both efforts have their origins in the same position:

that the only effective way to break the vicious cycle of poverty and often slower intellectual development is to work with both parents and children.⁶⁰

However, while intervention strategies employed by PCC's and PCDC's to achieve their goals have many common features, significant differences exist between the two programs.⁶¹ The PCDC's are an effort, begun by OEO and continued by OCD, to develop a set of replicable models of parent-infant intervention that would give low income parents (especially mothers) information about and insight into the processes of early child development.⁶²

The PCDC strategy grew out of the long-range planning of the anti-poverty effort and was partially the result of the combination of the following factors:

1) It became increasingly clear that early intervention would not be easily accomplished, and that earlier interventions and a continuation of preschool interventions into the primary years would have to be explored.

2) At the same time, careful redesign and analysis of census demographic data pointed to the fact that by far the greatest number of infants in low income families were growing up in families where the mother worked only part-time, if at all. Thus, the practicality of optimizing the skills of available mothers as child development agents was discovered by the nose

centers at about the same time as by the infant researchers.⁶³

3) Resources were growing scarcer. Consequently, planning efforts began to be directed towards allocating resources to existing programs on the basis of evaluation findings, and focusing research efforts on the development and pre-testing of improved program approaches or the exploration and pretesting of totally new departures (albeit on a much smaller scale than in the past).

The PCDC program was thus organized from the beginning with systematic research and evaluation goals not only in mind, but as paramount considerations in program design and implementation. Extensive data have been collected on a regular and continuing basis from both parents and children in the program and from carefully selected control groups at each PCDC. Program management and supervision is at least partly in the hands of researchers as opposed to practitioners at all centers. Funding levels of PCDC's are nearly three times as high as the PCC's, with most of the additional funds going into research and curriculum development activities in anticipation of a larger replication effort. Finally, only three centers remain designated as PCDC's, as opposed to 33 PCC's, with each PCDC explicitly designed to test a different intervention strategy. One program relies primarily on outreach activities (Andrews et. al., 1972); another provides center-based services for all families on a five-day-per-week basis (Lasater et. al, 1975); the third employs a combination of these approaches (Leler et. al., 1975) (Johnson, 1975).

A well thought out plan with two distinct stages of program development and testing was established.⁶⁴ First, a three-five year model building and testing stage set the following tasks to be accomplished: model formulation; model implementation and documentation; and initial

testing of effects. As the second stage, a replication experiment would deal with the more searching and significant testing of the now fully developed models. In this stage, about to be launched, each of the three models will be replicated in a number of deliberately varied operational settings, in order to determine both the degree to which program treatments can be transplanted, and the degree to which effects of the original models on parents, infants, and families will generalize to deliberately varied clientele groups, selected to "represent priority universes of need."⁶⁵ In this research and design strategy, it is obviously this replication experiment which is calculated to produce the critical policy relevant information on which revisions about the wider use of models must depend.

While this strategy is commendable, as are in general the programs themselves, it is this author's belief that these "models" are too strictly defined both in structure and content to be reliably duplicated and generalized to "other universes." That is to say that these three PCDC's work reasonably effectively, especially when compared to PCC's, in the world in which they are established. They represent more approach and delivery system than model. They have produced modest gains, but it is too early to assess the stability of these gains.

Ainsworth (1975) believes that none of these centers have "reached any close approximation of an ideal program."⁶⁶ Goslin (1975) notes a number of lessons which have been learned thus far from both the PCC and PCDC experience, three of which have special significance for designing effective programs for young children and their families in the years to come.

First, whatever specific programs we envisage must have within them the capacity for flexibility of responses to the needs of both parents and children in any given community or neighborhood. Second, the freedom of parents to make real choices, both for themselves and their children, must be preserved. And third, continuity and coordination of services are of critical importance in dealing with problems of this age group.⁶⁷

Taken together these lessons have far reaching implications for current and future efforts in the field of early childhood and parent education. The development of categorical, narrowly focused, and rigidly structured programs, aimed at particular age, income, or ethnic groups within the population seems to me to be the wrong way to go about the task.

Another, perhaps better way to proceed would be to incarnate the hopes of Hunt (1969) expressed during the establishment of the PCC program,

Much remains to be learned about how to establish such Centers in all of the various kinds of rural and urban settings which constitute America. Out of these relatively few Centers now authorized should come a few successful models which can be emulated elsewhere and be studied to uncover more of the principles required for an understanding of effective organization.⁶⁸

This "dream-model"⁶⁹ which Hunt proposed as a highly promising alternative to the "disease-model"⁷⁰ prevalent in most intervention programs, remains today a dream, but not an impossible one.

2.2.6 Home Start

Home Start (O'Keefe, 1973) has been launched as an adjunct to Head Start to help parents do with and for their own children at home many of the same kinds of things that Head Start staff members do with and for children in Head Start centers. Developed and funded through OCD,

Home Start has sixteen demonstration programs throughout the United States serving approximately 1200 families. All programs commenced operation in 1972. Home Start focuses on enhancing the quality of children's lives by building upon existing family strengths and assisting parents in their role as the first and foremost educators of their own children.

Nationally, the Home Start program has four goals:

- 1) To involve parents directly in the educational development of their children.
- 2) To help strengthen in parents their capacity for facilitating the general development of their own children.
- 3) To demonstrate and evaluate methods of delivering comprehensive child development services to children and parents (or to substitute parents) for whom a center-based program is not feasible.
- 4) To determine the relative costs and benefits of center and home-based, comprehensive early childhood development programs, especially in areas where both types of programs are feasible.⁷¹

Since Home Start is a Head Start demonstration program, Home Start programs are usually adjuncts of existing Head Start programs and serve additional children in the same age range (3-5) and economic categories⁷² as children currently served in established Head Start programs.

One of the major focuses of the Home Start concept is the idea that the parent is the first and most influential educator and enabler of his or her own children.⁷³

While Head Start aims at involving parents as one means of helping the child, Home Start aims at involving parents as the major means of helping the child.⁷⁴

Dr. Edward Zigler, former Director of OCD, told participants at a

Home Start planning conference in 1971,

I see Home Start as an indicator that we care what happens to family life in America, and that we realize that it's the parents and family who are the most important determinants, especially in the early years of the child's life, of what the child will become.⁷⁵

Several factors and considerations influenced the decision to launch a major national demonstration of home-based child development services. First, a number of home-based programs had already evolved in recent years, and the evidence available indicated that such programs were economically feasible, as well as highly beneficial. The realization that often Head Start and other center-based programs provide only indirect or minimal benefits to other children in the families served, who are not enrolled in a program, was a second consideration, while the vast number of families without access to any preschool child development center was a third.⁷⁶ Another consideration was the fact that the overall Head Start program was encouraging local projects to develop variations, shaped to meet local needs, of its standard center program. Home-based demonstration programs, then, could eventually serve as models and resources for other Head Start projects interested in this approach and its heavy emphasis on parent education and involvement. This is what has happened.

...approximately 160 Head Start programs have decided to incorporate some ideas from this home-based program into their programs through the Head Start Improvement and Innovation effort....In addition, other programs (including some programs funded by Title III and state agencies) have begun using Home Start Guidelines and concepts as a base to develop child development programs.⁷⁷

Families volunteer for participation in Home Start, as they do in the other programs discussed. A variety of approaches helps implement

the total Home Start program, including home visitors, television, and parent meetings.

All programs rely principally on home visitors for working with parents. Home visitors, generally paraprofessional women and mothers themselves, live near the families they serve and are familiar with the community and its resources. Each home visitor visits approximately 8-15 families on a weekly basis, bringing materials and ideas into the home.

Although the Home Start demonstration has had only a few years of formal existence, it has had relatively significant effects on other federal programming.

2.2.7 Child and Family Resource Program

In June, 1972 Dr. Edward Zigler, Director of OCD, announced the development of a new experimental project, the Center-with-Many Programs, since renamed the Child and Family Resource Program (CFRP). This project was launched as part of the overall Head Start Improvement and Innovation effort also.

The CFRP was designed to provide Head Start type developmental services to preschool children, while broadening the program focus to the entire family. The program made available to parents and young children a variety of services necessary to foster their biological and psychological development. The program expected to provide continuity in meeting developmental needs, while concentrating resources to serve children from the prenatal period through the preschool years. Recognizing the importance of bridging the gap in the early school years to

ensure that early gains do not fade, the program worked closely with schools and other community institutions to plan appropriate "follow-on strategies"⁷⁸ through age eight or third grade.

The CFRP approach was to use existing Head Start programs (sometimes jointly with a PCC) as the nucleus of a service delivery network, working closely with other community agencies, to make available the appropriate range of program activities. Commendably, this approach recognizes that not all families have the same needs and that the needs families have may not all be best met the same way.⁷⁹ It builds upon the capabilities of existing services being provided by other agencies and attempts to make all relevant community resources available to families as part of an integrated and flexible program, that can evolve as circumstances change. At the same time CFRP's hope to reduce the fragmentation and gaps in the delivery of services by existing community programs and agencies.

There are eleven national Child and Family Resource demonstration programs serving approximately 900 families, with 2000 children in the 0-18 age range and 1500 children in the 0-8 age range receiving service.⁸⁰ Although the program places particular emphasis on serving children 0-3 and 5-8, many programs have had difficulty enrolling children in the lower age range.⁸¹

The principal objectives of the CFRP's were:

- 1) To individualize and tailor programs and services to children and their families.
- 2) To link resources in the community so that families may choose from a variety of programs and services while relating primarily to a single resource center for all young children in the same family.

3) To provide continuity of resources available to parents, enabling each family to guide the development of its children from the prenatal period through the early school years.

4) To enhance and build upon the strengths of the individual family, as a child rearing system, with distinct values, culture and aspirations. The CFRP's attempt to reinforce these strengths, treating each individual as a whole, and the family as a unit.⁸²

To summarize, the Child and Family Resource Program is an experimental project utilizing the experience of other related programs⁸³ (such as neighborhood multi-service centers, maternal and child health programs, and family service agencies), but building upon the existing Head Start program. It develops an expanded system which integrates services similar to those demonstrated in other OCD programs⁸⁴ with services traditionally offered by Head Start. The programs attempt to coordinate with other community-based agencies needed services in health, education, mental health, day care, and social services to families and children. Further, the CFRP is longitudinal in concept in providing continuity through the major stages of the child's early biological and psychological development.

2.2.8 Developmental Continuity

Fourteen planning grants were awarded by OCD in June of 1974 as part of the Head Start Improvement and Innovation effort, to find ways in which preschool programs and the school systems could work together to provide continuous services to children. According to Director Jenny Klein,

There is a new emphasis by the federal government on setting up a system to link the experiences of preschool children with the school system, and an attempt must be made to

establish a program which allows a child to make the necessary adjustments from the skills, techniques, and behavior patterns he follows as a preschooler to those expected of him when he enters the public school system.⁸⁵

Two types of programs were envisioned. One type would involve an attempt to set up a system whereby a preschool program would work with the school system (on a cooperative basis) to decide what could be done to provide continuous and sensible programs to the total child. This would include setting up a core education program for children, and finding community agency mechanisms (such as district advisory committees) and staff to work with Head Start and the school system in a cooperative manner.⁸⁶

The second type of program design would involve actually changing the existing school systems to develop a system encompassing three year old children through children in the early elementary grades and provide a core curriculum and comprehensive services for each child.⁸⁷

The following are the key features of the program:

- 1) The program must serve the individual child.
- 2) It must set up goals and objectives for children from preschool age through age eight, structured for different ages.
- 3) There must be a core curriculum that will lead to accomplishment of the preceding goals.
- 4) The program must involve parents throughout the preschool and school period and provide services both for the children and their parents geared to the age of the child, and changing as the child advances in age.
- 5) A training program for staff must be established which is pertinent to the age of the child and looks both to the child's future and his past experiences.⁸⁸

This program is too new to be properly evaluated. It is slightly

unfortunate that in a federal program designed to alter school systems in terms of the way they address individual children, the emphasis remains upon chronological age rather than developmental particularities.

2.2.9 Education for Parenthood

Begun jointly in 1972 by the Office of Education and OCD, Education for Parenthood is a program designed for school systems. Dr. Henry Parens of the Eastern Pennsylvania Psychiatric Institute in Philadelphia believes that efforts to improve relations between parents and children,

will be helped a long distance by educating our existing generation of mothers with young children, as well as our children, for parenthood....I doubt that it's more important to learn math than it is to learn to be a parent, how to handle children.⁸⁹

Large scale dissemination of program materials for Education for Parenthood began during the 1973-74 school year. In brief, Education for Parenthood is:

a program to help teenagers prepare for effective parenthood through working with young children and learning about child development and the role of parents.⁹⁰

There are two projects within the Education for Parenthood program: introduction and improvement of parenthood education courses in the schools, including development of a new curriculum, for a one-year elective for secondary school students called "Exploring Childhood,"⁹¹ and grants to seven national voluntary youth-serving organizations to design their own parenthood education projects for teenage boys and girls outside of the schools. These organizations will conduct 29 pilot parent-

hood education projects for teenagers in urban and rural communities. The new materials developed in these projects will be disseminated by the organizations to their national memberships. Over a three year period, this national demonstration is expected to reach more than six million young people. The project is also being considered for the Parent Involvement component of all Head Start programs.⁹² We now come to the end of our review of federal parent education programs.

2.3 OTHER PARENT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

2.3.1 Programs for Teenaged Parents

One important parent education effort has been directed toward teenagers who are already parents (Nelson, 1973). The Consortium on Early Childbearing and Childrearing, through dissemination of research (Williams, 1972, 1974), conferences, workshops, and Sharing - a regularly published journal, has contributed knowledge to and about positive programs which are being introduced across the country to meet the needs of teenage parents and their infants. Cooper (1974) developed a parenting curriculum for school-age parents for the Consortium. Due to limited federal funding, the Consortium was phased out on March 31, 1975.

Another national organization existing as an advocate for the teenaged parent population is the National Alliance Concerned with School-Age Parents. They have developed a number of programs, as well as an excellent Parenting Guide (Eddinger, 1975) which describes resources considered especially useful to those working with adolescent parents.

Other parent education efforts for school-aged parents include Badger (1971, 1972), Hughes (1969), Klein (1975) and Hughes (1975). For

further information on these and other programs see Braen and Forbush (1975) and Kruger (1975).

2.3.2 Programs for Parents with Exceptional Children

Another category of parent education programs are those designed for parents who have exceptional children. This category includes programs for parents of children who are autistic (Kozloff, 1973) (Wing, 1972); blind (Bryan, 1972) (Fraiberg, 1971) (Taylor, 1972); deaf (Beasley, 1972) (Germain, 1971) (Miller, 1970); hyperactive (Stewart and Olds, 1973); mentally retarded (Doerbbberg, 1969) (Freeman, 1973) (Hoffmeister, 1972); or have multiple handicaps (Karnes, 1972) (Shearer and Shearer, 1972). These programs, because of their special focus, will not be considered here.

2.3.3 Programs Without Curricula

A few parent education programs exist which, by design, avoid using any predetermined curriculum plans or guides. Archambo and Briscoe (1970) use a non-directive approach which responds to parents' expressed needs, and Jones (1970) has developed a program in which the home visitors develop their own curriculum after getting to know the mothers they visit. These programs as well will not be considered here.

2.3.4 Self-Directed Programs

Within this category there are two types. The first type of self-directed parent education programs are actual programmed learning materials. These materials, often books or manuals but sometimes films, tapes, slides, etc. are used without benefit of supervision. The most

talked about program of this type is a book (also offered as a course), called Parent Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1970).

Using diagrams, test-your-self exercises, elaborate terminology and lots of italics and quotation marks, Thomas Gordon has run family life through something like a business school course in efficiency and come out with Parent Effectiveness Training.⁹³

Other relatively self-directed programs include Bell (1973), Belton and Terboggh (1972), Caldwell (1972), Furfey (1972), Gordon, Guinagh and Jester (1972), Hainstock (1971), Marzollo and Lloyd (1971).

The other type of self-directed parent education program is the child rearing manual. There are, of course, hundreds of these books usually authored by someone identified as "Dr." A recent list of the more significant books appears in Appendix One. As McGrath (1976) notes:

All the major books about babies say essentially the same thing: Parents should adapt to a baby's needs, not expect the baby to adapt to theirs. The first year or two of life is absolutely crucial to a child's later development, and we can mess things up for good if we're too lazy or too strict or too casual.⁹⁴

These programs, since they offer little chance of individualization in teaching (or learning) will not be considered here either. It is important to note, however, that many of these books do offer valuable information to parents.

2.3.5 Home-Based Programs

What are termed "home-visiting models"⁹⁵ are, in actuality, not models by the criteria established in Chapter One. Rather than models of education, they are delivery systems for education. This category includes those programs not yet discussed in which parent education occurs primarily in the homes of the parents involved.

Home based child development programs have been in existence for a number of years. Prior to 1972 (the year Home Start was implemented) at least 200 home based programs had been created throughout the country.⁹⁶ These programs function on the concept that parents are not only the first, but can also be the most influential educators and "developers" of their own children. These programs have helped parents to provide for their children, in their own homes, many of the same developmental activities and support services that the children would receive if they were attending a child development center. These programs in homes offer unique opportunities for individualization, for "matching" both parents and children to appropriate challenges.

This delivery system arose partly because of the economies to be gained by home visitation programs without additional day or nursery care, and because there are theoretical objections by some professionals to the removal of a very young child from the home for any kind of group care.⁹⁷

Staff selection and posture are critical considerations for home visitors. Many programs have found it impossible to gain access to homes with male visitors. Weikart (1969) suggests that the home visitor perceive herself as a guest who "assumes a position of low power."⁹⁸ She may also be a casual friend and information-giver (with respect to learning games and alternate ways of discipline), or offer toys and books (Levenstein, 1971). She may give suggestions for and then participate in family activities and outings (Giesy, 1971). She may also occasionally serve as a mother-surrogate (Lally, 1971), as a guide to social agencies and community supports, and as a workshop teacher of everything from tie-

dying to toy making. Strong emphasis may be placed on the home visitor's ability to increase a mother's pleasurable social interactions and teaching behaviors with her infant (Honig, 1972). For more information about this and other critical issues in home visitation strategies, see Howard (1974). Again, because of their particular nature, those home visitation programs focusing on parent education in crisis situations--such as the one developed by the Parent-Infant Neighborhood Center in San Francisco (Lane, 1975)--or focusing on parents who have abused their young children (Harris, 1967) will not be discussed.

Hunt (1974) notes two programs for preventing retardation in the development of competence⁹⁹ based on the strategy of tutors coming into the homes. One was a demonstration formulated by S. A. Kirk in 1965 and conducted by Genevieve Painter. The curriculum (Painter, 1968) emphasized experience with a variety of toys and language. The infants in the group ranged in age from eight to twenty-four months when the program started. After daily tutorial home visits, five days a week for over two years, the tutored infants performed significantly better on both intelligence and language tests than the untutored controls (Painter, 1969). The other such program was one planned and directed by Schaefer (1969). This program was based on the hypothesis that language is crucial and that the critical period for its development is the latter three-fourths of the second year and the third year of life. For twenty-one months, beginning when the infants were fourteen months old, eight women, college educated and trained by Schaefer, made daily visits of about an hour in the inner-city homes of the twenty black infants. Each tutor established a close personal relationship with her infant tutees,

playing games with them, engaging them in classifying, building, and musical activities, and read to them. The curriculum was admittedly exploratory and based on what "parents of middle-class are wont to do with their infants."¹⁰⁰ At the end of the program, the IQs of the tutored infants averaged seventeen points higher than those of the untutored controls. The IQs of the tutored infants averaged only slightly above one hundred (Schaefer and Aaronson, 1973). Thus,

most of the difference was due to a progressive drop in the IAs of the untutored controls, a drop that has been found to be typical for infants developing in the homes of uneducated parents of poverty. As might be expected, these gains began to disappear once the program ended. The home tutoring merely delayed the retardation.¹⁰¹

There are at least two lessons to be learned from these two efforts. Gains will not hold if the environment does not hold. When the intervention is terminated, gains will vanish if the original environment (physical, human, and self) has not been enhanced. Secondly, intervention in the home without a focus on the parent(s) means that every time the visitor leaves, the environment reverts to previsit status. Thus, without the involvement of the parent, a home visitor would have to move in for years to have a long-lasting effect. This is hardly an efficient, much less effective method.

Susan Gray and Rupert Klaus, at the George Peabody College Demonstration and Research Center for Early Education (DARCEE) in Nashville, Tennessee were pioneers in involving parents, especially mothers, in the educational process. Their aim was on interesting children in scholastic matters and in inculcating a motivational concern for achievement as well as in the language and cognitive skills they felt were required for doing well in school. Their work is significant because they

had a new approach to modifying the child-rearing of parents to foster mental health and prevent mental disorders, an idea which was far from new. They brought the mother into the classroom, first as observers, and then as teacher aides. The mothers watched teachers working with the children, then the teachers talked with the mothers about what the mothers had seen them do in various interactions with the children and explained why they did it. This provided a basis for imitative learning. What was observed and imitated could be meaningfully discussed. Discussions helped to foster transfer into the homes, and home visitors helped the transfer along.

This combination brought results that included improved performance not only in the target children who attended the classes, but also in the other children of the families, particularly those younger than the target child. This they called "vertical diffusion" (Gray and Klaus, 1965). The authors expressed guarded optimism about the long-range effects of their work, and their concluding statement from another study (1968) provides an excellent summary of the evidence from invention research:

...the evidence is overwhelming in indicating that... performance results from the continual interaction of the organism with its environment. Intervention programs, well conceived and executed, may be expected to make some relatively lasting changes. Such programs, however, cannot be expected to carry the whole burden of providing adequate schooling for children from deprived circumstances; they can provide only a basis for future progress in schools and homes that can build upon that early intervention.¹⁰¹

Their program, as well as other programs that have actively involved parents in the teaching of their own children through a combination of imitation of teachers with later discussion of the reasons behind teacher

behavior have also influenced the development of competence and esteem in the parents (Badger, 1971) (Gordon, et. al. 1969) (Karnes, et. al. 1970) (Weikart and Lambie, 1967). This finding appears to be general.

More recently, Gray (1970) contrasted a preschool program with one that taught mothers to foster the development of their children. The home program showed equal effectiveness at far lower cost, as well as allowing vertical diffusion to younger children in the family and horizontal diffusion through the neighborhood. Gray's results suggest that a home program that teaches a mother to teach her child might either be an alternative or supplement for a preschool program.

Gray (1971) and her collaborator Forester (1972) continue to develop home visitation techniques and tasks for mothers of preschoolers with a goal of providing mothers with the coping skills and assurance they need to handle the entire job of being their preschool children's teachers. They saw parents as the educational change agents for their own infants and children. The DARCEE studies also highlight the programmatic and economic advantages of utilizing indigenous para-professionals as home visitors (Barbrack and Horton, 1970).

Ira Gordon, Director of the Institute for the Development of Human Resources at the University of Florida at Gainesville has initiated programs (1967, 1969, 1971) with the aim of preventing retardation through parent education that was economically feasible. He has trained as tutors women with low incomes and limited education. His parent educators worked with 216 families with children aged between three and twenty-four months, once a week in the home. The Gordon curriculum features a series of "learning games" inspired by Piaget's descriptions

of sensorimotor development and items from different tests. The results indicate that a year of such mother training is inadequate to effect a continuing improvement in child rearing practices. Although Gordon believes that the children that remained in his program two years showed significant differences compared to the controls,¹⁰² Hunt (1974) contends that "all the gains from the Gordon program are modest and they favor girls...."¹⁰³ It is unclear in these studies whether the modesty of the gains or the effectiveness of the mother training was sacrificed by Gordon's attempt to achieve economic feasibility.

The Ypsilanti-Carnegie Infant Education Project (Lambie, Bond, and Weikart, 1974) has as its main developmental objective the construction of a Piagetian-based curriculum for increasing a mother's awareness of and her ability to enhance her infant's cognitive growth. Weikart and Lambie (1969) utilized trained educators to teach parents how to support their child's education in conjunction with half-day preschool programs. The combined programs (home visitations and preschool), after successive refinement over a period of years, have resulted in mean IQ gains of up to thirty points. In the infant project, it was assumed that parents play a vital role in the rearing of their own children and that:

parents are capable of effective child-rearing when provided with resources and support adequate to the task. The educational program supported parents in clarifying and realizing their own child-rearing goals. The program encouraged parents to take an open, problem-solving approach to child-rearing by involving them in interaction with professional teachers who supported their goals for the child and focused on the mutual task of understanding and supporting development in the child.¹⁰⁴

The primary objective for infants in the home program was full development of their emerging cognitive skills as defined by the develop-

mental theory of Piaget; the primary objective for the mother in the Infant Project home teaching program was that she become a more effective facilitator of her infant's cognitive development.

In the context of the Infant Project, curriculum referred to a viewpoint and developmental perspective (derived largely from the theory of Piaget), a set of educational objectives (for infant, mother and teacher), and a body of descriptive/observational data that guided teachers and "mothers-as-teachers, in interpreting and effectively responding to infant behavior."¹⁰⁵

One of the most thoroughly tested programs for preventing retardation through parent education is that of Phyllis Levenstein. Levenstein initiated her program in 1965 (as Head Start was being launched). She had three guiding hypotheses.

1. That language acquisition is fundamental for the intellectual development of children from economically and educationally disadvantaged families.
2. That mothers in such families can be taught through demonstrations to mother and child together, of toys and books chosen for their perceptual motor, verbal and conceptual properties, to interact verbally with their children in a fashion that will foster the child's intellectual and motivational development and also build within the mothers a sense of competence and worth.
3. That, since language development is most prominent during the third and fourth years, such a program should begin when children are about two years old (Levenstein

and Sunley, 1968). These guiding hypotheses have now been expanded to six (Levenstein, 1974).

In Levenstein's initial studies, professional social workers were used as "Toy Demonstrators" but in more recent studies paraprofessionals (either volunteers with college backgrounds or mothers who had participated in earlier studies) have been trained for that role.

Levenstein (1970) conceptualized books and toys as Verbal Interaction Stimulus Materials, had toy demonstrators use the carefully selected materials in home visits with mothers, had mothers use them under the supervision of the demonstrator, and encouraged mothers to use the materials that were left in the home for her to keep. With approximately thirty-two visits over a seven-month period her two and three-year old subjects showed a mean IQ gain (Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test) of approximately seventeen points. Levenstein also found that the child's IQ level can be maintained or increased by a reduced number of visits the following year. Another interesting feature was the interest of mothers in the toys and games.

With the encouragement of the results from this work, Levenstein (1971, 1974) formalized the descriptions of the techniques of verbal intervention in the "Toy Demonstrator's Visit Handbook." The issues of persistence of gains has been investigated by follow-up, and the available evidence is also encouraging (Hunt, 1974). The gains appear to persist, presumably because teaching the mothers to interact verbally with their children in supportive fashion helps to sustain them. More than seventy per cent of involved mothers felt their interaction with their children had generally improved; more than eighty per cent valued

the Mother-Child Home Program.¹⁰⁶

Levenstein's work is a laudable example of program development. The results indicate that the deficiencies in competence associated with development in uneducated families of poverty can be prevented in many children through parent education.

Two concepts led to the development of the home task program of Nurseries in Cross-Cultural Education (NICE). One was that early interactions between parents and children have a powerful effect on a child's developing personality (Streissguth and Bee, 1972). The other is Hess and Shipman's (1965) belief that "The mother's teaching style is just as good, if not a better predictor of the child's school performance and intellectual functioning than his social class or his mother's IQ."¹⁰⁷

The objective of this program was to enrich a parent's teaching style through the use of home tasks. Children were chosen from the nursery school part of the program and their home was visited once per week by a staff member or graduate student. The home visitor brought a different educational material or "kit" each week, and demonstrated ways in which the mother and child could use the material, explaining the educational purpose of the item to the parent. The visitor left the item for a week for the mother to use with her child, and the following week--after checking on the use of the last week's "kit," demonstrated a new item and left that one. The tasks were designed to increase parent-child interaction, to provide a climate for encouraging the child's use of language, and to help mothers become more effective teachers. "At the same time they could be helped to understand the

importance of play and play materials in their children's early learning."¹⁰⁸ Tasks were chosen to increase perception, extend knowledge, develop motor skills, expand concepts, build vocabulary, enhance self-esteem, and promote fun. Lane (1975) judged Home Tasks to be an influential program.

Other important home based parent education programs include Ryan's (1972) home visitation system in Canada; Project Prepare;¹⁰⁹ Project I.D.E.A. at Home;¹¹⁰ the Infant Stimulation through Family Life Education Program in Albany;¹¹¹ and Gutelius (1971) demonstration program combining well baby care with infant stimulation sessions. Two projects with an emphasis on fathers are those of Bowles and Scheinfeld (1969) and Tuck (1969).

The promising results of these parent-centered intervention programs show that working with mothers is an effective method for producing gains in intellectual functioning. As Schaefer has noted:

Parent-centered, as contrasted to child-centered, early intervention programs have equal immediate effectiveness, greater long-term effectiveness, are less expensive, and produce vertical and horizontal diffusion through the family and community.¹¹²

These results suggest not only the need for early and continuing education of the child but also early and continuing support for parents in their roles and educators of their own children and as students of the theory and practice of education in the home.

2.3.6 Center Based Programs

There are basically two types of center based parent education programs: those programs established originally for children to which some parent education component has been added, and those programs

established specifically for parents. It is important to remember in the following discussion that the "center based model," like the "home model," is really a delivery system for services rather than a model in the sense we have established.

The child-centered type of program includes many parent education efforts developed around preschools, day care centers, and infant centers. Rather extensive use has been made of outside-the-home centers for infant intervention by Caldwell and Richmond (1968), Dusewicz and Higgins (1971), Gallagher (Appalachian Regional Commission, 1970), Heber (Strickland, 1971), Keister (1970), and Sigel (1971) as well as others. Honig (1972) explains that the rationale for using a center approach involves the provision of important services such as baby-sitting, pediatric care, and the provision of nutritious meals. Choice of a center model for infant intervention may also involve the recognition that a "more intensive and cumulative contact with the social and non-social environment" can thus be provided.¹¹³ Infants in center programs often register considerable gains during their enrollment (Caldwell and Richmond, 1968). Center based programs can often provide a more "total" environment to shape and reinforce the multitude of developmental processes which have been identified as "goals for education" (Biber, 1969). Finally, where infants are persistently at nutritional deficit within the home environment, the use of a center approach may provide that consistent boost in nourishment which the infant requires to maintain good health and lessen proneness to respiratory infections, hemoglobin deficiencies (Osofsky and Osofsky, 1971), and other ailments.

There are two large drawbacks to the center approach.

One large drawback to the center-based model exclusively concerned with infants is that an aura of "we-know-best-for-baby" professionalism may alienate parents and community from the intervention program and contribute to the isolation of already alienated poverty parents from involvement with one more educational institution.¹¹⁴

This is a crucial consideration for centers interested in some kind of parent education component to their programs. The other consideration is the costly nature of such centers. Any center intervention program that is not supported by research or other funds is almost certain to cost too much for most parents to take advantages of such services for their infants or themselves. Staff selection and training is, of course, a major concern and potentially a problem area.

Many parents have found cooperative preschool education to answer their needs. Most cooperative programs also include adult education in child development and early childhood teaching.

The characteristic element is the parents' cooperation, not only in the organization and business of the school but also in the education of the children, for the parents serve as teacher assistants. This process provides some of the training most parents lack in the vital art of guiding children; it also affords valuable experience in discovering and utilizing one another's resources and those of their community.¹¹⁵

Working with low-income parents, Bushell and Jacobsen (1968) reported changes in maternal ability to use reinforcement techniques to shape and improve children's classroom behaviors. The operating assumption was that "if Head Start type programs can be operated by the parents of the children served, such programs will have a more noticeable impact on the community at large."¹¹⁶

"Datta (1973) describes the various forms of parent involvement in early childhood education, as paid and volunteer staff, as decision makers,

and as resources. McDonald (1964) describes a program for Mexican Americans in which parents accompany their three year olds to school to learn child development, homemaking skills, and English. Another program in Superior, Wisconsin invites parents into the classroom, hoping that a parent, "seeing her child in a learning situation, will recognize the potential benefits and become interested in helping."¹¹⁷ Ahr (1968) utilized a comic strip approach to deliver child development information in the School-Parent Early Educational Development program. Platt (1966) and others have helped parents prepare their children in getting ready to enter school. One such program in the Netherlands was designed to produce a "school resistant child"¹¹⁸ (Rupp, 1969), that is, one with so strong a self-concept and skill base that he could withstand even bad schools.

Adkins (1971) found the combined effects of preschool plus parent program difficult to interpret. Evaluation of her program has suggested that different parent workers were differentially successful with parents in several Hawaiian communities. Those staff members who served a variety of functions for the parents, rather than "applying solely the intended focus on the mother's role as teacher to reinforce a particular curriculum"¹¹⁹ were most successful.

Karnes (1968) demonstrated that mothers on Aide to Dependent Children could be taught to be effective teachers of their own preschool children. Mothers of the experimental group were invited to attend a training program where they made instructional materials and learned to use them to teach their children at home. Teachers encouraged mothers to recognize that their assistance was very important to the development of their child's educational competence. In a similar program (Karnes,

et. al., 1970) small groups of mothers were involved in making child-centered educational materials and planning activities for them, and the authors concluded that a program of mother training could do much to prevent the inadequate cognitive and linguistic development characteristic of the disadvantaged child.

Gray (1971) has reported encouraging results for mother participation plus child preschool experience. Three kinds of experience were provided. One group was provided with an enriched preschool and no parent involvement; one group had preschool with a carefully scheduled sequence of training experiences for mothers. These experiences were designed to enable mothers to work effectively with their young preschool children and to take on some assistant teacher functions in the preschool. The third group involved weekly home visitation and no preschool. Gray reported that,

The IQs of the group in which both mothers and children were involved in the preschool have tended to remain relatively stable...after the children have gone through their first two years of school. In the group in which the mothers were not involved, however, there has been a decrease in IQ.

Positive effects have also been reported in an experimental Head Start program of language intervention (Kuipers, Borger, and Beery, 1970), for groups of mothers who met in twelve weekly two-hour sessions with their children's teacher. Borger and his colleagues (1974) have carried out an expansion of this program with rural and urban parents, and developed a manual Parents Are Teachers Too.

The Sumner Mobile Preschool Program (Greenstein, Garman, and Sanford, 1974) trains mothers in the home while providing a developmental program for young children. The parent gradually takes on a variety of program

responsibilities with her own and other children who attend the mobile preschool. Gordon and Guinagh's (1969) backyard centers have used somewhat the same concept. Mothers in whose homes preschool activities occurred for a small group of children were employed as helpers to the backyard center directors, who were themselves paraprofessionals who served earlier as teachers in Gordon's home visitation program. While a child was in the program, a parent educator worked once a week with the mother, who was instructed not only in the mechanics of Piagetian-based games and tasks, but also

in general attitudes toward them, and some conceptual frameworks and rationale for their use. The essential mode of presentation is demonstration by the parent educator and modeling by the mother.¹²¹

Johnson (1973) reported notable success at involving parents in classrooms with their children when such efforts were made in the second year of the program after an initial year of home visits with the parents. Horton (n.d.) at DARCEE described a program where classroom participation was the final step in a training program which first involved orientation, observation, then demonstration and role playing, then classroom participation with limited responsibility.

In Heber's program in Milwaukee (Heber, et. al., 1972), the parent involvement component consisted of carefully sequenced and supervised on-the-job training experience as well as a great many parent group meetings to build self-confidence, communication skills, and job skills in a group of low IQ mother from low income households. An intensive intervention and stimulation program was provided for the infants, beginning before six months of age, which was designed to facilitate

intellectual development. Extraordinary increases in the IQ scores¹²² of the experimentally enriched children after four years in the program were found in comparison to declines in scores for control children.

Infants and their mothers have been the focus of attempts to combine parent group meetings and developmental group care in an innovative effort at the Mt. Carmel PCC in Illinois. Badger (1972) launched an experimental Mother's Training Program there in addition to the ongoing Center program for infants. In the weekly two-hour instructional meetings, the group leader offered infant and toddler demonstrations, established a toy lending library, and made weekly follow up visits to each home to offer individual help. Mothers became active in making play materials for their infants. Each mother learned to match toys to her own child's developmental level. Badger's conclusions express her conviction that a trainer's enthusiasm,

belief in his or her own ability to effect change in poverty families, plus structure--such as a sequenced learning program--are indispensable ingredients to the success of parent involvement efforts.¹²³

Other parent education programs of the child-centered type include the Family Day Care Training Project (1974) and Foster Parent Care (Thune, 1970). Still others can be found in Bell (1975).

An approach which has been found successful in many programs is characterized by the teaching of parents in groups. Parents then return home and are better able to apply intervention techniques and behaviors with their own children. This approach would seem to meet several basic clinical and sociological objections to intervention programs. This approach strengthens rather than weakens parent-child responsibilities

and bonds; only the parent works with the child. It helps ensure a longer term intervention than the few years most funded projects function. They train the parent (usually the mother) as a change agent and thereby decrease her sense of powerlessness, and not only in her mothering and educating role. As Honig (1972) emphasizes:

If the mother's sense of self-competence and achievement with regard to child-rearing has been sustained, she may more successfully relate to problems of poverty or ethnic discrimination as they affect her and her family. When parents are involved in infant intervention we emphasize even more strongly our philosophical conviction that a program must support and supplement but not supplant parenting. It is well to make this conviction explicit if we wish the trust and cooperation of families in intervention projects.¹²⁴

It is also well to make clear that one does not automatically equate difference with deficit (Cole and Bruner, 1971). Cultural differences should be respected and incorporated into programs whenever feasible and with the parents' help.

For that reason, as well as others, older demonstrations which attempted to modify the child rearing practices of parents through lectures, group discussions, or psycho-therapy-like interviews have vanished from the scene.¹²⁵

Karnes, et. al., (1969) carried out parent group meetings with mothers of children not attending any preschool. Under these conditions paid participation (an idea used by a number of PCC's) by one group of mothers in twelve two-hour parent education sessions had positive effects on their children's intellectual growth in comparison to control children with nonparticipating mothers.

Nimnicht's (1972) Far West Parent/Child Toy Library Program has

involved parents in eight two-hour sessions, usually meeting once a week. This program was designed to serve parents of three and four year old children who were above the income level that would qualify their children for Head Start but who could not afford a private nursery school. Underlying the program are three assumptions:

- 1) That the family has the responsibility for the education of their own children.
- 2) That any formal educational program should provide a variety of alternatives to meet the needs of parents and their children.
- 3) That the educational program should be responsive to the learner's background, culture, and life style.¹²⁶

In Nimnicht's program child development topics are discussed and a new toy introduced at each meeting.¹²⁷ The toy as a means to boost children's problems solving skills is demonstrated, discussed, and illustrated in films. Parents at the group meetings role-play with each other ways to use the toys so that their youngsters can later be helped to make discoveries on their own as they play with the toys.

Stevens (1973) reported that an eleven week program of small group meetings of parents which included toy and book demonstrations and lending produced significant IQ gains for children of project participants, and suggested that the parent consultants would have been even more effective had they provided feedback to a parent during his or her interaction with a child in the home.

A number of parent education programs have been built upon the "language envelope"¹²⁸ approach. One such plan to help parents encourage language development from infancy onward is called "Teach Your Child To Talk" (Pushaw, 1969). The parent workshops in this program are carefully

programmed with slides, cassettes, and written materials for workshop leaders. Mann (1970) developed a structured language program for mothers of educationally disadvantaged two year old children, and concluded from evaluations of her program that it produced a significant change in the syntax style of the mothers and the pattern of verbal interaction between mothers and their children.

At the New Orleans PCDC, four assumptions underlie the program's philosophy and methods (Rabinowitz, 1973):

1. Some parents have child-rearing styles which negatively influence some aspect of their child's development.
2. Parents need a general base of child-rearing information in order to make informed choices about their own practices.
3. Parents who understand underlying principles of human development will be more likely to use these forces to support growth and learning.
4. Adults and children learn best in a supportive, self-respecting relationship with others.

Methods of teaching parents include the observation of models of adult-child interaction styles; parent participation in discussions; and demonstrations on the management of children in a variety of situations. Two themes (Wiener, 1973) are stressed: the parent is now and will be the child's most important teacher, and all the baby's time is learning time.

Other adult centered parent education approaches include Slavson

(1974), Parents and Children Together (PACT) which is supported by Tupperware and S & H Green Stamp operations,¹²⁹ and Parent and Child Toy Learning Classes.¹³⁰ Bell (1975) and Kremer (1971) list other similar programs.

2.3.7 Omnibus Programs

This final category of parent education programs uses a wide variety of techniques and carry out long-term parent involvement efforts often extending from prenatal through the school years. The Kentucky Rural Child Care Project (1972), for example, is dedicated to "total involvement of the family unit from birth to school age."¹³¹ Prenatal checkups provided in this project ensure the child a head start even before he is born. Later on a PCC offers education to the young infant, while for his parents,

there is medical care, including counseling when necessary, and general instruction about such family concerns as nutrition, child development, and budgeting. For the mothers, sewing and craft work are taught in the afternoon during nap-time; for the dads, there are woodworking and craft classes at the center's workshop; night classes on various subjects are offered to them and other interested persons from the community.¹³²

The Family Development Research Program in Syracuse, New York offers another omnibus approach to parent involvement (Lally, 1973) (Lally and Honig, 1975). Paraprofessional home visitors, who are indigenous to the low income community they serve, bring nutritional, child development, and child care information to pregnant mothers. After the infant's birth, the family is taught special games to encourage visual alerting, eye-hand coordinations, and vocalizations. At six months, infants enter the Children's Center, a developmental day care program. Families con-

tinue to be visited by the Child Development Trainers (CDT's) and parents continue to receive child development information and skills until the child reaches school age.

Language, sensorimotor, and later preoperational games and tasks are presented as well as child-management ideas and techniques. CDTs lend toys and books. They provide information and references to community resources to help with legal aid, health care, housing, food stamps, and other problems. They provide loyal friendship to mothers often beset with severe emotional, sexual, social, and financial crises. This function was poignantly corroborated by mothers during the Parent Evaluation Interview administered when the child is three years old.¹³³

It may be that the ultimate effectiveness of parent educators will depend on their flexible ability to serve a multitude of functions in families. Lally and Honig (1974) report:

We have learned over the last five years that some of the basic needs and fears must be met head-on and not buried under pages of games and tasks for a mother and her child(There is a) complex interaction of personal, social, and economic variables that affect the day-to-day functioning of our families....Families are motivated by many factors that must be taken into consideration by outside agents if they expect to have a meaningful impact on family functioning. We have learned one lesson. No one program structure works for everyone. A program must be dynamic, fluid and attuned to the needs of the individuals who are served.

Finally, there is the Brookline Early Education Project (BEEP), an experiment which may revolutionize both the education of babies and their pediatric care. BEEP believes,

- 1) That intervention must begin in babies' homes, right after birth.
- 2) That parents should be taught to raise more competent children by a teacher-consultant who comes into the homes and is always on call.
- 3) That the most critical period for learning is the short, often neglected span between eight and eighteen months of age.

4) That pediatricians should seek out potential learning handicaps through special tests, long before they normally do, so that children can be treated in time to make the most of this critical period.¹³⁵

The 282 families enrolled in BEEP have been randomly assigned to one of three levels of service, at varying costs, for experimental purposes.

As Pines (1975) has pointed out: .

(BEEP) has clearly built the foundations of a totally new type of public school system for babies and young children-- a system in which parents do the actual teaching, but receive extraordinary technical support: masses of information, home visits, training, consultants, books, toys, highly specific tests of the baby's physical, intellectual and emotional state, occasional child care, referrals and strong advocacy whenever necessary.¹³⁶

This concludes our review of parent education programs.

2.4 CRITICAL VARIABLES IN PARENT EDUCATION

The effort to identify children, families or even entire societies who are "at risk" of becoming victims of particular plagues or threats to health and function is a recurrent theme in medical history. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, red-haired women were closely watched in pregnancy, as they were considered especially prone to severe hemorrhage. In Sweden in the eighteenth century, Rosen von Rosenstein recognized three at-risk factors in the causation of rickets.¹³⁷ These included swaddling, the winter season, and keeping children indoors. Clearly the determination of at riskness is justified by the availability of early intervention techniques to prevent the condition to which the subject is predisposed statistically.¹³⁸

In pediatrics, the term "high risk" infant has been invoked to describe the newborn who is considered in serious danger of mortality. Such an infant presents with prenatal or neonatal complications that

increase the likelihood of early death or at least major disability.

Recently this term has been applied by Badger (1976) and others to adolescent mothers:

The typical situation of the child-mother--unmarried, without a high school diploma, unable to support herself or her child--endangers the physical, cognitive, and psychological development of her infant.¹³⁹

It could as well be applied to all of us. Although the overwhelming percentage of parent education efforts have thus far focused on those who are poor, we are all in need. As the most highly evolved creatures, responsible for evolution, we are all "at risk." If we present our children as unprepared managers, our ever ascending arrows may slow or plummet. Therefore we have a right to adequate preparation not only for our children but for ourselves as well. There are basic childrearing tools which are at least as important to parents "as the usual carpentry or cooking tools available in most households."¹⁴⁰ Citizens have a right to such tools for optimizing parenting as they have a right to literacy and job skills for work and participation in society.

We know that appropriate parent education can be an effective way (Hunt, 1974) (Schaefer, 1972) of equipping parents with the necessary tools for optimizing the release of their children's potential, for increasing the power of parents (Gordon, 1971) to raise his own children.

A major question about the future of programs designed to increase parental effectiveness in the education of their children is whether these programs would have significant effects on other than disadvantaged socioeconomic groups. Theoretically, the answer is yes; evidence by

Fowler (1962), Moore (1964), Douglas (1964) and Hunt (1961, 1974) supports this view. The middle and upper classes have not captured the market on successful child rearing, "naive psychology"¹⁴¹ to the contrary:

...those who support intervention for children of parents of poverty tend to believe that child-rearing in families of the middle class approximates the optimum despite experiments showing that achievements in various individual branches of development can be hastened substantially in children of such families. If one takes seriously the conception of development in which achievement builds upon achievement, the results of these studies imply that middle-class child-rearing falls far short of what it might well be, and that probably no society has ever maximized the biological potential of its children.¹⁴²

White (1975) states flatly that "not more than one child in ten gets off to as good a start as he could."¹⁴³ If this is only half true, we're still in trouble from an evolutionary standpoint. Of course we have little time to lose.

As T. H. Bell, former Commissioner of the United States Office of Education has said:

Now is the time for us to move more aggressively than we have ever done before to meet the needs of our very young....It is the time to provide a greatly renewed and rejuvenated effort in parent education for the purpose of strengthening the learning potential of children in the home....One of the keys to dramatic progress in American education is to gain a rededication to learning in the home and to build a new commitment and new education partnership with parents.¹⁴⁴

Thus we have established that parent education is necessary and can be helpful. We will now turn to a discussion of certain critical variables in parent education efforts.

Models of Man and Theories of Development

We have already noted the importance of examining the philosophical

positions with regard to the nature of man and his development. Most programs state no philosophical position. This is as true for federal as non-federal programs. Where a position is stated it is as often as not likely to be romanticized statements with a maturationist perspective a la Rousseau.¹⁴⁵ There are, of course, explicit holders of both the mechanical mirror (Bushell and Jacobson, 1968) and organic lamp (Gordon, 1969) (Gray and Klaus, 1965) (Nimnicht et. al., 1972) (Lambie, Bond and Weikart, 1970). However, a large number of programs have assumed the mechanistic model for infants and the organismic one for adults, or have slid back and forth between the two unconsciously. No program reviewed incorporates a view of man as rich and wide as in the Anisa model.

What Parents Need to Know

What to teach parents about fostering the development of their infants and young children is still far from established and agreed upon. Some believe that intervention is futile; others believe a number of things are important for parents to know and be able to do. To the Federal Office of Child Development parents should learn self-confidence, "a sense of independence in fostering an environment in which their children can develop to their full potential,"¹⁴⁶ learning experiences in child growth and behavior to strengthen their role as prime educators of their children, methods of providing educational and developmental activities for children in the home, and health, mental health and nutrition information.¹⁴⁷ O'Keefe (1973), speaking for Home Start, would add learning to reinforce their child's positive behavior.

Lane (1975) feels that besides an understanding of what children are like, how to handle crises, and how to discipline, that parents should

learn to know themselves, their own attitudes and feelings, because, "The best gift parents can give their children is a happy marital relationship."¹⁴⁸ Bell (1975) adds that parents should develop an awareness that they are teaching and the importance of parental commitment to and involvement in their child's education, and how to respond with skill to some of the incidents that occur around the home to arouse the child's natural curiosity.

Gordon (1973), we think, put his finger on one of the keys when he said that we need to teach for "generalization of principles,"¹⁴⁹ so that parents can translate procedures learned into the development of their own tasks.

The best way to teach parents to generalize principles from one event to another is to give them knowledge about how children develop. While Honig (1975) and others mentioned believe child development information is important, few stress why it is helpful:

Knowing that an infant triples his or her birth weight in the first year of life and that the growth rate then slows considerably can be valuable information, for example, to a parent bewildered by a poor appetite in a two-year old who ate so ravenously when he was much younger. Knowing when a baby can be expected to begin to have some voluntary control over the sphincter muscles for elimination, or over voluntary release of an object grasped in the hand may encourage more enlightened and less punitive assessments of non-compliance by young children.¹⁵⁰

In brief, authors feel that parents should have some knowledge of child development, and know how to handle as well as how to play with, their small children, besides being able to teach them.

How Parent Education Should Be Delivered

Some programs use a center-based approach to delivering parent

education; other programs use a home-based approach. A few programs utilize mobile units, backyards, or satellite centers for delivery of services. Although there are general advantages and disadvantages to each approach, no approach has been proven more effective than any other. An assessment of the needs and mores of the particular community should determine the most effective approach.

How Staffs Should Be Chosen

Besides sensitivity to cultural and sexual issues (especially when utilizing home visitors), the only general rule derived from the previous review of programs is that a good, dedicated and compassionate staff can pull off almost any program; an inappropriate staff can wound or kill the best conceptual plans.

How Parents Should Be Taught

In general, lectures, discussions, and psycho-therapy types of teaching are less effective than ones that include demonstration (Badger, 1971) (Gordon et. al., 1969) (Karnes et. al., 1970) (Gray and Klaus, 1965) (Levenstein, 1974) (Nimnicht, 1972) (Lambie, Bond and Weikart, 1970) (Lally and Honig, 1975). Most programs have focused on demonstrations with toys, games and other materials rather than tasks, or demonstrations of interpersonal interactions. Few programs have taught the reasoning behind specific modeling demonstrations.

Costs

It is extremely difficult to get a handle on the per-parent or per-family costs of the various programs reviewed. BEEP costs either \$350,

\$1,100 or \$1,600 per child per year, depending on the amount of services received. Costs for the Parent/Child Toy-Lending Library are \$47 per set of toys plus training for a group leader and incidentals. Costs for most federal programs have been extremely expensive for children under three. The cost of \$3,600 per child per year for a Parent and Child Center was normative.¹⁵¹ Costs for other programs have not been determined as a result of this review.

Other critical variables include onset, pace and duration of intervention, definitions of parents, parenting and focal children, support and other services available, and scope of the intervention.

1. D. Lambie, J. Bond, and D. Weikart, Home Teaching with Mothers and Infants (Ypsilanti, Michigan: Hihg/Scope, 1974), p. 18.
2. E. S. Schaefer "Parents as Educators: Evidence from Cross Sectional, Longitudinal and Intervention Research." Young Children, 27, 1972, p. 228.
3. Ira Gordon et. al. The Florida Parent Education Follow Through Program (Gainesville, Florida: College of Education, 1974).
4. Urie Bronfenbrenner Is Early Intervention Effective: A Report on Longitudinal Evaluations of Preschool Programs. Volume II (Washington, D. C.: OCD, DHEW, 1974).
5. J. McV. Hunt "Parent and Child Centers: Their Basis in the Behavioral and Educational Sciences" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 41, 1971, p. 14.
6. E. S. Schaefer "Child Development Research and the Educational Revolution: The Child, The Family, and the Education Profession." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, February, 1973.
7. N. Talbot (Ed.) Raising Children in Modern America: Problems and Prospective Solutions (Boston: Little, Brown, 1976) p. 254.
8. Ibid., p. 257.
9. In this section, program will refer to large governmental initiatives (e.g., Head Start). Any single implementation of a program (a Head Start Center) will be a project.
10. Ibid., p. 259.
11. E. Zigler Letter to New York Times Magazine, January 18, 1976, p. 40.
12. J. McV. Hunt. "Reflections on a Decade of Early Education" (Mimeo), 1974, p. 2.
13. Omwake (1968) suggests that the broad objective of Head Start has gradually undergone a metamorphosis in which the criterion for success has changed from providing enough new experiences to facilitate the transition from home to school to more concrete evidences of success, particularly in the domain of primary grade cognitive achievement.
14. R. Cooke quoted in "Head Start: A Child Development Program" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1970), p. 1.

15. Hunt, "Reflections," p. 4. For a good discussion of the seven broad objectives which have guided the Head Start program, see Grotberg (1965).
16. For an interesting suggestion on why the ages from four to six are in a "trough" with regard to mental growth, see Epstein's (1974) phrenoblysis hypothesis.
17. For a critique of the Westinghouse-Ohio report, see Smith and Bissel (1970). For further reviews, see Brink, Ellis, and Sarason (1968), Lessler and Fox (1968) and Wolf and Stein (1967).
18. For a sample recommended format for a Head Start center program see Project Head Start, Pamphlet Number 11.
19. "A number of students of early child development and education gleaned the outlines of this situation almost as soon as Project Head Start was launched." Hunt, "Reflections," p. 9.
20. See, for example Head Start: A Tragicomedy with Epilogue (Payne et. al., 1973).
21. For a catalogue of contributions, see Caliguri and Robertson (1968), Grotberg (1968), and Evans (1971).
22. In the first ten years of operation nearly 5 1/2 million children have been through the program or are currently enrolled. Today, some 1600 local grantees are serving 379,000 children, including the handicapped, in 9400 centers, according to the national director (Robinson, 1975).
23. Hunt, "Reflections," p. 7.
24. Ibid.
25. Ibid. See also Evans (1971).
26. Some medical findings of the first two million children enrolled in Head Start were: 180,000 failed a vision test; 60,000 needed eye glasses; 60,000 had bad skin disease; 180,000 had anemia; 40,000 had mental retardation or a learning problem requiring specialist evaluation; 20,000 had a bone or joint problem; 1,300,000 had dental disease; 1,200,000 had not been vaccinated against measles (Robinson, 1975). These and other findings led to development of the Early Periodic Screening and Diagnostic Test (EPSDT).
27. Weikart and Lambie (1968) suggest that the most fruitful outcomes of compensatory programs could be in terms of changes in

parental behavior and the total home environment of disadvantaged children.

28. Hunt, "Reflections," p. 7.
29. Ellis Evans, Contemporary Influences in Early Childhood Education (New York: Holt, Rinehart, 1971), p. 79.
30. The Head Start Performance Standards, originally printed in "A Manual of Policies and Instructions" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1967) were updated in Transmittal Notices in August, 1970 and again in January, 1973.
31. Leah Curry and Larry Rood "Head Start Handbook for Parents" (Washington, D. C.: Gryphon House, 1971).
32. While The Economic Opportunity Act put responsibility for the administration of Project Head Start in the Office of Economic Opportunity, the amendment put Follow-Through into the Division of Compensatory Education of the Office of Education because the children concerned were already in public schools. Moreover, Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act had given this Division responsibility for grants to states for special programs for "educationally deprived" children. Thus Follow-Through became legally a part of community action.
33. Although formulated to service primarily Head Start graduates, Project Follow-Through was available to children who come from other preschool programs for the disadvantaged, if their parents came beneath the poverty line index. For a non-farm family of four, the figure was \$4,550 per year as a cutoff, according to the OEO Income Poverty Guidelines (Revised) of June, 1974 (Attachment A).
34. "Head Start," p. 8.
35. Originally each variety of early education model accepted would be represented and led by a program sponsor. At meetings of representatives of communities selected to participate, the sponsors had the task of presenting their programs. Once a program was selected, the sponsor became the change agent responsible for guiding the local school in implementation and for monitoring progress. For descriptions of the major variations, see Hunt (1974) or Evans (1971).
36. Hunt, "Reflections," p. 33.
37. M. Goldberg "Hopeful Signs for Urban Education". (Washington, D. C.: National Follow-Through Sponsor's Presentation to the Educational Staff Seminar, February, 1974).

38. L. E. Datta "Parent Involvement in Early Childhood Education: A Perspective from the United States." Paper presented at the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, Centre for Educational Research and Innovation Conference, Paris, France, October, 1973. For an in-depth review of this project, see Gordon et. al. (1974).
39. J. Costello and E. Binstock "Review and Summary of a National Survey of the Parent-Child Center Program" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1971) p. 1. See also Dittman (1969) and Peiper (1970).
40. A final report prepared by the HEW Task Force, entitled "Life Line for Children: A Proposal for a Consortium on Behalf of Children" encompassing the concept of a new program for children and a new organizational structure for its implementation (the Consortium) was to play a major role in the establishment of PCC's as a federal program, in its guidelines and criteria.
41. This group was made up of acknowledged experts in the field of early childhood drawn from across the country and had the assignment of reviewing the field and making recommendations concerning it. The task force was chaired by Dr. J. McVicker Hunt of the University of Illinois.
42. "Special Message to Congress Recommending a Twelve Point Program" February 8, 1967. In Public Papers of the President, Lyndon B. Johnson (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968) Volume I, p. 38.
43. President Johnson did not accept the Task Force's recommendation for a Federal Office for Children, but later President Nixon established administratively the Office of Child Development with its Director reporting to the Secretary of HEW. Nixon's administration transferred the Parent and Child Centers from OEO to OCD. Three programs, referred to as Parent Child Development Centers and primarily research centers, remained for a while under the aegis of OEO. PCC's became regionalized (like Head Start had been for some time) on July 1, 1975.
44. Richard Johnson "Parent and Child Centers: Early Intervention," in Head Start Newsletter 6, 9, 1973, p. 3.
45. Costello and Binstock, "Review and Summary," p. 2.
46. The following critique stems in large part from the author's experience as planner and director of the Cincinnati PCC as well as his observations at the Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Leitchfield (KY.) and Louisville PCC's, and conversations with staff from all 33 PCC's.

47. Costello and Binstock, "Review and Summary," p. 4.
48. Ibid.
49. The average time between release of the operating grant and initial delivery of services to families was four to five months, but sometimes as long as eleven months.
50. Costello and Binstock, "Review and Summary," p. 4.
51. While this local contribution was usually easy to meet, the fact that local grantees and delegate agencies did not understand it held many of their grants up, and affected their programs.
52. Hunt, "Reflections," p. 35.
53. Personal experience.
54. Personal experience.
55. "Parent and Child Centers: A Guide for the Development of Parent and Child Centers" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, undated.
56. Kirschner Associates A National Survey of the Parent-Child Center Program (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1970) p. 40.
57. Personal experience.
58. Monica Holmes "The Impact of Head Start Parent-Child Center Programs on Parents," (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1973), p. 300.
59. David Goslin "Children Under Three and Their Families: Implications of the Parent and Child Centers and the Parent Child Development Centers for the Design of Future Programs" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1974) p. 38.
60. R. Johnson quoted in "PCC Panel Focuses on Serving Infants and Toddlers" in "Report of a Joint Conference of Home Start and Child & Family Resource Programs" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1974) p. 10.
61. Goslin, "Children," p. 39.
62. A most disturbing observation concerning both the PCC's and PCDC's is the lack of contact between them, even within OCD. This is a shocking waste of effort and experience.
63. Goslin, "Children" p. 39.

64. Mary Robinson "Three Models for Parent Education: The Parent Child Development Centers." Paper presented at a Symposium at the annual meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Denver, Colorado, April, 1975.
65. Ibid.
66. Ibid.
67. Mary Ainsworth "Discussion." Paper presented at a Symposium at the annual meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Denver, Colorado, April, 1975.
68. Goslin, "Children," p. 55.
69. J. McV. Hunt "Parent and Child Centers: One Alternative Model." The Clinical Psychologist (President's Message), Winter, 1969, p. 77.
70. Ibid.
71. Ibid.
72. "A Guide for Planning and Operating Home-Based Child Development Programs" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1974), p. E-2.
73. Home Start families during the first two years of operation, tended to be the poorest of the poor, according to an evaluation by the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation ("Report of a Joint Conference," 1974). Home Start children tended to live in more rural areas than those in the Head Start control group; Home Start families had a lower socioeconomic level; Home Start mothers tended to be less well-educated, with fewer books and materials in the home; Home Start fathers were less likely to be employed; Home Start children were generally smaller in stature and weighed less than control children. See also footnote 32; the income guideline figures are the same.
74. "A Guide," p. E-3.
75. Ann O'Keefe "Speech to the Joint Conference of Home Start and Child and Family Resources Programs" in "Report of a Joint Conference," 1974) p. 3. See also "Bibliography of Home-Based Child Development Program Resources" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1973).
76. Edward Zigler, quoted in Ruth O'Keefe, "Home Start: Partnership with Parents" Children Today, January-February, 1973, p. 12.

77. O'Keefe, "Home Start," p. 12.
78. O'Keefe, "Speech," p. 2.
79. "Child and Family Resource Program: Guidelines for a Child Development Oriented Family Resource Program" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1973).
80. It is by now well recognized that each child is an individual whose patterns of biological and psychological development may require different kinds of services and programs in different quantities and at different times. However, although many federal programs may use different methods to deliver services (for example, some are center based, some home based, and some use combinations of both, mobile units or satellites), the types and quantities of services offered within a program usually are not tailored to the specific needs of individual children. The net result of all this is that some children and families receive few services, some may receive services they don't need, while others receive an overall surplus of services. Fortunately, this lack of tailoring or individualizing services, together with the lack of flexibility to change the degree or kind of services to meet changing or emerging needs became a matter of increasing concern. Partially it was in response to this concern that the Child & Family Resource Program, was, I believe, developed.
81. O'Keefe, "Speech," p. 2.
82. Ibid., p. 3.
83. "Child & Family," p. 4.
84. Ibid.
85. Such as Head Start and PCC's.
86. Jenny Klein "Klein Elaborates on Preschool-School Linkages," in "Report of a Joint Conference," 1974, p. 8.
87. Ibid.
88. Ibid.
89. Ibid.
90. Henri Parens quoted in "Doctor Prescribes Parenthood Education" Cincinnati Enquirer, May, 3, 1976, p. 1.
91. "Education for Parenthood" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OHD, undated) p. 1.

92. This program was developed by the Social Studies Division of the Educational Development Center. For more information see Felt (1974).
93. Personal communication with Richard Johnson, in charge of the Parent Involvement Component of Head Start in OCD.
94. Nancy McGrath "By the Book" New York Times Magazine, June 27, 1976, p. 27.
95. Ibid., p. 26.
96. This approach to delivering services is commonly referred to as a model (Honig, 1972) (Lane, 1975) even though inaccurate.
97. "Home Start Fact Sheet" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, 1975).
98. Alice Honig "Infant Development: Problems in Intervention." Paper presented at Merrill-Palmer Institute, Detroit, Michigan, February, 1972.
99. David Weikart quoted in Honig, "Infant Development."
100. Hunt, "Reflections," p. 17.
101. Ibid, pp. 17-18.
102. Schaefer, "Parents as Educators," p. 236.
103. Ira Gordon (1968).
104. Hunt, "Reflections," p. 19.
105. D. Lambie, J. Bond, and D. Weikart Home Teaching with Mothers and Infants (Ypsilanti, Michigan): High/Scope, 1974, p. 24.
106. Ibid., p. 27.
107. Hunt, "Reflections," p. 22.
108. R. Hess and V. Shipman "Early Experience and the Socialization of Cognitive Modes in Children" Child Development, 36, 4, 1965, p. 871.
109. Mary Lane Education for Parenting, (Washington, D. C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1975), p. 58.
110. See Bell (1975) for more information on this project.
111. See Lane (1975) for further information on this project.

112. See Honig (1975) for further information on this project.
113. Schaefer, "Parents as Educators," p. 237.
114. I. Sigel "An Early Intervention Program for Two-Year-Old Children" Presidential Address, Division 7, meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D. C., September, 1971.
115. Honig, "Infant Development."
116. K. Taylor. Parents and Children Learn Together (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1968), p. 13.
117. D. Bushell, Jr., and J. Jaconson "The Simultaneous Rehabilitation of Mothers and Their Children." Paper presented at a meeting of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco, August, 1968, p. 2.
118. Datta, "Parent Involvement."
119. Quoted in Ira Gordon On Early Learning: The Modifiability of Human Potential (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 1971), p. 27.
120. Honig, "Parent Involvement," p. 27.
121. Ibid., p. 28.
122. Ira Gordon and B. Guinagh A Home Learning Approach to Early Stimulation (Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida, College of Education, Institute for Development of Human Resources, 1969, p. 7.
123. The size of the increase has made this program controversial, as has the initial secrecy surrounding the project. For a further insight into this dilemma, see Heber and Gardner (1975) and a critique by Page (1975).
124. Honig, "Parent Involvement," p. 29. Also see Badger (1975).
125. Honig, "Infant Development."
126. For example, see Wohlford and Stein (1968). Most similar efforts failed because either the parents enrolled lacked the educational and experiential background required for the verbal communication or individual discussions designed to influence their child rearing, or because the methods were inappropriate for the task at hand.

127. Glen Nimnicht et. al. The Parent/Child Toy Lending Library (Berkeley, California: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1972), p. B1.
128. Many of these toys are "borrowed" from the Montessori materials, developed by Maria Montessori and her followers.
129. Gordon, "On Early Learning," p. 18.
130. For further information on this program, see Bell (1975).
131. For further information on this project, see Bell (1975).
132. "Kentucky Rural Child Care Project: Child Care and Parent Involvement in Leitchfield" Rural Child Newsletter, 1, 15, 1972, p. 1.
133. Ibid.
134. Honig, "Parent Involvement," p. 38.
135. J. Lally and A. Honig "Education of Infants and Toddlers from Low-Income and Low-Education Backgrounds: Support for the Family's Role and Identity" in B. Friedlander, G. Sterritt, and G. Kirk (Eds.) Exceptional Infant: Assessment and Intervention (New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1975), Volume 3, p. 295.
136. Maya Pines "Head Start" New York Times Magazine, October 26, 1975, p. 14.
137. Ibid., p. 68.
138. Derrick, Jelliffe and E. Jelliffe, "The At-Risk Concept as Related to Young Child Nutrition Programs" Clinical Periodicals, 12, 65, 1973.
139. M. D. Levine "The Assessment of Medical Predisposition to Educational Dysfunction: A Progress Report on the Development of Early Life 'At-Risk Inventories'" mimeo, 1973.
140. E. Badger, D. Burns, and B. Rhoads "Education for Adolescent Mothers in a Hospital Setting," American Journal of Public Health, 1976 (accepted but not yet printed).
141. Honig, "Parent Involvement," p. 1.
142. "Naive psychology" is a term used by Heider (1958) to represent the system of tacit assumptions that are reflected in everyday human action. As utilized here it refers to the mistaken impression that those who are not poor know how to best rear

children. White (1973) has found little relation between effective mothering and education, or economic assets.

143. Hunt, "Reflections," p. 38.
144. Burton White, The First Three Years of Life (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1975), p. xi.
145. T. H. Bell "The Charge to Conference Participants" in "National Conference on Parent/Early Childhood Education" (Denver: DHEW, OE, 1975), p. xi.
146. For a discussion of romanticism, cultural transmission, and progressivism in regard to conception of early childhood and learning see Lambie, Bond, and Weikart (1970).
147. "Performance Standards" (Washington, D. C.: DHEW, OCD, January, 1973).
148. Ibid.
149. Lane, "Education for Parenting," p. 18.
150. Ira Gordon "Early Child Stimulation Through Parent Education" in L. Stone, H. Smith, and L. Murphy, The Competent Infant, (New York: Basic Books, 1973), p. 957.
151. Honig, "Parent Involvement," p. 1.
152. "Proposal for Cincinnati Parent Child Center, Cincinnati, Program Year G, July 1, 1975-June 30, 1976." (Cincinnati: Community Action Commission, 1975).

CHAPTER III

A DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL OF PARENT EDUCATION

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3.1 THE MODEL EXPLAINED

3.1.1 Introduction to the Model

We have seen the need for a general model of parent education. This chapter outlines such a model. This model of parent education will rely upon the philosophy of the Anisa Model, as well as its theories of development and pedagogy, and will concern itself with those parents who have children under three years of age. For purposes of this dissertation, parent shall signify any adult having major responsibility for a young (focal) child. Family shall include those persons living in the same household as the focal child.¹ Parenting shall mean the process of preparing one's children to become managing directors of evolution.

In this model, every parent is also a teacher. Teaching, as defined by the Anisa Model,² refers to the process of arranging environments and guiding interactions in order to achieve the goals specified by its theory of curriculum. The goal of teaching in this model, as mentioned, is adequate preparation of one's children for the purpose of assuming the role of managing directors of evolution. A parent then, is both designer and consultant,³ in charge of designing and maintaining developmentally appropriate environments to nurture the actualization of potential, and serving as consultant and guide in that process of actualization.

The following developmentally-based model of parent education is both general and simple, and significant for the following reasons:

1. The model is functionally defined by four process specifications critical to effective parenting.

These have been derived from the philosophical and developmental base of the Anisa Model, and further from an analysis of major existing parent education programs for the purpose of identifying common denominators. These specifications are explained pedagogically, and include definitions, elaborate descriptions, theoretical justifications, and examples of suggested teaching approaches.

2. The model does not specify individual recipes to be followed. It therefore demands a needs assessment of the particular community wishing to utilize the model, in order that an individualized program can be developed.⁴
3. The model requires that the director or leader possess both basic information about biological and psychological development in children from birth to three, as well as information about, and commitment to, the Anisa Model perspectives on the nature of man and the world. The model can be delivered by professionals, paraprofessionals, or a combination of both, given this constraint.
4. The model can be delivered by means of center, home, mobile, satellite, or combinations of these systems.
5. The model, as general and developmentally-based, has implications for parent education across a wide variety of communities and cultures.

6. The model can be delivered relatively inexpensively, depending upon the delivery system chosen, whether professionals or paraprofessionals are utilized, and the specific community in which the model is implemented.

After an explanation of the model's four components, an example of implementation of this model will be discussed in detail to show not only the necessity of adapting the model to the specific needs of the community chosen, but also to list a number of attendant considerations necessary for success.

3.1.2 Observation

Definition: Observation is the process of determining where a child is at "this" moment.

Description: Observation is the first role of the parent. A basic need of all parents, regardless of their income or education, is to learn how to observe a young child. Informal child-watching can help one determine where a child is in regard to psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, or volitional development. It can also help determine how a child relates to each of the four environments (physical, human, unknown and self). Holt (1970) feels that two reasons observers often see little of what is going on is that they neither observe for a long enough period of time, nor do they know what to look for.

Theoretical Justification: Whitehead (1969) has spoken to the concept of continual transition in stating that a being is always in process of becoming. This has obvious implications in regard to educa-

ting parents about the development of their children:

It is fundamental to the metaphysical doctrine of the philosophy of organism, that the notion of an actual entity as the unchanging subject of change is completely abandoned...; actual entities 'perpetually perish'....⁵

To Hunt (1961) teaching is primarily concerned with the principle that environmental circumstances force accommodative modifications in schemata only when there is an appropriate match between the circumstances that a child encounters and the schemata that he has already assimilated into his repertoire.

In a sense, this principle is only another statement of the educator's adage that "teaching must start where the learner is," but it is poorly understood...(T)his notion of a proper match between circumstance and schema is what every teacher must grasp, perhaps only intuitively, if he is to be effective.⁶

In essence, parents need observation skills to help them find out where a child is and is headed in order to prepare a match between child ability or readiness at the moment and ways or means to help that child develop by providing the appropriate challenge.

For example, for a not too steady-handed baby, observant parents will supply a spoon shaped comfortably for baby's hand so that some unspilled cereal does reach baby's mouth. Very often parents choose toys in which they invest too much money and the child invests too little interest. Sharpened observational skills will make possible more toy choices appropriate to different stages of developmental interest and ability.⁷

A corollary of becoming attuned to the "problem of the match" is becoming able to adjust creatively to a child's problems and goals in early learning in order either to ease a learning situation or to make it more challenging for a particular child. Honig (1975) notes that "tuning in" this way through observation can help a parent handle even

such child frustrations as shoelace tying.

Method: Although as Gordon and Jester (1971) point out, systematic observation in the preschool years is still in its infancy, Rosenshine and Furst (1971) identified over 100 observational systems, many of which were devoted to early learning. In this model of parent education, only informal observation⁸ will be utilized. This observation will be of two types: free and directed. Free observation is undirected observation, and allows the parent to scan the environment(s) his child is interacting with, in order to pick up interesting events or cues. It has the disadvantage of having no particular focus, and may thus define even glazed staring (as has often been the case when used in PCC programs). Nevertheless it can be a valuable teaching tool. When used without introduction, it reminds people of how difficult it may be to "see" anything occurring. When used after directed observation, it allows people to widen their scope and relate that which was viewed through directed observation to the particular environment at hand. Directed observation is focused observation, and entails being selectively attentive or inattentive both consciously and deliberately.⁹ This method allows the parent to zoom in on selected aspect of development or behavior. These aspects will be selected by the director based upon knowledge of development in the first three years, the Anisa theory of development, and the needs and concern of the parents involved, keeping in mind that as Montessori (1964) stated, "From the child itself he will learn how to perfect himself as an educator."¹⁰

3.1.3 Presentation

Definition: Presentation is the manner in which something is

offered.¹¹

Description: The idea of presentation connotes a desire for approval. The notion of presentation implies the offering of a gift. The parent who wants to interest a child in learning can be said to act, initially, as a presenter rather than as a teacher. As Jay (1971) noted, "The presenter is much closer to the advocate than to a teacher."¹² Montessori explained her 'method' as that of presentation:

The method used by me is that of making a pedagogical experiment with a didactic object and awaiting the spontaneous reaction of the child.¹³

Jay (1971) further notes that a presenter in contemporary business practice is one who asks to be allowed to speak about his idea or product:

He addresses his audience respectfully as a subordinate among men of higher status. He cannot demand (their) attention. The most he can do is deserve it....A lecturer may ask himself 'How long does the subject need?' but the presenter's first question is usually 'How long can the audience spare?'¹⁴

In this model of parent education, presentation is a central pedagogical notion. The Facilitator¹⁵ does more than ask the parent to be allowed to speak about her 'product.' She prepares a demonstration, she demonstrates, and then she reconfigures the demonstration. An important aspect of presentation is preparation. As Rambusch, Kalinowski, and Pratt (1974) note:

Performance requires rehearsal. The way in which the teacher arranges and manages an event, once in it, is reflective of her preparation for it. She rehearses with the material; she performs with the child.¹⁶

Demonstration means showing and showing how. The parent needs to know what the most important features underlying any demonstration are, if he is to respond adequately to the child's reaction to his demonstration. Modeling and orientation are implied in showing and sharing how.

To this model, emulation is the imitation of another's perceived behavior. In demonstrating to the child, the parent handles himself and the material in a way that allows the child to see what he is doing as if the child were doing it. The adult always places himself in physical relationship to the child so that her hand and his are related identically in manipulating any materials. For example, if the parent were demonstrating a shape-sorting box, he would sit next to the child so that the child would see the triangle being put in the hole from the same perspective as in her attempt later. If the child is at the point where she is ready to 'pick up' his modeling cues and is attentive to them, she will be able to do what he does, in her own way, with comparable results. If not, she will 'pick up' whatever part of his behavior she is attending to. These considerations obviously obtain for Facilitators and parents.

The demonstration of a material by the Facilitator constitutes the first of three steps in the parent's potential ownership of the offered experience. First, the Facilitator demonstrates the material, and the parent perceives whatever of it he is ready for. Second, the parent imitates, at his level of comprehension, the teacher's demonstration. Third, the parent repeats versions of his imitation until he is satisfied that he has had enough. Later, in another component of the model, the parent will repeat the process with his child, and in the second step, the child will imitate at her level of perception and manual competence, the parent's demonstration.

Orientation is another critical dimension of demonstration. A child's 'free' initial use of some materials without proper attention

to their correct orientation (provided they have one) may give her information. In the words of Rambusch, Kalinowski, and Pratt (1974):

It is our contention that any materials which require orientation and lack an orienting adult to present them, are often misused by children in exploratory situations. This misuse often goes unnoticed and uncorrected....¹⁷

This is one reason for providing visual orienting cues on materials. More than one child has tried to put a triangle in the proper home upside down.

There is a third pedagogical strategy deriving from the principle of individualization. Reconfiguration, in this dissertation, means a change in the total shape of an experience, as a result of the re-arrangement of its various parts. It is a response to the child observed in the course of an arranged or unplanned encounter. Through reconfiguration the parent creates novel circumstances which sustain the child's attention when it becomes fugitive. Reconfiguration can also occur when the child shows the parent that he has finished; the parent then reorders the experience to interest the child in continuing. After a child has successfully placed all the shapes in the proper holes, a parent might raise the lid to show that the shapes can also be removed. The 'shape' of an experience can be reconfigured in a variety of ways. The best arrangement is the one "most responsive to the child's immediate reaction to the demonstration."¹⁸

Theoretical Justification: Since presentation or demonstration has been such a significant feature of the existing parent education programs reviewed, further definition and justification of these are unnecessary. A number of authors have made suggestions or listed criteria for presentations or for choosing materials to be presented. Levenstein (1971)

says that materials selected must be self-rewarding, challenging, and stimulating to the senses. Weikart (1969) evaluates his materials more in terms of the parent, specifically in terms of whether they challenge and interest the parent and provide adequate structure to prevent undue anxiety. Gordon (1972) has suggested a number of "Dos and Don'ts of Parent Education," including:

2. Keep your explanations short. Break it up in steps or pieces and intersperse throughout.
3. Turn loose of the child's attention as soon as you can.
5. Explain the WHY and the HOW of the activity.
6. Direct your attention to the parent.
11. Stress that the parent is the important teacher.
13. After you have explained or demonstrated, turn it loose--let the parent take over.
16. Don't be afraid to admit when you have made a mistake.¹⁹

Gordon's list, of course, is directed at paraprofessional Facilitators in his own program, but many of his points may be applicable to this general model I shall propose.

In presentation, a general principle to remember is Whitehead's (1967) remark that "The best education is to be found in gaining the utmost information from the simplest apparatus."²⁰

Method. These presentations and demonstrations should be a time for exploration, experimentation and, to some degree, fun. Some will be quiet and relaxing, others boisterous and exciting, but none should be boring. In this model there will be two kinds of presentations: (1) those directed at the parent, who will imitate, then rehearse in private, before performing with his own child and (2) those directed

at the child which the parent will observe and may or may not imitate immediately.

People are different. Obviously, there is no magic list of presenting events or even presentation lessons applicable to all children whose parents might be interested in such a model. It should only follow that presentations, given the considerations mentioned previously, should be different in each place.

While it may seem obvious, it is perhaps necessary to note that there is no need for the great majority of presentations to be successful. In the first place, the imperative attribute is the process, and understanding the reasons for "drawing the circle,"²¹ removing discrepant stimuli,²² and adapting to make the best possible match. Children, especially in their first years, are constantly in transit, and the essential skill is to catch them in the next moment, for while one is moving in to present, the past moment has vanished and the child may be literally somewhere else.

Materials for selecting appropriate presentations for parents of children from birth to three are listed in Appendix 2.

3.1.3 Participation

Definition: Participation is the process of interacting in the human environment for the purpose of actualizing potential.

Elaborate Description: As with observation and presentation, participation refers not only to skills necessary for effective parenting, but also to the method by which those skills are taught to parents by Facilitators.

As a parenting skill, participation includes the warm, loving, face-

to-face personal attention focused specifically on an infant's or toddler's needs and level of development at any given time. Part of this includes physical actions based on love:

(Babies) need to be held and cuddled and talked to; they need to be stroked and patted, nuzzled and rocked with positive emotion; they need "contact comfort" that can come only from another person (and not another thing) to be maximally effective. Nothing seems to soothe an upset, crying infant as much as being picked up and held close. Tender words and gentle rocking usually calm the baby, and mother can then go on to find the cause of the baby's initial discomfort.²³

However, as Bettelheim (1965) has warned, love is not enough:

Modern living conditions have made it much more difficult for parents to create a setting in which both their own legitimate needs and the needs of their children can be satisfied with relative ease. That is why love alone is not enough and must be supplemented by deliberate efforts on the part of the parent. Fortunately most parents love their children and conscientiously strive to be good parents. But more and more of them become weary of the struggle to arrange life sensibly for their children, while modern pressures create more and more insensible experiences which are added to the life of the child. More and more they are exposed to crowded living quarters, to overstimulating and incomprehensible experiences through radio and television, and have to face almost daily some new gadget they must learn to master or avoid.²⁴

Numbers of books have been recently written on ways to participate with children. One of them (McDiarmid, Peterson, and Sutherland, 1975) emphasizes activities "that parents and babies can engage in together, giving them a better opportunity to learn together and understand each other as they interact."²⁵ This is also what we mean by participation.

However, we mean even more. Included in this definition are all the parental functions of designer and consultant which relate to the human environment:

(T)hey design a physical world, mainly in the home, that is beautifully suited to nurturing the burgeoning curiosity of the one- to three-year old....In addition to being largely responsible for the type of environment the child has, this mother sets up guides for her child's behavior that seem to play a very important role in these processes.²⁶

Included in this definition are also the specialized type of consulting behaviors which occur most frequently, subsumed under the title, "teaching on the fly."²⁷ Most interaction with young children by their parents is not done in long sustained sessions but in interchanges that last ten to thirty seconds, usually oriented around the child's interest of the moment, and usually initiated by the child.

Two skills are required for dealing effectively in these brief interchanges.²⁸ The first is Attention, the substate of all experience. Recognizing the child's response is the parent's basis for providing her with an appropriate challenge. He must be totally present to the child when he is with her, however, short a period of time that may be. He attends to her. His attention means that he can call forth the accommodative change necessary for the child to master the task in the circumstances encountered. Improvisation, the second skill, means bringing oneself to a given moment, able to respond to it in ways which cannot be predicted.

Rambusch, Kalinowski and Pratt (1974) and Jordan and Streets (1973) have noted the importance of improvisation in "utilizing whatever is at hand to achieve a particular objective."²⁹ In the words of Dennison (1969),

We cannot organize the educational event in advance. Certainly we can plan and prepare it, but we cannot organize it until we are in it....³⁰

Once in it, the parents should rearrange the circumstances continually, so that the task continues to fit the child in view of the parent's purpose.

Theoretical Justification: In organic lamp theories of development, and specifically in the ANISA theory, development is the process of translating potentiality which is unlimited, into actuality. The term process denotes the ordered expression of this translation. Processes are initiated and maintained through interaction with environments, of which there are four. Just as presentation is the method of preparing for and guiding the interactions of one's children with the physical environment, participation is the method of preparing for and guiding interactions with the human environment. Often the two are combined in interactions. Participation is critical because early learning competence (the key factor in knowing how to actualize one's own potentialities) depends upon assistance in making differentiations followed by integrations of an experience.

Method: In this model of parent education there are two pedagogical types of participation: free and directed. Free participation is undirected participation. The advantages to this type are several. First, the parent is in the best position to interact with his own children: he knows and needs to know his child best. Individual differences are apparent at birth and (Anastasi, 1965) (Brazelton, 1969) (Westman, 1973) remain important pedagogical considerations during the first three years of life. This is, as stated, a reason that preplanned recipes will not be emphasized in this general model. A significant amount of research attests to this value of meeting young children as

individuals, "one by one observed."³¹ (Anastasi, 1965) (Brazelton, 1969) (Chess, Thomas and Birch, 1965) (Church, 1966) (Macoby and Jacklin, 1974) (Tyler, 1965). Free participation also allows the parent to scan the vent, as does free observation, and to commit himself only after assessing what the best match at any moment would be.

Directed participation, on the other hand, has some advantages for the parent. Since it follows presentation in this model, it offers the pedagogical opportunity to try specific presentations with one's child under the guidance of the Facilitator. It also informs the parent of what the Facilitator considers important in that particular parent's method of participation with his child.

Obviously, where appropriate, exercises to increase both attentive and improvisational skills should be designed and implemented, as well as evaluated. In this area, the director would be wise to consider both music and the theatre.

3.1.4 Conversation

Definition: Conversation is the pedagogical process whereby parents are taught by facilitators important developmental principles.

Elaborate Description: Conversation is unique among the four components of this model in that it is not to a parenting skill as are observation, presentation, and participation. It refers to the method Facilitators use to teach parents the rationale for other activities in order to assist the parent in learning to generalize for himself from developmental information how best to assess where his child is, and how best to design and consult with the child to actualize potential. It is placed last because it builds upon and ties together the other

three components.

Theoretical Justification: Gordon (1973), we noted earlier, addressed the importance of teaching principles. It is here that such generalization occurs. In the long run the specifics of any of the three other components of this model are less critical. The ultimate objective of this model is for a parent to develop enough information about how and why his particular child develops as she does so that they are able to design and consult for specific goals utilizing anything at hand. A parent in the midst of preparing dinner might quickly choose two spoons (or pots) to explain the difference between small and large to a young child who runs in and asks. Any material is merely an occasion for development. Other human beings are also occasions for further becoming.

Parents do not need to become developmental psychologists to prepare effectively their children for assuming the role of managing directors of evolution. However, they must become familiar with the principles of development outlined in the Anisa Model, with specific emphasis laid on the period from birth to three.

Method: Conversation is the method for teaching developmental principles to be used in this model of parent education. This component follows the others so that the Facilitator may make use of the preceding concrete experiences in order to lead the parents beyond what has occurred into the unknown: what else might have occurred; why did what occurred happen; what else might have been used to get the same effect, etc. The purpose is to introduce a single developmental principle³² at each session which is integrally related to the

specifics of that session's presentation and participation and observation strategies used.

One session focused on the importance of classification and seriation, two processes in the cognitive domain. The material selected for the Presentation was a Child Guidance toy--Kittie in the Kegs-- which consisted of a series of small plastic barrels which nestled inside each other. In the smallest was a tiny "kittie." Each barrel could be unscrewed to form two cups. Depending on the age of the child, the Participation strategy included:

1. A classification task which involved matching the two halves of each barrel to promote color recognition.
2. A seriation task which involved stacking the barrels from smallest to largest to promote size recognition.

Afterwards, in the Conversation area, parents reviewed these activities, one noting that the tasks also involved eye-hand coordination and promoted small muscle development (topics of previous sessions). The Parent Facilitator agreed, adding that the toy selected provided the child with objects where the only difference was size and color. That led into a discussion of the importance of these perceptual concepts, and how a child can learn to classify and seriate on the basis of them. In general, beginning with concrete incidents and abstracting qualities from them to generalize to other incidents or potential incidents works effectively.

For the Facilitator, this component is a participation. Therefore,

attention and improvisation are crucial. She must attend to and guide the conversation at hand, and introduce the principle by using what has occurred. In this she improvises, building on what someone else has said.³³ Thus careful preparation on her part is necessary, but the principle must be promptly and spontaneously introduced. It is obviously not possible to know in advance everything that should be said to teach the principle. The principle serves as closure for the session, by bringing it to another level, that of abstraction.

This, in brief, is the model. It is simple, general and, at first glance, incomplete. This incompleteness was, as stated, a conscious decision to allow the flexibility of the model to address the culture, community and individuals it is designed to serve.

This incompleteness extends as well to evaluation. While the specific method must be determined by each implementer, regular and systematic evaluation of the effects of each component is important.

3.2 THE MODEL IMPLEMENTED: BACKGROUND

3.2.1 Physical Environment I: The Area

Over-the-Rhine is located directly north of Cincinnati's central business district. It inherited its boundaries under Cincinnati's Model Cities Program. OTR is located primarily in the basin area of the city, although it does extend north to include portions of the Fairview hillside.

The basin is characterized by long north-south blocks paralleling streets built to connect residential Cincinnati with the Ohio River. Within this framework fashioned by grid and topography, there are several districts of differing physical character. The most noteworthy of these districts surrounds Findlay Market. The market and its activities have made the immediate

area an intensely used pedestrian precinct. Central Parkway, the broad avenue replacing the Old Miami-Erie Canal, on the other hand, is a distinctly vehicular zone characterized by a heavy volume of traffic and business located for the accessibility which the Parkway affords. A third district, more reserved than the frantic Findlay Market area or Central Parkway, is focused upon the Music Hall and Washington Park area. This is perhaps the most "public" of OTR's districts, serving the city as a whole rather than just a surrounding residential population.³⁴

Two other districts possessing a distinct physical character of their own are the commercial strips on either side of Vine Street and Main Street, serving both contiguous neighborhoods and a non-residential population. On the east, the residential Pendleton district is dominated by St. Paul's Church. On the west the Fairview districts cling to the steep slopes.

OTR is composed of a very heterogenous pattern of land use that encompasses 460 acres and has changed little in use during the past hundred years. The northern part of the neighborhood is predominantly residential. Both the eastern section and the western section are also predominantly residential with some industrial areas. The central part of OTR is mixed in use with commercial, both retail and services, at street level with housing above.³⁵

The large majority of housing is three, four and five story attached brick apartment houses. In general the housing is inadequate to meet neighborhood residential needs. There are not enough living units. Within OTR the code enforcement program Operation Chance³⁶ has been functioning for some years along with various FHA rehabilitation programs. Even so, the majority of units are still deteriorated and do not comply with minimum sanitary codes. The Findlay Market area is being redeveloped under the Neighborhood Development Program³⁷ ad-

ministered by the Department of Urban Development.

Since 1960, the number of dwelling units in OTR has declined from 12,771 to 9,914.³⁸ This decline, caused by demolition and the boarding up of buildings, accounts for most of the loss of population. Occupancy rates of existing units are extremely low considering the overall housing shortage that exists. This is primarily because larger units for families are not available while there is a surplus of smaller units. Although Cincinnati leads the nation in the number of dwelling units which have been rehabilitated (most units are in OTR), the rehabilitation has caused enormous problems, particularly for larger families who had occupied buildings where units were renovated to much smaller sizes. There is no place in the neighborhood for these families to relocate.

Six elementary schools are located within OTR and all schools have been affected by decreasing enrollments. One has been closed.³⁹ The decreasing enrollments have been due to emigration of residents who have been forced out of their homes for one reason or another. Four of the six schools are in old, obsolete structures. OTR junior high students attend one school in the community, or one of three others outside the area. The two high schools attended by OTR teenagers are both outside the area.

The major health facility in the area is a central clinic, with a satellite clinic newly opened at the Findlay Market area. There are also seven private physicians located in the area, and Cincinnati General Hospital meets community needs not met by the clinic.

OTR abounds in churches, with 124 located in the area.⁴⁰ These

churches range from substantial structures, to store-fronts. The churches are, in general, a strong element in the cultural life of the community.

Noise, air and odor pollution are the major environmental handicaps in OTR. Noise is a persistent problem because the community has such a high density and a great deal of through traffic. Air pollution throughout the basin is the worst in the city. Odor pollution is less excessive, but does occur when the wind is right and food packing firms are in operation.

3.2.2 Human Environment I: The People

Over-the-Rhine is a unique "people place" in terms of American neighborhoods. The initial development of OTR was spurred by the arrival of thousands of German immigrants between 1840 and 1850, who increased the population of Cincinnati from 46,000 to 118,000 in that decade.⁴¹ OTR inherited its name from the ethnic nature of the area and from the building of the Miami-Erie canal, which opened in 1829 to link Cincinnati with Toledo. In 1928 a lid was put on the canal to make it Central Parkway.

With World War I, many German immigrants to this neighborhood were sympathetic toward Germany, a sentiment which caused public distrust of the OTR community. This distrust, in turn, "had the effect of causing many Americans of German origin to abandon their beliefs and heritage for self survival."⁴² The forced assimilation of the German community resulted in the disintegration of a proud group and vital culture, a decrease in the rate of German immigration, and a geographical dispersal into the greater Cincinnati region, leaving

OTR open for the arrival of new groups. The area began, by 1940, its "dark ages,"⁴³ a period of both physical and social deterioration.

The next group to establish a foothold in the neighborhood came from the southern Appalachian area. This group had a different set of values based on a tremendous regard for personal freedom. Hard work for the Appalachian had always resulted in economic exploitation by outsiders. In 1951, the labor unions representing the coal miners in that area called a general strike and the skilled laborers, due to the length of the strike and lack of jobs, migrated north to Cincinnati and other cities. By 1953, the union and the remaining residents of Appalachia were bankrupt. The industrial development in and around Cincinnati spurred new hope for the by now desperate unskilled workers whom the union had persuaded to stay and sit out the strike. The bus fare to Cincinnati was low; so was the demand for unskilled labor.

Many of these men, unable to find jobs, were forced to seek out cheap housing in Over-the-Rhine. Within a few months of residency in Cincinnati, many were on public welfare. This group, for the most part, retained their values, but in the process separated themselves from the rest of the community.⁴⁴

By 1956, OTR had the fastest growing crime rate in the city. Juvenile crimes were up 50 per cent in 15 years.⁴⁵ Rape, robbery and murder were occurring with frequency. The area had dozens of street gangs. The housing stock was the same that the German population had left,⁴⁶ and eighty-four per cent of the living units had no bath. The environment the Appalachian found was of another time and culture.⁴⁷

In the early sixties, a third wave of immigration was starting. This was composed of the poor blacks displaced by the building of an innerstate highway through the West End. By 1964, this group was

starting to realize some self-identity and was no longer willing to be displaced by highways. They started to form organizations to protect themselves and their homes. By 1968, the city, state and federal governments began to show concern for OTR by providing a number of economic and social programs. In 1973, Model Cities programming allocated 7.6 million dollars per year for five years to OTR and two other Model Cities neighborhoods to redevelop those neighborhoods through a wide spectrum of program activities.⁴⁸

The 1970 U. S. Census indicated that OTR had a resident population of 18, 642:⁴⁹ about 30 per cent blacks, 70 per cent Appalachian whites, and a small indigenous group of old residents, mostly German, who had lived in the neighborhood all their lives--from fifty years upward. This represented a decrease in total population of about 43 per cent since 1960. Since 1970, the black population has increased, while the total population has continued to decline.⁵⁰

An analysis of the age groupings in OTR reveals that practically one-half of the population is in an economically dependent situation, under 18 years or over 65 years.⁵¹ Slightly more than one-tenth of the population is under five years of age.⁵² The median school years completed by OTR residents 25 years or older is about 8.5, compared to 11.2 for the city.⁵³ The welfare caseload has increased over 70 per cent since 1963, notwithstanding the staggering population decline.⁵⁴ The high level of criminal activity has been a shared concern of both the community and police department.

The average family income in OTR is \$4,524,⁵⁵ substantially below that of city and county. A 1968 employment study of the city indicated

that:

Although estimates vary, it is our judgment, based on recent analysis, that almost eighteen per cent of the OTR labor force is totally unemployed. A substantially larger share are underemployed and an additional group have withdrawn from the labor force because of sustained failure to obtain a job.⁵⁶

3.2.3 The Physical Environment II: The Site

Most urban communities are designed around a concept in which commercial, cultural, or recreational facilities play a prominent role in the interaction and vitality of their neighborhoods. Regardless of whether the specific application is a town center or village green, they all serve to underscore the importance of centralized neighborhood activities. The Findlay Market/Pilot Center complex was based on the assumption that developing a new community center would be an important catalyst for community development of OTR. As a concept, the center was to provide "all feasible service facilities required by that community."⁵⁷ The site chosen was a block away from the Findlay Market, a large, old community "outdoor market," somewhat similar to Les Halles in Paris. The HUB Services Center is a combination of four public service buildings: the HUB building, the Recreation Center, The Senior Services Center, and the Parent and Child Center. A central courtyard is accessible to these facilities. The HUB building contains federal, state, and local assistance program offices, a free store, library, post office, clinic and lounge. The Recreation Center houses an olympic sized swimming pool, roller skating rink, gymnasium, and crafts rooms. The Senior Services Center offers recreational activities, meals, and volunteer and part-time paid employment to the community's elderly

citizens. The Findlay Market was also rehabilitated, and interior air conditioning added. Surrounding side streets were redesigned to accommodate increased pedestrian traffic.

3.2.4 The Human Environment II: The Agencies

One of the most difficult, exciting and necessary tasks in setting up any effective organization is to gain the support of important formal and informal local constituency groups.⁵⁸ A very sophisticated community organization structure had existed in OTR since the Pilot Cities efforts of 1968. The OTR Community Council was recognized as the umbrella group for the rather elaborate structure of block clubs and improvement organizations which had been developed. The Councils were included in planning efforts, given a presentation of the model, informed of all staff vacancies, introduced to staff hired, given contributions for their activities, and fed lunch occasionally. This effort was crucial for success.

The federal grant was administered locally by the Community Action Commission, which served as the project's Grantee. They received the moneys, forwarded them to Xavier University, and were responsible for supervising the project to ensure compliance with all federal regulations. Programs under their sponsorship similar to the models, had been defunded every year for the previous seven years. Their primary objectives were survival and protecting their flanks. These are hardly uncommon priorities for large urban community action agencies administering federal programs.

The project was delegated by the Community Action Commission to Xavier University, which put its Montessori Department in charge. This department was nominally responsible for the project, but took a very

active interest in all decisions.

Finally, the Parent Policy Committee, a group composed of parents of enrolled children, local community opinion leaders, and other interested parties were given large control over staff and programmatic issues, at least in theory.⁵⁹

In addition, HUB Services Center was appointed by the city to act as landlord and was responsible for leasing, maintaining, and guarding the project's facility.

This review has been included to indicate the range of parties involved in a project of this scope, and to indicate that success requires a director of such a project to be the servant of many masters.

3.2.5 The Physical Environment III: The Facility

The building which housed the PCC program was a rectangle approximately 150 feet long by 60 feet wide, and two stories high. The building had just been completed at a cost of \$468,000. On the first floor, offices were clustered at one end, opening onto a lobby where the secretary was stationed to greet people. The rest of the floor was open space with the exception of a narrow hallway that ran along one side the length of the building. A number of large lexan windows faced the street, inviting people to look in and watch activities. The other side of the building, which faced the courtyard, was covered with sliding glass doors. The open space was used for parent education and infant activities. The second floor was more compartmentalized. There were two large rooms. One was used as a Head Start classroom; the other was utilized primarily for meetings and staff training. A smaller room

between the large room was used for sewing, crafts and other adult activities. In addition, there was a well equipped kitchen which served lunches to both parents and children in the dining area adjacent to it. There was also a sundeck which was fenced in and used as a playground. A portion of the courtyard was also fenced off for outdoor activities.

There were a number of design problems.⁶⁰ The entire interior, except for some supergraphics interspersed throughout the building, was painted flat white from floor to ceiling. The walls had to be repainted with washable enamel from the floor up four feet. This was done so that fingerprints and other marks could be easily removed, thus helping to keep the facility looking new. The interior was lit by banks of florescent tubes, not the best idea perhaps when thinking of infants on their backs. The only soft area for sound absorption was the red carpet throughout the building except for the halls and the dining area. There were no child-sized toilets. Rather than hire lifeguards, smaller units were ordered and installed. The most significant concern was that the building, although bright, new and spacious was out of scale and design with the rest of the community. The problem was to reshape the building in such a way that the community would feel comfortable in it. Since the building could never be designed as a "living room" it was necessary to configure the building as "something else," unusual perhaps, but not too different from one's normal expectations. During discussions, I suggested the idea of designing the interior around an image⁶¹--a journey. The program was mapped out so that a group could enter one end of the building and experience a single

session while going through the entire building. In order to break down the "football field" impression on the first floor, portable four foot high walls were devised. This enabled parents not only to see into the next area (the next step of the journey), but to hear or see their young children from almost anywhere on the floor.⁶² The following areas were constructed: reception area, infant activity area, presentation area, participation area, and conversation area. Light, washable canvas and lawn furniture were used throughout.

The central design feature of the infant activity area was the block, a wooden rectangle 24 inches long by 12 inches wide by either 12 or 18 inches high. These were used to build small rooms and walls for infants and toddlers. The flexibility of this approach enabled easy rearrangement, and allowed the "world" created in the infant activity area to correspond to the scale of the infants and toddlers themselves. Since these blocks were covered with gray indoor-outdoor carpeting, they formed neutral visual surfaces for a child to work against as a background. The infant activity area had three sections with spaces designed for older children towards the back and vice versa. This was done to enable onlookers to see everything better. Smaller children would be visible in front; older, taller children would be seen working behind them. As far as possible, materials were chosen or created with the scale of children in mind. One interesting feature of this area was a walled-off runway, where "totterers" learning to walk could push carts, or practice holding onto the constructed "wall" for support. From the beginning, children were encouraged to return things to the shelf or bin they got

them from before moving on to something else.

The central design feature of the presentation and participation area was the platform. A variety of large platforms,⁶³ also covered in grey indoor-outdoor carpeting were used to encourage parents to get down to the child's level to interact. In the presentation area, the platform was also used as a stage for demonstrations of techniques to use with children. The platform in this area had rocking chairs facing it in a semi-circle so that parents could watch comfortably.

The central design feature of the conversation area was the circle. A circle of chairs and small tables in this area helped reinforce the idea that everyone would share their experiences here, rather than listening to an "expert."⁶⁴

In the dining area, people ate at tables "family style" to encourage interaction within and among families. Using high chairs, children were raised to the level of the adults.

3.2.6 The Human Environment III: The Occupants

The author of this dissertation was the director of the Cincinnati PCC as well as the educational coordinator.⁶⁵ Although difficult at times, this role of coordinator helped to ensure that decisions were made with participants in mind. All staff in charge of teaching either parents or children were Montessori trained and certified.

Montessori teachers were chosen for a number of reasons:

1. No professionals trained in techniques of either infant and toddler or parent education were available.
2. The Montessori principles of adult observation and invention by use of instantaneous modifications of the child's experience as a method for

individualization was seen as important not only for relating to children younger than those one has been trained to work with, but also as an important technique for parents to model.⁶⁶

3. Since the project was delegated to the Montessori Department of Xavier University, Montessori trained teachers were readily available and interested.

The rest of the staff (administrative assistant, secretary, assistant teachers, social service personnel, cook, and maintenance people) came either from OTR or through the HUB Employment Office. It was important to establish as much as possible, that the project was concerned with the community in which it operated, and critical to balance the staff not only in terms of residents and outsiders, but also racially at the professional as well as paraprofessional levels in the administrative, direct, and indirect service jobs. A project goal was that over the years, residents would assume more and more responsibility in terms of jobs. A wide variety of volunteer personnel was utilized.⁶⁷

The participant families were all OTR residents. Although families were served, the federal government's headcount was by the number of children enrolled. The program served 100 children from six weeks old to three years, as well as an additional 20 Head Start children aged three to five.⁶⁸ Participating families in the PCC program had priority for the Head Start openings. All families met the income guideline standards when enrolled. Parents ranged in age from 16 to over 50. Approximately 10 per cent of the fathers participated regularly.

3.3 THE MODEL IMPLEMENTED: APPROACHES

3.3.1 Delivery System

Although not the ideal for the OTR community, the project's imposing new structure made it necessary to design the program at first as primarily a center-based one. Approximately 20 per cent of the families were served in a home-based program. Those served at home were either families with infants younger than six weeks old, or families who were interested in the program but unable for various reasons to come to the center. It was expected that the project would slowly initiate a series of small satellite programs in neighborhood "identity centers"⁶⁹ as a way of decentralizing and better individualizing the effort to match the program to participants.

3.3.2 Recruitment and Enrollment

Recruitment of families was done by referral from a variety of existing OTR and other Cincinnati agencies and by direct solicitation. The latter method was more effective. Usually community families shopped at the nearby Findlay Market or A & P; staff would approach those parents with small children, briefly explain the program, and invite them to visit the center. After a tour of the facilities, the social service coordinator would interview each family, explain the program further, enroll eligible interested families, and set a date for their initial sessions.⁷⁰

The program sought and received permission to enroll families over a period of weeks. The rationale for this was both to enable preprogram planning to continue and to allow the staff to test out

designed strategies on "test audiences."⁷¹ This practice proved successful and allowed the staff (most of whom were doing something new) to increase their confidence, while allowing them also to re-design or discontinue strategies that were ineffective. Because OTR families moved an average of 2-3 times per year, it was understood by program planners that enrollment would be a regular and ongoing activity.⁷²

3.3.3 Groupings and Schedules

The educational component of the program was organized into a number of elements. An analysis of the community indicated that, with the high mobility rate,⁷³ a program designed to serve the same families over an extended period of time would be ineffective. Therefore the yearly schedule was broken down into eleven week cycles, thus making the program flexible for meeting the changing needs of participants:

1. This approach allowed people to conclude a whole cycle, then depart at regular intervals without disturbing the flow of an ongoing group.
2. Participants could be regrouped every eleven weeks, and educational sessions could be reshaped based on data from the Parent Evaluation administered at the conclusion of previous cycles.
3. By starting new cycles every two to three weeks, new or returning participants could enter the program without disturbing an ongoing session, and without waiting months.⁷⁴

4. Up to nine simultaneous cycles could be in session greatly increasing the possible variety of educational strategies available to participants, and also increasing the ability of the program to tailor programs to interests at the moment.

Another reason for choosing the cyclic approach was that it would allow the program to work with participants in small groups. Groups composed of six to nine mothers and their children could be better matched individually according to interests and needs than they could in larger groups. Pedagogically, individualization becomes more difficult as the group enlarges (Miller and Dollard, 1970).

Individuals and families could be grouped on a variety of dimensions. Initially a large number of dimensions for grouping was selected and the first cycles monitored closely. Examples of these dimensions included grouping on these bases:

1. Age of child enrolled.
2. Age of parent enrolled.
3. Ethnicity of child.
4. Ethnicity of parent.
5. Ethnicity of Parent Facilitator.
6. Single parent families.
7. Birth order of child.
8. Child considered 'at-risk.'
9. Parent considered 'at-risk.'
10. Sex of Parent Facilitator.

Analysis of the information derived from the initial grouping

showed that, of all dimensions, ethnicity was the only one where differences proved significant.⁷⁵ However, after the initial cycle, this difference evaporated as parents chose cycles based on a combination of their interests and staff recommendation.

An attendant benefit of this approach was that up to three sessions could be operating in the center simultaneously. One group could be eating lunch; another could be engaged in participation; the third could have just arrived and be decompressing in the reception area.

3.3.4 Family Assessments

Subsequent to each family's completion of their first cycle, the Social Services Coordinator planned to lead all available staff in a Family Assessment. All staff, including kitchen and maintenance employees were invited to participate in this interdisciplinary assessment of developmental progress. Those who interacted with families informally often had valuable information and suggestions to contribute. In addition, these regular meetings served to impress upon the staff the purpose of the program and that everyone was responsible and involved in an effort beyond their specific task. From these meetings came suggestions for new cycles as well.

3.3.5 Rules and Regulations

All centers serving infants in Cincinnati had to adhere to the day care regulations of the city, regardless of the program. While the project could have argued that since parents were always in attendance, it was not necessary to adhere to all the regulations, it was considered politically expedient to follow them.

The only rules imposed on families were: that children must come to the center with their parents; that parents must leave the center with their children and that personal arguments should take place outside the center. While other PCC's imposed regulations forbidding physical punishment in their centers, at this PCC a conscious effort on modeling alternatives was considered more effective, and this approach would further indicate the project's acceptance of families 'where they were.' In addition, imposing a physical restriction without offering equally effecting alternative strategies would be a disservice to parents.

Normal ground rules were imposed in the infant/toddler activity area having to do with putting things back, not taking things from other children, and talking and walking quietly in the quiet area.

Although it was not a rule that parents must return toys and other materials they borrowed, it was not possible for them to borrow more things until those out were returned.

The center adhered to all Head Start Performance Standards,⁷⁶ and PCC Guidelines as well.

3.3.6 Staff Training

Because the staff, although extremely competent, was inexperienced at their specific tasks, the center asked for and received permission to train and rehearse during the first six weeks of operation. The decision proved critical in preparing enough of a curriculum to stay ahead once the cycles were underway.

The center also decided that one day a week would be devoted to staff training and material preparation. This was a difficult decision

because it meant taking a day off from serving the community. However, it was decided that in the end, a carefully prepared and confident staff, able to use the time available wisely, and having alternatives from which to draw, would serve the community better.⁷⁷

3.3.7 Public Relations

An analysis of the community and its expectations made success contingent upon the following:

1. Little advance publicity in order to get the center operational and in shape.
2. An acceptance by both the black and white Appalachian communities of the worthiness of the program.
3. An acceptance by both the regional and federal offices responsible about the excellence of the program and its ability to draw and keep participants.
4. Public recognition of the center and its program.

Privacy was maintained by keeping the center officially closed until the staff was prepared to open. This included not painting the name of the center on the outside, and hiring some staff slowly. These decisions contributed to the later success of the project by protecting it from the publicity and visitors that would be expected once the program was fully underway. We did not want opinions formed on a partially completed or under rehearsed program. This process was facilitated by design problems which needed correction and by approval to enroll participants slowly.

Acceptance was accomplished by hiring some staff with important political ties to each community, by balancing the staff at every level,

by enrolling both groups equally, and by developing and maintaining close ties with opinion leaders and significant groups.

Acceptance by government officials was accomplished because of educational innovations, and by a comparatively low turnover rate of participants, as well as by presentations of the program.⁷⁸

Public recognition was established by managing the publicity to indicate that the center was a success on the day it opened, by having a large televised official opening to which local luminaries were invited to participate, and by a series of newspaper articles and television news features after the center was on its feet.

3.4 THE MODEL IMPLEMENTED: PROGRAMS

3.4.1 Support Services

While the primary emphasis of the program was on parent education, the center, as an omnibus project, provided a wide range of other important services to parents and their children. Medical screening examinations as well as follow-up care was provided to every member of participating families at a local clinic. Most of the costs of this service was covered by Medicare. Updated records of the developmental history of focal children were filed at the center for reference as well as at the clinic. A pediatric nurse worked at the center one-half day per week, talking to families, training staff, and assessing infants and toddlers. Other medical personnel were available across the courtyard.⁷⁹ A speech and hearing specialist also worked at the center one-half day per week to provide similar services. The age of children enrolled in the program meant that dental care provided emphasized prevention of dental problems. In general, appropriate health services

were provided as needed.

Mental health services were provided by members of the staff, as well as by professional consultants, and in rare cases, by referral to outside agencies. A range of social services were provided to families through the social worker on the staff and by her assistants. Again, where necessary, referrals to other agencies were made with the understanding and consent of families.

All participants received hot, nutritious lunches on days they came to the center for programs. Meals were cooked on the premises, and menus were supervised by a consulting nutritionist. Menus were planned at the center taking into account various cultural preferences as well as individual suggestions or "favorite recipes" submitted.

A monthly Center Newsletter was developed, printed and distributed by parents. Free copies of Baby Talk were provided monthly to interested participants by a local diaper service.

An important aim of the center was to provide not only competence in parents but confidence as well, through a large number of parent activities that fell into two categories: personal enrichment and life management. Personal enrichment activities were selected by parents and varied from sewing and cooking instruction to exercise classes, craft workshops and other activities. Life management activities designed to facilitate coping strategies; sometimes the staff served as advocates for families by dealing both individually and collectively with institutions and agencies, and by providing high school equivalency classes, first aid instruction, nutrition and consumer information as well as other activities planned to increase coping skills.

Through negotiations with other organizations, parents were able to select representatives for seats on the community councils, local child care agency boards, and on the boards of other agencies, as well as the center's Parent Policy Committee which set a number of important program policies.⁸⁰ Finally, a number of center events were scheduled, planned, and carried out, often in conjunction with other segments of the community. These events ranged from dinners, dances, and picnics, to trips to movies and baseball games, to Easter egg hunts to visits to cultural events in the city. Parents also visited other PCC's and child care facilities.

For those families who lived more than three blocks away, door-to-door transportation was provided through a contract with a local bus company which also included transportation to most special events.

Such services and activities provided by the center were equally as important as the parent education component involving and sustaining parent involvement in the program. These services and activities involved numbers of people and agencies outside the program but within the city; they offered conditions which allowed the program to provide a wide variety of things, thus adding to the flexibility of the program in serving individual needs; they showed a commitment on the part of the program to serve the participants' needs as the participants viewed those needs; they showed the program's ability to adjust to changing needs of participants; finally they set the tone which enabled the program to do its job, which was to serve the participants' needs as professionals saw them.

The dilemma of operating a developmentally-based, federally funded

OCD program should be discussed here. The federal government assumes that the intended participants in their programs are deficient in some respect, usually that potential participants come from a "disadvantaged" environment that severely limits the development of their educational and intellectual skills. Briefly stated, this assumption means that one must help some people develop to be what they cannot make themselves to be by their own actions, by intervening and compensating them for missed experiences, in order to bring them to the mainstream.

However, any program operating from an organismic perspective of the type based upon the Anisa model must assume a nondeficit position: one must help some men become what they cannot make themselves to be by their own actions, by intervening to change those institutions which are responsible for blocking these people's development, by fostering a pluralistic society.

The government position is exceptionalistic; it blames the victim:

The exceptionalistic viewpoint is reflected in arrangements that are private, voluntary, remedial, special, local, and exclusive. Such arrangements imply that problems occur to specially-defined categories of persons in an unpredictable manner. The problems are unusual, even unique, they are exceptions to the rule, they occur as a result of individual defect, accident, or unfortunate circumstance and must be remedied by means that are particular, and, as it were, tailored to the individual case.⁸¹

The second position is universalistic; it blames the institutions in the larger society, not the children or their families, for failure due to cultural differences:

The universalistic viewpoint, on the other hand, is reflected in arrangements that are public, legislated, promotive or preventive, general, national, and inclusive. Inherent in such a viewpoint is the idea that social problems are a function of the social arrangements

of the community or society and that, since these social arrangements are quite imperfect and inequitable, such problems are both predictable and, more important, preventable through public action. They are not unique to the individual, and the fact that they encompass individual persons does not imply that those persons are themselves defective or abnormal.⁸²

3.4.2 Infant/Toddler Education

Children remained in the infant/toddler section under the supervision of certified Montessori professionals for 75 minutes before joining their parents for Participation. Aides, interns, and volunteers assisted the Head Teacher. There were usually fewer than 11 children in this Activity Area at any one time. The ratio was one adult for every three children and children ranged in age from six weeks old to three years. They were grouped in a variety of ways, depending on the activity, but often played by themselves or with one adult.

The room, because of the carpet-covered blocks, could be completely rearranged in minutes. The room was made safe to encourage exploration. Although the basic material arrangement was in terms of interest centers laid out at the proper height for young children this age, the primary educational focus was on a single Anisa developmental domain (e.g., psychomotor) each session, which was determined by the developmental principle of the day. The single domain approach allowed the adults to assess children's progress regularly as an integral part of the program by encouraging parents to observe either in the classroom for specified periods of time or, informally, over the four foot high walls. The approach also served to highlight the focus of the particular session, and further served to facilitate individualization. Finally, this

approach allowed the Head Teacher to make maximum use of her aides and volunteers, because it was necessary only to ensure that they knew the basic ground rules and understood the task selected for them for the day.

Although there was a single focus each day, over the course of a cycle, children would receive experiences in each of the domains delineated in the Anisa Model (psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, volitional; and language, mathematics, and the arts).

3.4.3 Parent Education

White and Watts (1973) have concluded, after a careful study of what constitutes competence in children of six years, that, "nobody has definitive information on how to optimally rear children"⁸³ Hunt (1964) has concluded that we really know very little about the "match" between individual development and external stimulation at various stages of the life cycle:

The status of our knowledge about these matters is entirely inadequate for us to arrange such matches entirely from the outside.⁸⁴

Thus, our efforts at parent education must include parents in the planning of intervention attempts.

At Parents and Children, the Cincinnati PCC, parents were included in the choice and design of individual cycles, as well as in the choice and design of individual sessions within a cycle. After completing the first introductory cycle, which every parent took, subsequent registration in cycles was based on a combination of parent interest and analysis of their own needs, and staff analysis of family needs. The staff

analysis generally occurred during the formal Family Assessment meetings, but also informally, since the staff interacted as a team. What follows is a sample session. It is important to keep in mind the image of journey utilized.

Upon arriving, generally fifteen minutes prior to the actual (rather than publicized) time, parents hung up their coats, got coffee or tea, and moved to the Reception Area to talk. At the appropriate time, the Infant Teacher⁸⁵ and Parent Facilitator would come in and greet families. All would then move on to the Infant/Toddler Activity Area. Parents might remain here to observe, or work with their own or other children, or they might move on directly to the Presentation Area. This depended on what the planned focus of that specific session was, on whether something significant happened immediately in the Infant/Toddler Activity Area (such as a child taking her first steps in the runway), or whether parents were leaving shortly for a field trip.

If the parents moved on to the Presentation Area, they seated themselves usually in the rocking chairs which faced the single platform.⁸⁶ On each seat was the material-of-the-week for that cycle. As parents handled the material, the Parent Facilitator explained the material, its purpose, and reasons for inclusion.⁸⁷ Then she demonstrated an appropriate way to present the material initially, using one of the parents. Afterwards she asked the parent to model her presentation. Then there would be discussion about the rationale behind a correct orientation, if there was one, and possible reconfigurations. Mothers would then present the material to each other. After everyone felt prepared, one child was called in and either a mother or the Facilitator

would make a presentation to the child. Afterwards there would be still more discussion before moving on to the Participation Area.

In this area, on the platforms, parents would present the material or activity to their own child, and then possibly to other children as well. The children were brought in from the Infant/Toddler Activity Area by their teacher, or might be brought in by individual parents. The Parent Facilitator and, if possible, the Infant Teacher would mingle among the participants, offering suggestions for possible reconfigurations or ways to make other matches with the children, and to comment on successful interactions. While the actual presentation of parent to child was important in itself, it was also an occasion for interaction, for exploring some appropriate ways to participate with young children. While presentations were geared for success, they often failed. In the first few sessions, some parents were very concerned if their children didn't "get it" immediately. A few felt they were on trial and had to pass the test they were being asked to submit to. Usually this passed as parents became aware of the underlying purpose of the exercise, and as staff relaxed and became confident enough to put the parents at ease. Most materials would go home with families for a week.

From here, everyone would retire to the Conversation Area⁸⁸ and, seated in a circle, discuss the events of the day. During the course of the conversation, the developmental principle of the session was introduced by the Parent Facilitator; this was always tied to some concrete experience. As the year went on, sometimes parents would try to guess what the principle was. The conversation component of this

model was the most successful from the beginning. Parents were most interested in obtaining more understanding about how to relate to and, in some cases control, their young child. Here also discussions ensued on strategies for disciplining and toilet training children, the parents' foremost concerns.⁸⁹ The staff's view on these issues was that while a variety of effective alternatives was important for any parent to develop, no single method was appropriate or consistently effective for all children. Parents would then leave, pick up their children if they had returned to the Infant/Toddler Activity Area, and go upstairs for lunch before leaving the center.

Observation was always included in one of the areas. In the Infant/Toddler Activity Area, parents might do free observation for fifteen minutes at a time, or they might be asked to focus on how their child crawled, or how their child has started replacing everything on the shelves--even the materials other children were using. Once materials were used in the Presentation Area, at least one sample would be put in the Infant/Toddler Activity Area. A parent might observe differences in the way his child plays with a material in the room from how she played with it at home, or between the Infant Teacher's presentation of that material to her child and her own. Later in the year, parents might videotape their own children.⁹⁰

In the Presentation and Participation Areas, some parents might be designated as observers and critique the sessions afterwards, or everyone might observe one of the series of Montessori training videotapes developed to train interns and volunteers how to present the Montessori standardized materials.

In the Conversation Area, parents might view a videotape developed by the staff on early locomotion or cooperation, or discuss previously unconscious filters they have used.

In each component, a few criteria were critical:

1. A devotion to a direct and uncluttered exposition of the component single unit of information at hand.⁹¹
2. A commitment to individualizing the experience as much as possible for each parent and child.
3. An ability to adapt the unit as much as necessary, which required a substantial amount of preparation.
4. Closure for each component every session.
5. At least one generalization from every experience.
6. An attitude that parents can teach us at least as much as we can teach them.

1. This definition is borrowed from Nurseries in Cross-Cultural Education (NICE), a five-year program funded by the National Institute of Mental Health to study the effects of a nursery school on the mental health of its participants. In their definition, family members could vary from month to month, although the mother was a constant for each family in the sample. For further information, see Lane (1975).
2. Donald Streets and Daniel Jordan, "Guiding the Process of Becoming: The ANISA Theories of Curriculum and Teaching," World Order, 7, 4, 1973, p. 36.
3. Burton White et. al., Pre-School Project: Child Rearing Practices and the Development of Competence (Washington, D. C.: OEO, Head Start Division, 1972), p. 101.
4. Personal experience has shown that when recipe approaches are included, front line staff almost invariably ignore the purposes behind specific strategies. That is one reason a list of such strategies or a workbook is not included. The second reason is to encourage individualization in specific program approaches. Qualified directors or leaders will have little difficulty devising their own recipes for individual sessions, incorporating each component in a manner that best suits the specific community which their program, based on this general model, is designed to address.
5. Alfred Whitehead Process and Reality (New York: Free Press, 1969, p. 34.
6. J. McV. Hunt Intelligence and Experience (New York: Ronald, 1961, p. 268.
7. Alice Honig Parent Involvement in Early Childhood Education (Washington, D. C.: NAEYC, 1975) p. 2.
8. Most observational systems are either too specific or too complex for such general usage. Directors wishing to utilize systems they deem appropriate which meet the criteria addressed are free to do so.
9. None of us can observe everything all of the time. We are always selectively attentive to some things, while ignoring others. When this observational selectivity is done unconsciously, it is called filtering (Tindall and Hughes, 1975).
10. Maria Montessori The Montessori Method (New York: Schocken, 1964) p. 13.

11. This concept of presentation was originally developed by Rambusch, Kalinowski, and Pratt (1974).
12. Anthony Jay *Effective Presentation* (London: Management Publications, 1970) p. 5.
13. Montessori, "Method," p. 167.
14. Jay, "Presentation," p. 5.
15. Facilitator is a term used to describe the parent educator in this model. For convenience, a Facilitator is a "she." The parent is a "he;" the focal child is also a "she."
16. Nancy Rambusch, Michael Kalinowski, and Linda Pratt "A Proposed Individualized Writing/Reading Program For Young Children, Based on Their Interest in Food and on the Pedagogical Principles Derived From the Work of Edward Seguin, Maria Montessori and Contemporary Educational Theorists" American Montessori Society Bulletin, 12, 2, 1974, p. 9.
17. Ibid.
18. Ibid., p. 10.
19. Ira Gordon "Dos and Don'ts of Parent Educating (Gainesville, Florida: Institute for Development of Human Resources, EDF 780, 1972).
20. Alfred Whitehead The Aims of Education (New York: Free Press, 1967) p. 11.
21. "Drawing the Circle" is an exercise from the theatre in which an actor attends to an area closer and closer to where he sits, imagining that he is drawing a circle to correspond to the ever diminishing area. It is primarily an exercise in concentration, but can be adapted to parent education.
22. "Noise in the system" refers to extraneous cues that distract one's attention from the matter at hand, and is somewhat similar to Festinger's (1958) concept of cognitive dissonance.
23. Norma McDiarmid, Mari Peterson and James Sutherland, Loving and Learning: Interacting with your Child from Birth to Three (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1975) p. 7.
24. Bruno Bettelheim Love is not Enough: The Treatment of Emotionally Disturbed Children (Chicago: Free Press, 1950) p. 8.
25. McDiarmid et. al., "Loving," pp. 6-7.

26. Burton White and Jean Watts Experience and Environment: Major Influences on the Development of the Young Child (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973) p. 243.
27. White and Watts, "Experience," p. 243.
28. These skills were first developed in Rambusch, Kalinowski and Pratt (1974).
29. Streets and Jordan, "Guiding," p. 36.
30. George Dennison The Lives of Children (New York: Random House, 1969) p. 258.
31. Montessori, "Method," p. 104.
32. Examples of developmental principles will be found in Appendix 3.
33. For more detailed information, see Kalinowski and Rambusch (1974), or Spolin (1972).
34. Harris Forusz Over-the-Rhine Existing Conditions Report (Cincinnati: MCPPP, 1973) p. Section-1.
35. Ibid., p. Section-3.
36. This is a local effort in cooperation with city departments of housing, rehabilitation and local and absentee landlords.
37. This is again another local combined effort.
38. Forusz, "Existing Conditions," p. Section-4.
39. Webster is the name of the elementary school closed.
40. Forusz, "Existing Conditions," p. Section-6.
41. Ibid.
42. Ibid., p. Section-2.
43. Harris Forusz and Woollen Associates Over-the-Rhine Findlay Market Area Design and Objectives (Cincinnati: Department of Urban Development, 1971) p. 23.
44. Forusz, "Existing Conditions," p. Section-2.
45. Michael Maloney, The Social Areas of Cincinnati: Toward an Analysis of Social Needs (Cincinnati: Human Relations Council, 1974) p. 58.
46. Ibid., p. 65.

47. See Fisher (1970), Forusz (1973), and Maloney (1974).
48. Forusz, "Existing Conditions," Section-2.
49. Maloney, "Social Areas," Appendix IV.
50. Beliefs of neighborhood residents and local opinion leaders.
51. Maloney, "Social Areas," p. 48.
52. Ibid., p. 65.
53. Forusz, "Existing Conditions," p. Section-6.
54. Ibid., p. Section-5.
55. Ibid.
56. Ibid., p. Section-8.
57. Paul Wertheimer Cincinnati: Urban Development (Cincinnati: Department of Urban Development, 1975) no pagination.
58. See for example, Drucker (1974), Miles (1961), or Havelock (1973).
59. The Parent Policy Committee is one of the Head Start Performance Standards Conditions for these federal programs. Some PCC's received, in addition, a Special Condition to their grant which clarified additional responsibilities Parent Policy Committees were to undertake in that program. This Special Condition was interpreted by many delegate and grantee agencies as a diminution of their power, and an increase in the power of program directors. Thus, usually this Condition was not publicized.
60. Ms. Nancy McCormick Rambusch was instrumental in helping the director design the facility and correct design problems in the building construction prior to occupancy, which had to be corrected by the program.
61. The idea of an image as controlling metaphor comes from the theatre and forms a central part of the director's mise-en-scene, from which he creates the universe in which the play will take place. The image serves as a filter with which to view everything as provides a source of energy.
62. Small children, however, could not in turn see over these walls to see their parents, although they could, on occasion, hear them.

63. In the presentation area, the platform measured four feet by six feet by one foot high. In the participation area, there were three platforms: one was 4' x 8' x 1'; one was 8' x 8' x 15"; the third was 4' x 6' x 9", and had a lip down one side 26" high for parents to sit on without having to squat down.
64. This concept, that educators and parents can be resources for each other, is similar to that used by Lambie, Bond and Weikart (1974). The Facilitator here does not assume the dominant role in the educational process, nor are the parents the only active agents in the program. Each participant acts as a resource for the other, and a balance is struck between the individual and collective sources of information and activity. This role is often difficult for the Facilitator, because any tendency to subtly dominate the relationship must be strictly avoided if the program is to be successful.
65. The author was the only PCC director in the country (of 33 PCC's and 3PCDC's) to assume both roles.
66. This is similar to White and Watts (1973) concept of "teaching on the fly" discussed earlier.
67. Volunteer help, both professional and nonprofessional, came from direct inquiry as well as through the various agencies with which the program interfaced. It is our belief that volunteer help of many kinds is fundamental to success in these kinds of programs.
68. Programmatically, this was an advantage because children having "graduated" from the PCC program could enroll in a similarly planned and administered program in the same facility, and thus maintain contact directly with the PCC program for up to five years. The Head Start class also served as a public relations plus for PCC in that parents, many of whom wanted to leave their children, knew PCC "graduates" had preference for the 20 Head Start positions. Thus some parents were encouraged to enroll in PCC so that they would have some freedom from their children, in the future.
69. Examples of these centers were the Appalachian Identity Center, for white Appalachians, and the Salt and Pepper Center for blacks.
70. Because of the federal mandate, the first objective was not to review potential participants closely to determine those most likely to benefit from such an approach, but to fill up the program with people. After our figures gave the program breathing room, such factors as ethnic balance, numbers of children in each age range, and others influences

acceptance by the center of interested families. Eventually, a waiting list was established and maintained.

71. After rehearsing in private, directors often invite small, pre-view audiences to critique their plays, and to judge their reactions.
72. Forusz, "Existing Conditions," p. Section-4.
73. Heber and Garber (1975) have spoken to the hazards of attrition in projects of this kind.
74. The usual procedure for PCC's was to enroll parents and children every three months. This appeared to be too long a time to us, given the mobility rate of the community.
75. This was a significant issue locally. The adjacent recreation center became a "black center" within a week of its opening; white Appalachians refused to participate. It was assumed by most community leaders that the center would "go one way or the other" quickly. It was our opinion that if we could offer something to each group of people, we could integrate the center. We did not assume, though, that we could automatically integrate each cycle. Fortunately, we were able to integrate every cycle eventually, with obvious benefits for the children, and subtler benefits for their parents, many of whom expressed their strong beliefs initially. Parents quickly became tolerant, if nothing else, in order to participate in cycles of their choosing.
76. See Chapter 2 for further information.
77. Observations of the programs at other PCC's showed that few programs devoted time to preparation. As a result, there was a great deal of "down time" where nothing happened.
78. Presentations of the program were made to all agencies with which the program interfaced, and to other local agencies and institutions. In addition, the director presented the program at the NAEYC National Convention in 1974, and at the PCC National Convention in 1975, as well as to an invited audience of OCD personnel in Washington, D. C.
79. The clinic was located just across the courtyard, and medical personnel could be at the center within minutes of a call.
80. Gordon (1971) states that the second step in increasing the power of parents to raise their own children is to enable parents to learn how to use their resources to influence the other agencies which deal with their children. This was a significant step for parents, and a great benefit

for the center as well, having members on most significant interacting agency boards.

81. William Ryan, Blaming the Victim (New York: Vintage, 1971), p. 16.
82. Ibid., p. 17.
83. White and Watts, "Experience," p. 233.
84. J. McV. Hunt "Introduction" in Maria Montessori Montessori Method (New York: Schocken, 1964) p. xxviii.
85. Although the Head Teacher in the Infant/Toddler Activity Area taught both infants and toddlers, she became called the Infant Teacher.
86. Each component area was laid out right after the preceding one to emphasize the aspect of journey.
87. Initially the materials were brand new toys. Later on created and "found" materials were utilized to encourage generalization, and Whitehead's (1957) principle of making the most with the least.
88. In the early stages of the program, parents would begin their journey in this area with the developmental principle. Eventually, however, the staff decided that it would be better to end the journey here, after experiencing the other areas, in order to have more experiences to discuss.
89. Visits to other PCC's confirmed this. The Executive Summary of the "Impact of Head Start PCC Programs on Parents" (1973) also addresses this issue.
90. One cycle devoted to learning to utilize the videotape equipment for observation was a popular choice among parents and had to be repeated.
91. As far as possible, the objective of each session was to give parents one unit of information that could be tied to every experience in the session. These units would then build on each other over the course of the cycle. The developmental principle was the integrating factor of these units.

C H A P T E R I V
IMPLICATIONS OF THE MODEL

- 4.1 EFFECTS OF THE PCC IMPLEMENTATION
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4.1 EFFECTS OF THE PCC IMPLEMENTATION

In the first year of model implementation, there was little formal measurement of progress. Evaluations of the program,¹ however, did occur at regular intervals, and program adaptations were made as a result of such evaluations. Regular evaluations included:

- 1) Specialists Reports (SR). These evaluative reports were prepared monthly after three day visits by the Project Advisor assigned by OCD. The reports focused on the services provided by the Advisor, problems identified, recommendations made for future action, and program strengths.²
- 2) Parent Evaluations of Program (PEP). These questionnaires were administered to parents by the Parent Facilitators at the conclusion of every cycle. They included questions designed to elicit information on both the quality of individual parent education sessions, and overall satisfaction with the program, as well as the value of specific support services.³
- 3) Educational Services Assessment (ESA). This report was completed annually by members of the Parent Policy Committee, in conjunction with parents and staff members. Designed by the grantee as a broad evaluation, this report addresses program objectives, procedures and resources for achieving those objectives, and results.⁴
- 4) Standard Monitoring Questionnaire (SMQ). This report was also completed annually by members of the Parent Policy Committee, in conjunction with parents and staff members. This questionnaire was designed by OCD for all PCC programs, and addressed program objectives, indicators of performance within each Performance Standard⁵ category, problems and recommendations for future actions.
- 5) Management Information Service Report (MIS). This demographic report was compiled by the Administrative Assistant on a quarterly basis. Designed by OCD, this report dealt with a range of quantitative issues surrounding the number and type of people enrolled, staff priorities measured by time spent, and per unit costs.⁶

In general, the program was considered very successful, especially when compared to previous efforts. As an example, the program received unsolicited commendations from:⁷ the Director of the HUB Complex in

which the center was located; the chairman of the Department of Education, Xavier University (the delegate agency); the chairman of the Community Action Commission Policy Council (the grantee agency); the president of the Over-the-Rhine Community Councils; members of the Cincinnati City Council; the acting director of the Head Start State Training Office in the Ohio Department of Economic and Community Development; the regional OCD Community Representative for Cincinnati; and members of the United States House of Representatives. The program was the only PCC selected for a slide show at the 1975 PCC National Convention, and was featured in a seminar at that convention on Innovative Programming.⁸

4.1.1 Effects on Parents

This evaluation of the program's effects on parents will center on four areas defined as the programs' primary objectives by PCC staff at the national level.⁹

Effects on parenting skills and attitudes:

1) The program increased the number of options and alternatives available to parents in child-centered problem situations.¹⁰

2) The program had an effect on the quality of the first response made by parents in a child-centered problem situation.¹¹

3) The program did not significantly decrease the likelihood that parents would respond punitively in a child-centered problem situation, if the first, adaptive response was unsuccessful.¹²

4) The program had an effect on parents taking into account the age and needs of a child in thinking through what should be done in a given situation.¹³

5) The program had a slight effect on the age at which parents began toilet training, and on the methods used to achieve such training.¹⁴

6) The program had an effect on the amount of time spent talking to children at mealtimes.¹⁵

7) The program had an effect, although difficult to determine, on parental understanding of child development and their sensitivity to individual differences in children.¹⁶

Effects on parental self-concept:

1) The program had a significant effect on parental tolerance of people of other cultures.¹⁷

2) The program had an effect on parents' feelings that they have some control over their destiny and over their sense of personal helplessness. The program had a negative effect on a few parents' feelings of adequacy as parents.¹⁸

3) The program had a positive effect on some parents' feelings of aloneness or shyness.¹⁹

4) The program had an effect on parents' ability to enjoy their children.²⁰

Effects on parents' knowledge of and use of community resources:

1) The program had a significant effect on parental involvement in community organizations.²¹

2) The program had an effect on parental involvement in activities of the Parent Policy Committee and grantee Policy Council.²²

3) The program had a significant effect on parental employment in the program.²³

4) The program did not have an effect on parents' enrolling in formal education courses.²⁴

5) The program had an effect on numbers of eligible parents obtaining food stamps, commodities, Medicaid, and welfare moving allowances.²⁵

6) The program increased the numbers of parents who utilized Head Start and other day care services.²⁶

Effects on parents use of health facilities and nutrition practices:

- 1) The program had an effect on the quality of pre-natal care of parents already enrolled in the program.²⁷
- 2) The program had a significant effect on the number of well baby visits on the first year of life.²⁸
- 3) The program had an effect on the number of parent medical physicals.²⁹
- 4) The program had an effect on some nutrition practices.³⁰

4.1.2 Effects on Children

Evaluation of the effects of the program on children, must center on a few gross indices of change. There are basically two reasons for this. First, this dissertation confines itself to the first year of model implementation. Secondly, no standardized tests were administered during this period. Nevertheless, there was some evidence to suggest the following:

- 1) The program had an effect on school readiness.³¹
- 2) The program had an effect on the amount of education enrolled children received.³²
- 3) The program had an effect on learning competence.³³
- 4) The program had an effect on tolerance of children of other cultures.³⁴
- 5) The program had an effect on the amount and quality of health care received.³⁵
- 6) The program had an effect on supplying nutritional requisites for development.³⁶

It was not determined whether or not the program had an effect on either the onset or the quality of attainment of developmental milestones. In general, enrolled parents believed their children were developing at a faster rate as a result of the program.³⁷

4.1.3 Effects on Over-the-Rhine

There were a great number of effects the program had on the community, as one might expect of a program of that scale. The following represent the significant effects:

- 1) The program had an effect on the number of families served by intervention efforts.³⁸
- 2) The program had an effect on reducing unemployment in Over-the-Rhine.³⁹
- 3) The program had an effect on increasing the income of local businesses and services.⁴⁰
- 4) The program had an effect on increasing community participation in local government.⁴¹
- 5) The program had an effect on increasing the biological integrity of the community.⁴²
- 6) The program had an effect on how federal programs were viewed by community residents.⁴³
- 7) The program had an effect on the way some local agencies interacted.⁴⁴
- 8) The program had an effect on a possible change of attitude by the community towards interracial and intercultural programs.⁴⁵

4.2 APPLICATIONS OF THE MODEL

Replicating a model from its initial implementation to other settings can be a perilous undertaking. There are dramatic differences regarding the scale, structure and strategy of each implementation. This is a major reason why pedagogical recipes, or even standardized prototypical experiences are not supplied with this model.

Rambusch (1976) in writing about the transformation of the American Montessori experience from the private preschool to the public elementary school, addresses this question of integrity in delivery approaches well:

The most striking difference between the private and public Montessori school is in the matter of scale, the differences between two teachers and twenty, twenty children and two hundred. One cannot upscale a small enterprise by simply enlarging it. Every scale has its own integrity. As enterprises become larger, they necessarily become more complex.⁴⁶

Every implementation has its own integrity as well. This model of parent education was initially implemented on a grand scale, and relatively sophisticated mechanisms were developed for delivering its individual components. One cannot "downscale" the initial enterprise to home, satellite, or mobile settings, by simply shrinking it. One cannot consider these approaches the way medieval artists considered children: as miniature adults. These approaches are not smaller copies; neither are they "little images of their elegant mammas."⁴⁷ They demand organizational entities with differences in the expression of features other than scale. One must consider physical, human, and unknown environments general to the specific delivery system (i.e., home), and particular to individual settings before the most appropriate program 'self' can be designed to provide the best match.

4.2.1 Home Settings

Of the three settings to be considered, this is the most intimate. Like some classrooms, it is self-contained; one assumes with this approach that everything needed for the education of parents and the development of their children is (or can be) at hand within the home. The physical environment is one which is most difficult to share; one accepts it "as is."

This setting generally requires that a single visitor provide the

instructional leadership. This terminology is suitable in that the teacher or facilitator may remain only at the grace of the family. Because the setting is intimate, and more than one visitor is often overpowering, the personality of the visitor is critical. While the exact nature of the constellation of qualities needed varies, it is usually person more than information which is critical in this approach. Black male visitors are not generally successful in white Appalachian households. For these and other reasons a paraprofessional of the same sex and socioeconomic status, as well as resident of the same community, is often most successful here.

Because the setting is self-contained, the unknown must be prepared for; reinforcements will not be readily available. The advantage to this setting is that it enables total individualization, and allows for individual diagnoses.

All things considered, observation, presentation, participation, and conversation strategies can move at the family's pace, and can be reconfigured without consideration to that variety of problems encountered in large, more complex center settings. Home settings require and support independent timetables.

4.2.2 Satellite Settings

Satellite settings are almost invariably compromises. This can and should be turned to advantage. The physical environment can usually be reconfigured, once the rationale is understood and accepted. Often, however, it must be rearranged to the original condition after each session.

The setting suggests a few teachers or facilitators, the exact number

depending on the size of the space, the particular configuration and number of people, and the degree of differentiation of the staff. The important thing to consider in this setting is that one is generally the guest of a group of people gathered together because of some common interest other than the program. This suggests that, if possible, a facilitator similar to the parent group be involved in some teaching role to establish credibility and critique performances in terms of the group's common interest.

One danger in this approach is falling too far into the group's common interest. This will often happen when individuals are challenged or bored. Two difficulties arise immediately. One has a tendency to treat the group as one whole, rather than individuals and one tends to remain steered away from the program's objective.⁴⁸ The challenge in this approach is to provide an interface between the program's purpose, the group's interest, and individual needs.

All things considered, observation, presentation, participation and conversation strategies must move at the group's pace, and in a manner acceptable to the common interest. Satellite settings require a conception of time which arises from the group, even if it is different from the staff's previous experience. Finally the group size must be considered. Seven plus or minus two works well.⁴⁹

4.2.3 Mobile Settings

Mobile settings are the most challenging to implement, often the most inexpensive to deliver, and usually the most difficult to evaluate. The physical environment can be configured with only the constraints of space and budget to consider. Obviously the environment (be it wagon,

bus, van or truck) must also be considered in terms of the purpose-- whether the vehicle will become the classroom, will deliver materials and personnel, or do both.

The advantage to this approach is enormous flexibility. One can perform at a supermarket parking lot in the morning to parents who will experience a program a single time, move to a television studio to tape a "lesson" for airing that evening as part of an ongoing course, move to a pediatric facility in the afternoon to involve mothers in the waiting room, and drive to another location to pass out materials and information sheets for those parents in the course to practice with while watching television in the evening. The possibilities are endless.

This approach demands personnel who are more flexible and have a greater amount of information and skill in component teaching than the previous two approaches. Here usually the material and the information are more critical than a specific personality.

In this approach individualizing is hardest. One way to diagnose is to videotape on the spot and analyze it later at a central location.

Everything is more difficult to teach. Observation, presentation, participation, and conversation are best presented in small, self-contained units. Generalization is also difficult in this approach because the often short sessions do not give a parent enough time to digest everything until after the session has ended.

4.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE MODEL

4.3.1 Implications for PCC's

Parent Child Centers are likely to have a difficult time, now that

they have become regionalized. Because they are so difficult to administer, so expensive to operate, and have been perceived as both headaches and ineffective by national, regional and local evaluations, they are likely to die quietly as their monies and facilities are drafted for use with Head Start and other programs. This general model of parent education, and the successful initial implementation of that model in a PCC, can do little to save PCC's as a social system. The model, and the information gained by the implementation effort, can however, inform the PCC's and PCDC's. What follows are some of the more important conclusions derived from the OTR PCC experience:

1. Federal OCD officials have expressed a desire for effective models of parent education suitable for the PCC effort. The Cincinnati budget was increased as a direct result of their belief in this model, and the program has been refunded for the past year at an even higher level.
2. Effective centers may need either to combine the roles of Director and Educational Coordinator into a single position (as was the case in Cincinnati), or hire different people committed to the same philosophical perspective. In any case the director should have a background in child or family studies so that decisions can be made with participants in mind. It is possible to hire a competent administrator to fill both positions by combining the salaries, and retaining a portion for educational consulting expertise.

3. The OTR experience has shown that an effective program can be developed and delivered by considering the child as the occasion for educating parents. It is possible to design PCC programs so that they are not perceived as day care or infant care centers where parents have to hang around.
4. The cost of employing a certified, professional teaching staff can be justified if nearly every moment spent with parents and children is a learning moment. It was found that Montessori trained teachers are able to adapt to teaching children younger than those they were trained to teach, as well as teaching parents. If possible the staff should be a fair microcosm of the community in terms of culture, sex, and education, as well as socioeconomic composition. The staff should also include a broad age range.
5. Planning time is essential for direct and support service staff, both individually and collectively in order to perform at maximum efficiency.
6. The OTR experience has shown that it is possible to field a successful alternative to the traditional single group or two group parents' program.
7. The OTR experience has shown the value of a well prepared publicity campaign.
8. The experience has shown that parents can assume an effective role in policy making if their involvement is both

- gradual and guided. Parents, community groups, and the federal bureaucracy will support such attempts.
9. The experience has shown the necessity of tailoring programs to particular communities and individualizing as many interactions with participants as possible.
 10. The experience has shown that the PCC concept can be used to alter existing feelings people have towards those of different cultures and colors.
 11. The program can be adapted to any existing PCC and implemented within a single year, with existing funding levels, low staff turnover, and gradual structural changes.
 12. Experiences in observation, presentation, participation and conversation can satisfy program goals in parent education.

4.3.2 Implications for Federal Programming

1. Central office staff must be sufficiently large to inform local programs, disseminate information, monitor progress and problems, and measure effectiveness. As a new PCC, almost no information was available, even though PCC's had been in operation over seven years.
2. The model, as implemented, may be utilized as an example of a method for bringing widely disparate groups and agencies together to work for a common purpose and to sustain their interest.

3. The model, as implemented, and as successful, may be used to demonstrate how a program develops from the planning stages and the likely difficulties to be encountered, the liberties that can be taken with federal guidelines (given sufficient rationale) and the value of appropriate innovation, as well as the importance of involving the entire community to be served.
4. Central office staff should encourage and support evaluation efforts from other sources of funding in order to determine specific program effectiveness. Demonstration programs can not operate forever. Someone is bound to find out sooner or later.
5. Programs must be given sufficient planning time, both prior to implementation (at levels sufficient to plan), and within the normal life of the program so that staff will be able to prepare for each interface.
6. The will to manage is the will to dismiss. Large sums of taxpayers money are being used to intervene in the lives of citizens. Ineffective programs are worse than no programs at all and their staffs should not be allowed to settle into complacent mediocrity.

4.3.3 Implications for Other Programs

Traditional programs which assume a universal similarity of children for purposes of education displays a "basic naivete about the

extraordinarily powerful and irreducible interrelationships between a culture and the child's development...."⁵⁰ Just as children must be considered as individuals, so must each aggregate of children and their parents be regarded as unique. An advantage of simple, general models of education--particularly ones which arise from comprehensive views of human development is flexibility for shaping a successful program to suit the population it serves. This process, though continuous, is also unique to each community. Models which demand recipe formulation on location have a good chance of meeting communities where they are; models which arrive with recipe files are likely to be dismissed. This dismissal comes from two sources. The first is from the front line staff who are likely to take only the recipes to the performance. The second source is the community which is likely to walk out in the middle of a performance which does not address them.

What we are doing in education, and in intervention programs, is similar to what the director does for an audience. He prepares a world in which a play will occur; the implementer prepares an environment. McDermott (1976), an explicator of James and Dewey to the American Montessori Society, describes the process of incarnating Montessori's major metaphor (the prepared environment) as:

...simply the creation of a world that holds out optimum experiential possibilities for human growth within what should be a liberally controlled setting...

[Prepared environments] are small communities that have as their emphasis the creation of a carefully structured world....⁵¹

We are responsible for creating that world which will support the most appropriate matches for its inhabitants.

This developmental model of parent education and its initial implementation has numerous implications for other programs. Only other program personnel can determine which information and strategies will be useful to borrow.

4.3.4 Implications for Research

1. This model needs to be systematically evaluated and its effects measured on participating children, their parents, and their communities.
2. This model as implemented in a PCC needs to be systematically compared to other PCC's and PCDC's.
3. Research monies and strategies should be incorporated into federally funded service program designs.
4. Center, home, satellite, mobile, and combination delivery systems should be compared with this model to determine differences in effectiveness, timing considerations, and cost, as well as stability of gains over time.
5. Various intensities of intervention with families should be compared, as in the Brookline Early Education Project, to determine differences in effectiveness.
6. A simple and effective method for teaching observation to parents should be developed.
7. A series of videotapes of the onset and general sequences in locomotion, language acquisition, cooperation, object permanence and manipulation would be helpful to programs.
8. A study of scale for children 0-3 to help manufacturers

of materials and equipment would be helpful since it is at present difficult to purchase toys, furniture, or other equipment the appropriate size and scale for children this age.

9. It would be helpful to know which teachers are best prepared to work with infants, toddlers and parents, since there are at present few training programs for producing professionals to teach in these areas.

4.4 A FINAL NOTE

This general model of parent education, which arises from a rich vision of humanity and a comprehensive perspective of human development is an effort to help parents of children from birth to three years of age share in that vision and perspective as a means of assisting them in preparing their children to assume the critical roles of managing directors of evolution.

Dewey (1976) stated that what the best and wisest parent wants for his own child is what the community should want for all its children. In this statement, Dewey sees the wisdom of the parent as precisely continuous with the needs of the community. Individual parents seek specific goals for their children; individual communities embrace such of those goals as are deeply felt and genuinely collective needs; the community of man embraces, or should embrace, those goals which further the being and becoming of the species. A general model of parent education can address all these goals, from the most abstract goal of mankind as an entity, to the specific goal of a single parent with this child. The

formulation covers the former; the successful implementations cover the latter.

Even so, the effect of any model is limited and practice articulates the theory slowly. In the words of Whitehead:

Success is never absolute, the progress in the right direction is the result of a low, gradual process of continual comparison of ideas with facts.⁵²

Confirmation of the possibilities of this model will take much time and one can only hope they will be worthwhile.

1. Stanley and Hopkins (1972) differentiate between measurement and evaluation. To them, evaluation designates summing-up processes in which value judgements paly a large part; measurement, on the other hand, refers to the construction, administration and scoring of tests. In the first year of model implementation, funds were not available for measurement purposes. The center opted for providing service, rather than diverting a portion of funds to measurement. Some parents, and community opinion leaders, were opposed to a research orientation.
2. The format for these reports was determined by Social Dynamics, Inc., the subcontracting consulting firm hired by OCD for purposes of monitoring and advising PCC's. The Cincinnati Project Advisor was Robert Meresko.
3. These evaluations were prepared by staff and parents and usually administered on the last day of every session. They were completed by parents anonymously. A sample of the Parent Evaluation of Program for the first program cycle is found in Appendix 5.
4. This form, broken down into Performance Standard categories, was utilized by the grantee agency, and possibly by the regional office as well.
5. This 52-page form was evaluated, upon completion, by the national OCD office, and summarized by Meresko (1975).
6. This form, prepared by Abt Associates, was also evaluated by the national OCD office upon submission each quarter. The information was of limited usefulness to individual centers, and was primarily used in quoting figures of total families and children served to the Congress and other agencies.
7. These commendations have been summarized by Kalinowski (1975).
8. The National PCC Conference was held in Denver in April, 1975.
9. These categories are the ones used by Holmes, Holmes, and Greenspan (1973).
10. This effect was contrary to what Holmes et. al. (1973) found in their review of PCC's programs. The effect was supported by SR (1/76); PEP (1976); ESA (1976); SMQ (1976).
11. Monica Holmes, Douglas Holmes, and Dorie Greenspan, Impact of the Head Start Parent-Child Center Program on Parents (New York: Center for Community Research, 1973), p. 8.

12. Holmes, Impact, p. 8. Also personal observations.
13. SR (3/76); PEP (1976).
14. This was a general finding by Holmes et. al. (1973) for all PCC's, confirmed in this instance by the Infant Teachers and Parent Facilitators' observations.
15. Because meals were served family style, and staff ate with families, informal modeling in regard to conversation during meals was used in this implementation as a device to encourage talking with children during these times. There was no method used to assess conversation with children at meals eaten outside the center.
16. All evaluations' mechanisms, as well as staff, visitor, and consultant observations confirmed this, especially in regard to previous attempts and at other PCC's.
17. All cycles were eventually integrated, as was the center. To Over-the-Rhine residents and opinion leaders, this was a significant achievement. Although many parents did not seek out parents of other cultures to sit with at meals or other events, there was remarkable little hostility within the center, or at center-sponsored events.
18. This was a general finding by Holmes et. al. (1973), and appears as a warning in numerous reports.
19. A number of parents became gradually able to participate, either through an individualized effort which began with a home program, slowly introducing them to center activities, or through an attachment to other parents or staff.
20. PEP (1976). Numerous taped television interviews confirm this as well.
21. Parents became members of the HUB Board, the OTR Community Councils, the Comprehensive Child Care Board (of the local Community Chest), to offices on the grantee Policy Council, and other smaller local agencies.
22. Minutes of the Parent Policy Committee show an increase in the number of parents actively participating at the Center policy meetings, and at grantee policy meetings.
23. Parents were hired to fill six staff positions. Many of these positions were filled slowly, in order that parents could be considered for posts as the center grew in size.

24. Although "G.E.D." classes were available to parents within the complex, and other formal educational opportunities were also made available, there was little demand.
25. This was a general finding by Holmes et. al. (1973). The Human Services Coordinator was responsible for assisting parents with these needs, and her records indicate a greater use of such services after enrollment.
26. This program was the only Head Start service for families in OTR, so there was great demand for its services. In addition, the center helped parents enroll children in the five OTR day care centers, and in the summer, area "Tot Lots."
27. Because of the close contact with the 12th Street Clinic, and program emphasis on the advantages of adequate prenatal care, most parents took advantage of the free services offered to them.
28. Again, the fact that a good relationship was developed with a clinic close to the center, helped parents take advantage of this service. MIS (1975, 1976) figures indicate the increase.
29. These were free to parents, and often scheduled at the same time as child physicals. MIS (1975, 1976) figures confirm.
30. A hot, nutritious lunch was served at the center for every family member involved in a session on a specific day. This free lunch, which was an important feature of the program to most parents, guaranteed that families received nutritional assistance for at least one meal. Nutritional education had an effect on some, but not all, parents.
31. This was a general finding by Holmes et. al. (1973). The addition of a Head Start service assisted a number of children who would remain in the program long enough to enroll in it as well. The structure of the child education sessions, coupled with the purpose of the program, would indicate, but not confirm, that children were readier than non PCC children from OTR.
32. Most OTR children received little formal education prior to kindergarten. Some received care in day care centers, most of which were custodial programs. Thus, those children attending center sessions, received in general more education than those not attending.
33. Individual child education sessions were geared to particular aspects of learning competence. Videotape records indicate that PCC children increased their learning competence, in

addition because the Montessori teachers were trained to focus on self-correcting materials which emphasized ways of differentiating, integrating, and generalizing.

34. For many children, the first child with whom they interacted on a regular basis was of another culture. All sessions became integrated. This was seldom a cause of concern for children this age. Therefore one may assume that at least the level of tolerance was increased beyond what it would be had there been no personal experience against which to balance parental modeling or attitudes outside the center.
35. All families received free, comprehensive, health care.
36. The free lunches mentioned were planned by a qualified dietician, and the cook, in terms of the nutritional requirements of children aged six weeks to three years.
37. PEP (1976).
38. Over 88 additional families were served by this program, than had been served by intervention efforts prior to program implementation.
39. The hiring of six residents to staff position, and the successful lobbying for residents for the maintenance positions (which was contracted out to a service) decreased OTR unemployment.
40. As far as possible, the center directed (and the Parent Policy Committee concurred) that all purchases be made from OTR merchants. This increased local income, since the project was budgeted at about \$50,000 per year for orders in this category. In addition, staff spent money with local merchants for a variety of items.
41. See footnote 21. These were, for the most part, additional slots, and not elections or appointments to existing positions.
42. The nutritional and medical services increased the biological integrity of enrolled families. They were residents of OTR. Thus, the community as a whole was affected.
43. The success of this program on a number of levels, altered somewhat the views of a great variety of residents on the effect and value of this type of program.
44. A number of agencies (R.N.C.A. and Urban Appalachian Council, or Xavier University and Community Action Commission, as examples) worked together for the first time on this program. This was viewed as significant.

45. The fact that the center was considered a success, and that it was and remained integrated, led people to reconsider the possibility of other integrated programs, and to reflect that this program was not necessarily a "fluke."
46. Nancy Rambusch "Montessori as an American Public School Alternative," The Constructive Triangle, 3, 1, 1976, p. 10.
47. Earle (1893). Also see the Introduction.
48. For example, a group of white Appalachian migrant mothers, meeting in an Appalachian identity center, might have many powerful common interests apart from the parent education program's purpose. When conversation veers away from the parent education topic at hand--to, perhaps, an effective remedy for relieving teething pain--a parent educator may have difficulty in turning the conversation around. This problem may be compounded if the educator views herself as an outsider.
49. At least this was the case in the center implementation.
50. John McDermott, quoted in Rambusch, "Montessori," p. 8.
51. Ibid., p. 10.
52. Whitehead, "Education," p. 105.

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A P P E N D I C E S

- ONE SELECTED PARENT EDUCATION BOOKS
- TWO PARENT EDUCATION COURSE MATERIALS
- THREE DEVELOPMENTAL PRINCIPLES
- FOUR PROGRAM CYCLES
- FIVE PARENT EVALUATION OF PROGRAM FORM

APPENDIX ONE

SELECTED PARENT EDUCATION BOOKS

This appendix lists a number of significant books written for parents on guiding their young children's development. All books listed are paperbound unless noted.

- Braga, Joseph, and Braga, Laurie. *Growing with Children*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1974.
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APPENDIX TWO

SELECTED PARENT EDUCATION COURSE BOOKS AND ARTICLES

This appendix will list a number of significant books and articles helpful to parent educators.

- Auerbach, Aline. *Parents Learn Through Discussion: Principles and Practices of Parent Group Education*. New York: Wiley, 1968.
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APPENDIX THREE
DEVELOPMENTAL PRINCIPLES

This appendix defines developmental principles, lists examples of principles utilized in the OTR implementation, and suggests sources that may be helpful in developing other principles.

Definition

Developmental principles are general statements and fundamental propositions adopted as guides for facilitating the release of human potential. As such they represent relatively settled ground in organismic developmental theory about how the process of actualization occurs.

Examples of Developmental Principles Include:

1. Development is an orderly process which follows more or less invariant sequences.
2. A child learns by acting on his environments.
3. Gross motor coordination generally precedes fine motor coordination.

For Further Information:

More specific developmental principles may be found in Kalinowski and Jordan (1973), and the Anisa Specifications, Erikson (1970) as well as in Brown (1973), Cratty (1964), Conway (1974), Gibson (1969), Kohlberg (1974), and Piaget and Inhelder (1969).

APPENDIX FOUR
PROGRAM CYCLE EXAMPLES

This appendix outlines the schedule followed for one of the cycles in the OTR implementation, and lists individual sessions for five sections.

<u>Monday</u>	<u>Tuesday</u>	<u>Wednesday</u>
	9:00 Section 1 (6/2)	
9:30 Section 2 (4/28) Making Toys and other materials		9:30 Section 1 (5/19)
	11:00 Section 2 (4/28) How to handle Your Children	
1:00 Section 1 (4/28)	1:00 Section 2 (4/28) Media and Children	1:00 Section 2 (4/28) Arts/Music & Your children

NOTES

1. Section 1 = Brand new families
Section 2 = Families who have been with us 14 weeks
2. Each group will have about 9-11 people
3. The starting date for each group is in parentheses
4. We will be combining the following existing groups:
 - a. The Monday 9:00 a.m. group will be joining the Tuesday 9:00 a.m. group.
 - b. The Monday 11:30 a.m. group will be joining the Wednesday 9:00 a.m. group.
5. We will have orientations on the following Fridays from 10:30 a.m. to 12:00:

4/25/76
5/16/75
5/30/75

6. Parents will go directly to Mary's room or the lunch room on arrival.

The Tuesday 9:00 a.m. session will end on 5/2 and the combined Wednesday 9:00 a.m. session will end on 5/16.

Parents & Children
 Cycle 1
 AN INTRODUCTION TO DEVELOPMENT
 5/19/75

INTRODUCTION

This first cycle will serve as an introduction to the Parent and Child Center program. Basic developmental principles, and parenting strategies will be discussed; presentation techniques will be introduced; participation will be explored. Toys and other materials will be lent out each week.

		<u>Toy of the Week</u>
Week One:	Orientation	
Week Two:	A Child Learns by Acting on the Environment	
Week Three:	There is an Order to Development	Shape Sorting
Week Four:	Physical Development	Supersafes
Week Five:	Perception - The Five Senses	Pound a Ball
Week Six:	Observation - Videotape	(Age appropriate)
Week Seven:	Cognitive Development - The Growing Mind	Note Pad
Week Eight:	Emotional Development - Handling Feelings	Color-Shape
Week Nine:	Language & Communication	Felt Boards
Week Ten:	Self Confidence in Children	Library/Books
Week Eleven:	Parenting on the Run	Practical Life
Week Twelve:	The Match	Child Phones
Week Thirteen:	Evaluation	Art Tools
Week Fourteen:	Planning for the next cycle	

Parents & Children
 Cycle 2
 HOW TO HANDLE YOUR CHILDREN
 4/22/75

INTRODUCTION

This session will go into detail about ways that parents can handle different situations and ways to teach children to control their own behavior. Each session will involve a small amount of reading. We will use the book, "How to Parent," by Dr. Fitzhugh. We will also explore a different problem each week and discuss various ways of how to handle it. From time to time, we will use improvisations to show different ways to handle the same situation.

- Week One: Introduction
- Week Two: Approaches to Child Rearing
- Week Three: How to Discipline with Punishment
- Week Four: How to Discipline by Modifying Behavior
- Week Five: How to Discipline with Self Regulation
- Week Six: How to Toilet Train your Children
- Week Seven: How to Model the Behavior you want your children to show
- Week Eight: How to Model the Control you want your children to learn
- Week Nine: Individual Concerns about your own children
- Week Ten: How to Child proof your home
- Week Eleven: How to handle emergencies
- Week Twelve: How to choose toys and how to get them
- Week Thirteen: Evaluation of the Session
- Week Fourteen: Planning for the Fall

Parents & Children
 Cycle 2
 MAKING TOYS AND OTHER MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

This session will focus on toys and materials: how to make them from things that are already around the house or easy to obtain; how the same basic idea can be applied for children of different ages and developmental levels, how children learn through play. The list below is not complete. Suggestions from parents are welcome and can be fit in as well as some visits to other neighborhood centers where hand made materials are used.

- Week One: Introduction
- Week Two: Clutch Balls - Physical Development & Touching
- Week Three: Rattles/Sound Cylinders/Wind Chimes - The Sense of Sound
- Week Four: Mobiles - Sense of Sight What you see is what you get
- Week Five: Dressing Doll-Self Confidence I'd rather do it myself
- Week Six: Growth Chart - Self Recognition How tall are you? This tall.
- Week Seven: Building Blocks (cloth, cardboard) Physical Dev./ Eye hand Coordination
- Week Eight: Stringing Beads/Sewing Cards Nesting Toys
- Week Nine: Match Games & Sorting Perceiving likeness and difference
- Week Ten: Books Language, the basis of communication
- Week Eleven: Growing things and recycling Reality & Nature
- Week Twelve: Doll House/Hand Puppets/Dolls Fantasy Play
- Week Thirteen: Evaluation
- Week Fourteen: Planning for next cycle

Parents & Children
Cycle 2
Media and Children
5/19/75

INTRODUCTION

This session will go into detail about how to use video equipment and how to develop a critical eye in viewing television. A videotape will be produced by participants. One major focus will be the effect of video media as it relates to children and child-related products; another focus will be the taping of parent-child interactions.

Week One: Introduction
Week Two: Video Equipment (P.C. Tape)
Week Three: And How (P.C. Tape)
Week Four: To Use It (P.C. Tape)
Week Five: Media Review (Educ. TV Shows) (P.C. Tape)
Week Six: Media Review (TV Ads)
Week Seven: Media Review (Other TV Shows)
Week Eight: Planning Session for Group Video Project
Week Nine: Group Project
Week Ten: Group Project
Week Eleven: Review Finished Products/P.C. Tapes
Week Twelve: Field Trip to TV Stations
Week Thirteen: Evaluation Session
Week Fourteen: Planning Session

Parents & Children
Cycle 2
ARTS/MUSIC & CHILDREN
5/19/75

INTRODUCTION

This session will go into detail about different forms of art and music and methods of using each with children as a process of expression. Included in this session will be a survey of cultural origins. Local resources will be highlighted.

Week One: College
Week Two: Painting
Week Three: Drawing
Week Four: Pottery/Sculpture
Week Five: Rhythm
Week Six: Pitch/Harmony
Week Seven: Photography
Week Eight: Classical Music/Jazz
Week Nine: Bluegrass and other Ethnic Music
Week Ten: Art Consortium Fieldtrip
Week Eleven: Georgie Gross School
Week Twelve: Art Museum
Week Thirteen: Evaluation
Week Fourteen: Planning for the Fall

APPENDIX FIVE

PARENT EVALUATION OF PROGRAM FORM

This appendix is a sample of the form utilized for parents to evaluate individual sessions in the OTR implementation.

Parents & Children
First Cycle: Evaluation of Program

Introduction: Your answers to the following questions will help us continue adjusting the programs at Parents & Children to match your needs. Please answer each question carefully. Your answers will remain anonymous.

1. Why do you come to Parents & Children?
Please circle one answer.
 - A. To get out of the house
 - B. Because the staff is warm and friendly
 - C. To talk and relax with other parents
 - D. Because I am learning about children
 - E. Because my child seems to be getting a lot out of it
 - F. Other
Please explain _____

2. What have you gotten out of coming to Parents & Children? _____

3. In the Educational part, do you like what goes on in:
(Please circle one answer)

A. The Infant Area	Yes	No
B. The Conversation Area	Yes	No
C. The Presentation Area	Yes	No
D. The Participation Area	Yes	No

If you answer no to anything, please explain.

4. Have you noticed any changes in your child since coming here?
Yes No

5. I have noticed that since coming here, my child:
- A. Talks more
 - B. Gets along better with other children
 - C. Picks up his things at home
 - D. Is easier to control
 - E. Other (please explain) _____
-
6. Do you use On-Call for transportation to or from the Center.
Yes No
7. How would you rate the On-Call? Good Fair Poor
8. How would you rate the lunches at Parents & Children?
Good Fair Poor
9. The food is:
- A. Very good
 - B. OK
 - C. OK for me but not for my child
 - D. OK for my child but not for me
 - E. Hard to chew with my teeth
 - F. Other (please explain) _____
-
10. Do you come on Thursdays? Yes No
- 11.. Why? _____
-
12. What would you most like to do on Thursdays? _____
-
13. Would you like to take some field trips? Yes No
Where? _____
-

