AN ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECT OF A SHORT-TERM PARENT-EDUCATION PROGRAM UPON PARENTAL KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDES TOWARD CHILD DEVELOPMENT, LEARNING, AND BEHAVIOR

DISSERTATION

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By

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The purposes of this study were to determine the effect of a short-term parent-education program and to investigate the relationship between parents' knowledge of child development and parents' attitudes toward parent-child relationships. The basic problem under consideration was to assay whether the level of parental knowledge of child development principles makes a difference in the attitudes of the parent in the relationship.

The subjects of this study were twenty-eight parents of young children, living within two suburban communities of Dallas County, Texas. A parent information sheet identified the age span of the group to be between eighteen and thirty-five years of age. Forty-two percent of the group were college graduates; no parent in the group had less than a high school education.

The subjects participating in the program comprised three groups under the direction of three separate trainers, as it was assumed that small-group interaction would be more effective than large-group participation.
To determine the effectiveness of the program, the Parental Attitude Research Instrument and an objective test of knowledge of child development were administered as a pretest and posttest to the group of parents established as the experimental group. These instruments were also administered to a group of sixteen parents from within the same communities who served as the control group for the study.

The program designed for the study consisted of eight lessons devoted to the following topical areas of child development: (1) an overview of child-development principles, (2) heredity and environment, (3) physical and motor development, (4) cognitive development, (5) self-concept, (6) emotional development, (7) social development, and (8) personality development. The course, developed to extend over an eight-week period of time, utilized each topic as a separate week's study.

Three main hypotheses were investigated in an effort to gain information relative to the effect of a short-term parent-education program, and to the relationship between the program and its effect upon the attitudes of parents who participated in the program. The .05 level of significance was established as the basis upon which the research hypotheses would be accepted.

Hypothesis I predicted that subjects participating in the training sessions would exhibit a significant gain in
knowledge of child development. An analysis of covariance determined the gain to be significant at the .01 level.

Hypothesis II stated that a significant relationship would exist between the subjects' knowledge of the defined principles of child development and the subjects' attitudes toward parent-child interactions. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of the scores of experimental group and control group on the PARI and the cognitive test revealed a negative correlation of -0.1363. Thus, the second hypothesis that a significant relationship would exist had to be rejected.

Hypothesis III projected that a significant difference would exist between the posttest attitudes of the participants of the experimental group and those of the control group. Analysis of covariance was used to determine the significance of the scores on the PARI between the experimental group and the control group. In combining the twenty-three subtests' scores into one score for each group, it must be reported that the test showed no significant differences between the posttest attitudes of the two groups; hence the third research hypothesis must be rejected. However, analysis of covariance between the experimental and control groups on each of the twenty-three subscales revealed a significant difference in attitudes between the two groups on eleven of the twenty-three scales.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Studies repeatedly show that the home is the most significant single influence on the intellectual and emotional development of the child, particularly in the preschool years. The educational function of the family, while perhaps not as encompassing as in previous generations, is still an important element. Parents must be responsible for the basic development of the child in emotional, social, and personal matters; yet parents seldom have adequate training and experience to manage their roles efficiently. Many parents have become increasingly aware of the need for assistance or added information in child-rearing practices. Dreikurs (6) states that we do not know what to do with our children, because the traditional methods of child-rearing no longer work and we have not learned new methods which can take their place. He later declares, "The strongest evidence of a universal parental failure is our concern with parent education. If parents knew what to do with kids, they would not need books, lectures, study groups and classes" (8, p. 320).

A new tradition in child-rearing seems to be needed, one that will not only fulfill the need for children to learn
how to manage their own affairs and participate in the democratic processes, but that will also help families deal more effectively with the social evolution going on around them. Basic to this tenet is a commitment to help parents understand children, thus providing one means by which parents can interact more effectively with children.

In contrast to the traditional belief that parenting is a matter of instinct and not of learning, parents need a set of problem-solving and growth-nurturing concepts and skills that will decrease their general uneasiness and ineffectiveness in dealing with their children (16).

Lehmann (14, p. 2) believes that young parents should be reached through weekly discussion groups led by someone knowledgeable about child-rearing and child development.

Although parenthood is the most common profession of adulthood, it is the profession for which our society has provided the least amount of training (15, 17). This study purports to investigate the feasibility of a short-term parent-education program as a method to aid parents in improving parenting skills.

Statement of the Problem

Does the level of parental knowledge of the principles of child development make a difference in the attitudes of the parent toward parent-child relationships?
Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study were twofold: (1) to ascertain the effect of a short-term parent-education program based on the developmental approach to human learning and behavior upon parental knowledge of, and attitudes toward child development, learning, and behavior, and (2) to investigate the relationship between knowledge of child development and attitudes toward parent-child relationships.

Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were tested:

1. A significant difference will exist between the adjusted posttest mean scores concerning knowledge of child development, learning, and behavior of the experimental group and those of the control group.

2. A significant relationship will exist between the subjects' knowledge of the defined principles of child development and the subjects' attitudes toward parent-child interactions.

3. A significant difference will exist between the adjusted posttest attitudinal scores of the participants of the experimental group and those of the control group.

Background and Significance

From the beginning of life, what children learn is grounded in what parents teach. The parent is the
transmitter of culture: the instructor and model for a vast range of attitudes, behavior, values and ideas (7, p. 6). It is apparent that the rearing of children is a major challenge. Being a parent has long-lasting consequences for the development of each child and his basic attitudes about himself and others (5). Yet, parenthood, the most common profession of adults, is also the profession for which society provides the least basic training (15, 17).

Although Auerbach (2) reflects that parents have been concerned in one way or another about the responsibilities of rearing their children since the beginning of human society, Brim (3, p. 9) affirms that over the past sixty-five years America has witnessed an ever increasing interest in efforts designed to develop in parents a greater competence in the task of rearing their children.

The development of the broad social movement to educate the American parent in child-rearing had two fundamental causes: first, a breakdown of cultural tradition in child-rearing practices; and second, a growing belief on the part of many persons that there existed better ways of rearing children than those prescribed by tradition (3).

Parents have become involved with an increasing number of complex problems; yet they have been forced to
meet these problems with little preparation for the challenging task of being an effective parent (5).

The rationale for education for parenthood and child-rearing is based on the belief that the more parents know about child development, about the effect of interaction between parent and child, about their own goals and desires, their own emotional responses and the influence of the environment or the family, the more adequately they will be prepared to cope with their family situation (2, 11, 14).

Today's parents are deluged with advice from many sources on how to raise their children. Most of this is in the form of prescriptions--what to do or not to do when the child behaves in a certain way in a given circumstance--but little information is given to parents on how to understand children (7, p. 8).

It has been hypothesized that an understanding of child development powerfully influences the parent's interpretation of the child's behavior; that knowledge of child development equips the parent with a new set of concepts or labels to describe or classify the child's behavior (2). McIntire (15) reports that, generally, child-abusing parents are ignorant of proper child-rearing practices, and urges an objective study of child-rearing principles to insure that parents and
potential parents would, at least, be familiar with these principles.

Virtually all of the recent and currently funded studies of parent education have utilized low-income parents and children as subjects. Early childhood educators have become increasingly aware that help given to the parents of these young children contributes to increasing the learning potential of the disadvantaged child (1, 11, 13, 19).

Child development authorities are also aware that there is a need to involve parents at all socio-economic levels in programs concerning children (6). Based on the belief that parents are key figures in development of the child, parent education is offered as "primary prevention" in hopes of avoiding emotional and social maladjustment in children (2). By helping parents respond more effectively to the various needs of their children, parents can increase their ability to provide an environment which encourages growth (11, 12).

Wittes and Radin's study (19) reveals that participation in a parent-education program can produce significant changes in child-rearing attitudes and practices. Learning about the experiences of other parents with their children gives parents a wider knowledge and a new perspective from which to view their own children and themselves. In
assessing the value of discussion groups for parents, Klein and Ross (10) report that parents credited the discussion groups with helping them to understand and accept their own feelings and concerns, and in providing a sense of fellowship with others going through the same experiences. Atkins' evaluation report (1) affirms that mothers who are active in parent programs showed improved attitudes towards children's education.

Unfortunately, many of the studies undertaken in parent education are not satisfactory from the standpoint of design and analysis. Pickarts (16) acknowledges the very real difficulties that all parent educators face in determining the effects of their program, and she agrees with Brim's assessment (3) that evaluation remains the most difficult problem in the field.

Although some type of assessment of parents' attitudes and behavior is often included, such assessment is frequently subjective or non-systemic and often does not include comparisons with a control group (13, 20).

Brim (3) lists several fundamental requirements which determine whether an evaluation study is adequate and its results admissible as evidence of effectiveness:

1. Use of control group design.

2. Commonality of subjects within experimental and control groups.
3. Sufficient number of subjects studied to conclude that results found are valid.

4. Objective, standardized measure of information gain or change of attitude.

This study purports to provide an objective assessment of the impact of a particular parent-education-program approach upon the attitudes of parents.

Definitions

**Early childhood.**—Infancy through seven years of age.

**Attitudes.**—An organized predisposition to think, feel, perceive, and behave toward a referent or cognitive object.

**Trainers.**—Experienced early childhood teachers, trained in the North Texas State University Early Childhood Education program, who will act as group leaders for experimental groups.

Limitation

This study was limited to include those parents of young children within the North Texas area. The study was further limited to include trainers who are early childhood teachers within this particular location.

Basic Assumption

It was assumed that the subjects responded honestly to the instruments used to measure knowledge and attitudes.
There was no reason to presume that other parents or trainers would differ in significant ways from those included in this study.

Instrumentation

To evaluate the subjects' knowledge of child growth and development, a written objective test was devised from the following sources:


Content validity was established by a four-member panel of established authorities in the field of child development and early childhood education. Reliability was determined by the test-retest method, employing a two-week interval as the optimal time interval to minimize the effects of memory, and the effects of other intervening variables.

The Parental Attitude Research Instrument, developed by Earl S. Schaefer and Richard Q. Bell (18, 21), was used
as a measurement of attitudes of subjects concerning parent-child relationships.

Procedures for Implementation of the Study

Subjects

The population for this study was defined as suburban residents of small cities located in Dallas County, Texas. Announcements of the program were issued in three elementary schools and the surrounding neighborhoods. Interested persons responded by contacting the school or the trainer of the program. The basic criteria for subjects was that of being a parent of a child through the age of seven. No attempt was made to define socio-economic or ethnic characteristics; however, a parent-information sheet identified education-level of parent, sex, age, number of children and their ages and sex, descriptors of parent's childhood family.

Trainers

Trainers were three state-certified, experienced, kindergarten teachers with Master of Education degrees in Early Childhood Education from North Texas State University. Each trainer attended a four-hour in-service training session prior to working with a group of parents.

Experimental Design

The basic research design to be employed in this study was a quasi-experimental Non-Equivalent Control Group Design.
(4, pp. 47-50), utilizing three experimental groups of eight to twelve parents to whom only pretest and posttest of the Parent Attitudinal Research Instrument and the Test of Child Development Principles were administered. The statistical procedure used to determine acceptance or rejection of the first and the third stated research hypotheses was analysis of covariance. The Pearson product-moment coefficient of correlation to determine the extent of relationship between knowledge and attitude was utilized for hypothesis two.

Program

The program used with the experimental groups was developed under the immediate supervision of Dr. Velma Schmidt, director of Early Childhood Education, North Texas State University. This program, arranged into eight two-hour sessions was developed using the following topics: Principles of Child Development, Influences of Heredity and Environment, Physical Growth and Motor Development, Role of Self-Concept, Cognitive Development, Emotional Development, Social Development, and Development of Personality.

Each session followed a basic format, or procedure, and yet allowed for a variety of experiences to facilitate learning. Identical lesson plans for each group included the following topics:
1. **Goals** for that session.

2. **Concepts** to be explored, using illustrations and examples of real life interactions, current research information, role-playing, and group interaction and discussions.

3. **Problems** related to concept, utilizing small-group discussion, consideration of alternative causes and solutions, and individual needs and concerns of group members.

4. **Suggestions** for the trainer including questions for discussion, ideas for presentation of concepts, materials, suggestions for development of group interaction, and a bibliography or guide sheets to be shared with parents.

**Procedures for Collecting Data**

1. Prior to the first parent session, trainers completed four hours of in-service training.

2. During the first meeting of the experimental groups, parents completed the attitudinal survey and objective test of knowledge of child development.

3. On approximately the same date, parents of the control group completed the same forms.

4. Trainers recorded observations of the sessions.

5. Trainers met with the experimenter for additional discussion and in-service after each session.
6. Within two weeks after completing session eight, the parents of the experimental group completed the objective test of knowledge of child development, and the Parent Attitude Research Instrument.

7. Instruments were administered to parents of the control group within the same time period.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In a loose sense it is clear that activities which might be termed parent education are as old as human culture. Many of the classics from Plato's Republic to Rousseau's Emile give considerable attention to the duties of parents. Justly so, for the child-rearing function ascribed to the parent is fundamental to survival of society, and therefore, like society's economic system, religion, and politics, receives the attention of critical commentators upon the social order in every historical period (7).

Advice on child-rearing practice appeared in public journals in the early 1800's in the United States. Most of the advice given in these publications, however, dealt with physical aspects of growth and health care (24).

One of the first recorded group meetings of parents began in 1815, in Portland, Maine. Bridgman (6) reports this and other similar meetings, which he refers to as maternal associations, as occurring up to 1822.

According to Sundley (33), the American public showed a markedly increasing interest in the importance of children and in child-rearing problems between 1850 and 1860.
He suggests these reasons for concern:

an increasing emphasis on the child as the extension of parental ambitions and as the representative of the parents' status in society; a growing belief in man's power to control the environment and direct the future, including the molding of the child; a new need for personal direction, as established patterns of living and child rearing were being disrupted in the rapid shift to industrialization and urbanization (3, p. 151).

Beginning with the decade 1880, various organizations with important parent-education programs were established. The Child Study Association of America was founded in 1888, when a small group of mothers in New York City joined together for the purpose of determining how they could become better parents. This is the oldest organization in the United States having a continuous parent-education program, and is the only national agency exclusively devoted to parent education (2).

During the period of 1890 to 1900, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers was organized. Originally organized as the Congress of Mothers, the statement of purpose included the education of parents in child development (9).

A major development in parent education occurred in the early 1900's with the emergence of federal support of parent education. Four key federal programs are noteworthy of citation:

1. The first White House Conference on Child Welfare in 1909, resulting in the creation of the Children's
Bureau in 1912, and the publication of the first edition of *Infant Care* in 1914.

2. The Smith-Lever Act of 1914, which provided for County Home Demonstration Agents to develop projects in home management and child care.

3. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, which led to the development of classes, institutes, and demonstrations for the teaching of nutrition and child care. This program was administered by the Office of Education.

4. The United States Public Health Service in 1918, which began support of programs of parent education with special emphasis on the health of the child.

The substantial growth of parent education during the 1920's is best indicated by the survey reported in *The Twenty-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education: Preschool and Parental Education* (27), which includes seventy-five major organizations in the late 1920's conducting parent-education programs. An account of the parent-education movement reports that "parents began to realize that the traditional methods of rearing children were not proving adequate for the complicated economic and social conditions of today, that being a physical parent did not necessarily endow one with the special ability or fitness to understand and rear children" (27, p. 275).
Growth and maintenance of parent-education activities were greatly enhanced by the financial support offered by the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, established in 1918. In 1928 the Memorial was terminated, and some of the funds were used to create the Spelman Fund, which listed child study and parent education as major objectives until the termination of the fund in 1938.

Expansion of program activities during the decade between 1931 and 1940 continued, as evidenced by the fact that in 1935, the U.S. Office of Education's list of agencies, public and private, with programs in the parent-education field covered fifty-three pages (22). Although much of the growth came from the activities of the Works Progress Administration during the depression years, training programs for parent education also continued to develop. Bossard (5) notes that by 1932 courses in parent education were offered in one or more colleges and universities in at least twenty-five states.

During this decade important developments in professional research were stimulated and supported primarily by two organizations:

1. Child Welfare Research Station of the State University of Iowa conducted a series of studies under the leadership of Ralph Ojemann. This series included research on the validity of information given to parents, the effectiveness...
of parent-education programs, and the comparative success of different methods such as lectures versus group discussions.

2. The National Council of Parent Education published a professional journal, Parent Education, for five years from 1934 to 1938, which included articles concerning research and theoretical issues written in a format to encourage use of the information as program material and as a basis for discussion groups (7, 25, 26, 27, 34).

A working relationship between mental health groups and parent-education groups had been established in the early 1930's (25), but the mid-1940s' post-war era brought this into sharp focus. The National Mental Health Act of 1946 provided each state with federal funds to operate community mental health programs, which often included parent education (23). An example of an approach to parent education by mental health agencies is that of the Louisiana Society for Mental Health, which prepared and distributed "Pierre the Pelican," an educational pamphlet series on infant growth and development, to all new parents in the state (30).

The growth of parent education since 1950 has, without doubt, been aided by substantial sums of money available for work in the area of mental health. The shift of emphasis in mental health, as in other areas of human concern, has been from treatment to prevention. Parent education, primarily a
preventive technique, has grown in recognition with this shift of emphasis.

Since prevention carries with it a connotation of action, parent education is actually intervention to help parents function more effectively in their new role. It introduces new educational experiences that will give parents added knowledge and understanding, cause them to question their habitual ways of thinking, feeling, and acting, and help them develop new methods (where new methods are indicated) of dealing with their children, with themselves, and with their social environment. Thus, educational intervention can often be a step toward a more effective way of life (2, p. 3).

The 1960's began as an era aware of its social sins of neglect. "The conscience of America as a nation was in the process of painful exposure through a bombardment of facts concerning the shocking existence of the millions of its citizens who were locked into lives of hopelessness and despair" (1, p. 2). In this social and political climate, President Johnson, on August 21, 1965, proclaimed the nation's commitment to the goal that "no American child shall be condemned to failure by accident of his birth" (20).

Concurrent with the nation's commitment to alleviate poverty were the publication of major works of J. McVicker Hunt (19), Jerome Bruner (8), and Benjamin Bloom (4), all pointing in the direction of the importance of environment and early years for learning.
In the last half of the 1960's, there emerged an unparalleled institutional upheaval in regard to early childhood education. In the ensuing confusion, two basic criteria for assessing appropriateness of the programs surfaced: (1) concern for the whole child, and (2) parent education and involvement (14). In brief, attention was focused on the critical social issue of the relative responsibilities of the parent and of society and its institutions for the education of the child.

The most dramatic attempt toward defining this issue was the Congressional creation of the Head Start Program in 1964 (29). Two requirements were legislated as mandatory for all Head Start programs: (1) a comprehensive program of health, nutrition, education, social, and community services, and (2) mandatory parent involvement at all levels of program development and participation (29).

Increasing awareness of the role of the parent in the child's education emerged from child-development research. Hess (18) summarized some of the significant findings from a study of the cognitive environment of urban preschool children, and determined that the mother's teaching behavior, her language and degree of affection, the experiences she provides, and the model she sets for the child are all important influences in predicting later school achievement.

A study sponsored by Educational Testing Services to determine the effects of "Sesame Street" on three- to
five-year-old disadvantaged children found that the children who watched the show and learned the most were those whose mothers watched with them and discussed the program with them. This finding cut across all socio-economic levels (10).

With the realization that a child's first and most effective teachers are his parents, numerous home teaching programs and parent-education models have been developed; however, virtually all of the recent and currently funded studies of parent education have centered around the low-income family, as it becomes increasingly evident that help given to parents of preschool children contributes greatly to increasing the learning potential of the disadvantaged child (11, 16, 21, 31).

Representative of the home-learning programs developed are the following:

1. The Demonstration and Research Center for Early Education, George Peabody College for Teachers in Nashville, Tennessee, under the direction of Susan Gray and Rupert Klaus (13).


3. Perry Preschool Project, Ypsilanti, Michigan, guided by David Weikart (35).

Gray's enumeration of the goals of the Peabody program (13) in effect summarized the efforts of all of the three
programs mentioned: (1) to enable parents to become a more effective educational change agent with the child, (2) to focus on the parent rather than the child, (3) to use suggestions that are highly concrete, not just verbal, and (4) to help provide more options for parents in their ways of interacting with their children.

The Florida model (11) works with mothers in the home environment. The program recruits parent educators from environments similar to those of mothers whom they will aid in learning to provide stimulation necessary for growth and development of their children. Gordon (11) reports that testing at the end of the first and the second year reveals that children whose mothers had been involved in the program were superior to control children on The Griffiths Mental Development Scales, and on the teaching materials designed for the project.

Wittes and Radin's report (35) of group work with parents in the Perry Preschool Project revealed that participation in a parent-education program did produce significant changes in child-rearing attitudes and practices. The experimental mothers showed a significant increase in behavior identified as nurturant of cognitive growth in children.

These programs, and other similar home-intervention parent programs, "... have been based upon these global
assumptions: (1) that, at least in early childhood, what parents did influenced the development of children, (2) low-income parents lacked knowledge or skill in teaching, and (3) one could intervene in the home to change parents' behavior and therefore improve the development and achievement of children" (12).

Schaefer (31) maintains that the greater long-term effectiveness of parent-centered programs as contrasted to child-centered programs has major implications for the future of the education profession, and for all who relate to parents and children. According to Schaefer, the education profession can best serve the child and his family by training and encouraging parents to be better able to care for and educate their children. In an effort to fulfill this obligation, Schaefer has developed his UR-education model from accumulated data on parent behavior and child development (3, 31). The four stages of the model follow:

1. The first stage is the development by the parent of a positive relationship to the child.

\[
\text{parent } + \text{ child} \rightarrow \text{ parent } + \text{ child}
\]

2. In the second stage the child responds with the development of a positive relationship to the parent.

\[
\text{parent } + \text{ child} \leftarrow \text{ parent } + \text{ child}
\]

3. During the third stage the parent and child share an activity or work with an object in the course of which
the relationship is strengthened, and the child learns language skills and interests.

4. The fourth stage indicates that from these experiences the child develops the potential to function independently and in a group situation.

The UR-education model might describe either parent and child, or educator and student. However, the major influence of the family as contrasted to the school upon the child's intellectual and academic development led to an analysis of characteristics of family care and education that might be compared to professional care and education of the child (31, p. 5).

A vast amount of time, money, and effort is annually expended in an effort to teach men and women to become better parents, but few have attempted to evaluate the effectiveness of the instructional methods employed. Do parents actually change their attitudes and behaviors toward their children after listening to lectures, viewing educational films, or participating in group discussions? Hereford's study (15) was designed to test the hypothesis that parents will change their attitudes and behavior if they meet informally with groups of other parents to discuss their problems, and that the children of these parents will also show change. The project, carried out in Austin, Texas, over a four-year period, was planned to evaluate effectiveness, economic feasibility, practicality, and community acceptance. A summary of findings reveals the following data:
1. Parents who attended the discussion group series did show significantly greater positive changes in their attitudes than those of parents in control groups.

2. Children of parents who attended the discussion meetings improved significantly in their classmate relationships, but not in their ratings by teachers.

3. The individual group leader did not prove to be a factor, thereby suggesting that the discussion method *per se*, not the leader, is the crucial element involved.

Hereford avers that for a parent-educational program to be effective it must meet several criteria:

1. The method must provide for participation by the parent.

2. The method must be realistic and practical within the reasonable limitations of our typical society.

3. The method must be economical and must get results in a relatively brief period, for the longer the time, the greater the cost.

4. The method must be acceptable and interesting to parents.

5. The method must be testable by evaluative research so that its effectiveness can be determined.

According to Hereford, the method which seems to meet these standards best is that of the discussion group. It affords a maximum of participation and personal involvement.
as stipulated in the first criterion, and also can be modified and organized in such a way as to satisfy the other criteria.

Pickarts (28) affirms that if a primary long-range goal of parent education is to be to make the parent role-conscious and autonomous, the method that provides the greatest potential for achieving this goal is the discussion group, for it allows for the kind of guided interaction that nurtures learning.

Pickarts, in discussing the methodology of the Parent Education Program of the Adult Education Division of the Los Angeles City School District (28), also stresses the need for parents to know from the start that the program will not provide prescriptions for action, pat answers to all problems, or decisions made for the parent. Thus, when the enhancement of problem-solving skills, rather than advice or rules to follow, is valued as a program goal, the process most likely to be effective is the group discussion. As the program develops into discussion of the current concerns and immediate interests of parents, they become engaged in parental role assessment, and grow in their own awareness of the many possibilities for experiences specific to their parental tasks (28).

Auerbach (2) lists the common basic purposes of parent-group education:

to help parents become more familiar with basic concepts of child growth and development and
parent-child family interaction from a dynamic point of view; to recognize some of the crisis points in different stages of the normal family cycle; to clarify the parents' own role and those of their children, within the family and the community; and to enlarge their understanding of the complexities of their everyday situations so that they will have a wider background against which to make choices (2, p. 4).

Auerbach asserts that "in the experience of the Child Study Association, the type of group education that comes closest to achieving these goals is the small continuous discussion group made up of approximately fifteen members who meet together for a series of eight to twelve weekly sessions under skilled leadership" (2, p. 5).

In 1963, the Child Study Association of America and the Family Service Association received support from the National Institute of Mental Health to carry on an exploratory project in parent group education. The Child Study Association developed a program of training in leadership of parent discussion groups for case workers of agencies of the Family Service Association of America within a 1000-mile radius of New York City. In connection with the training program, the caseworkers conducted parent-education groups offered to people in the community not previously served by the agency in this role. The long-term goal of this project was "to extend the quantity and improve the quality of group educational programs for parents offered by Family Service agencies, in the interest of sustaining and strengthening the mental and emotional health of
parents and children" (2). The 1963 training program was repeated in 1964-65, and was followed by a year devoted to a study of the findings. Thirty-seven case workers, representing agencies from twenty-one states, received training.

The year-long evaluative study had three purposes:

1. To explore the effect of the training program on the trainees.

2. To study changes in the parents who attended groups led by the trainers.

3. To investigate the impact of the program on the family agencies themselves.

The findings concerning the effect of the program on the trainees indicated that the demonstration program was successful in terms of its stated goals. It was found that the trainees who had the highest final rating, both by agency supervisors and in their own self-ratings, tended to have changed the least during the training process.

In assessing the effect of the group discussion experience on parent members, it is pertinent to look at the population of the study: more than 1600 parents took part in the groups studied, 83 per cent of whom had never had any experience in a parent-education group. Approximately 1100 had never availed themselves of any services offered by either a family agency or a mental health agency. Between 400 and 500 parents fell into the category of "low-income."
Data gathered from these parents suggest the following conclusions:

1. Parents felt the experience was more than moderately helpful in increasing their knowledge about, attitude toward, and behavior related to parent-child relations, and also to their own understanding of self.

2. The parents were more positive in their reaction to the experience than the trainers had thought they were.

3. Most improvement was experienced in relation to new knowledge, and least in relation to new behavior.

4. All the low-income groups evidenced greater change on all variables than the total sample of the study.

Information on the impact of the program on the agencies confirmed that the program had enabled the agencies to reach new groups of clients and had helped to provide needed preventive services on a wider basis.

In summary, although parents have been concerned in one way or another about the responsibilities of rearing their children since the beginning of human society, planned, organized efforts to assist parents in their tasks had its origins in the United States in the nineteenth century. Recognition that experiences prior to formal schooling are of great importance in forming lifelong favorable attitudes toward learning, and in establishing feelings of competence, has resulted in an all-out effort to develop parental programs for low-income and culturally different families.
Cognitive development of children has attracted much research attention, and the role of the parent in contributing to the growth of the child's intellectual skills has been emphasized. Parent group education is only one form of parent education; however, it is the consensus of the literature reviewed in this study that it is a feasible methodology of working effectively with parents.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


35. Wittes, Glorianne and Norma Radin, Two Approaches to Group Work with Parents in a Compensatory Preschool Program, Ypsilanti, Michigan, Ypsilanti Public Schools, 1969. (ED 035 056)
CHAPTER III
ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of knowledge of child development upon the attitude of parents. Comparison of subjects within the study was not of prime intent; however, it was determined that utilizing three small groups of parents rather than one large group would be effective in stimulating group interaction (1) and in providing additional data concerning possible variables due to trainer effects and to group interactions.

Basic Design of the Experiment

The basic experimental design employed was a quasi-experimental Non-Equivalent Control Group Design (2, p. 47). Three groups of parents participated in the eight-week program, and two groups of parents acted as control groups, to whom only the pretests and posttests were administered.

Subjects

The subjects for this study were twenty-eight parents of young children living within two suburban cities of Dallas County. Permission was granted from the two local school administrations to make announcements in three elementary schools located within the two districts concerning the formation of the parent study groups. The basic criterion
for participation was that of being a parent of a child seven years of age or younger. Interested parents responded by contacting the school or one of the three trainers. Parents were informed that the program would include eight two-hour sessions, and that babysitting would be provided if needed. Parents who volunteered for the control group were asked to complete the tests and parent information sheet as a part of a study being conducted by an area university. They were informed that at a later date they would be asked to complete a second form. Nine of the control group were from the same suburban population as Experimental Groups I and II. Seven were from the same district as Experimental Group III.

Each of the three elementary school districts would be described as middle class and upper middle class. Although no effort was made to determine the socio-economic level of the parents, a parent information sheet did require the subject to define his educational level. Table I displays the educational levels characterized by age groups of the parents.
TABLE I
EDUCATIONAL LEVELS OF PARENTS AS IDENTIFIED BY AGE GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Junior High School</th>
<th>High School</th>
<th>Attended College</th>
<th>College Graduate</th>
<th>Graduate School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C* E**</td>
<td>C E</td>
<td>C E</td>
<td>C E</td>
<td>C E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-30</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 4</td>
<td>4 5</td>
<td>2 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-35</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 2</td>
<td>6 2</td>
<td>4 1</td>
<td>3 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*C = Control Group.

**E = Experimental Group

The educational level of parents was also charted within the three experimental groups and the control group. Table II reveals the information as tabulated.

TABLE II
PARENTAL EDUCATIONAL LEVELS AS IDENTIFIED BY GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Experimental Group I</th>
<th>Experimental Group II</th>
<th>Experimental Group III</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior High School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended College</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Graduate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Parent Information Sheet also asked for the age levels of subjects. Table III exhibits these levels within the three experimental groups and the control group.

TABLE III
PARENTAL AGE LEVELS WITHIN GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Level</th>
<th>Experimental Group I</th>
<th>Experimental Group II</th>
<th>Experimental Group III</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dreikurs (3) advises that parents generally attempt to rear their children as they were reared. As an insight to the background of the subjects, the Parent Information Sheet included the statement, "Choose two of the following words that best describe the family in which you were reared." Table IV represents the responses to this question.
TABLE IV

DESCRIPTORS OF FAMILY ENVIRONMENT OF PARENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptors</th>
<th>Experimental Group I</th>
<th>Experimental Group II</th>
<th>Experimental Group III</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strict</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loving</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearful</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insecure</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncaring</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninterested</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Parents were also asked to list their children by age and sex. Table V identifies this information within each of the groups.

TABLE V

IDENTIFICATION OF SEX AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN BY PARENTAL GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Experimental Group I</th>
<th>Experimental Group II</th>
<th>Experimental Group III</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-Older</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Trainers

To minimize the possible effects of the trainer, selection was contingent upon the following criteria:
1. Each should be a master's-level graduate of the North Texas State University program in Early Childhood Education.

2. Each should have a minimum of four years teaching experience in the primary grades or the kindergarten.

3. Each should be within the ages of 30-39.

4. Each should be a parent.

Table VI indicates the characteristics of the three selected trainers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE VI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHARACTERISTICS OF TRAINERS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Trainer I</th>
<th>Trainer II</th>
<th>Trainer III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masters' graduate of NTSU</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Early Childhood Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of years teaching experience</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of trainer</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Prior to the organization of parent groups, trainers met for a four-hour work session to discuss the format of the program, plans and purposes of the sessions, record keeping, and effective techniques of small group discussions. Throughout the eight-week program trainers met weekly with the experimenter to discuss the reactions and the results
of the previous session, and to finalize plans for the coming session.

Program

The program used in this study was developed in eight units, including a broad overview of child development and seven specific areas of development: heredity and environment, physical and motor, cognitive, self-concept, emotional, social, and personality development. Each of the source books listed in Chapter I was outlined, and a matrix was designed to condense the material of each author within the appropriate units. Lesson plans were developed in a continuous sequence, and written in a detailed outline form, as it was ascertained feasible to include a wide range of material from which each trainer could more adequately meet the needs and interests of the group. (See Appendix D.)

The first lesson included purposes for studying how children grow and develop. General principles of developmental stages and of individual differences were introduced.

The second session topic concerned the influences of heredity and environment. Factors of physical characteristics, intelligence, nutrition, family size, cultural influences, and sex differences were discussed in relationship to inherited and environmental influences.

Session Three was dedicated to the physical development of children. Patterns of sequential growth and of individual
differences were examined in stages of pre-natal, infancy, and early childhood.

Assuming the position that self-concept is basic to a child's development, the fourth lesson was designed to study self-concept in relation to behavior, family and peer interaction, and educational and social implications. Discussions were planned to explore the development and characteristics of the positive self-concept.

The fifth session, devoted to cognitive development, included an overview of Piaget's stages of intellectual development, and a discussion of the mental processes of perception, problem solving, reasoning, and language formation. Factors related to learning and motivation also reinforced the previous studies of heredity, environment, and self-concept.

Session six dealt with emotional development. Discussions centered around basic fundamental emotional needs and suggestions for meeting those needs.

The seventh session, involving the socialization of the child, emanated from the premise that socialization is the process by which children are helped to become responsible adult members of their society. Socialization was viewed from the influence of family, culture, and peer group identification.

Personality development was the text of the final study session. Personality was determined to include the whole child: his physique, his temperament, the skills he
has mastered, his interests, his hopes and dreams for the future, his appearance, his habits, his intelligence, and his achievements.

Instrumentation

To determine the effect of the program, it was necessary to select an instrument to assess parental attitudes, and an instrument to evaluate the parents' knowledge of child development principles. The Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI), developed by Schaefer and Bell (6), was used to appraise attitudes. (See Appendix C.)

The PARI, developed under the sponsorship of the National Institute of Mental Health, was formulated from hypotheses that theories of parental influence upon development of children, and reviews of research on the relationship of parental attitudes to the personality adjustment of children, suggested the need for the development of a set of homogeneous measures of parental attitudes (6). The authors, influenced by the study of Shoeben (7), utilized a conceptual analysis of the domain of parental attitudes as a basis for developing measures of attitudes. The selection of concepts for development was based on a search of the literature for hypotheses as to which areas would give information relevant to parent-child relationships.
After developing a concept, or formulating a concept from the writings of others, the authors attempted an operational definition by writing items designed to measure that concept. Scales which were developed were then tried out on samples of twenty-five mothers. Items were eliminated if they did not reveal variation in attitudes or did not vary with other items which were used to define the scale. Two or three successive trial forms, each of which utilized the insights derived from previous trial forms, were used in developing an item pool which was then standardized on samples of 100.

Reliabilities were estimated with Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 for the scales included in Trial I and Trial II. Scales from I and II were included in Trial Form III, which was administered to a group of 100 student nurses, highly homogeneous in age, education, and socioeconomic background. Internal consistency reliability coefficients were satisfactory, despite the homogeneity of the sample.

An analysis which estimated the loading of an item on the centroid of the scale in which it is included was performed. The data permitted selection of twenty-three subscales of five items each for the Final Form IV of the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (6).

In Final Form IV, the items are arranged in cyclical order, one item from each of the twenty-three scales in sequence. For example, the scale "Encouraging
Verbalization" is represented by items numbered 1, 24, 47, 70, 93, and the second scale, "Fostering Dependency" is represented by items numbered 2, 25, 48, 71, 94 (6).

Freedheim's investigation (4) of the PARI scales originated as an endeavor to find an instrument that could measure attitudinal change in students who were enrolled in a psychology course which incorporated lectures and discussions with the field experience of working in a nursery school setting. Evaluation of the students' work was made on three levels: (1) student evaluation, (2) evaluation by the trained nursery school teachers in charge, and (3) objective research instruments.

The study attempted to test the validity and usefulness of the PARI scales by administering them to several groups who, though not parents, carried parental responsibility for handling children, and whose approach, behavior, and attitude in regard to children were being critically observed. In reviewing the findings, it is apparent that teachers' quantitative evaluation of the students' progress showed a strong trend of linear correlation with PARI scale results. Though the results were indicative rather than conclusive because of the small sample, it was found that the PARI was sensitive to the attitudes of persons with parental, or quasi-parental responsibilities of young children.
The paucity of childrearing questionnaires which are valid and reliable led Radin and Glasser (5) to formulate a revised version of the PARI scales to be administered to low-income mothers participating in three parent-education programs in Michigan: (1) the Perry Preschool Project, (2) the Oakland County AFDC Project, and (3) the Early Education Program, sponsored by the Ypsilanti Public Schools.

Correlational analyses were used to determine the relationship between the replies and other variables; t-tests were employed to determine the significant differences between prescores and post-scores. A factor analysis was also performed. The major findings were that responses to the instrument correlated significantly with observed maternal behavior, and predicted the child's intellectual growth in preschool. Race affected both the prescores and the change scores. Finally, factor scores proved to be effective in assessing changes in respondent's attitudes (5, p. 448).

The purpose of the PARI in the present study was to assay possible change in attitude of the subjects. No attempt was made to correlate attitudinal change with change in performance; and it was clearly acknowledged that attitudes and behavior are not identical, and do not necessarily change simultaneously. (See Appendix C.)

A search of the literature concerning tests and measurements revealed no adequate instrument to evaluate knowledge of child development. Therefore, an objective test was devised by generating forty-nine items based on the five
sources of the proposed parent-education program: Dinkmeyer; Elind; Mussen, Conger, and Kagan; Smart and Smart; and Read.

This list of questions was distributed to ten graduate students, all parents of young children, for critique. From these reviews, a revised, objective test of forty-two questions was submitted to a jury of four established, experienced child development professionals to determine validity as an instrument to assess knowledge of child development principles. The jury consisted of the following representation: a professor of early childhood education and author of several books on the topic of early childhood; a professor of child development, who also serves as the director of a university nursery school; the state consultant for early childhood education; and a director of a college training program for the child development associate projects.

An individual conference was scheduled with each jury member in which the objectives of the program, the content of the program, and the proposed instrument were investigated. Upon approval and recommendation of each member of the jury, the instrument was revised to include forty objective items. It was administered in small group sessions to twenty-eight parents living within suburban school districts similar to those of the population of the study.
Twenty-four parents completed the retest sessions fourteen to eighteen days later.

It had previously been determined that the level of acceptance for the reliability of the instrument would be .750. Agreement between the pretest and the posttest scores of the twenty-four parents was .761.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

This study dealt with the assessment of the effects of a short-term parent-education program upon parental knowledge and attitudes toward child development. It was hypothesized that parents who participated in a parent-education program would exhibit a significant difference in posttest scores of knowledge of child development than those scores of the control group. It was further hypothesized that a correlation between the knowledge of child development principles and the subjects' attitudes concerning parent-child relationship would reach significance at the .05 level. It was also expected that a significant difference would exist between the attitudes of the parents who participated in the program and the attitudes of those parents in the control group. To ascertain the validity of these predictions, a pretest and a posttest of knowledge of child development principles, and a pretest and posttest using the Parent Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) were employed.

The instrument devised to evaluate the subjects' knowledge of child development had proved reliable between pretest and posttest scores of a sample of parents prior to use in this study. Table VII, a Pearson
Product-Moment Correlation between pretest and posttest knowledge of child development principles of the experimental and control groups, further substantiates this reliability.

### TABLE VII

**PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION BETWEEN PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES ON TEST OF KNOWLEDGE OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT PRINCIPLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td></td>
<td>22.87</td>
<td>22.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>22.86</td>
<td>27.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The high correlation between the pretest and the posttest scores of the control group did reinforce the reliability of the instrument to assay knowledge of child development principles over a time span of eight weeks. The dramatic increase of mean scores of the experimental group versus little change within the control group may also be attributed to the treatment. It may then be assumed that the program was beneficial in increasing knowledge, as the 4.25 gain of the posttest mean was in a positive direction.

An analysis of covariance between the two groups was performed to determine the acceptance or rejection of the first stated hypothesis that a gain of knowledge, significant
at the .05 level, would occur within the experimental group. Table VIII reports these findings.

**TABLE VIII**

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND ADJUSTED POSTTEST MEANS WITH A COVARIANCE F AND PROBABILITY LEVEL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Adjusted Posttest Mean</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>22.87</td>
<td>22.75</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>22.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>22.86</td>
<td>27.11</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>27.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pretest mean scores for the control and the experimental groups revealed that the two groups were well matched on the variables that were measured. Table VIII indicated no gain in the posttest mean scores of the control group, which led to the inference that the 4.25 mean gain of the experimental group was due to the treatment. The adjusted posttest means, taking into consideration the pretest as the covariate, yielded a p of .0025. Thus, the first hypothesis, predicting that participants in the study groups would exhibit a significant gain in knowledge of child development principles, was accepted.

Although the correlation between the total experimental scores was very low, Table IX indicates discrepancies within the three study groups.
TABLE IX
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Pretest</th>
<th>Mean Posttest</th>
<th>SD Pretest</th>
<th>SD Posttest</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group I</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>24.90</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group II</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.56</td>
<td>28.67</td>
<td>5.81</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group III</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23.11</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22.87</td>
<td>22.74</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Experimental Group I followed the overall experimental pattern of increased mean, increased standard deviation, and very low correlation coefficient between pretest and posttest. Group II had an increased mean; however, the pretest standard deviation score indicated a large group variance, which by posttest score had grouped closer around the mean. Speculation is, therefore, that some uncontrolled variable within the time-duration of the study effected a change from a highly diverse grouping to a more homogeneous grouping. This is in contrast to the other two experimental groups and to the control group, all of which digressed from a homogeneous to a more diverse sample. No data collected on the Parent Information Sheet justified this deviation from the overall trend. It may be speculated that
participant interaction, leadership effects, or personality variance of the group did effect change.

Group III experienced a higher correlation coefficient than either of the other two experimental groups. Parent information data revealed that this group responded to descriptors of family environment using only three of the seven descriptors provided: strict, loving, and secure. There seems to be a basis for an assumption that the family environment of these subjects may have affected their responses on both the pretest and posttest.

Hypothesis II had predicted that a significant relationship would exist between the subjects' knowledge of the defined principles of child development and the subjects' attitudes toward parent-child interactions. The study did examine the possibility of a relationship existing as determined by this program for the subjects included within the context of this study. There was no presumption to determine why the relationship between knowledge did, or did not, exist.

On the basis of the low correlation coefficient of the experimental group as revealed in Table X, it must be reported that no significant relationship between levels of parental knowledge of child development and parental attitude toward parent-child interaction was evidenced as measured by the instruments accepted for this study. It
may be projected that although a significant increase in knowledge may occur, there is no assurance of an internalization of knowledge which might elicit a change of attitude.

**TABLE X**

MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATIONS BETWEEN GAIN SCORES FOR THE KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDE VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>Attitude</td>
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<td>Attitude</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>-15.22</td>
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Hypothesis II must be rejected. Based on the data reviewed in Table X, as determined by a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation between knowledge and attitude, a correlation coefficient of -.13 is not significant at the \( p < .05 \) level.

It was stated in Hypothesis III that a significant difference would exist between the posttest attitudes of the participants of the experimental group and the posttest attitudes of the control group. The Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) was the instrument employed to evaluate this hypothesis by means of an analysis of covariance between the two groups. Table XI represents the findings of this statistical procedure.
In combining the twenty-three subtest scores into one score for the experimental group, and one score for the control group, it must be reported that the test showed no significant differences between the posttest attitudes of the two groups. Therefore, Hypothesis III must be rejected as being significant at the $p < .05$ level.

However, analysis of covariance between the experimental group and the control group on each of the twenty-three scales revealed a significant difference of attitudes of the two groups on eleven of the twenty-three scales in favor of the experimental group. Thus, this unusual number of significant differences would tend to indicate significant attitudinal change for the experimental group. Table XII depicts these differences.

Interpretation of the data revealed in Table XII is contingent upon awareness that the construction of the PARI is basically reliant upon statements of attitude contrary to the approved opinion of child-development principles.
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<td>0.01*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For example, "Children need some of the natural meanness taken out of them," and "A mother should make an effort to get her child toilet trained at the earliest possible time." However, to counteract total negative feedback, three scales, "Encouraging Verbalization," "Equalitarianism," and "Comradeship and Sharing," were designed to allow for all persons taking the test to be able to agree with some of the statements. Thus, it may be stated that with the exceptions of Scales 1, 14, and 21, lower posttest scores, rather than higher posttest scores, would generally tend to indicate effectiveness of treatment.

In examining Table XII it becomes apparent that there is an expressed tendency of the posttest means within the experimental group to be reduced. There is no established trend within the control group mean scores. Although no significant relationship can be inferred, a comparison of the mean scores in Table VII and the mean scores of Table XII would establish the fact that the experimental group increased in knowledge, and would legitimatize the assumption that treatment over an eight-week period did affect some change in the attitude as well as the knowledge of the experimental group.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purposes of this study were to determine the effect of a short-term parent-education program, and to investigate the relationship between parents' knowledge of child development and parents' attitudes toward parent-child relationships. The basic problem under consideration was to assay whether the level of parental knowledge of child development principles makes a difference in the attitudes of the parent in parent-child relationships.

The subjects of this study were twenty-eight parents of young children, living within two suburban communities of Dallas County, Texas. A parent information sheet identified the age span of the group to be between eighteen and thirty-five years of age. Forty-two percent of the group were college graduates; no parent in the group had less than a high school education.

The subjects participating in the program comprised three groups under the direction of three separate trainers. No special treatment was given to any one group and comparison of groups was not intended. It was assumed that small group interaction would be more effective, and more easily achieved, than large group participation; therefore, three
groups of no more than twelve people within each group were established. Group I consisted of ten parents who completed the program; Group II and Group III each had nine parents who completed the program.

To determine the effectiveness of the program, the Parental Attitude Research Instrument and an objective test of knowledge of child development were administered as a pretest and posttest to the group of parents established as the experimental group. These instruments were also administered to a group of sixteen parents from within the same communities who served as the control group for the study.

The program designed for the study consisted of eight lessons devoted to the following topical areas of child development: (1) an overview of child-development principles, (2) heredity and environment, (3) physical and motor development, (4) cognitive development, (5) self-concept, (6) emotional development, (7) social development, and (8) personality development. The course, developed to extend over an eight-week period of time, utilized each topic as a separate week's study. Written lesson plans were distributed to the trainers during the pre-session conferences each week. The course was basically discussion-oriented, and it was determined that a weekly pre-session meeting was necessary to insure continuity of materials and ideas presented within the three groups.
In an effort to diminish trainer effects as a variable, criteria were established to insure homogeneity among the three trainers: each was a North Texas State University masters' degree graduate with major field of early childhood education and a minimum of three years of teaching experience; each was within the thirty-to thirty-five-year-old age range; and each was also a parent.

The statistical procedures used to accept or reject the stated hypotheses were analysis of covariance and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation. Three main hypotheses were investigated in an effort to gain information relative to the effect of a short-term parent-education program, and to the relationship between the program and its effect upon the attitudes of parents who participated in the program. The .05 level of significance was established as the basis upon which the research hypotheses would be accepted.

In Hypothesis I it was predicted that subjects participating in the training sessions would exhibit a significant gain in knowledge of child development. Analysis of covariance between the experimental group and the control group determined that the gain of knowledge of the experimental group was significant at the .01 level; therefore, the research hypothesis was accepted.

In Hypothesis II it was stated that a significant relationship would exist between the subjects' knowledge of the defined principles of child development and the subjects'
attitudes toward parent-child interactions. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation of the scores of experimental group and the control group on the PARI and the cognitive test revealed a negative correlation of -0.1363. Thus, the second hypothesis, that a significant relationship would exist had to be rejected.

In Hypothesis III, it was projected that a significant difference would exist between the posttest attitudes of the participants of the experimental group and those of the control group. Analysis of covariance was used to determine the significance of the scores on the PARI between the experimental group and the control group. In combining the twenty-three subtests' scores into one score for each group, it must be reported that the test showed no significant differences between the posttest attitudes of the two groups; hence, the third research hypothesis must be rejected. However, analysis of covariance between the experimental and control groups on each of the twenty-three subscales revealed a significant difference in attitudes between the two groups on eleven of the twenty-three scales.

Four of the scales (6, 8, 15, 23) revealed differences significant at the .01 level. There seems to be no direct relationship between the questions pertaining to scale six, "Fear of Harming the Baby," and scale twenty-three, "Dependency of the Mother," and the program developed for this
study. However, the two other scales significant at the .01 level, "Strictness" and "Approval of Activity," are in direct relationship to concepts discussed throughout the program. Likewise, three other subscales, "Excluding Outside Influences," "Suppression of Aggression," and "Acceleration of Development," are directly related to the content of the parent education program.

Although the four remaining scales which proved significant at the .05 level did not directly correlate with the context of the program, it would be feasible to presume that the influence of the developmental program would affect the responses of the participants.

Conclusions

The factor of a small population of the study is recognized as a limitation to broad generalizations; however, based on the analysis of data of this study, the following conclusions seem tenable:

1. The small group discussion is a successful method of interaction with parents in increasing their knowledge of how children grow and develop.

2. Attitudinal changes may not be equated with cognitive changes. An increase in knowledge does not assure a change in attitude.

3. The educational level of parents may not be the determining factor in the knowledge of the principles of child development.
4. Attitudinal change in this group of parents seemed to be less significant than attitudinal change as recorded in similar studies with less educated, lower socio-economic groups of parents.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based upon a synthesis of readings and research within this study.

1. Study groups similar to the ones utilized in this study could be organized as a parent component to public school kindergarten and early childhood classes. It would seem feasible to organize the classes early in the school year, and evaluate periodically during the year to determine whether gradual attitudinal changes occur.

2. Simple and effective parent attitude scales should be designed to evaluate parent attitude toward child-rearing practices and parent-child relationships.

3. Attitudinal changes are difficult to measure within a time span of a few weeks; therefore, it is recommended that a longitudinal assessment of participants be incorporated as a measurement of lasting effects of any short-term program involving attitudes.
APPENDIX A

PARENT INFORMATION SHEET
PARENT INFORMATION SHEET

1. List ages and sex of your children.

__________________________________________________________________________

2. Check your educational level.
   ___ Junior high school
   ___ High School graduate
   ___ Attended college
   ___ College graduate
   ___ Graduate degree

3. Choose two of the following words that best describe the family in which you were reared.
   ___ strict       ___ uncaring
   ___ loving       ___ secure
   ___ permissive   ___ uninterested
   ___ fearful      ___ insecure

4. Check your age group.
   ___ 18-24
   ___ 25-30
   ___ 31-35
   ___ 36-45
   ___ Over 45
APPENDIX B

TEST OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT PRINCIPLES
TEST OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT PRINCIPLES

1. The process of language development probably begins at
   a. birth.
   b. two months of age.
   c. six months of age.
   d. twelve months of age.

2. The most critical factor in determining an individual's language development is
   a. his natural intelligence.
   b. interaction with adults around him.
   c. his socioeconomic status.

3. The physical proportions of the young child
   a. are unlike those of the adult.
   b. are exactly like those of the adult, only much smaller.
   c. are almost like those of the adult but in terms of developmental stages much less mature.

4. The emergence of creativity in the young child appears to be largely dependent upon
   a. the age of the child.
   b. an abundant number of unsupervised experiences.
   c. an environment and experiences which prevent errors and assures success.
   d. a wide range of experience in a relatively nonjudgmental environment.

5. Studies seem to indicate that the effect of children watching violence on television
   a. tended to relieve pent-up emotions.
   b. seemed to have a calming effect and made children less aggressive.
   c. seemed to arouse fear and make both aggression and violence seem normal ways of dealing with conflict.
   d. both a and b are correct answers.

6. Grade levels based on chronological age tend to
   a. isolate children.
   b. cause parents and teachers to forget that children of the same age may vary widely in growth and development patterns.
   c. help children to better adjust to their peers and provide the best means of grouping children.
7. The primary role of imaginative play for a child is that it
   a. significantly improves social skills.
   b. is the "enabler" in the child's development of creativity.
   c. helps a child to increase his understanding of the world and reality.

8. The motor development of children follows the sequence of
   a. trunk, head region, arms and hands, legs.
   b. head region, trunk, arms and hands, legs.
   c. arms and hands, head region, trunk, legs.

9. Which statement best summarizes a child's need for sleep?
   1. Individual children differ in the amount of sleep they require.
   2. The total amount of sleep required by children diminishes as the child gets older.
   3. Unhealthy children require more sleep than healthy children.

10. The most effective way in which parents can help a child overcome a fear of dogs is to
    a. protect the child from any contact with dogs
    b. show the child other children who are not afraid of dogs.
    c. require the child to approach and pet several dogs.
    d. give the child a young puppy.

11. Check the statement that is true.
    1. Personality is basically inherited.
    2. Personality is mainly influenced by what a child thinks of himself as a person.
    3. Personality changes usually occur at about 12-15 years of age when children "outgrow" many of their earlier traits of timidity, selfishness, and so forth.

Mark the following statements "true" or "false".

12. A child's inherent rate of growth in height, weight, and motor skills is not altered by his environment unless it is very extreme.

13. Games with rules to follow is a good way for the 4-5 year olds to learn to follow directions.

14. By the time they reach school age, children have mastered most of the basic rules of grammar.
15. When a child had done something that he knows is wrong, he should be made to feel guilty.

16. Most children do not learn to tell time with any real understanding until about the second grade.

17. Intelligence test scores at the age of six or seven serve as a highly accurate prediction of the mental growth pattern of an individual.

18. As a child develops during his preschool years, his own speech becomes less effective than before in controlling his actions.

The ages of 4 and 5 years of age.

19. Aggressive behavior in a child is a frequent consequence of

1. failure.
2. poor discipline.
3. frustration.
4. low I. Q.

20. Which of the following is true?

1. Most children, if taught properly, would probably learn to read between 4 and 5 years of age.
2. The ages of 6 - 6½ years is the best age for beginning reading instruction.
3. There is no appropriate age for learning to read since children develop individually at their own rate.

21. A young child that continues to pester his mother after being told that she has a headache and wants to be left alone probably

1. is a spoiled child used to always having his way.
2. is lacking in moral development of caring for others.
3. has not yet developed the ability to understand situations from another person's point of view.

22. Mark the correct statement.

1. Toilet training should be accomplished by the age of two.
2. Toilet training should begin around the age of 10 - 12 months.

3. If left alone, children will toilet train themselves.

4. Toilet training should be delayed until sometime during the second year.

23. Which of the following statements is true?

1. Preschool girls progress faster toward maturity than do boys.

2. Preschool boys are slightly taller and heavier than are girls.

3. Both (1) and (2) are true.

4. Neither (1) nor (2) is true.

24. Research on the effects of maternal employment outside the home suggests that

1. Children whose mothers are absent during the day are more anxious and immature.

2. Children whose mothers are absent during the day are less anxious and more mature.

3. Children are more dependent on their fathers when the mother works.

4. Other conditions are more important in influencing children's behavior than whether or not the mother is present during the day.

25. The first stage at which most children can compare a "part" with the "whole that contains the part" is

1. 3-5 years.

2. 5-7 years.

3. 7-9 years.

4. 9-11 years.

26. Skill in handwriting is highly correlated with

1. reading ability.

2. IQ.

3. motor control.

4. all of the above.

27. The most frequent type of illness among school-age children is

1. communicable diseases.

2. respiratory diseases.

3. gastrointestine upsets.

28. The average child is interested in the greatest variety of play activity at age

1. 7

2. 5

3. 9

4. 12
29. Choose the response for Mother. Billy takes a big bite of mashed potato, spilling some of it onto the table and in his lap. Mother says,
   1. "Don't take such a big bite and then you won't spill, Billy."
   2. "Take little bites, Billy. See what little bites Janet takes."
   3. "Take little bites, Billy. Then it will all go into your mouth."

30. Active, aggressive three-year-old Tommy hits Susan for no apparent reason as she reaches for a toy truck. Susan yells, "Tommy hit me. He's mean and awful!" Mother says,
   1. "Tommy, you mustn't hit children. We don't act that way."
   2. "That's too bad, Susie, I hope it doesn't hurt much." "Were you going to give the doll a ride in the truck?"
   3. "You can hit him back when he acts like that."

31. Check the correct statement.
   1. Growth rates as well as growth limits are set by heredity.
   2. Energy rates and capacity to burn up calories are basically inherited.
   3. The ability to cope with change and frustration seems to be genetically determined, at least in part.
   4. Both two and three are true.
   5. One, two, and three are true.

32. Which of the following would be the least acceptable method of discipline?
   1. Isolate the child by sending him to his room.
   2. Take away some privileges.
   3. Spank the child.
   4. Make him feel sorry for having hurt your feelings.

33. A three year old should be able to
   1. eat with a fork or spoon
   2. tie shoes
   3. play simple, organized games
   4. do one and three of the above tasks
   5. do all of the above tasks
34. One of the best ways for children to develop responsibility is
   _______ 1. through strict discipline.
   _______ 2. through identification with responsible adults.
   _______ 3. through consistent verbal instruction on the
       importance of assuming responsibility.
   _______ 4. through assignment of home duties.

35. Mrs. Jones does not immediately respond to her baby's cries to be
    fed or to have a diaper change, but lets the child cry until it is
    convenient for her to care for him.
   _______ 1. The baby will learn to distrust his mother since
       she does not attend his needs when he seeks her care.
   _______ 2. The baby will develop self-discipline and learn that
       he cannot control his mother with his cries.
   _______ 3. The baby will adapt to a schedule of feeding and
       diaper changing.

36. From the list of five children's playthings, select the most
    appropriate for a typical, healthy two-year old boy.
   _______ 1. a plastic educational toy that is advanced
       for a two-year old.
   _______ 2. a pull-toy cow that moos as it is pulled along
       on a string.
   _______ 3. a metal dump truck that has sharp edges.
   _______ 4. a teddy-bear with button eyes.
   _______ 5. a coloring book containing large pictures of animals.

37. Because the heart is smaller in relationship to the rest of the
    body than at any other period of life, highly competitive sports
    are dangerous for children between the ages of four to ten.
   _______ 1. This statement is not true.
   _______ 2. Although the heart may be smaller, sports are
       not dangerous but are necessary for development.
   _______ 3. This statement is true.
   _______ 4. There is no physical danger involved, but there
       may be social danger for those children who seem
       never to win.

38. A three year old child has reached a stage of wanting to reach
    out on his own and do things for himself. It is important to
    remember that this child
   _______ 1. must be allowed complete freedom to pursue
       whatever activities he chooses.
   _______ 2. must be protected from damage to his self
       esteem by protecting him from failure.
   _______ 3. is still strongly emotionally dependent upon his
       parents.
   _______ 4. is not actually ready to make decisions for himself.
39. Which of the following best characterizes the first step in the development of affection?

1. love for mother
2. love for members of the family
3. love for others, not necessarily family members
4. love for self
5. none of the above are correct

40. Social development is actually a matter of

1. conforming to the demands of society.
2. developing social skills.
3. integrating one's own needs or purposes with those of the society.
4. achieving social security through acceptance by the society.
APPENDIX C

PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT
Read each of the statements below and then rate them as follows:

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<th>A</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>D</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>mildly agree</td>
<td>mildly disagree</td>
<td>strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Indicate your opinion by drawing a circle around the "A" if you strongly agree, around the "a" if you mildly agree, around the "d" if you mildly disagree, and around the "D" if you strongly disagree.

There are no right or wrong answers, so answer according to your own opinion. It is very important to the study that all questions be answered. Many of the statements will seem alike but all are necessary to show slight differences of opinion.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. Children should be allowed to disagree with their parents if they feel their own ideas are better.  

2. A good mother should shelter her child from life’s little difficulties.  

3. The home is the only thing that matters to a good mother.  

4. Some children are just so bad they must be taught to fear adults for their own good.  

5. Children should realize how much parents have to give up for them.  

6. You must always keep tight hold of baby during his bath in a careless moment he might slip.  

7. People who think they can get along in marriage without arguments just don’t know the facts.  

8. A child will be grateful later on for strict training.  

9. Children will get on any woman’s nerves if she has to be with them all day.  

10. It’s best for the child if he never gets started wondering whether his mother’s views are right.  

11. More parents should teach their children to have unquestioning loyalty to them.  

12. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens.  

13. One of the worst things about taking care of a home is a woman feels that she can’t get out.  

14. Parents should adjust to the children some rather than always expecting the children to adjust to the parents.  

15. There are so many things a child has to learn in life there is no excuse for him sitting around with time on his hands.  

16. If you let children talk about their troubles they end up complaining even more.  

17. Mothers would do their job better with the children if fathers were more kind.  

18. A young child should be protected from hearing about sex.  

19. If a mother doesn’t go ahead and make rules for the home the children and husband will get into troubles they don’t need to.  

20. A mother should make it her business to know everything her children are thinking.  

21. Children would be happier and better behaved if parents would show an interest in their affairs.  

22. Most children are toilet trained by 15 months of age.  

23. There is nothing worse for a young mother than being alone while going through her first experience with a baby.  

24. Children should be encouraged to tell their parents about it whenever they feel family rules are unreasonable.  

25. A mother should do her best to avoid any disappointment for her child.  

26. The women who want lots of parties seldom make good mothers.  

27. It is frequently necessary to drive the mischief out of a child before he will behave.  

28. A mother must expect to give up her own happiness for that of her child.  

29. All young mothers are afraid of their awkwardness in handling and holding the baby.  

30. Sometimes it’s necessary for a wife to tell off her husband in order to get her rights.  

31. Strict discipline develops a fine strong character.  

32. Mothers very often feel that they can’t stand their children a moment longer.  

33. A parent should never be made to look wrong in a child’s eyes.  

34. The child should be taught to revere his parents above all other grown-ups.  

35. A child should be taught to always come to his parents or teachers rather than fight when he is in trouble.  

36. Having to be with the children all the time gives a woman the feeling her wings have been clipped.  

37. Parents must earn the respect of their children by the way they act.  

38. Children who don’t try hard for success will feel they have missed out on things later on.
39. Parents who start a child talking about his worries don't realize that sometimes it's better to just leave well enough alone.
40. Husbands could do their part if they were less selfish.
41. It is very important that young boys and girls not be allowed to see each other completely undressed.
42. Children and husbands do better when the mother is strong enough to settle most of the problems.
43. A child should never keep a secret from his parents.
44. Laughing at children's jokes and telling children jokes makes things go more smoothly.
45. The sooner a child learns to walk the better he's trained.
46. It isn't fair that a woman has to bear just about all the burden of raising children by herself.
47. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it.
48. A child should be protected from jobs which might be too tiring or hard for him.
49. A woman has to choose between having a well run home and hobnobbing around with neighbors and friends.
50. A wise parent will teach a child early just who is boss.
51. Few women get the gratitude they deserve for all they have done for their children.
52. Mothers never stop blaming themselves if their babies are injured in accidents.
53. No matter how well a married couple love one another, there are always differences which cause irritation and lead to arguments.
54. Children who are held to firm rules grow up to be the best adults.
55. It's a rare mother who can be sweet and even tempered with her children all day.
56. Children should never learn things outside the home which make them doubt their parents' ideas.
57. A child soon learns that there is no greater wisdom than that of his parents.
58. There is no good excuse for a child hitting another child.
59. Most young mothers are bothered more by the feeling of being shut up in the home than by anything else.
60. Children are too often asked to do all the compromising and adjustment and that is not fair.
61. Parents should teach their children that the way to get ahead is to keep busy and not waste time.
62. Children pester you with all their little upsets if you aren't careful from the first.
63. When a mother doesn't do a good job with children it's probably because the father doesn't do his part around the home.

64. Children who take part in sex play become sex criminals when they grow up.
65. A mother has to do the planning because she is the one who knows what's going on in the home.
66. An alert parent should try to learn all her child's thoughts.
67. Parents who are interested in hearing about their children's parties, dates and fun help them grow up right.
68. The earlier a child is weaned from its emotional ties to its parents the better it will handle its own problems.
69. A wise woman will do anything to avoid being by herself before and after a new baby.
70. A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions.
71. Parents should know better than to allow their children to be exposed to difficult situations.
72. Too many women forget that a mother's place is in the home.
73. Children need some of the natural meanness taken out of them.
74. Children should be more considerate of their mothers since their mothers suffer so much for them.
75. Most mothers are fearful that they may hurt their babies in handling them.
76. There are some things which just can't be settled by a mild discussion.
77. Most children should have more discipline than they get.
78. Raising children is a nerve-wracking job.
79. The child should not question the thinking of his parents.
80. Parents deserve the highest esteem and regard of their children.
81. Children should not be encouraged to box or wrestle because it often leads to trouble or injury.
82. One of the bad things about raising children is that you aren't free enough of the time to do just as you like.
83. As much as is reasonable a parent should try to treat a child as an equal.
84. A child who is "on the go" all the time will most likely be happy.
85. If a child has upset feelings it is best to leave him alone and not make it look serious.
86. If mothers could get their wishes they would most often ask that their husband be more understanding.
87. Sex is one of the greatest problems to be contended with in children.
88. The whole family does fine if the mother puts her shoulders to the wheel and takes charge of things.
89. A mother has a right to know everything going on in her child's life because her child is part of her.
90. If parents would have fun with their children, the children would be more apt to take their advice.  
91. A mother should make an effort to get her child toilet trained at the earliest possible time.  
92. Most women need more time than they are given to rest up in the home after going through childbirth.  
93. When a child is in trouble he ought to know he won't be punished for talking about it with his parents.  
94. Children should be kept away from all hard jobs which might be discouraging.  
95. A good mother will find enough social life within the family.  
96. It is sometimes necessary for the parents to break the child's will.  
97. Mothers sacrifice almost all their own fun for their children.  
98. A mother's greatest fear is that in a forgetful moment she might let something bad happen to the baby.  
99. It's natural to have quarrels when two people who both have minds of their own get married.  
100. Children are actually happier under strict training.  
101. It's natural for a mother to "blow her top" when children are selfish and demanding.  
102. There is nothing worse than letting a child hear criticisms of his mother.  
103. Loyalty to parents comes before anything else.  
104. Most parents prefer a quiet child to a "scrapy" one.  
105. A young mother feels "held down" because there are lots of things she wants to do while she is young.  
106. There is no reason parents should have their own way all the time, any more than that children should have their own way all the time.  
107. The sooner a child learns that a wasted minute is lost forever the better off he will be.  
108. The trouble with giving attention to children's problems is they usually just make up a lot of stories to keep you interested.  
109. Few men realize that a mother needs some fun in life too.  
110. There is usually something wrong with a child who asks a lot of questions about sex.  
111. A married woman knows that she will have to take the lead in family matters.  
112. It is a mother's duty to make sure she knows her child's innermost thoughts.  
113. When you do things together, children feel close to you and can talk easier.  
114. A child should be weaned away from the bottle or breast as soon as possible.  
115. Taking care of a small baby is something that no woman should be expected to do all by herself.
23 SCALE 5-ITEM QUESTIONNAIRE (FORM IV)

NAME____________________ DATE____________ NUMBER________

PARENTAL ATTITUDE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale Score</th>
<th>Sub-Test Title</th>
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<tr>
<td>1 24 47 70 93</td>
<td>Encouraging Verbalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fostering Dependency</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Seclusion of the Mother</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Breaking the Will</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Martyrdom</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Fear of Harming the Baby</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Marital Conflict</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Strictness</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Irritability</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Excluding Outside Influences</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Deification</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Suppression of Aggression</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Rejection of the Homemaking Role</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Equalitarianism</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Approval of Activity</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Avoidance of Communication</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Inconsiderateness of the Husband</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Suppression of Sexuality</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Ascendancy of the Mother</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>Comradeship and Sharing</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>Acceleration of Development</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Dependency of the Mother</td>
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</table>

Instructions: Enter the number 4, 3, 2, or 1 in each square according to whether the response was Strong Agreement, Mild Agreement, Mild Disagreement, or Strong Disagreement respectively. Thus, if the subject responded with Mild Disagreement to item #25, a 2 would be entered in the second cell of the second row. Total score is merely the sum of entries across rows. Since items are arranged in a cyclical order by scales all items in a given row belong to the same scale. Hence, summing across gives the score for that scale.
APPENDIX D

OUTLINE OF CONTENT OF PARENT EDUCATION PROGRAM
LESSON I  BASIC PRINCIPLES OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT

I. Purposes of studying child development

A. Developmental knowledge helps one see the child as a unique human being with his style of life.

B. It is important to learn how the child sees and views his world and the process he has used to interpret his environment and experiences.

C. Knowledge of the child's individual style and pattern helps one make predictions about his behavior and growth; his behavior may be viewed in relation to the total situation.

D. Every human being is of value and has a right to an opportunity to develop his potentialities.

E. If one knows the principles of how children grow and develop, one can make judgments about what is read and heard about raising children.

II. General principles

A. To understand the child and his development, one must recognize that no one factor can ever be discussed without considering it in relationship to the whole.

B. Development must be viewed as a result of what a child inherits, how his environment affects him, and his reaction to this environment and people.

C. A child is different from adults.

III. Developmental principles

A. Each child's growth follows a pattern.

B. There is a sequence of development.

C. There is a great difference in the rate of growth of different parts of the body.
D. Growth follows a cycle of fast and slow.

E. Growth patterns show wide individual differences.

F. Each phase of development has certain characteristic traits.

G. Development is the result of the mixing of what the child inherits and the home or larger environment in which he is growing.

H. The child tends to maintain a balance (equilibrium).

I. There is a unity in growth patterns.

J. Maturation or readiness should come before certain types of learning or practice.

K. Growth is continuous.
LESSON II  INFLUENCES OF HEREDITY AND ENVIRONMENT

I. Introduction
   A. What we are has been shaped by what we inherit and the influences that have acted upon us in our environment.
   B. There is a great deal of variation possible (individual differences).
   C. It is difficult to separate how much heredity influences our development and how much all the things in our environment influence "what we become".

II. Heredity
   A. Physical characteristics
   B. Longevity
   C. Susceptibility to illness
   D. Temperament
   E. Intelligence
   F. Sex differences
   G. Influence of heredity during the preschool years.
   H. Individual differences

III. Environment
   A. Nutrition
   B. Family size and structure
   C. The self
   D. Social class and economic level
   E. Culture
LESSON III PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

I. Introduction

A. The principles that hold for the growth of the body often hold the same for mental, personality, and social development.

B. Human development takes place in a series of stages; the sequence is the same.

C. The environment in which the child grows can influence later patterns of growth, both physically and psychologically.

II. Development trends

A. General directions of growth.

B. Growth rates

C. Differentiation and integration

D. Sequence of development

E. Critical periods

III. Prenatal environmental influences

A. Age of mother

B. Diet

C. Drugs

D. Radiation

E. Maternal emotional states

IV. The newborn

A. Initial equipment

B. Visual development

C. Hearing

D. Ability to respond
V. Infancy (birth to age two)
   A. Basic needs during infancy
   B. Individual differences among infants
   C. Changes in infancy

VI. Preschool years (ages two to five)
   A. Motor development
   B. Growth in height and weight
   C. Toilet training
LESSON IV THE CHILD'S SELF-CONCEPT

I. Self-concept defined

II. Behavior
   A. Causal factors of behavior
   B. Effects of continual dissatisfaction with self
   C. Importance of feelings of competency
   D. Individual styles of behaving and functioning
   E. Perception and interpretation by the child

III. Development of self-concept through interaction
   A. Factors in the development of self
   B. Self-concept can change
   C. Family's role in the development of the child's self-concept
   D. Role of love of parents in self-development
   E. Handling threats to the child's self-concept
   F. Effect of mastery upon self-concept
   G. Teacher's role in the child's self-concept
   H. Role of other important people

IV. The self-concept in behavior
   A. To understand the child's behavior, and to determine his self-concept, one must identify reasons.
   B. The child can succeed if he has a healthy self-concept.
   C. Parents and teachers need an attitude of patience and faith in the child's ability to function.
D. Children see the world differently from adults.
E. Role of defense mechanisms
F. Result of excessive attention to children

IX. Characteristics of persons with adequate self-concepts
LESSON V  COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

I. Introduction
   A. Definition of intelligence
   B. Mental growth
   C. Intelligence quotients

II. Stages of mental intellectual development (Piaget)
   A. Infancy
   B. Preschool (ages six to seven)
   C. Elementary years

III. Mental processes
   A. Perception
   B. Problem solving
   C. Reasoning
   D. Language formation

IV. Principles of learning

V. Motivation
LESSON VI SOCIALIZATION OF THE CHILD

I. Socialization is the process by which children are helped to become responsible adult members of society.
   A. The child learns to interact with expectations of different groups
   B. Man is a social being.
   C. Aggression and cultural influences

II. Social maturity in the American culture
   A. The importance of material possessions
   B. The value of independence
   C. Characteristics of social classes
   D. Acquisition of social judgment and internal standards

III. Self-identification

IV. Managing the behavior of the child (discipline)
   A. Overprotection and permissiveness
   B. Helping the child develop self-control and social judgment while developing initiative and self-confidence
   C. Three parts to discipline: consistency, instruction, and behavior-directed discipline

V. The family in socialization
   A. The need for a feeling of belonging
   B. Socialization in infancy
   C. Relationships among family members

VI. Peer groups in socialization
VII. Play as a factor in personality and social development
VIII. The nursery school as a supplement to the home
IX. Some causes of poor social development
LESSON VII  EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

I. What is an emotion?
   A. Emotions affect human behavior.
   B. Emotions affect relationships with others.
   C. Using postive and negative emotions

II. Emotions can energize or disorganize.
   A. Strength of response varies.
   B. Self-concept influences the amount of pleasant or unpleasant emotions.
   C. Emotions give richness and vitality to actions.
   D. Reactions of other people to a child's emotions
   E. Physical changes during emotional behaviors

III. Fundamental emotional needs
   A. Physical
   B. Social
   C. Personal
   D. Recognition
   E. Self-direction
   F. Taking responsibility

IV. Development of emotions
   A. Emotions develop from what a child learns in his home and from maturing.
   B. The role of love in developing emotions
   C. Characteristics of emotional maturity

V. Helping the child's emotional growth
VI. Signs of abnormal emotional development
VII. Managing emotional problems
IX. School's role in emotional development
X. Positive reinforcement
LESSON VIII PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

I. What is personality?

II. Influences upon the child's developing personality
   A. Hereditary
   B. Environmental
   C. The child himself

III. Characteristics of a healthy personality
   A. A normal range of behavior is exhibited, with the seldom-appearance of extremes.
   B. Child sets realistic goals.
   C. Child interacts with others.
   D. Child shows empathy.
   E. Child has the self-confidence to try new things, accepting occasional failures.
   F. Child makes responsible decisions.
   G. Child is oriented toward the "real" world.

IV. Principles of character development

V. Role of the home in guiding character development

VI. Role of education and the school in personality development
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**Articles**


Reports


Unpublished Materials
