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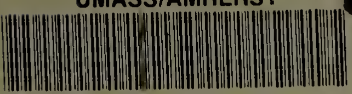
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THE INQUIRY LEARNING CENTER: AN EDUCATIONAL MODEL

A Dissertation Presented

By

NORMA D. SMITH

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

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

January	1975
Month	Year

Major Subject - Urban Education

THE INQUIRY LEARNING CENTER:

AN EDUCATIONAL MODEL

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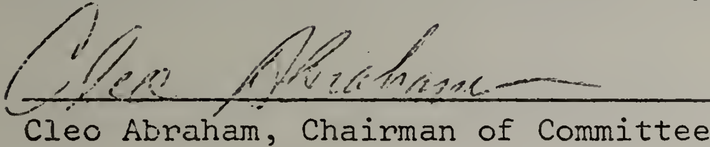
Approved as to style and content by:



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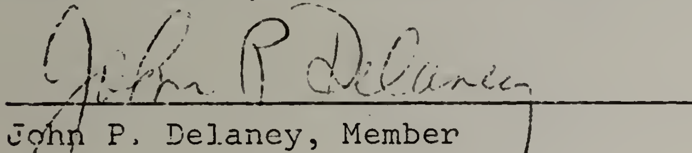

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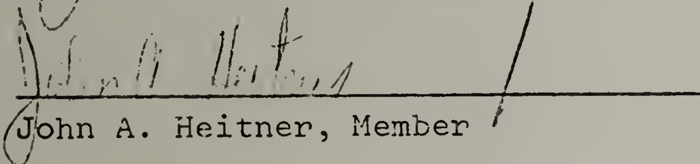

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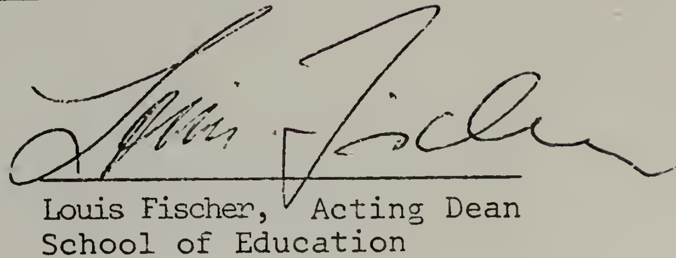

Louis Fischer, Acting Dean
School of Education

January 1975

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

One becomes aware of the inadequacy of mere words for expressing gratitude to those individuals who offered time, moral support and belief in my efforts of more than four years. The accolade starts with the members of the dissertation committee: Chairman, Dr. Cleo Abraham, who unreservedly supported the concepts of the paper; Dr. Jeff Delaney who took time from other demanding obligations to make himself available for the conference and defense sessions; Dr. John Heitner who was most helpful with suggestions in the practical areas of wording, phrasing and general progression of the theme; Dr. Ken Washington, the Dean's appointee, who met the obligations of the appointment despite the heavy demands on his time.

There are others I would like to cite. Dr. Norma Jean Anderson's interest and concern in reviewing the technicalities involved, facilitated my completion of the task properly. Herbert Pierce gave objective and practical advice while he suffered through my writing and re-writing of whole sections. Mr. Edgar Carroll of Hartford's Housing Authority, the first person to agree with the realistic need for the study, gave hours of conference time and detailed supportive data.

The behind the scenes people, who helped me maintain

the fortitude I needed to combat the doctoral student's normal recurrent waves of uncertainty, paranoia and frustration, are many. Doctoral candidates Dorothy Pilkington and Bill Miller always seemed to be at hand. Secretaries Betty Meunier and Sylvia Aprans extended themselves to provide me with procedural information that I sought. My thanks go to all the friends and colleagues who offered their help so freely, and a special thank you to The Lady of the Owl, Ann MacAvoy.

Most of all, I want to thank my two daughters, Sharon and Paula. Sharon lived with me through the final stages of this endeavor and bore the brunt of my daily idiosyncratic behavior. Paula did the many typings of the paper and provided the technical expertise that kept me on the path of the correct format.

And to whatever external powers there be, my thanks for allowing me to survive it all.

ABSTRACT

The Inquiry Learning Center: An
Educational Model
Massachusetts (January 1975)
Norma D. Smith, B.A., University of
Southern California
M.A., Teachers College, Columbia University
6th Year, University of Hartford
Directed by: Dr. Cleo Abraham

The Inquiry Learning Center, an educational model for six-month to three-year old children and their parents, is an expansion of a project done with four and five year-old children, parents and teachers. It provides a comprehensive educational program for parent/child teams made up of the young preschool child and his parent in an urban center. It includes the means for establishing a direct line of communication between the school and the Center which acts to promote regular interaction between the two units. This regular interaction can serve to increase the sensitivity of the formal educational institution to the needs of the minority child and parent, to be better met when the child enters school.

The importance attributed to the parent's role in the Center program meets two of its basic hypotheses underlying adult participation: the need to provide the parent with those experiences that will encourage more complete understanding of the child's learning and his projected educational program in the school; and the charge of any institution of learning to meet its obligation to the community it serves.

The Model provides an inquiry learning environment designed to encourage the child's engagement in random, exploratory, experiential play activities that meet his natural curiosity and desire to learn. The Center meets its obligation to the adult community it serves by paying the parent to become directly involved in the child's learning environment. She, thereby, also gains the option of using those experiences to initiate a program of upward mobility for herself via the paraprofessional route.

The traditional sense of intimidation by the school may be lessened for the parent by familiarizing her with the child's varied approaches to learning and Center operation, and through regular contact with the school. The link for providing the possibility to evolve a chain of non-threatening interaction is found in the Center's emphasis on training for expansion of interpersonal communication, positive self-concept and self-esteem.

Finally, the trust and belief in the parent is demonstrated by providing that the parent, ultimately, controls the Inquiry Learning Center and its continued operation, with only consultant services being provided by the initiating educator.

A basic belief that urged the involvement of the parent in direct in-service training is the hypothesis that lack of exposure to instructional procedures has contributed to the dissipation of the child's initial spurts of intellectual growth, as shown in research programs of the sixties (Head Start, Westinghouse Report). In-service training and regular interaction between the school and the pre-preschool learning center are introduced as demonstrable means for increasing parents awareness of the child's learning and of the school, thereby lessening the fear and intimidation that has traditionally accompanied their dealing with the unfamiliar.

A second hypothesis has to do with the need to provide a realistic possibility of option for change in life-style especially geared to the evolving human services economy. Such change has been noted as rather an incidental element in the child's educational achievement in some home-based and institution-based programs of early intervention. That a change in life-style may occur can be noted in the trained and paid educational paraprofessional. The

Model gives training and payment with ultimate operation of the learning center to the low-income and minority parent as a means of providing them with the possibility of option for change in life-style.

PREFACE

Before an individual undertakes a doctoral level program it is beneficial if one can believe that he or she has some particular attributes or interests that appear to be singularly suited to the endeavor. My preface reflects the training, ability and experience that gives credence to my having felt competent to initiate this project. My initial field of adult professional training which supported the undertaking of this conceptual educational study, was speech pathology. I came into education through the door of this medically allied field.

As a member of an interdisciplinary rehabilitative team, my experiences in Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation gave me the advantage of having been trained to observe the individual, to note his unique level of functioning ability, and to treat him according to those manifested needs. In practical terms, as the speech pathologist of the team, any program of rehabilitation was implemented, according to my diagnostic and prescriptive decision of the neurological language and speech deficits exhibited by the patient, regardless of his social class, race, I.Q. or employment status. Two distinct advantages of this background, with implications for my ultimate approach to public schools, were: the ability to observe the individual objectively; and the practice of devising

individualized programs, tailored to meet his specific needs. They kept me from being caught in the quicksand of preconceived ideas as to the level of performance the child should be able to accomplish in his educational setting at any given age.

A third advantage came from the particular sphere of operation with which I was involved: the human faculty to use symbolic codes as the basic means of interpersonal communication. Not only are communication codes, verbal and nonverbal, the tools needed to acquire and transmit information between people, they are also accurate emotion indicators. Speech and voice patterns reflecting the mood of the individual are easily identified, especially between people in close contact with each other. Ask any child. He knows by the way he is greeted--or not greeted--when he comes home from school, what his behavior pattern of the day should be. If Mother signals grouchiness, even though her words do not say it, he knows this is <u>not</u> the day to delay in changing his clothes and getting the garbage out into the trash barrel.

Communication is a cyclical phenomenon: the transmitter, in turn, reacts to the receiver's response. Contained in this circular action, reflecting information related to feelings as well as to facts, is the

basis for the development of self-concept and self-esteem. If there is some difficulty resulting in a language/speech problem, interference with ease in accomplishing the interpersonal communication cycle can, and very frequently does, affect self-concept negatively. The speech clinician, in dealing with the problem, has to engender an atmosphere that encourages the upgrading of self-image.

These experiences came with me into the Hartford public school system where I found that the background and training in speech pathology was peculiarly suited to dealing with not only the problem areas but also the general educational needs of the urban child. Objective observations of the student, not biased test results, determined the individualized program set up to meet the student's remediation needs. Initiation and reinforcement of positive self-image, an integral part of any speech clinician's program, was automatically included in the specific therapeutic program for each child. Additionally, a fifth of my teaching time was allocated to speech improvement activities in the regular classrooms, providing me with information of the normal child's language/learning behaviors and the opportunity to contribute to the child's general educational progress. Additional experiences, regular home visits, contacts with the family, a variety of volunteer service in ghetto community action programs, gave me an understanding of the urban minority home, family and

neighborhood setting long before these elements were infused into the educational vernacular. This understanding of community aspects was enlarged with accumulation of practical knowledge gained in the parent-teacher-child workshops I directed.

I became interested in constructing a learning environment that encouraged the development of the child's potential. I was equally concerned that parents' needs be met. Educational programs of the sixties, which neglected to motivate active and consistent parent participation, produced dramatic but short-lived spurts of intellectual advancement for the child. I felt that the child's ultimate inability to maintain the level of advancement was due, in part, to the relatively superficial involvement of the parent. Her enthusiastic and energetic interest was needed to support and reinforce the continuing success of the child.

Intellectual, social and emotional growth is a continuing, life-long process. Adults as well as children need a climate in which such growth can be maintained and flourish. The Inquiry Learning Center Model contemplates the advancement of a creative climate which replaces blaming with training for both parent and child.

THE TARGET IS LEARNING

"Man is a learner--no one is ever so far down that, given the opportunity, he cannot learn his way up."

Allison Davis

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCING: EDUCATIONAL FALLACIES

"Once upon a time there was a great nation that became great because of its public schools."[1] That is the American school legend, abounding in the imagery suggested by a combination of Horatio Alger and Lady Bountiful. Schools were important before the historical break with England in 1776. With the severance of that tie they became the institutions by which the New World experiment in democracy was to be expanded. Public school education has been looked on as the bulwark of the modern democratic society. The United States has been associated with programs of education for the masses for the past hundred years.

The American imagination has regarded schools as the primary means to solve most of its internal conflicts. The hordes of immigrants who flocked to this country in the latter part of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were "handled" by the schools. They came to this country when it was involved in a marked transitional period in its economy. The full impact of the Industrial Revolution was being felt. What had been essentially an agricultural, rural nation was rapidly being transformed into a primarily industrial, urban civilization. Farm technology had

made previously unheard of advances. More and more the nation's economic life centered about the manufacturing and commercial enterprises carried on, to a large degree, in the cities.

Industrialization demanded citizens who were trained to enter the factories of production. Education complied with the demands and supplied the type of workers needed. The words of Henry Steele Commager depict a noble purpose for the schools. "To the schools went the momentous responsibility of...inculcating democracy and equalitarianism."[2] The reality, however, became an exercise in the training for placement and control of the minority resident. The schools and economic conditions perpetuated the condition.

> Placement is a natural outcome of the labelling of people. For example, society has forced the vast majority of the people of color--black, Mexican-American, Puerto Rican, and Indian--to reside in ghettos which is a form of placement. It has kept them impoverished through unemployment which is another more subtle form of placement.[3]

Placement of the child in the lower tracks or in a position of low educational achievement followed the socio-economic placement pattern of the low-income, minority family.

Urban Housing for Minorities

A large proportion of single-parent, urban, black and Puerto Rican families have been and are dependent on

welfare of one kind or another in order to survive. Many of them are housed in public housing projects with the rental covered by public or welfare funds. The urban, low income housing project has been on the increase since the passage of the 1937 legislation which promoted it. Federal monies financed the design and construction, and local housing authorities manage and maintain them.

Minority group families, limited either in income or choice of where they might be allowed to rent or buy, have always experienced housing shortages in the city. Whether or not they were households receiving welfare or were self-sustaining households, there was very little range of choice in the location or adequacy of the residence. It was the crowded, black ghetto or public housing project which was open for low income or welfare recipient families. Since the public housing project was often located in or near the ghetto slum district, the choice was only a semantic one.

The massive shift of black population from rural South to Northern metropolitan areas created full-blown de facto segregated conditions into which the black "immigrants" were jammed. The conditions of alienation and segregation of former Southern life were continued and solidified by means of ghetto community living. Education's prevalent neighborhood school concept established de facto

segregated schools for their children. Public housing projects for low income families might be considered the finishing touch on the confine-and-control forces at work in the urban centers. The rural, Southern black man had not escaped the conditions of poverty or segregation by coming to the city.

One other phenomenon must be added to the crowded public housing and slum resident situation. The mass exodus from the city of white, middle-class families began to be reflected in what seemed to be inconsistent statistics. In Hartford, for example, the 1960 census revealed that about fifteen per cent of the adult residents had been lost to the suburbs. In that same census, the enrolled public school population showed an increase of almost twenty-five per cent, most of the increase being attributed to children of the poor who had flocked to the city. Regardless of how unaware the city official, political leader or average resident wished to remain about the housing projects and crowded ghettos, the reality of their existence and their burgeoning population had to be dealt with by the community.

Today's living and learning environment of the visible, low-income level citizen had been tempered in the heat of this heritage. Society has pretended that the black descendant of slavery could move out of his "minority-

immigrant" role to the "native" level just as other varied-background immigrants have been able to do within two or three generations. Environmental conditions for the black, minority citizen were imbued with and wedded to a heritage of economic exploitation; elaborate, social discriminatory and repressive practices; and political doctrines of a "separate but equal" philosophy. Legislative milestones of the past twenty years have been slow or inadequate in supplying the enforcement of that legislation. The largely white dominated society in which the minority-group member has had to live is still a large part of the daily scene for the black and Puerto Rican resident in the cities.

Impact on Education

The community institution which almost immediately felt the impact of overcrowded home conditions was the school. A sea of children began to break over the educational scene by the late 1950's. The schools could not handle this inundation of children effectively nor rapidly enough to provide them with the kind of learning experience to which they were entitled. The 1897 doctrine of "separate but equal" educational facilities was very much in evidence in the democratic "unprejudiced" metropolises of the North. A brief quote from Dr. Kenneth Clark's supportive statements concerning the 1954 Supreme Court ruling serves as a reminder of the harm inflicted on children by the condition of

4. Discriminatory educational experiences of the parent and/or limitation of experiential background of the child, necessary to his successful school adjustment, indicate the need for both to be exposed to another type of learning environment before the child arrives in the formal school setting.

5. Parents, and many educators, do not have first hand knowledge or understanding of the concept of flexibility within structure; of the advantages for the child in free, random exploratory play; of the importance of those random play elements in stimulating the developmental processes of the child (Bruner, 1960, 1968; White, 1971; Kagan, 1971).

6. Poverty area parents, many with other obligations in the home, are not always free to participate in community action programs unless provisions are made to meet those responsibilities. Unpleasant or unproductive past experience for the minority parent has lessened the enthusiasm to participate in community programs.

Purpose of the Model

The aim of the dissertation is to demonstrate a workable model of an inquiry learning center which will enhance the learning environment of the young child and include a broader scope of understanding of it for the parent. The Model's objective is to describe an educational form that combines Adult Education and Toddler Education into a program that encompasses positive change in learning and may encourage the altering of conditions in other sectors of the social environment.

Two aspects of the Inquiry Learning Center are considered potential change agent sources which may result in improved living conditions or circumstances:

1. By training and paying the parent to work on-site in the Center with her own child, she not only works through the learning processes with her child, but she also gains that experience which can lead to upward mobility, and entry to a career ladder in the field of human services. She will acquire knowledge and confidence in the operational procedures of the Center, a microcosm of the school or any similarly organized institution (Riessman, 1967, 1968; Becker, 1968; Klopf, Bowman, and Joy, 1969).

2. The community people are to become responsible for the operation of the Inquiry Learning Center. To accomplish the "grass roots" purpose, a withdrawal of the initiating administrative professional educators must be built into the project's operational procedures. Administrative service must become advisory in nature as soon as community operation becomes a viable possibility.

The Model's purpose is to demonstrate the advisability and benefits that may accrue to child, parent and school by providing parents with a center where training in early childhood management techniques, experience in operation of the Center, and increased intercommunication and mutual understanding between home and the school regarding the child's learning environment becomes a viable goal. The Center will provide:

For the Child. The flexibility of an inquiry learning environment and increased suitability of preparation for entry into school.

For the parent. Greater awareness of variance in learning approaches to be used with the young child and direct experience in the organization and operation of the Center.

For the school. Open lines of communication and exchange of information through regular, collaborative interaction between the school's resource teacher and the Center's liaison guide.

These types of experiences contain the possibility of producing a new reservoir of knowledgeable strategies for the parent. A better understanding of the child's broad learning environment is important. Even more suggestive of change will be the parent's "new" approach to the school when the child finally arrives there. By exposing her to the child's learning program and involving her in the Center operation, she will know the philosophy and terminology of the child's prospective educational surroundings and the school system. The traditional manner of communication between the professional educator and the minority parent will no longer be feasible. Some of the change in her approach to the school will be passed on to the formal institution. This different interchange between home and school, promoted by the Inquiry Learning Center, is seen as a means of developing a more horizontal relationship between them. It is viewed as one step, in a series of steps, that will weaken the links in the present vertical chain of command that connotes a superficial acceptance of the importance of home and neighborhood in the child's learning environment.

The basic conflict of interests in the initiating powers of anti-poverty programs, between their intent to promote community leadership and a reluctance to withdraw from the controlling position, has been taken into consideration in the planning of the Model. The conflict must

be resolved at some level. The assumption is that the threat is less pronounced, to the community at large and to the educational leadership, in the relatively neutral surroundings of a Center which combines Adult and Toddler Education in a relatively low-level bid for community involvement.

Working Hypotheses of the Inquiry Learning Center

Consonant with studies by Bruner and White, it becomes apparent that there is a need to extend the school's primary level educational program downward into the home and neighborhood of the child. The working hypotheses of the Inquiry Learning Center Model form a tripolar framework of investigation: for the parent; for the child; and for the school.

For the parent. If the parent is given the opportunity to participate in a teacher/learner role in the Center, outside the home but near it, then the parent will be able to make an objective appraisal of its less authoritarian milieu. She will be able to contrast the child- and experience-centered learning environment with the lock-step, tracked, rigid educational program she has completed. A repressive public school system has helped to perpetuate the alienation of, and discrimination against minority-group members of society. Minority parents have the same high hopes of successful school accomplishment

for their children as any parent group (Gordon, 1971; Weikart, 1967). They have found it difficult, however, to abandon the traditional teacher-dominated format. They project the expectation of their own classroom prototype to their children. The experience and knowledge gained in the inquiry learning environment will provide the adult with another option in management of the child's learning environment and the chance to dissipate the effects of their own educational past.

If the parent is given the opportunity to complete a brief schedule of orientation sessions and chooses to become a regularly participating teacher/learner, then she will be paid for the hours she works in the Center. Money is an easily understood and acceptable incentive. Motivation to help maintain her Center participation will be stimulated through a combination of payment, observation of the child's growth and success, and participation in the operation of the Center.

If the parent is given the opportunity for on-site training, then she can use this experiential background to satisfy entry-level requirements of a career ladder in human services. The experience and payment for training provide one answer to the self-motivating questions, "What's in it for me," plus encouraging the removal of apathy. Vocational training, on-site or otherwise, offered to parents

who have entered their children in day care centers, has often been training in work that is obsolescent or soon will be, according to conferences with parents who have undertaken such training. General office training or office cleaning offered to the female will either be automated out of existence or has the same demeaning quality of many present job opportunities with minimal salary or advancement opportunities. Training for obsolescent positions is simply another way of maintaining the present control over future life-style conditions. Training in human services allows the minority parent to stay abreast with what the present trends and future demands of the economy seem to be.

If the parent needs baby sitting service for other younger children still at home, then the Center will incorporate the use of community resources to meet that need and to carry out the neighborhood project concept that is basic to the Center's operation. The legitimate objection to participation in Center activities offered by some parents can be removed.

To summarize possible altered conditions for the parent: she will have the opportunity to appraise the experience-centered learning program and contrast it with her own past experiences; she will receive on-site training to initiate an upward mobility career in human services, if

she so desires; and community resources will be called upon to supply supplementary services and information she may need. From such altered circumstances in her environment, better understanding of her child's total educational setting, prospective school program, opportunity for her own advancement, attitudinal change regarding the educational program becomes a probability as does the possibility for change in life style.

<u>For the child</u>. If the younger child is given the opportunity to participate in the educational program of the Center, he or she will be exposed to activities geared to develop those attributes and skills associated with inquiry learning: to make use more freely of his natural curiosity; to take part in group activity as well as individualized activity; to listen to, be listened to, and to learn the language he needs to know to better assure him subsequent academic success; to develop and make use of self-motivation; in short, to develop the delicate balance between dependent and independent behavior.

If the child already had all of the attributes and skills the educational program strives to promote, then these abilities will be reinforced. The child will not be held back by such exposure but can gain broadened, in-depth training and skills control. Additional success in broadened performance can strengthen a positive self-image.

If the child is not performing with the assurance he should have, then exposure to those experiences and activities designed to develop his potential will be built into the program to meet his needs. The Center program becomes preventive for him.

If the child shows real functional deficit, there will be early recognition of his special needs. Early diagnosis of learning problems--organic or functional--provides the child with a better chance to attain normal or near-normal ability. For this child the program is diagnostic.

To summarize the altered conditions for the child enrolled in the Center program: the child who is able to do well, will receive positive reinforcement; the less adept child, exposed to the stimulus-rich environment, will receive a preventive program to encourage the growth and refinement of normal developmental processes: the child who is in need of special help will be discovered and diagnosed early in his "learning" career.

For the school. The proposition that the school's primary level program must proceed downward, to include the parent and 6 month to three year-old child, will be discussed and documented in Chapter II. The objective of increased continuity of learning between home and school already described for parent and child warrants some

discussion, at this time, of perceived responsibilities of the school. Three developments characterizing the present-day school and seeming to make it different from the traditional or "old-fashioned" school are:

1. The whole education of the child. The school has a responsibility far beyond the intellectual development or the imparting of facts and skills that contribute to what is conceived as literacy. Physical health, mental well being and emotional balance, social consciousness--the child's awareness of his social and cultural heritage--are all part of the process that can be referred to as socialization. Fostering points of view and patterns of behavior that enable the individual to function effectively as a member of the social group and to derive maximum benefit from that association fall within the purview of the school today. The whole education of the child finds its vital beginnings in the home. The core of the child's life is in his home with peripheral growth or broadened scope becoming possible in the school.

2. The education of the whole child. Educational philosophy, in agreement with tenets of modern psychology and the findings of experimental research, points to the conclusion that the child develops as a whole. Intellectual, physical, emotional and social development are very much interdependent and interrelated. If the fullest development of the boy or girl as a person is part of the responsibility of the modern teacher, then the teacher, within the framework of the education of the whole child, cannot be confined to teaching subjects or content matter. This is not a new idea since the long-standing cliche, "The teacher should be teaching children not subjects," is a familiar one. The child's whole personality and total equipment are involved in every phase of his learning process as well as in his general development. It is self-evident that the importance of the home and parent in the education of the whole child can hardly be overemphasized.5

3. Recognition of the child's individual differences. The premise that children--people--are more alike than they are different from each other in growth

synonomous with its syllabus, an outline of the main areas or units of emphasis in a course of study. They are a guide indicating the direction toward which the daily activities (curriculum) should move. They are not meant to trap the teacher/learner into the rigidity of a fixed and irrelevant curriculum. The main purpose of the fixed curriculum has frequently been to dictate the pace and specific level of performance ability to which all children must adhere. A relevant daily curriculum, can be devised by building tomorrow's activities on the demonstrated needs evolving from today's performance. Analysis of the tasks, structured into the daily curriculum, better encourages the child's adequate and successful performance than the fixed curriculum of the traditional learning system.

Activities of Daily Living Curriculum

The curriculum for the Inquiry Learning Center Model has been named Activities of Daily Living Curriculum (ADL), a title borrowed from the field of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation. Performance objectives and examples of activities have been included in the explanation and description of the ADL curriculum in Appendix A. An advantage in the use of specific behavioral objectives is seen in the evaluative tool that is built in. For example, the objective and activity for a ten-month-old child might be, "Given the blanket with a toy on it, the child will learn

that he can retrieve the toy by pulling the blanket toward him." The evaluation of the child's ability to learn this task is a part of the objective and activity in that the child's performance can be observed. The observation reveals whether or not the child can be evaluated as having learned the appropriate response or not. That evaluation determines whether or not the activity should be continued for reinforcement, repetition, or discarded for the time being.

The activity or experience curriculum is not a new idea. The forerunners of it were seen as long ago as 1896 when John and Alice Dewey established their Laboratory School at the University of Chicago.[7] Many variations of it were implemented in public schools along with the widely accepted subject curriculum.

The activity curriculum has been seen in many forms accompanied by a variety of descriptive terminology for the past fifteen years. In general it is characterized by the utilization of the interests and purposes of the child. The teacher prepares and structures the learning environment but allows flexibility of performance within that structure, thereby dispensing with rigid adherence to a single accepted means of participation in the activity. The subject curriculum, in distinct opposition to the activity or experience curriculum, is characterized by

its organization of content into subjects of instruction; frequent compartmentalization of bodies of information ... taught in isolation from one another; teacher-dominated format in the classroom, with expository discourse, specific techniques and methods of learning as major vehicles of transmission of the information.[8]

The activity curriculum concept suggests the flexibility in operation that allows current educational trends and knowledge of the child's developmental processes to be incorporated in the inquiry learning environment leading to effective learning. The general goals of the program include the opportunity:

1. To stimulate, promote and make use of the natural curiosity of the toddler. The inquiry learning environment capitalizes on this natural resource of infancy and childhood (Bruner, 1966; Kagan, 1971; Piaget, 1952; Piaget and Inhelder, 1966).

2. To encourage the belief that questioning is the source of knowledge and that the inquiries of the child, verbal and nonverbal, will serve as the basis for the daily curriculum.

3. To provide the child with a pattern of learning that will promote understanding of and interaction with others (Gordon, 1963; Levenstein, 1970; White, 1971).

4. To provide the child with a pattern of learning that will encourage confidence in and awareness of himself.

5. To bring the child into the "real" world as much as possible.

6. To bring as much of the world as possible into the learning Center including animals and people as well as things.

7. To provide the child with early experiential exposure to symbols and symbol manipulation relevant to his environment, a special necessity for the human child since he is born into a symbolic environment as well as a physical one.

8. To involve parents, neighborhood, community people in the working of the Inquiry Learning Center in order to facilitate the understanding of the change from the traditional school system; to foster the expansion and enhancement of a more flexible, inquiry learning environment in the home, neighborhood and community.

9. To provide for the adults that experience and background that will facilitate continuing responsibility for the Center by neighborhood residents.

According to the formal statements made in 1969 by the participants in the President's General Subcommittee on Education regarding the needs of elementary and secondary education for the 70's, there was general agreement that education of the child in the remainder of the Twentieth Century had to involve more than what happens to him in school. It was stressed that factors within the cultural constellations of the child's social, economic and political milieu, as well as educational experiences, have marked influence on the child's learning. These influences have been particularly restricting on the child of urban minority and low-income families, as reflected in the general academic underachievement and high incidence of drop outs amongst these students.

The terminology used to describe these youngsters, "the disadvantaged child," "the culturally deprived," "the

culturally handicapped," etc., has emphasized the negative attitude toward the individual whose background has been considered "inferior." The label, "culturally different," connotes an automatic implication of inferiority by the very nature of the meaning attached to the term different; different from the culturally dominant group. Long established precedent has been to mold the child from the different culture to the white, middle-class model presented to him. This model has been the standard against which all children have been measured.

Visibility Indicators

The model for the black and Puerto Rican child, as well as members of other minority groups, is one to which he cannot conform. The "melting pot" theory has forced this culturally different child, and adult, into a process of assimilation and acculturation so that he must strive to fit the dominant culture. A compromise adjustment to the acculturation demands, caused conflict between that adaptation and the primary cultural patterns given by the family.

Cultural difference was most easily identified in homes where variance was highly visible. High visibility indicators have included such differences as skin color, a penchant to wear brightly colored clothing; a life-style that was professed in loud talk and laughter amongst groups

of people gathered on the sidewalk; a preoccupation with polishing of a large and expensive automobile. Visibility impressions, stereotypically etched on social consciousness, connoted inferiority in society's collective eye. The sense of inferiority, affecting the child and adult who lived with it, was perpetuated by institutions that influence the daily living and working of all members of society. It has had a devastating effect on minority citizens.

Housing, employment opportunity, economic independence and stability, and political power are obvious points of reference which contribute to establishing the inferior or different socio-cultural background. These major institutions are regarded as having marked reciprocal and interwoven influences on each other and on education. A candid examination of these influencing factors during the past twenty years also exposed a potent, but latent, common denominator which was identified as institutional racism and which permeated social institutions. Dominant controls of economics, political power, education, life styles of home and neighborhood had not only ignored its existence but had pretended that there was no such influence.

The thrust of the Civil Rights Movement served to tear the veil of pretense away from society's institutions. There were confrontations attesting to the unquestioned

existence of institutional racism. The often quoted statement from the Kerner Civil Disorders Report is succinct in its comment:

> What white Americans have never fully understood--but what the Negro can never forget--is that white society is deeply implicated in the ghetto. White institutions created it. White institutions maintain it, and white society condones it.[9]

Whatever shortcomings may have appeared in the Civil Disorders Report, in the lack of follow-up on recommendations, American society finally admitted that institutional racism was an insidious ingredient of major social institutions in the country, with special emphasis in the cities.

Introduction of Anti-Poverty Programs

Education of the 70's must work toward elimination of institutional racism, and development of positive attitude toward the reality of cultural diversity in society. Institutional racism and cultural pluralism were elements in programs of social reform since the Supreme Court decision of 1954. It foreshadowed the wide spread implementation of anti-poverty programs following the enactment of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965. State and local agencies followed Washington's lead with programs that were envisioned as the means to eliminate the educational and socio-economic obstacles found in the

increasingly crowded, poor and minority-group sections of the city. Anti-poverty programs underwritten by monies from Washington proliferated during the 60's and early 70's.

Kenneth Clark and Jeanneatte Hopkins (1968), in their analysis of early anti-poverty programs, indicated that the target-area resident was not given the right to determine the options of his own future. The anti-poverty program was offered as a privilege by the power structure which could be denied, modified or withdrawn at the dictates of that structure. Though their study was directed toward programs implemented through 1966, Hartford has its current example of ineffectivenss: Hartford '74. The program was implemented in 1969 following a planning year. One of its strongest appeals to the community was couched in these words, "It is expected (Hartford 74') will move the community from the state of acquiescence to a state of support for the school's programs, reduce the feeling of estrangement from the school that is common in today's urban population, and prevent the community's frustration with the educational system from reaching emotional heights."[10]

A year later, thirty training programs were undertaken by the Hartford Board of Education during the summer of 1970. These were a combination of ESEA, EPDA, and Board of Education financed programs. Among them were Curriculum Workshops in Math, Language Arts, and Foreign

Languages; in-service training for staffs of Alternative Learning Centers; Higher Horizons for the Secondary Level; Teacher Corps Workshops for Elementary and Secondary Levels; Vacation School programs; Non-Public School Workshop; Hartford Intensive City-University Teacher Training Program (HICUT); Follow-Through Training, considered the training ground for Hartford '74 and the Head Start-Child Development Program. Most of the programs were geared to deal with the low-income, minority child's educational problems. Only the Head Start-Child Development Workshop provided parents with the opportunity to participate in the instructional in-service experience offered to teacher and paraprofessional. For the first time, in Hartford, the child's nucleus family and his educational family were involved simultaneously in the in-service instruction.

In 1974-75, the fifth year of the five-year plan that was proposed for Hartford '74, it is difficult to locate the program in the city. The people responsible for its planning and implementation, the Superintendent, the Assistant Superintendent, Administrative Aides most directly involved, have not been on site for a year or more. When questioned, Administrators said that a final report on Hartford '74 was to be compiled. The teachers of Hartford said that it had been abandoned.

Many forms of parent involvement were tried during

the 1968-1973 period of time. Form letters announcing programs, discussions with parent groups, occasional parents volunteering in the classroom, school neighborhood councils, advisory committee participation: all are representative forms of parent involvement. Not one of them offered the parent the chance to participate in the in-service experience provided for the instructional staff, except for the preschool in-service program.

Experience with parents in the Head Start Program, throughout the school year, revealed two extremes of parent participation: the verbal, volatile parent who became part of the power structure and was primarily concerned with the political pressure factions; and the less articulate parent whose interest in the program petered out by mid-January.

The Need for Parent In-Service Training

Experience with parents in the summer workshop of 1970 revealed that parent participants were concerned with gaining information regarding early childhood development and suggestions for general home management of children. Those parents were committed to the child's educational program which resulted in better understanding of it. Their regular attendance and continued high interest attested to their commitment. The option to participate in the in-service instruction was apparently a contributing factor in

maintaining the level of interest. One-third of the parents, over thirty in number, enrolled in the summer workshop.

This concrete evidence of parental interest in the instructional program, devised for the staffs of the four and five-year old preschool children, highlighted the need to progress downward with an early childhood program for the younger child and his parent. The need for information regarding parenting alternatives and instructional program participation becomes even more pronounced when it is remembered that these were parents of children who had already had a year of Head Start, a program that has a strong emphasis on parent involvement.

The Inquiry Learning Center Model, a combination of Adult Education and Toddler Education, is seen as one answer to this observed need.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter II is primarily a review of the literature in limited areas of early childhood education. Studies that demonstrate the need for an educational model realistically combining Adult and Toddler Education in urban settings will be reviewed. Substantial volume of research in early childhood education necessitated restricting the findings to the following areas.

The first area of discussion mentions existing school ineffectiveness in dealing with early childhood and explores alternatives to the inadequate classic approach. The second category is devoted to research which justifies educational intervention at a younger preschool age and encompasses parent involvement, a vital component in programs dealing with the very young child. Examination of parenting behaviors with special emphasis on the parent-child communication practices and the home environment is included. The third area incorporates personal informal studies done in various preschool programs in Hartford.

Flaws in Urban Education

The education of the poverty-urban area child has been the subject of virtually unceasing investigation since

the early sixties. The thread of continuity woven through the early investigations was adherence to the concept of orienting and molding the child-consumer to the long established white, middle-class model. It persisted despite what seemed to be open recognition of flaws in the organization: instructional program inadequacies; limiting administrative procedures; negative teacher attitudes; little opportunity for consumer in-put.

It seems an unnecessary belaboring of much read and widely accepted findings of students of urban problems to offer much more than brief statements of a representative few. Fantini and Weinstein (1967) called attention to the lack of recognition of the system's failings, "the Federal government...decision to invest heavily in American education was guided...into rehabilitation of the <u>product</u> instead of reforming the <u>process</u>."[1] It was quite unthinkable to blame the system. Programs of instruction were taught to the child. He was at fault if he did not learn their content. Charles Silberman (1970) censured administrative personnel as well as the instructional staff for failure to accomplish one of the primary tasks of the school, "...facilitating the movement of the poor and disadvantaged into the mainstream of American economic and social life."[2] Ray Rist's study (1970) dealt with the effect on the child's academic achievement stemming from

the relationship between teacher expectation and the student's social class, and seen as the self-fulfilling prophecy in ghetto education. It is epitomized in the statement, "There is a greater tragedy than being labelled a slow learner, and that is being treated as one."[3] And the expectation of the teacher was very often realized.

The urban, ghetto child has frequently been characterized as a "slow-learner." If his characteristics are examined, it becomes possible to consider that the slow learner may, in fact, be a "six-hour retardate," slow learning only while he is in school. He came to school at kindergarten age. He went home each day to do a very creditable job of taking care of a younger brother or sister. He managed to cross busy, heavily trafficked streets with excellent survival results. He knew whether or not the change he received was correct in the shopping he had been doing at the neighborhood stores for a year or more. These attributes were hardly typical of a child limited in physical ability or mental potential. Yet the composite child described had a very good chance of becoming one of the army of underachieving school children by grade three or four:[4]

> ...because of his slum family and environment, he arrives at school two years educationlly retarded before he begins. In the crowded classroom of the first three grades he does not learn how to read, write, and count.[5]

Alternative Approaches in Primary Education

Introduction of alternative approaches for alleviating the inadequacies follows.

British influence on elementary education was felt in this country during the sixties. The concept of the Open Classroom was introduced and used in English city schools for children from age five to twelve. Four principles characterized the operational procedures (Gross and Gross, 1966).

1. The room was decentralized, divided into functional learning areas.
2. Children were free to choose their own activities.
3. The environment was filled with stimulating materials, books and other media.
4. The teacher and any available aides worked with individual children or in groups of two or three youngsters.[6]

The decentralization of the room also relegated the teacher to a non-dominant, facilitator position. She moved away from the desk-at-the-front-of-the-room authoritative position and began to move about the room through the appropriately arranged learning centers. Children were allowed the freedom to explore instructional materials placed in those locations which were easily accessible to them. A multiplicity of manipulative activities were found in the art center, the science center, the math center and the language arts center. The opportunity for an

individualized program was furthered through the attention given by the teacher or aide to the single child or small group.

One of the weaknesses, in what is seen as a modified Montessori approach, was the lack of group activity. Materials were infrequently presented to the whole class at once. Children needed individual attention but they also needed exposure to group experience, virtually unknown to the child prior to school entry.

The official stamp of approval on the Open Classroom concept came from Great Britain's Central Advisory Council for Education. The Council, chaired by Lady Bridget Plowden, came out with a report in 1967. Popularly known as the Plowden Report, it supported and promoted this innovative approach to dealing with problems in the urban schools.

> ...the new mode of teaching dispensed with fixed curriculum: teacher-dominated, unified classroom; narrow, one-way teaching techniques and practices. It used Open Classroom techniques involving curiosity and inquiry--emphasis was on the child's interest, encouragement of interpersonal communication, abundance of concrete learning materials...and a teacher who stimulates and steps back.[7]

In this country, educators, social psychologists, behavioral scientists, linguists, experts from many disciplines began to accumulate data indicating failure of the school system to meet the needs of the child who came from depressed and segregated areas of the city. The Kerner Commission report (1967) stated,

> for many minorities and particularly for the children of the racial ghetto, the schools have failed to provide the educational experience which could help overcome the effects of discrimination and deprivation.[8]

The writings of Jean Piaget, the Swiss psychologist, had recorded continuing study and observation of children in many schools as well as his own children since 1929. Dubbed a "giant in the nursery" by Dr. David Elkind, Professor of Psychology at the University of Rochester, one of his most enthusiastic interpreters in this country, Piaget's studies led him to be critical of much of the traditional school format. He decried teacher-dominated environments where books were the basic source of learning media; where the large group instruction was the main form of teaching interaction; where oral or written examinations, requiring single correct answers, were virtually the only means used to validate the entire process.

Piaget's philosophy, with which many child developmentalists agree, included:

1. The child must experience through his senses before he can learn about anything.

2. He has to try things out, manipulate objects and symbols to see what happens.

3. He has to pose questions, find answers and relate those findings to his past experience.

4. Intellectual development includes social collaboration, group effort, and peer communication when the child can manage it and before he can move on to abstract conceptions.[9]

The Case for Earlier Intervention

Experimentation with alternative approaches did little to mitigate continued underachievement of the urban child. Educators and researchers, forced to look for other solutions, began to concentrate on programs of earlier intervention.

Formal recognition of the importance of the child's early years may be traced to the statistical study, covering a period of approximately fifty years, published by Dr. Benjamin Bloom of the University of Chicago in 1964. A vast structure of measurement of children's growth at various points in their development had succeeded in producing specific principles of development. Worked on by many different researchers during that half-century of investigation, they found that human characteristics had a definite and measureable growth curve. For example, the child at age two-and-a-half has attained half of his future height.

A most important and startling finding, which contributed to awakening high interest in researching infants and toddlers learning behaviors, was that related to intellectual growth and development. Bloom's revolutionary thesis held that between forty to fifty per cent of the child's intellect was developed by age four, and that eighty per cent of it was in evidence by age eight.[10] The

hypothesis was received with a great deal of skepticism at the time. Today, after many research projects throughout the country, it has gained wide acceptance.

Some of the most comprehensive studies dedicated to examination of learning behaviors of the young child came from Harvard's School of Education. The Harvard Pre-School Project under the direction of psychologist, Dr. Burton White, originally intended to focus on the three- to six-year old child. The study seemed to gain insufficient information from that age group and moved downward to begin exploration of children from infancy to age three.

A psychologist working in the project, went into homes of parents known to the project workers from their earlier work with older brothers and sisters in preschool and kindergarten programs. Rapport was readily established because of the previous contact. The parent was also paid $5.00 per half-day to allow the observer to take notes on the child-rearing behavior of the parent. No attempt to change anything was made, only the recording of what was actually observed. The study's research concentrated on the mother's behavior. Two other major target areas for study were related to children's activities, how they spent their time; and the development of specific individual characteristics. All phases were conducted in homes that ran the gamut from affluent to poor. With almost five

hundred children involved in the first three-year period, the research confirmed that the first three years of life largely determined the human being's future competence.[11]

Dr. White found that the period between ten and eighteen months were critical to the child's development. The child's attempts at independent locomotion and initial speech efforts emerge at this time, forcing the attention of the adult on him in response to the increased activity. During the same period of time the parent's behavior begins to assume the characteristics of five prototype mothers identified in the research findings. Those indiciations were used to construct a maternal behavior scale that cuts across class lines.

1. The Super-Mother - wants to provide educational opportunities for her child; she wants to teach and enjoy the child without frenzy. There is good balance between activities she initiates and those initiated by the child.

2. The Smothering-Mother - demands that the child respond to her commands all day; is disappointed with immediate level of performance; acts as if she is preparing him for college, the main purpose of her relationship with him. She initiates virtually all activities.

3. The Almost-Mother - enjoys and accepts the child; frequently seems unable to meet his expanding needs; usually waits for child to initiate activities but fails to enhance intellectual growth through those activities.

4. The Overwhelmed-Mother - has almost no time for the child; he may be cared for, primarily, by siblings; her energies are consumed with dealing with constantly encroaching problems related to economic and home management difficulties;

frequently seen in the low-income household but found in many middle-class homes of the times. Activities are largely child-initiated with little adult interaction.

5. The Zoo-Keeper-Mother - has a highly organized household routine; well-cared for child who spends most of his time alone, surrounded by educational toys; child seems to develop repetitive, stereotyped behavior of his own volition. There is very little parent-child interaction. The mother tends to be middle- to upper-middle class.[12]

Sources of Intellectual Activity

The above research concerned itself with the child's developmental processes and individual competence in relation to parenting behavior. Another group of researchers at Harvard worked to locate the sources of intellectual activity, how it was acquired, retained, transformed and communicated. The Center for Cognitive Studies, headed by psychologist Jerome Bruner (1961), directed its study toward the infant. While Bruner agreed with principles formulated by Piaget, he felt that the origins of cognitive behavior were much earlier in the child's life (Bruner, 1960, 1969). Both men, Piaget and Bruner, emphasized that they study early childhood, not early childhood education.

Bruner conducted experiments with children of four months of age and younger. One such experiment with infants in this age group involved presenting the children with nipples that were electrically hooked to a series

of unfocused pictures. The infant had to suck on the nipple in order to bring the picture into clear focus. The babies soon learned to do this and to keep them in focus. "You are struck with this drive for mastery of the environment...Given a chance, the babies will mobilize and do it."[13]

It is highly plausible that the unaware parent may stifle this drive by limiting the learning environment to which the child is allowed to be exposed. Personal experience related to the social mores which dictate what she should or should not allow the child to learn compounds the possibility of parental limitation in stimulative experience for the child.

Bruner's text (1960), considered a classic, influenced and introduced educators to the recognized maxim of early learning: "Basically, the nature of learning is activating the child to try something out...Capacity is absolutely of no avail if you leave it to the genes alone. You need an opportunity for use."[14] Pure and simple physiological maturation unaccompanied by adequate or appropriate stimulation will not encourage intellectual growth in the child, nor will it lead the way to uncovering or releasing the child's innate potential.

A third thrust of research out of Harvard came from the Department of Social Relations. Professor Jerome Kagan

turned to a study of developmental differences of young children from various social class levels. Dr. Kagan (1971), was one of the first researchers to use electronic equipment in his methodology. He concentrated on recording physiological reactions of children during the experimental situation. With equipment lightly and painlessly attached to the infant's chest, he recorded the heartbeat pattern with infants as early as four months of age. Tangible evidence was gathered that seemed to indicate that the child exhibited symptoms similar to adults in his efforts to control the environment. In tests of attentionality, for example, the child's heartbeat slowed down indicating alertness and paying attention to a specific stimulus.

> By measuring heart rates, it was found that infants react much like adults when confronted with new and puzzling problems. Child developmentalists need to learn to manipulate the environment in that way which best stimulates the thinking patterns...Early learning is important because the system is developing beliefs and skills from the beginning. Learning is not closed off at any point, but what you first put into a system sets up a resistance to other things, i.e., if the individual learns to serve a tennis ball from a poor instructor, it will be hard to serve properly.[15]

Dr. Kagan found that middle-class children were better at discriminating between similar sensory stimuli; were more attentive to unusual or unexpected happenings around them; formed closer attachments to the mother thereby facilitating adoption of the mother's values and goals;

received much more talking, smiling, playing of face-to-face games from their mothers. There was no implication of lack of love or interest in the child on the part of the poor parent. The lower-class parent, however, tends to talk from further away in the room, or in the other room; tends to issue orders rather than engage in conversation; does not take time for periods of reciprocal play with the child. Crowded living conditions contributed to these differences. The noise-filled milieu of the low-income household encouraged the infant and young child to ignore many of the auditory clues he received from the environment.[16]

These three groups of researchers, and many others, agree that some very fundamental learning patterns are established well before the age of three. Prevention of handicapping conditions involves the need to somehow change parenting behaviors, especially of low-socio-economic groups.

Investigation of Parenting Behaviors

Nearly every program delving into modern infant and toddler education has focussed almost as much on the parent as on the child. Weikart (1967), of the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation in Ypsilanti, Michigan, worked with the children in sixty-seven families, aged three months to twenty-seven months. A home visitor went

into the home weekly when the child was three months old. After three months, when the infant was six months old, he was brought to the Center. One "carer" worked with each child in a Center playroom. Mothers observed the activity from the privacy of an observation room with a one-way mirror.[17] The infants showed an unanticipated awareness of their environment and active participation in the learning activities, and the mothers remained, primarily observers.

From the University of Florida in Gainesville, Dr. Ira Gordon (1968, 1970), pioneered an infant education program. His workers, "parent educators" went into the homes of economically disadvantaged, minority families. The purpose was to introduce a parenting format that would help stimulate the child in development of sensory, perceptual, motor and intellectual potential. Materials for the "back-fence" school were common, every-day objects and supplies found in the home which provided learning and manipulative experiences for the child. Parents were encouraged to emulate the model set by the parent educator to increase the social-verbal interaction between child and adult. The parent, an active participant in the program learned that she could have a positive effect on the child's development. Secondary beneficial results evolving from Gordon's Parent Educator program were found in the

improvement of parents' self-esteem. A number of these mothers, following the increase in positive self-image, moved to better housing, found better jobs, and a few even returned to school.[18] Treated almost as an incidental occurence, they had accomplished an obvious change in life-style over that which they had been living prior to their active involvement in the infant education program.

Dr. Phyllis Levenstein (1967) provided a "Toy Lady" to go into the homes of low-income parents in her Verbal Interaction Project in Freeport, Long Island. An important element pertinent to the concept of home visitation programs was the continued awareness of intrusion into the home throughout the three-year experimental program. Even in the third year of its operation, the sixty mothers involved were active in each session for an average of only one-third of the learning period. A report of the project delivered at the Society for Research in Child Development clearly stated that the program and its workers were an intrusion, invited by some, passively accepted by others, and openly rejected by still others. Continuation of the study will examine the positive effects thus far accomplished in this intervention on the child's cognitive growth and will begin to explore this equally important aspect of the affective impact on the mother.[19]

Training the parent to provide an increased verbal

environment for the child was a basic element of the Mother-Home Child Program. Toys and books were brought into the home by the toy demonstrator; their use demonstrated with the child; and were then left in the home for Mother to use. The proposition of the study was that low-income mothers could be effective tutors in providing a conspicuous language thrust for the child, especially between the ages of two and three, an important age in the development of speech. The first year of the study verified and supported a previous general observation of limited verbal interaction between mother and child with which other studies have concurred.[20]

Communication Skills Development

The child's verbal skills are a vital and integral part of his developmental processes. His ability to learn to communicate is frequently taken for granted, with little thought given to the difficulty and complexity in its development. A simplified analysis of components which must be integrated into the process, reflecting the findings of researchers in the field, is presented.

Vygotsky (1962) indicated that the child's prelinguistic period in thought and preintellectual period in speech are levels in his development of meaningful communication. The bond between word and meaning is an associative bond dependent on sensation, perception, imagery and

symbol formulation established through repeated simultaneous perception of certain pattern of sounds (auditory perception) and a certain object (visual [illegible] tactile perception).[21] Sensation involves the acti[illegible]on of sensorineural structures within the human being in response to environmental stimuli. Sufficient experience with ongoing sensations of seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting, smelling or combinations of sensorineural inputs, results in the attachment of a percept to the particular stimulus responsible for rousing the initial sensory response. In the auditory realm, classification of specific sounds from the general noise environment is made through perception.

Imagery, differing from perception in that it pertains to information already received and perceived, can be related to the process of memory; reactivation of information already stored in the memory bank. It is this concept of imagery (Penfield and Roberts, 1959; Miller and Pribram, 1960; Mowrer, 1960), that perception concerns itself with awareness relative to ongoing sensations and imagery pertains to sensations already received and perceptually classified, that allows the distinction between the processes of perception and memory.[22] A fourth experiential element necessary to the development of language is symbolization. Symbolization, or the use of representational codes, refers to that behavior of both verbal and nonverbal learning,

which can represent the experience.

Operational divisions of language come under three main headings: inner language; receptive language; and expressive language. Word meaning must be acquired before words can be used as words (Vygotsky, 1962). For a word to have meaning it must represent a give unit of experience. Inner language processes are those that permit the transformation and interpretation of experience into symbols, verbal and nonverbal. Inner language is the language with which the human being thinks, or the process by which speech turns inward into thought.[23]

Oral receptive language involves the auditory receptive ability to comprehend the spoken word. An interference in the inner language process, possible deprivation of information or inability to utilize the information on the sensory, perception, imagery and symbolization levels, can produce receptive language deficits. Receptive language also encompasses the visual reception aspect necessary for the child to be able to learn to read.[24] While most of the research in the receptive language area (Goldstein, 1948; Werner and Kaplan, 1963; Russell, 1965; Russell and Espir, 1961), has dealt with the neurologically impaired, language involved individual, symptoms of similar language deficits have been noted in children with no known history of organicity, but only functional behavioral manifestations

of differences. Children who have been diagnosed as having disabilities in auditory receptive language frequently show behavior characterized by hyperactivity, perseveration, disinhibition, distractibility and poorly sustained attention (McGrady, 1964).25

Expressive language, the verbal behavior involved in talking and writing, develops following a sufficient degree of comprehension and acquisition of meaningful units of experience. Response to auditory sensory stimulation, frequently and strongly enough presented, along with perception and imagery development, form the bases of silent associations between initial reception of unclassified noise by the neonate and development of appropriate and meaningful verbal symbolization of the toddler and late childhood years. Until the child has learned to pay attention to the communication code, store those elements in his memory bank, retrieve the stored information at will, it remains difficult for him to use those symbols, to which he has been auditorily exposed, with meaning. He will only imitate the symbols, parroting them, rather than voluntarily initiating their use meaningfully.

Environmental factors of home, family and neighborhood became increasingly important as responsibility for the beginnings of intellectual growth of the child were

placed within the parent/home constellation. Home factors gained new heights of importance in the eyes of educators, child psychologists, day care center proponents, learning researchers, social problems specialists, etc.

Stimulative Environments in the Home

Hunt (1961), in his work, had found some indication of inadequate social and sensory stimulation provided by the ghetto mother.[26] Cynthia Deutch had interpreted the effect of sensory stimulation in the ghetto home from a different point of view. She contended that there might be excessive sensory stimulation, too many stimuli to which the child had to respond. His reaction to it was to tune it out because he could not respond to all of it.[27] His selectivity, developed as a protective mechanism, created a partial vacuum in which he lived. This rejection curtailed much of that experience he needed to adapt to the academic situation. Kagan (1968) seemed to support the quantitative findings of stimulation but said that it lacked the distinction it needed to provide the ghetto child with the tools he needed for formal schooling. It also suggested that cognitive deficit might result from insufficient social interaction with the responsible adult in his environment.[28] The work of Hess, Shipman, Brophy and Bear (1968) furnished a good deal of information concerning teaching styles and maternal language usage of the low-income

parent. They found that those skills relevant to language and concept development, which every child potentially has, had little encouragement in homes where the mother's behavior was restrictive and where there was a lack of books, or reading aloud to the child.[29] The lack of social and verbal stimulation and its possible effect on the academic attainments of the child was further supported by the landmark study of Irwin (1960) in which findings of the relationship between babbling and being read to, was established. Children who have systematically been read to from early months, consistently show a significant increase in babbling, a recognized milestone in the developmental processes of the child.[30]

The nature of intellectual and language development researched since mid 1950 pointed to several factors: apparently children receiving too little or too much indiscriminate sensory stimulation may be handicapped in making an educational adjustment even though their survival orientation may be more than adequate; a lack of general reading materials in the home, though this aspect may be changing; little conversational exchange between the child and adult in the home; the negative effect of restrictive learning styles of the parent on the child; little or no reading aloud to the child; motivational encouragement to do well in school, often verbalized, with little action follow-up.

Parent-Involved Programs

Parent involvement was deemed a vital element to many early intervention programs. Almost two hundred home-based programs have been devised in the past few years devoted to helping parents in one way or another in dealing with their children. Project Home Start, an off-shoot of Head Start, launched a three-year program in 1971. The plan was to bring the comprehensive child development services of Head Start into the home. From Anne O'Keefe, the Director of Home Start, interim findings seem to indicate parents are interested in seeking guidance in the difficult task of rearing their children in a world caught up in future shock.[31]

The average parent needs some means of learning about the child's individual differences other than the misleading premise of "instinctual" knowledge. Infant day care centers in both community and university laboratories encourage the mother to come to the "school" with the child. Mother might also drop the child off at the Center while she went on to a job or vocational training. A second type of mother-involved training was found in programs where Mother was visited in her home and given whatever training the program was a proponent of.

Parent-involvement programs prior to the home-based type had usually meant parent participation in some capacity

in the formal institution. There were parents in Head Start classrooms, day care center facilities and a variety of preschool programs. A few of the community people became paid aides in the institution's programs but most parents participated as occasional volunteers in the classroom, on field trips, in covering emergency absences of regular employees, etc. Other opportunities for parents' involvement were: participation in the decision-making process; advisory capacity in hiring personnel; child development classes; parent group organization similar to PTA.

Conditions seen as weakness in both types of parent-involved programs have to do with attitudes and site of operation. Programs operating within the confines of and under the egis of the school must first find the means for penetrating the resistance, heavy with tradition, between parents and teachers. Parents have for many years been urged to leave the child's education to the school.

Presenting a program in the home may be, at once, easier and even more precarious. It is a genuinely hospitable gesture to offer the visitor a congenial cup of coffee. It is another matter to accept the visitor's program. Location in either site carries with it a tacit implication of criticism of the parent, the corollary for which is that the school or visitor can do it better.

The invasion of the privacy of the home was only one

of the delicate situations, highly colored by emotion, to be overcome. Evelyn Moore, Director of the Black Child Development Institute, had cautioned that interventions in child-rearing must be undertaken with great care. Her contention, from the black perspective, was that child-rearing methods had been very effective in readying the black child to enter a hostile society. She deemed it vital to his survival and not to be lightly cast aside.[32]

A major objective of the model, as was indicated in Chapter I, is to describe an educational program that encompasses positive change in learning and includes the practical possibility of altering conditions in other sectors of the parent's social environment.

The greatest threat to realizing positive change in attitude for the poor black, Puerto Rican or white parent, is the eventual resentment at remaining in the position where she must accept "help." Ultimately, a demoralizing effect must become attached to the package of "help" unless there can be an accompanying possibility of change in life style for the parent, too.

Exponents of the learning process and child development experts such as Piaget, Bloom, White, Kagan and others, influenced the arousal of interest in home and neighborhood. Piaget's contribution regarding the child's cognitive development being dependent on personal experience may have

been considered a paraphrasing of Dewey's "we learn by doing" philosophy. Perhaps Dr. Urie Bronfenbrenner, consultant and advisor to the National Head Start Program supplied the ingredient needed to validate the rush toward early childhood education and training programs. He said that any long-range consistent change in the child's development depended upon lasting and significant change in the people directly responsible for his well-being.[33] For the young child, in most instances, his parent or other members of his family are directly responsible for his welfare.

Hartford's Innovative Programs

To continue with review of the literature supporting an earlier start of stimulating the young child seems to be an unnecessary redundancy. It is pertinent, however, to mention briefly my direct involvement in four early childhood programs in Hartford which evolved out of the national concern for the young urban child. Experience gained from involvement in those programs had direct bearings on the development of the Inquiry Learning Center Model.

In an effort to overcome the negative attitudes engendered by past history, Hartford introduced innovative programs into the schools for the five years prior to 1970. Some of them were highly influenced by English imports: The Open Classroom and British Infant School, and by the resurgence of interest in the Montessori sensory-motor training

format. The educator/school community began to move towards a more flexible, individualized, self-directed program for the school population. Elementary education concepts such as non-gradedness, abolishment of ABCDE report cards, the multi-instructional area format (MIA), team-teaching, youth-teaching-youth, Montessori-influenced classroom learning centers, emphasis on the importance of the affective realm in promoting cognitive growth, recognition of the need for positive self-image as being vital to the child's learning, are but a few of the innovative practices that were explored.

Implementation of the full-year Head Start-Child Development Program was in January, 1965. It was the first of the innovational programs to employ the full-time, educational paraprofessional, an important new element in community involvement.

Head Start was the stepping stone for instituting a second early childhood program, the Follow-Through kindergarten model established in the school year 1968-1969. Follow-Through was operated as a combination of the British Infant School Open Classroom and the Montessori sensory-motor approach to early childhood learning. It, too, utilized the community paraprofessional.

The next two programs to be mentioned were temporary and highly concentrated in nature. The first was a Saturday morning Toddlers' School for children from eighteen months

to three years of age which operated from January to June, 1968. A parent had to attend the hour session, first to observe and then to participate in the activities, tailored to the individual child. Most of the activities were comprised of manipulative-skills training toys and games. The intent was to help the parent not only by suggesting activities and ideas to be used to stimulate the child's sensory-motor development, but also to have the activities act as the vehicle for increasing parent-child interaction.

The second short-term program was a special in-service workshop for the instructional staffs of the preschool programs operated under the jurisdiction of the Hartford Board of Education, Head Start and School Readiness. The five-week summer program in 1970 was the first opportunity to provide a coordinated and uniform in-service period for the combined preschool presonnel. The "new" individualized, self-directed learning environment for children, to which the Early Childhood Program was committed, was to be the focal point of study for the preschool educators.

The unique feature of the summer workshop was the parent component. Parents were exposed to the in-service training of the instructional teams. For the first time in Hartford, members of the child's educational family and his nucleus family were exposed simultaneously to similar training along with the child. A group of more than thirty

mothers participated regularly: to gain an understanding of the child's learning environment, home and school; to learn techniques and practices that encouraged self-motivated and individualized learning responsibilities in the child; and to be actively involved in the expanded readying of the child for Follow-Through kindergarten in the Fall. They were encouraged to develop a home "curriulum" suggested by their workshop activities. This particular summer workshop, superimposed on many years of work in year-round special training programs, crystalized the importance that the Inquiry Learning Center Model has placed on paid parent in-service training. It is seen as a possible means of sustaining the initial positive results with the preschool child.

The problems and inadequacies identified through the active involvement in all four of these programs provided the baseline for the Inquiry Learning Center Model. An oversimplified recounting of them includes: the need to improve teacher-paraprofessional interpersonal relations; the need to train adults to observe the actual functioning ability of the child and to divorce themselves from the preconceived ideas of what it ought to be; the need to interest those parents unfamiliar with techniques for stimulating and encouraging the child's motor-perceptual-language development; the need for the adult's active participation in

providing a stimulating aural and oral environment; the need to provide an option for possible change of life style for the parent as a means of encouraging continued interest.

Research Implications

Educational research indicated that change in the educational program at school level is too late for too many of the children. Involvement of home and family through counseling, observation and exposure to discussions of child development and home management has been insufficient to bring about sustained results. Participation in innovative in-service training and learning experiences, with the child, has aided the professional educator. It seems equally plausible that parents might well profit from a similar type of in-service training in order to better grasp new educational concepts.

Those studies or projects, where glimmerings of long-range success with parent and child have been noted, have come about after there has been active participation of the parent in the instructional program along with the counseling and observation. The outstanding example of this is seen in the target-area educational paraprofessional who has received on-site training, as well as formal education experiences, and has been paid for the recognized worth of the contribution. This person often initially involved through her own child, gaining self-esteem and recognition

of her peers and community, has moved upward to a different life style for which she could opt; and has maintained it.

Change in the educational style of the child should be accompanied by a change in life style of the parent to provide a better incentive for the parent to sustain that long-range interest, or the credibility of that educational change suffers. It has been hypothesized that the failure of Head Start to maintain the initial gains for the child, was, in part, due to relegating the parent and his understanding of the school's program to the background. As the child moved up the academic ladder the parent's position changed very little, inside or outside the school. It becomes very difficult to continue to remain excited or interested in that which is progressively less understood.

Emphasis has been placed on the importance of the parent, home/neighborhood elements in the child's background. Recognition of the marked influence of his home, neighborhood and community on the child's learning is accepted in formal learning circles. If these factors are to be given the credence of their importance, then the expertise contained therein must be explored and included in the total educational plan for the child. Responsibility for the contemporary school, then, can be shared between school and community members appropriately prepared to take their place on the total differentiated teaching staff. Without such support

and shared responsibility, change of educational programs operate with a built-in defeat factor.

Chapter III will present the rationale supporting the Activities of Daily Living Curriculum and the operational definitions of the Model.

CHAPTER III

THE INQUIRY LEARNING CENTER MODEL

Chapter III details the methodology of the Inquiry Learning Center Model as a community action program in a city housing project in Hartford, Connecticut. A series of conferences were held with the Supervisor of Tenant Relations (TRA) of the Hartford Housing Authority, to obtain a qualified opinion from him as to the practical feasibility of the concept in regard to possible implementation of such a program. His background included serving several years on the Hartford Board of Education followed by involvement in the Head Start Program for the State of Mississippi as its Chief Executive Officer. Keen awareness of problems in the formal school setting, preschool programs, and daily living situations of the low-income public housing resident made his opinion one that was based on knowledge and experience. He was regarded as being particularly suitable to judge the practicality of the hypotheses and methodology of the Inquiry Learning Center Model presented in this chapter.

The Model was treated as if it was an imminent reality. Its practicality was further complimented by the TRA Supervisor in his providing data regarding a specific housing project as one that could successfully adopt a

program such as that offered in the Inquiry Learning Center. Because of the Supervisor's supportive encouragement of the Model, the explanatory section of the Model's hypotheses and methodology has been treated as if it would go into operation at the beginning of the next school year.

The organizational structure of the city housing in Hartford lends itself to facilitating the implementation of the Center in one of the Hartford Housing Authority projects. Low income or public welfare families, for whom the program is meant, live in or near a public housing development. Each development, relatively autonomous unto itself, has a manager, clerical staff and a corps of Tenant Relations Advisors (TRA's). The TRA's in the public housing projects are centrally responsible to the Supervisor of Tenant Relations Advisors of the Hartford Housing Authority. They are considered important community resource people who can assist in the implementation of the community action program, and anticipate possible problems in the logistics.

Counteracting the Traditional Fixed Curriculum

The Inquiry Learning Center Model is designed to establish an in-service training center for parent and child, aged six months to three years of age, to be located in a public housing development. The Center, located in neither the school nor home, provides a neutral area that minimizes

the tacit implication of inadequacy which school and home-based programs suggest. Responsibility for the beginnings of intellectual growth of the child has been placed in the parent/home constellation. There is need to assist the parent in gaining that type of parenting experience related to this responsibility and to supplement discussion, written explanation or observation usually offered by the school. The parent needs an in-service training program similar to that which has been necessary for the instructional staff, in order to gain insight into innovative educational programs. Without such in-service, the parent finds it difficult to divorce herself from the authoritarian and restricting school experience she has known and which influences her expectations of the school and child.

Restraints have radiated from the school in connection with the use of an inflexible curriculum. The fixed cirriculum has been instrumental in ordering the school environment in such a way that it insists that the child learn those concepts he is allowed to build; those attitudes he is "brain-washed" into assuming; the superficial informational data he is forced to ingest.

The suppression engendered by rigid curricula pertains not only to the school but also to the informal curriculum of the home: how the parent talks to the child; the status of the child in the home; learning materials found

in the home; activities the child is allowed to experience are confined within parameters labelled "discipline" and often confused with punishment. In home and school the discipline adhered to is other-imposed and punishment-related, with little opportunity for development of self-discipline. Home training is devised to agree with the school program that the parent's experience has taught him will be waiting for the child. The adult dictates to the child those activities which he, the adult, judges to be correct, wise or beneficial for the child to indulge in. Personal interests of the child are infrequently considered if they do not conform to the adult's idea of what the child <u>should</u> be interested in.

The Inquiry Learning Center program strives to soften some of these limitations. The program's goals are used as a long-range guide. The curriculum, however, will be planned on a daily to weekly basis. Today's discovery of inadequacy or strength, the child's need to experience a different approach to an activity or the encouragement to continue in acceptable behavior, will be included in the curriculum of tomorrow. It will constitute a relevant curriculum for the child in the inquiry learning environment, relevant to revealed needs and not rigidly tied to the achievement of an activity assigned by a fixed curriculum.

Finite limitations of fixed curricula do not lend

themselves to helping the individual develop behavioral adaptations necessary to meet the, as yet, unknown demands of the future. The rigidity of public school format, reflecting society in general, has trained the individual to resist change. That same society has already shown vague uneasiness with regard to rapid pace of change. It would seem, then, that a logical addition to learning should be removal of fear of change. Development of the individual's confidence in his ability to cope with change through appropriate adaptive behaviors is more feasible with an attitude of acceptance rather than resistance to change.

Dewey's philosophy, "We learn by doing," is an acceptable base of an inquiry learning environment. Its drawback is revealed in a rephrasing of it. The child learns what he is _permitted to do_. Restrictions in his milieu, home or school, put limitations on what he is allowed to do and, therefore, learn. Questioning, or behavior that attempts to overstep those bounds, is quickly and authoritatively forbidden. Danger or risk to the well-being of the individual, a logical and necessary restriction, is not always the main reason for setting up the limitations. An activity is frequently negated merely because it is inconvenient, time-consuming, lacking in interest to the adult, or even more limiting, deemed unnecessary by the adult who dominates the particular environment

of the moment.

Structural Flexibility

Flexibility, along with inquiry, is the keystone of the Inquiry Learning Cetner program. The delineated goals are considered an adequate beginning. Discovery of new or different goals along the road to the original objectives must not be precluded simply because they do not "fit" into the originally prescribed route. Feedback and evaluation, integral elements of the program, may serve to open up other desirable goals, behaviors and activities. Flexibility of the Center program will encourage the incorporation of beneficial new directions as they may be disclosed. The Center programs' goals indiciate the initial direction in which to move and are meant to provide a non-confining and non-restricting milieu. The goals promote opportunities to:

1. Stimulate, promote and make use of the natural curiosity of the toddler. The inquiry learning environment will capitalize on this natural resource of infancy and childhood.

2. Encourage the belief that questioning is the source of knowledge and the inquiries of the child, verbal and nonverbal, will serve as the basis of the daily curriculum.

3. Minimize the importance of the fixed curriculum in order to build tomorrow's meaningful activities on today's noted needs.

4. Incorporate many of the educational trends and current knowledge of the child's developmental processes into the inquiry learning environment

in order to produce learning that is effective, meaningful and relevant.

5. Provide the child with a pattern of learning that will promote understanding of interaction with other people.

6. Provide the child with a pattern of learning that will encourage confidence in and awareness of himself.

7. Bring the child into the "real" world as much as possible.

8. Bring as much of the world as possible into the learning Center, including animals, people and things.

9. Provide the child with early experiential exposure to symbols and symbol manipulation, a special necessity for the human child since he is born into a symbolic environment as well as a physical one.

10. Establish a meaningful involvement of parent, neighborhood and community people, in the operation of the Inquiry Learning Center to facilitate the understanding of the changes in the traditional school system; to foster the expansion and enhancement of a more flexible, inquiry learning environment in the home and neighborhood.

11. Provide for the adults that experience and background that will facilitate local involvement and responsibility for the Center by neighborhood residents.

The Activities of Daily Living Curriculum

The curriculum plan for the Center has been named the Activities of Daily Living (ADL), which is essentially an experienced-based curriculum. Its name, Activities of Daily living, has been borrowed from the profession of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, a very practical field dedicated to the promotion of skills to meet the

daily needs of people who have some type of physical problem. The patient's program is planned according to the observed functioning ability he has demonstrated. The significant factor about an ADL program is that I.Q., age, sex, socio-economic bracket are superficial considerations. Primarily, concern centers about what the patient can do. He is trained to build on that known ability leading to the highest level of performance achievement within his physiological limitations.

The importance of a goal-activity such as self-feeding, for example, is readily understood. The end result may be successfully attained through a variety of processes. They are easily identified where limitations in motor function are obvious. Few limitations are placed in the way of goal-directed activity, beyond personal safety, for the physically handicapped individual. The number of repetitions he may need to reach goal is not limited. Neither is the amount of time he may need for a given meal, nor the non-average methods the patient may devise to accomplish the goal. Therapists understand and accept the wide range of variance whereby the patient ultimately may learn to put the food into his mouth, and consequently achieve success.

The ADL curriculum of the Center plans to put into operation a similar removal of restriction in experiential,

exploratory, random activities of the child, as long as they are not potentially threatening to the child's safety. The quality of performance, an important consideration in the learning process, is believed to be a matter of refinement through practice plus expansion of self-motivation. Reinforcement and reward of successful experience are considered the keys to unlock the door to self-confident and self-motivated quality performance.

The process leading to self-confidence is in the ability to move, from relatively primitive performance of an activity to self-controlled, self-motivated successful adaptation of a higher level of quality performance of that activity. This process embodies the concept of acceptance of change. It is believed that the child must be trained to cope with future needs. Acceptance of change can be begun at this early age and strongly inculcated into his understanding of the learning process.

Broad "Topics" or Units of the ADL Program

Most courses of study use a syllabus as a general guide from which the direction of the course work emanates. It contains the main units of study to be covered by the daily curriculum. The units of learning of the ADL syllabus are broadly defined goals, describing generic abilities and attitudes needed by the child in his development. The daily curriculum must provide those activities that will

tend to fulfill that prospectus. Two main objectives underlying the goals are:

1. The child must be encouraged to engage in the activities with maximum participation and creativity.
2. The broad topics are not to be interpreted as fragmented, unrelated, isolated steps of accomplishment.

If the learning environment is to promote maximum creative activity on the part of the child, then it must be free from the demand to conform to the usual adult level of "perfection" of performance. This is a common affliction of teaching adults, and pressure to achieve that adult standard must be removed. It behcoves the adults to address themselves to the unique "human-ness" of each child, to accept him, the learning style, and the attitudes of this "raw material." Superimposing or enforcing the "molding" of the uniqueness to fit the extrinsic learning needs decided by the adult, limits what the child will be allowed to learn. Indeed, his uniqueness is usually ignored or lost in the insistence on the child's conformity.

Elimination of fragmentation fostered by a fixed curriculum can be realized only if the broad units are not interpreted to be isolated, unrelated goals of accomplishment. They might better be viewed as threads closely interwoven into the total fabric of the child's maturation-learning process. There may be need to "pull" a single thread more tightly at times to strengthen the total fabric.

But if that thread is pulled overly taut, in relation to the other threads, then the fabric will show a flaw. It becomes worthy of only a "seconds" label and not first-class quality.

The major "subjects" of the ADL program, the broadly defined goals, are designated as follows.

1. Development of motor skills and confidence through activities leading to maximum development of potential in crawling, walking, running, jumping, climbing, balancing, learning to use the body effectively.

2. Development of manipulatory skills through activities leading to maximum development of potential in grasping, holding, manipulation of small items, pattern following in bead stringing, peg board, and block building activities, working with puzzles, crayons, finger paints, ets.

3. Development of language and speech through activities leading to maximum development of potential in the receptive, expressive and inner aspects of language; through exposure to a stimulating environment by listening to noises, sounds, words, and taking meaning to them; comprehending and reacting appropriately to oral instruction and directions; participating in meaningful interpersonal verbal communication; learning of nursery rhymes and short stories, music and rhythm activities, and "naming" of things in the environment.

4. Development of appropriate behavior through activities leading to the learning of control and restraint, coping with fear, anger and disappointment, development of humor, fun, and healthy competition and conscience formation.

5. Development of the intellect through activities leading to cognitive learning, concept formation, self-understanding and self-esteem, creativity and readying for the academic environment.

In the reference to the rationale of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation and its acceptance of goal-activity, the methods, techniques or goal-directed activities were inconsequential as long as the objective was attained. The Inquiry Learning Center's program does not demand a particular method or means by which the goal must be achieved by all children. That is within the purview of curriculum development. In fact, they, methods and procedures, will be determined by the child's creativity in his attempt at, and refinement of, the goal-directed activity he finds relevant to reaching the goal.

For example, under the broad subject, Development of Motor Skills, the curriculum may indicate water play activities. Controlled ability to pour water from one container to another may be the specific competency the child must exhibit to some degree. He will not be told to do it according to the adult's dictum. The goal of controlled pouring is set by the adult and the child should be apprised of that goal. The actual methods or procedures he goes through to accomplish it are set by his own creative bent, not redirected by the adult. He may choose to turn on a faucet to fill the container, dip it into a tub of water, use a hose or sprinking can, or spoon it into the container. It doesn't matter. The other things he learns by his random approach are also important: the length of time it takes

to spoon the water into the cup in relation to turning the faucet on; the degree of wetness of clothing he may experience with using the hose versus the spoon; the size of different containers he may choose to fill and pour from. Somewhere earlier along the way leading to this procedure, he had to first learn that something had to be in the container before he could pour it out. If the child has difficulty in making progress toward the goal, after sufficient opportunity for repetitive attempts, the adult can intervene, probably by setting a model for the child to imitate.

Beyond the kinesthetic and tactile awareness gained by the child in the actual doing, his greatest learning enhancement will come from the verbal discourse concerning the activity, carried on with him by the parent and other adults in the Center. The adults will have to be educated to meet the child's need for this regular verbal interaction. In addition, ordinary adult annoyance with wet clothing, spills on the floor, the child's slowness in learning to handle the container properly, will have to be eliminated from adult reaction. The adult's observation of the child and her interaction with him will allow her to make the positive reinforcement of the behavior that moves the child toward adequate goal-activity.

An inquiry learning environment should provide

activities that are interesting and challenging to the child, requiring him to respond to sights, sounds and actions around him; allowing him to do things with hands, feet, eyes and voice; encouraging him to help himself develop body and mind. The parent can help him to learn to use his body; to learn the vocabulary and language he needs to get on in the world; to begin the storage of ideas and concepts; and, very important during the child's early years, to develop a positive and trusting feeling toward Mother and himself.

Motor, Self-Image and Language Components

Disciplines related to early childhood development and education have indicated the importance of stimulation of the child's motor and perceptual development (Montessori, 1964; Kephart, 1971). Perceptual-sensory-motor training is not only an asset but is considered vital to the child's adaptation and success in life. Another strong influence in early childhood education is that type of self-image the child develops. His feelings about himself, positive or negative, greatly color his approach to learning (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970). A third element crucial to all learning, formal or informal, is the acquisition of language with subsequent development of speech, the recognized bases of all communication skills in the ensuing years of school career and adulthood (Bangs, 1969). The ADL

curriculum starts with these accepted premises. It takes advantage of normal developmental processes to build the curriculum.

The ADL curriculum capitalizes on the child's natural desire for play. His job in life, during the early years, is to play himself into understanding. Sensory-motor activities provide experiences that encourage and broaden his potential while scaling the maturational ladder. Omissions or inadequacies of the environment, if any, can be compensated for by placing the emphasis of the curriculum on such activities, and so it becomes preventive in nature. The child with advanced maturational level of abilities is not hindered, since activities commensurate with his abilities will be provided for him.

The ADL approach encompasses the child's need to know success. When he has the ability to accomplish any given task, the child has the beginnings of a positive self-image within this grasp. A child who *knows* he can zip his jacket open, has a self-assured attitude of success toward that activity. It is difficult to remove that positive attitude from his feelings. His triumphs of accomplishment become the physical medium on which the psychodynamic seed of positive self-image can flourish. Success in activity and positive attitude are the means by which the child may be aided in becoming a self-directed

individual. A viable balance between independence and dependence is the desired behavioral objective leading to individualized and self-motivated learning.

The ADL curriculum emphasizes a third prerequisite, language development, through which the child can step away from his predominantly concrete and tangible world over into the symbolic realm. Language, the use and manipultion of symbols, is comprised of receptive language (reception, classifying and categorizing); concept building (internalizing and retrieval of stored knowledge, abstract behavior and thinking); and verbal communication (oral language, speech, vocabulary and linguistic development).

The child's increasing complexity of, and adaptability to, daily activities is a result of far more than maturation. He must be able to coordinate and organize the auditory, visual, tactile and motor information he gains through his random exploratory play. They are all factors vital to the child's later success in acquiring reading and writing skills and point up the importance of language development. In responding to verbal stimulation the child must learn to accomplish several tasks. He must go through a series of processes: receive the auditory stimuli; assimilate or interpret the auditory symbols received; scan out the irrelevant stimuli; decide on the appropriate response, whether it be verbal or some other form

of expression; and finally carry out the decision. This same type of processing is applicable to any form of communication whether it be gesture, listening, reading, writing, or any combination thereof.[1]

Speech, Hearing and Language

The basic tools needed to initiate and continue communication are speech, hearing and language. The adult learned to listen and to talk in the infant, baby and toddler stages of his life. Until a child learns to express his ideas and wants in words, so that other people can understand him, he has great difficulty in taking his productive and individual place in the human family. The interdependency of these basic abilities in the development of communication skills are noted in the following simplified definitions.

Speech is a way of using the breath and certain muscles to make sounds in very precise patterns which other people understand as words. Speech can be heard. Hearing is the child's first and main connection with the talking world. Through the ear and nerves which carry sound signals to the brain, a baby learns to listen. First he becomes aware that sound exists, then certain sounds mean something, and finally that when he makes certain sounds which resemble the sounds he hears, other people will understand him. Language is the link between hearing and

speech. Language means understanding sounds, words, thinking in words, putting ideas together. Language is silent.[2]

The term, language, has three commonly used referents: spoken language, written language and read language. One other less frequently used, is gestural language: a system of mutually recognized, body, head and facial movements which contribute to motoric, nonverbal communication. Specific codes, to which people with knowledge of the symbols may take meaning, comprise languages. They are recognized, codified symbolic systems of spoken, written, read and nonverbal communication whether it be English, Spanish, musical notes or the picture story communication system found in prehistoric caves.

Of all the animal species found on earth, only man has the ability to transmit learning through language. This innate characteristic of the human organism is vital to the transferring of accumulated information and socio-cultural heritage to ensuing generations. All children are born with the potential for receiving, storing, and transmitting messages through language. This potential, however, must be developed through sufficient exposure to the experiential prerequisites for language development, sensation, perception, imagery and symbol formulation.

The ADL curriculum of the Inquiry Learning Center program provides and encourages opportunity for sensory,

perceptual and motor experiences. Its strong emphasis, is on the oral/aural communication between child and parent in an activity-centered, fun-accented atmosphere. According to Dr. Levenstein's work in the Long Island Verbal Interaction Project, parents of low-income households need to learn to talk more regularly and meaningfully with their very young children. Sister Gertrude Cormier and John Murphy (1973), in Lowell, Massachusetts, believed in the need to train parents to talk to their babies and toddlers to such degree that they authored a special baby book. It has space for recording all of the traditional milestones of growth in it. The authors have also included phrases, sentences and vocabulary hints to aid parents in broadening the aural/oral communication stimulation for the child.[3] Language development incentives are included throughout the book, covering the period from zero to five years of age.

Parents are major contributors to the ADL curriculum. Their regular contact with the child puts them in the favored position of taking advantage of the young child's golden years of learning. The individual's maximum effective rate of development--physically, mentally, emotionally and socially--can be generated through the home and parents, two essential aspects of the total learning experience of the child. It is important to start with the family because, "The imprint of the family is strong. It is the

initial and primary vehicle for passing the group's cultural heritage to the child."[4]

"Parent Effectiveness Training"

Dr. Thomas Gordon's Parent Effectiveness Training (P.E.T.) programs were started in Pasadena, California, in 1962. They have been implemented in hundreds of communities in forty-seven states and five foreign countries. Originally for parents of children with problems, they have attracted many couples with very young children or who have not yet started families. For them, P.E.T. was a measure of prevention, and substituted effective "training of parents for destructive blaming of parents." The parents, regardless of educational background, were exposed to some of the skills and training of the professional therapist and counselor and encouraged to act upon that acquired knowledge, equivalent to in-service training for parents.

The essential theme in P.E.T. is the "language of acceptance" that must be actively communicated and demonstrated between parent and child. Messages via the spoken word and messages via nonverbal communication, facial expression, gesture, general posture and stance, pass cyclically between the sender and the receiver. The messages sent to the child by the parent and those messages the parent allows himself to receive from the child, set the stage for helpful or harmful interpersonal communication patterns.[5]

Developmentally speaking, the child starts with listening to auditory stimuli, all of which are symbolic or representational. He then moves on to gesturing or bodily movement for conveying meaning which is understood by the observer. He progresses to parroting the sounds and words which is sheer imitation without meaning. Cumulative results of sufficient exposure to such experiences lay the groundwork for internalizing or thinking words. Dr. Jerome Bruner, in his book, Toward a Theory of Instruction, wrote, "Growth depends on internalizing events into a storage system...the use of language as an instrument of thinking--its internalization--is that which encourages the intellectual development of human beings."[6] The child must experience an unknown number of repetitions in the receiving and imitating of auditory stimuli, leading to internalization, before meaningful, not imitated, verbalization can be facilitated.

Both school and home have been remiss in providing stimulation and/or practice-filled opportunities for development of innate potential of speaking, hearing/listening and language. The first criterion of a good teacher has been how quiet can she maintain the classroom. Parents of the lower-socio-economic bracket do not involve themselves in an active oral/aural give-and-take with the young child. It is small wonder that many a child is behind the educational

"8-ball" in undertaking his formal schooling. He learns his social communication skills, to a large degree, from other children with similar backgrounds of relatively narrow development. Speaking, listening and language usage are not only skills crucial to the formation of interpersonal relationships, they are also the base on which the complex more abstract codes of reading, writing and arithmetic are built.

The inquiry learning environment focuses on play activities that develop self-esteem, security and intellectual growth. Given the opportunity to play and talk about the manipulative activities, the child will demonstrate his competency in comprehending the verbal communication about it. The parent, in observing the child's responses will be able to judge the degree of comprehension of the verbalization as well as the child's motor and manipulative skills in order to plan the next portion of the curriculum.

The Inquiry Learning Center Model

Examination of the mechanics of the Model includes eligibility of participants, the projected calendar, daily schedule, participants other than the parent/child teams, volunteers and the vital role of the Tenant Relations Advisor (TRA).

Eligibility of parent/child participants. Children

between the ages of six months and three years who come from poverty area environments are eligible for participation in the program. The child's enrollment is contingent upon a parent or other older member of the family committing himself to participating in the program with the child. The term "parent" will be used in the program discussion but may be interpreted to mean any responsible parent surrogate who lives in the home with the child. Any responsible adult whose regular residence is in the child's home and who is the individual with whom the child spends a major portion of his waking time is eligible as an appropriate parent substitute.

The parent must agree to the following minimum participation:

1. The parent must attend two 2-hour teaching/learning sessions each week. The sessions are planned for a 9:00 to 11:00 A.M. block of time and are believed to be more educationally sound on a Monday-Thursday, Tuesday-Friday arrangement. Better continuity of program and sustained interest is possible if the time lapse between the learning sessions is no more than three days, which the Monday-Thursday, Tuesday-Friday schedule allows.

2. The parent will be responsible for attending one evaluation/planning session and one materials development session, weekly. This is an additional three hours projected for a 12:30 to 3:30 P.M. block on Wednesdays. The two periods may be consecutive or concurrent. A weekly evaluation session is one means of discovering possible weaknesses in program activities early. It also serves to sustain the interest of the parent. The materials development period will allow for indirect training of the parent to the child's needs. Inadequacies in the learning/teaching sessions, as may be noted,

can stimulate cooperative curriculum change. The weekly evaluation sessions provide the vehicle for curriculum change or reinforcement.

3. Parents will be strongly urged to attend at least one evening meeting a month. Involvement of fathers or other male members of the family may be encouraged through such a beginning. Any family member, unable to attend or observe the day program, may become informed through an evening activity night.

Minimum participation, only, has been cited. Parents will be encouraged to participate more than the basic commitment if they wish. The commitment to seven hours a week in the Center is a stipulation for eligibility and for reimbursement. The limitation of hours for which payment can be received is especially relevant to the welfare parent. If additional income to the family exceeds a stated amount, the full allotment to the family is in jeopardy. The limitation of paid hours is meant to protect that status, but in no way limits time the parent may choose to spend at the Center.

Need for space. Two alternatives of existing space are possible sites for the Center: the community center building or meeting hall of the housing project; or the allocation of one of the larger apartments to it. The community center building, often housing the office facilities, is the less desirable of the two alternatives. The Inquiry Learning Center has need of a minimum of two rooms, in close proximity, from 8:30-3:30, Monday through Friday. One of

the two rooms will be considered the Center proper, the work area for the parent/child teams. The other room will be used for babysitting services, to supervise and care for other young children of the participating parents. There will be need for storage space or cabinets in which to lock Center materials and supplies. The community center building location has disadvantages for both Learning Center operation and for the housing development: a feeling of lack of permanence and frequent change in the environment would result from the necessary removal of Center equipment daily; and the housing development would be restricted to the hours after 3:30 and to Saturdays and Sundays in its use of the space for other housing development activities.

The preferred location for the Center would be one of the four or five room apartments of the development. The Center apartment would approximate the dwelling from which the children and parents come and provides practical and beneficial advantages. Kitchen facilities and bathroom furnishing, similar to their own homes, would broaden the scope of their activities in self-care and toileting-training. Not only would the physical conditions simulate that of their residence, but basic equipment, materials and furnishings could remain unchanged in the rooms. Along with promoting the feeling of familiarity and belongingness, a Center apartment contains a subliminal suggestion to carry

over the Center activities into the parent's apartment

The teaching/learning periods will have a one to one ratio, one child and one parent. The parent may bring any other younger children with her to the Center. Baby sitting service will be provided while the parent works with one child. One of the rooms in the Center will be allocated as the baby sitting area for children not in the teaching/learning session.

Relative freedom from disturbance by other children will give the parent a chance to concentrate on the one child she is working with. Even more important, the child is given the opportunity to work and play without interruption. Recognition of the importance of privacy of work area and of personal interest is a condition infrequently found in the crowded home situation of many of the children. Others being in the house, but not in the action area, would help to convey the importance of privacy to all concerned.

Hartford has two main types of structures in its public housing projects: (1) multi-stories, brick apartment buildings; and (2) duplex type individual buildings containing two to four apartments in them. Both types of public housing have meeting halls or community center buildings located in the developments. The Inquiry Learning Center could be installed in the existing space of

community center or meeting hall. It would be much more advantageous, however, to have one of the larger apartment units assigned for the Center's use. These two alternatives require no additional structure to be erected.

The particular housing project considered for the site of implementation, on the suggestion and approval of the Supervisor of the Tenant Relations Advisors of the Hartford Housing Authority, is Charter Oak Terrace, Section D. The project contains two-hundred-twenty-five individual housing units in it. There is an average of two preschoolers per unit. It is a relatively small development encouraging regular, personal contact with the residents. The parents residing there fall predominantly into a younger age group, between twenty to thirty years of age. Minority representation is approximately thirty per cent Puerto Rican and seventy per cent black. One-half of the families receive welfare and sixty-five per cent are one-parent households.

The units in the Charter Oak, D, housing development have grassy areas around each structure. A portion of that section could be fenced in for outdoor play. The fenced-in area offers possibilities for gardening and caring for small animals in sheltered arrangements near the Center. A wider range of learning activities could be undertaken if an apartment of the housing development were assigned for

Center use rather than a large assembly hall.

<u>Calendar</u>. The operational calendar of the Inquiry Learning Center is planned to coincide with the public school day and year. Parents involved in the Center program may have older children attending school, and will more readily accept the Center's operation if it does not conflict with other children's schedule. The Center will have the same vacation periods as the public schools. The morning 2-hour block of time in the Center will be between 9:00-11:00 for the parent/child teams. Parents will be available in their homes during school holidays and daily, to get children off to school and to be home at lunch time. One longer afternoon session is planned for Wednesdays, from 12:30-3:30. The four other afternoons will be in session from 1:00-3:00, with optional attendance for the parent, again allowing her to be home at approximately the time children arrive home at the end of the school day. Individual differences in the school calendar may make it necessary to change or adjust the Center's calendar.

<u>Daily schedule</u>. The daily schedule of the Center is planned for a five-day operation, Monday through Friday. The time limitations as set up in the schedule are flexible insofar as practical convenience may call for another time line. Staff members are expected to be on site one-half hour before and after the parent/child team is scheduled.

The total day for staff is six hours, 8:30-11:30 in the morning and 12:30-3:30 in the afternoon. The half-hour before and after the learning/teaching sessions will provide the Center staff with preparation and planning time built into the daily program. Record-keeping, parent and other agency conferencing, in-service, staff coordination will be done in an afternoon session tentatively scheduled for Mondays (see Appendix B).

The Center will be open from 8:30-3:30 daily. Two main groups of parent/child teams participate in teaching/learning sessions twice a week. The "drop-in" sessions, scheduled for Wednesday mornings, are meant to provide area residents the opportunity to come in and explore the Center, examine materials and equipment, and speak with staff available for discussion. Parents who have not registered a child will be welcomed to come in to "try" it. The participating parent who wishes to take advantage of a third morning with her child may come in for the extra session during "drop-in" time.

Three afternoons are structured for general neighborhood and community involvement along with the parents of the parent/child teams. One of these three structured afternoons will be devoted to exploration of history and background of minority groups, primarily black and Puerto Rican. Information on the living culture, customs and communication

styles will be exchanged through dancing, music, food, clothes, ethnic exploration related to the black rural and urban resident, the West Indian, and the Puerto Rican.

A second structured afternoon session will be devoted to special interest groups chosen by the participants. Sewing, cooking, handcrafts and creative endeavors have been the standard first interests usually indicated. Parents have also shown concern with child care and training, home management and self-improvement. Seminar-type sessions will be available to answer these needs as they are exhibited. The format will be expanded to at least one night session geared to the male contingency in the neighborhood. Development of the special interest activities must rely on the particular concerns of the people involved.

The third structured afternoon session will be devoted to increasing and expanding the effectiveness of housing development residents in dealing with the larger Hartford community. Resource people outside the immediate neighborhood will be invited to these sessions for demonstrations and discussion of topical situations. They would be requested to present informational background relevant to Capitol City living. Representatives from business, industry, City Council, Board of Education, media centers, etc., have much to offer. Explanations of procedure and protocol could help to remove uncertainty and intimidation from attempts by

residents to make contact with various city elements and agencies. Past experience has shown that city control groups have extended a hand to minority people asking them to express their needs. Unfortunately, many of the niceties of presentation and possible implementation procedures were not forthcoming with the extended hand. Minority residents found themselves open to criticism and/or ridicule for not knowing how to participate meaningfully in mainstream protocol. Sincerity of purpose in helping people to help themselves has to include giving them the tools for making that change in a manner that invites respect. Relatively simple and inexpensive methods of increasing mainstream information for minority people may be found in role-playing and field trips, following the visits from the knowledgeable city figures.

The fourth afternoon, from 12:30-3:30, will be taken up with the evaluation session and materials development laboratory periods. Diagnostic discussions and feedback from all participants concerning activities of the previous week will be applied to the planning of the ensuing week's program. Parental involvement in the planning, implementation and evaluation is assured with this on-going aspect of their participation. Encouragement to alter the program to meet disclosed needs will remove the limitation of fixed curriculum and force a daily living curriculum into existence.

Parents and staff can make many of the learning materials in the materials development period sessions.

A fifth afternoon, planned for Mondays, has been slated for Program Coordination Time for staff and parents. Parents will have the opportunity to gather information regarding the operational procedures of the Center on a rotating schedule. This will be a relatively unstructured block of time used to cover many time-consuming needs. Individual observation and testing of a child, enrolled in the program or not; conferences with city agency people; contacts with other interested or appropriate personnel such as physicians, nurses, psychologists, optometrists, etc.; conferences with parents and neighborhood people are only a few of the foreseen possible uses of the coordination time, along with the record-keeping and paper work necessary to run any organization. Both the evaluation periods and coordination sessions are seen as early steps toward the eventual operation of the Center by community people.

Inquiry Learning Center Staff

Initial implementation of the Inquiry Learning Center will require a staff of five people, two full-time and three part-time service people. The two full-time persons will be known as Learning Guides and must have training and/or experience in urban early childhood education. Paraprofessionals who have been employed in either Head Start or

kindergarten programs for at least two years or more, would be high on the recommended list of appropriately trained personnel to be considered for the guide positions. One of the full-time guides would have the Center activity as her primary concern. The other full-time guide would divide her work time between Center proper in the mornings, and community liaison activities in the afternoons. She will be known as a Community Liaison Guide. A part-time secretary and custodian complete the non-instructional staff. The administrative director's position will be filled by a professional educator, on part-time status, also trained in urban early childhood education with some background in supervision and/or administration.

Other participants. The infant care service is an important part of the Center's program in eliminating other children as the reason for the parent's not participating. There are several alternatives by which the service may be provided. The Neighborhood Youth Corps trainees may use it as part of the in-service training program. The Community Action Agency--The Community Renewal Team in Hartford--may develop another group needing this kind of training. The work-training programs of the high schools may be interested in providing students to cover this service. Another possibility may be found in the high school Family Living classes where students may be able to get credit for becoming involved

in a life situation of caring for young children. Two young people will be needed daily from 8:30-11:30. If need for baby sitting coverage arises in the afternoons (i.e., for evaluation sessions), it will be scheduled on a weekly basis.

Volunteers. Volunteers will be encouraged to participate in the morning or afternoon segments. They may be neighborhood people, people from the larger community, or even Greater Hartford area residents. Service groups in and outside of the housing development will be contacted by the Community Liaison Guide for the Center through appropriate channels. A Senior Citizens Group may have members interested in volunteering time to work with Center personnel. Fire, police and hospital auxilliary groups, frequently service oriented, will be approached, as well as neighborhood residents who may not have Center-age children. They will provide a pool of resource personnel to assist in the program's function.

Volunteers who wish to become involved in the teaching/learning periods, must agree to go through an on-site training period, comprised of the equivalent of eight hours (four 2-hour periods) of teaching/learning sessions and six hours (two 3-hour periods) of the evaluation, materials development sessions. More meaningful utilization of volunteer's time is better assured if there is general understanding

of the Center's objectives prior to regular volunteering in the teaching/learning sessions.

Encouragement of volunteer participation of existing neighborhood groups, community resource people is in keeping with the concept of the involvement of the community in the Center's program. Continuation of the involvement is dependent on dynamic interaction and participation of the adults. A most important element in instituting the Center is the attitude reflected towards its implementation.

The Role of the Tenant Relations Advisor

It is believed that personal contact with the parent is one of the most effective means of encouraging interest, participation and continuity of involvement of the parent. The TRA is the person who has regular, direct communication with each of the tenants. If there is a problem in the household, the tenant turns to the TRA. Social service agencies and city resources, from whom the tenant may be advised to seek special assistance, are known to the TRA's. They are in a position to be knowledgeable of the families in residence and to quickly identify those with young children. The TRA, therefore, can be a most valuable neighborhood resource person to help initiate and sustain the interest of the parent in the Inquiry Learning Center.

Personal contact and encouragement for eligible parents can help to overcome disinterest in implementing any

program. Community action programs have had to deal with the twin problems of inertia and apathy. In the past two years, attendance at one of the Model Cities nursery programs dwindled to two attending youngsters. Day-care centers in some areas have frequent absence or withdrawal of children of non-working parents. Notice of the formation of a Center in the housing project can be accomplished within the regular routine of the daily work schedule of the TRA. Well known to the tenants, the TRA has frequently been overlooked as a resource person. He can provide background information that will be very helpful in the planning, initiating and sustaining of interest in the community action program.

Planners who had introduced programs into the housing project in the past had seldom provided advance notice to the TRA. The TRA had been expected to carry out the details of such programs. Discussions with TRA's in regard to this type of action has exposed a sense of being manipulated, accompanied by resentment at being brought into the operation after the fact. Negative reaction to the program resulting from such maneuvers, may have caused an undermining of the project. TRA's will be sought out for support, advice and assistance in the early phases of preparation and operation of the Center program.

Participation of a school Resource Teacher can be

accomodated in the work schedule on a half-time basis. She will spend half her time in the school and half her time in the Center. The Inquiry Learning Center will reciprocate with the Community Liaison Guide. She will fulfill her obligation to the school by spending one-half of her working hours in that institution. Details of time and specific activities will be determined through participation of both in the Center's evaluation periods. This also serves to maintain an open line of communication between the school and the Center.

Believing that educational change begins on the personal level, this Model provides for continued personal contact through TRA participation. The Inquiry Learning Center Model has incorporated flexibility and inquiry into the working philosophy of curriculum development for its participants. Recognition of the individual's needs and providing an inquiry learning environment which encourages the learner to learn how to learn are basic premises within it.

Adults have differentiated work from play activities, giving the former an onus of tedium and the latter an aura of pleasure, with each activity being classified as one or the other. The child's work is to play himself into understanding his world, an undertaking which should remain pleasurable. He works hard at his play investments so they can return a modicum of: better understanding of the play

activities; better description of those objects used in play; a wide spectrum of associations and relationships toward the play objects and people involved with him in the play. In the play/work activities the child develops a learning of variabilities, not only a meaningful base for learning how to learn, but also to accept change as one of the variables.

The Inquiry Learning Center's definition of educational integration--the living and learning of differences while maintaining the integrity and uniqueness of individuality within the learning structure--seems a proper path to effective education for the times. To this end, the Inquiry Learning Center Model is looked on as a possible pilot/observational study to be implemented in the immediate environs of the public housing of the young preschool child and his family.

CHAPTER IV

IMPLICATIONS FOR PARENT IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Chapter IV describes the findings that reinforced my belief in the need to blend Adult Education and Toddler Education into a combined working unit. Those findings evolved from a combination of regular review of the expanding research in early childhood education, and at least, three different areas of my work experiences engaged in for more than two decades. A brief annotation of those realms of experience is necessary to indicate their spheres of influence on the development of the Inquiry Learning Center Model.

The first area of concentration. The first area of concentration was with male adults in a State Veterans Hopsital in Connecticut, where the majority of the patients dealt with were diagnosed as aphasics. A simplified, brief explanation of aphasia identifies it as a loss in the use and manipulation of language symbols. The inability to exhibit facility in language usage is frequently accompanied by a right, hemiplegic paralysis, or weakness of musculature on the right side. In popular parlance the patient is a stroke victim who has sustained a type of brain injury which inhibits or interferes with reception, comprehension and expression of communication codes in any combination

of written, spoken, gestured or nonverbal format. He also sustains marked gross and fine motor disturbance making it necessary for him to relearn or adapt the motor functioning abilities of the body. Work with more than two hundred severely involved cases of aphasia provided understanding of the language/speech processes in human beings. The total physical medicine and rehabilitation program involved physical therapy and occupational therapy for aphasics and highlighted the close relationships between language function and motor control. The marked interdependence of language and motor function is considered a universal human attribute that starts very early in life.

The second area of concentration. The second area of experience was obtained in the Hartford public school system. It included working with youngsters from senior high school down through the grades to the kindergarten as a Speech and Hearing Clinician. A fifth of the teaching time throughout those years was allocated to classroom demonstrational programs in speech improvement.

Consistent contact with the average child in the regular classroom and the habilitative work with the child in need of special help pointed up widespread academic difficulties especially in the area of language usage. They were not merely problems of vocabulary, dialect, racial or ethnic differences. They were not problems of mental slowness, though this label was frequently attached to the child

who had, in fact, indicated some communication difficulty. A composite picture of the problems that were noted included: confusion in comprehension of verbal communication; lack of ease in making spatial, qualitative and quantitative differentiations; difficulty in memory for sequencing, in memory for "names" of things, in memory for understanding of the main point or significant characteristic of an informational unit. Each "difference" in itself might not be of sufficient degree to call for specific diagnosis but it might be considered a deterrent to ready acquisition of academic success. Ten years of observation of these frequently found language deficit behaviors forced an exploration of areas other than "garden variety," common speech differences as possible causative factors.

Updating of training in the diagnosis and treatment of childhood aphasia was done under a state grant. Children diagnosed as childhood aphasics were worked with in a special program that promoted individualized curricula for each of the language impaired children. Their learning/language differences only emphasized the universality of the need for preacademic skills by all children, skills usually acquired in that learning associated with their normal developmental processes.

The third area of concentration. The third area of experience, while involved in the education coordination of the Hartford Dead Start-Child Development Program was in

the contact with the adults most closely related to the school-age child: the parent, teacher and paraprofessional. The most significant findings evolved from the special summer in-service workshop for teachers and parents of Head Start children. Those specific findings will be discussed later in this chapter.

One overall component noted in these findings was the general air of uncertainty that surrounded the child's learning processes. The positive value of the programs seemed to be judged, by parent and teacher, according to a past experience that was teacher-dominated, regimented and authoritarian in approach. This third area of experience seemed to be best described in the words of Marshall McLuhan, "We look at the present through a rear-view mirror. We march backwards into the future."

The Question of Parental Adequacy

Uncertainty regarding parenting procedures seemed to increase during these years. Advertising reports of two favorite parent counseling texts, _Baby and Child Care_ by Dr. Benjamin Spock, and _Between Parent and Child_ by Dr. Haim Ginnot, indicated phenomenal sales. The first book has sold more than 22,000,000 copies since 1946, and over 2,000,000 copies of the second since 1965. A third popular text, _Parent Effectiveness Training_ by Dr. Thomas Gordon,

has been on the market since 1970. Groups of interested parents, teachers and professionals go through the text's suggested training program together, covering an eight-week period. There are literally hundreds of such groups receiving the parenting training program throughout the country. Within the first two weeks of October 1974, five such programs were initiated in the Hartfore area alone. This information has been accepted as concrete evidence of widespread uncertainty and feeling of parental inadequacy amongst adults.

Sophistry of Contemporary Educational Approaches

Educational leaders, child psychologists and early childhood developmentalists have also indicated uncertainty and controversy amongst themselves. Three major themes of behavioral control seemed to have evolved since the fifties. A neoauthoritarian approach may be represented by Bruno Bettelheim who advocated that children develop the self-control they need to become good students and responsible parents, by strict adherence and conformity to adult inspired rules of conduct and behavior. The opposite, a new permissiveness, may be represented by A. S. Neill and his widely-read Summerhill. Neill advocated what appears to be an unrealistic brand of easy going parental tolerance which furthers the belief that childhood is playhood, and would delay serious responsibility for behavior until the "child"

is twenty years old. A third major theme is that of the behaviorists who may be represented by the operant conditioning initiator from Harvard, B. F. Skinner. Behavior modification proponents seemed to have been less concerned with inner feelings than with the study of overt conduct and the conditioning of the child's reactions into predetermined behavior control.

Uncertainty of parenting behavior in the affluent middle-class parent seemed to be accented by rapid, unforeseen changes in technology, economics and moral structure during the sixties. For the low-income minority parents, living in racist, socio-culturally restricting environments, the confusion factors were compounded. He was not only caught up in the explosiveness of the Civil Rights Movement, he also had to contend with being the target of the emerging emphasis on the importance of parent and home on the child's learning. The three approaches to learning mentioned in the previous paragraphs, neoauthoritarian, permissive and behavior modification techniques, were seized upon by an adult population that entered into the business of parenting with relatively little training and increasing doubt as to parenting adequacy.

The Inquiry Learning Center Model, an eclectic approach to Adult and Toddler Education, has borrowed what are believed to be positive elements from each of these

three approaches. Definite parameters, structure, have been salvaged from the neoauthoritatian: freedom of choice according to individual interest and level of ability within the structure has been taken from the permissive; consistency of response to appropriate behavior, especially adult reactions related to approval-disapproval signals, has been borrowed from behavior modification approach. Briefly summarized, the Model's program includes structure, not to be confused with rigidity, which allows freedom of choice related to the child's interest and abilities, within the structure. Relatively consistent response to interests of the child and to his training are facets of the program relevant to the adults involved.

These borrowed components have been attached to a base of humanistic education elements known as affective learning, that learning found in the realm of feelings. Feelings are particularly important to the development of positive self-image and self-esteem, the beginnings of which may be found in parental reaction to behaviors deemed acceptable or unacceptable. Parents may confuse the child with a signal of approval for a behavior, only to make that signal one of disapproval for the same behavior under different circumstances. Those approval-disapproval reactions from the adult need clarification and better understanding by both adult and the child.

Significant Experiential Findings

The most significant contribution to the concepts of the Model discussed in Chapter III came from the findings that evolved from the special parent-teacher summer workshop previously mentioned. Many vague beliefs were clarified during that brief period. It had, in fact, been possible to train degree-holding teachers, non-degree teachers and their paraprofessionals together to the new open-classroom, individualized education approach. Parents had benefited from their simultaneous participation in the training devised for the teacher. All three groups, parents, teachers, and children, had a responsibility to build the program in which they were involved and had carried out that responsibility. Parents and instructional personnel had direct in-put into the final report of the workshop. The children's contribution was more indirect and generally noted in their reaction and participation in the various activities undertaken. The most important findings and the clarifying explanations regarding them, are recorded in the next few pages.

> <u>Finding #1</u>. It was more difficult for the adults to operate in the open environment necessary to stimulate individualized and self-motivated learning than for the child.

The child could be lead into independent, individualized work and classroom habits with comparative ease.

The involved adults found it difficult to believe the transition was possible. They spoke with familiarity of the cliches rampant in educational rhetoric: "Take the child where he is and work with him," "The individual needs of the child must be recognized and dealt with," "The child should be encouraged to move along at his own pace." The adults, teachers and/or parents, professed belief in the cliches, yet offered resistance to being relegated to the background in a child-centered program. One of the first recommendations that was translated into action in the workshop classroom was the removal of the teacher's desk, the symbol of authority in the teacher-dominated classroom. The removal forced a more direct contact by the teacher with each child in his or her work area.

> Finding #2. The adults in the workshop had to learn to become actively involved in interacting with the child. This interaction was more difficult to sustain on an individual basis than in the small group format.

The adults agreed that the most important element in the adult/child interaction was respect. Respect was a term that was frequently used during the summer program, with a variety of interpretations and applications. Respect *for* the child was given top priority. This was defined to include: respect for the child's physical person; respect for privacy of his work area; respect for his freedom to select the materials or learning activity of his desire within the framework of a prescribed educational

structure; respect for his right to express himself freely and appropriately.

Discussion sessions involved examination of various ways the adults could try to give the child a feeling of respect. Parents and teachers were certain the types of respect, as defined above, were already accorded the child. Suggestions for change in adult behavior that would help to establish whether or not the child, in fact, was treated with respect included the following possibilities.

For the teacher. Teachers were to arrange materials in the room for the convenience of the child. All wall materials such as demonstration alphabet, bulletin board displays, children's work samples were to be placed at eye-level of the child. Preparation of classroom materials during the learning periods was to be done by the teacher at various tables throughout the room, to avoid establishing "teacher's table." Learning materials for the day's activities were to be easily accessible to the child.

For the parent. Parents were to note in their own behavior at home what they felt might indicate lack of respect for the child. They decided that greater respect for the child could be shown by giving him an opportunity to express likes and dislikes as to dress, food, amount of food within reason, and preferred activities. Whenever possible, a child was to be given a choice of a second activity

if a first choice had to be negated. Most important was a "warning system" that was implemented in the home. The parent verbally advised the child of an impending change in activity a few minutes prior to the fact and before forcing that change on the child. For example, an approaching meal-time was to be announced before sweeping down on the child with a wet face cloth to wash his face and hands. To assault his face and hands in such manner, without warning, constituted not only lack of respect for his person but also for the particular activity he was involved with at the moment.

For parent and teacher. Ridicule, "good-natured" teasing, and rejection were to be eliminated from words and tone of voice. Major effort was to be made to listen to, not merely hear, the child. By using a "warning" strategy in school and home, the child would be in a position to learn to accept notice of approaching termination of an activity. There was to be no sudden, unexpected interruption of the child when he was engrossed in an activity without warning him, or simply because the adult felt it was time to change. This treatment gave the child a better opportunity to develop respect for the activity or material with which he was involved, its use, and its return to its appropriate place in the room. Development of respect for his work/play activity materials would help him begin the establishment

of desirable individualized and self-motivated habits.

<u>Finding #3</u>. The staff's frequent reiterated concern regarding the development of a positive teacher-paraprofessional relationship emphasized its high level of importance.

Early experiences with teacher-paraprofessional teams had shown difficulty in the realm of interpersonal relationships. Two adults, with markedly different life styles and each "set in her own ways," had had to learn to work together amicably. The acculturation process of mutual acceptance was frequently slow in coming to fruition. The situation was analogous to two women working in the same kitchen. The delicacy of the situation was further heightened if one of the adults had the academic advantage of a degree and the other did not. Suspicion, doubt and antagonism had been easily aroused. Mutual respect of the classroom team members for each other was important in arriving at a productive teacher-paraprofessional relationship.

Klopf, Bowman and Joy, in their text on the teacher-auxiliary team in the classroom, described two sets of attidudes; those applicable to the professional teacher, and those applicable to the paraprofessional. The teacher, in gaining the assistance of another adult in the classroom, accepted some risk to her equanimity. The teacher was challenged with having to consider: the relationship between two adults insofar as authority was concerned; the threat that this competition could engender; the need for

the paraprofessional to understand and accept the concept of confidentiality regarding classroom incidents and permanent record information; and acceptance of some of the glamorizing of the paraprofessional's role as an initial motivational factor, were part of the challenge to the teacher. Important and disturbing concerns for the paraprofessional were: the"boss" syndrome of the teacher; the remoteness in the teacher's understanding of the life style of the poor, the traditional self-importance of the professional; the distrust of the middle-class milieu and standards from which most of the teachers came.

Communication breakdown thrives in an atmosphere of distruct. Establishment of positive interpersonal relationships between teacher and paraprofessional could be more readily accomplished in a relatively threat-free environment. Efforts to relieve this type of tension were made through open, problem-solving group discussions.

One of the main areas of controversy, contributing heavily to communication breakdown, had to do with control in the classroom. The teacher allowed the paraprofessional to assume the role of chief disciplinarian. Racist overtones were found in the belief that she, the paraprofessional, would better know how to gain and maintain behavioral control of "these" children. The paraprofessional readily adopted the role since it was a comparatively simple way to

gain quick recognition from the teacher of the paraprofessional's worth in the classroom.

On the other hand, the teacher reacted in the manner that the paraprofessional's stereotype of teacher performance had anticipated it would occur. In the eyes of the paraprofessional, teacher management of discipline in the classroom had been equated with teacher's lowered expectation of performance from the minority child. The paraprofessional had simply transferred the lowered expectation from the academics to teacher's lowered expectation of "good" behavior. It was an easy progression for the paraprofessional to go one step further in her stereotypical thinking and project that lowered expectation from the child to lowered expectation of performance from the paraprofessional adult who, in most instances, was a former minority child grown up.

Both examples of generalizations emanated from racist stereotypes. The teacher's belief in the paraprofessional's easier management of "discipline" and the paraprofessional's belief that the teacher didn't expect adequate performance from the paraprofessional were suggestive of unspoken feelings that interfered with easy flow of communication.

By the end of the workshop the teacher and paraprofessional staff had agreed that in order to establish a relationship that was threatening to neither, it was necessary

to keep the lines of communication open between them. They felt that the means used during the workshop, regular program evaluation and curriculum development discussion periods built into the schedule, was one method that had achieved positive results in this area. They also agreed that while the teacher was legally responsible for the safety and welfare of the child and for determining his educational objectives, all adults in the classroom had to work together to accomplish the desired discipline and educational progress for the child.

> <u>Finding #4</u>. Observation of teacher-child interaction revealed a minimum of aural-oral practice of the adult with the child. An increase in the verbal-auditory stimuli in the child's environment was needed.

The child's ability to participate in aural-oral communication with peers in his environment was well established. Children engaged in verbalization when addressing each other and in approaching the adults. Verbal expression was natural and spontaneous, but limitations in vocabulary were noted.

Adults in the workshop had to be encouraged to engage the child in verbal interchange, especially in the one-to-one contacts. For example, a simple cut and paste exercise included the opportunity for comments about the paper, its texture, color, size; the scissors, sharpness of blades, shininess and hardness of the metal, care in handling them; the paste's stickiness, color, smell, etc. Adults tended to

involve the child in learning activities with very little oral communication and had to make a conscious effort to name and talk about the items in the environment.

Normal procedure for the child to learn those names comes first through his ears. From the cradle the child listens, then gestures his meaning and finally uses the words he has heard to communicate verbally. What he has heard in his home has comprised his social and cultural communication heritage. It would be detrimental to negate, detract from, or change the spontaneous efforts. They are vital to his own special identity with them as part of his cultural background. This identity contributes to the development of a positive self-image.

Adults in the workshop learned that they had to make a conscious-level effort to speak to the child in concrete objective terms. The adult could work with the child, play with him, attend to his needs with little or no talking. Increasing the adults' word usage for the child's listening benefit did not pose a threat to the child's own personal cultural speech pattern. Providing the "names" of things and "conversing" with him meant that the child expanded his listening vocabulary. There was no need to put any demand on the child to use it until he wanted to do so, or had the need for it.

Workshop Findings Related to Parents

Two unanticipated conclusions that emanated from the

workshop were especially related to parents in-put. Their group discussion periods had included a wide range of topics, discipline in the home, sibling relationships, independent play activities inside and outside the home, motor development training techniques, racist experiences in school and community. Their taped and written comments clustered about two major areas; the many ways children could learn, and a different understanding related to respect and the child.

> Finding #5. Parents were unaware of the relationship between the variety of ways the child might learn and the individualized learning environment.

Parents had adopted the educational vernacular of the times. They spoke of the open classroom, the individualized program, parent participation, self-motivated learning. Yet when the workshop parents were asked to indicate what they felt was desirable for the child in the classroom, their responses reflected the traditional "reading groups," "ABCDE" report cards, "homework," "lessons," etc.

The movement toward flexibility, non-gradedness, motor-sensory learning centers, etc., apparently did not necessarily equate to academic achievement for the child, in the minds of this group of parents. Possibility of success in school for the child was predicated on the parent's educational background, authoritarian and racist. They recounted their experiences in public school programs that dictated what they could or could not do, what subjects they

could or could not take, what activities they could or could not participate in. Music, athletics, general and business courses were appropriate for them. Vocational training and home economics had been high on the approved list.

This type of regimented formal background had been continued in the informal environment of the home. It had contributed to stifling restrictions that rigidly bound each child in the family to living through identical treatment. It was meant to help him to "learn" to be "good" and to teach him "respect." Despite the parent's exposure to the concept of the child's "individualized" needs, negation of the child's interests was given in such terms as "messy," "noisy," "time-consuming," "boring," "you just did that," etc.

These stumbling blocks to a flexible and random play environment were removed in the workshop classrooms. If an activity was "messy," then the child had to learn that appropriate preparation and removal were part of the activity. The parent, noting that this type of pick-up-and-put-away process was part of the learning activity, was encouraged to transfer it to the home. The involved parents began to show understanding that many of the denials to the child had been based, in fact, on adult convenience and interest. Each child did not necessarily want to engage in the same activities that attracted another child. It was not boring

to the child to perform the same activity many times over. Indeed, he learned not only control and skill refinement through repetition but also, of even greater importance, confidence in his own ability to learn and that this learning changed as he grew more adept in the doing.

Finding #6. Each parent wanted respect from the child for parents, for elders in general, for rules and regulations of school and society.

Workshop philosophy of respect for the child was described in Finding #2. Respect from the child was among the desired behaviors at the top of the parents' priority list. It was the most frequently mentioned point of discussion in the parent group sessions. If these parents' beliefs, regarding development of respect from the child, had been placed on a continuum one would locate respect for parents and rules which resulted from punishment meted out to the child at one end of the continuum. The other extreme would reflect the belief that respect was some nebulous maturational process that "just happened."

The child, from his earliest months, had heard parents spew forth platitudes regarding moral code and respect, often emphasized with rather stringent corporal punishment. Despite continued efforts to delineate "good" and "bad" behavior, parents had been able to identify areas of difficulty that were still in operation in the household. Instances of open sibling conflict were frequent. Carelessness

in handling personal clothing and household belongings was a source of annoyance and expense. Lack of responsibility in completing assigned chores in the home was a daily aggravation. When the child left the protected environment of the home, parents were particularly concerned with what they termed "bad habits" learned from other children they were exposed to, applicable to the teenager as well as the first grader. On becoming aware of some form of questionable behavior, the parents administered some type of punishment or "talking to," and assumed the behavior had been terminated. Discovery that the behavior had remained with the child only to be better hidden, brought a fairly common reaction of lack of trust in the child.

Identification of home problems opened up discussions on alternative strategies in home management. Possible success of the strategies were based on attempting to satisfy the child's needs, outlined to be: the need for privacy, difficult to obtain under the crowded conditions of many of the homes; the need for consistency in treatment of the child, most seriously damaged in the arbitrary unannounced overriding of previously established household rules by the parent; the need to have the child believe in bacis honesty in the parent-child relationship without overemphasis on essentially adult problems such as money, adult relationships, personal health of the parent, the need for feelings of love and belongingness,survival and security

within the family.

The suggested base for the development of those strategies to meet the child's needs was to encourage his belief that the parent would listen to him, in seriousness, without condemnation or ridicule. Occasional acceptance of the child's supportive arguments would allow him to feel he could "win" at times. Appropriate behavior in this direction, on the part of the parent, would tend to minimize the reported teasing/nagging behaviors ordinarily used to gain the parents' attention, and often the causative factor leading to the other household dissensions. In turn, the types of respectful behavior desired by the parent had the opportunity to emerge.

To summarize the findings that evolved from the workshop:

1. The adult's acceptance of a position of guidance rather than dominance was a difficult transition.

2. Development of positive interpersonal relationships between adults in close proximity and responsible for the child's learning was, at best, rather tenuous.

3. Adults, in general, seemed to have little respect for the person or privacy of the child.

4. Adults engaged in a minimum of meaningful, auditory-verbal interaction with the child.

5. Parents had to learn to provide appropriate stimulation necessary to enhance the child's growth/learning and academic orientation.

6. Parents needed assistance in developing those behaviors that aid the child build self-respect and

respect toward people and things in the social environment.

The condensed educational structure, a five-week in-service workshop, barely opened the door to seeing this educational environment in relation to the total home-neighborhood-community milieu of the minority, low-income citizen, an environment that has been forged in the fires of social, economic and political forces of history. The blend of Adult Education and Toddler Education into the Inquiry Learning Center Model is seen as one means of gaining greater insight into the daily living conditions of the minority family and as a possible alternative for introducing change to the very young preschool child and the post-school adult.

CHAPTER V

TO TRAIN WITHOUT BLAME

Chapter V, the final chapter, is a synthesis of the information derived from review of the literature in Chapter II, my working experiences and assumptions which support the Model as a viable means to productive learning for the urban, young preschool child and his parent. My observations of real life situations and conditions in school and community have evoked strong personal convictions regarding problem areas in urban early childhood education. They will also be expressed in this chapter.

It seemed logical to create a program of learning that might act as a catalytic first step to increase understanding of the broader approach to early childhood learning and to initiate parent involvement in operating the program. The Inquiry Learning Center Model combining Toddler Education and Adult Education is the result.

Recommendations

Summarizing conditions that focus on points of responsibility for positive change, the Inquiry Learning Center Model recommends:

1. The establishment of teacher/learner teams of parent and child in a neutral center outside of the home or school. Placing the program in a neutral location

has a better chance of acceptance by the community parent than programs located on sites that arouse traditional resentment and/or intimidation.

2. The involvement of a parent in in-service training with her child. This type of commitment serves a double purpose: providing experiential background in new learning approaches; and the subsequent operation and control of the educational center by the parent, similar to teachers' control of the child's formal learning environment.

3. That the parent receive payment for her in-service training to simulate the conditions and importance given to such training by professional teachers and educational paraprofessionals. Such incentive contains the possibility of promoting sustained, supportive interest by the parent through broader understanding of the child's learning, and the possibility for initiating change in life style.

4. That adults be trained to create an unthreatening environment in which they can work cooperatively. The effect of putting adults together, unprepared to resolve interpersonal differences, can be corrosive to the goals of the program and create conditions conducive to communication breakdown.

5. That there be specific training for adults in techniques to improve interpersonal communication, especially as it relates to encouraging development of the child's self-image and self-esteem. The training meant to help adults in their relationship with the child, can also indirectly help them in adult interaction.

6. That the parent be exposed to the concept and conditions which relegate the adult to a guide position in the child's learning environment rather than maintain the traditional unilateral position of authority. Respect for the child, willingness to listen, and increased aural/oral interaction between parent and child are basic areas of retraining.

7. That open, direct lines of communication between school and home, via the interaction of the school's resource teacher and the Center's liaison guide, can be beneficial to both groups. Sensitivity of the school to the daily living conditions and needs

of the minority child and family can be heightened; awareness of the parent group to the complexity of today's formal institution can be increased.

It has been hypothesized that a downward progression of the school's early childhood learning environment to the younger child and his family is necessary: for parents' better understanding of the school's programs and procedures; for providing a stimulus-rich background beneficial to the child's adjustment to the school program; for including home and neighborhood in the total learning environment of the child; for providing the parent with an option to make a change in life style by moving into a human services field of employment; for providing an on-going exchange of information between school and Center.

Believing that learning for the young child is most effective on a personal and individualized basis, the Center program recommends bringing parent/child teams together in regular teaching/learning experience sessions. Negative reactions noted in some programs that were home or school based, would be minimized by placing the Center in neutral territory near the home and out of the school. Payment to the parent while participating in a program of in-service training with her child would act as both incentive and tangible recognition of the worth of the program.

Parents' training would include becoming familiar with the general operation of the Center in anticipation of

eventual parent control over its continuing service. Parent participation would include agreement to attend weekly evaluation and curriculum development sessions, thereby encouraging regular in-put and lessening the possibility of creating a static, fixed curriculum. Supportive services, ethnic exploration, community agency involvement are elements of total community relevancy that the Center would strive to promote.

Experience-centered curricula based on accepted sensory-motor development concepts would be devised for the child, commensurate with his level of ability. Interpersonal communication, verbal and nonverbal, would be strongly emphasized as would random, exploratory, experiential play activities. The total learning program would be geared to capitalizing on the natural curiosity of the young child.

Emphasis on the Preschooler

The emphasis on the young child seemed to follow a natural course. Innovative practices emanating from the school turned attention to early intervention in the prekindergarten child's life. Unprecedented concern and financing by the Federal government opened the door for these programs. It also demanded the involvement of the minority child's parents and community residents.

Compensatory education and enrichment programs were meant to upgrade the child's educational achievement. It was

also assumed that they would be the means for breaking the poverty cycle of the poor. The line of reasoning held: better school achievement, better, job; better financial security, better living conditions; ergo, removal from poverty. The assumption was inaccurate. Neither significant lasting improvement in academic endeavors nor diminution of poverty became a reality.

By the mid sixties research began to concentrate on parent, home, and neighborhood influences on the child's learning. Day care, nursery schools, and the nation-wide Head Start centers increased their efforts in expanding educational training programs. Every home sending a young child to a learning center was involved, if in no other way, with having to escort the child to and from the center. Parents were encouraged to volunteer their services whenever possible. A few of the community people were able to enter the human services labor market via the paid educational paraprofessional route. Thus, "new" programs of education, indeed, had younger enrollees and limited parent involvement.

Initial endeavors, showing rather dramatic improvement for many of the urban, poverty level children, generated great excitement in the field. It was assumed that minority child and parent had been placed on the road to better school achievement for the child and understanding of the educational

program for the parent.

Research, however, was not long in dispelling that excitement. Studies indicated that the initial spurt of the child's successful learning was short-lived. There was increased activity in the schools with a proliferation of such programs as Follow-Through, More Effective Schools, Higher Horizons, Teacher Corps Training models, etc., but the original favorable reports were short term, not significantly measurable beyond the year or two following exposure to the educational program. The questions, "What type of learning environment is best," and, "How should it be used to stimulate development of maximum potential of the child," remained largely unanswered for the child.

Social Climate of Home and School

For the minority parent, the problems connected with his child's faulty education were only one phase of the sociocultural ills he faced in his daily life. He was receiving a plethora of stimuli from the activist Civil Rights Movement of the sixties. He lived in an environment fraught with centuries-steeped, institutional racism which affected his housing, employment, economic security, as well as education, and was propounded by political sabotage of his civil rights. The special programs for his child were held out to him as hope, belief and encouragement to actively involve himself in them. The parent had little or no personal frame of

reference from which he could view these programs. By the same token, many of the educators and civic leaders, very persuasive in their urging of the parents, spoke from classically irrelevant, white, middle-class backgrounds. They lacked empathy to understand the daily living problems of the low-income, minority family. It should not have been surprising to find combinations of confusion, frustration, anger and finally apathy noted in parents reactions to "community action programs." They had been through a number of programs successively introduced to school age children.

Some of the same parents might well have been members of the school population when the experimental reading programs commenced. The reading programs were joined at a later date by another innovation, modern math. Far too many children were, and still are, unable to read with ease and skill commensurate with the amount of drill and training they have been subjected to. There are early indications of a swing back to the add, subtract and multiplication tables of former times.

These above mentioned examples had been far from successful with the school age child. Educational stumbling blocks that seemed to inhibit greater effectiveness have been pointed out, including the home and family background elements. After education moved into the younger

preschool child programs such as Head Start, School Readiness and nursery schools, it was more difficult to pinpoint why the initial gains made by the children were unable to be continued in the school program. If educators were looking for a single, sure answer to the problems related to early childhood learning, they had known disappointment. Not only did it seem impossible to wipe the slate clean of past and present influences, there were varied degrees of indecisiveness as to the best approach for meeting future educational needs of the minority child.

There is strong personal conviction that parents can and want to be more directly absorbed into any learning program proposed for their children. Intervention requires the support of the home or it may be interpreted as an effort to aggravate the condition of the weakening family unit. The intervention measure could not risk increasing parent insecurity any further. In general, parents have only been superficially involved in those programs directed to the younger preschool child. Too often the parent has been an onlooker. He has been given written information, invited to discussion groups, asked to come to special programs of demonstration and urged to volunteer for one occasion or another. In too few instances has he been asked to participate in actual in-service training geared to give him the learning/teaching experience that his parenting background

lacks. As Dr. Thomas Gordon said in the apt phrase of description he coined, "The parent has been blamed but not trained."

In agreement with Bronfenbrenner (1970), Erikson (1963), and Kagan (1971), it is believed that any long range change in the educational progress of the child is dependent on change within the life scope of the adults responsible for his upbringing and general welfare. It is further believed that the most effective way to introduce this change is to provide regular in-service training for parents with their own children. The Inquiry Learning Center Model recommends a structured, but flexible, learning environment that can provide the parents with necessary experiential background. Training can be helpful in releasing them from the restricting experiences of their own educational past and bring about a first-hand understanding of the desired change.

Hartford believed it was necessary for professionally trained teachers to go through re-education to the innovative programs with the children, in short term periods of three to six weeks time, that simulated year-long conditions. The in-service sessions were in addition to course work, discussions and observations of innovative programs. The familiar, "we learn by doing," philosophy was supported even for educators who were trained in the field.

It is equally plausible to expect that parents would need some similar form of learning experience. Parents tend to rely on the same methods of child rearing that were used by their parents and grandparents. It is only since the seventeenth century that children were even accepted as separate entities and not just miniature adults. Very little has actually changed since then in child-rearing practices.

The Model recommends providing an opportunity for parents to develop a body of knowledge regarding parenting procedures, based on experience rather than intuition. Middle-class parents are already involved in voluntary training programs of this sort. It is believed that low income and minority parents could derive benefit from a similar option; the opportunity to participate in parent effectiveness training.

Without such opportunity, the situation is analogous to the period of time when teaching of reading turned sharply from the phonics approach to the "look-say" method. It was assumed that after sufficient experience in observing that certain words began with the same letter-sound, the child would generalize that information and recognize that letter-sound in all words, that the sound for (d) in <u>d</u>og would be known to be the same sound in gar<u>d</u>en and goo<u>d</u>. This was successful for some children, but far too many only learned the visual configuration for the word dog. They recognized

the initial letter and applied that word, dog, to all words that began with (d) such as down, do, day, etc. Too often it became a matter of making an educated guess and missing the interrelationship between auditory symbol and visual symbol, basic to the concept of reading. The "look-say" technique ignored the developmental processes of the child, that much of his initial learning for words is through the ear and not the eye. Observation, without a basic connection between the letter symbol and its auditory referent, lacked meaning for many children.

So, too, is observation, discussion and written information inadequate for the parent who may need help in understanding the new approaches to the child's learning. The connection of understanding, with a possibility for generalization, has a better chance for emergence in the activities connected with actual experience.

Simulation of Teacher In-Service Training for Parents

Another element that motivates strongly and that was extended to teachers was the monetary reimbursement they received during their re-education process with the children. Teachers, resistant to the idea of the proposed changes, were successfully manipulated into participation in the in-service re-training periods with the added incentive of pay for doing so. The Model recommends payment for training, exspecially for the low-income, minority parent recipient, as

a positive influence in attempting to re-motivate parents who have frequently become noncommital to community action programs. One of the stipulations of most anti-poverty programs was that Federal funds allocated to them be used where its benefit would be most directly felt by the people for whom the programs were intended. The realization of that stipulation was dissipated in many instances when major portions of funds allocated to such programs were used to cover administrative, supervisory and operational expenses. This Model suggests that monetary payment, reward and reinforcement, go directly into the hands of the people participating in the in-service training, the low-income, minority parent.

Another perceived advantage for teachers, which could be extended to the parents in training, has to do with the degree of control they have over their working conditions on completion of training. The teacher can walk into her room, shut the door, and be "boss" of her own particular domain. Occasionally a supervisor or administrative visitor observes what is happening in the room. Consultant services are also frequently available to her. She can accept or reject the advice of these visitors in many instances. She has the option of the kind of control and procedures she wishes to maintain as long as they remain within the general guidelines and goals of the educational

institution.

It is recommended that parents involved in any learning center should also be offered the option of control of their "working" environment and its operation as quickly as they indicate that they feel comfortable in performing the necessary functions. The professional educator who may be needed to initiate such a program, should be placed in a consultant position as soon as the working parents can demonstrate competency in assuming control of the learning center. Training for this aspect has been built into the plans of the Model. Arrangements for supportive consultant contact with the initiating educator will be included in the plans for continued Center operation.

Doubt as to whether or not the inner-city parent could, in fact, benefit from participation in a quasi-professional in-service training program is an invalid deterrent. The majority of paid paraprofessionals in the city school system have been adults previously locked into ghetto and poverty-level living. They came into the schools, received their training, and made positive worthwhile contributions to the educational system. Many of them have undertaken further formal training on the college level as this avenue was opened up to them through Career Opportunities Programs. The city of Hartford now has more than twenty such degree holding teachers who worked up from the

paraprofessional position, to college training and teacher appointment in the city. The implication is _not_ that all minority parents should enroll in a college program. There is reason to believe, however, that parents from varied backgrounds can benefit from in-service education devised to increase stimulating interaction between adult and child.

Upward Mobility Concepts

Participation also assures the parent of career ladder entry-level experience should she choose to use it in that way. Being paid to work and learn with her child in a teacher/learner capacity will provide her with direct information related to the operation of an education-oriented institution. This type of institution has frequently served either to intimidate or frustrate the parent in the past, and often produced anger or hostility in its aftermath. Familiarity with Center operation, projected as a microcosm of the school system, can help to diminish feelings of intimidation and improve school-home relationships. These results have shown themselves to be within the realm of possibility for the minority parent, having already been achieved by a limited number of paraprofessionals from target areas.

One set of results that has perplexed researcher and inner-city teacher alike has been the lack of continued educational gains for the child. They were quickly

dissipated as the child moved up the academic ladder from special or preschool program. Omission of the parent from in-service training has been considered an important contributing factor to the lack of permanent gain. Her position as the first teacher of the child has not been recognized. She has been excluded from the differentiated staff training, which negated the opportunity to take advantage of her particular areas of expertise. She, in turn, was often unable to arrive at a level of understanding of the new educational programs beyond adoption of the terminology used to describe it.

In-service training for the parent is subject to resistance by the teacher. The effect on the professional educator, of even more community involvement in the child's learning, must be considered. It is believed that the threat-filled atmosphere that evolved in the wake of the first surge of community involvement was either very short sighted on the part of its proponents or they had gambled on less success in its implementation.

My first hand experience with the "intrusion" by community into the schools, through New Careers or paraprofessional status, can attest to the lack of thought and consideration that was given to readying either group, teachers or community members, for dealing with each other. It was an excellent example of typically fragmented and

regimented education, on the adult level rather than child level. The implementers were so intent on force feeding the content of the course, of telling participants what to do and how to do it, they had given little or no consideration to the type of interaction it might prompt in the people involved. Instead of building to cooperative effort, it brought forced confrontation, suspicion, doubt and threat high on the affective front between community resident and the classroom teacher. Communication breakdown was a frequent ingredient in the relationship. Perhaps the most significant component in this unrest was the concept of upward mobility.

Community involvement in the schools provided opportunity for upward mobility ladders for the poverty area resident; for administrator and supervisor as their responsibilities expanded; and for special services personnel as need for their services increased. Only the classroom teacher seemed to have no new direction in which to move. She faced the unspoken possibility of being ousted from her job by a community member coming into her classroom to learn from her how to do it.

The Model recommends a procedure which contains an option of mobility for the teacher as well as the paraprofessional. A teaching team, comprised of the School Resource Teacher and the Center's Liaison Guide, will work through

the development of cooperative endeavor in the year's reciprocal association. At the end of that year several options are open for negotiation. They may go with the "graduates" of the Center into the school as the teaching team for them, in their first public school contact. They may use their experience and expertise to initiate Centers in other city housing projects. They may be employed by an institution of higher learning to make use of their team operation experiences in training teachers and paraprofessionals to the cooperative approach. They may remain where they are. The option of an open door to change for teacher, as well as the community resident, is extended. It moves at a slower pace that threatens no one with a sweeping overall change that neither group has been prepared to deal with.

The Model recommends that training in cooperative interpersonal relationship development be built into the program as a corollary to the need to examine and promote positive adult and child interaction. In looking at the processes involved in interpersonal relationships between adult and child, education in adult to adult interaction is possible.

Communication Practices and Identity Development

Two human processes have been noted as areas of much concern, consistently reiterated in personal conferences, and cited in the literature of many disciplines: communication

practices and development of identity. Reciprocal influence between the two processes does not seem to be questioned. Greater understanding of the communication process and its relation to positive self-concept has been the focus of attention of investigative studies and special programs (Barnlund, 1962; Erikson, 1963; Kagan, 1971).

The Model recommends training in interpersonal communication and development of self-concept to help achieve the goal of cooperative interpersonal relationships. Communication, overwhelmingly inclusive, has been narrowed to the primary level of face-to-face interpersonal communication, specifically between the six-month to three-year old child and his parent. Components of communication patterns of early years are believed to contribute to the development of self-concept and subsequent determination of self-esteem. These factors, communication ease and effectiveness, and positive self-concept, are believed to be most crucial to the ultimate release of the child's potential. They are psychosocial elements always found in the social environment of the child.

The need for human contact as a factor in human development has been established since the experiments of Anna Freud with infants in institutional placement. Without regular social contact human beings can withdraw into private worlds where they virtually cease to exist. People need

people at any age. A mechanism for promoting this human contact is found in interpersonal communication.

Interpersonal communication has been reduced to simplistic terms as reflected in the description given earlier in Chapter III. Interpersonal, a synonym for human interaction, includes the social milieu that the child is born into and to which he must learn to feel that he belongs. Communication is the process of transmission of messages, regardless of the mode or code of transmission, verbal or nonverbal.

Messages beyond the visceral, autonomic stimuli within the person, are generated outside of the individual; by the parents, siblings, teacher, television, conditions in the environment, etc. The meaning that must be attached to the message is generated from within the individual. Only the messages are transmittable. The meanings are not in the messages but in the message users, the sender and the receiver, who are people or objects in the social environment.

The individual's ideas of who and what he is comprise his identity or self-concept, and its development is one of the products of social interaction. Face-to-face interpersonal communication, the response of the individual to others who in turn react to him, is one of the main sources of information leading to self-identity. It gets under way with the first level of self-identification through direct sensory

responses to hunger, pain, fear, feelings of comfort, etc., within the individual.

The child sends messages to the parent in his desire to have needs satisfied. Most of all, he wants to have the parent communicate with him. Identification of who and what he is, is enhanced through communication with people who are important to the child. His communication, verbal or non-verbal, implies a request for validation of his viewpoint and value of him as a person. Interpersonal communication is used to form an impression of self-identity.[1]

The desired self-image, achieved through social feedback gives the individual the feeling that he is entitled to or deserving of that image of himself, the basis of self-esteem. Its development may be a complex and tenuous process. Interpretation of responses from others as to the degree of implied approval or disapproval is important to the development of self-esteem. A child learns that certain of his behaviors are acceptable and some are not. In turn, he will learn to like certain things about himself and not like others. Accurate communication from the adult that indicates approval of the child and his potential, that is different from the disapproval of specific behaviors, is highly influential in the development of the child's self-esteem.

Reactions to people and events are more likely to be in feelings rather than facts. Maintenance of self-image and

self-esteem is a continuing process hinged upon successful interpersonal communication, and the positive mutual feelings generated in the interaction (Erikson, Fantini and Weinstein, Silberman). Change in these attitudes, then is dependent on and can be accomplished by further interaction with other people. The process of identity formation, according to Erik Erikson, one of the leading theorists of the day, "is a life-long development largely unconscious to the individual and to his society. Its roots go back all the way to the first self-recognition; in the baby's earliest exchange of smiles, there is something of a self-realization coupled with mutual recognition."[2]

A parent or any adult is the child grown up, with the same affective mechanisms that were used in the initial development of identity and self-esteem, still very much in operation. The process of identity formation via interaction with others did not cease as he matured from childhood into eventual adulthood. Sustained or increased self-esteem for the adult remains dependent on interaction with other persons. The grown-up receiving a response of disapproval may elect to curtail the interaction, temporarily or permanently. The young child has no such option.

Responses that create uncertainty or seem suggestive of indifference are unbearable over prolonged periods of time. The child prefers punishment to lack of attention, just as the

adult can tolerate being disliked or hated better than total indifference or neglect. Punishment or hatred are, after all, recognizable forms of interpersonal communication. The general pattern of interpersonal communication, leading to positive or negative self-concept, extends into adulthood.

The Model's program recommends and places strong emphasis on readily identified, positive responses in the learning activities between adult and child. It is believed that consistent and valid social confirmation can become the prevalent pattern of interpersonal communication in the parent/child teams, and replace patterns of indifference or doubt for the child. Helping the child to create a strong and integrated self-identity can provide the type of feedback for the parent that will, in turn, reinfuse the adult's awareness of positive self-esteem. This premise of the Model receives particular support from the postulates that underlie the eight psychosocial stages of man contributed to the study of the human ego by social scientist, Erik Erikson, in 1950. They were publicized before "identity crisis" was a pervasive phenomenon of contemporary society.

1. There are psychosocial stages of ego development in which the individual has to establish a new basic orientation to himself and his social world.

2. Personality development continues throughout the whole life cycle.

3. Each change has a positive as well as negative component.[3]

According to Erikson, with whom there is strong agreement, any of the dimensions which evolve in the eight psychosocial stages of man is not resolved permanently and irrevocably at whatever chronological age the dimension may make its first appearance. Any of the evolving dimensions may rise again at each successive stage of development. For example, the dimension of autonomy versus doubt emerges in the second to third year, according to Erikson. The child shows great pride in his ability to perform new accomplishments. He wants to do everything by himself. Parents, frequently impatient with his slow and imperfect manner of performance, may overprotect or neglect to indicate appropriate recognition of the "great" things he can do. Such parental behavior may reinforce shame or inadequacy of performance and create doubt. The child's sense of autonomy is seriously set back. The balance he feels between buoyant autonomy and shame and doubt, as a two-year old, prepares the stage for his performance in other stages of his life that may rouse the autonomy versus doubt dimension. The balance can be changed in either positive or negative directions by later events.

These elements, development of self-image and the attainment of high self-esteem are believed fundamental to most, if not all, human interaction. Concepts related to interaction between parent and child are basic to the Model's program. The vehicle for exercising this type of mutual

exchange is interpersonal communication.

Conclusions

The urban school systems in this country had been found lacking in effectiveness to promote quality education for large numbers of school children. A composite picture of conditions that contributed to urban education problems includes the unanticipated rapid influx of children from minority and low-income families that started in the mid-fifties. The average classroom teacher had been inadequately trained to deal with the sudden density of a "different" school population. Institutions of higher education were slow to provide the information and educational leadership to help teachers cope with the "new" problems. Sensible, long-range planning seemed to take a back seat to the hurriedly implemented programs which were fragmented and still segregated: programs designed to change the child and not the system. Unprecedented involvement of the Federal government through tremendous financial support of education, subsidized the innovative programs. A patchwork of new school buildings sprang up in the cities to meet school population demands, neighborhood school concept and continuation of a de facto segregation. High incidence of late entry, absenteeism, underachievement and drop-out began to show up in the youngsters' behavior patterns. Middle-class, tradition oriented, school personnel frequently faced these

problems with a negative attitude toward minority group children.

Many community action programs were undertaken. Perhaps the most significant outgrowth of the extended sociocultural studies was the recognition and naming of the overriding common denominator of the urban poor dilemma, institutional racism. One response to this long overdue cognizance was the hiring and training of inner-city adults as paid educational paraprofessionals to assist the instructional staffs in the schools.

Anticipated results of implemented compensatory and enrichment programs were unfulfilled. Despite projected claims, children in the city schools did not close the gap between ability and performance. Disappointment with innovative programs turned the attention of psychologists, social scientists, researchers, educators, early childhood developmentalists toward home, family and intervention programs for the younger child. The specialists began to analyze the most critical ingredients of early learning: the parent and the child. Education's most important contribution to the seventies may be found to be the movement toward mother involvement in the child's learning.

The Inquiry Learning Center, an educational model for six-month to three-year old children and their parents, is an expansion of a project done with four and five year-old

those experiences to initiate a program of upward mobility for herself via the paraprofessional route.

The traditional sense of intimidation by the school may be lessened for the parent by familiarizing her with the child's varied approaches to learning and Center operation, and through regular contact with the school. The link for providing the possibility to evolve a chain of non-threatening interaction is found in the Center's emphasis on training for expansion of interpersonal communication, positive self-concept and self-esteem.

Finally, the trust and belief in the parent is demonstrated by providing that the parent, ultimately, control the Inquiry Learning Center in its continued operation, with only consultant services being provided by the initiating educator.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

EXAMPLES OF ADL CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

Sample "lessons" illustrative of the ADL curriculum are offered below as simple examples of activities and materials to accomplish specific behavioral objectives for three age groupings of children: six months to one-year old; the one-year to two years of age; and the two year to three years of age. The major thrust of the Center's program for the child is to improve and expand his motor and communication skills potential.

Age 6 months to 1 year

The child may or may not be able to sit independently.

Behavioral Objectives:

To have baby learn he can grasp toy by pulling blanket toward him.

Materials:

A noise-maker block or rubber squeeze toy that does not roll.

A blanket for the floor.

Expansion of Activity:

Tie a 3 to 4 foot piece of string to the toy.

Suggested Activities:

1. If baby can sit independently, seat him on the floor near blanket. Parent sits with him. If baby cannot support himself, use pillows for support or lean child against parent's body. Put a block on the blanket out of his reach. Wait to see if baby will pull the blanket to him. If he does pull it over say, "See, you pulled the blanket. You got the block." If he does not pull the blanket, parent picks up a piece of the blanket and pulls block to him saying, "I pulled the blanket. I got the block." Let the baby handle the block, every time it is brought to him, for satisfaction and success.

2. Repeat above procedure, having the baby pull the string in order to grasp the toy, adding "string" to the game vocabulary.

3. Hold baby or seat him on a chair near a table. Put the string-tied toy on the table top with end of string near the baby's hand. Repeat above procedure.

For the parent. Learn to work slowly, with patience, fun and much talking to the baby. Let the baby play with the toy first, before expecting him to pull it to him on the blanket. Take plenty of time letting him learn to pull it. Let him try, parent sets example and talks to him about the activity.

If he is an older or more advanced child, and learns quickly to pull the blanket toward him, be ready to go into one of the expanded activities to create greater challenge and more sophisticated problem-solving activity.

Age 1 to 2 years

The child has learned to handle small items with his fingers. (The string-pulling procedure was one early training activity leading to finger and hand control.)

Behavioral Objectives:

To have the child learn to manipulate at least three blocks on oral directions.

Materials:

Wooden surface to work on.

Three blocks, same size, different colors, if possible.

Expansion of Activity:

Introduce different size blocks to

Suggested Activity:

1. Parent sits on floor with the child. Put two blocks in front of him to play with. Let child see parent put one block on top of the other and say, "I put one block on the other." (If they are two colors use the color name.) Place a third block out for him to build up with. Let him knock them over. Tell him to hear and watch the blocks fall over. If he can use the appropriate vocabulary, encourage him to tell you what happened.

2. Put three blocks in a row and push them,

the game.

train-fashion, along the floor, describing verbally what is happening.

3. Parent shows him a 3-block bridge and encourages him to imitate it. Talk about the different size of the blocks to indirectly expand his knowledge of same and different. Let him describe verbally, what he is doing. Parent helps him to find the words by consistent use of the key words connected with the activity.

For the parent. An atmosphere of enjoyment based on patience and slowness of pace must be created by the parent through participation in the activity portion of the Center program. Imitation of the parent should be suggested to the child only after he has had time to explore some directions for himself. All of the activities should be accompanied regularly by use of consistent appropriate verbal descriptive terms connected with the action. Finally, the parent should withdraw some of her physical activity or modeling to guide the child into trying different things by verbal direction. The last aspect of the activity should involve the child picking up and putting the equipment away on completion of the "lesson." He can return to them again if he wants to continue playing with them, but the final physical action in all learning games should be the clean-up-and-put-away stage.

Age 2 to 3 years

For the 2 to 3 year-old block, manipulation ability already established and response to simple directions has been demonstrated.

Behavioral Objective:

To have the toddler learn matching for color, shape, one-to-one, in preparation to learn set and pattern formation.

Suggested Activity:

1. Mother and child are seated at table or on the floor. Allow the child to play freely with the six blocks of two different colors. Parent removes one red

Materials:

3 red and 3 blue blocks, table top or floor.

Expansion of Activities:

Add 6 blocks of another color.

3 more red blocks and 3 more blue blocks.

block and says, "Give me one red block." Repeat until all have been given to the parent according to the request. Have he child play the game by making the requests. Place one of the red blocks away from the others. Say, "Put one red block near it." Have the child follow this procedure with all of them. Reverse the procedure and let the child tell the parent.

2. Add three green blocks and repeat the procedures. Be sure to verbalize about the new color as completely as was done when only two colors were used.

3. Put down a pattern of blocks in two colors, i.e., red, red, blue, blue, red, blue. Give the child the additional 6 red and blue blocks. Say, "Put one red on another red block and one blue block on another blue block." Continue for all the blocks, matching the pattern laid out. Add blocks of the third color for more complex pattern.

For the parent. After initial manipulatory play with the colored blocks, the parent will be able to observe the child's ability to comprehend and follow through on oral instructions regarding the one-to-one matching procedures, singly or following a pattern. Getting the blocks out, playing with them and putting them away are all part of the total activity involved in using them. By demonstrating it, talking about and consistently following through on it, the parent will be able to observe the child's increased ability to play with and put away the materials used in an activity, according to oral instructions.

APPENDIX B
DAILY SCHEDULE

A.M.

DAY	STAFF	PARENT/CHILD TEAM	ACTIVITY
Monday	8:30-11:30	9:00-11:00	Teaching/learning session
Tuesday	8:30-11:30	9:00-11:00	Teaching Learning Session
Wednesday	8:30-11:30	9:00-11:00	"Drop-in" session. Demonstration and discussion
Thursday	8:30-11:30	9:00-11:00	Teaching/learning session
Friday	8:30-11:30	9:00-11:00	Teaching/learning session

P.M.

DAY	STAFF	COMMUNITY PEOPLE	ACTIVITY
Monday	12:30-3:30	1:00-3:00	Center Coordination Time, conferences, agency contacts, record keeping, etc.
Tuesday	12:30-3:30	1:00-3:00	Culture and customs session of minority groups
Wednesday	12:30-3:30	12:30-1:30 1:30-3:30	Parents' evaluation session Parents' materials development session
Thursday	12:30-3:30	1:00-3:00	Community resident effectiveness discussions
Friday	12:30-3:30	1:00-3:00	Special interest sessions: hobbies, handwork, child growth, home management, etc.

APPENDIX C

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS AND AVENUES OF LEARNING

The statistical analysis in Dr. Bloom's revelatory study on human growth indicated that about fifty per cent of the child's intelligence is established by the time he is four years old. This is well before school entry age for many children in the country. Other studies have indicated that characteristics acquired early in life are the most stable and consistent, possibly related to the length of time it takes to develop them during that period of greatest dependency of the human organism.

Contemporary society has been consistent in its emphasis on verbal learning, especially as the verbal learning is extended into those skills related to developing reading ability during the child's school career. Focus of attention on the upper levels of the formal learning ladder followed the extended age to which the child remained in school. That emphasis served to minimize the importance of the very early environmental and experiential influences. The situation was analogous, until recently, to the gardener who pruned away at the top of his tree every year and failed to attend to the weakened roots. No matter how much pruning and care he gave the tree top, it could scarcely achieve its full potential of growth and beauty until the roots had been included in his care.

The "roots" of the child's growth have been named and defined in a variety of terms. What happens in the human being when learning takes place is still a matter of conjecture and research. The results of learning can be observed and measured in the changed or adaptive behavior of the individual. There are many experts working to demonstrate quantifiable methods for judging progress in the learning process all over the world. Piaget in Switzerland, Luria in Russia, Brunner and White at Harvard, Bloom in Chicago, Goodlad at U.C.L.A., J. McVicker Hunt at the University of Illinois, Lally at Syracuse, Gordon in Florida are a few of the many learning behavior leaders of the times.

Despite controversy concerning learning, many experts agree that certain vital functions must be generally intact if the child is to make the most of his potential. They are crucially important to and interwoven with motor patterning development, perceptual development and language development of the child. Motor development, or lack of it, is observable in the easily measured growth and control of body movement. The area of perception and language are far more nebulous. The following pages are devoted to an explanation of these two important areas with which the Center's ADL curriculum is greatly concerned. It has been strongly influenced by Dr. Tina Bangs, of Houston, Texas, and her text, _Language and Learning Disorders of the Pre-_

<u>Academic Child</u>, published in 1969. The planning and operation of the summer parent-teacher workshop in 1970, in general, followed the avenues of learning and areas of development suggested in the text.

Operational Definitions Emphasizing The Auditory and Visual Realm

<u>Sensation</u>. Sensation is dependent upon a stimulus which activates receptors, both environmental and visceral.

Example: Auditory sensation -- "Did you hear it?"
Visual sensation -- "Did you see it?"

<u>Perception</u>. Perception is the process of attaching structure to sensation. A percept is evolved when an on-going sensation has persisted long enough for structure to be formulated.

Example: Auditory perception -- "What do you hear when you listen?"
Visual perception -- "What do you see when you look?"

<u>Memory</u> - <u>Retrieval</u>. Memory is a little understood facet of learning that may be thought of as a storage system to hold perceived events. Short term memory or immediate recall as well as long term memory or delayed retrieval are important temporal factors in learning. It is doubtful that human learning could take place without memory.

<u>Attention</u>. Attention is the ability to focus appropriately on the object or task at hand. This varies from accidental attention, intermittent attention to fixed attention.

<u>Integration</u>. The human mechanism which allows the relating and integrating of the previous factors to the adapting of new experiences and ideas to those of the past.

Common understanding of the above elements is necessary amongst the Inquiry Learning Center personnel. That

understanding will make the "games" of the Center program more than participation in a pleasurable or fun experience between Mother and child. The sensory-perceptual-language avenues of learning by which areas of development can be enhanced are listed in the following pages.

Avenues of Learning

Examples to illustrate stimulation of the avenues of learning are pertinent to the very young child. More sophisticated or complex stimuli would answer the older child's needs for stimulation in these areas.

<u>Memory</u>.

1. Auditory recognition or re-auditorization of known sound stimuli: recognition of doorbell, telephone or song tune.

2. Visual recognition or revisualization of familiar visual stimuli: child's recognition of his hat or toy or his written name.

3. Visual-motor recall and use of eye-hand coordinated activities: how to pick up a cup properly, use a paint brush or reach for the rattle in full view.

4. Visual-perceptual-motor gross and fine motor activities involving understanding of visual clues in a total context: taking the dirty cup over to the sink, tossing the bean bag at the hole in the board, picking the papers up off the floor to put them in the waste basket.

5. Social maturity recall of appropriate response to social stimuli: taking turns at the water fountain, waiting until the snack cookie is served to him, delay of gratification according to the "rules" of the game.

<u>Pre-academic "subjects</u>."

1. Phonics is sensitivity to speech sounds: recognition

of his name regardless of who says it, refinement of sound discrimination in understanding sound-alike words, recognition of gross noises in the environment versus speech sounds.

2. Likenesses and differences are classification and categorizing for building concepts: the items he wears are the child's clothes; the ball, truck, doll and top are all toys; some things are hot and some are cold, etc.

3. Writing is refinement of eye-hand activities in preparation for the academic skill: handling crayons, pencils appropriately; dropping items into a small slot in a box; free scribbling with chalk on a board or easel.

4. Number is recognition of spatial and quantitative relationships: the differences between long and short, big and little, more and less, and basic facts represented by the numeral.

Areas of Development

The areas of development are divided into two major categories of oral language usage: the comprehension of verbal stimuli; and the expression of the oral code. A third implied category has to do with the internalizing of that which is heard or said--or the inner language aspect. True language or communication comes with the internalization process which allows the child to think in the verbal terms. Until he can make this connection, the child's verbal out-put is largely imitative or parrot-like and his comprehension of the verbal environment is largely trial and error in the effort to make a meaningful interpretation of the verbal stimuli.

	Comprehension of oral language		Expression of oral language
1.	Recognition of objects by name by function	1.	Naming of objects and pictures
2.	Recognition of pictures by name by function	2.	Defining use of objects and pictures
3.	Categorizing in response to verbal direction	3.	Categorizing relationships verbally
4.	Number concepts: comprehension of the quantitative relationships	4.	Number concepts: demonstration of verbal use of the quantitative relationships
5.	Serial Directions-comprehension of sequential directions	5.	Sentence or phrase building-normal linguistic stages following the uttering of first true words.

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