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# Parent education : an organic model for the future.

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PARENT EDUCATION: AN ORGANIC  
MODEL FOR THE FUTURE

A Dissertation Presented

By

JEAN F. MACCORMACK

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

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

September 1979

Education

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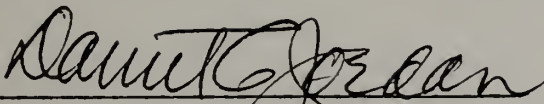
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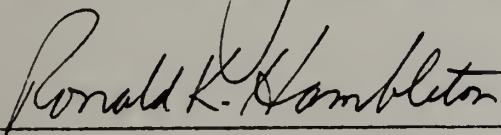
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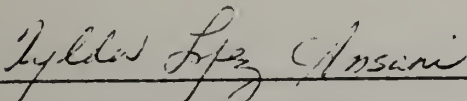
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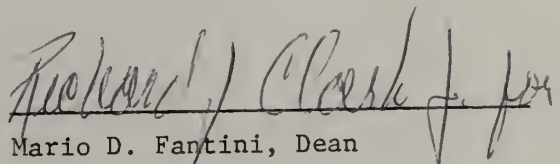
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Nylda Lopez Ansari, Member



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School of Education

DEDICATION

To My Parents  
With Love and Gratitude

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I have found that the final writing of a dissertation can be a solitary experience. It seems that by its very nature, the writing task, in the end, must be done alone. But it has been important for me to realize that the actual writing of the dissertation is only a small part of the entire learning process. Deciding on an area for research, finding people interested in that field, generating key ideas, developing nascent concepts, searching out relevant research, clarifying issues, and refining directions are all necessary tasks that are most productively done with the encouragement, support, and guidance of other people.

There have been many people who have assisted me with these tasks, and who I consider to be an integral part of my dissertation experience. They have helped to make the entire process a challenging, happy, growth-provoking one. Although I cannot thank all of them individually here, I would like to express my deep appreciation to:

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All my colleagues in the Anisa program, for their fellowship and support.

## ABSTRACT

### Parent Education: An Organic Model for the Future

September 1979

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Directed by: Professor Daniel C. Jordan

Parent education is not something new; it has been going on for centuries. What is new is the amount of attention and interest it is presently receiving from both parents and professionals. Both groups feel strongly that because of recent dramatic changes in family life and style, new approaches, more universally available programs, and increased funding are needed to support parent education. This work explores in depth why these groups feel this way, what new approaches might be generated, and how local program planners might begin to make new approaches more widely available.

Chapter I discusses in detail why parent education is needed today and what makes it such a controversial topic. It documents the need by discussing recent demographic and sociological changes in family; by citing recent developmental research, and by reviewing professional and parent opinions. It suggests some ways that the need can be met. It examines closely such controversial topics as professional intervention in the family, social reform approaches vs. educational services, types of programs needed, value issues in programs,

personnel and training for parent education, and program evaluation. By reviewing the issues under each topic, a strong case is made for developing future programs based on theoretical premises, for using premises that are organic rather than mechanistic, for developing wholistic educational programs, and for training personnel involved in running programs.

As support for the proposals of the first chapter, Chapter II offers an extensive review and analysis of past parent education program efforts. A brief history of parent education is provided, as well as a review of many federal, home-based, commercial, and self-directed parent education approaches. The chapter summary outlines ten significant directions for the future.

Chapters III, IV, V, and VI form the main body of the work. Building on the ten directions identified, Chapter III offers a lengthy theoretical rationale for an organic parent education approach, as well as an extensive discussion of why empathy development can be considered an essential goal of parent education and the key methodology variable. Chapters IV and V flesh out the rationale in a conceptual outline of all the components of a parent education program, as well as a conceptual outline of a complementary parent educators training model. Both models identify individual parental or trainer competence as the essential goal of programs, and spell out sub-dimensions of that competency, along with the knowledge, experiences, and skills that contribute to parental or trainer competency. Essentially, the outlines offer a set of contents,

meaningful activities, and process outcomes to be used in parent programs. The final chapter suggests how the outlines might be used by local program planners and provides a set of principles to use to ensure that the process of program development will be consistent with the organic premises on which the outlines are based. The Appendix provides course outlines and bibliographies that show one example of how the conceptual outlines can be used.

This dissertation is a theoretical rather than an experimental work. It is hoped that it provides theory that will lead to effective practice. Its unique features are its emphasis on organic philosophical premises, and its identification of empathy as a central relationship process in parent education programs.



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## I N T R O D U C T I O N

The Child Is Father to the Man

-Wordsworth

Years ago when Wordsworth penned this line in his famous poem, My Heart Leaps Up, its meaning was quite clear. In his own poetic way he was simply suggesting that all stages of development are connected and that the experiences of childhood certainly influence what we later experience and become as adults. As he expresses it, the joys, the sorrows, the fears and even the hopes and aspirations of the small child are often still a very real part of the grown-up adult.

Today, though perhaps we live in a less poetic age, one that demands proof, statistics, and research to document such a belief, there are still many persons, experts who can document, and ordinary persons just reflecting on their own experiences, who also believe that early interactions have a very important influence on later life. Consequently, realizing that most children's earliest experiences are with their parents, in their homes, among their families, today a great deal of attention is being given to parents, to young children still at home, and to parent and family life education. While few people are suggesting that parents alone make children into the adults they become, clearly the parents' influence and the importance of their role is being given much more recognition. And with that

recognition also comes a desire to offer parents some real encouragement and practical support so that they can exert their influence and fulfill their role most effectively.

Many feel that the serious attention being given, and the concerted efforts being made to address the developmental needs of children through parent and family life education is particularly needed now and is overdue. I share that belief.

We live in an age characterized by rapid technological and social change, and these changes have had a great impact on ideas about family life, parenting roles and even child-rearing goals. Ideas and values that a few decades ago were simply accepted, are now routinely questioned. For example, even Wordsworth's poem cited above, despite its rather simply message, might today be severely criticized for its sexist overtones and could occasion a heated debate about the relative importance of the role of mothers or fathers in children's development. All of these questions and the new issues and concerns that they raise are not bad, in fact they probably indicate new consciousness, and more insight and growth, but their very plurality often makes decisions for parents about what they want to do, what they "should" do, and indeed, what they can do very difficult.

I saw this difficulty first hand in my years of teaching experience. I have had the opportunity to watch, and happily, participate in the growth and becoming of many children. Necessarily, I became involved many times with parents who were deeply committed, yet struggling to understand how to best facilitate that growth. It was



very rare that I met parents who did not want the best for their children. More frequently in the past years, I have met parents who were very confused about what the "best" was, unsure about how to accomplish their own parental goals, and uncertain about where to turn for some assistance. Often, I found that the more confused or unsure the parents were, the more difficult growing tasks became for their children. Most parents I met were not in serious trouble yet with their child-rearing, but many were expressing a real need for some direction and help.

My experiences convinced me that schools, or any other groups concerned about helping children learn and develop must find ways to integrate, involve, and assist the children's first and most significant teachers, their parents. In graduate school, my own extensive reading of the human development research, and of the parent education literature, as well as my ongoing direct involvement with parent education has convinced me that efforts to support parents can no longer be considered just a supplemental activity. I share the conviction stated by Urie Bronfenbrenner (1976:3):

The competence and character of the next generation will depend less on deliberate genetic selection or modifications of the physical or natural environment than on changes in the human condition, specifically the whole set of home circumstances in which the next generation is being raised and developed.

But I found defining what optimal circumstances are for raising children today, or what is needed to provide really effective parent education and support services is not an easy task. There is much controversy in the field. The literature on family life and parent

education, both in the professional and popular journals, is replete with contradictory ideas, opinions and suggestions. And unfortunately, there is not a great deal of hard data from past studies or past program efforts that helps sort out the confusion. Thus, though services may be needed by children and parents, with the current confusion in the field, it has often been difficult for parent education programs to be either clearly conceptualized, or effectively operationalized.

Feeling that there must always be a logical way to solve important problems, this dissertation is a scholarly effort to try to sort out some of the confusion and resolve some of the controversy. It has several purposes. These are: 1) to clearly document the need for parent education today; 2) to carefully review the critical issues in the field as well as summarize and analyze past program efforts; 3) to suggest a possible resolution of present conflicts and a future direction that could be taken in this field, based on the review and summary; 4) to specify that direction through presenting an organic framework that can be used to generate wholistic parent education programs; 5) to present conceptual outlines that can be used to develop parent education programs and parent educator training programs; and 6) to suggest some principles of program development that local planners could use if they wish to make practical use of the outlines presented. Above and beyond all of these specific goals, this work has as its overriding purpose to provide practical encouragement and support to all those who are convinced parent education is vitally needed today and who want to make services to parents and



children possible in the near future.

While I have been directly involved in parent education for the past five years, this dissertation is not an experimental study but a theoretical document. I feel a theoretical discussion of the critical issues in parent education, and a well thought out conceptualization of a direction that might be taken in the future is the most needed and useful approach to take now. Obviously, I hope that this work will offer theoretical premises that will be readily translated into practice. I also hope that in its attempt at comprehensiveness it can serve as a useful resource for others working in this field. It is not, of course, the final word to be written on parent education, but for me and for others who will want to try to operationalize its premises, it is a beginning. In the spirit of Wordsworth's poem, I hope it can perhaps provide seeds of thought that will later develop into widely available and effective parent education programs.

## C H A P T E R I

### PARENT EDUCATION: THE NEED, THE PROBLEMS, POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

Although methods of child-rearing and "parenting" are getting a great deal of professional and media attention today, parent education is not something new. As an informal activity, it is probably safe to say that this type of education has been going on since the first children were born. Since every generation sees its children as its investment in the future, it is not hard to envision the earliest cave mothers and fathers getting friendly advice, or perhaps even stronger sacred admonitions on how to raise their children from interested relatives, cave-mates, and members of their community. Indeed, there are hundreds of sociological and anthropological studies of the families that attest to the wide variety of culturally prescribed norms for child-rearing developed by just such an advice giving process (Kluckhohn, 1962; Lewis, 1959; Levi-Strauss, 1963; Mead, 1949).

For centuries, set in the context of diverse cultural and national values and goals, children have been watching their mothers and fathers parent them and their siblings, and have also been hearing them get advice on what to do from their grandparents, their friends, and in-laws. Later on, when they became parents themselves, they modeled those behaviors they had seen, and often passed on to their

own children the parenting advice they had heard. No one in the caves, or in the medieval castles, or even in the industrial tenements called it parent education, and no one thinks about it as parent education today in the housing projects, the split level homes, or apartment buildings. But that is what it was and is. In this informal way, a strong tradition of child-rearing norms, and an equally strong tradition of parent education methods have been developed--traditions that should not be ignored.

Formal parent education, on the other hand, can be considered a more recent activity, but again, can hardly be called new. As Croake and Glover (1977) report in their historical essay, it can be clearly documented that since the early 1800's in both Europe and the United States, there have been numerous formal attempts to increase parental awareness and develop parenting skills through parent discussion groups, lectures, books, magazines, and entire conferences devoted to teaching parents how to effectively raise their children.

Schlossman (1976) points out that many of the programs were initiated at the request of parents themselves who apparently felt that they needed something more than what had been passed on to them by their own parents. A look at the times suggests that the Industrial Revolution, the birth of the Child Study Movement within psychology, and some of the philosophical shifts taking place in education were probably important precipitating factors. Technology was creating changes in family style and structure (Shorter, 1975). Professionals like G. Stanley Hall (1891), J. Watson (1930) and others saw themselves as able to provide some useful assistance, and educators like Dewey,

Froebel, and Mann were writing about and beginning to advocate involvement in adult education. Hundreds of informal parent education groups began with varying goals and formats, and as Brim (1959) points out, since that time there has been an "uninterrupted expansion" of these programs. (For a detailed listing of programs, see Schlossman, 1976.)

Given this long history of informal and formal activities, one is led to ask what suddenly makes parent education a relevant topic for a dissertation? What is there about the topic that one can say is really new? What value can an extensive work about parenting have for educators and parents in the 70's and beyond?

The purpose of this chapter is to answer these questions and present a clear rationale for this dissertation. In this chapter, I will answer the above questions by discussing why there is a special need for parent education today; by exploring the issues that make the creation of parent education programs controversial; and by suggesting some possible productive directions that parent education programs could take in the future. In the final section of this chapter, I will summarize the key points and outline the format of this dissertation.

#### The Need for Parent Education: What the Experts Say

Among professionals there is a great deal of interest today in parent education. These so-called "experts," the psychologists, the sociologists, doctors, educators, politicians, and scientists say parent education is a relevant and indeed critical topic today



because as they see it, the family is in an unprecedented state of change. (See Bronfenbrenner, 1976; Jordan, 1978; Mondale, 1978; Shorter, 1975; Silber, 1977; White, 1975, et.al.) While they know parent education is not a new phenomena, they feel that rapid and extensive social changes have put such pressure on families that today's parents are simply not able to effectively fulfill their traditional child-rearing roles. Indeed, some even suggest that because of such rapid social change many "traditional" child-rearing roles may not even be appropriate. What today's parents learned about parenting as children may not be relevant to present child-rearing needs. Many experts think parents need some formal help. They cite several demographic trends resulting from economic, political, and technological pressures that seem to indicate a breakdown of former child-rearing patterns, and a clear interruption of past informal styles of parent education. The trends they enumerate are:

1. The number of women working outside the home is increasing.

The percentage of women working outside the home has increased dramatically in the past several years. For most the return to work is a result of economic need, but for some others, women's liberation and attitudinal changes about the role of women has facilitated the change. As of March, 1975, 54% of married women with children from 6 to 17 were working outside the home, the majority full-time (U.S. Department of Labor, 1977). The most recent and rapid increases have been occurring for mothers of young children. One third of all married women with children under 6 were in the labor force in 1976.

Mothers of infants were not far behind: 37% of women with children under 3 were in the work force last year (Haughe, 1976).

As more mothers have gone to work, and fewer fathers have stayed home, the number of adults in the home who could care for the child has decreased. As Bronfenbrenner (1969) points out, the average American child spends only about 15-20 minutes per day in direct interaction with the adults in his/her family. Coupled with the fact that there are not enough adequate day care or child care options available to working parents with young children (Day Care/Child Development Council, 1976), the experts suggest that many children, although adequately fed, clothed, and housed, are simply growing up without the traditional family nurturing. Although the evidence from social science suggests that a mother working outside the home does not necessarily produce disadvantages for the child (Clarke-Stewart, 1977), many studies have also shown the critical importance of early nurturing activities (Klaus and Kennell, 1976; Kagan and Moss, 1962; Bowlby, 1969; Dennis, 1941, 1969; Skeels and Skodak, 1965; Ainsworth, 1973). With mothers out of the home more and fathers often not able to (or not socialized to) provide much nurturing, the experts feel this new trend at the very least represents a significant shift in child-rearing practices and from it we may in the future see some long-term negative effects.

2. The divorce rate has risen drastically in the past two decades. There has been a 700% increase since the turn of the century (Davis, 1972). Presently, one out of every three marriages ends in divorce (Norton and Glick, 1976), thus causing emotional trauma and

family disruption at least on a temporary basis for both adults and children. Because of the increased divorce rate, along with the number of widows/widowers and unmarried parents, one out of every five children has only one role model for mothering and fathering. Experts point out that this significantly interrupts traditional informal patterns of parent education. Also, because single parents are often under great economic pressure, and thus are forced to work outside the home, their children spend more time in alternative child care arrangements. More and more researchers have been studying the effects of divorce on children (Bohman, 1971; Carter and Glick, 1970; Despert, 1962), and the family style in a single parent home (Klein, 1973; LeMasters, 1971; Stuart and Lawrence, 1972), and although the effects are not yet clear, experts feel certain this major change in family life is significantly affecting child rearing patterns and familial methods of parent education. (For a detailed listing of research in this area, see McKenney, 1975.)

3. There is a rising rate of adolescent childbirth. In 1968, nearly one out of every ten 17 year old girls in the United States was a mother. For 15% of the estimated 210,000 school-age girls under the age of 18 who gave birth in 1971, the baby born was not their first (Kruger, 1973:4). Many of these mothers are children themselves; in 1973 over half of them were under 20 and 30% were under 18 (U.S. Health, 1975:362). Sixty percent of these mothers were married by the time the child was born, but teenage divorce rates are 3 or 4 times higher than the national average (Kruger, 1973). By 1974, one in 4 girls had a baby before 20, and one-half of the babies were

conceived out of wedlock (Arman, 1976). Experts note that these single parent families besides their own kinds of pressures have the same pressures mentioned above and the same disruption of informal parent education. But in addition, the studies show adolescent parents often have not much understanding of child development, limited access to child health and medical services, very few opportunities for employment, very little chance to continue their education, and often live under the pressure of tremendous social stigma (Kruger, 1973). While there is no doubt that many young girls do provide love and nurturance for their illegitimate children, this child-rearing setting is far from ideal, and professionals again suggest this change may have long term consequences for children and society.

5. Isolation of the nuclear family has increased due to geographic mobility. Many people believe that living in extended families is the typical family pattern of early Americans. They picture large groups of adults and children living together and sharing food and work. But this picture is not a true one. Statistics and historical reports indicate that the nuclear family (mother, father and children) has been the predominant style in America for some time (Bane, 1976).

It is true, however, that today's nuclear families are different in some ways from nuclear families in the past. In the past nuclear families tended to be grouped together, living near relatives, often in the same neighborhood or town. Although they lived separately, there was a lot of intergenerational, and interfamilial contact on a daily, weekly, or monthly basis. But today, the average middle class



family changes residences from 10-12 times in 10-20 year periods (Toffler, 1968). This means that families are usually not near their relatives or friends and are thus disconnected from traditional family support groups. Consequently, children often have very little intergenerational contact. They seldom see grandparents giving advice to their parents about raising children, nor do they receive any advice about their own behavior. The traditional patterns of familial parent education are therefore interrupted. Also, because family mobility often fosters more individualistic life styles, today's nuclear families do not develop traditional community or neighborhood support systems. Consequently, daily support or advice about child-rearing tasks is not available. Families, and often mothers, have to act alone in all their child-rearing decisions (Fraiberg, 1977). While this new style can allow parents to break old patterns and establish their own new styles of child-rearing, experts find that what results is often not new styles but confusion or lack of decisions about children (Yanklovitch, Shelly, White, 1977).

5. Family size is smaller. In 1855 the average family consisted of 8-9 persons. In 1976, the average family size is 3-4 (Bane, 1976). There is a dramatic shift in the number of children in families. For child-rearing practices this means two things: (1) children can receive more attention from parents. (2) Children do not see other siblings being parented and cannot get a chance to practice parenting themselves on brothers or sisters. As noted earlier, however, on the average, children do not seem to be getting more attention from adults (Bronfenbrenner, 1969). The consequences then seem to be more

negative, and smaller size of families seems to result more in loss of familial parent education opportunities for children.

In addition to these demographic factors, experts note several other trends they feel also indicate important changes in today's families. These are:

1. There is an increasing number of reported child abuse cases.

In 1970 there were between 2 to 4 million cases of battered children reported (Bronfenbrenner, 1974:55). These figures do not reflect what professionals feel are the actual figures, the unreported cases, which could make the figure rise as high as 300 or 400 thousand cases (Kadushin, 1974:282-283). More than 90% of the incidents took place in the child's home (Bronfenbrenner, 1974:55), and over 30% involved children age 3 or younger (Profiles of Children, 1970:112). These figures stand as hard and dramatic proof to the experts that great changes are taking place in families and that parents need assistance in their child-rearing.

2. There are a large number of children presently living outside home situations. These include children in foster care, children in mental institutions, and children who are wards of the court. In 1970 nearly one-half a million American children and youth resided in child caring institutions (Gula, 1973:1267). Most of these are not ideal child-rearing situations (Gula, 1973:1270). Since by and large children only get admitted to these facilities when their families can no longer maintain them, the experts again see the increase in the numbers of children in these institutions as clear indication that families are having great difficulty meeting their child-

rearing responsibilities.

3. There is increased secularization in society. In the past religious institutions and groups in communities offered a great deal of structure and support to parents for their child-rearing task. As groups with interest in future generations of children, concerned about morals and values, they often passed on advice to parents about effective ways to raise children in much the same way as paternal or maternal grandparents. While they may not have always offered sound or good advice, these groups did provide to parents stability and guidance on many controversial issues.

But today increased secularization of society has decreased the impact and role religious institutions have with families (Cox, 1966). Science and technology have transformed society into a world of many new possibilities and options, and they have dispelled superstitions and questioned religious myths. While undoubtedly this technological advance has great benefits, this new plethora of choices also makes child-rearing a more complex task. For today's parents life is not quite so simple as it was in the past and many decisions about how they want to live, and what they should teach their children about values and responsibility, human relations, and decision making, they find difficult to sort out (Yankelovitch, Shelly, and White, 1978). Old structures have been taken away, but new ones have not emerged. Experts suggest the resulting confusion has significant consequences for parents and children (Pickarts and Fargo, 1971).

This list could go on but it hardly seems necessary to belabor statistics that are often quoted. There is hardly a current

professional journal or popular magazine that has not enumerated the changes and problems being experienced in families. The point to be made here is that professionals see these problems as clear indications of dramatic changes in families and the disruption of the transmission or generation of important familial child-rearing practices. Some even suggest that the rash of social problems that we see documented daily in the newspapers--crime, juvenile delinquency, sexual exploitation, increased mental illness, increased alcoholism, are directly related to these changes and problems in families. While this view may be extreme, and cannot be clearly documented, after a decade of educational reform, social service reform, and even religious reform, aimed at solving these social problems but not succeeding, it is not surprising that now all eyes are focused on the family as the seedbed of the trouble.

To be fair, not all experts feel that the family is in such a state of dissolution. A number of researchers like Bane (1976), Vincent (1966), and Crosby (1975), argue strongly that the family today is really not that different or experiencing any more difficulties than the families of the recent past. Bane's book, Here to Stay: American Families in the 20th Century, is replete with demographic statistics to show that divorce, illegitimacy, and family separations are not new. She feels that the family is not dissolving but merely changing. It is hard to argue with statistics so skillfully presented, but Kenneth Kenniston (1977:4) comments astutely:

To be sure, changes in American family structure have been fairly continuous since the first European settlements, but today these changes seem to be occurring so



rapidly that the shift is no longer a simple extension of long term trends. We have passed a genuine watershed. There is a new intensity of the malaise, the sense of having no guidelines or support for raising children, the feeling of not being in control as parents, and a widespread sense of personal guilt for what seems to be going awry.

Whether they see the family as dissolving or just changing, most experts do agree that today's situation is dramatic and needs to be addressed. The "transitionists" tend to advocate a wider range of support services for parents, while the "dissolutionists" recommend more radical programs. But both groups want some well planned, universally available, formal parent education.

It is perhaps in response to this professional concern and the mood it creates that President Carter has called for The White House Conference on the Family in 1981. It is probably also what leads Joseph Califano, present Secretary of HEW, to voice a strong commitment to try and support the family. While the government has not made a commitment to federally sponsored, universally available parent or family life education programs, it does seem to be seriously concerned about the family, and at least wants to hear what the experts propose as needed at the White House Conference forum.

There are a group of these experts who, while they also recognize the problems enumerated above, look forward to the White House Conference on the Family as an opportunity to argue for giving today's parents and children much more attention from another more positive perspective. They feel the family should be a central focus in society, not only because it can be the primary seedbed of social ills, but because of what has been learned about the importance

of the earliest years of life for human development and the tremendous potential the family has for fostering that development (Bronfenbrenner, 1974; Anschen, 1949; Ainsworth, 1969 & 1973; Bowlby, 1970 & 1971; Brazelton, 1969 & 1974; Gordon, 1977; Jordan, 1973; Kagan, 1971; Parker, 1972; Pickarts and Fargo, 1971; Piaget, 1952; Schafer, 1970; Weikart, 1971; White, 1975; Kenniston, 1977). It is their belief that the education families provide has the most impact on a child's total development. Bronfenbrenner (1974) calls the home the "child's enduring environment," and with others advocates building on and supporting the strengths we can find and nurture there. And Carney (1975) suggests that assisting parents and families is a critical task if we wish to ever really actualize the vision of the 21st century man presented by the White House Conference on Children (1970:78).

We would have him be a man with a strong sense of himself and his own humanness, with awareness of his thoughts and feelings, with the capacity to feel and express love and joy and to recognize tragedy and feel grief. We would have him be a man, who, with a strong and realistic sense of his own worth, is able to relate openly with others, to cooperate effectively with them toward common ends, and to view mankind as one while respecting diversity and difference. We would want him to be a being who, even while very young, somehow senses that he has the capacity for lifelong spiritual and intellectual growth. We would want him to cherish that vision of man he is capable of becoming and to cherish the development of the same potentiality in others.

Certainly, this vision is compelling and these professionals welcome the idea of a conference on the family as an opportunity to make a strong case for preventive, potential enhancing programs for families that can help make this vision a reality. They do not favor

the trouble-shooting, remedial efforts that have been developed in the past in response to some of the problems cited above. These professionals are not blind to the present social situation, nor do they deny that families that inhibit development in the early years may contribute to the present malaise, but they want to speak for families as yet not in crisis, not part of the statistics described, who, however, also need support and assistance in their parenting role. While they do not deny the need for intervening in crisis situations, they advocate support for all families. One could say that these professionals present a case for the people who are the other half of the statistics. They want support and assistance for the two out of three families that are not divorced, the 4 out of 5 double parent families, and the non-child abusers. They want to offer these families assistance, not because they are in trouble, but because they are recognized and valued as children's primary and most significant care givers who should have the opportunity to benefit from the vast body of knowledge available about child development. Just as in the past the older generation was concerned about the future and cultural traditions of child-rearing were passed on from one generation to another, they argue that our new culture--which includes this knowledge--should be made available to parents in a practical, usable form.

Certainly, these professionals recognize that putting this information in a practical, usable form is an immense task. As Robert Hess (1977:4) cogently argues: "Availability of information will not necessarily alter parental practices." But the positive thrust

of this perspective is appealing. It moves away from the current medical "disease" model of treating social ills to a health model that aims at prevention and enhancement.

Ira Gordon (1977:126) was an eloquent spokesperson for this position when he said:

our position is that ways must be found to support the family as primary care giver and the parents as the child's earliest and most influential teachers. Connections need to be forged across all agencies as services to support rather than to supplant the family. We need to bring together all our knowledge and resources in service of the family.

On the one hand then, there are some professionals advocating that attention be paid to the family and consideration be given to some well-organized, formal type of parent and family life education because they are clearly convinced that the family, and thus society, is in trouble. On the other hand, there are some professionals who want to pay attention to the family because they see it as a great wellspring of human potential. Both positions have been documented and both seem valid. One offers a remedial (something must be done to solve the problem) rationale for this dissertation, and the other offers a preventive (a lot more could be done) rationale. While both views have influenced my choice to explore this topic, and both explain why an extensive discussion of parenting is relevant today, this dissertation will build more heavily on the second view, because beyond just documenting the need for parent education, it seems to offer a rationale useful for generating a comprehensive programming approach.

Before discussing the issue of program approach in more detail,



it seems important to ask, are the professionals the only ones concerned about the family and its child-rearing role? Do parent opinions add any other information to the discussion? Are they really interested in receiving help in their parenting roles? Do they feel parent education is necessary?

#### The Need for Parent Education: What Parents Say

The answer to the last two questions seems to be "Yes." A recent Gallup Poll (1976:184-200) showed that 77% of the public felt that parent education courses should be offered at convenient times as a regular part of the public education system, and that 70% would be willing to pay additional taxes to support them. It is also interesting to note that 85% of young parents (under 30) and of non-white parents were in favor of this idea. Thirty-six percent of parents who responded to a more extensive research survey about families and their child-rearing roles by Yankelovich, Skelley, and White (1977) said they were uncertain about the job they were doing raising their children, and 52% felt they could sue some assistance at times.

A study which I have conducted (MacCormack, 1977) with a sample of 3,000 parents from Boston and the surrounding cities and towns, confirms and adds more localized supporting data to the Gallup Poll results. When parents in this study were asked if they thought schools should be offering adult education, 54% said yes. When parents were asked to choose among 10 programs they would like to see the school provide for them (there was a wide variety of options),

over 68% chose parent education as their first choice, and 82% chose parent education as their first or second choice.

But, do actual parents behaviors support these opinions? Do they attend programs? Do they do things to indicate they want assistance? They seem to. In 1977-1978, over 200 new child development and parenting books or pamphlets became available in bookstores, supermarkets, and department stores (Books in Print, 1977-78). Publishers do not keep producing books that do not sell. So it is not surprising that in that same time span, well over 12 million copies of these parenting resource books were sold (Publishers News, 1977-78). Obviously, parents are reading about parenting.

Another indicator is that parents are also attending the various commercial parent education programs that are currently available (Brown, 1976). Some are attending Thomas Gordon's Parent Effectiveness Training (1970), others go to Adlerian Parent Study Groups (Dreikurs, 1959), some are attracted to the Dreikurs S.T.E.P. Program (Dinkmeyer, 1977), and still others are interested in Glasser's Parent Involvement Training (1965). How many people attend these programs? It is difficult to estimate, but one of these programs, P.E.T., has had over 350,000 parents participate in their classes since 1971 (Gordon, 1977). Brown (1976) estimates that each of the other parent models have had similar but slightly lower attendance figures, which means that about 4 million parents have participated in one of those parent programs. Brown (1976), through an informal survey, reports that parents' response to almost all of these programs has been overwhelmingly positive. Many feel that what they have gained from

programs has really helped them in their family life.

Given the wide variety of other informal, non-commercial programs also offered by churches, PTA's, Cooperative Extension Services, and YMCA's, it is probably safe to say that there are a large number of parents who have attended parent education programs. There has been no formal survey done, but again, Brown (1976) suggests that close to 10 million parents (of all races, ages, and economic backgrounds) have participated in the past five years in some type of parent education program.

Parents' opinions and behavior then, seem to indicate that they too recognize the need for formal and informal parent education. While they, unlike professionals, may not be able to present a documented case for why they need it, their actions seem to be expressing their concern quite clearly.

#### Controversial Issues in Parent Education

Professional intervention in the family. But I must now go back to the second of my original questions. If professionals of both camps and parents agree that child-rearing and family life need some special attention in the 70's why does providing assistance or developing programs become such a controversial topic?

It is because government intrusion into family privacy and responsibility has always been an issue in America. In 1969 when Richard Nixon vetoed the Child Development Bill which would have provided money for child and family services, including day care, he explained his actions with a warning that federal provision of

services for children would lead to the "collectivization of child-rearing and the demise of the family." What Nixon was expressing was a popular perspective on responsibility for children. Essentially that perspective holds that families have the sole responsibility for children in America; the government has no right to interfere; and parents have no call on societal resources as supplements to their own. As Bane (1976) points out, this is a fairly common perception of family responsibility, and we have a tradition of judicial precedents and congressional legislation to document it. So, while experts and parents may see a need for assistance, the issue of "intervention" and the question of family rights raises a red flag for many.

The issue needs to be looked at more closely. Kenneth Kenniston (1977) argues quite convincingly that the issue is not really whether to intervene in the family or not, but how to intervene. He points out that the government already extensively intervenes in the lives of many children and families. He cites government welfare policies, unemployment laws, medicaid, and social security programs, as well as federal and state regulation of educational programs as examples of deliberate governmental intervention in today's family life. Indeed, no one could disagree with him when he points out that programs like Head Start, Follow Through, and Home Start were direct government attempts to intervene in the lives of "disadvantaged" families. Kenniston feels strongly that parents are being given the responsibility for children but not the "power" to exercise that responsibility effectively. That power, he claims, is sapped by the



government and many other professional agencies. Parents are already, in his words, "executives" without authority. He says (1977:18):

The parent today is usually a coordinator without voice or authority, a maestro trying to conduct an orchestra of players who have never met and to play for him a multitude of different scores, each in a notation the conductor cannot read. If parents are frustrated, it is no wonder; for although they have the responsibility for their children's lives, they hardly ever have the voice, the authority, or the power to make others listen to them.

If one asks parents today if they feel they have any say over what happens to their children in school, or if they can decide on their own best working hours to meet their family needs, or if they can really decide for themselves on the best medical treatment for their children, there is little doubt their response will substantiate Kenniston's point. The self-sufficient family meeting all the needs, having all the choices, allowing no "intervention" does indeed seem to be an American Myth.

It seems to me that the question of intervention in families is a moot one, settled already by fact, and the real issue is transformation of any obtrusive intervention that already exists to informed, democratic service and support. It means, I think, Kenniston's words, "giving parents back their power." I think that if parent education programs can be developed that are directed to fostering both parental competence and confidence, that do not impose values, and allow for individual choice, and which utilize the best available knowledge about human development, perhaps the self-sufficient family myth and the intervention controversy can be laid to rest once and for all. A goal of this dissertation is to try to outline the key



characteristics of such a program. But before it is possible to begin such an outline, there are still other important and controversial issues that must be reviewed.

Social reform programs vs. educational services. If one agrees that service and support, not intervention, should be the keynote in family programs, the question will be asked: What kind of support? Here again the experts divide and controversy develops. Some professionals feel the critical need is for economic support for families (Bane, 1976; Levine, 1977; Kenniston, 1977). They say parents need:

1. jobs at a decent income;
2. flexible work schedules and working conditions;
3. an integrated network of family services;
4. proper health care for children; and
5. improved legal services for children outside and inside their families.

Their view is that relieving key economic pressures on families is essential and will enable them to respond more effectively to meet the essential emotional and psychological needs of their children.

There is no doubt that families need relief from economic pressures. In 1974, 24.3 million persons, or 11.6% of the population, lived below the official poverty line (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1974). With the present state of the economy, we can safely assume that in 1979 that number has increased and without economic security or stability, child-rearing responsibilities become a great burden.

But many experts doubt that relief from economic pressure will

mean that parents will automatically become effective nurturers and teachers of their children. They argue that if in the past parents learned how to be effective child-rearers from their inter-generational contacts, the informal training and modeling of their own parents and relatives, and if that is still not replaced or substituted by formal programs, when economic pressures are relieved, it seems doubtful that positive changes in child-rearing patterns will occur. Relief from economic pressure may facilitate good parenting, but these experts feel it will not insure good parenting.

The lines of this controversy are probably most clearly delineated by one position that argues for dramatic social reform to assist families (Kenniston, 1977; Levine, 1978; Moynihan, 1976), while the other advocates a more individualized support of families by already existing or newly developing educational services (Gordon, 1975; White, 1975; Jordan, 1978, et.al.). Very often, those who advocate social reform feel that to provide education services to individual parents is based on the belief that they are the source of the problem. They argue that society is the source of the problem and families or parents cannot be transformed by education alone. Those who advocate education for parents feel that social reform is not enough. They argue that society is people, and 95% of them are parents (Lamb, 1978), and parents need education both to understand how to reform and utilize effectively the consequences of reform.

If one looks more closely at the issues here, a fundamental philosophical difference in these points of view emerges. One position, that of the social reformers, seems to suggest that man is

transformed because his external environment changes. The other point of view, that of many educators, sees change coming from shifts in internal environment (i.e., understanding). Realistically, a more epigenetic view of development would be more useful. This view would be that man, with all his internal environment (ideas, feelings, genetic heritage, etc.), interacts with the external environment (schools, job, church, neighborhood), and in so doing is both changed by it and in turn changes it. When one looks at the issues being discussed from this perspective, it seems clear that both options--social reform and education--need to be pursued in order to adequately assist families and provide effective parent education.

However, because of the other critical issues that need to be discussed and because of limitations of time and space, this dissertation could not adequately discuss both a plan for social reform to serve families and the issues involved in providing effective and comprehensive educational programs. Taking the point of view that both are certainly necessary, and that both must be pursued simultaneously, I choose to focus on the latter because it is within the area of my expertise. In the bibliography, I have identified several of the major sources about work for families in the social reform area. Included in the bibliography are several reports on this type of reform already underway in several foreign countries like Sweden and Norway. Obviously, there is much we can learn from those countries who have already been involved in widespread social reform in the service of families. There is no doubt these types of

changes (i.e., flexitime, child care services at work, paternal leaves, etc.) will be an important topic of discussion in the future.

In the discussion of educational programs and goals throughout this dissertation, the social context will not be forgotten. I believe that it will be some time in the United States before the political and economic changes needed in order to better serve families will happen. I also feel strongly that programs need to be developed for now, and for when those changes are implemented. If the parent education programs developed now can be programs focused on social contexts and social awareness, in a very real sense, they can become a part of the social reform movement. Programs can, while providing direct services to parents, have as a focus working toward helping create whole social contexts or conditions supportive of parent-child relations. They can help parents become aware of their needs and support their efforts to foster change. It is very important, as James Levine (1977) points out, that the parenthood education movement not inadvertently contribute to an already growing "narcissistic, privatistic" trend of the 70's. It is the aim of this dissertation to present an educational framework for providing parent education programs that is sensitive to relevant social issues.

But even when the focus is limited to only direct educational programs for parents and families, there is still more controversy and debate. Many questions arise. Exactly what type of education programs are needed? What should the goals of the programs be? How do value issues about "good parenting" effect programs? Who should run parent programs? Should people have special training to offer



them? How will programs be evaluated? Again, before moving to outline program models, these questions need to be addressed.

### Types of Education Programs Needed

There are several sources for answers to the questions listed above. The greatest diversity of answers comes from the experts. The medical profession responds that addressing health programs is essential, arguing that basic biological integrity is critical for all children and that parents need to be aware of what they can and should do for their children in this area (Children's Defense Fund, 1976). They have focused most recently on the importance of good prenatal care and ongoing nutrition needs. It is hard to refute their proposal, for as Bowen (1977) in her scholarly work clearly documents, millions of children in the United States are suffering needlessly because of inadequate preventive health care. In a country like this, with the advanced technology that is available, this inadequacy should be remedied. Programs directed to assist parents with family health needs, while they do exist, are far from the number needed (Lewis, Fein, Mechanic, 1976).

Psychologists make a case for training parents and families in better communication skills, and helping parents to understand the importance of empathy and nurturing, and providing emotional security to children. With the rising rate of mental illness in both children and adults, their proposal does not seem unfounded. There are again a great number of programs that do address these concerns, but these are far from an adequate number (Bowen, 1977).



Educators focus on the academic needs of children and families. Many want more day care, more family day care, more Home Start and Follow Through projects. They want all children to have equal opportunity in education. They feel parents need to understand how to provide an enriched environment, and learn how to take advantage of their role as their children's first and most important teachers. They also want to help adults reach their full intellectual potential by providing ongoing opportunity for lifelong learning. Most recently, they have been advocating a total family approach to education (Gordon, 1977). In this area there are more programs than in any other category, but again, if the Gallup Poll statistics previously cited about the number of people who would like programs are correct, there are still not enough educational options.

The controversy about what types of programs are needed comes when one tries to prioritize or choose one option. How does one choose? If one looks at parent opinions about what they want and need, it becomes clear that one choice is impossible. Although a very precise study of parent opinions in this area has yet to be undertaken, Pickarts and Fargo (1971), citing the work of many researchers who have asked parents, or who have been involved in assessing parenting abilities, list several predominant needs held by parents of various social and economic groups. These are:

1. Better understanding of child development and ways to respond to the special needs of children at various ages, i.e., first 3 years, middle years, adolescence.
2. Communication and interpersonal skills.

3. Basic information about health and nutrition.
4. Better understanding of how children learn--what environments, materials, and verbal interactions can enhance learning, and why their roles as parents is primary.
5. Ways to deal with discipline, and with the complex issues of values in moral growth.
6. How to make use of the community/professional services that are available to them as parents.
7. How to relate effectively to and be involved with their children's school.

Given this wide variety of needs expressed by parents, some professionals suggest that a more wholistic approach to programming is needed, that it is impossible to divide the family up and deal with their parts--their feelings, their academic goals, their concerns about school, their health needs, etc. Programs are needed that have been conceptualized to be both comprehensive and coherent in dealing with human development and family development as a whole entity. Some professionals feel that in the past we have been taking the parts to whole approach, and as Ira Gordon (1977:127) argued, "it's been inefficient, very costly, and sadly ineffective."

But if the inadequacies of past approaches have been recognized, why has this type of wholistic program not been done? Probably, because dealing with one dimension of development, or one issue in family development seems more manageable, and certainly, because of financial constraints. But it also seems to me that social scientists, educators, and even social service providers have been heavily

influenced by the mechanistic notions that underline most of our recent scientific technology. This technology tends to see the whole as the sum of its parts, and often focuses on one part as the key to the productive functioning of the whole. If man is looked at this way, his parts, i.e., his health, his emotions, his thoughts, can easily be singled out for attention as the key to the productive functioning of the person. This seems to be the reasoning that underlies advocating one particular program approach in parent education.

But this perspective overlooks an important fact. Man is not a machine, he is an organism whose physiology, psychology, and indeed, even spirituality, are dynamically linked. And though many are not exactly sure how or why, much medical and psychological research is telling us man is more than the sum of his parts (Penfield, Ornstein,

. I feel strongly that if education is directed toward helping parents foster optimal human development in their children, then it must in the future be directed toward dealing with all the parts (the whole person), and it must deal with them in such a way that acknowledges their dynamic link.

To design a parent education program that overcomes these mechanistic limitations of past programs, and accomplishes the task of providing universal and comprehensive family life education requires, I think, a theoretical framework that outlines broad philosophical assumptions about this organic nature of man. Essentially, it means attempting to broadly define who man is, what optimal development might be, and how it can be facilitated. It is

my opinion that if these definitions are as broad and comprehensive as possible, and deal with the dynamics of man as well as his parts, then a wholistic framework for parent education could be generated. These assumptions could help to delineate all the dimensions of development that parents need to understand in order to help to facilitate growth, and by identifying the dynamics involved, could also suggest the best process for this facilitation. In outlining organic philosophical assumptions, the broadest definitions would be necessary, of course, in order to accommodate the many world views that are held by individual parents, and to integrate the vast body of knowledge we have about human beings and development. This is a complex task, to be sure, but not impossible. Indeed, what I am suggesting is really not a radical idea. I feel that many extant parent and family life education models have been derived from particular philosophical assumptions, and that theoretical premises have been the basis of their organization. (For a very clear delineation of the assumptions underlying the most well known programs, see Lamb, 1978.) As Theodore Brameld (1971), a noted educational philosopher, points out:

In every phase of life--material, spiritual, lay, professional--we believe certain things (we theorize) about the meaning of the activities we perform. These beliefs, or theories, usually to a far greater extent than we realize, not only reflect our day to day activities, but, in turn, mold and direct these activities.

However, most parent and family life education programs that exist today do not make these assumptions and theories explicit or public. Therefore, it becomes difficult for parents or other



professionals to assess their comprehensiveness and coherence, and thus it is difficult to either identify significant gaps or weaknesses in their approach or determine their ultimate effectiveness.

As I see it, there are several benefits of explicitly outlining assumptions about the organic nature of man as a foundation for parent education programs. These are:

1. It would make it clear why dealing with only one dimension of human development in parent education programs would be inadequate.
2. It would allow definitions and goals of programs to be clear,--to those who plan programs, to those who attend programs, and to those who evaluate programs.
3. It would provide a framework for generating all the process and content goals (the knowledge, experience, and skills parents need) for programs.
4. Because definitions and goals would be clear, they would be able to be evaluated.
5. Its comprehensive scope could help identify the gaps that exist in certain content and process areas and direct further research to those areas.
6. Because realistically, management and financial questions will still put limitations on programs, it would help those individuals who still want or need to choose one dimension (usually the area of their (specialization) for programs to see how their part fits in order to be realistic about their



goals and what can be accomplished, and to present it realistically as a part and not a whole.

In Chapter III, I will explain further why an organic framework is especially necessary for parent education, and outline the broad philosophical assumptions I have been referring to. In Chapters IV and V, I will discuss the comprehensive process and content goals that can be generated. The essential point to be made here is that parental needs seem to dictate the provision of more wholistic parent education programs. The controversy over what types of education programs are needed will be best settled by adopting a model that is more integrated and wholistic. If a wholistic model for parent education is necessary, I feel the approach I have suggested and will pursue later in this work, could be the most productive for developing it.

#### Values Issues in Parent Education

Besides the debate over kinds of programs needed in parent education, a related issue, the questions of values, is a big concern. Many people are worried that one set of values, one definition of "good parenting" will be imposed. Many raise questions about whether indeed there are universal parenting goals, and some have questioned how ethnic, racial, religious, and cultural diversity can be accommodated (Burgess, 1977). Many parents are fearful that they will be left without choices and that professionals will decide for them how they should raise their own children. Because of these concerns,

certainly not invalid ones, many suggest that parent education, if it is done at all, must be "value-free (Hess, 1977)."

But doing anything in a "value-free" way is a myth. All of us have beliefs in values that influence our daily choices. As a result of our experiences, our life style, our judgment, we all hold certain concepts, attitudes and responses as right, desirable and important. We invest energy in those things we hold dear. Our values are what determine the meaningful and significant in our lives. To suggest that we need to be value free is to suggest that our lives be without significance or meaning. Certainly, we do not want parent education so neutralized that it is unmeaningful.

But because we are a pluralistic society, and what people do seem to want is some assurance that individual choice will be maintained, Pickarts and Fargo (1971:26-27) express this concern when they say:

The modus operandi of parent education must involve providing a safe enabling structure within which the individual parent, in the light of an extended range of alternatives provided by the parent educator, and a wider scope of experience provided by the group, can sharpen his own skills, explore his own values, and make his own decisions.

Again, these are similar issues to those already discussed under professional intervention. How can parents be central decision-making figures in parent education? How can programs help them explore and actualize their own values and not undermine their own confidence or competence? How can professionals or those who run programs guard against imposing their views on parents?

The issues already discussed about assumptions and rationale are

relevant here again. If content and process of programs are generated consciously or unconsciously from philosophical assumptions, then assumptions that generate goals that affirm the need for parental competence and suggest a facilitating process to achieve that goal would be essential. Assumptions about the nature of man that would be in any way classist, racist, or elitist would generate process and content goals that would not validate individual parental choice, and would be unacceptable in our pluralistic society.

This underscores again why I see defining assumptions as critical. If programs are based on this latter type of assumption (i.e., racism, elitism, etc.), or even if assumptions are not defined and remain largely unexamined, there is a much greater potential for programs to impose values. If program definitions and goals are clearly outlined, then parents who participate can judge whether the parent education program goals match sufficiently with their own goals to make the interaction productive, and to force those who run the programs to examine their own views and make a clear decision about the appropriate content and facilitating process.

This does not mean that everyone in parent education groups should have the same values. People learn a great deal from interactions with others who are different from themselves. In fact, often people come to understand their own values and choices much better when they interact with others who have made different decisions. But a great deal is known about the learning process, about effective methods for adult education, about successful approaches to values education, and about effective group process. All this information

can be utilized to run effective non value-imposing parent education programs.

In later sections of this dissertation, this information about effective process will be examined in detail. But this important question of process raises another important issue--who should run parent education programs? Do they need to be trained, and if so, what type of training is needed?

#### Personnel in Parent Education Programs

Presently, a wide variety of people run parent education programs. Many are professionals (doctors, teachers, home economists, nurses, psychologists, social workers, clergymen) who see a need and respond to it. Many are not professionals but are concerned citizens, parents, and neighbors, who also see or feel the need and respond. Yankelovich, Skelly, and White (1977) report that in terms of looking for assistance, the majority of parents feel most comfortable turning to teachers, doctors, and clergymen. This is probably because these people are daily involved in some way with family life; they are familiar figures; they are looked on as having some expertise; and they are accessible to the parents. These seem to be four important characteristics for people involved in running parent education programs.

But very few of these people are trained to be parent educators. Although they can provide support and assistance to some parents, often their other duties prevent them from being able to assist all the families who might like some aid. Given our previous discussion



about the need for more universally available parent education, the question arises: Is there a need for trained parent educators?

Those experts who are concerned about the dire state of the family claim that there is a tremendous need for well-trained people to assist parents. While they recognize that many professionals have some training and the necessary knowledge and skills, they feel many do not. Indeed, often teachers are trained to work with children, but not adults. Psychologists are trained to give therapy, but are not skilled in educating. Doctors are trained in medicine, but not in interpersonal skills or group process. Many experts feel that those people who work directly with parents need to have a good working knowledge of all aspects of human development, very good interpersonal and group facilitating skills, as well as excellent teaching skills. They strongly advocate well-planned training programs for those people who would like to make parent education an ongoing profession. These experts would also like to see inservice training for those professionals and paraprofessionals who daily work in various capacities with families, but who need to increase their knowledge and skills in particular areas. In the light of our previous discussion about a wholistic approach to parent education, these suggestions seem worthwhile. With trained professionals and paraprofessionals, a multidisciplinary team could be actively involved in parent education. There are two reasons why this type of training has not been done in the past. The first is because there has not been a clear framework for identifying the knowledge, experiences, and skills that participants need to learn in such a training program.



With the many different goals and formats that parent programs have had in the past, it was difficult to sort out what type of training those who ran programs needed to have. I feel, however, that there is a solution to this problem. Just as the knowledge, experiences, and skills needed by parents could be generated from outlining the broad philosophical assumptions I have discussed previously, it seems the key components of a training program could also be generated from the same assumptions.

The second reason training programs have not been done also needs to be addressed. In the past, training programs were not developed because of the fear that professionalizing parent education would exclude parents from central involvement in planning and implementation of programs. It would make parents merely the recipient of a service. Throughout the history of formal parent education there has been a constant struggle to establish a cooperative rather than a competitive relationship between parents and the professionals involved in programs. Though the research on the effects of parent education programs is at best sketchy, Croake and Glover (1977) point out that in almost every case where there seem to be effective results, there have been vigorous attempts in the program to make the parent-professional relationship a partnership. Some suggest that formal training for parent educators will make that partnership more difficult.

I do not feel that is necessarily true. Just as it is easier not to impose your values or point of view if you are aware of good human relations process techniques, it could be easier to actively involve parents in programs if people were trained to encourage and

solicit that involvement. If organic assumptions were used to generate training programs, it seems clear that the training program would distate learning how to effectively do just that.

Of course, the degree and type of involvement parents may want or need can vary. In the past mistakes were made in planning programs like Head Start, Home Start, and Follow Through. In the interest of democracy, parents were asked to fill roles they neither wanted nor felt competent at. But in the future parents could be involved in giving written or verbal feedback about their needs and how they would like to see them met by participating in discussions that lead to serving on planning committees, by actually working with the parent educator to decide on program format, or by directing parts of the program and even completely running the programs themselves. In fact, there is no reason why parents who were interested could not participate in the training themselves. Parents could have the role that they want and feel competent in.

It seems to me that training parent educators, particularly in a mastery program generated from organic assumptions, could do a great deal to improve the overall effectiveness of programs as well as facilitate cooperative relationships between professionals and parents. In Chapter V of this dissertation, I will outline the key components of an organic parent educators training program.

#### Parent Education for Adolescents

In addition to the controversy over who should run parent education programs, there has been considerable debate about who should

attend programs. Most past program efforts have been directed at people who were already parents, with a heavy emphasis on young parents (Croake and Glover, 1977), but since the late 60's and early 70's, more and more professionals have been advocating parenthood education for adolescents, particularly adolescents who are not yet parents (Kruger, 1973). The key rationale for advocating pre-parenthood education has been that since most students will eventually become parents, and most will not have the opportunity after high school to receive any formal training, that programs given at this level have the most potential to be productive and preventive.

However, many others feel that adolescents are not ready for or interested in this type of program, and that there is the potential in just presenting information in a course to romanticize marriage and parenthood, making it so attractive that adolescent marriage and childbirth rates will increase. While no extensive study has been done, there has been some slight evidence that this is true (McGuire, 1975). Professionals with this perspective suggest instead a personal growth and development program approach for adolescents, letting them seek out parenthood programs later when they are seriously considering marriage or actually planning on becoming a parent.

While the issue is more complex than this simple delineation indicates, there seem to be valid arguments in both positions. I believe that it is indeed very important to seize the opportunity for learning when it is available, and I feel that information gained

and experiences one has in adolescence can have real impact on later decision-making. But I also recognize the dangers in romanticizing parenthood. Staying up all night with a crying baby, changing diapers, handling temper tantrums, and letting children become their own persons are not easy tasks. It is important for young people to not only receive child development information but to get realistic notions about the marriage and parenthood experience. It is my feeling that rather than invalidate the entire idea of parenthood education, perhaps this latter problem can be addressed on the program planning level.

Programs like Exploring Childhood (1971) have dealt with this issue by involving adolescents in direct interactions with young children, while at the same time exposing them to child development information. This program has been very successful (Kruger, 1976) and is becoming nationally acclaimed. I think as more approaches like this are developed and tested and become available, the controversy about adolescent participation in parenthood education might be resolved.

In this work, however, it is not possible to discuss in detail all the issues involved in providing parenthood education for adolescents. I feel this topic is one that could in itself be the subject of an entire dissertation. While I do feel the organic assumptions to be presented in Chapter III, and the outlines to be generated in Chapters IV and V are relevant to planning adolescent parenthood education, I must leave the task of discussing the special issues and ideas relevant to this type of programming to another



researcher. I raise the general topic here because no discussion of parent education would be complete without a recognition of this special population, and simply to indicate my belief that further exploration of this type of preventive parent education is very important.

### Evaluation of Parent Education Programs

A final issue to be addressed is program evaluation. Some people would say it is a first issue. These people feel parent education programs should not be done because to date there is very little solid evidence to indicate that parent education programs have been effective. While we do have some insight into methods that seem to work (Endres and Evans, 1969; Gazda, 1966; Hereford, 1963; Schlaus, 1932), and we do have a lot of positive feedback from parents who attend programs (Chandler, 1955; Gordon, 1978), it is true that there is little solid evidence of overall program effectiveness. Croake and Glover (1977) indicate that there have been very few systematic evaluations of parent education programs, and when they have been done, there have been insufficient controls, inadequate research design, and lots of methods problems that are responsible for invalidating results. They mention that although there are innumerable parent education programs, very few of them were designed in such a way as to be able to be effectively evaluated, and very few in their planning seem to have even been concerned about the question of evaluation. They suggest that as far as deciding whether programs have been effective, the question must still be left open. Until



appropriate research designs are used and goals of programs are made clearer, really informative evaluation is impossible.

That this situation happened in the past is not surprising. Most programs in the past were remedial rather than preventive. They were addressed to solving a problem or relieving the symptoms of a problem rather than concerned about ongoing research into how to prevent the occurrence of the problem or measure if the method for addressing the problem was successful. But this approach can be changed if prevention approaches rather than remedial actions are taken in programs.

I feel certain that if the underlying assumptions of the programs are made clear, if the process and content goals of programs are made explicit, and the intention is to develop programs that are comprehensive and preventive, many of the evaluation problems previously encountered could be solved. If the goals and purposes and processes of the program are clear, it seems an adequate research design could be utilized to measure program effects. With the intentions of having a preventive model, within the limits dictated by ethical considerations, adequate control groups could be pre-formed. Over a time it would also be possible to gather longitudinal data. While it may be true to say there is little evidence that parent education programs have been effective in the past, given the need parents now have for some assistance, efforts need to be made to develop programs that are designed to effectively serve parents, as well as provide measurable data about program effects.

### The Need for an Organic Model

It seems useful to recapitulate the key points discussed in this chapter. A main goal of the chapter has been to document from several perspectives the current need for formalized parent education. This has been done by discussing in some detail professional and parent opinion on the subject. Data from both sources provides a very strong case for the relevance of parent education today. While parent education is not something new, finding new approaches for programs is clearly a critical concern to many professionals and parents.

A second goal of this chapter has been to discuss a number of controversial issues that arise once the need for parent education has been established. I have discussed the concerns some have about professional intervention in the family, agreed that obtrusive intervention must not be done, and suggested that what is needed is informed, supportive services for parents and children. Some time was spent explaining the controversy between implementing social reform programs and planning educational programs. I explained the intention of this dissertation to focus on the development of educational programs. I have discussed the types of educational programs needed in parent education and presented a case for why developing one based on an organic, wholistic world view would be the most useful approach at this time. I have outlined my intention to discuss organic philosophical assumptions about human nature, and how these assumptions can generate comprehensive process and content goals for parent

education programs. I have also discussed the issue of values in parent education. It is very clear that parent education programs cannot be value free, but it seems very important that programs not impose values on participants. I have explained how an organic framework could prevent value imposition in programs based on it. In discussing who should run programs and how they should be trained I have also dealt with the issue of how training programs can be developed and how parents and trainees could work cooperatively. In discussing who should attend parent programs, I have briefly discussed the need for research and study of parenthood programs for adolescents. In discussing program evaluation, I have affirmed the need for doing it and suggested that a model based on explicit philosophical assumptions would lend itself more readily than previous models to careful evaluation.

An overriding goal of the chapter has been to familiarize the reader with the field of parent education. My intention now is to present in Chapter II a detailed review of past and existing parent education programs in order to point out both their achievement and limitations. Building on that review, Chapter III will explain how an organic philosophical framework and an educational model based on organic principles can build on the achievements of past programs, eliminate former weaknesses, and offer a most appropriate base from which to generate future parent education programs. Chapters IV and V will use the organic formula to generate a conceptual comprehensive outline of the knowledge, experiences, and skills that could be taught in parent education and parent educator's training programs.

Since the outline will not be a fully developed program model (indeed it would be a violation of organic principles to try to develop a model appropriate to all situations), Chapter VI will discuss how the outline can be used to plan wholistic parent education programs, and how it can be used in local situations in program planning.

## C H A P T E R   I   I

### PARENT EDUCATION:   REVIEW AND ANALYSIS

The focus of this chapter is on a brief history, review, and analysis of past and extant parent and family life education programs. This review is necessary because too often in education when attention focuses on a relevant issue like parent education, and a program need is identified, "new" programs are generated and proposed without careful analysis of past efforts or achievements. Since my goal, as presented in the previous chapter, is to try to outline a comprehensive and wholistic model for parent and family life education based on philosophical and theoretical premises, it would be foolhardy to proceed without a careful review of what has been done, and what has already been learned from past program efforts in parent education.

This section draws heavily on the work of many researchers and program reviewers, but is not an attempt to reprint what many thorough review articles have already done well. Therefore, I will not include long descriptions of every program with a lengthy discussion of all their achievements or limitations. Wherever pertinent, I will direct the reader to those prime sources that deal in greater length with particular points and details. The emphasis of the discussion here will be summary and analysis to build a foundation for the approach and program outline to be proposed in the following chapters.



### A Brief History of Formal Parent Education Programs

Before discussing particular parent education programs, a brief history seems necessary in order to both identify general trends that are significant and to place specific programs that will be discussed in perspective. Hopefully, this will also give what is happening now some historical context.

As previously mentioned, parent education as a phenomena is very old. Prior to 1800 American mothers got most of their information on child care from their own parents, from recollections of their own childhood experiences, and from materials (largely religious and very didactic) brought from Europe. The first records of any group meetings of parents in America date from around 1815 in New England (Bridgeman, 1930). By 1820, mothers were meeting regularly in study groups, sometimes called "Maternal Associations" to discuss child-rearing problems. The style was quite informal, the groups were small, the leaders were usually mothers, and the emphasis of these early groups was largely on moral and religious issues. Essentially, mothers at this time wanted to know how to best teach their children to know right from wrong (Sunley, 1955).

Mass media approaches to parent education also began early. Mothers Magazine was first published in 1832, Mothers Assistant in 1841, and Parents Magazine (not the current publication) ran from about 1840-1850 (Sunley, 1955). With a wide range of issues and topics covered, but with primary emphasis on infant care, these and other mass media efforts were well established by 1855. Although they

did not have the sophistication or circulation that modern magazines have today, these publications were popular sources of information about every day parental concerns.

The small support group and the media method predominated in parent education until about 1873. With the establishment of the first kindergarten in 1907 and the advent of teacher training in 1889, there was a shift to more formally organized groups with professionals in leadership roles. These programs had a major impact on parent programs, moving them from simply support groups to pre-planned learning groups. Organizations like the Society for the Study of Child Nature (1888) were founded, and began to offer organized programs for parents. A major focus of all these programs was disseminating child development information.

Parent education took a tremendous leap from the lap of private interest to public attention in the early 1900's when some federal support for parent education was established. In 1908, the first White House Conference on Child Welfare was held. In 1912, the Children's Bureau was created. This organization was originally designed to deal with issues of child labor, but with the growing emphasis on psychological studies and the attention being given to child development, the Bureau very soon found itself developing pamphlets and other materials on child-rearing practices for parents. These pamphlets were widely disseminated through the Home Demonstration System and through hospitals and other means to the parents of newborn children. However, because the language of the pamphlets required a relatively high degree of literacy, they did not reach

every parent in the country. Many felt that the services being offered at this time were only directed toward what might now be called the "middle class."

In 1917, the Smith-Hughes Act defined homemaking as a basic vocation for women, and introduced training classes, exhibits, and demonstrations in nutrition and child care in various parts of the country. Although this somewhat sexist approach would be controversial today, at the time it provided a forum for widespread services and dissemination of information. More attention was paid to process as well as content in these programs, and in the information they produced so that through this type of approach a wider population of parents were reached.

As more parents began to ask for help, educators and social workers recognized the need for parent education and gradually began to collect and disseminate organized materials. Many feel that the establishment of Child Study Centers (1918) was responsible for the majority of the advances in parent education. The Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial (later in 1928 this was terminated and transferred to the Rockefeller Foundation and the Spelman Fund) was probably the most important source of support for the Child Centers and helped the early growth of parent education. For two decades, beginning in 1918, they supported parent education and child study, and in 1923, extended their support through the infusion of funds into groups designated for disseminating sound research results to parents. This was a new approach in parent education, linking research and education, and it established a direction for the field that has

continued to the present. It certainly established professionals in a key role in programs.

The event widely considered as a turning point for parent education was the Child Study Association Conference on Modern Parenthood in 1925. This brought widespread attention to the movement. Parents as well as professionals began to be aware that parent education had something important to offer. From the Parenthood Conference, the National Council of Parent Education developed which became a clearinghouse for disseminating information about many types of parent education activities. In 1929, Pre-School and Parent Education, the 28th yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, was published. This made available a valuable resource document for people who wanted to plan parent education programs.

During the early 1930's, parent education activities continued to expand tremendously. In November, 1930, the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection was held. One outcome of this conference was an entire volume discussing types, content, and methods of parent education programs. Although by this time there were informal support groups, discussion groups, lectures, classes, college courses, and home visiting programs, this subcommittee report was published in 1932 for the purpose of contributing to the evaluation of the parent education movement and to give the many types of programs that were beginning to emerge some guidance (White House Conference, 1932).

During the depression, the Works Progress Administration made



available teachers, group leaders, and other trained personnel to interested groups to present information about child behavior. A number of major universities such as Columbia, Minnesota, Cornell, and Iowa, were doing research and training in their Child Study and Parent Education Departments. In April 1930, the Office of Education tried to survey how many programs were going on in parent education. Six hundred and nineteen people responded to their survey. A total of 370 organizations reported work consciously recognized as parent education (White House Conference, 1932).

During the late 1930's, the public interest in parent education declined somewhat. Some professional students of the family were questioning the permanency of traditional family life and the desirability of parental, as opposed to institutional child-rearing. This radical view was very controversial and seemed to evoke some concern about parent education as unnecessary intervention in the family. In 1938, the National Council on Parent Education lost its financial support and disbanded. This left the parent education movement without a national organization to guide and coordinate its professional activities.

The 1940's not only brought World War II, but the interest of Mental Health professionals to parent education. The National Council of Mental Health, through the National Mental Health Act of 1946, provided state mental health programs, many including parent education. The emphasis of these programs was somewhat more therapeutic than educational, although there was some attempt to try to use the best methods of both approaches. But there was little coordination of



program goals and efforts. While parent education continued to exist, because of the war effort there was limited financial support, and less interest and energy was expended than in previous decades.

In the 1950's, Mental Health funds again increased, and through H.E.W. and the Department of Agriculture, parent education surged again and added widely distributed regular publications (e.g., Infant Care), family counseling, and health programs to the already existing training, research and educational components.

Parent education efforts have continued to expand from the late 1950's to the present with both public and private participation from national to local levels. In the 1950's, parents once again began to assert themselves and organizations like the National Parents' Council (1920) and National Parent Teachers Association (1900) stressed the development of programs where parents once again would have a more central and active role. As a result, although there were many programs with professionals in leadership roles, a new cooperation between parents and professionals began to develop.

In the 60's and 70's, formats for programs began to take on distinct emphasis, and psychotherapeutic models like those of Baruch (1950), Gordon (1970), Ginott (1965), and Dreikurs (1970), as well as programs based on the conditioning orientation of Becker (1974), Guerney (1969), and Mathis (1971) became popular. This move away from stressing child development information to emphasizing various approaches to the learning process has had significant effect on the style of current parent education programs.

Also, during this time, new groups based on particular parental

needs, i.e., handling breastfeeding (LaLeche groups), handicapped children, childbirth education (Le Boyer method), parents of adolescents, etc., began to emerge and develop organizational networks. Although these groups are not directed to all parents, some have been substantially funded by government and private agencies.

Commercial parent education programs also emerged at this time, as well as a return to small scale local study and support groups for mothers and fathers. The most well known commercial parent education programs are Parent Effectiveness Training (1970), Adlerian Study Groups (1970), and Systematic Training for Effective Parenthood (1976).

Although this review of several decades is of necessity brief, it does point out several significant facts that seem to me to have implications for future planning and model building in parent education. These facts are:

1. Parents actually began the parent education movement and have continually asked for a central role.
2. Having support and getting new child development information were important goals of parents in early groups.
3. Specific process and content goals in programs have shifted as times and needs changed. This meant many types of programs were developed. The variety was beneficial, but also generated confusion about the focus of parent education.
4. Professionals added important dimensions of expertise to

parent programs, but tended to place parents in secondary roles, to which they reacted negatively.

5. Public and private interest and financial support of parent education over the years has been substantial.
6. There were several (though unsuccessful) efforts made to organize and systematize the development of parent education, as well as evaluate the results of programs.
7. No one program approach seems to meet all needs.  
In the most recent past, parent education has become rather eclectic.

The implications for future parent education programs that I feel can be derived from these facts are the following:

1. Recognizing that the parent education movement really belongs to parents, it will be important for parents to have choices about the level of involvement and type of involvement they want in planning or implementing programs. Their needs and concerns should continue to be considered central. Establishing a partnership between parents and professionals should also be a keynote of programs. It seems that planning models that lend themselves to this cooperative approach will be most useful; and the format of programs should be chosen because it fosters this cooperation.

2. Since specific process and content goals of programs have shifted as times and needs have changed, it seems safe to predict that this trend will continue. I think future programs will need to be designed to be flexible in order to accommodate a wide variety of changing parental needs. However, because flexibility in goals and format has also brought forth a kind of eclecticism that generates some confusion about the general purpose of parent education, it may be very useful for future programs to identify some broad theoretical premises from which they can identify all the knowledge, experiences and skills they see as important to parenting so that the best information and skills in any one area can be focused on by various programs without losing a sense of its relation to the whole. What seems to be needed is both unity as well as diversity.
3. Future programs have a precedent for funding, but will certainly have to be able to indicate how they can be more effective or successful than past efforts.
4. There is a precedent for systematic model-building in parent education, but future organizational attempts will need to have a broader theoretical base than models have had in the past, so they can be more comprehensive. Effective evaluation methodology will also need to become an essential dimension of overall program design.



### A Review of Specific Parent Programs

To further delineate what future program efforts will need to look like, it is necessary, however, to move from these general implications to a more specific review of categories of parent programs. The categories of parent education programs that I feel need some special attention are federal parent education programs, home-based parent programs, commercial parent education programs, and non-curriculum parent programs. My purpose in reviewing specific programs under each of these categories is again to arrive at some summary understanding of past efforts, their achievement and limitations, and what they specifically suggest for future directions in this field.

Federal programs. One important movement of the 60's needs some special attention here because of its impact on current parent education. This movement began about 1965 with what was called "The War on Poverty." Of all the influences in American society since the turn of the century, this was perhaps the first large scale federal government effort to deal with children and parents since the establishment of the Children's Bureau in 1913. From this movement several specific programs emerged which have substantially influenced the direction of parent education today. Although what can be learned from these program efforts confirms some of the general trends just listed, these programs need to be analyzed more closely. I will briefly discuss the goals and format of each program, as well as provide a brief evaluation. Although there are other programs that were also developed at this time, the four programs which are known



best, which still continue today in some modified ways, and which I would like to examine closely here are Head Start, Project Follow-Through, Parent Child Centers and Parent Child Development Centers, and Home Start.

Head Start. Head Start programs began on a national scale in the summer of 1965. Hunt (1974) outlined three motivations for starting this program. These were:

1. Ethical concerns: Our forefathers founded these United States on the ethical assumption of equality of opportunity for all. However, in fact, not everyone has equal opportunity.
2. Educational concerns: A serious need of children from families of poverty was recognized. It is often the children of poverty who most commonly fare badly in school, or drop out before they have achieved the credentials or the skills required for employment in our increasingly technological society (Jencks, 1972).
3. Developmental concerns: Evidence of plasticity in psychological development was emerging. Therefore, the possibility for educational intervention was seen as viable (see Hunt, 1961).

The goal of Head Start was, in fact still is, to utilize pre-school experience to try to compensate for the lack of opportunities for learning in the early years by young children of poverty (see Grotberg, 1965). On a broader scale, Head Start was originally conceived to be a massive social experiment that could break the

cycle of poverty. Although not specifically designed as a parent education program, it was originally directed toward changing what happens in low-income families.

The project originally used the traditional nursery school format most prevalent at that time. Components of the program are most clearly outlined in Cook (1970) and in Project Head Start, Pamphlet #11. In general, young children are taken out of their home environments to a school setting. There they participate in activities designed to foster cognitive, language, and perceptual development. Parents were at first only peripherally involved, serving as volunteers, aides, and assistants to teachers. But as programs have evolved, parents have become more active participants with the children, and now do take on some direct planning and teaching roles.

When the success of Head Start is evaluated against the criterion of mitigating the effects of poverty, most experts have agreed that it has not been successful. Despite the evidence of plasticity in early development, the expectation that a summer or year or two of nursery schooling would enable children of poverty to catch up and compete on equal terms with middle-class children was entirely unrealistic. The findings of large scale surveys by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights (1967) and by the Westinghouse Corporation (Cicarelli, 1969) indicated not only that Head Start had failed to fulfill the unrealistic hopes for catch-up, but has produced only temporary gain. (See also Brink, Ellis, and Sarason, 1968; Smith and Bissel, 1970; Lessler and Fox, 1968; Wolf and Steen, 1967.)

Head Start has accomplished many things, however. (See Caligieri

and Robertson, 1968; Grotberg, 1968; Evans, 1971.) Of particular interest in terms of parent education are the following:

1. The scope of Head Start served to help start a number of related enterprises that were already underway on a small scale when Head Start was launched, and it set still other important research oriented parent education programs in motion. (See Weikart, 1967; Gray and Klaus, 1965; Levenstein, 1970; Gordon, 1967, 1969; Bereiter and Engleman, 1966.)
2. It has greatly increased the concern of investigators and educators with the nature of class differences and their impact on child-rearing (Hunt, 1974).
3. It has motivated the development of a variety of important educational innovations (i.e., methods of environmental enrichment, methods for dealing with affective and volitional development, methods of teaching about nutrition) designed specifically to compensate children of poverty for the opportunities missed within their families (Hunt, 1974).
4. It has facilitated the early identification of children with physical and mental health problems who might otherwise have gone unnoticed or been inadvertently overlooked (Robinson, 1975). Although it was designed as a remedial program, in some ways it has made a strong case for the value of prevention.

5. It stirred early and often enthusiastic support from parents who themselves had been alienated from formal education and otherwise might have never identified with it. In addition, the various attempts to involve parents in compensatory education has produced findings that suggest new ways to teach child-rearing techniques. It has started research into how to teach parents of poverty to be more effective educators of their infants and young children (Weikart and Lanbie, 1968).
6. It has clearly documented that children's success in educational programs is enhanced in all respects when intervention strategies include efforts to actively involve and educate parents (Gordon, 1968; Klaus and Gray, 1968; McCarthy, 1969; Weikart and Lanbie, 1968; Willmon, 1969).

Although Head Start has not accomplished its primary goal, it has focused attention on parents (although a limited population) in a new and significant way. Although at first Head Start did not provide very effective parent education, it has proved that involving parents is clearly important when trying to enhance the development of children, and it did create a climate for direct parent education to begin to happen. Most Head Start programs operating today do require some direct parental participation.

Follow-Through. The extension of Head Start up the age scale was recommended by President Johnson's Task Force on Early Childhood



Development. In 1967, Congress legalized Project Follow-Through as a community action program through the Office of Education. The legislation specifically related Follow-Through to Head Start both in program content and in the children to be served. Moreover, it called for their parents to be involved in planning and decision-making. The basic purpose of this developmental research project is to bring together the resources of schools, community, and family to continue improving the learning environment of the child. This shift in focus to include the family is important. A fundamental assumption of this project was and still is that further environmental can provide a more sustained pattern of early gains by Head Start participants, or at least increase the probability of long-term benefits.

The basic format is similar to that of Head Start, but more variations in approach have been developed as the age range was extended from kindergarten to third grade. Home visits are included in some models, as well as Montessori and Piagetian activities. Eventually, 21 program models of early education became acceptable (see Head Start Performance Standards, 1970), and now communities can choose the kind of program format they wish to implement. For descriptions of the major variations, see Hunt (1974) or Evans (1971). In this model much more attention is focused on parent training and on in-service training for teachers and community persons. The basic focus of the parent training is to help parents become more effective teachers of their own children.



It is readily apparent from early anecdotal records (Runke, 1969) and later evaluative studies (Stallings, 1964; Becker, 1974) that the innovations and the technology of compensatory education stimulated by Head Start has been utilized on a substantial scale within Follow-Through with some promising results. Goldberg (1974:7) notes:

Instead of falling progressively behind, children of poverty in the Follow-Through program are keeping up with the norms or surpassing them. Whether these children will maintain this grade of progress once they leave their Follow-Through program remains to be seen.

Goldberg also notes that since Follow-Through attempts to consider the influences of the family and the culture on the child, parents are more critical to actual implementation. Participation in schools through parent advisory committees and other meetings have given parents the feeling that they have some control over their children's education (Gordon, 1974). In an evaluative report, 96% of parents who participated in Follow-Through claimed the program has helped them to develop greater interest in their children's education, and more than 80% feel confident that their opinions about their children's educational needs are respected by school personnel (Datta, 1974). Those parents who were involved in programs that combined home visitations with parent classroom participation have been the most enthusiastic about their children's progress and the program (Gordon, 1974). It should be noted, however, that not all of the 21 models have been equally successful, and parents have not always been effectively involved in Follow-Through. In some cases, professionals were reluctant to relinquish control, and consequently, parents had no chance to be

actively involved or were forced to be involved in ways that made them feel incompetent and unimportant (Gordon, 1974).

While Follow-Through may have further established both the need and the importance of involving parents as children's first and enduring teacher, as a continuing project it has not as yet clearly established the best ways to do this. Although programs have spent more time focusing on developing methodology, in many cases they have not adequately tested the effects of the methods developed. Those variations that have involved parents with professionals as co-educators of their children seem to be most successful. In terms of overall effects on parent education, Follow-Through has reaffirmed and reinforced the need for it, indicated a few promising strategies, but has also pointed out the inadequacy of information about just how it should be done.

Parent Child Centers. On February 8, 1967, as a direct result of recommendations made by the White House Task Force on Children, President Johnson delivered a special message to congress on children and youth. In President Johnson's 12 point program (Special Message to Congress, 1967:38), Item four was:

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

The President requested the initial development of 25 comprehensive service programs for families with children under 3 years of age to be called Parent and Child Centers, and directed that resources from related programs with the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and Housing and Urban Development, would support these centers. In

fact, 40 centers were organized and funded between 1968 and 1970 (Keliher, 1969). The general focus of the PCC program was to provide comprehensive services for economically disadvantaged families which had one or more children under the age of 3. The primary goals of the program were (Johnson, 1973:3):

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

The original goals of PCC programs were quite high. They were envisioned as being able to include programs for children that would facilitate physical, intellectual, and emotional development. They also were designed to provide parent activities to stress the understanding of basic child development information, to help them regain confidence as family managers, and to teach skills essential to making a successful living. Planned parent activities were also expected to increase participant's self-confidence and self-image as parents and strengthen family relationships, including the role of the father within the family. Unlike Head Start and Follow-Through, where parents were involved as a means to serve the child, the PCC's were designed to give direct educational services to parents.

In general PCC's were seen as multi-service centers. In fact, they provided day care, medical advice, and parent support groups.

Services took place largely at the centers, but home visits and out-reach were also a part of most programs. However, because the overall goals of the program were not clearly defined initially, there was a great variation at each center in the exact content and format of services provided. Also, because administrative guidelines were unclear, the cooperative relationship between professional staff and parents was never clearly established, and the role of parents tended to vary from locale to locale.

While the PCC's have had a great effect on the lives of hundreds of families, again, it seems major programatic difficulties centered around planning hopes that were too high. It seems lessons from the Head Start experience were not remembered. Hunt (1974:35), Chairman of the White House Task Force which recommended the PCC's, conceded as much when he observed:

In retrospect, it is now clear that the responsibility of the centers was originally conceived too broadly by both the task force and the Office of Economic Opportunity. With so many things to do, many things were not done, or not done well. As a result, most centers became and remained day care depositories, offering passive, non-injurious custodial care, where children were grouped according to whether they were less than 1, 2, or 3. Though in many centers parents were required to remain on the premises, little was offered to them.

The PCC program has been extensively reviewed by Keliher, 1969; Lazar and Chapman, 1972; and Pieper, 1970. Richard Johnson (1974:10), Chief of OCD's Parent and Child Center program, cites, however, a number of important points relevant to parent education that have been learned because of the PCC programs. Among the points he mentions are:



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

The information that PCC's produced about parent's knowledge level, desire to learn, and effective process are significant, and program attempts to treat the family as a unit were important, but as a large intervention effort, it must be acknowledged that it was not successful. Kalinowski (1976) makes an interesting point when he suggests that had PCC's had available a general theoretical model of parent education from which to generate their own individual programs, the effects might have been far greater. Most PCC's have not continued because of cutbacks in Federal funding. Where centers still do exist, they tend to be small community efforts for special populations.

Parent-Child Development Centers. The Parent-Child Development Center program is similar to the PCC program, but was designed with a stronger research emphasis (Robinson, 1975). The PCDC's were begun in order to develop a set of replicable models of parent-infant intervention that would give low-income parents, especially mothers, information about and insight into the process of early childhood development. The PCDC program was organized from the beginning with systematic research and evaluation goals not only in mind, but of paramount consideration in program design and implementation. Funding levels of PCDC's have been nearly three times as high as the PCC's, with most of the additional funds going into research and curriculum development activities in anticipation of a larger reduplication effort. It was hoped that the PCDC research would suggest a model for making parent education universally available.

Only three centers were designated as PCDC's as opposed to 33 PCC's, with each PCDC explicitly designed to test a different intervention strategy over a three year period. One program developed relies primarily on outreach activities (Andrews, et.al., 1974); another provides center based activities for all families on a five day per week basis (Lasiter, et.al., 1975); the third employs a combination of these approaches (Leler, et.al., 1975; Johnson, 1975). The sources cited explain in detail the programs operated at each center.

The programs in general have been judged to be successful, and well-received in the locations in which they are operating. In terms of the goal of developing a model which would be able to be universally replicated, Kalinowski (1976) suggests, however, that these three

models are too strictly defined both in structure and content to be reliably duplicated and generalized to other locations. Although the stage of replication is still in process, he feels that they are in fact more approach and delivery systems, not models, and will not generalize across populations. Ainsworth (1975) believes that none of these centers have reached any close approximation of an ideal or universally generalizable program. Gosslin (1975:55), however, notes a number of lessons which he feels can be learned from the PCDC experience:

1. Whatever specific programs we envision must have within them the capacity for flexibility of responses to the needs of parents and children in any given community or neighborhood.
2. The freedom of parents to make real choices, both for themselves and their children, must be preserved.
3. Continuity in coordination of services are of critical importance in dealing with problems of this age group.

Taken together, these lessons could have far reaching implications for current and future efforts in model building in the field of early childhood and parent education.

Home Start. Home Start (O'Keefe, 1973) was launched as an adjunct to Head Start to help parents to do for their own children at home many of the same kinds of things that Head Start staff members do with their children at Head Start centers. Developed and funded in 1972 through OCD, Home Start has 16 demonstration programs throughout the United States serving approximately 1200 families. Home Start focuses on enhancing the quality of children's lives by building upon existing

family strengths and assisting parents in their role as the first and foremost educators of their own children. Nationally, the Home Start program has four goals (Guide for Planning and Operating Home-Based Child Development Programs, 1974:E2):

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

Since Home Start is a Head Start demonstration program, Home Start programs are usually adjuncts of existing Head Start programs and serve additional children in the same age range (3-5 years). The general format includes weekly home visits, discussion of ideas, demonstration of materials and activities with parents and children, and/or television lectures and parent meetings. Many of the persons who do the home visiting are paraprofessional staff of the Head Start centers, and members of the local community.

Home Start has not been in existence long enough to assess its long-term achievements. A major study of the general effects of Home Start is about to be released, but in terms of parent education; anecdotal data published by High Scope Educational Research Foundation (1974) notes some important achievements:



1. Parents seem to be very receptive to the home style learning, and respond well to the staff persons who see them, and the ideas suggested.
2. The programs seem to be economically feasible.
3. The entire family is affected, not just the target children.
4. Using community persons seems to help establish an ongoing support for parents in their neighborhoods.

Some limitations are visible, however. Several Researchers (O'Keefe, 1974; Gordon, 1974) have expressed concern about the lack of systematic training of the paraprofessionals involved and want more systematic supervision. They feel the effectiveness of the program now relies very much on personality variables of staff, but so far no clear plan for the type of training needed has emerged.

Although this analysis of federal parent education efforts is necessarily limited to these four major programs, there are several significant facts that can be highlighted. These are:

1. Efforts to facilitate the educational development of children were greatly enhanced when interventions included efforts to actively involve parents.
2. Format variations that involved parents and professionals as co-educators of children produced the most successful results for children.
3. Parents consistently rated programs more successful (for their children and themselves when they had an active role (active has meant various things)).

4. Many past programs that had remedial goals for children and parents had only limited success. Therefore, although most programs were designed to remediate, their efforts and results strongly underscored the necessity for more preventive approaches.
5. Providing support and giving parents information were important goals in many different types of programs.
6. Although programs differed in either trying to affect parental behavior or attitudes, most results underscored increasing confidence and competence as critical factors in effecting change in both.
7. Parents were consistently enthusiastic about programs that increased their sense of self-confidence and competence.
8. Most programs done in the past were directed at a specific, limited population, and therefore are limited in replicability.
9. Multi-service center approaches had some success, but limited replicability.
10. Even programs that were designed to be replicable (PCDC's) have had theoretical limitations that have prevented a universally applicable model for parent education from being designed.
11. Home visiting approaches have been successful with low-income families.
12. Environmental enrichment techniques (especially for cognitive development) have been successful with low-income parents.

13. Many past programs did not have goals that could be effectively measured, did not develop the program so it could be evaluated, and did not build on what had previously been discovered in other programs.
14. Some programs provided training for those running programs. Many did not. Questions about the type and kind of training needed were often raised in evaluations.

Again, I feel these documented facts should offer some direction for future parent education efforts. The directions they suggest are the following:

1. Parents need to have active roles in programs. If cooperative partnerships can be established between parents and professionals, programs can expect to be more successful, and receive more enthusiastic support from parents.
2. Preventive approaches in parent education seem to be needed and will need to be thoroughly tested for effectiveness.
3. Building parental self-confidence and competence should probably continue to be considered the key goals in the programs. Identifying the key process technique for fostering these seems critical. Trust, respect, and good listening have been identified in the past.
4. Future programs need to be made more universally available, with care taken so that content and method are not classist or racist.
5. Different program methods may be appropriate for different

parent populations or to reach various content or process goals. Future programs should integrate and test further the methodology that has been most successful in the past.

6. In response to ongoing concerns about training for parent educators, a training model for parent educators needs to be generated and tested.

Home-based programs. This second category of programs to be reviewed focuses on specific programs where compensatory education was done at home. Prior to 1972, at least 200 home-based programs had been created throughout the country (Home Start Fact Sheet, 1975). Some of these programs were federally funded, some were sponsored by individuals, universities, or private foundations. All of the programs are significant because from their conception, they had a stronger parent education component; they were based on the belief that parents are not only the first, but also can be the most influential educators of their own children; and, young children should not be removed from the home environment. These programs are 1) Gray and Klaus Early Learning Project, 2) Ira Gordon's Early Infant Project, and 3) Ypsilanti-Carnegie Infant Project. The discussion of these programs will focus on their goals and format, with a summary evaluation of each.

Gray and Klaus Early Learning Project. Susan Gray and Rupert Klaus at Dodge Peabody College Demonstration and Research Center for Early Education, Nashville, Tennessee, were pioneers in involving parents, especially mothers, in the educational process. Their



overall aim was interesting children in scholastic matters and inculcating a motivational concern for achievement which they felt was required for doing well in school. Their primary goal was to teach parents how to inculcate these goals in children (Gray, 1971).

They brought the mother into the classroom, first as an observer, and then as teacher aides. The mothers watched teachers working with the children, then the teachers talked with the mothers about what the mothers had seen them do in various interactions with the children, and explained why they did it. This provided a basis for imitative learning. What was observed and imitated could be meaningfully discussed. Discussions were geared to helping parents transfer what they had learned into the homes, and then home visitors helped the transfer along. Their home visiting component was very similar to that previously described in Home Start, where staff members would bring ideas and materials into the home and practice using these ideas with parents and children (Gray, 1971).

This combination of classroom modeling and home visiting brought results that included improved performance, not only in the target children who attended the classes, but also in the other children of the families, particularly those younger than the target child (Gray and Klaus, 1975). Gray and Klaus have called this "vertical diffusion." The authors have expressed guarded optimism about the long-range effects of their work. Their program, however, as well as other programs that have actively involved parents in the teaching of their own children have found that a combination of

direct modeling and later discussion of the reasons behind teacher behavior seem to be important factors in increasing both competence and self-esteem in the parents. (See Badger, 1971; Kairnes, et.al., 1970; Weikart and Lambie, 1967.)

Gordon (1976) feels that probably the most significant contribution of Gray and Klaus' work for parent education has been clearly documenting the success of this type of delivery system. They have shown the success of modeling as an educational technique in parent programs and their work has also had significant effects on decisions of other programs about the process goals of parent education models. Important limitations to note, however, are that they dealt only with mothers, and that these mothers had only limited choices and input in terms of what goals and activities they saw modeled (Gordon, 1977).

Ira Gordon's Early Infant Project. Ira Gordon initiated programs in parent education in 1967, 1969, and 1971, with the aim of preventing developmental losses among participating children through parent education. A primary goal was also to find a delivery system that was economically feasible. He trained tutors, women of low income and limited education. His parent educators worked in the home, once a week, with 216 families whose children were between 3 and 24 months. Gordon's goal, like that of Gray and Klaus, was to teach parents how to teach their own children. His focus, however, was on a much earlier age range (Gordon, 1969).

The Gordon curriculum features a series of learning games

inspired by Piaget's description of sensory motor development (for a detailed description, see Gordon, 1970 and 1972). His home visitors went to the home once a week, taught a series of exercises which stimulated the infants' perceptual, motor and verbal activities, and involved the mothers in the arrangement of tasks. The infants received this stimulation for at least nine months, and through later program developments and modifications, these infants and mothers had the opportunity to be involved until the children were five.

Gordon's own reporting (1969, 1971) indicated that a year of such mother training is inadequate to effect a continuing improvement in child-rearing practices. Although Gordon, in later studies, showed the children who remained in this program two years showed significant differences in cognitive development compared to the controls, Hunt (1974), in a review of home-based programs, contends that all gains from the Gordon program are modest and favor girls. Hunt feels it is unclear whether the modesty of the gains or the effectiveness of the mother training was sacrificed in attempting to achieve economic feasibility in the delivery system. However, Gordon's long-term achievements in terms of the future of parent education have been significant. In his program he attempted to make connections between various resources in the community and the families in the program. This idea of a network of referral systems did a great deal towards promoting the idea of a wholistic educational model and influenced other programs which were just beginning to make these community connections (Hunt, 1974). In the development of his

curriculum, Gordon was able to put human development research into a very practical form, one that parents could identify with and understand. This was a great achievement, and this approach has been developed further by other programs successfully. (See Far West Toy Laboratories, et.al.) Again, however, fathers were not involved in the programs, and parents did not have direct input into curriculum goals.

Ypsilanti-Carnegie Infant Project. This program has as its main developmental objective the construction of a Piagetian-based curriculum for increasing a mother's awareness of and her ability to enhance her infant's cognitive growth. The project was based on the assumption that programs which involve a mother and her child (prior to three years of age) in a home setting might capitalize on the initial and fundamental period of infant development, thereby eliminating the performance differentials evident between low and middle-income children by preschool age (Lambie, Bond, Weikart, 1974).

Weikart and Lambie utilized trained educators to teach parents how to support their child's education in conjunction with a half-day preschool program. It was assumed that parents play a vital role in the rearing of their own children and that parents are capable of effective child-rearing when provided with resources and support adequate to the task. Essentially, the educational programs were to support the parents in clarifying and realizing their own child-rearing goals. The program encouraged parents to take an open, problem-solving approach to child-rearing by involving them in interactions with professional teachers who supported their goals



for the child and focused on the mutual task of understanding and supporting development in the child. The curriculum was essentially a developmental perspective (devised largely from the theory of Piaget), a set of educational objectives for infant, mother, and teacher, and a body of descriptive-observational data that guided teachers, and mothers as teachers, in interpreting and effectively responding to their infants' behavior (Lambie, Bond, Weikart, 1974).

The final report prepared by Weikart and his associates (1973) indicated that children in the program did make significant gains in cognitive and language development. However, these gains tested again after one year were somewhat more moderate compared to the control group, and it is uncertain whether in other areas of development (i.e., affective, volitional) that this approach would be equally effective. The report indicates that the major gains from the program were in mothers' attitudes and behavior toward their children. Mothers in the program were more verbally responsive toward their children, more actively involved with their children, provided more play materials for their infants, developed more of an interest in education, and in general became more able to assume the child's point of view. Weikart and others (Gordon, 1974; Levine, 1978; Hoffman, 1971) see these material gains as important and significant. However, again no fathers were involved in programs, and like each of the other home-based programs, all major evaluations were done by the program operators. Hunt (1974) suggests that further evaluative studies of the home-based approach would be very useful.

From the home-based approaches, however, I feel some important lessons can be learned. These are:

1. Paraprofessionals can be active and effective teachers in programs for parents.
2. Modeling techniques are very successful in teaching parents new information and skills.
3. Coming to the home seems to put low-income parents at ease, and provides the opportunity for connecting families to other community services.
4. Environmental enrichment techniques (especially for cognitive development) have been successful for low-income parents.
5. Many programs did not involve fathers. The format (time, method, etc.) tended to exclude male involvement, but concerns about the role of fathers in child development have been continually raised in program evaluations.

These points seem to reinforce some of the implications that have already been outlined for future programs (i.e., active involvement of parents, building on successful methodology, training personnel), and they also suggest that:

1. Opportunities need to be provided for both parents to participate in programs. Special programs just for fathers may need to be developed as attitudes shift and needs are expressed.
2. Community networks of services to families should be an integral part of parent education.

Commercial parent education programs. The third category of programs to be reviewed are the commercial parent education programs. Begun on a large scale as early as 1964, these programs, as mentioned in Chapter I, have gained widespread popularity. In general, they can all be characterized as process models, that is their major focus is on skill training rather than child development information.

Although there are about seven popular programs in this category, we will look closely at only three. These three are chosen because they represent a good cross-section of the available program options. The programs to be reviewed are: 1) Parent Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1970), 2) Behavioral Parent Training (Becker, 1971), and 3) S.T.E.P. Program (Dinkmeyer, 1977).

Parent Effectiveness Training. The goal of Parent Effectiveness Training is to teach parents a set of communication skills that will help in their relationships with their children. Essentially a humanist, Gordon is optimistic about people; he believes that they will behave well as long as they have no reason not to. His approach focuses on parental skill development. In his course he teaches a series of skills which are: active listening, I-messages, problem-solving, modifying the environment, and how to deal with value conflicts. He suggests that learning these skills will result in a no-lose method of child-rearing. His overall goal is to increase what he calls the no-problem area of parent-child relationships so that the parents as well as children can learn to live and learn from each other in an enjoyable way.

The format of the PET approach is an adult, parent group. Children are not involved directly in the program, although some instructors do bring families together in the final session. This group meets for eight consecutive weeks. There is a trained instructor who runs the group following the instructor's manuals provided by Gordon and his associates. The approach requires the instructor to model the skills being talked about, to explain why the skills are useful and to help the parent participants to practice the skills with each other. It is a theory and practice model. Parents are required to read the PET book as the course progresses as well as to practice the skills at home with their children. Usually each session begins with the discussion of how parents are feeling about using the skills and includes instruction in new techniques, discussion, and further skill practice. (For a detailed description of this PET model, see Gordon, 1970; Instructor's Manual, 1975.)

Like most of the other commercial programs, PET has not been systematically evaluated by researchers not involved in the program. What studies have been done have been done by Gordon and his associates. These studies indicate that skills like active listening, or problem-solving have been useful for parents in handling problems with their children. There have, however, as yet been no longitudinal studies to indicate how effective this method is on a long-term basis. The one strong evidence for judging the success of these programs is that tests show clearly that parents feel a lot better about themselves at the end of a course than they did at the start (Emmons, 1975),



and they report more harmonious interactions with their spouses and children at home (Gordon, 1976). The PET program has been criticized because there is no discussion of child development information, and very little opportunity for parents to exchange ideas about their own individual child-rearing goals. Also, some parents find the skills do not work for them because they do not agree with the basic humanistic premises.

Behavioral parent training. There are several parent models that use a behavior modification approach to parent training. Rather than review any one program, it seems more useful to describe and evaluate the basic components of this approach. Lamb (1978) describes the assumptions and goals as follows:

The basic assumption behind behavior modification approaches to training parents . . . is that a great deal of human behavior results from learning. It follows, then, that if a behavior is learned, it is subject to such learning issues as forgetting and relearning. Accordingly, if learning is the basic problem, then learning must be the basic solution. Another basic assumption is that much learning results from the interaction of the individual with the environment. The conclusion that follows is that the environment must change prior to any change in behavior that originally related to the environment. Emphasis on environmental influences on learning and the social settings of learning clearly sets the stage for using the behavioral model in parent training.

The general goals of behavioral parent training are: 1) training in observational skills and assessment; 2) formal training in learning theory concepts; 3) application of these concepts to their children; 4) usually, some type of program evaluation to determine the effectiveness of the intervention. To deal with specific goals of the behavioral model, it is necessary to treat the major concepts and techniques used, since mastery and application are the central goal of the model.

Parent manuals, lectures, and small group discussions are the approaches most frequently used to give parents a solid introduction to behavioral principles of learning. The course usually begins with an attempt to define behavior precisely, and proceeds to an explanation of the various technical aspects of behavior modification (i.e., observation, assessment, reward, punishment, reinforcement, extinction). The instructor explains the techniques, and they are discussed. Parents study for each class and usually there is a weekly quiz, but they really learn by doing a home project. Using a special graph paper, the parents record a behavior of their child they want to change. Then, they institute their experimental procedure, and verify their counts of behavior by having another observer assist them, usually the other parent. Then, they test their procedure, usually by stopping the experimental procedure, in order to see whether the behavior they want to eliminate returns to former levels. Finally, they reinstitute the procedure. During the last class, parents describe their projects while the others discuss why or why not it could have been effective or not effective. (For a detailed description of a group parent approach in behavior modification, see Lamb, 1978.)

Again, there is a lack of systematic evaluation of this approach, but parents report that this procedure seems to work very well in changing their children's behavior (Brown, 1976). However, parents also tend to choose for their projects behavior that is easy to count or to change, i.e., toys left out at bedtime, fighting between

siblings. Some parents express concern about the manipulative nature of the procedures and wonder if it will work in fostering other types of behavior like generosity, honesty, etc. In the absence of systematic studies, once again parents' opinions is the only evidence one has for measuring the success or non-success of these programs. However, as Brown (1976) and Becher (1971) report, parents say they like the programs, and they do feel they begin to have more control at home when they use the techniques they have learned.

S.T.E.P. The S.T.E.P. (Systematic Training for Effective Parenting) program is produced by American Guidance Associates (Dinkmeyer, 1976). Essentially, it is based on a philosophy of Rudolph Dreikers, is similar in theory to the Adlerian Study Groups, but somewhat different in approach. While Adlerian groups are more like insight counseling sessions, S.T.E.P. is a skill-based program. The main focus of the S.T.E.P. program is to teach parents a set of skills for managing misbehavior. The skills are similar to those described by Gordon, however, Dreikers does not have a humanistic perspective, but is more influenced by the work and perspectives of Freud and Adler.

The format of the S.T.E.P. program is very similar to that of PET. However, there are nine sessions and the skills taught are called effective responding, expressing feelings, and holding family meetings. Parents learn about the skills, discuss and practice them with each other. Again, the instructors are required to lecture about and model the skills, although in this model there is no

systematic training for people to teach this course. The materials may be purchased by any person interested in holding a group, and the groups are often led by other parents. (For a detailed description of the format, see the S.T.E.P. Leader's Manual, Dinkmeyer, 1978.)

Because this is the newest of the commercial parent education approaches, it has not been evaluated at all as yet. It is also a process model, but one with different philosophical and psychological assumptions. Several newspaper reports and magazine articles have described parents' favorable responses to this program, but none have detailed reasons for parental approval. A few professionals have expressed concern about the lack of training required for group leaders, but in general, there seems to be a "wait and see" attitude about this program approach. Like the Gordon program, S.T.E.P. does not provide any child development information.

Because of the limited amount of evaluative research on the commercial programs, I feel it is necessary to be more careful in outlining the implications they offer for future program efforts. However, I feel four important facts can be highlighted. These are:

1. Commercial programs are based on distinct philosophical and psychological principles and assumptions. Sometimes these underlying assumptions are not initially clear to parents who participate.
2. They emphasize process not content.
3. They are very popular, particularly with middle-class parents.



4. A combination of theory in practice in these adult groups has been successful in teaching parents communication skills and behavior modification techniques.

This suggests that in future parent program efforts:

1. Philosophical assumptions should be clearly identified and evaluated by parent participants, and programs with the broadest-based and most comprehensive philosophy will have the most universal appeal.
2. A methodology that combines theory and practice can be effective for facilitating certain kinds of growth and learning in adult parent groups.

Self-directed programs. Within this category there are really three types of programs. The first type of self-directed parent education program is program learning materials. These materials, often books or manuals, but many times now films, tapes, filmstrips, slides, etc., are used by groups without a trained instructor. Parents can get together for discussion groups with these materials, or as often happens, teachers or social workers call the group together and use the materials. The major emphasis of this type of parent education has been the dissemination of child development information, as well as discussion and providing parental support.

It is difficult to evaluate the effectiveness of these materials because they differ so widely in format and quality. One major problem about these materials is that, like the commercial programs, they do not often identify the philosophical assumptions that

underlie them, nor do they explain how this particular approach or information fits with what parents already know about child development. In many cases, the materials have a sex-role bias and have racist overtones. In Kalinowski (1976), there is an extensive list of these materials and where they are available.

The other type of self-directed parent education program is the child-rearing manual. As I have mentioned earlier, there are hundreds of these books being written every year and over nine million parents have purchased and perhaps read these books in the last year. It is difficult to assess the impact of these books. No serious study has been done to determine how parents are influenced by the reading they do in these types of manuals. Carol Gilligan (1975) in a review of some of these materials, points out that it is difficult for the ordinary parent to assess the validity of the information that is given, or to decide whether the values proposed in the books match their own. Because of this, she sees this type of education as dangerous. She feels that while these books may contribute a lot of valuable information to parents, they have also generated a great deal of confusion for parents about child-rearing methods.

The third type of self-directed parent education programs are the informal parent support and discussion groups that often emerge from church groups, parent-teacher associations, and community organizations. Often, the major objective of these groups is to solve a particular problem or provide particularly needed information

to a group of parents who ask for it. The format of these programs is most always informal discussion, with an appointed leader who may be a parent or an interested professional in the community. As mentioned in Chapter I, there are numerous groups of this nature. Although no formal evaluation has been done as yet of the effectiveness of these groups, they do seem to serve an important supportive function in local communities. In many cases, they provide the link for parents to community services their family may need.

To draw implications for future parent education programs from this broad category of activities is very difficult. I feel certain all of these self-directed approaches will continue in some form in the future. It seems to me the most important way to make these approaches most effective is to inform parents how to utilize them to accomplish their own goals most effectively.

### Summary

Because a span of several decades and a large number of programs have been covered in this review, a brief summary of the key points seems critical. Since my purpose in reviewing programs has been to focus on what can be learned to direct future planning, before moving to Chapter III where I will propose a theoretical model and a program approach that will try to build on past achievements in the field and eliminate identified limitations, it will be useful to recapitulate and clarify key points in a table format.

## IN THE PAST

- 1a. Parents actually began the parent education movement and have continually asked for a central role.
- 1b. Professionals added important dimensions of expertise to programs, but tended to place parents in secondary roles to which they reacted negatively.
- 1c. Parents consistently rated programs more successful when they had an active role in them (active has meant various things).

- 2a. Having support and getting information were important goals of parents in early groups.
- 2b. Parents were consistently enthusiastic about programs that increased their sense of self-confidence and competence.
- 2c. Although programs differed in either trying to change parental behavior or attitudes with hindsight, most underscored confidence and competence as critical for effecting both.
- 3a. Specific process and content goals of programs tended to shift as times and needs changed. This meant many types of programs were developed. This variety has been beneficial, but

Table 1

Lessons from Past Programs with Future Implications

## THIS SUGGESTS FOR THE FUTURE

1. Parents need to have choices about the level of involvement and type of involvement they want in planning or implementing programs. Their needs and concerns should be considered central. Establishing a partnership between parents and professionals should be a keynote of programs. Planning models that lend themselves to this cooperative approach should be adopted, and the format of programs should be chosen because it fosters this cooperation.
2. Building parental self-confidence and competence should probably continue to be considered the key goals in programs. Identifying the key process technique for fostering these seems critical. Trust, respect, and good listening have been identified in the past.
3. To insure continued flexibility and relevance, yet also foster unity, all the knowledge, experiences, and skills we now recognize as important



## IN THE PAST

Unfortunately has also generated confusion about the focus of parent education.

3b. Some programs focused only on content tools (child development information).

3c. Some programs focused only on process (skill) goals.

4a. Most programs done in the past were directed at a specific, limited population and have limited replicability.

4b. Most commercial programs have a distinct middle-class, white bias. (There are no materials prepared for English as a second language population, or low-literate skilled parents.)

5. Many past programs that had remedial goals for children and parents had only limited success.

6a. Home visiting approaches have been successful with low-income families.

6b. Modeling techniques have been successful in teaching parents new information and skills.

6c. Environmental enrichment techniques (especially for cognitive development) have been successful with low-income parents.

## THIS SUGGESTS FOR THE FUTURE

to parenting should be identified so that the best information in any one area can be focused on by various programs without losing a sense of its relation to the whole. To do this, some broad theoretical framework will be necessary.

4. Future programs need to be more universally available with content and method that are not classist or racist.

5. Preventive approaches in parent education need to be tested for effectiveness.

6. Different methods may be appropriate for different populations or to reach various content or process goals. Future programs can integrate and test further the methodology that has been most successful in the past.

Table 1 (Cont.)

## IN THE PAST

6d. A combination of theory in practice in adult groups have been successful in teaching parents communication skills.

7. Many programs did not involve fathers. The format (time, method, etc.) tended to exclude male involvement. Attitudes about the role of fathers in child development have been shifting in recent programs.

8. Public and private interest and financial support of parent education has been substantial.

9a. There have been clear efforts to organize and systematize the development of parent programs, as well as evaluate the results, but these efforts have not always been successful.

9b. Many past programs did not have goals that could be effectively measured; did not develop the program so it could be evaluated; and did not build on what had previously been discovered in programs.

9c. Multi-service center approaches had some success, but limited replicability.

10. Some programs provide training for those who run programs. Many do not. Questions about the type and kind of training needed have continually been raised.

## THIS SUGGESTS FOR THE FUTURE

7. Opportunities need to be provided for both parents to participate in programs. Special programs just for fathers may need to be developed as attitudes shift and needs are expressed.

8. Future programs have a precedent for funding but will have to be able to indicate how they can be more effective or successful than past efforts.

9. There is a precedent for systematic model-building, but it needs to have a broader theoretical base than what has been used in the past so it can be more coherent and comprehensive. Evaluation methodology needs to be built into program design.

10. A training model for parent educators needs to be generated and tested.

Table 1 (Cont.)

C H A P T E R   I I I  
ORGANIC ASSUMPTIONS AND METHODOLOGY

Two Organizing Ideas

Although Chapter II outlines ten significant directions to be taken in future parent programs, there are two that I feel are central organizing ideas, and on which I would like to focus in my discussion of a possible new model for parent education. These two points are: 1) the need for a clear, comprehensive and appropriate philosophical and theoretical base from which programs can be generated, systematized, and evaluated; and 2) the need for a methodology and process in programs that stresses individual needs and cooperative relationships.

I feel the need for a philosophy and theory is a significant organizing idea for future model building because, as I have pointed out in Chapters I and II, many past programs have not identified their philosophical and theoretical assumptions when planning. As a result, they were unable to clearly define, delimit, or measure goals, identify gaps in services or inconsistencies in methodology, nor systematize a model that would be universally appropriate for parents. These limitations must be addressed in the future.

I have also explained that when underlying assumptions of programs are not identified clearly, often a mis-match occurs between

parents and program operators who unwittingly pursue different ends and antagonize or frustrate each other's efforts. When services are so clearly needed by parents, and so many professionals want to respond to this need, the mis-match needs to be eliminated.

In both Chapters, I have also mentioned the significant trend in the general population and among social scientists to be influenced by and act upon mechanistic philosophical premises. I have pointed out that as a consequence of this, a view of man has been adopted where individuals are defined as merely the sum of their parts, and as a result, important wholistic dimensions of human nature are missed and needed human services are greatly departmentalized and inefficient. A more wholistic view of man and service approach needs to be developed.

I feel that the type of methodology and process used in programs is also quite significant for future model building. Evaluations of past program efforts and parental feedback strongly stress the need for some form of individualization in programs for parents, and a great deal of emphasis on cooperation between parents and professionals, parents and their spouses, and parents and children. The program review in Chapter II indicates clearly that some of the most important research findings have been about types of effective methodology. Future programs need to utilize this research.

In this chapter, then, I would like to discuss in some detail the need for using an organic philosophical base for parent education programs, and an organic methodology. I will propose using the



philosophy of Alfred North Whitehead as a clear, coherent, comprehensive framework, and identify empathy as the key relationship process and organic methodology for programs. I would also like to discuss briefly how this philosophy and methodology can be synthesized in an educational model.

### Mechanistic Trends in Education and Society

To provide a context for the discussion of organic philosophical assumptions, it is important to understand how mechanistic ideas have impacted on society, and particularly on education. Obviously, the impact of this trend on education is a focal consideration since this discussion is centered on development of specific model for education programs for parents. (For a thorough and concise account of the rise of mechanistic beliefs and their impact on several aspects of society, see Reid, 1975.)

McCullough (1978), in his scholarly review of the history of educational program development, describes the impact of mechanistic ideas in terms of the widespread adoption in education of ends-means models. He explains that educators have been very influenced by psychological definitions of learning and development where early behaviors and observable performances are made the main criteria for assessing progress. As a result, in the past 10 to 20 years, much program development in education has focused on clearly defining in behavioral terms the final product of the educational process. After defining the end product, planners have then deliberated on the best

means to generate that product. (For an extensive discussion of the development of behavioral objectives in education, Kapfer, 1972; Kibler, 1970; and for a review of types of objectives, see Bloom, 1964.)

Cole (1972:121-122) describes the results of this type of process as the "creation of educational programs that are run somewhat like assembly plants, where the individual teachers add on their curriculum pieces as the child passes by." Holt (1964) says the overall goal of such a process is quite simply to produce good educational products--many times minimally defined as literate adults.

Going further in his analysis, Reid (1975) says this associationist view of learning (the step-like accumulations of mastered behaviors) has today become the dominant basis for designing educational programs and organizing learning systems. McCullough (1978:2) agrees when he summarizes the opinions of many reviewers by saying:

The convergence of the rationalistic approaches to educational program design and behavioristic conceptions of human learning have resulted in a powerful theoretical coalition. This coalition has spurred the development of engineering and technology into increasingly narrow conceptions of human development in exceedingly limited definitions of what constitutes acceptable evidence that educational efforts are worthwhile. There is no doubt that the rationalistic model and the instructional strategies based on it have become the dominant force in American educational planning and evaluation today.

My own ten year experience in schools and with ongoing, in-service education makes me agree with McCullough's analysis. While I recognize that there are other educational models that are popular and influential (see Neil, 1965; Montessori, 1912), I feel the mechanistic

approach is still predominant. While many individual teachers may espouse ideas and approaches that come from a more humanistic ideology, in general, ends-means models are utilized more often in decision-making.

In looking to develop parent education programs for the future, it would be easy to be influenced by this pervading approach in planning. One could begin to define what good parenting is and then develop means (behavioral objectives) to produce the good parenting behavior. Indeed, in some behavior modification approaches to parent education (see Dodson, 1970); Madeson, 1975), this type of design has been tried.

However, a second look is needed before proceeding because this mechanistic ideology, along with the educational technologies which are based on it, have been increasingly criticized in recent years by both professionals and lay persons. While 20 years ago, the criticism would have been from a minority, today its voice is widespread. For example, in contemporary physics, which initially enjoyed such success from the application of mechanical principles to the understanding of the physical environment, today there is much more emphasis on principles of integration, dynamic organization, and interactionist viewpoints in order to deal with the complexities of the natural world. (See the workds of Heisenberg, 1970; Margineau, 1959; Polyani, 1974.)

Also among students of human behavior, much more emphasis is also being placed on the critical importance of interaction and integration

in human growth. (See the works of Maslow, 1954; Flavell, 1963; Harlow, 1958; Schaeffer, 1964; Kohlberg, 1969.) While many psychologists have been strong advocates of the mechanistic view, some changes in perspective have been gradually taking place. Not too long ago in psychological circles, the popular stimulus-response paradigm (S-R) for describing behavior was a key mechanistic notion. However, it has been substantially modified by some theorists (Hebb, 1966; Osgood, 1957; Bandura, 1969) who now describe instead the important individual intermediary process of every stimulus by the organism (S-O-R). This modification seems to be a direct recognition that in human activity there is more to the whole (i.e., the behavior) than just the sum of the parts (i.e., S-R).

Many other social scientists, particularly developmental psychologists like Piaget (1963), Loevinger (1976), Selman (1973), White (1959), and Gordon (1970) are emphasizing through their research the importance of principles of interaction in human growth (i.e., the infant with parents, the child with the physical environment), the need for dynamic equilibrium as people grow and change, and the necessity of understanding all parts of the human system (affective, cognitive, perceptual, etc.) within the context of the whole person.

In education, men like Dewey (1963, 1966) and Schwaub (1971, 1973) have for a long time been stressing that learning is essentially an interactionist activity and does not fit nearly into the ends-means paradigm. The open education movement and Montessori early education are examples of educational models that have held strongly



to this view and resisted the behaviorist program trend. Jordan (1978), an educational program developer, astutely points out that a mechanistic view of man or a behaviorist educational system does not adequately account for such important human actions as free choice, intuition, aspiration, and such complex but important activities as creativity and morality. Carney (1977) notes that while mechanistic premises may read well in scientific treatises, teachers tend to react negatively to these premises when they are put into practice, precisely because it forces them to deny these important characteristics of themselves and their students.

Educators like Dewey and others suggest that a broader definition of education is needed; that more emphasis needs to be given to process; that much more attention needs to be placed on the individual decisions of the learner; that competency activities are needed in areas like affective and volitional development; and that clearer definitions of real mastery (beyond just behaviors) must be developed. As the noted psychologist and educator David Elkind (Tufts University, April 18, 1979) said recently in an informal speech on early childhood education:

Educators are not dealing with things. Children are not like little compact cars on an assembly line. The parts can't be pre-packaged and the end results predicted. They are living, breathing individuals who can and do, for lots of different reasons, choose to accept or reject the ideas, values, and plans taught to them by others. Ask an assembly-line worker at the local plant and a teacher if they are involved in the same process in their work, and surely they will laugh. Ends-means ideas may work fine in pencil-paper planning in education, but they don't hold up in real life.

His view is supported by many notable critics of the present education system (see Leonard, 1968; Rogers, 1969; Holt, 1964; Kozol, 1967; Silberman, 1970; Gattegno, 1970).

Criticism of the mechanistic view is not confined to professionals. There is a growing trend to reject mechanistic views of life by the ordinary person. We can see this rejection acted out in many ways. For example, large numbers of people are resisting increased automatization of their jobs, and thus themselves. Witness, the increased number of strikes by laborers and professionals who want their work to be more recognized and highly valued by their employers (see Time Magazine, September 11, 1978). Also, many parents are very unhappy with recent "products" of the educational systems, and many are concerned about issues of values and morals in education. Witness, the increased number of suits by parents whose children did not come out of high school even literate (see Newsweek, April 12, 1978), and the large number of parent organizations bringing political pressure on school committees to meet their demands for more effective programs (see Time Magazine, November 5, 1979). A further example is the many young people who express dissatisfaction with the society they see around them and are seeking ways to discover ultimate meanings for their life. Witness, the hundreds of thousands of young adults joining newly formed religious movements or revivals of traditional faiths (see Time Magazine, July 7, 1978).

All of these actions seem to indicate that people see themselves as more than just small cogs in an automated production

system; they are concerned with internal variables as well as just visible behaviors; they are consistently resistant to being defined as just what can be seen on this physical plane; and they often band together to express their concerns. I think these contemporary experiences and people's reaction to them suggest that mechanistic definitions of human nature are simply not consistent with what people think and feel about themselves.

This recent negative reaction to mechanistic trends in the sciences and in the general population convinces me that a more organic definition of the nature of man is needed, as well as educational program approaches which are more consistent with organic principles. By organic definitions, I mean definitions that reflect the gradual, wholistic growth process seen in nature and human development. Organic principles and approaches would stress the more alive, growing, changing, interactive attributes of whole organisms. as opposed to the static, unconnected parts definitions more appropriate to machines. I feel organic definitions and educational approaches can be more successful because they will be more consistent with the reality of human nature and experience.

I feel strongly that organic approaches are especially critical in parent education where the primary focus is to help parents facilitate human development in their children and themselves. Some recognition of the gradual unfolding nature of human development and of the key role of the connecting relationship between parents and children seems essential in the underlying assumptions of programs.

An organic view is the only view that could provide that recognition and could identify all the related areas of human development which parents need to become aware of. An organic view is the only view that could also suggest how these diverse aspects of human development are related. A program approach based on organic assumptions would, I believe, also suggest an appropriate facilitating process to be used by parents and with parents. It was established in Chapter I that wholistic models of parent education are clearly needed to meet the various needs being expressed by parents. Without doubt, a mechanistic philosophy or educational program cannot generate a wholistic model.

#### An Organic Philosophical View

Because I was convinced that I was not the first person to see the need for alternatives to mechanistic notions, I began to search through the history of philosophical thought for a clear expression of a more organic definition of the nature of man. I was drawn to the work of Alfred North Whitehead. Although Whitehead's terminology is difficult, many critics feel his work is the broadest-based and most coherent expression of organic principles and definitions. In reviewing it, I found it particularly well-suited as a theory and a wholistic ideology for meeting the identified need for a philosophical framework for parent education. What I would like to do is to outline briefly the basic premises of Whitehead's philosophy.



Whitehead explains that the purpose of his speculative philosophy is to articulate a comprehensive scheme of ideas, adequate to the task of interpreting the full richness of human life as directly experienced by human beings. He suggests that the ultimate goal of such a philosophy would be to produce "self-evidence" that ideas expressed should be clearly recognizable as related to the reality of lived experience (1969:5-16). But he also points out that the full "unity of interpretation of experience" is an ideal which no metaphysical scheme can ultimately hope to reach. "At the best, such a system will remain only an approximation to the general truths which are sought (1969:16)." But despite its limitations, Whitehead felt that the knowledge contained in such a scheme could be very useful. In fact, he felt it must be useful. He said (1950:89):

The death of knowledge comes when it is not connected to life--when it is only talked about and written down but never acted upon. To be alive, thoughts must inform action.

He hoped that his philosophy would be so consistent with experience that it would be able to be an effective guide to action.

In developing his philosophical system, Whitehead asserts that the most fundamental characteristic of all existence as we know it is change. This change is a process whereby an existing thing becomes something new or different from what it was before. Change is ongoing and universal. The notion of process or change, Whitehead further asserts, presupposes that there are potential states of being which can become actual. Hence the main process of the universe and the most basic organic process can be defined as the continual

actualization of potential states of being. This means that creativity is the universal of universals and that all things are continually undergoing creation and development, and new things are continually coming into existence. Human development for Whitehead, then, is defined as the actualization of human potential, that is, actualization of potential states which can be embodied or exemplified in human lives. This process of development is characterized by Whitehead as a creative advance into novelty (1969:101).

A second basic principle of Whitehead's philosophy concerns the way in which this development occurs. Whitehead says that this development necessarily proceeds through the interaction of the organism with its environment, and in fact, the organism and the environment mutually shape and influence each other. Whitehead explains this interaction as the taking in or "prehension" of aspects of the environment and incorporation of these aspects into the makeup of the organism. Two primary types of prehension are identified by Whitehead. These are: 1) physical prehensions in which real physical elements of the environment are taken into the organism, and 2) perceptual prehensions in which the aspects of the environment taken in are non-physical and related to the mental or psychological aspect of the organism. Whitehead uses the term "concrecence," literally a "growing together" to describe the unification into a single organism of many diverse aspects of the environment through the organisms prehensions. Defined in these terms, development can be seen as the concrecence of an organism proceeding through its prehensions, that is,

through interactions with the environment. In discussing the underlying reasons for this highly developed human capacity to modify and transform the environment, Whitehead suggests that this capacity evidences the operation of a threefold urge: "1) to live, 2) to live well, 3) to live better. In fact, the art of life is first to be alive, second to be alive in a satisfactory way, and thirdly, to acquire an increased satisfaction (1958:8)." This notion presupposes consciousness and purpose as human potentialities.

The principle of concrescence emphasizes the unification of many diverse aspects of experiences into a single unifying organism. This is the principle of the integration into a whole of the differentiated aspects of the experience. Development is seen by Whitehead as a process of progressive differentiation and hierarchical integration. As concrescence proceeds, the integration of many diverse elements calls for progressive development of a differentiated structure which must in turn be hierarchically integrated if the organism is to maintain its organized function. Order and organic structure are key Whiteheadian notions.

Whitehead says that the most basic unit of analysis for any instance of development would be a single interaction with the environment. This will be termed by him, a single prehension, which is a transition or interaction effecting a concrescence or actualization of a single potentiality. Whitehead said that any one prehension is utilizable into five parts. He says these parts can be distinguished, but they are not truly separable, because each is mutually determining.

The five parts are: 1) the subject or organism, 2) the initial data or initial aspects of the environment available for prehension, 3) selection of data through elimination of all aspects of initial data which are not wanted, 4) the objective data, which is a portion of the environment which is actually prehended, and 5) the subjective form, which is a specific way in which the objective data is incorporated into the organism (see 1969:258). The emphasis on the objective aspect of the prehensive operations has been termed by Whitehead as man's knowing capacity, whereas emphasis on the feeling or subjective aspects has been termed his loving capacity. Every interaction can be seen to involve these two predominant capacities for knowing and loving.

Another important Whiteheadian principle is that of subjective determination. This principle states that every organism (even rocks, trees, etc.) has some degree of internal control over the way in which its development proceeds. This control can be more or less, depending on the extent to which the organism is able to control the effects of external influence. Aspects of any one interaction can also be analyzed in terms of the relative degrees of determinancy. Environmental aspects which have less internal determination than man could be referred to as the physical component of the interaction. Those aspects which manifest an equal level of determination could be called the human component. There is also an aspect of the environment which is completely indeterminate as far as man is concerned since it is unknown. This could be referred to as the unknowable component of



interactions. Whitehead asserts that all environmental aspects are related.

Whitehead's full philosophy is spelled out in great detail in his major work, Process and Reality (1969). However, what I have presented here, highlights key definitions and is, for my purpose, an adequate summary of his major organic principles. In terms of the organic definitions of the nature of man it offers, I would summarize by saying Whitehead sees man as:

1. Living in the universe, where all things are connected in the process of becoming actual.
2. That in the universe, man is a conscious and purposeful being.
3. Man has infinite knowing and loving potentialities which are actualized by interactions with his environment.
4. Man's reality must be seen in terms of the process of his becoming, i.e., that man by virtue of his capacity to further extend his potential is capable of advancing beyond his present limits.
5. The process of transformation reflects man's quality of immanence and transcendence, i.e., his ability to draw upon the past in order to make decisions in the present and to structure his future according to his purpose.
6. Man is the apex of evolution for his capacity for internal determination allows him to live in the forefront of evolutionary forces and assume some control over them.

This view differs substantially from mechanistic definitions. In the mechanistic view, man is an organism who only responds to stimulus (environment), and through repeated stimulus and response patterns builds up memory and behavior networks. In the mechanistic view, it is somewhat like saying man comes into the world with a blank slate and his parts (behaviors) begin to define his whole reality. The sum of the behaviors would equal the whole organism. In Whitehead's view, man is first a whole who has inner determinancy which shapes his choices and interaction with his world. His choices are guided by purpose--the actualization of potential--and every new actualization is related to past actualizations and future goals. Seeing only one interaction with an environment will not necessarily reveal the total reality of the organism.

Although there may be some who will question some specific aspects of Whitehead's view of the nature of man, I feel strongly that its definitions have appeal to many. In fact, the ideas that Whitehead has expressed can be found as recurrent themes in the writing of many influential thinkers like C. H. Waddington (1962, 1966), Heinz Werner (1948; in the works of developmental psychologists like Jean Piaget (1970); in the theories of psychologists like William James (1890) and Carl Jung (1964); and in the works of systems theorists like Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1969) and Ervin Laszlo (1974). I think all of these great thinkers are drawn to these ideas because they are both reasonable and logical, and because they also affirm an experience of reality they all have. Although Whitehead's language is

difficult, I think when it is simplified, explained to, and reflected upon by the ordinary person, it makes a great deal of practical sense. Whitehead himself (1969) says that there are four criteria for judging the ultimate validity of any philosophical scheme. He suggests that it should be: 1) coherent, 2) logical, 3) applicable, and 4) adequate. Most of Whitehead's reviewers would agree that his scheme meets these criteria (see Schlipp, 1941; Dinkel, 1965; Polyani, 1958).

For these reasons, I think that Whitehead's philosophy is most appropriate to use as a base for generating parent education programs. It defines human nature and the process of human development in a way that seems to match lived experience as well as lends itself to being systematically fleshed out in an educational model.

Before discussing just how these philosophical assumptions might become the fabric and framework of an educational model appropriate for parent education, the question of an appropriate methodology or process for programs that is related or drawn from this philosophical perspective needs to be addressed.

#### Empathy: A Critical Relationship Process

Whitehead's philosophy, with its central emphasis on change, is essentially a process model. Therefore, in translating Whitehead's philosophical assumptions into program approaches, a specific methodology and process is immediately demanded and defined. This methodology must stress the interconnectedness of all parts of the universe (man/physical reality, man/man, man/unknown), and the dynamic link

between all potentialities within man. Whitehead's key process of concrescence (growing together) strongly suggests an emphasis on finding ways in programs to help meet individual developmental needs (a growing together of all dimensions of the individual person), and on finding ways to facilitate cooperation between individuals (a mutual support in development). Because the notions of change and concrescence are so fundamental to this perspective, it seems to me it would be impossible, using Whiteheadean assumptions, to develop a program approach that did not balance and blend these two dynamics.

Since previous program evaluations and parental feedback have also suggested that these two dynamics tend to help programs be more successful, it seems that using Whiteheadean principles to generate methodology would be quite effective. However, because methodology in programs is often the most critical variable effecting outcome, it seems necessary for clarity's sake to be more specific about the interplay between these two dynamics--individual and group concrescence. It is important to define what factors could help individuals define and meet their growth needs, and what processes could facilitate mutual support and growth in groups.

I searched carefully in Whitehead's writings for some specific delineation of what the key dynamics of individual and group concrescence are, in hopes of identifying factors that would translate into methodological processes for programs. However, Whitehead's discussion of concrescence is very technical and quite difficult to understand, and he never directly discusses the specific relationship



dynamics that facilitate it. However, in several places in his works, when he is describing the connectedness of beings in the universe, he refers to "the great unity of feeling" that exists between all things (1969:123), and the "encircling empathetic bond of the universe (1969:82)." These phrases strongly impressed me. After reviewing several of his works, the phrases "empathetic bond" and "empathetic relationship" stood out as important underlying themes. An additional thorough review of the psychological literature on empathy convinced me that empathy can be identified as the key Whiteheadian relationship process underlying concrescence, and is a process that lends itself readily to becoming a practical method and process for parent programs.

Empathy has for a long time been identified by psychologists and counselors as a critical relationship variable for facilitating growth or change in another. Psychologists have identified that through the process of identifying or "feeling with" another, that individual gains the insight, motivation, and support to grow, and a bond is formed that enriches both persons. (See Rogers, 1954; Eagan, 1973; Carkhuff, 1969.) In organic terms, empathy could be called the process that explains how, in a universe of connected elements, humans are related to each other. Because the overriding goal of any parent education program would be to help parents facilitate the development of their children, empathy would obviously be relevant. As a process that facilitates growth, clearly it must be an important part of the ongoing growth-inducing relationship between

the parent and child. Also, because parent education programs want to provide support to parents and an opportunity for them to grow as persons, empathy would also be a key dynamic in the parent trainer/parent relationship, and in the groups' interactions. I believe empathy is the primary skill or ability that helps a parent or parent trainer assess where an individual child or parent is, and respond appropriately to help move them to the next step of their growth.

To clarify and substantiate this belief, a more detailed discussion of empathy is necessary. Although there has been general agreement among helping professionals that empathy is a very important quality, definitions of empathy and descriptions of how it develops have been somewhat "fuzzy" in the literature. This fuzziness arises, I think, from an unclear distinction between empathy's affective and cognitive components. Varying points of view in the literature align themselves around emphasis on one aspect of the other.

Basically, although there are many individual discussions of empathy, there are three distinct schools of thought or points of view. The first point of view is represented by theorists like Ferenczi, Adler, Scheler, Buber, Kohler, and Murphy. This group adheres rather closely to the etymological roots of the word--"em" (for), and "pathos" (suffering adopted or feeling with). They tend to stress the affective nature of empathy and define it more as vicarious feeling with another, rather than necessarily involving any social understanding of the affect. This point of view derives from these

theorists' explanations of the origin of empathy in terms of "a primitive (archaic) skill (something we are born with, an imaginative or intuitive gift which is part of human nature) capable of being atrophied by the process of culture (Katz, 1963:97)." Ferenczi (1955:154), for example, discusses empathetic ability as located in the unconscious where man has a "virtual potentiality for empathetic sensitivity." Scheler, Buber, and Adler located the empathetic capacity in basic relatedness that is part of the cosmos itself. Scheler (1954:48), more the philosopher, stressed empathy as an innate capacity independent of experience. He made a distinction between comprehending the basic emotions of another person and appreciating certain sensory or physical experiences. He says:

Given the range of emotional qualities of which man is intrinsically capable (of) and from which alone his actual feelings are built up, he has an equally innate capacity for comprehending the feelings of others, even though he may never on any occasion have encountered such feelings (or their ingredients) in himself, as really unitary experiences.

Kohler, whose view derives more from Gestalt psychology, also addresses this physiological-psychological distinction, and eliminates any cognitive mediation. This point of view is certainly not without some foundation. Many more recent animal studies have underscored what appears to be a certain sympathetic, mimetic, and affiliative biological instinct in lower mammals (Lorenz, 1952). It does not seem illogical to assume that some of these basic tendencies may also be present in man. For early man, ecology was harsh, and he coped with it not alone, but by forming groups. What led him to form these

groups? What enabled him to maintain them? Hoffman (1975) suggests that the tendency to empathize may have evolved through natural selection because it maximized the benefits of group life, and thus in a less complex society where one-to-one reciprocity was necessary, it facilitated survival. His perspective restates the point of view that empathy is an innate tendency to affiliate.

Unfortunately, empirical documentation of this point of view is difficult. While affiliative behavior is certainly apparent even in early infancy, linking this solely to "innate tendency" or instinct can only be speculative since it is also necessary to account for the role of culture and socialization. Even the infant is exposed quite quickly to these factors. This is the limitation of this first school's point of view. It does not account for the influence of culture and learning beyond stating that it functions to repress the innate tendency to empathize. But if all men have the innate tendency to empathize, why are some seemingly unable to "feel with" others, and why are some deliberately hostile to others? And is the infant or young child's crying in response to another's crying the same as the adult's calmly reaching out to console another in pain? Are they both empathy? What turns off or on vicarious affect in the child or adult? and does affect ever operate without cognitive mediation? This school of thought in making empathy only affect, and only based on instinct seems to leave many unanswered questions.

The second school of thought on empathy organizes itself around an answer to these questions. This group of theorists stresses the



cognitively-mediated aspect of empathy and dismisses the instinctual or biological notion. Social psychologists like Mead, Fridja, Moreno, and Reik would say that empathy is essentially understanding the thoughts, feelings of the other without necessarily sharing that affect vicariously. It is not instinctual but learned. One may experience vicarious affect, but this will be determined by whether one has had similar experiences to the other. It will be difficult to empathize with one whose experiences are not readily similar or perceived as similar to one's own.

George Mead is most representative of the theorists here. Mead (1934:299) never specifically used the term empathy in his work, although he does describe the process. He says: "we feel with him, and we are able to feel ourselves into the other because we have by our attitude aroused in ourselves the attitude of the person we are assisting." The "attitude" described by Mead as the precondition of empathy is the result of roletaking ability. Roletaking is the facilitator of empathy, or a form of empathy called syncronation (Mead, 1951). For Mead, empathy is largely a cognitive process, a skill which is developed through social experience and roletaking. How empathy differs from roletaking in Mead's definition is not clear.

Jacob Moreno (1956) also deals with empathy as a social skill but primarily as one developed through role-playing. Moreno says that empathy is basically an "as if" activity of the imagination which assumes the existence of an affiliative need, an endowment of spontaneous impulse activity which is evoked through social interaction,

or assuming another identity through role-playing.

Fridja (1969:170), in postulating a definition of empathy, also stresses the cognitive context by classifying it in a category of "meaning responses" to which verbal learning also belongs.

Empathy, in its different guises, should be considered a form of meaning response, a way of coding behavior meaning rather than as a source of its emergence. Empathy and verbal learning have to be considered as two possible meaning responses among several . . . the meaning of expressive behavior may refer to an emotional experience or attitude in the observed person. The observer may produce an inner imaginary representation of the other person's feelings; or he may instead evoke a verbal label or put one in readiness . . . .

Otto Fenichel (1945) proposed a two part schema for empathy:

1) an identification with the other person; 2) an awareness of one's feelings after the identification, and thus, in a way an awareness of the other person's feelings.

Theodore Reik (1949) also proposes a schema, his having four parts: 1) identification, 2) incorporation, 3) reverberation, 4) detachment. Reik's position moves away a little from the strictly cognitive emphasis because the schema also has affective underpinnings. But since his emphasis is on the last phase of detachment, some sort of objective withdrawal is implied that certainly is more of a cognitive skill than affective one. Reik has suggested an objective-subjective interface for empathy that is intriguing, but his emphasis in defining empathy still remains in the social experience and cognitive-mediation school of thought.

All of the theorists in this second group suggest a definition of empathy that is not unlike definitions of social role-taking. They

stress the social-learning aspect of empathy and see some "social insight" as underpinning the process. The limitation of this point of view is that it does not clearly account for affect, or feeling with the other, or intuitive, insightful experiences. If similarity of experiences is necessary for empathy, how does it account for spontaneous attraction or response to strangers, or new situations, or the questionable but much attested to "love at first sight" phenomena? What about initiation of affect from within the organism? Is all behavior stimulus bound? And does cognition ever operate without affective mediation?

The third point of view on empathy opts for a more integrated stance postulating both cognitive and affective components to empathy, and suggesting that empathy derives from the interaction of both instinct and cultural learning. The more psychoanalytic theorists in this school, Freud, Sullivan, Fromm, Reichmann, Ferrera, and Schafer combine the biological, innate and culturally-learned components in defining empathy as "a basic emotional response of an infant to another person that enables him to share in and comprehend the momentary psychological state of another person (Cooper,1970:171)." This perspective defines the instinctual and affective nature of empathy in terms of the id and the libidinal energy, and the cognitive, learned, social components in terms of emergence of ego and super-ego through attachment, identification, and imitation experiences. This view gives instinct a dominant role, but also stresses the primary importance of early childhood experiences.

Theorists like Mood, Shantz, Johnson, Rogers, Feshback, Roe, and Kuchenbacher also adopt a more epigenetic or interactionist view, seeing the affective-cognitive and instinctual-environmental variables always in dynamic interplay. Feshback and Kuchenbacher (1974) represent this group well when they suggest a three-part model for empathy: 1) the ability to assume the perspective and role of another person, 2) the ability to discriminate and label affect states in others, 3) emotional capacity and responsiveness. Their first section is really a description of what Robert Selman (1971) has defined as the "structural" component of role-taking. The second part is a description of Selman's "content" aspect of role-taking. The third part really deals with the affective aspect, or being affectively responsive to affective cues in others. The first two parts of the model stress the cognitive aspect of empathy. The third part stresses the affective. Their model suggests that while they are distinguishable in analysis, they are not really separable. This makes sense because it answers the affect-mediating cognition and cognition-mediating affect questions. People are not just feelings, people are not just thoughts. People, even very young infants, are knowers and feelers, and are constantly involved in the process of living out a balanced interaction of the two dynamic potentialities. Neurosis and psychosis evolve when there is an over-emphasis or under-development of one of these potentialities. Empathy then appears to be of great value as an integrative process for the individual, and particularly for the individual in relationship to others.



Another theorist who attempts a definition of empathy that flows from this integrating approach is David Stewart (1956:22), who sees affective, cognitive, and ethical dimensions to empathy and suggests how they relate in the total dynamic of the person.

A formal definition is now offered. Empathy is deliberate identification with another, promoting one's knowledge of the other as well as of oneself in striving to understand what is now foreign but which one may imagine, curbed by the other's responses, to be something similar to one's own experience. Empathy is, therefore, both a process of intuition and the basis of dynamic inference. It is felt to be ethical because it is grounded in feeling, presupposes goodwill, and strives for mutual understanding. It is seen as a sound psychological concept, because the process it stands for produces our most authentic and genuine personal experiences. It is esthetic in its creative and selective activities.

These three aspects of empathy, the psychological, the ethical and the esthetic, are inseparable in practice. Empathy as here defined will be subsequently represented as the ground at once of ethics and of personality theory and as an act of first importance in all art.

. . . empathy embraces a pattern of psychodynamics, the play of choice, and an art to be cultivated. . . . In this concept of empathy, there are cues to personal knowing other than those of the senses of sight and motor movements (Ehrenwald, 1953). The senses of touch, of taste and smell, of hearing and imagining are also important features of the empathetic act. Empathy as here conceived is not just a putting of oneself in the other's place as one casually sees the other, or as one is infected by a stray emotional feeling. Effort and imagination, choice and deliberation, and therefore creative selection are required by the empathetic act.

In an effort to synthesize these varying points of view, not disregarding them but integrating them to present a more organic and wholistic perspective, I would like to define empathy as an affective

process that disposes a person to differentiate or perhaps "resonate with" the feelings of the other, to integrate them with their own feelings and understanding (also differentiated) in order to respond in such a way as to enhance the viability of the other. When a person can do this consciously and generalize this differentiation and integration to interactions with individuals and groups in society, they would be considered empathetically competent.

Obviously, there are many factors that affect one's ability to empathize. People are only able to make the empathetic differentiation of the feeling of the others because they are able to respond affectively. (They have emotional capacity and responsiveness.) They can only make the empathetic integration of the affect of the self and the other, and respond positively to the other because they can use their affective cues, combined with their roletaking ability (a cognitive skill) to assess the viability of the other. They can only generalize the empathetic integration as the result of understanding and feeling that these positive interactions with the other enhance the quality of survival of both themselves and others. Being able to empathize implies a certain degree of affective and cognitive competence. It implies roletaking ability. The person who has developed empathetic competence is able to "feel with" others, respond in such a way that indicates they are sensitive to and understand and value the other as an individual. As Erich Fromm says in his Art of Loving (1956), to love one must know, and to know one must love. I feel certain that empathy helps a person to be both a knower and lover.

Given the organic assumptions already presented, I think empathy stands out not only as a key process for parent education programs, but as an ultimate goal for any wholistic model. It provides the key to what content should be chosen for any particular group of parents, and the dynamic for the method of presenting the content.

Because I feel strongly empathy is probably the most important quality for a parent or parent education instructor to have if they wish to facilitate growth and change in others, I think it is important to discuss how it may develop in some detail. Although lengthy, I feel this discussion of developmental stages of empathy is necessary in order to provide a clear, theoretical rationale for my later presentations in Chapter IV and V of a conceptual outline for parent education. All the knowledge, experiences, and skills I will outline (generated to be wholistic and comprehensive by using organic assumptions as the base) are directed to helping parents and instructors become more empathetically competent themselves, and thus help their children or class become more competent in all the areas of human development. To use the outlines most effectively, it will be important to understand clearly what empathy is and how it may develop. Without this understanding, the outlines could appear to be only content delineations.

This discussion traces empathetic development from birth to maturity, trying to identify all the significant dynamics that enhance or inhibit its growth. Parents who come to programs will be at

various stages of empathetic development and they will have children who are at various stages of growth. Parents will need help to move to the next level of growth, to develop their own empathetic ability, and to have the opportunity to hear about and understand how to enhance their children's development in this area. This discussion of empathetic development is very theoretical and research oriented, and would probably never be presented to parents, but for people planning programs who wish to develop an organic model or use the outlines presented in Chapters IV and V, it provides fundamental ideas and information.

#### Development of Empathy

In my developmental schema, I am drawing on some of the major research in cognitive and affective development. Because in the literature, however, there has not yet been a systematic attempt to trace the development of empathy, what I suggest here as an attempt to synthesize the available human development research must be tentative.

Since I have described empathy as a process that involves a certain degree of affective and cognitive competence, it seems necessary to distinguish levels of development that are precursors or antecedents of empathy and those which are truly empathetic. Essentially, I postulate that there are three major antecedent levels of empathetic ability, and four stages of actual empathetic development. The three antecedent stages are organized around: 1) fundamental emotional capacity and responsiveness; 2) the establishment of object and person



permanence and the formation of an attachment; and 3) identification and imitation experiences. These three areas of development seem to be of critical importance as a foundation of empathy because in establishing object and person permanence, the child can begin to differentiate self from the objects and persons around him. In forming attachment, affectivity is directed outward and there is the opportunity to increase emotional capacity and responsiveness and establish positive emotional immanence. In imitation and identification experiences, there is opportunity for information gathering about others and for affective and cognitive expressiveness. It is important to note that in this schema these are not seen as successive or specifically sequenced areas of growth, but more or less simultaneous or overlapping interacting levels of affective and cognitive development.

I would also like to outline four levels of actual empathetic development that parallel somewhat Piaget's (1963) cognitive stages and Selman's (1973) stages of role-taking ability. Figure 3-1 illustrates the developmental schema with the substages to be discussed.

Emotional capacity and responsiveness. Essentially, infants come into the world as physiological and psychological units with their potentialities (affective and cognitive) largely undifferentiated. They are, however, not simply "wild beasts." They are highly organized to function (Montagu, 1955). They move from reflexive, physiological actions which help them to meet their physical survival

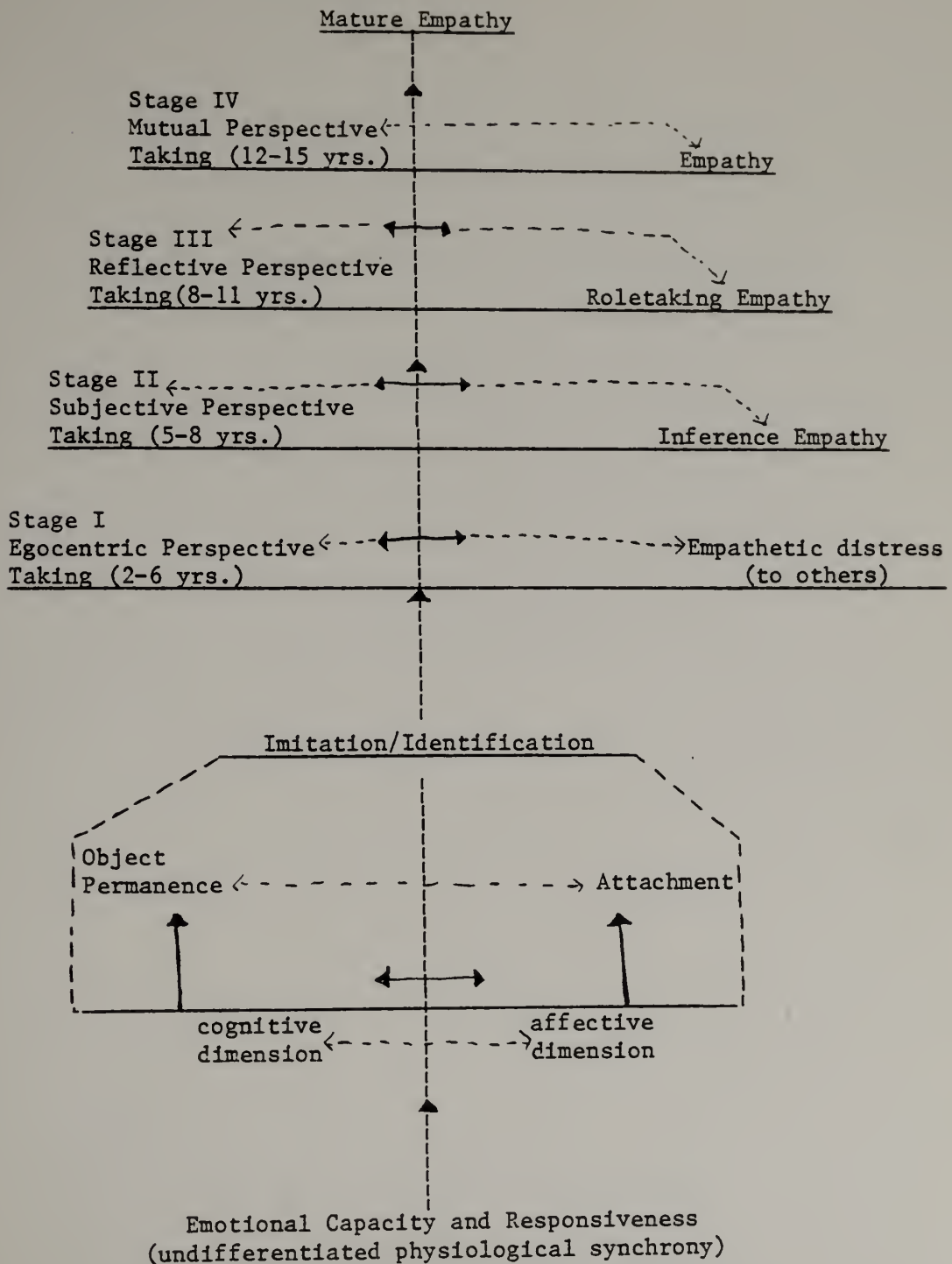


Figure 1

Developmental Schema for Empathy

needs, to more complex interactive patterns that begin to interrelate and meet their psychological and physical needs.

With the earliest emergence of the primary and secondary circular sensor-motor reactions, rudimentary cognition begins to differentiate their universe. For a long time however global, undifferentiated, physiological reactions are the predominant ground of being for the infant. This stage is one where there is basic emotional capacity and responsiveness. All infants, with the exception of those suffering some severe physical impairment (i.e., prematurity at birth, brain damage, blindness, drug addiction, birth trauma, etc.) begin life at this stage. That is, all infants have tremendous capacities to interact and respond to their environment (physical and human). This interaction and responsiveness is largely emotional (physiological) and is highly malleable.

It is because of its high malleability that I see this stage as extremely important for the later development of empathy. To be empathetic, a person must have the capacity to respond emotionally to others. The fundamental ground of this earliest stage, then, must be nourished, nurtured, and directed. It is essential that it not be decreased, discouraged, or misdirected.

Some recent studies on maternal-infant bonding support and underscore this point about the infant's capacity and responsiveness and its extreme malleability. Desmond and his co-workers (1966) have observed that infants (in the absence of drugs at birth) are in the quiet-alert state (most responsive) for a period of 45 to 60 minutes

during the first hours after birth. Desmond has also determined that from these earliest moments of life, the infant in this state can see, has visual preferences (the human face), and will turn his head to the spoken word.

Sanders and his associates (1970) have confirmed Desmond's work, and have further shown that R.E.M. sleep and deep sleep patterns decrease progressively in the days after birth. Sander suggests that the disruption of birth seems to upset the baby's prior rhythms and throws his system into a state of disequilibrium. The baby must organize and retrain the biorhythmicity of his states and behavior to fit his new extrauterine environment. Cassel and Sander (1975) point out how subject to influences this reorganization can be when they demonstrate the concurrence of the infant's being in an alert state and his mother's holding him. This increases from less than 25% on the second, to 57% concurrence on the eighth day. Cassel and Sander describe the mother as the time giver for the baby's entrainment of rhythmic neonatal functions. They compare the mother's effect on the infant to the effect of a magnet organizing and lining up iron filings.

The work of Marshall Klaus and John Kennell (1976) is perhaps the most intriguing of all the work being done on birth and early neonates. Utilizing their vast obstetrical experience and sparked by the research on the infant's state after birth, they have been able to demonstrate that the hour just after birth seems to be a critical bonding-attachment period for the infant and parents. Their work



shows long-term effects on mother's and father's caregiving behavior, and on the infant's development, between parents who were able to interact with their infants immediately after birth and those who were separated from their infants from 4 to 48 hours after birth. All of the studies briefly cited here indicate that the kind of interactions that the infant has from hour one, of day one, do indeed shape their emotional capacity and responsiveness, and consequently will influence their later empathetic development.

Object permanence, person permanence, and attachment. This second level of development emerges from growing differentiations of the affective and cognitive dimensions of emotional capacity and responsiveness. As the child grows, the various psychological potentialities begin to emerge as various aspects of the child's experience are differentiated.

To keep in mind that I am describing an organic, unitary experience that is really only able to be analyzed into parts in abstraction from the person, in Figure 1 I have tried to picture them as related developments on a continuum. I see object permanence as being a more cognitive type of differentiation, attachment a more affective type of differentiation, and person permanence emerging from some cognitive and affective distinctions. They are, however, all interrelated growth in one providing new energy and information for growth in the other. Figure 1 indicates that I see integration as the goal of development, and that at each stage for each area of potentiality, novelty is introduced in vertical growth spurts, and consolidation is

achieved in horizontal interactions. While I will discuss each of these areas of growth separately, this interactive framework should be kept in mind.

Object permanence. Piaget's work is the major source for a discussion of object permanence, although there is much empirical documentation from other sources (Bell, 1971; Decarie, 1965; Escalona, 1968; Coman, 1971; Galenson, 1969; Schecter, 1972). Piaget's work focuses on the cognitive decentering of the child, but he is not unconcerned with affective development. Piaget (1954:10) holds that there is a dynamic relation between the two:

. . . if our previous hypotheses are correct, we shall be able to parallel, stage by stage, the intellectual structures and the levels of emotional development. Since no structure exists without a dynamic and since, respectively a new form of energizing regulation must correspond to any new structure, a certain type of cognitive structure must correspond to each new level of emotional behavior (and the reverse).

Therefore, in talking about the development of the object concept, we want to always keep in mind that it does not exist without affect.

The elaboration of the object concept takes place in five stages from the beginning of life to the age of 18 to 20 months. Piaget inserts these steps into the six stages of sensori-motor intelligence. An outline of these stages is included in Table 2.

Obviously, all of the behaviors of the child in moving from 0 to 18 months have not been fully elaborated on in the table, but for my purposes, what is presented is indicative of the tremendous change that takes place cognitively in the infant at this time. At the

### SENSORI-MOTOR INTELLIGENCE

#### Stages I and II

Reflexes and primary circular reaction (0-4½ months)

#### Stage III

Coordination of vision and prehension and secondary circular reactions (4½-9 months)

#### Stage IV

Coordination of secondary schemas and the application to new situation (8-12 months)

### STEPS IN DEVELOPMENT OF OBJECT CONCEPT

Steps I and II: No active search for the vanished object. There is recognition of sensory pictures and anticipatory behavior. Both give evidence of some solidarity and coherence of the external world but to such a small degree that the child is still far from a universe of organized objects.

Step III: Beginning of permanence, extending the movement of accommodation. At this stage there are a whole series of intermediary behavior patterns which lie between total absence of active search for the vanished object, and the beginnings of active search. These patterns reveal an initial permanence attributed to perceptual cues. However, the permanence shows up only insofar as it relates to acts of accommodation itself. Four common behavior patterns are: a) visual accommodation to rapid movement, b) interrupted prehension deferred circular reaction, c) reconstruction of an invisible whole from a visible fraction, d) removal of objects preventing perception.

Step IV: Active search for the vanished object but without accounting for the sequence of visible displacement. This stage is characterized by the search for the vanished object even if it does not lie in the extension of the act of accommodation. This search remains conditioned. The child does not take into account successive displacements of the object even though they are visible.

Table 2

Stages of Development of the Object Concept

<u>SENSORI-MOTOR INTELLIGENCE</u>	<u>STEPS IN DEVELOPMENT OF OBJECT CONCEPT</u>
Stage V  Tertiary circular reactions (11-18 months)	Step V: Takes into account the sequence of visible object displacements but disregards the sequence if invisible displacements. The child in this period becomes able to search for vanished objects, whatever the number and complexity of screens which hide them. As soon as one introduces the simplest of invisible displacements, the child is helpless. He does not use deduction.
Stage VI  First internalization of schemas and solution of some problems by deduction (18-24 months)	Step VI: Representation of invisible displacements. The child is now capable of conceptualizing the things which inhabit his universe. He has an internalized action schema. This internalization makes a new kind of thought possible---deduction.

Table 2 (Cont.)



beginning, the child's universe is a world without objects, a chaotic world with moving pictures which appear and vanish magically, with the subject's activity as the first and almost exclusive activation. These pictures remain centered in the undifferentiated "I." Not until about six months does the infant organize the fleeting images making up his world into discrete objects and experience them as separate from his own biologically determined sensations. At the end of this period, thanks to representation and deduction, the child has a world of objects whose permanence, substantiality, identity and externality are no longer a function of the subject.

In a very real sense, then, the four week old baby differs from the 20 month old baby not only in appearance, but in his outlook on the world. At 20 months there is a primitive "I" object distinction there that I suggest will be very important later for the development of empathy. To be empathetic, a person must be able to differentiate the self from the other. The cognitive decentering that takes place through the formation of object permanence is fundamental groundwork for later role-taking skills where the objective and subjective points of view must be balanced. The fundamental decentering movement during this period, then, must again be encouraged and directed. It is critical that it not be slowed down or misdirected.

Person permanence. As Figure 1 indicates, person permanence emerges from the movement toward both cognitive and affective decentering. The world that the infant is trying to sort out and interact with contains himself, other people, and things. As he cognitively

decenters, he will discover that he and objects and other people are separate. As he affectively decenters, he will begin to see that his feelings can be directed outward toward others. It is not surprising that since 90% of the infant's awake time is spent in interaction with persons (usually the mother), that person permanence or the ability to discriminate and recognize certain familiar people may begin to emerge more quickly. Since almost all of the infant's needs are met by other people, it is highly adaptive to cognitively and affectively begin to identify them and stabilize interactions with them.

Research by Bell (1970) and St. Pierre (1962) suggest that although person permanence also emerges gradually, that children between eight months and one year can retain a mental image of a person (usually the mother). Their work shows that children will at this age exhibit search behavior and show distress at removal or separation. They indicate that as early as six months the infant will exhibit discrete behavior like smiling when interacting with a familiar figure.

Clearly, as cognitive decentering also takes place and stabilizes with object permanence, person permanence will become more stable. Although person permanence may have a more precocious vertical developmental trend, consolidation over the 6 to 20 month period is also needed. It seems that person permanence emerges more quickly in response to the infant's growing affective need to form an attachment. While the formation of an attachment is probably more critical

to later empathetic development, person permanence can be seen as a fundamental framework for attachment; thus, it is important to facilitate its emergence.

Object relations, dependency, attachment. A discussion of the infant's development of relationships with other persons, called by some "object relations," or by others "attachment" is not as straightforward a task as exploring Piaget's work on object concept. This is because as Ainsworth (1969) has pointed out, even the terms "object relations" and "attachment," although they overlap in their connotations are not synonymous. Each term is more or less closely tied to a distinct theoretical formulation. For our purposes here, "attachment" and Bowlby's use of it seem to represent a position that is most useful. The basis of our compatibility with this particular emphasis derives from its more epigenetic and interactionist basis. The psychoanalytic notion of object relations, and the social learning theory emphasis on dependency, certainly have validity. Both point out important aspects of affective development at this time.

Bowlby's work is underscored with the persistent theme that development takes place through transformation of structures already present, rather than through a process of accretion or replacement, and that these transformations take place through continuous organism-environment interaction. While I have chosen after reviewing the theories to utilize Bowlby's framework because it is most consistent with an organic framework, there is much to be learned in this area, and the most productive course will involve inter-theoretical dialogue.

Attachment. Attachment refers to an affectional ties that one person forms to another specific individual that endures through time. Although it is difficult to define this enduring relationship operationally, there are indicators of attachment in behaviors such as fondling, kissing, cuddling, contact, and prolonged gazing. It is not always necessary, however, to see these behaviors, since attachment and attachment behaviors are not always synonymous. Attachment is direction of affect toward another, and thus, attachments can occur at all ages and do not necessarily imply immaturity or helplessness. In infancy, attachment is most likely to be formed to the mother, but this may soon be supplemented by attachments to a handful of other specific persons.

Bowlby's basic thesis in dealing with attachment is that an infant's attachment to his mother originates in a number of species-specific behavior systems, relatively independent of each other at first, which emerge at different times, which become organized toward the mother as the chief object, and serve to bind the child to the mother and the mother to the child. Bowlby (1969:58) characterizes attachment behavior as instinctive, but points out:

Instinctive behavior is not inherited; what is inherited is a potential to develop . . . behavioral systems, both the nature and forms of which differ in some measure according to the particular environment in which development takes place.

His position is a substantial revision and updating of psychoanalytic instinct theory. He states that species-characteristic behavior is not limited to "fixed action" (instinctive) patterns, but may also



include environmentally labile (plastic) patterns. He postulates that human infants are relatively labile in these patterns (Bowlby, 1969:64):

Characteristically, the young of such species, having fewer stable, fixed action patterns and more plasticity for learning, are less competent at birth, have a long period of infantile helplessness, and require an extended period of parental protection and care to survive. In such species, it is reasonable to assume that there are genetically determined biological safeguards to sustain parental care of the offspring throughout the immature period, and these include not only parental-care behavior but also reciprocal behavior in the young, namely attachment behavior.

Bowlby feels that only in early infancy can attachment behavior be described in fixed action (satisfaction of basic physical needs). Toward the end of the first year and increasingly thereafter, their behavior seems to be organized on a purposive or goal-directed basis. He is quite definitely implying an interaction of affect and cognition. Bowlby introduces a Control System theory of behavior to account for goal-directed interpersonal behavior. A complete explication of this theory is beyond the scope of this paper, but it seems sufficient to point out that what Bowlby is introducing as goal-directed interpersonal behavior, he sees as quite labile, but a species-specific characteristic of human behavior. What Bowlby is suggesting is that the infant is at first innately drawn toward relational patterns for survival. However, through the beginning emergence of behavior systems (cognitive-affective appraisal systems) in interaction with the environment, the disposition to purpose is modified beyond physical considerations. He says (1969:91) that emotions which are:

. . .appraisal processes, which may or may not be conscious, imply comparison of input with inner set points and the behaviors of approach and withdrawal related to them are species-specific and environmentally stable; others are clearly labile.

This view is quite compatible with current views of emotion, and could suggest that empathy even while being species-specific may very well be one of those affective processes that is quite plastic and subject to environmental influence.

Bowlby's theory of attachment is quite comprehensive as this outline of only its basic tenets indicates. He outlines four major phases of development. These are: 1) phase of indiscriminate social responsiveness; 2) phase of discriminating social responsiveness; 3) phase of active initiative in seeking proximity and contact; 4) phase of goal-corrected partnership. He also suggests (and there is much empirical data to support his view) that there are critical and sensitive periods for the formation of attachment. An in-depth analysis of each phase is not possible here. For a more detailed discussion of these stages, one should see the thorough review by Ainsworth (1973).

Bowlby's work describes quite well the vertical stage development of attachment from birth through three years. As I mentioned earlier, however, the horizontal interrelationship of object permanence, person permanence, and attachment is also quite important. Silvia Bell (1970) whose work on person permanence was cited earlier, offers some evidence of the interaction and "horizontal decalage" involved.

Her hypothesis was that the quality of mother-infant interaction throughout the first year of life would affect the development of the

concept of the object and in particular would affect the "horizontal decalage" of that development--that is, it would affect whether the concept of persons as permanent developed more quickly or more slowly than the concept of inanimate objects as permanent. Bell found a very striking degree of congruence between the direction of the "decalage in the development of the object concept and the quality of the infant's attachment." Babies who were advanced in the development of "person-permanence" displayed active and unambivalent proximity-seeking and contact-maintaining behavior directed toward their mothers in the reunion episodes of the strange situation. Babies who were not so advanced, or who were advanced in the development of the concept of inanimate objects as permanent, reacted to reunion with the mother either with proximity-avoiding behavior or with highly ambivalent attachment behavior. Furthermore, Bell found that the infant whose concept of permanence of persons was in advance of that of inanimate objects tended to complete the development of the concept of the object sooner; a lag in the development of person-permanence seems to hinder the development of the symbolic processes of representation required for the infant to reach and to complete the last stage of the development of the object concept. Thus, to supplement the hypothesis that a certain degree of "object permanence" is a necessary condition for becoming attached, there is evidence that the same environmental conditions (i.e., harmonious mother-infant interaction) which facilitate the development of a normal, unambivalent attachment relationship also facilitate an important aspect of early cognitive development.

This view seems to support my thesis that object permanence, person permanence, and attachment may be precursors of empathetic ability. It seems logical that the cognitive-affective interface of development at this earlier stage, if continued, is setting the stage for the integration necessary for mature empathetic ability. The object and person permanence is setting the scene for the cognitive ability to differentiate the self from the other that is necessary for true empathy. The formation of an attachment is providing the ground for nurturing and directing affective capacity and responsiveness toward others, also necessary for mature empathy.

Imitation and identification. The third level of development, imitation and identification emerge as horizontal consolidations of previous affective and cognitive vertical growth. As a result of establishing object permanence, representational thought and, therefore, imitation become possible. As a result of forming an attachment, affective energy is available to transform imitations into more enduring identifications. In Figure 1, I indicate that imitation is a more cognitive activity, while identification has a stronger affective dimension. I place them, however, close to the center to emphasize the important level of integration necessary rather than stress the differentiation.

Imitation and identification have been defined in various ways in various psychological perspectives. Piaget's work, a cognitive-developmental perspective, suggests an interactionist framework that seems most useful to this discussion. He suggests that real imitation



experiences do not occur until the child has established object permanence. His view is based on the evidence that sensori-motor mechanisms are pre-representational, and that behavior based on picturing an abstract object (imitation) is not observed until the second year. His observations of children indicate that when the scheme of object and person permanence are in the process of being formed, there will be a search for objects and persons, and various repetitive motor and affective behavior associated with the objects and persons. But Piaget asserts that usually these simple "imitations" are really continuations of immediately perceived or extended physical acts.

In the course of the second year, however, he notes that certain patterns of behavior appear which imply the representative evocation of an object or a person not present and which presupposes the formation or use of what he calls differentiated signifiers. Piaget (1952) has distinguished at least five of these imitative behavior patterns which appear somewhat simultaneously, and which are listed here in order of increasing complexity.

1. First, there is deferred imitation, that is, imitation which starts after the disappearance of the model. In a behavior pattern of sensori-motor imitation, the child begins by imitating in the presence of the model (for example, a movement of the hand), after which he may continue in the absence of the model, though this does not imply any representation in thought. But in

the case of a little girl of 16 months who sees a playmate become angry, scream, and stamp her foot (new sights for her) and who, an hour or two after the playmate's departure, imitates the scene, laughing, the deferred imitation constitutes the beginning of representation, and the imitative gesture the beginning of a differentiated signifier.

2. Then, there is a symbolic play or the game of pretending, which is unknown at the sensori-motor level. The same little girl invented her first symbolic game by pretending to sleep--sitting down and smiling broadly, but closing her eyes, her head to one side, her thumb in her mouth, and holding a corner of the tablecloth, pretending that it was a corner of her pillow, according to the ritual she observes when she goes to sleep. Shortly afterward, she put her stuffed bear to sleep and slid a shell along a box while saying "meow" (she had just seen a cat on a wall). In all these cases the representation is clear-cut and the deferred signifier is an imitative gesture, though accompanied by objects which are becoming symbolic.
3. The drawing or graphic image is at first an intermediate stage between play and mental image. It rarely appears before two or two and a half.
4. The, sooner or later, comes the mental image, no trace of which is observed on the sensori-motor level (otherwise

discovery of the permanent object would be greatly facilitated). It appears as an internalized imitation.

5. Finally, language permits verbal evocation of events that are not occurring at the time. When the little girl says "meow" after the cat has disappeared, verbal representation is added to imitation. When, some time afterward, she says "Anpa bye-bye" (Grandpa went away), pointing to the sloping path he took when he left, the representation is supported either by the differentiated signifier, consisting of the signs of the language, or by both language and mental image.

Piaget's primary concern is to indicate the role that imitation has for cognitive decentering, but he does suggest that it may also have the complimentary social role of helping the child make a personal self-other distinction. On the affective level, he suggests that imitation provides the opportunity for the child to label and express various emotions. At early ages, most probably the child will not understand his affective imitations, but as affective responses and cognitive labels for emotional activities begin to be coordinated, imitation could have a very significant effect on facilitating or inhibiting, the child's basic emotional capacity and responsiveness. Since empathy as we have defined it involves being able to differentiate affect in others from affective cues in oneself, early imitation experiences that provide labels and associated experience cues could be quite important for later empathetic development.

Identification has been viewed as a more enduring form of imitation. From an interactionist perspective, Carney (1976) defines it as:

. . .an acquired cognitive-affective response within a person which leads them to embody some or more of the attributes, motives, characteristics, and affective states of a model in a way that these elements become a part of the individual's psychological orientation.

For the young child of two or three, the tremendous affective investment made in the attached figure (usually the parents) makes their imitation of these models very significant. This is because their increased cognitive decentering gives them the ability to rehearse over and over again the actions, expressions, and interactions of significant models. Their affective focus on the other provides the impetus for internalizing these rehearsals as a means to establishing closer bonds and proximity. Freud (1938) sees identification as one of the primary means of learning about others and establishing self-identity. As cognitive decentering continues and the self-other distinction is made, roletaking will mediate the internalization of various attributes and characteristics. Not everything will be taken in and affective and cognitive processes will be more symmetrically balanced. But for the young child who has not yet made a clear self-other distinction, the "injected" other does become the self. What is modeled to the child at this stage, therefore, is highly significant because it is so emotionally charged. Since empathy, as we have defined it, involves healthy self-identity and self-acceptance, early identifications that provide substance



to identity formation will clearly be important for later empathetic ability.

My treatment of imitation and identification is limited, but perhaps complete enough to point out how they synthesize previous growth and how they affect later development. Both quite clearly seem to provide the child with more affective and cognitive immanence which will be the ground for the emergence of roletaking and empathy skills.

Stages of empathy. As Figure 1 suggests, there are four stages of empathetic ability which parallel the four stages of roletaking development. Since the stages of roletaking have previously been discussed in depth in many articles (Selman, 1973; Flavell, 1973), only the empathetic stages will be discussed here. Again, however, since the goal of the development is interaction of cognition and affect in mature empathy, the interrelation and interaction at each stage must not be overlooked. In each progressive developmental level, we see that relation and interaction are becoming closer. In the earlier stages, differentiation is the emphasis; while in late stages, integration is central.

Empathetic distress.\* This stage really encompasses two types of rudimentary empathetic response. The first can be described as

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\* I feel certain that responses other than distress may be included here (i.e., laughter, joy, etc.). But because there has been very little empirical data documenting empathetic response to the more joyful emotions, I have decided to omit consideration of those at this time. For balanced development of empathy, however, it seems clear that being able to respond to positive affective cues will be very important.

global empathetic distress. This type of response is really a matched affective distress reaction in response to distress cues in the other. Because at very early levels, the child does not understand at all the self-other distinction, the matched response is described as global. For the child, the self and the other are the global "one." There is no perceived separateness.

Global empathetic distress can occur very early in development, sometimes even in infancy. Simmer (1971) reports that two day old infants cried vigorously and intensely at the sound of another infant cry. He also gives evidence that this was not merely a response to a noxious stimulus; that is, the infants reacted in a more subdued manner to equally loud non-human sounds including computer simulated infant's cries. He further states that the behavior was not due to imitation, since the infants appeared to be genuinely upset and agitated by the other cry.

Other more naturalistic observations with somewhat older infants (6 to 14 months) confirm this phenomena. What seems to be happening is a primitive, involuntary response, that is, a response based mainly on the pull of surface cues, and minimally on higher cognitive processes. Since for the child, relationship is created by perceived similarity and everything is similar, it is very easy to be "cued" and to match affect. This phenomena is perhaps a simple form of projection. It is important in the development of empathy because it shows that very early, children can forcefully experience emotional states pertinent to another's situation.

The second rudimentary empathetic response is similar to this, but not global. At this level, the child does have a very simple notion that self and other are separate. There is no real notion that self and other have different points of view, but the seeds of that understanding are there. I suggest that along with the gradual emergence of a sense of the other as distinct from the self, the affective portion of the child's global distress--the feeling of distress and the desire for its termination--is extended to the separate self and other that emerge. This empathetic distress in response to the other parallels the first stage of roletaking ability.

Selman (1971) and others have suggested that this first stage of roletaking ability (and thus empathetic response) does not emerge until about four. Non-experimental, naturalistic observations, however, have been made of this type of response as early as 12 to 18 months. Martin Hoffman (1975:615) reports one such event.

Consider a child known to the writer whose typical response to his own distress was to suck his thumb with one hand and pull his ear with the other. At 12 months, on seeing a sad look on his father's face, he proceeded to look sad and suck this thumb, while pulling the father's ear.

The occurrence of distress in the emerging self and the other may be an important factor in the transition from global empathetic distress to other-centered empathetic distress. Early in this process, the child may be only vaguely and momentarily aware of the other's as distinct from the self. The image of the other may be transitory. Consequently, he probably will react to another's distress as though his dimly perceived self and the other were simultaneously in distress.

Although the child now knows that the other is a separate physical entity, and therefore, that the other is the victim, he cannot yet distinguish between his own and the other's inner states (thoughts, perceptions, needs). Without thinking about it he automatically assumes that they are identical to his own. This lack of understanding is often evidenced in the child's efforts to respond or to help, which consist chiefly of giving the other what he finds most comforting.

Despite the limitation of this initial level of empathetic response, it is significant advance. For the first time, the child experiences a feeling of concern for the other as distinct from the self. Although actual attempts at helping may be misguided, the opportunity for emotional expressiveness, and for information gathering about others is tremendous. If the child's responses are acknowledged and encouraged, affective receptiveness and responsiveness can be greatly enhanced.

Inference empathy. At this stage, the child begins to acquire a sense of others not only as physical entities but also as sources of feelings and thoughts in their own right, that is, as persons who have inner states that at times differ from their own. There is a rudimentary understanding that people have points of view based on their own needs and interpretation of events. However, the child does not usually know what these points of view and interpretations are and engages in various strategies to find this out.

Another incident reported by Martin Hoffman (1975:612) is illustrative of what is happening at this stage.



Michael, aged 15 months, and his friend Paul were fighting over a toy and Paul started to cry. Michael appeared disturbed and let go, but Paul still cried. Michael paused, then brought his teddy bear to Paul but to no avail. Michael paused again, and then finally succeeded in stopping Paul's crying by fetching Paul's security blanket from an adjoining room.

What happened here is not entirely clear. But it seems that Michael was somehow able to reason by analogy that Paul would be comforted by something he loved in the same way Michael loved his own teddy bear. The cognitive decentering step is indicative of the roletaking growth outlined in Stage II by Selman. Michael, although assuming Paul has the same feeling state as he does, seems to realize people have different points of view. On the affective level, the empathetic ability to be cued by affect in another seems to provide the energy and motivation to put himself in the other's place and search out the true source of the distress. Without the affective engagement, cognitive search behavior is more limited and the egocentric response will be more characteristic.

At this level, inference empathy allows the child to learn a great deal about the thoughts, feelings, and intentions of himself and other people. But at this level, perceived similarity will still be a major factor. If the child has no common base of thought, feeling, or intention, his ability to infer will be limited. Surface cues and the child's own emotional immanence will have a great effect on his initial affective response and cognitive search behavior. Research studies where covert and overt cues in situations are in conflict have indicated that children at this stage will respond to

those cues that closely match their own affective response (Burns, 1957).

While this stage of empathetic ability has limitations, it is an advance because the child is aware of the tentative nature of his own inferences, his motivation to respond to others can become less egocentric and become based more on assessment of the needs of the other. And experiences that indicate to him that self and other do indeed have similar but differential feelings, help him to feel more related and thus, more drawn to helping responses.

Roletaking empathy. At this stage, the child begins to have a sense of himself and others as continuous persons each with their own sense of history and identity. Erickson (1950) has pointed out that somewhere between six to nine years marks the beginning of the child's emerging sense of his own continuing self. This tremendously enhances inferential ability. Once the child can see that his own life has coherence and continuity despite the fact that he reacts differently in different situations, he is able to also perceive this in others. He can then not only take their role and assess their reactions in particular, but also generalize from these and construct a concept of their general life experience. This awareness that others are coordinate with himself expands to include the notion that they, like him, have their own person identities that go beyond the here and now. Because of this, at this level the child is less tied to overt stimulus cues and can more effectively balance a self and other perspective. When an affective cue (no longer entirely

situationally determined) sets off an affective response, his role-taking information leads him to a more appropriately matched (beyond his perspective) helping response.

In the previous stage, differentiation of thoughts, feelings, and intentions were focused on the basic ground of emotional responsiveness and personal affective experiences were, however, a prevailing influence over inferential ability. At this stage, it seems that increased cognitive abilities, which help the integration and generalization of inferences, may act as a controlling agent over affective responsiveness. In both stages, we are assuming the emotional capacity and responsiveness have been uninhibited and encouraged so that affective interaction acts as the cue for inferential or roletaking ability. As I mentioned before, inferential or roletaking ability without affective bonds with the other is not true empathy. At stages 2 and 3, where affective and cognitive abilities may be making tandem vertical spurts, horizontal consolidation and synthesis may not have as yet emerged.

Empathy and mature empathy. In my first definition, I have described empathy as it emerges at this stage. Here, for the first time, affective and cognitive integration make balanced response possible. As I have described, the empathetic person responds with sensitivity to the other, and responds in such a way that enhances the viability of the other. What this response will be, is determined differently. We know that the empathetic person does not act as an emotional sponge, trying to solve, correct, or end all distress, or

inversely enhance, generate, or intensify all joy. The empathetic person does not become so affectively cued that the self-other distinction becomes blurred. Nor is the empathetic person so focused on the separateness of self and other that he is coolly detached, an uninvolved dispenser of advice. Only when there is a sense of the self and the other as separate but related, are truly enriching, viable empathetic relationships possible. Carl Rogers' (1959:192) description of the congruent person with warm, positive regard for others is perhaps our best attempt at describing the empathetic person at this stage.

He feels acceptance and understanding of the other who is valued as an individual with his own feelings, thoughts, and goals. He feels always that he is engaged in the mutual process of growing in self and other awareness and relationship. He feels in response to the other and the feelings he is experiencing are available to him, available to his awareness, and he is able to communicate them if appropriate. He is able to use his feelings as the medium to truly "feel" with and understand the other.

I place mature empathetic ability as the final level to indicate that development is ongoing. To be a truly balanced, empathetic person is the ideal. Perhaps the ideal is unattainable, but it can act as the lure for further growth. To envision interpersonal relationships and indeed whole social systems functioning in an empathetic way may engender hope-filled emotions and energy to strive for its actualization.

Summary. This developmental schema is not perhaps as complete as I would like it to be, but it does at least suggest a framework of



interrelatedness that might be fleshed out by further research. Essentially, it suggests that all people have an innate tendency to empathize with others. This is often evidenced by their readiness to match affect with others. At early ages, since young children do not distinguish any differences between themselves and other persons or objects, their matching of affect is a simple form of undifferentiated projection.

As the child begins to develop, however, as he begins to make cognitive differentiations (object concept) and affective differentiations (person permanence and attachment), and begins to imitate and identify with others, his emotional capacity and responsiveness begins to be mediated by his experiences. At this point, his ability to distinguish self and other, and later perspectives (points of view) and relate to them, and his emotional capacity interact to affect his behavioral responses. When the child is able to coordinate affect (empathy) and cognition (role-taking) and uses this coordination to assess the viability of the other, and responds to increase that viability, I would say that true empathy exists.

Some would perhaps prefer to say that empathy does not truly exist until it becomes linked with mature role-taking ability. Piaget and many others have espoused this view in asserting that the ego-centric nature of the child predominates until the stage of formal operations. However, to see empathy and role-taking on a related developmental continuum seems, somehow, more useful. Whether one chooses to identify one stage as the actual mature affective process

or cognitive ability, and previous stages as antecedents or precursors does not seem quite as relevant for educational purposes as describing how the process or ability may emerge, and what types of environments or interactions may facilitate its development.

As mentioned earlier, my point in discussing empathy at such length is to underscore its critical importance as a dynamic in relationships where growth and change is to be facilitated. I think parents will come to parent education because they love their children and want to know how to enhance their development. Instructors will want to teach parent education because they care about parents and children and want to contribute to that development. I feel being empathetic is the key to accomplishing both goals because it will allow the parent or parent educator to identify what they need to learn, and it will help them apply what they learn about human development to their own child or a particular parent.

In Chapters IV and V, using this developmental schema as a foundation, I will present a conceptual outline that suggests how empathetic development can be facilitated with parents and parent educators, and how the knowledge, experiences, and skills parents and parent educators develop in programs can contribute to parental competence.

#### Organic Assumptions and Methodology in an Educational Model

I have discussed in this chapter why Whitehead's organic philosophy is an appropriate organizing base for parent education,

and why empathy as the facilitating process for concrescence is a central goal for parent education and an appropriate process methodology. One final issue to be looked at is whether these two organizing ideas can be synthesized in a realistic and practical way into an educational program model.

I believe they can. For the past four years, I have been a doctoral candidate with the Anisa Program at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst. This program, a collaborative effort of Daniel C. Jordan and his colleagues, has for the past 16 years been working to translate Whitehead's philosophical assumptions into a comprehensive approach to education. Jordan and his colleagues were drawn to the work of Whitehead after a careful review of 2,500 years of philosophical thought about the nature of man (Radhakrishnian, 1960). Because it is a synthesis of both eastern and western streams of philosophical thought, they found Whitehead's cosmology the most appealing system against which to test the power, coherence, and comprehensiveness of the concepts they had adopted to utilize the vast amount of knowledge now available about human development.

My experience in the program has convinced me that although the prescriptive framework developed in the Anisa model may not be the only model to be derived from organic principles, it stands now as one very comprehensive attempt to use an organic framework to integrate the wide variety of theory and research relating to the nature of man and his development, and to make this information available to individuals developing educational programs. As such, I would

like to utilize some aspects of it as I have found it to be very helpful in identifying and organizing the knowledge, experiences, and skills that might be taught within parent education programs.

The Anisa educational model has been discussed in great length in several sources (see Bowen, 1977; Carney, 1978; Conway, 1975; Jordan, 1973; Marks, 1977; McCullough, 1977; McCullough, 1978; Raman, 1975; Theroux, 1974; Streets, 1971). To do justice to the 16 years of research that have gone into developing the model, one would need to carefully review all these works. Here, I will only briefly outline the major categories of the framework to underscore how organic notions can be translated into educational programs and so that the reader will be familiar with its general approach. This will be useful because the conceptual outlines I will present in Chapters IV and V have a similar approach, but for practicality's sake, have a somewhat more simplified category scheme. In Chapter IV, I will explain how I will be using some dimensions of the Anisa model to organize the knowledge, experiences, and skills to be taught in parent education programs. In my discussion, I am drawing heavily on the most recent presentation of the Anisa model, found in McCullough, 1978.

The Anisa educational model. Following Whitehead's key hypothesis, the Anisa theory broadly defines development as the process of translating potentiality into actuality; it makes that process synonymous with creativity as the fundamental and inherent dynamic characteristic of the organism; and it establishes interaction with the environment as the general means by which the process is sustained. In fleshing



out this epigenetic theory of development, it provides for a definition and classification of areas of potentiality to be developed, and of the environments the organism will interact with; it defines learning and learning competence, and generates a theory of curriculum and pedagogy. As a team effort, the major mode of developing this theory has been to use Whitehead's definitions as a guide and to test their validity by holding them up against a thorough and scholarly review of the best human development knowledge available in each of these areas. The model has also been field-tested in several school systems throughout the United States.

A major thrust of the work of the Anisa team has been to define a category scheme that identifies the important areas of development which should be addressed in organically conceived educational programs. A category system based on the organic principles outlined by Whitehead obviously will have as a primary element the principle of prehension. As mentioned earlier, the two primary types of prehensions identified by Whitehead are: 1) physical prehensions, and 2) conceptual prehensions. In human beings, physical prehensions are involved in the maintenance of biological integrity, and non-physical prehensions are involved in the maintenance of psychological integrity. Hence, two major organizing categories of development in the Anisa scheme are biological development and psychological development. Under these two categories, all aspects of human development can be discussed. Nutrition is seen as the major factor to actualize potential (foster concrescence) in biological development, and learning is

seen as the major factor to actualize psychological development. For a detailed discussion of the processes involved in biological development, see Raman (1975) and Bowen (1976).

Since learning is the central means of actualizing psychological potential, the Anisa perspective sees the aim of learning as the establishment of personal effectance or competence (see Robert White, 1966). Competence will be most assured when the individual learner is able to effectively guide his own development so that he continually actualizes his own potential in whatever area he chooses. Thus, learning is defined in the Anisa theory as the ability to differentiate experience by breaking it down into contrastable elements, to integrate those elements into a new pattern, and generalize the pattern to new situations. Learning always proceeds on the basis of a previous integration. The sequence of 1) integration to 2) differentiation and complexification to 3) hierarchical integration repeats itself indefinitely. This view of learning, different from the associationist view that sees the parts as preceeding the whole, sees the whole as greater than the sum of the parts and necessarily preceeding the parts.

The ability to guide one's own learning effectively is termed in the Anisa model "learning competence." Learning competence in this sense is the primary educational goal for an individual, the primary way to fully actualize psychological potential. These definitions relate clearly to Whitehead's notion of exercising inner determinancy and the process of concrescence. In a careful review

of the work of the most notable learning theorists by the Anisa team (Piaget, 1952; Bruner, 1966; Gagne, 1968; Inhelder, 1958), the processes of differentiation, integration, and generalization were found to be a consistent element in all extant definitions of learning. In the Anisa definition, however, the organic nature of the process is stressed.

In order to identify categories of psychological potentiality which would serve as the basis for developing specific curriculum areas in educational programs, the various areas in which learning competence needs to be achieved and the way in which competence can be developed in each area had to be defined. After a thorough review of human development research, the Anisa team has identified five basic categories of potentiality. These five categories of psychological potentialities are: psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional.

In a recent discussion of these categories of competence, McCullough (1978:158-160) has found it useful to define these basic categories in terms of Whitehead's analysis of a prehension. Although McCullough's analysis is somewhat lengthy, I quote it in its entirety because it offers a very important and careful explanation of the relationship of the categories of potentiality to each other. In an organic framework that necessarily emphasizes the connection of all things, this relationship is key. Although for the purpose of analysis and curriculum delineation, the Anisa team has looked at the categories of potentiality separately, it is very critical to

understand how they are fit together to form a wholistic picture of human development.

Each category of potentiality is an aspect of competence which can be developed. Psychomotor and perceptual competence delimit the organism and initial data aspects of a prehension in that the movement of the organism and the collection of perceptual information about the environment can be seen as basic interactive aspects of development. Volitional competence relates to selection of certain aspects of the environment for interaction and elimination of other aspects which are not wanted or are not useful. Cognitive competence is the identification of the objective datum. Because the objective datum is the product of much conceptual operation in construction, it is in that sense abstract or extracted from the vast welter of possible data. Cognition is defined as an act of inference. The fifth aspect of an interaction relates to the subjective form of the interaction. Affective competence can be defined in terms of assessing the viability of the organism, which is another way of saying that it is an ability to assess the extent to which the subjective form of an interaction is giving one the feeling that the viability of the organism is being enhanced or undermined. Hence, affective competence can be defined in relationship to subjective form.

These five basic competencies--psychomotor, perceptual, volitional, cognitive, and affective, are distinguishable but they are not truly separable, because each one of them operates during every interaction. Every concrete interaction has motor and perceptual aspects, there is volitional attention in selection; there are conceptual aspects which are inferred; and there are feelings and emotions which accompany the interaction. The relative extent to which one or another of these aspects is manifested in a particular interaction changes with the course of development from infancy to old age, but each aspect is always present to some degree. Each factor also influences the others so that each of them is mutually determining. For example, the emotions one has will influence the way one moves and perceives, the way one thinks, and one's capacity for volitional control. The way one thinks will influence how one perceives and feels . . . .

Another important aspect in the analysis of basic competencies is the relative importance of the objective



datum and the subjective form. In any interaction the objective and subjective aspects of the interaction have particular importance. For example, when a man looks at a rose, either the specific objective nature of the rose, like its color and size, or his specific subjective feelings about that rose are likely to be in the forefront of the experience. The perceptual strategies he is using, the volitional intention he expends, the movement of his eyes, are very likely to recede from prominence in the experience. This emphasis on the objective aspect of the prehensive operations could be termed the knowing capacity, whereas emphasis on the feelings or subjective aspect could be termed the loving capacity. Every interaction can be seen to involve these two predominant capacities for knowing and loving. The closely related nature of the two capacities becomes evident when it is emphasized that "knowing" refers to all basic competencies, but with an emphasis on cognition, whereas "loving" refers to all five basic competencies with the emphasis on affect.

For a visual interpretation of these ideas, see McCullough (1978: 161, 163.

Defining all the areas of competency as dimensions of knowing and loving potentialities, I think is useful. It simplifies many complex aspects of human development while still focusing on the important differentiating elements in each. For parents who will want to know how to best facilitate human development in their children, I feel such an organic category scheme that lends itself to analysis by parts, but still remains a whole, will be very useful. I also feel that the idea of helping children to become competent knowers and lovers will have innate appeal to parents.

Since every potential is actualized through an interaction with an environment, the types of environments which an organism can interact with are very important. In the Anisa framework, the environment has been classified as follows: the physical environment (mineral,

vegetable, animal), the human environment (all human beings), the unknown and unknowable environment (the ultimate mysteries of the universe), and the self environment (a reflection of the above environments in each person). This classification reflects, I think, a rather straightforward analysis of the world as we know and experience it.

When an organism interacts with these environments, learning can take place and competence can develop. When competence develops in any one area, organized ways of interacting with each of the environments are defined. Since all things are connected in the universe and there is order, one can assume that there are organized ways of interacting with environments that will be more or less effective. The Anisa framework identifies three higher order competencies to define the ways one can interact most effectively with various environments.

In relating effectively to the unknown environment, the Anisa theory states that when an organism can proceed on the basis of "faith," believing that all things are related and that unknowns can become knowable, or at least be ideally represented, then one develops "fiducial" competence. Polanyi (1974) comments that in all scientific endeavors, there must always be this aspect of "fiduciary" thought. It is the most viable way to constructively deal with unknowns.

In relating effectively to the human environment, other people, when an organism can act on the principle of justice, believing

that all people are connected and that one's behavior affects all other people, then one develops moral competence. (See the extensive discussion of these ideas in the works of Kohlberg, 1969 and Rawls, 1971).

In relating to the physical environment, when one has the ability to organize actions in relationship to the laws and principles of natural science, then one has technological competence. (For an extensive discussion of technological competence, see L. C. McCullough, 1977).

These three competencies are called higher order competencies because they represent the utilization of both basic and symbolic competencies in relationship to the various environments. (I have not discussed the symbolic competencies here, i.e., language, math, the arts, but they are obviously key mediating competencies and are discussed at length by the Anisa team in the works of Marks, 1977, and McCullough, 1978.)

The three higher order competencies which have been identified relate to the objective dimensions of the environment. But as the human being develops, the subjective dimension of experience also begins to be patterned and comes to be recognized as another important aspect of every interaction. This is the self environment. When the self is effectively organized around the self ideal (a picture of the most satisfactory way of organizing one's actions), then personal competence can be said to have been accomplished. This is equivalent to saying that personal effectance is the effective organization of

all aspects of competence in order to accomplish those interactions which lead to a satisfactory way of life, or in Whitehead's terms, make it possible to "acquire an increase in satisfaction." Personal effectiveness can be seen as the goal of development. Categories of competence can be analyzed as basic competencies mediated by symbolic competencies to form higher order competency, the effective integration of which results in personal competency.

All of these various categories of competence identify aspects of development which can be regarded as important for the purpose of planning educational programs. Again, it is important to emphasize, however, that every type of competence is involved in every interaction, since the categorization is drawn from the analysis of the factors of whole experiences. It is clearly a case of categories which are "distinguishable, but not truly separable." McCullough (1978) presents a possible schematic representation of these categories of competence which provide, I think, a useful picture of the inter-relationships among these various types of competence. (See Figure 2, taken from McCullough, 1978:172.)

To flesh out how competence can be developed in each of the areas of potentiality, the Anisa team has been working on a theory of curriculum and a theory of pedagogy. In the theory of curriculum, there is a balance of concern between how a child learns and what a child learns. The how aspect of the curriculum has been called the process curriculum, and the what aspect is the content curriculum. For purposes of analysis, they have been differentiated but



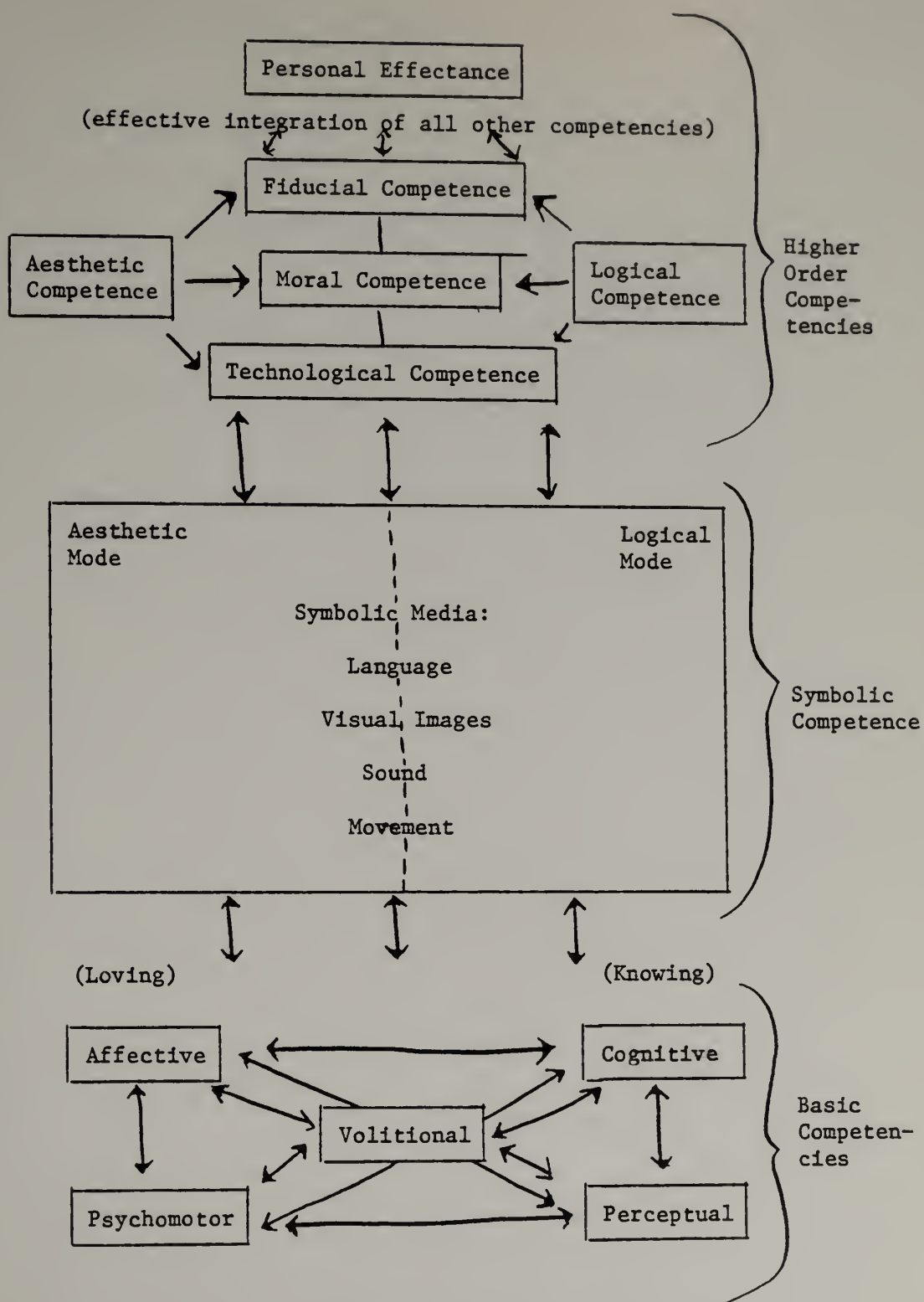


Figure 2

Categories of Competence:  
The Anisa Model

obviously, in any one learning interaction both will be dynamically interrelated.

Through a series of Anisa specifications for each area of potentiality, the process curriculum has been outlined. Each specification contains an extensive review of the research, a definition of the key processes, a discussion of developmental stages and considerations (in an organic model, obviously developmental factors are critical in interactions), and a sample of how the process might be facilitated at various developmental levels. These specifications are available from the Center for the Study of Human Potential, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA. The content curriculum has also been carefully designed to equip children with all the information they need to successfully negotiate the challenges they will face as adults in the twentieth century. (For a detailed discussion of the application of the process curriculum to various content areas, see McCullough, 1978:175-188.) A process and content curriculum has been spelled out to help facilitate growth in each of the areas of basic competencies, in the symbolic competencies, and in the higher order competencies.

The Anisa model also spells out a theory of pedagogy. Related to its theory of development and its definition of learning, teaching is defined as the process of arranging environments and guiding the child's interaction with them in order to accomplish educational goals specified by both the process and content curriculum. Teaching competence is defined as the ability to arrange environments and to guide

interactions with them in such a way that it makes it easy for children to become competent learners. Observation, diagnosis and prescription are identified as key processes in learning to teach effectively. This view sees the teacher more as a facilitator than director of learning and as such represents a significant shift from the current emphasis of many teacher education programs. In the light of our previous discussion of values issues and the need for the parent education instructor to act as a facilitator, and in light of what is known about successful adult education techniques, this perspective on teaching seems most useful and will be discussed further in Chapter V (Training Programs). (An extensive discussion of the Anisa theory of pedagogy can be found in Carney, 1975.)

#### From Theory to Practice

The major focus of this chapter has been to provide an in-depth theoretical context for the ideas and outlines that will be presented in the next chapters. It serves as the conceptual link between the analysis and review of past program achievements and limitations, and the models and methods I will propose for the future. It has explained in some detail why an organic view of human nature and an organic program is needed for parent education. It has discussed the major premises of the organic philosophy of Alfred North Whitehead, as well as presented empathy as the fundamental facilitating process for his notion of concrescence. Within this chapter, I have made a strong case for why empathy should be considered the key goal and method of

organic parent education programs. The developmental schema outlined adds substance to that case.

The discussion of how Whiteheadian notions have been developed within the Anisa model was meant to illustrate how organic theory can be translated into practice. As such, it is a stepping-stone to the following chapters which deal specifically with translating that theory into practice for parent education programs.



## C H A P T E R I V

### A CONCEPTUAL OUTLINE FOR FUTURE PARENT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The goal of this chapter is to conceptually outline a wholistic, organic parent education approach. It builds on the organic philosophy of Whitehead, is influenced by the organic category scheme of the Anisa model, and tries to integrate in very careful ways the lessons learned and directions suggested by the review of past parent education programs. Because the organic premises of the outline are broadly conceived, I believe they provide a framework comprehensive enough to organize the vast amount of knowledge available about human development, learning, teaching, and adult education for parent education programs.

I have chosen to generate a conceptual outline rather than present a specific parent education model for several important reasons. First, I think a conceptual outline is the next logical step to take in making wholistic approaches in parent education possible. As the analysis of Chapter II pointed out, past program weaknesses and failures were often the result of unclear, unfocused, or inadequate program conceptualization. Without a comprehensive conceptual outline, I feel strongly any future wholistic model would be subject to the same or, perhaps because of its aspired scope, even more serious weaknesses.

Second, to generate a conceptual outline at this point seems to be in keeping with the organic process of gradual growth. As Whitehead explains, every potential becomes actualized through a gradual process of interaction with other actualities (or environments). The idea that parent education programs need to be wholistic and organic needs to be fleshed out through a step-by-step conceptual process (interaction with prevailing ideas of parent education, knowledge of human development, etc.) before effective programs can become actual services. To leap immediately from the idea, to presenting programs would be unrealistic and violate organic order. Whitehead's hierarchical notion of growth in an ordered universe explains that clear differentiations always take place before integrations emerge. The conceptual outlines presented here are, I think, the necessary theoretical differentiations needed to make organic programs possible and practical.

Finally, the generation of a specific parent education model in this dissertation would have limited usefulness and applicability. In any program development, the local situation, the specific type of participants, the goals of the participants, the personality of the staff, the level of funding available, and innumerable local conditions have important impact on the type of program needed or finally produced. Since these factors are unknowns for me, I think it is much more useful to provide a clear, comprehensive conceptual outline of program components that could be used by program planners in many types of local situations.

I feel because the outline does attempt to be comprehensive, it can fill a critical gap in the parent education field and can be an invaluable practical asset for program planners. For example, if the staff and community in a local setting are ready to attempt a wholistic model, if they have a team to staff it, and funding to support it, the outline could be used as the organizing base for planning and implementing that type of program. But if a local group has one specific concern, say childbirth education, has very limited staff, and funding, but wants to plan a program, the outline can also help for planning that type of program. As mentioned earlier, where the scope of programs must be limited, the outline can help planners to assess how their particular part (program) is connected to the whole; what might be the next program goal; and how to be realistic in presenting the limited goals of their project. For people with no specific goals in mind, but who are interested in having programs, the outline can act as a road map of the parent education territory to help them focus their planning. In Chapter VI, I will discuss in more detail how the outline presented here might be used for planning programs, and specifically outline some organic principles of program development.

### An Organic Conception of Parent Education

Whitehead defines optimal development as the full actualization of all one's knowing and loving potentials. If that definition is used, clearly, the overall goal of any organically conceived parent

education approach must be to foster optimal development first in parents, and second, through parents, in their children. This means that parents should have opportunity in programs to do all the things necessary to further develop all the potentials (cognitive, affective, perceptual, volitional, psychomotor, moral, fiducial, technological) that would enable them to actualize their own self-ideal about parenting.

I say "their own self-ideal" because obviously each person who comes to the programs will bring a genetic heritage and background that is unique, and what optimal development means will be specified differently for each individual. Parental self-ideals will probably have universal dimensions (wanting to provide the best for their children, be loving, be loved), but the expression of particular self-ideals will vary from individual to individual, depending on their own developmental level, their own familial roots, and a whole set of past experiences. Organically conceived programs must be sensitive to these individual expressions of self-ideals.

The Anisa category scheme calls this Whiteheadian notion of optimal development self-competency. Here, for clarity's sake, to apply these definitions specifically to parent programs, I will refer to the ultimate goal of parental development as parental competence. This means that all parents would have the opportunity in programs to clarify and better understand their own parental ideal (become competent knowers) and strengthen their positive feelings about themselves and their children (become competent lovers).



The reader will recognize that this emphasis on individual parental confidence and competence is an integration of an important direction for the future identified in Chapter II.

Parental competence is obviously the highest level of integration of achievement in other areas of potential, but to generate programs, the specific components of parental competence have to be further delineated. What does being a competent parent actually mean?

The four dimensions of parental competence. Being a competent parent implies, I think, that the parents know what they need to know or know how to find out what they need to know to actualize their own parental ideal: they know how to be competent at directing their own learning. Also, it implies that they know how to apply their knowledge to facilitate development in their children: they know how to be competent teachers so that they can facilitate development in others. In addition, it means that they are effective and have warm, loving relationships with their children: they know how to be competent in human interactions. Finally, it means that they can also manage and plan family activities so that their ideal can be practically actualized: they know how to be competent home managers.

I believe these four areas of competence are critical dimensions of parental competence and are comprehensive categories within which it is possible to organize all the human development knowledge related to parent-child interactions and child development. Also, their differentiation in this form helps to emphasize the process nature of an organic model. They stress that parental competence is not simply

knowledge about child-rearing, but an integration of human development skills (how to's) to be applied.

Obviously, knowing how to be competent in each of these areas implies the integration and actualization of many of the areas of potential identified by the Anisa model. They all imply a certain degree of cognitive, affective, perceptual, and volitional competence. They are a level of integration of these basic competencies and so within programs, if parents are to develop these skills, they will have to have the opportunity to develop in each of the areas of potentiality. Emphasizing the vertical developmental perspective, the model I am proposing is presented in Figure 3. This figure emphasizes the interrelatedness of the levels of development, and stresses the Whiteheadian notion of continued growth through differentiation and hierarchical integration. Parents who come to programs will be at varying levels of growth and will need individualized opportunities to make needed differentiations and integrations.

Although it might be possible to begin at another level, I think generating programs from the categories at level three will be most useful. If parent programs are directed to fostering competence at this level of integration, I think they have the opportunity to have a focused, yet comprehensive scope. There is room for an upward developmental motion, as well as room for dealing with developmental issues at lower levels. Programs directed at fostering competency at level three would necessarily address the development in parents of basic competencies, as well as help contribute to their integration in

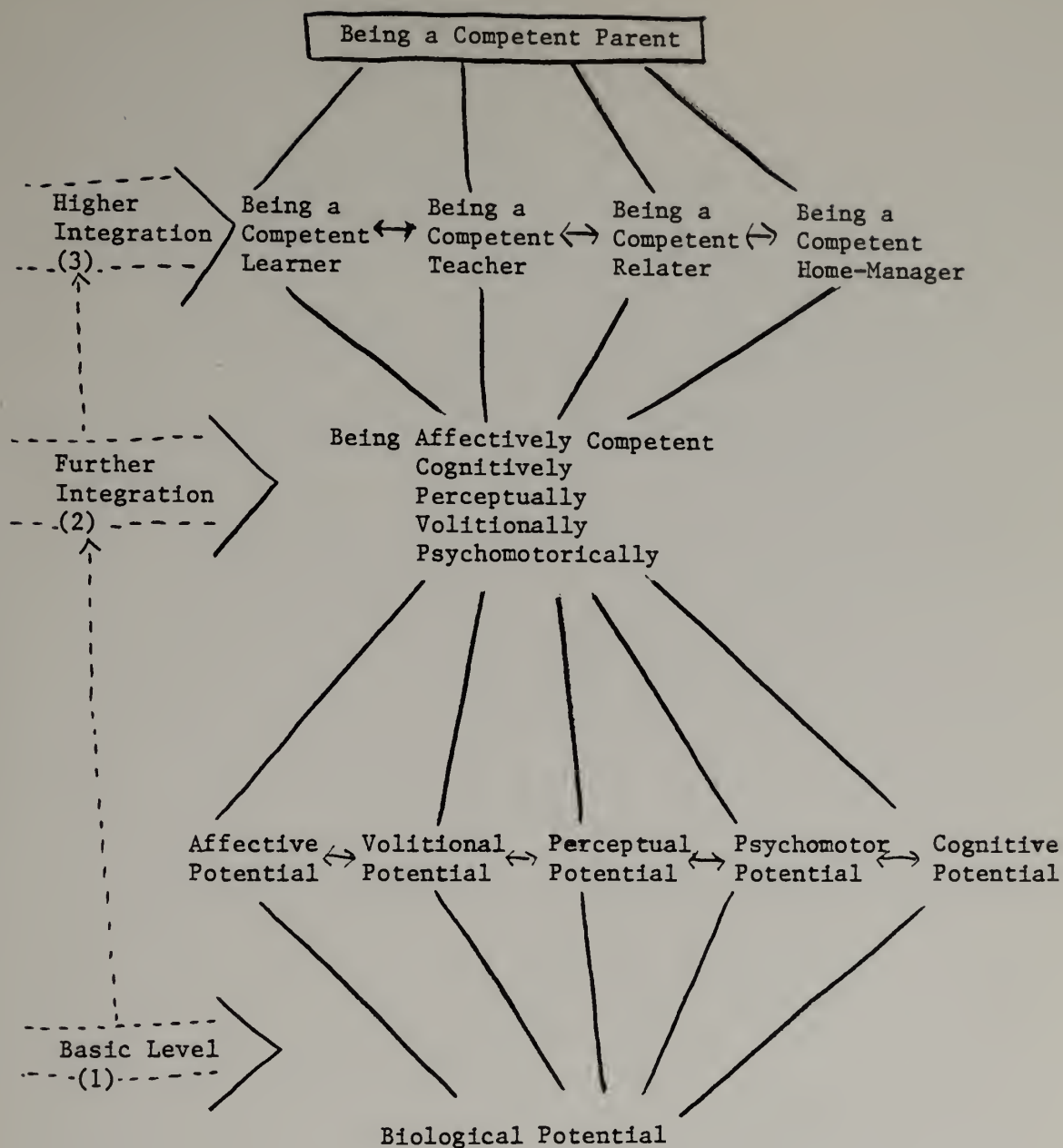


Figure 3

A Developmental View of  
Dimensions of Parental Competence

individual parental competency. All the critical knowledge, experiences, and skills needed by parents can initially be identified at level 3, and yet there can be flexibility in programs to define interactions and activities at whatever level is most appropriate to the competency level of the particular parent group. This would allow the model to have flexibility in content and process without being entirely arbitrary. Flexibility is an important program characteristic and one that was underscored in the review of Chapter II.

Analysis of future program needs. But if the model is an organic whole, it cannot be viewed only in terms of its vertical developmental directions. If the model I am proposing is looked at horizontally, it is important to identify the key dynamic that relates and integrates the different categories of potential and competency. In an organic model, the links between elements are very significant because they are a real and substantial part of the whole and explain why any one part cannot stand alone to represent the whole. I have already suggested in Chapter III that the key relationship dynamic in an organic model is empathy. Here I would like to suggest that developing empathetic competencies and being responded to empathetically is the underlying and integrating fabric of a parental competence model.

As an ability that helps a person integrate what they know, and what they feel in order to be able to respond to facilitate growth in themselves and others, it seems to me empathy must be developed and experienced by parents and children. Because it is so critical, it could have been identified as the essential ingredient of parental



competency and been the entire focus of the program model. However, to designate empathetic competency as the single goal of parent education would, I think, be confusing for two reasons.

First, because as my discussion of definitions of empathy indicated, there is a great diversity of understandings of its meaning. To say the goal of parent education programs would be to help parents become empathetic would mean diverse things to various people. The model developed would lack conceptual clarity.

Second, even if the epigenetic definition I proposed was more universally accepted, in this view, being empathetic involves critical integrations of many knowing and loving potentialities, and its development involves continued integrations of information, experiences, and skills that are already part of other areas of competence. To discuss program methods and goals at the empathetic level of integration could be very confusing, and not provide enough concrete and specific content and process goals to make programs workable. Parents who come to programs could have great difficulty identifying what specific skills they could gain in the program, and persons who run programs could provide a rather spotty sampling of skills rather than a complete spectrum.

For clarity's sake, I feel it is much better to identify empathy as a fundamental dimension of parental competency, as an important ability to be developed to contribute to growth in each of the sub-dimensions of parental competency, and as a particularly significant component in helping parents learn to relate effectively. I think by

seeing empathy as the pervasive relating dynamic gives it a central place, allows it to suggest essential content for the model and become a key factor in its process, as well as allows the categories of parental competency to be spelled out separately with more conceptual clarity.

Seeing empathy as the underlying fabric adds a connecting horizontal dimension to the model I am proposing. This dimension is presented in Figure 4. Figure 4 illustrates that empathy is the underlying dimension of all development toward parental competency. It suggests that stages of empathetic development are parallel to and inform other dimensions of growth. If parents who come to programs have been inhibited in some areas of development, they will probably have lower empathetic ability. Conversely, parents with high empathetic skills will probably also be progressing in other competency areas. Figure 4 suggests that addressing just empathetic development or just the four areas of competency would be unrealistic as they are integrally linked. Wholistic programs must view parental development as a unitary experience.

To make program planning realistic, however, and for clarity's sake, each category of parental competence needs to be outlined separately, and some specific approaches to facilitating empathetic growth need to be outlined under the human relations category. This is necessary in order to make it clear how lower levels of development are integrated at this level, as well as provide the opportunity for careful explanation and definitions within each area. If the

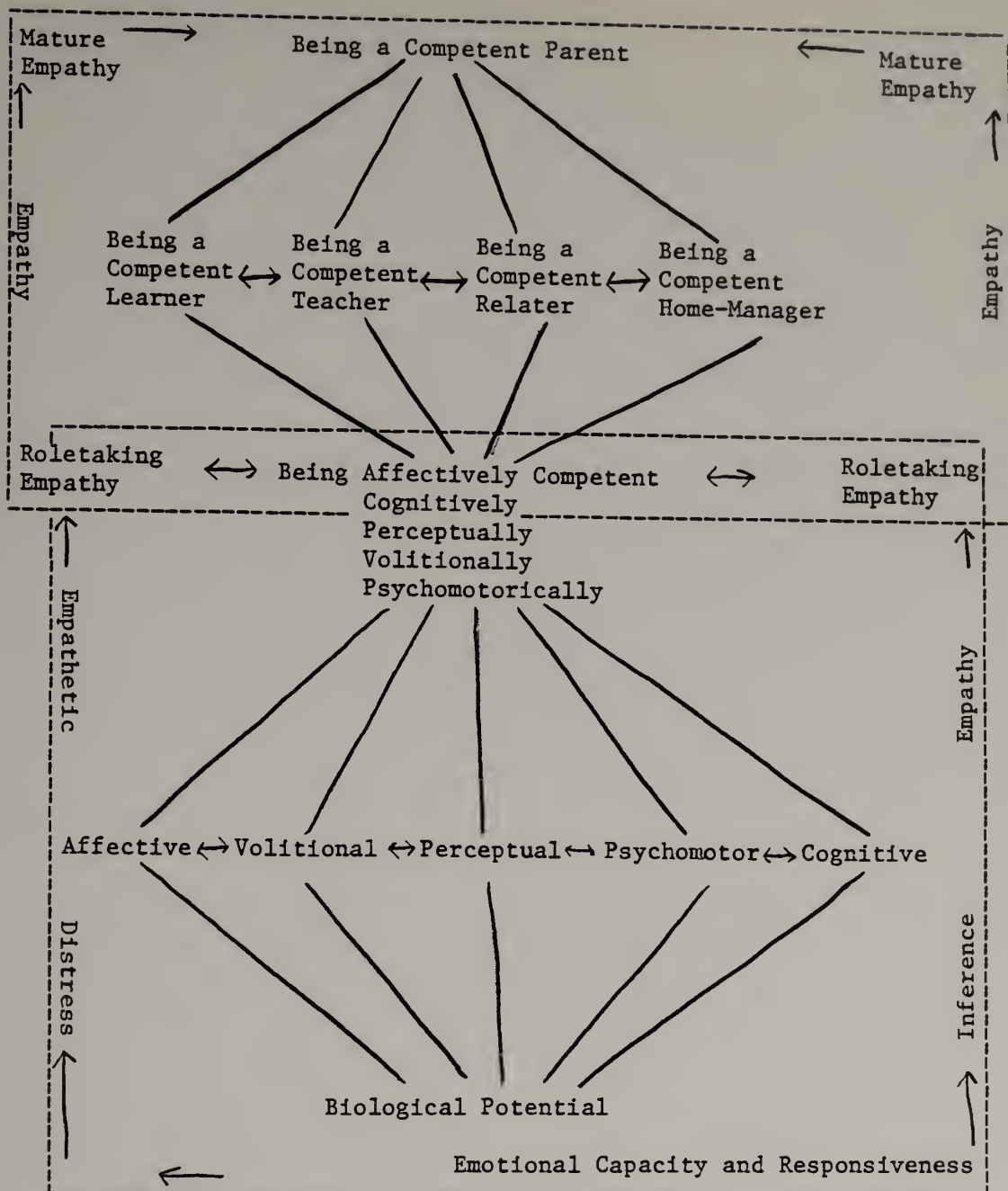


Figure 4

Empathy as the Underlying Fabric  
of All Dimensions of Parental Competency

outline is to be used for program development, this conceptual clarity is critical. However, it is also important to remember that the separation of categories can only be neatly done in conceptual analysis, and even in analysis there are some overlapping areas. In actual program formats, the categories will need to overlap and be integrated substantially because these are aspects of development taking place in whole persons.

In the outlines I am proposing, I have suggested that every competence develops from the integration of three elements. These are: 1) information gained (the data one needs to differentiate), 2) experiences one has (actual interactions with various environments from which differentiation, integrations, and generalizations emerge), and 3) skills one develops (effective integrations and generalizations of information and experiences). In choosing to emphasize these elements, I have been influenced again by Whitehead's notion of growth through continued differentiation and integration, and by some of the content and process distinctions that the Anisa model has made in translating this Whiteheadean notion into a curriculum theory. In outlining each area of competence under these categories, essentially I am proposing a set of contents, meaningful activities, and process outcomes to be used in parent programs.

In fleshing out the outlines, I have listed under each category comprehensive topics (i.e., affective development, types of parent programs, etc.). This has been done necessarily to limit the scope of the outline. It is possible, for example, to list under each topic



all the relevant human development information, all the types of environmental interactions, and all the sub-skills to be developed, but this would make the outline very unwieldy. Instead, broad topics serve as guides to indicate the critical type of information, experiences, or skills that must be addressed if the program is to be comprehensive and consistent with organic definitions of human nature.

The broad topics were generated from a systematic and extensive review of the human development, parent education, adult education, teacher education, family life, and training program literature. I have myself done extensive review of the parent education, family life, and training program literature. Fortunately, I have been able to build on the research and reviews done in the other areas by members of the Anisa team. My own research involved three years of careful analysis, and the work of my Anisa colleagues has been done over the past several years. Therefore, although there will always be room for additions, clarification, and improvements, I feel confident that the outlines do represent an organic and comprehensive approach to parent education.

As a supplement to the outlines, in the Appendix I have included a set of course outlines and related bibliography developed by myself and two Anisa colleagues for a specific parent educator training program. These outlines can serve as an example of how broad topics can be further specified, and I direct the reader to the Appendix for more specific information about what could be included under individual topics. Obviously, individual program planners in

local situations will make decisions about the level and scope of information that can and needs to be covered under each topic. While an overall goal in an organic model would be to present the most complete information under each topic, the previous learning of the group, and the expertise of the staff will necessarily influence final decisions.

Although the format we used for our training program (university courses) may not have universal applicability for parent programs, I feel the information in the Appendix outlines and bibliographies illustrates clearly how the conceptual outline I am proposing can organize human development knowledge and be used effectively to generate programs. Since work presented in the appendix also represents the results of an extensive and thorough review of the parent education and human development literature. I hope it can provide a useful resource and working model for others.

There is one final point to be made before moving to the outlines. An outline format tends to suggest a rigid, static organization of information. Categories tend to appear as distinct, isolated units because of the linear format. As such, it is not particularly well-suited for presenting organic, process approaches. The reader may feel that this approach is actually no different than many present parent education curriculum approaches. However, at the present time, there is no workable alternative format that still allows ideas to be presented simply and clearly. All that has been presented in previous chapters in terms of theory and rationale must be kept in mind while

reading the outlines in order to understand the dynamic of the model and the essential connections between the categories.

### Outline of the Dimensions of Parental Competence

Being a competent learner. This dimension involves the conscious ability of the parent to be able to guide his/her own learning effectively. Essentially this portion of the outline is directed to identifying what interactions are needed to help parents assess where they are as parents and persons and decide what their own learning goals in parent education will be. It operationalizes the organic principle of self-determinancy, and is a critical competency for the parent to have to facilitate their ongoing learning within and beyond the actual limited time of the parent program.

To become competent learners, parents will need to:

I. Gain information about:

- A. Human development in adulthood (This information includes understanding how basic, symbolic and higher order potentials are actualized in adulthood.)
- B. Parental roles/goals
  - 1. Roles of mothers/fathers
  - 2. Cultural and ethnic diversity in roles/goals
  - 3. Traditional vs. new views of parental roles
  - 4. Universal goals of parenting
  - 5. Rights of parents/children
- C. Learning styles

1. Cognitive styles
  2. Individual learning approaches
  3. Learning in groups
- D. Self-knowledge
1. How to define and clarify their parental goals
    - a. Self-assessment techniques
    - b. Feedback-from-others techniques
  2. Personal assessment of:
    - a. Self-expectations as a parent
    - b. Expectations experienced from others  
(mate, children, relatives, friends, etc.)
    - c. Expectations of others (that parent has)
    - d. Strengths and weaknesses as a parent
    - e. Feelings about parental role
    - f. Personal values
      1. Effects of familial roots
      2. Effects of other experiences
    - g. Level of knowledge about human development
    - h. Personal development in cognitive, affective, perceptual, psychomotor, volitional, symbolic, fiducial, technical, moral areas
    - i. Level of knowledge/skills in teaching
    - j. Level of knowledge/skills in dealing effectively in relationships
    - k. Level of knowledge/skills in managing family activities



1. Personal learning style

- E. Goal setting

1. Steps to goal setting and actual goal setting
2. Actualizing goals

- F. Resources (for accomplishing one's goals)

1. Types of parent education programs (goals, format, cost, etc.)
2. Self-directed materials (various types, i.e., books, tapes, films, etc.; on all relevant topics, i.e., human development values, etc.)
  - a. How to locate
  - b. How to assess

II. Have experiences with (Using Whitehead's notion that development proceeds through interactions with various environments, what is spelled out here are types of experiences that parents could have within programs interacting with physical, human, unknown environments.):

- A. Physical environment (includes two types of physical interaction: 1) all interactions with reading materials, films, tapes, and various other individualized learning techniques where emphasis is on materials; and 2) all interactions with physical entities in the home environment (space, furniture, etc.))
  1. Using materials on self-development/self-assessment
  2. Using materials about values theory and clarification
  3. Using materials about aspects of adult development

4. Using materials about communication
  5. Using materials about learning styles
  6. Using materials about parental resources
  7. Practicing evaluation of materials
  8. Assessing the characteristics of their home environment in terms of their parental goals
  9. Practicing modifying the home environment
- B. Human environment (includes all interpersonal interactions)
1. Having guided interactions with one's family (nuclear/extended)
  2. Having guided interactions with other parents
  3. Interacting with consultants on adult development, parent education, learning styles, values theory, teaching
  4. Interacting with community service persons working with families
  5. Practicing clarification of values (individual/group exercises)
  6. Practicing working in groups using group discussion techniques
  7. Participating in family exploration exercises (i.e., family sculpturing)
  8. Participating in communication skill activities
  9. Participating in self-knowledge activities
  10. Practicing using various learning styles

11. Practicing getting feedback from others
  12. Interacting with parent education instructor  
to get information and feedback about potential  
learning goals
- C. Unknown environment (This category is difficult to define. In identifying it, Whitehead meant to categorize all the unknowns that surround us. I include it here because I feel how parents react to unknowns is significant and does effect their learning competence. Unknowns may be responded to with fear, enthusiasm, insight, new ideas, beliefs, etc. The focus of interactions in this category would be to develop positive responses to unknowns so that new learning is not inhibited.)
1. Practicing inquiring (a response to an unknown  
when you know your need to know something)
  2. Practicing planning (a response to a future unknown)
  3. Practicing clarifying beliefs (a response to  
ultimate unknowns)
  4. Practicing clarifying one's own ideals (a response to  
the unknown parts of the self)
  5. Practicing trusting others (a response to the unknowns in others)
  6. Using guided fantasy exercises (an opportunity to  
project of envision an unknown becoming known)
  7. Practicing forms of meditation or reflection

- D. Self-environment (This environment includes all differentiating, integrating interactions where the individual has the opportunity to process what the other interactions mean in terms of the self. It is difficult to identify interactions at this level of interaction because individuals will need many different kinds of opportunities (solitary reflections, more group interaction, reading, etc.). It seems more appropriate to simply stress that in programs it is important that the interactions with the other environments contribute positively to parental self-image, self-concept, self-esteem, and self-determination. Being conscious that these are being integrated in the self-environment can help program planners generate and monitor interactions carefully.)

III. Gain skills in (effective patterns of acting where information and experience are integrated in such a way that they can be effectively applied):

- A. Analysis and evaluation of materials (parent education and other types of learning materials)
- B. Self-assessment
  - 1. Self-reflection
  - 2. Listening
  - 3. Soliciting and analyzing feedback
  - 4. Being aware of feelings



C. Goal setting (particularly setting learning goals in relation to parental ideal):

1. Attending
2. Decision-making
3. Persevering

Being a competent teacher. This dimension involves the conscious ability of parents to effectively arrange environments (human, physical, unknown, self) and to guide interactions to facilitate development in their children. This portion of the outline is directed to helping parents learn about all important aspects of human development and the processes they should use to facilitate growth in their children. It emphasizes the organic notion of change, actualizing potentiality, relatedness, and purposeful activity.

To become competent teachers, parents will need to:

I. Gain information about:

- A. Human development throughout the life cycle (See Appendix, listing of courses on infancy, childhood, adolescence, and adulthood.) This would include information about:
  1. Biological development
  2. Psychological development
    - a. Cognitive
    - b. Affective
    - c. Perceptual
    - d. Psychomotor
    - e. Volitional

- f. Symbolic
    - g. Moral
    - h. Fiducial
    - i. Technological
  - 3. Developmental stages
    - a. Critical periods
    - b. Sensitive periods
- B. Learning theories
  - 1. Major theorists
  - 2. Application of theories
- C. Pedagogical theories (The organic framework necessarily puts emphasis on item 2, although parents should be exposed to other views.)
  - 1. Teacher as director
  - 2. Teacher as facilitator
  - 3. Parent as facilitating teacher
    - a. Arranging environments
      - i. Physical
      - ii. Human
      - iii. Unknown
      - iv. Self
    - b. Guiding interactions
      - i. Observation
      - ii. Diagnosis
      - iii. Prescription

- c. Instructional strategies
- 4. Parent as disciplinarian\*
- 5. Parent as evaluator
  - a. Testing
  - b. Giving feedback
- 6. Parent and the child's school
  - a. Decisions about schools
  - b. Relationship to school
- D. Resource materials
  - 1. About human development (all areas)
  - 2. a. How to locate
    - b. How to assess
  - 2. About home teaching materials and activities
    - a. How to locate
    - b. How to assess
  - 3. About facilitating strategies to be used with children
    - a. How to locate
    - b. How to assess

## II. Have experiences with:

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\* Discipline is usually a topic of great concern to parents. It is discussed here because it is relevant to understanding effective teaching strategies and because the word "discipere" means to teach. It is also listed as a relevant topic under moral development in human relations competence because there is so much in the literature about how discipline strategies affect moral development.

A. Physical environment (The same two categories of interactions are used here that were previously specified on page 186.)

1. Using materials about human development (various aspects)
2. Using materials about teaching techniques
3. Using materials about parents in teaching role
4. Practicing evaluation of materials presented
5. Practice arrangement of environments for a home learning task
6. Planning (prescribing) activities that will help facilitate development in children (various ages)
7. Making home learning materials appropriate for the child
8. Arranging the home environment in general ways to accomplish parental goals

B. Human environment (includes all interpersonal interactions)

1. Having guided interactions with children at various developmental levels (to observe, diagnose, and prescribe)
2. Interacting with consultants (persons with some expertise) on human development, teaching about human development information, about teaching, about techniques and materials they have used)



3. Interacting with other parents
4. Interacting with professional teachers
5. Practicing teaching children
6. Interacting with parent education instructor to  
get information and feedback about parental learning  
goals

- C. Unknown environment (Since under each category of competence the type of interactions that might be used would be similar, I have not spelled them out again here. The specific content and experiences under each category will probably precipitate concern about different unknowns. However, the types of interactions previously outlined can be appropriately adapted.)
- D. Self-environment (The above is also true for the self-environment. See page 189.)

### III. Gain skills in:\*

#### A. Teaching

1. Observing (seeing clearly where their child is developmentally)
2. Diagnosing (assessing accurately what the next growth step might be)
3. Prescribing (planning ways to facilitate development)

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\* Because the skills are integrations of information and experiences, there will be the greatest overlapping in this category. Although the previously mentioned goal-setting and self-assessment skills will also be relevant here, only new skills will be added for each area of competence.

- a. Arranging learning environments (the physical, human, and unknown)
  - b. Guiding interactions (effective teaching strategies)
- B. Communicating effectively
- 1. Listening
  - 2. Expressing ideas and feelings clearly
  - 3. Being respectful

Being competent in human relations. This dimension involves the conscious ability to relate to others (especially one's children) in such a way that development is enhanced for one's self and the other. This portion of the outline is directed to helping parents understand how relationship variables (feelings, communication style, type of relationship, self-awareness, and moral development) can affect and enhance human development. This aspect emphasizes the organic notion of subjective aim.

To become competent learners, parents will need to:

- I. Gain information about:
- A. Stages of affective development
    - 1. Major theories
    - 2. Application of theories
  - B. Relationship formation
    - 1. Types of relationships
      - a. Attachments
      - b. Friendships

- c. Romantic relationships
  - d. Marriage
  - e. Parent/child relationships
- 2. Maintaining relationships
- C. Relationship disruption
  - 1. Divorce
  - 2. Death
  - 3. Conflict/problem-solving
- D. Communication theory
  - 1. Major theories
  - 2. Application of theories
- E. Moral development
  - 1. Major theories
  - 2. Applications of theories (instructional techniques for facilitating moral growth with various theoretical viewpoints)
- F. Helping techniques (responses to enhance growth in another)
  - 1. With individuals
  - 2. With groups
- II. Have experiences with:
  - A. Physical environment (The same two categories of interactions are used here that were previously specified on page 186.)
    - 1. Using materials about human relationship formation/disruption

2. Using materials about affective development
  3. Using materials about communication theory/helping techniques
  4. Using materials about moral development
- B. Human environment (includes all interpersonal interaction)
1. Having guided interactions with children at various stages (to assess empathy level, roletaking level, moral development level)
  2. Interacting with consultants (persons with some expertise) in affective development, moral development, communication theory
  3. Interacting with other parents about human relations ideas and skills
  4. Interacting with consultants from the helping professions (persons whose specialty is human relations)
  5. Interacting with parent education instructor to get information and feedback about progress toward parental learning goals
  6. Practicing with children and other adults
    - a. Active listening
    - b. Sending clear messages
    - c. Problem-solving techniques
    - d. Taking another's point of view
    - e. Responding empathetically



7. Practicing facilitating moral reasoning, roletaking, empathy with children at various stages

C. Unknown environment (see page 188)

D. Self environment (see page 189)

### III. Gain skills in:

A. Being empathetic (or making gains in empathic development)

1. Being emotionally responsive (expressing feelings)

2. Active listening

3. Sending clear messages about one's thoughts and feelings

4. Roletaking

5. Responding appropriately to another's feelings

B. Problem-solving

1. With individuals

2. With groups (i.e., the family)

Being a competent home-manager. This dimension involves the conscious ability of the parent to organize and plan family activities so that development in all other areas of competence can take place for each family member. This portion of the outline is directed to helping parents learn how to organize and manage group activities in the family so that development for all is enhanced. This aspect emphasizes the organic notion of order.

To become competent home-managers, parents need to:

I. Gain information about:

A. Family financial planning

1. Economic decision-making
    - a. Long term decisions
    - b. Short-term plans
  2. Budgeting techniques
- B. Family planning
1. Decisions about family size
    - a. Social factors
    - b. Personal values
  2. Birth control options
    - a. Medical opinion
    - b. Social opinion
    - c. Personal values
- C. Parental roles/responsibilities
1. Traditional roles of mothers
  2. Traditional roles of fathers
  3. New views of parental roles
    - a. Mothers working outside the home
    - b. Fathers in child care roles
    - c. Flexitime work schedules
    - d. Paternity leave
  4. Children's roles in the family
- D. Styles of leadership and decision-making in families
1. Parental leadership and decision-making
    - a. Impact of modeling
    - b. Impact of various leadership styles

2. Family consultation
  - a. Techniques for group process
  - b. Family meeting techniques
- E. Time management (This involves management of all the activities that make up the daily routine of a family, i.e., meals, cleaning, shopping, recreation, television, study, sleep, transportation, etc.)
  1. Kinds of time
    - a. Optimal (one-to-one relationship time)
    - b. Diffused (many activities happen at once)
    - c. Individual (alone time)
  2. Assessing family/individual member time needs and responsibilities
- F. Family relationship network
  1. Relatives
  2. Neighbors
  3. Community groups
  4. Larger society
- G. Managing as a single parent
  1. Impact on children
  2. Impact on parents
  3. Support services
    - a. How to locate
    - b. How to assess
- H. Foster parenting/adoption
- I. Blended families

II. Have experiences with:

A. Physical environment (The same two categories of interactions are used here that were previously specified on page 186.)

1. Using materials about family finances
2. Using materials about family planning
3. Using materials about parental roles
4. Using materials about time management, decision-making
5. Using materials about family's social relations
6. Using materials about single parenthood
7. Practice using budgeting techniques
8. Practice making family time schedules
9. Practice in managing daily routines
10. Maintaining and beautifying home environment

B. Human environment (includes all interpersonal interactions)

1. Having guided interactions with family groups (to make time need decisions, establish decision-making style)
2. Having guided interactions with mate about parental role/responsibilities
3. Having guided interactions with other parents about various information topics



4. Interacting with consultants (persons with expertise) in family planning, financial management, group process
  5. Interacting with relatives about familial responsibilities
  6. Interacting with neighbors and community persons about community responsibilities
  7. Practicing holding family consultations
  8. Practicing various parental leadership styles
  9. Practicing using various decision-making techniques
  10. Interaction with parent education instructor to get information and feedback about progress toward parental learning goals
- C. Unknown environment (see page 188)
- D. Self environment (see page 189)

III. Gain skills in:

- A. Budgeting
- B. Decision-making
- C. Time management
- D. Family consultation
- E. Leadership

Using the Parent Education Outline

The outline presented is a conceptual one meant to identify the essential dimensions of parental competence and the dynamics that

foster its development. Because it uses organic premises, its scope is broad and its components extensive. It is my hope that in the future, programs will be able to be planned that give parents the opportunity to gain all the information specified that they need, to have all the experiences mentioned that are appropriate, and to develop all the skills listed that they can use. The outline is not the program, and what can be in the future when funding is available and there is widespread commitment to the idea of parent education will be different from what is realistically possible now.

Program planners will need to study the outline, understand why the topics are included, and how they are connected, and then use it to make choices about the needed scope, to decide how the categories can be put together into practical formats, and to choose appropriately matched methodologies. The outline suggests what information, experiences, and skills should be included to assist parents to facilitate development in a wholistic and organic way. On the local level, planners will have the task of developing a format that, while it may limit the type of information, experiences, and skills to be developed, will not violate the organic conceptualization.

Although specific decisions about program format and methodology will need to be made in local situations by planners who will know all the impacting variables, there are a few key issues that should be addressed here. These are: 1) using adult education methodology, 2) choosing organic program formats, and 3) planning staff and training models. The relevant issues under each topic will be discussed separately.

Using adult education methodology. The adult education field has a long history which is discussed at length by Knowles (1962). My interest here is in the large body of research which has established that success in adult education is most apt to take place when 1) content is related to real life experiences, 2) an interactive format allows participants to actively work with and respond to ideas presented, 3) there is "hands-on" kinds of training, and 4) some form of individualization helps participants set their own learning goals (Houle, 1963; Knowles, 1962; Kantor and Lehr, 1976). Research further indicates that participants in adult education react negatively to being in a passive (recipient of information) role (Knowles, 1973). Many adults list as their reason for "dropping out," the failure to see how what they are learning will be useful (Adult Education Council, 1969).

All of this research is obviously relevant to decisions about methodology for parent education. Since it is also consistent with the program analysis reported in Chapter II where it was explained that when parents had the opportunity to be active, self-directed learners, could practice what they learned, and see its relevance to their children's lives that programs were more successful, program planners need to give it serious attention.

The outline presented here lends itself readily to being fleshed out with these more successful types of adult education methodology. The outline already focuses on self-directed learning (learning competence) as key, and indicates that every competence has an

information and skill base that develops from meaningful environmental interactions. If the guidelines for successful methodology established by the adult education research are followed, it seems to me a wide variety of options can be used to operationalize the outline in successful parent programs. I think the research of Brim (1959), Auerbach (1961, 1968), Hawkins (1971), Pickarts and Fargo (1971), Hereford (1963), Chilman (1964), Endres and Evans (1969), Berkowitz and Graziano (1972), Taylor and Holdt (1974), Gordon and Bruevogel (1977) offer information about specific adult education and parent education methodology techniques that are consistent with organic principles and can be integrated into many different program formats.

Choosing organic program formats. In Chapter II, various program formats, their strengths and weaknesses, were discussed at length. All of these styles (group parent education, school-based programs, home-based, or self-directed) can be viable formats for planners who might wish to use the outline presented here as an organizing base. Obviously, choosing some formats will limit types of environmental interactions (i.e., group discussion is less of a possibility in a home-based, one family/one trainer model, or interactions with children are somewhat limited in an evening adult parent grouping). The need for choosing times and formats that allow fathers to actively participate is a point raised in Chapter II that is relevant here. But, in general, as long as the methodology guidelines outlined under adult education are not violated, I feel certain that many different format variations can be viable ways of operationalizing



certain aspects of the outline.

However, because the overall goal of programs based on this conceptualization is individual parental competency, it is clear that the methodology and format of programs developed from it must allow for some degree of self-determinancy and individualization of instruction. Although the outline tries to identify all the information, interactions, and skills parents who participate would need to have to be competent parents, obviously many parents will come to programs with already developed competence in some areas, weaknesses in other areas, and some areas where they feel totally incompetent. A methodology and format that cannot accommodate this variety of needs and doesn't allow parental input into planning would run the risk of only fostering competence for some, and could easily inhibit development for others.

While the adult education methodology research also identifies individualization as a critical variable for successful learning, we underscore it here as an essential program format because it is so integral to the organic definitions and assumptions of the outline. A program that tries to operationalize this conceptualization must provide for individualization of instruction. Here again, I think the empathy dynamic becomes significant. Because being empathetic means a person can take the point of view of another, can respond affectively to that point of view, and can sort out the best response to enhance growth for another, it can be a primary means by which effective individualization of instruction can take place in programs.

It seems to me that being empathetic ensures accuracy in the observation, diagnosis, and prescription steps of teaching. It also provides accurate information about how to arrange which environments, and it also provides insight into what type of guidance is appropriate for individual interactions.

Since the organic framework demands individualization of instruction, and being empathetic can help make that individualization most successful in deciding on methodology and format, the empathetic skills of staff or their ability to develop them will need to be carefully evaluated. Some additional sources of information about how individualization can be done effectively can be found in Gibbons, 1973; Lange, 1974; Madan and Hull, 1974; Messick, 1976; and the National Society for the Study of Education, 1962.

Planning staff and training models. The issue of staffing for programs that are generated from this conceptualization is another important consideration. Because the conceptualization builds on a definition of teaching that sees the teacher as a facilitator rather than a director of learning, clearly the methodology decided upon and program format chosen must be consistent with and support and encourage the parent education instructor to operate in that role. Persons who are uncomfortable in a non-directive teaching role would have great difficulty operationalizing this conceptualization. Also, since parents are being taught to act as facilitating teachers with their children, it would be critical to have as a model a facilitating teacher.

I can foresee that local programs will necessarily have different kinds of staffing structures. Wholistic programs will probably utilize multidisciplinary teams for staffing, while smaller programs will probably have one or two professionals or parents to run programs. It is quite possible that there will be only a few full-time staff, with many auxiliary personnel involved in various aspects of the programs. The discussion in Chapter I about the need to involve parents in various aspects of program planning and staffing is of course relevant here.

However, the scope of the outline, the amount of information to be shared, experiences to be planned, and skills to be developed and practiced, even in just one area, suggest that some staff will need a very substantial human development, parent education, and teaching background. They would also need to understand the organic nature of the outline, as well as its underlying assumptions and goals. Since many professionals or parents who might like to become involved full-time in parent education will not have this background and understanding, it seems training programs for parent educators will also need to be developed. While these may have varying formats (i.e., university programs, in-service programs, professional development workshops), to be consistent with the organic framework, they would also need to foster in trainees self-competence through developing their own learning competence, teaching competence, human relations competence, and administrative competence.

To assist local planners to identify what a training program

fostering these competencies might look like, I will present in Chapter V another conceptual outline. This outline presents the key components of a parent educators training model.



C H A P T E R V  
A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR TRAINING  
PROGRAMS FOR PARENT EDUCATORS

As mentioned earlier, the topical outline presented in Chapter IV must have as its context the previous extensive discussion of organic premises. To use the outline effectively, to understand why it is more than just an arbitrary listing of topics, and to recognize the dynamic link between the categories, planners and future parent educators will need to have the opportunity to think about the underlying rationale and carefully review the categories presented. To do these tasks well, I think some background in human development and some form of training will be necessary.

However, for people interested in becoming involved full-time or even part-time in parent education planning or teaching, there are presently very few options for training. There are some parent education training programs operating, but for the most part, direct training options are within other fields (i.e., counseling, teaching, social service), leaving the participant to synthesize and apply what is learned to the parent education context. If parent programs are to become more widely available, and if programs are going to try to be organic and wholistic, clearly new training options that deal specifically with training needs of people working with parents will need to be developed.

A thorough discussion of all the critical issues involved in planning and implementing professional training programs would extend this work beyond a manageable scope, but to make some contribution to the development of future parent educator training options, I will present here another conceptual outline based on organic assumptions. If programs must have more organic approaches, then training programs must prepare people to operationalize those approaches. Therefore, the following outline will closely parallel the one presented in Chapter IV.

Although the outlines are very similar, there are some differences. Where the overall goal of the first outline was parental competency, the focus of this outline is developing trainer competency. The training program should help each participant define his/her own trainer self-ideal, and develop the competencies that will help him/her actualize that self-ideal. Expressed another way, one could say the goal of the training program would be to prepare participants to be masters in the field of parent education.

Mastery is determined partly by judging oneself in relation to the standards of the profession (in some sense the outline presented could represent one expression of those standards), partly by the opinions of the people one serves (in this case parents), and partly by an internal sense of confidence in one's own ability to do well and to continually improve and grow. This kind of mastery is really only attained after much experience in the field so that training

programs cannot expect to turn out "masters" immediately upon completion of training.

But, there are certain abilities that can make it easier for a trained person eventually to become a master. These are: the ability continually to teach oneself during the course of professional growth (become a competent learner); the ability to facilitate that same growth for others (become a competent teacher); the ability to relate to others in such a way that their development and one's own is enhanced (become competent in human interactions); and the ability to organize, direct, and lead groups so that all other areas of growth can take place (become a competent administrator). When competence in these four areas is achieved, the trainer would be a master, or in organic terms, be self-competent in the role of trainer.

For clarity's sake, the dimensions of each competence will again be outlined, and the reader's attention is directed again to the Appendix to find further information about the outline topics. As explained in Chapter IV, each dimension of trainer competency remains a distinct category only in analysis. In real learning interactions within the training program, the distinctions between categories will often be blurred.

While the reader will notice a certain degree of redundancy in proceeding through this second outline, this repetition has been done purposefully for two reasons: first, so the outline can stand as a complete unit for use by training program planners; and second, to indicate that the trainer's knowledge, experience, and skill base

must include many aspects of the parents', but must also involve additional information, experiences, and skills. As the facilitator and model for parents, the trainer will need especially effective human relations, teaching, and administrative skills and it seems logical to suggest that although the topics of the outline are in many cases similar, for the trainer under each topic a more extensive and in-depth information, experiences, and skills base would be required. Since the outlines and bibliographies in the Appendix were prepared especially for a training program, they do reflect this emphasis. With each course outline, the reader will find a bibliography specifically for parents and one for trainers.

#### Dimensions of Mastery for Parent Educators

Being a competent learner. This dimension involves the conscious ability of the parent educator to be able to guide his/her own learning effectively. This portion of the training program is directed to helping participants identify what knowledge, experiences, and skills they bring to the training program, and to decide what their own specific learning goals for the training will be. It emphasizes the organic principle of self-determinancy and is a critical competency for the trainer to have to facilitate his/her ongoing learning with and beyond the actual time of the training program.

To become competent learners, trainees will need to:

I. Gain information about:



- A. Human development in adulthood (includes understanding how basic potentialities are actualized in adulthood)
- B. Trainer roles/goals
  - 1. Definitions of parenting
  - 2. Traditional vs. new views of parental roles
    - a. Roles of mothers/fathers
    - b. Cultural and ethnic diversity in roles/goals
    - c. Universal parenting goals
    - d. Rights of parents/children
  - 3. History of parent education
  - 4. Roles of professionals in parent education
  - 5. Traditional adult trainer (teacher) roles vs. new views
  - 6. Universal goals of teaching
- C. Learning styles
  - 1. Cognitive styles
  - 2. Individual learning approaches
  - 3. Learning in groups
- D. Self-knowledge
  - 1. How to define and clarify personal and training goals
    - a. Self-assessment techniques
    - b. Feedback from others
  - 2. Personal assessment of:
    - a. Self-expectations as a teacher

- b. Expectations others have of you (parents in programs, colleagues, community persons, etc.)
  - c. Expectations you have of others
  - d. Strengths and weaknesses as a teacher
  - e. Personal values about parenting
    - i. One's own familial roots
    - ii. Other contributing experiences
    - iii. One's own parenting goals (if a parent)
  - f. Feelings about self in teaching role
  - g. Level of knowledge about human development
  - h. Personal development in affective, perceptual, psychomotor, cognitive, volitional, symbolic, fiducial, moral, technological areas
  - i. Level of knowledge/skill in teaching
  - j. Level of knowledge/skill in dealing effectively in relationships
  - k. Level of knowledge/skill in administering programs
  - l. Personal learning style
- E. Goal setting
- 1. Steps to goal setting, and actual goal setting
  - 2. Accomplishing goals
- F. Resources (for accomplishing one's goals)
- 1. Types of available training programs (specific parent education training and other related areas, i.e., counseling skills, etc.)

2. Self-directed resource materials (on human development, teaching parent education, human relations)
    - a. How to locate
    - b. How to assess
  3. Community resources for parent education available to trainers
    - a. How to locate
    - b. How to assess
- II. Have experiences with (Using Whitehead's notion that development proceeds through interactions with various environments, what is spelled out here are types of experiences that trainees could have within programs interacting with the physical, human, and unknown environments.):
- A. Physical (The same two categories of interactions are used here that were previously specified on page 186.)
1. Using materials about self-development/self-assessment
  2. Using materials about values theory and clarification
  3. Using materials about adult development
  4. Using materials about learning styles
  5. Using materials about history/goals of parent education
  6. Using materials about teaching styles/goals
  7. Using materials about communication
  8. Practicing evaluating materials

B. Human (includes all interpersonal interactions)

1. Having guided interactions with one's own family  
(nuclear/extended)
2. Having guided interactions with parents (various  
cultural/ethnic groups)
3. Having guided interactions with other teachers/  
parent trainers
4. Interacting with consultants on adult development,  
parent education, learning styles, values theory,  
teaching, administering programs
5. Interacting with community service persons working  
with families
6. Practicing clarifying values
7. Practicing working in groups using group discussion  
techniques
8. Practicing self-reflection techniques
9. Participating in communication skill activities
10. Participating in family exploration activities
11. Participating in self-knowledge exercises
12. Practicing getting feedback from others about self
13. Practicing using various learning styles
14. Interacting with training instructor to get infor-  
mation about trainer learning goals

C. Unknown (This category is difficult to define. In  
identifying it, Whitehead meant to categorize all the



unknowns that surround us. I include it here because I feel how trainees react to unknowns is significant and does affect their learning competence. Unknowns may be responded to with fear, enthusiasm, insight, new ideas, beliefs, etc. The focus of the interactions in this category would be to develop positive responses to unknowns so that new learning is not inhibited.)

1. Practicing inquiry (a response to an unknown when you know you need to know something)
  2. Practicing making plans (a response to a future unknown)
  3. Practicing clarifying beliefs (a response to ultimate unknowns)
  4. Practicing clarifying one's own ideals (a response to the unknown parts of the self)
  5. Practicing trusting others (a response to the unknowns in others)
  6. Using guided fantasy (an opportunity to project or envision an unknown becoming known)
  7. Practicing forms of reflection or meditation
- D. Self (This environment includes all differentiating and integrating interactions where the individual has the opportunity to process what the other interactions mean in terms of self. It is difficult to identify specific interactions at this higher level of integration

because individuals will need many different kinds of opportunities. It seems more appropriate to simply stress that in programs, it is important that interactions with the other environments contribute positively to the trainee's self-image, self-concept, self-esteem, and self-determination. Being conscious that these are being integrated in the self-environment can help training program planners generate and monitor interactions carefully.)

### III. Gain skills in:

- A. Analysis and evaluation of materials
- B. Self-assessment
  - 1. Self-reflection
  - 2. Listening
  - 3. Soliciting and analyzing feedback
  - 4. Being aware of feelings
- C. Goal setting
  - 1. Attending
  - 2. Decision-making
  - 3. Persevering

Being a competent teacher. This dimension involves the conscious ability of the trainee to effectively arrange environments and guide interactions to facilitate development in parents. This portion of the training program is directed to helping trainees learn about all aspects of human development, and the processes they should use to

facilitate growth in parents and their children. It emphasizes the organic notions of change, actualizing potential, relatedness, and purposeful activity.\*

To become competent teachers, trainees will need to:

I. Gain information about:

A. Human development throughout the life cycle (See Appendix listing of courses on infancy, childhood, adolescence, and adulthood.) This would include information about:

1. Biological development
2. Psychological development
  - a. Affective
  - b. Cognitive
  - c. Perceptual
  - d. Psychomotor
  - e. Volitional
  - f. Symbolic
  - g. Moral
  - h. Fiducial
  - i. Technological
3. Developmental stages

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\* The trainer needs to know all the information that he/she will be required to teach to parents. For clarity, however, I have not included in this category types of information that fit more clearly under the other areas of competence. It is assumed that to be competent as a teacher that information from these other areas of competence would be integrated.

- a. Critical periods
  - b. Sensitive periods
- B. The family
  - 1. Historical views
  - 2. Sociological theories
  - 3. Anthropological studies
  - 4. Psychological perspectives
  - 5. Present status
- C. Educational philosophy
  - 1. Major theories
  - 2. Application of theories
- D. Learning theories
  - 1. Major theorists
  - 2. Application of theories
- E. Adult education
  - 1. History
  - 2. Goals
  - 3. Effective methodology
- F. Pedagogical theories (The organic framework necessarily puts emphasis on item 2, although trainers should be exposed to other points of view.)
  - 1. Teacher as director
  - 2. Teacher as facilitator
    - a. Arranging environments
      - i. Physical



- ii. Human
    - iii. Unknown
  - b. Guiding interactions
    - i. Observation
    - ii. Diagnosis
    - iii. Prescription
  - c. Instructional strategies
- 3. Teacher as recordkeeper
- 4. Teacher as evaluator
  - a. Testing
  - b. Giving feedback
- 5. Parents and schools
  - a. Making decisions about schools
  - b. Relationship to schools
- G. Resource materials
  - 1. Available for parents
    - a. Types of parent education programs (goals, cost,, format, etc.)
      - i. How to locate
      - ii. How to assess
    - b. Types of community services
      - i. How to locate
      - ii. How to assess
    - c. Self-directed materials (varying formats in all relevant areas)

1. How to locate
    - ii. How to assess
  2. Available for trainers (in all relevant areas)
    - a. How to locate
    - b. How to assess
- II. Experiences with (interactions with environments):
- A. Physical (The same two categories of interactions are used here that were previously specified on page 186.)
1. Using materials about human development
  2. Using materials on teaching techniques (especially adult education)
  3. Using materials on family development
  4. Using materials on educational theory and philosophy
  5. Practicing arranging learning environments for children
  6. Practicing arranging adult education learning environments
  7. Practicing evaluating materials
  8. Planning activities that will help facilitate development in children (various ages)
  9. Planning (prescribing) activities that will help facilitate development in adults
  10. Preparing materials for parent education (individuals/ groups)

B. Human (includes all interpersonal interactions)

1. Having guided interactions with children at various developmental levels (to observe, diagnose, prescribe)
2. Having guided interactions with parents to observe, diagnose, and prescribe
3. Practicing teaching children at various ages
4. Practicing teaching parents (various formats-- groups, at home, etc.)
5. Interacting with supervisor getting feedback about teaching interactions
6. Interacting with consultants on adult education, teaching, human development, family issues
7. Interacting with other trainers about teaching strategies, human development, family issues, etc.
8. Interacting with family groups
9. Interacting with training instructor to get information and feedback about trainer learning goals and progress toward goals

C. Unknown (Includes all interactions with unknowns. See page 188.)

D. Self (Includes all interactions where the individual has the opportunity to process what the other interactions mean in terms of the self. See page 189.)

III. Gain skills in:

A. Teaching

1. Observing (seeing clearly where the parent is developmentally)
  2. Diagnosing (assessing accurately what the next growth step might be)
  3. Prescribing (planning ways to facilitate development)
    - a. Arranging learning environments (physical, human, unknown)
    - b. Guiding interactions (effective teaching strategies)
- B. Communicating effectively
1. Listening
  2. Expressing ideas and feelings clearly
  3. Being respectful

Being competent in human relations. This dimension involves the conscious ability of the trainee to relate to others (especially parents) in such a way that development is enhanced for the self and the other. This portion of the training program is directed toward helping trainees understand how relationship variables (feelings, communication skills, type of relationship, self-awareness and moral development) can effect and enhance human development. This aspect emphasizes the organic notion of subjective aim.

To become competent in human relations, trainees will need to:

- I. Gain information about:
  - A. Affective development
    1. Major theories



2. Application of theories
- B. Love
  1. Philosophical perspectives
  2. Psychological perspectives
  3. Theological perspectives
- C. Relationship formation
  1. Types of relationships
    - a. Attachments
    - b. Friendships
    - c. Romantic relationships
    - d. Marriage
    - e. Parent/child relationships
    - f. Family groups
  2. Maintaining relationships
- D. Relationship disruption
  1. Divorce
  2. Death
  3. Conflict/problem-solving
- E. Communication
  1. Major theories
  2. Application of theories (instructional techniques for facilitating effective communication)
- F. Moral development
  1. Major theories

2. Application of theories\* (instructional techniques for facilitating moral growth within various theoretical viewpoints)
- G. Self-knowledge
1. Major theories
  2. Application of theories
- H. Helping techniques (responses to enhance growth/change in another)
1. With individuals
  2. With groups
- I. Family counseling
1. Major theories
  2. Application of theories (therapeutic techniques)
  3. How to identify counseling needs
    - a. Family pathologies
    - b. Individual pathology
  4. Referral services
    - a. How to locate
    - b. How to assess
- J. Group process
1. Major theories
  2. Application of theories

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\* As mentioned earlier, under this topic an extensive review of the research on discipline techniques and strategies is most relevant to parent education.

II. Experiences with (interactions with various environments):

A. Physical environment (The same two categories of interactions are used here that were previously specified on page 186.)

1. Using materials about human relationships
2. Using materials about affective development
3. Using materials about communication/helping techniques
4. Using materials about moral development
5. Using materials about self-knowledge
6. Using materials about family counseling
7. Using materials about group process
8. Using materials about love (theoretical)

B. Human environment (includes all interpersonal interactions)

1. Having guided interactions with children at various stages (to assess empathy, roletaking, moral development level)
2. Having guided interactions with parents (assess empathy, roletaking, moral development level)
3. Having guided interactions with other teacher trainers to discuss human relations area
4. Interacting with consultants in affective, moral, self-knowledge, group process

5. Interacting with consultants from helping professions
  6. Practicing facilitating moral reasoning/role-taking  
empathy development with children and adults
  7. Practicing communication techniques
    - a. Active listening
    - b. Sending clear messages
    - c. Problem-solving techniques
    - d. Taking another's point of view
    - e. Responding empathetically
  8. Practicing teaching adults communication techniques
  9. Participating in groups using group process skills
  10. Facilitating groups
  11. Participating in family counseling sessions (by  
observation, active role as counselor, etc.)
  12. Practicing helping techniques
  13. Practicing teaching adults helping techniques
  14. Having ongoing involvement in a service role with  
parents or children
  15. Participating as helper and helpee in training  
exercises
  16. Interacting with training instructor to get information and feedback about progress toward trainer  
learning goals
- C. Unknown environment (Includes all interactions with  
unknowns. See page 188.)



- D. Self environment (Includes all interactions where the individual has the opportunity to process what the other interactions mean in terms of the self. See page 189.)

III. Gain skills in:

- A. Being empathetic
  - 1. Being emotionally responsive (expressing feelings)
  - 2. Roletaking
  - 3. Responding appropriately to another's feelings
- B. Communicating
  - 1. Active listening
  - 2. Sending clear messages about one's own thoughts and feelings
  - 3. Problem-solving
    - a. With individuals
    - b. With groups
- C. Facilitating groups
- D. Interviewing adults and children

Being a competent administrator. This dimension involves the conscious ability of the trainee to organize and plan activities so that development in other areas of competence can take place for all participants in parent education programs. This portion of the training program is directed to helping trainees learn how to organize, and manage group activities so that development in all areas is enhanced. This aspect emphasizes the organic notion of order.

To become a competent program administrator, a trainee needs to:

I. Gain information about:

A. Family administration\*

1. Family financial planning
2. Family planning
3. Parental roles/responsibilities
4. Styles of leadership and decision-making
5. Time management
6. Family relationship network
7. Managing as a single parent
8. Foster parenting/adoption
9. Blended families

B. Parent education program formats

1. Types
2. Evaluation

C. Program administration

1. Leadership (planning, delegation, supervision, nurturance)
  - a. Major theories
  - b. Application of theories
2. Management (recordkeeping)
  - a. Major theories
  - b. Application of theories

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\* This information will be needed by trainees in helping parents to become competent home-managers. It is a teaching content.

3. Public relations (includes all information about community development, recruitment of program participants, cooperative relations with other groups, etc.)
  - a. Effective strategies for parent education
  - b. Community development
4. Fundraising (all options, public/private, for parent education)
5. Evaluation of participants and programs
  - a. Testing (types of)
  - b. Research designs

II. Experiences with (interactions with various environments):

- A. Physical environment (The same two categories of interactions are used here that were previously specified on page 186.)
  1. Using materials about family administration
  2. Using materials about program administration
  3. Using materials about fundraising
  4. Using materials about public relations
  5. Using materials about evaluation
  6. Practicing writing proposals and reports
  7. Practicing designing public relations materials or programs
  8. Practicing using a research design for program evaluation

9. Practicing management tasks (i.e., record keeping, budgeting, etc.)
  10. Practicing planning tasks
- B. Human environment (includes all interpersonal interactions)
1. Interacting with family groups (about relevant topics)
  2. Interacting with parents (about relevant topics)
  3. Interacting with consultants about family administration and program administration
  4. Interacting with other trainers about relevant topics
  5. Interacting with funders of parent education programs
  6. Participating in family consultation sessions
  7. Practicing teaching parents family administration information
  8. Practicing using various leadership styles
  9. Practicing delegation and supervision tasks
  10. Having ongoing involvement in an administrative role in parent related programs
  11. Participating in leadership and management training exercises
  12. Interacting with training instructor to get information and feedback about progress toward trainer/learning goals



- C. Unknown environment (Includes all interactions with unknowns, see page 188.)
  - D. Self environment (Includes all interactions where the individual has the opportunity to process what the other interactions mean in terms of the self. See page 189.)
- III. Gain skills in:
- A. Leadership
  - B. Management
  - C. Time management
  - D. Writing proposals
  - E. Fundraising
  - F. Public speaking

#### Using the Training Program Outline

Once again the scope of the outline is broad and its components extensive. Training program planners will need to work with the outline to put its ideas into practical form. If they plan to develop parent programs based on the first outline, it is logical that they will want to develop some type of training component based on this second conceptualization. This outline suggests what information, experiences, and skills should be included to prepare trainees to be able to assist parents in a wholistic and organic way. On the local level, planners will need to decide the exact format to be used for their staff training, and how the outline can be used, adapted or limited without violating its organic premises.

The methodology and format issues already discussed in Chapter IV are relevant here. Research on successful adult education techniques should be utilized in planning methodology for training programs, and organic formats should be adopted that support the research suggestions.

There is a wide variety of possible formats to choose from. Most present training programs have utilized the degree program or course (for credit) format within universities or community college settings. The advantage of this approach is that a wide variety of resources are available to participants (i.e., library, experts in the field, etc.). The disadvantage is that often a class format involves only information exchange with little individualization or environmental interactions. If this format was chosen, some adaptations of the usual course format would be needed.

Other training programs, such as Gordon's Effectiveness Training (1970), have used a short, intensive 3-5 day workshop format where focus is on particular skill training. This format could be appropriate if a sequenced series was planned so trainees could have the opportunity to develop all the necessary skills.

Still other programs, like Dinkmeyer's S.T.E.P. program (1978), are self-directed training approaches where books, tapes, and instructor's manuals provide direction for the trainer. In terms of the outline's specification of environmental interactions, it seems some supplement to this type of format would be needed to make it appropriate.

Recently, a great deal of attention has been focused on inservice training formats where already trained professionals have the opportunity to get new information relevant to their daily tasks, develop additional skills, or refine already developed skills. In their extensive review of training, Nash and Ducharme (1976) strongly suggest that the inservice format of professional education will become the most widely used format of the future. They feel this is going to be true because this format allows for the most flexibility, can be integrated into already busy schedules, and usually grows out of identified needs of participants. Although they do not use the term, it has all the characteristics of an organic approach. Also, in relation to what was discussed in Chapter I about who should run parent programs, this inservice format may be very useful as a way for involving many professionals already working with families, as well as involving others already identified as family helpers by parents.

It seems to me all of these formats can be appropriately adapted for operationalizing certain aspects of the conceptual outline. However, because not much has been done yet in developing organic training program formats, future research will be needed to establish which ones lend themselves most successfully to operationalizing more wholistic types of programs. The works of Bunker (1976), Friere (1974), Nash and Ducharme (1976), McCullough (1978), and Carney (1978) can all offer valuable insight and practical suggestions for training program methodology that seem to be consistent with organic principles.

As in parent programs, individualization of instruction and the opportunity for developing and using empathetic skills must be essential components of training programs. As previously discussed, becoming empathetic could be identified as the key integrating competency for developing parental or trainer competence. It is clearly important for effectively individualizing. Understanding the key issues presented in the lengthy discussion of empathy in Chapter III is particularly important for trainers, as well as having the opportunity to practice the empathetic skills.

Also of particular importance in organizing training programs would be the development of some criteria for screening candidates. In general, persons who are not flexible, cannot direct their own learning, are not able to act as facilitators in the teaching role, and are not able to develop empathetic skills would have great difficulty becoming effective trainers using this model. However, given the organic assumptions of the model which stress change, growth, and ongoing actualization of potential, criteria for screening candidates must also not be so rigid that those with potential to develop these qualities would be prematurely excluded. It is hoped that the program components focused on becoming a competent learner might help individuals assess their own qualifications and where necessary screen themselves out. Local planners, in determining the scope their training program will have, will be in the best position to develop the screening criteria.

Actually implementing programs based on this conceptual outline



will take careful planning and coordination. Although I cannot identify all the factors that will influence final decisions about programs, nor discuss in any great detail the critical dimensions of effective educational program development, there are some basic principles of organic process that seem especially relevant to the task of implementing an organic model. The focus of the next chapter will be to briefly spell out these principles in the hope that they can serve as a practical guide for planners.

## C H A P T E R V I

### ORGANIC PRINCIPLES OF PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

The outlines in Chapters IV and V provide a framework for generating parent and parent educators programs, but they are not themselves the programs. The outlines are meant to provide a structure, indicate parameters, and serve as a guide for program development. By analogy, one could suggest that the outlines are a part of programs somewhat like the genetic code is part of an organism. The genetic code carries a clearly defined plan, but the exact way in which the plan unfolds depends on the kind of environmental conditions in which the organism finds itself. The outlines are a clearly defined conceptualization of how parental and trainer competency can develop, but the conceptualization must be actualized in particular programs that are responsive to the real needs of real people within local situations. Like the genetic code, the outlines are not themselves enough to guarantee the development of successful parent or trainer programs. They help programs to meet the organic criteria of order and structure, and although their fundamental assumptions demand individualization, just using them does not guarantee meeting the second criteria of the organic promises--responsiveness to individual needs and continually changing conditions.

How can the second criteria of responsiveness to developmental change be met in program planning? How can people who want to plan

programs for parents or trainers use the outlines but actualize them in ways that are responsive to their own particular concerns and situation? I think this can be done effectively if local planners use a program development process that follows five basic organic principles. These principles were outlined by Christopher Alexander, an architect, in the Oregon Experiment (1975). Alexander has developed a rather unique approach to architectural design called "A Pattern Language." This Pattern Language approach is an attempt to develop a planning style which enables building designers to proceed in a more natural and wholistic way. Rather than just designing buildings that are good, solid, unchanging structures, Alexander has attempted to develop a way to design buildings where structure can also be responsive to changing needs. (For an extensive discussion of the Pattern Language approach, see Alexander, 1964, 1975, 1977, 1979.)

In describing his method, Alexander has formulated six general principles. Only five will be discussed here because the principle about patterns would require an extensive digression. Developing specific program patterns is a valuable approach to program development, but it is only one option a planner would have. Just as Alexander uses his patterns as guides, the outlines presented here can serve a similar function. I feel the other principles presented by Alexander have more universal applicability. Although Alexander's discussion of these principles is focused naturally on building tasks, I feel they are also relevant to educational planning tasks. In fact, I have had the opportunity to be personally involved in

educational program development projects that involved using these principles, and have found them very practical and useful for making programs responsive to real needs. (For an in-depth discussion of how this approach has been used in educational program development, see McCullough (1978), particularly the worked example (Parent Educators Training Program) found in the Appendix.)

The five principles highlighted by Alexander and discussed here as they can be applied to parent/trainer program development are:

1. The principle of organic order
2. The principle of participation
3. The principle of gradual growth
4. The principle of diagnosis and ongoing development
5. The principle of coordination

A brief explanation of each principle follows.

#### The Principle of Organic Order

Program development will be guided by a process which allows the final structure of the program to emerge gradually from the interactions of the parents/trainees, staff, and all others who are participating in the actual programs.

This principle addresses the responsivity vs. control issue in program development by organizing a program around a developmental process rather than around a predetermined program design. The outlines should not be viewed as predetermined program designs. They are guides and not rigid "lesson plans" to be blindly followed



without consideration of individual needs. To use them in this way would violate the organic assumptions on which they are based. They outline all the dimensions of growth that may be needed for parents, but programs will probably not include all the dimensions outlined.

Because they are based on organic assumptions, and every attempt has been made to present their content in broad categories, they lend themselves to being discussed, reacted to, agreed upon, and/or modified by groups engaged in this organic process of program development. For example, if a group feels the outline expresses ideas about parental/trainer competency that seem to match their own beliefs, needs, and expectations, they can begin to discuss and make plans for how certain dimensions of the outline, or all of its foci, could be actualized in their situation. The methodology and format discussions in Chapters IV and V do offer some direction about how this can be done, but do not suggest any particular actualization. A program could be created that plans many activities to foster only learning competence, or it could choose to focus first on human relations competence, or every session of the program could be aimed at combining activities focused on competence in each of the areas. Even though the same outline is used, if the programs are for a particular population, say parents of very young children, its format will probably look very different from a program designed for parents of juvenile offenders.

Essentially, what this principle emphasizes is that program development is not just a conceptual activity that can be done behind

closed doors by one or two people who are not directly involved with the people who will staff, participate in, or attend programs. The outlines presented here cannot be imposed on groups. Because they have been generated from organic assumptions, and because an organic process was used, using these very principles to develop them, I feel confident that the outlines are responsive to many needs of parents and trainees. However, my confidence is not enough. They must be used in groups in such a way that the groups see their usefulness and can actualize them in individual ways.

### The Principle of Participation

All decisions about the way in which actual programs are developed will be in the hands of the parents/trainees, teachers, administrators, and others who are actually participating in the program.

Related to the first principle's emphasis on a process for program development, this second principle focuses on the group involvement in program planning. It is a fact that every single individual who is in a program makes decisions which affect the way in which the program is actually carried out. Often in programs, decisions about daily implementation of curriculum tend to be made by individual staff members. Yet, the real decisions about what is to be learned are made by the individual parents/trainees. When this level of decision-making is ignored, participants in programs have only three choices. They can just accept the program as it is,

refuse to accept the program, or pretend they accept it. In each case, when the options are so limited, the participant is likely to feel uninvolved and not really a part of the program. As already discussed, frequently in adult education this type of feeling has been identified as the prime reason for dropping out of programs.

Deciding on parents/trainees interests without asking them what their interests are seems foolhardy. This does not mean that the program should be directed totally on the basis of what parents feel their interest to be. It does mean that there needs to be a full dialogue with an opportunity for everyone involved to present the reasons for their interests and choices. This kind of consultation will help to ensure that the program is well-adapted to the particular context in which it is developing.

Again, this type of participation would be impractical without some means of coming to an agreement about what justifies one choice over another. The outlines presented here can make this process much more efficient. Since they are based on clear assumptions on which the group can agree or disagree, the entire program does not have to be re-invented each time a new participant joins the group. It also locates decision-making power within each particular group, since they can apply the outlines as they have found them to be most appropriate in their own situation.

### The Principle of Gradual Growth

Resources will be allocated in a way that encourages numerous small-scale program development efforts which can gradually be

implemented on a broader basis as their strengths are demonstrated.

This principle reflects the way all living things grow, slowly one growth building on a previous growth. It suggests that parent/trainer programs should develop in much the same way. There is evidence that this point of view is not unfounded because as the historical review of programs in Chapter II indicated, most large-scale program attempts that started out without smaller exploratory projects (i.e., Head Start, PCC's) have had very limited success and have been widely criticized for trying to do too much and ending up doing nothing really well.

The emphasis throughout this work has been on developing wholistic programs, and the outlines presented were generated as an attempt to make wholistic program approaches possible. It is important to understand that wholistic programs are not necessarily large-scale programs. Wholistic programs are programs that are unified, clearly conceptualized, related attempts to address all the possible growth needs of parents/trainers. While large-scale, wholistic programs could be attempted (large centers, multidisciplinary staff, extensive funding, many participants), wholistic approaches can also be done on a small scale. In fact, this principle suggests that small, slow, steady, and consolidated growth would be the most appropriate for programs. In using the outlines, local planners must assess how this principle might help to ensure quality in programs, and thus, how it can direct decision-making about the most viable scope for local program efforts.



### The Principle of Diagnosis and Ongoing Development

The well being of the program will be protected by regular assessment of the functioning of the program in terms of the adopted patterns (outlines) which identify the aspects of the program that must be effectively addressed for the purpose of continuing program development.

Once a program is established, there is often a tendency to keep repeating activities which have been carried out in the past. This tendency can continue even if program participants have identified weaknesses in the program. On the other hand, some programs can be continually changing in response to identified weaknesses. Both styles reflect the continued conflict that exists between establishing structure and being responsive to needs.

This principle addresses this fundamental organic tension by emphasizing the need for establishing, right from the beginning, an ordered process of ongoing growth for programs. It suggests that unless there is some formal means of regular program assessment and development, changes can be either sporadic or non-existent.

Deciding how success is to be measured in programs is something that needs to be looked at in the planning stages. Once program goals are set, it must be determined how it can be assessed if the goals have been achieved. From a practical point of view, where ongoing funding of programs is often based on the ability to demonstrate success, carefully executed evaluation of programs becomes critical to their ongoing existence. When an organic framework is used, it

becomes particularly important because the ongoing actualization of potential in humans assumes the ability to assess the past and plan for the future.

In past parent program efforts, unclear or too broad goals made it difficult to determine program success. The conceptual outline presented here is certainly an attempt to address this problem and clarify and specify goals. If the outline was operationalized, a number of research designs could be utilized to measure if goals had been achieved. It seems to me it would be possible to measure what information parents had gained, which experiences were most meaningful for gaining information and skills, and which skills were developed. It would also be possible to assess how the three dimensions were integrated in competency areas, as well as determine how the new competencies effected child-rearing practices.

Once local planners decide on the scope of their program goals, there are many research designs that could be appropriate (i.e., pre- and post-testing, using control vs. experimental groups, inventory and observational data, longitudinal follow-up with parents, measuring success of children whose parents participate). In their review of parent programs, Croake and Glover (1977), Pickarts and Fargo (1971), Hess (1977), and Schlossman (1976) make suggestions for evaluation methodology for parent education that could be a useful guide for planners.

### The Principle of Coordination

The principle of organic order in the whole program will be assured by administrative processes which seek to apply and implement the four principles articulated above by allocating resources in a manner which helps to coordinate the actions of the program participants in relation to utilizing and developing the patterns (outlines).

The functioning of many small program development groups and implementation teams must obviously proceed with some kind of coordination. There needs to be communication between groups, organization of resources, and in many cases, scheduling of times so that groups can function in a cooperative manner. In many typical programs, the coordination is cared for by a central administration which makes all the decisions as to the overall program organization. Given the previous principles, clearly, this type of approach would be problematic.

This principle emphasizes the need for the administrators of programs to use the organic principles outlined above and to be committed to the outline conceptualization. This means the administrator would be seen as a person who coordinates decision-making, but does not make all decisions. Since the administrator often controls the resources of the program (money, space, time, materials), these tools need to be used in a way that encourages participation and small-scale development, and which reflect the priorities of the program as identified in the regular assessment.

### The Next Step--Implementation

These five principles are the best advice I can offer for local planners who will be engaged in parent education and parent trainer program development. From my own experience in developing parent programs, I realize that they do not answer every practical question. They do not suggest techniques for how to get parents involved in programs, how to solve the problem of arranging appropriate times so fathers can participate, how to recruit appropriate trainees, how to get local or national funding, or how to gather community support or interest. Nor do they assure program success. They do not promise that gradual growth will be easy, or that group decision-making will go smoothly. Like the outlines in Chapters IV and V, they simply offer clear, but very careful guidelines. The outlines and the principles are of one piece, to be effective they must be understood and used by energetic, committed, concerned persons who are convinced of the need for organic and wholistic programs, and who are willing to join with others to search out the answers to practical questions in their own situations. The next step must be actual implementation. When this has been done in several local situations, it will be possible to say more about realistic solutions to practical program development problems.



C O N C L U S I O N  
TO END--IN ORDER TO BEGIN

This work has really had five major goals. These have been to:  
1) document the need for parent education; 2) present a rationale for why organic approaches are needed in parent education; 3) develop an organic framework to be used for generating programs that is both scholarly and practical; 4) provide a comprehensive and valuable resource catalog of relevant parent education materials; and 5) generate interest and enthusiasm on the part of those people vitally concerned about parents and children to undertake the necessary program development tasks to make organic models of parent education available in the future.

Chapter I focused primarily on accomplishing the first goal and does present a very thorough documentation of the need for future planning for more universally available parent education programs. Chapter III dealt with the second goal, and presents, I think, a convincing rationale for organic models and methods through a careful explanation of present educational trends, popular reactions to mechanistic notions, Whiteheadian philosophy and the Anisa organic category scheme. Chapters IV and V address the third goal by applying the organic assumptions to parent education and generating a comprehensive and realistic conceptualization of parent and trainer program components. Although the framework must be tested, I think

it is a scholarly contribution that offers a focused direction for future programs. Chapter II and the Appendix bibliographies and course outlines accomplish the fourth goal by offering the reader a very substantial compilation of resources relevant to the parent education field.

It is difficult to judge now whether the fifth goal has been accomplished. It is my intention to get involved myself in trying to put theory into practice and actualize this conceptualization in my own local setting. Perhaps, in a few years, a second volume that reports the results of these efforts will complement, supplement, or modify what has been said here. I can only hope that many others, perhaps sparked by ideas presented here, will begin to do the same in their situations, and that in the future, we will be able to learn from each other's experiences, and effective organic parent education models will become widely available to serve parents and children. In some ways, I feel this work is only an introduction to the task, and ending the discussion is really just a beginning. There is a great deal still to be done.

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## APPENDIX



Doctoral Training Program for Parent Educators

The parent educator program is a competency based program designed to ensure that each student can attain mastery of the knowledge and skills necessary to be an effective professional in this field. The direction of the program is to help each student develop as fully as possible their knowing and loving potentialities as persons and parent educators. We feel it is essential that they are competent as what they do as well as love what they are doing.

To attain mastery as a parent educator, we feel it is necessary to have knowledge, experiences and skills in three important areas. These areas are: Human Relations, Teaching, and Administration. The following course outlines flesh out the range of knowledge, experiences and skills seen as necessary for being competent in each of these three areas.

For each course, a brief description, a listing of knowledge, experiences and skills required for successful completion of the course, and bibliography for the person who will conduct the class are presented. This format was chosen because it provides maximum direction yet maximum flexibility enabling the instructor to have guidance in outlining the actual course syllabi as well as the opportunity to plan with individual student needs and appropriate methodology in mind.

Graduate Program: Parent Education

Course listing.

1. Integrating Seminar
2. Competency Beyond Knowing: Developing a New Professional
3. Philosophy and Theory for Educators
4. Critical Issues in Parent and Family Life Education
5. Human Development I: Infancy
6. Human Development II: Childhood
7. Human Development III: Adolescence
8. Human Development IV: Adulthood
9. Helping Techniques I
10. Helping Techniques II
11. Helping Techniques Practicum
12. Family Counseling
13. Developing a Model for Parent and Family Life Education I
14. Developing a model for Parent and Family Life Education II
15. Administering Parent Education Programs
16. Parent Education Practicum
17. Independent Study

TITLE:           INTEGRATING SEMINAR

DESCRIPTION: Every semester a 2-credit seminar will be required for all students in the parent education program to provide an opportunity for them to discuss and integrate their experiences with the issues raised in the various courses. Because the program is planned to be individualized, students may be taking some courses at various times, or may be taking varied courses depending on interest and expertise. The seminar will provide a forum for identifying and exploring those issues that individuals feel cut across and connect the areas of study required for parent educators. The content of the course will be flexible depending on the needs of the students.

The format will vary: discussions, lectures, etc. Attendance and active participation in these seminars is mandatory, but no additional reading or writing assignments will be required.

TITLE: COMPETENCY BEYOND KNOWING: DEVELOPING A NEW PROFESSIONAL

DESCRIPTION: It has become increasingly clear that human service professionals must have high quality, rigorous training and preparation for their work if they are to be effective. This course is designed to emphasize often overlooked aspects of that training--human relations, human rights, and self-development. As the title suggests, competency involves more than just intellectual knowing. It also involves developing one's loving capacities, including loving what one does. Among the topics to be discussed and explored in this course are: (1) definitions of love and loving; (2) forming relationships; (3) becoming a helping professional; (4) community development; (5) self-knowledge; (6) the role of ideals in human life; (7) values clarification; (8) moral development; and (9) empathy.

The course will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. Definitions of love and loving

- a. Philosophical perspectives
- b. Psychological perspectives
- c. Theological perspectives

2. Definitions of human rights

a. Theory

- (1) Philosophical perspectives
- (2) Psychological perspectives
- (3) Theological perspectives
- (4) Sociological perspectives

b. Practice (the helping skills related to human rights advocacy)



3. Comprehensive definitions of self-competency
    - a. Self-discipline
    - b. Self-esteem
    - c. Self-concept
    - d. Relationship to other areas of competence
  4. Affective Development
    - a. Major theories
    - b. Application to one's own development
  5. Relationship formation and community development
    - a. Major theories
    - b. Application to one's own development
  6. Self-knowledge
    - a. Major theories
    - b. Application to one's own development
  7. The role of ideals
    - a. Moral development
    - b. Values clarification
  8. Human relations--helping skills (survey only)
- B. Gaining experience with:
1. Exercises--self-knowledge
  2. Exercises--family sculpturing
  3. Exercises--values clarification
  4. Exercises--moral dilemma decision making
  5. Assessing others' needs using roletaking/empathy
  6. Interviewing children and adults about important characteristics of people who help them

7. Directed self-reflection
8. Being in counselor role
9. Being in counselee role
10. Conducting discussion groups using effective methodology
11. Creative self-development activities .
12. Being in a service role for an extended time and being evaluated in that role

C. Developing skills in:

1. Human relations
  - a. Observation/diagnosis
  - b. Active listening
  - c. Expressing feelings
  - d. Empathy
  - e. Roletaking
  - f. Effective confrontation
  - g. Problem-solving
  - h. Receiving feedback
2. Group leadership
3. Self-development
  - a. Assessing one's needs
  - b. Meeting one's needs
  - c. Self-evaluation
  - d. Self-acceptance
  - e. Self-modification
4. Instrument development
5. Personal/professional decision-making

RESOURCES: COMPETENCY BEYOND KNOWING: DEVELOPING A NEW PROFESSIONAL

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- Weinstein, G.; Hardin, J.; Weinstein, M. Education of the Self: A Trainer's Manual. Amherst, MA: Mandala Press, 1976.



TITLE: PHILOSOPHY AND THEORY FOR EDUCATORS

DESCRIPTION: A brief survey of philosophy will be presented and students will be encouraged to determine their own philosophy of life and how it might influence educational practice. The notions of "theory" and "model" will be explored. Several educational models, including the Anisa Model, will be reviewed and compared. The fundamental propositions of the Anisa theory will be presented, with emphasis on the theory of development. One of the purposes of the course is to give students an opportunity to accept or reject the Anisa Model after having explored alternatives.

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. Educational philosophy and theory
  - a. Definitions
  - b. History
  - c. Major works
2. Relationship between philosophy, theory and practice
3. Examples of theoretical models for education

B. Gaining experience with:

1. Exercises in determining one's philosophy
2. Exercises in drawing practical implications from philosophy and theory
3. Exercises in theory construction
4. Exercises in teaching adults about philosophy and theory
5. Exercises in comparing educational models
6. Observation of an educational model in practice

C. Developing skills in:

1. Facilitating learning about philosophy and theory (teaching adults)
  - a. Giving lectures
  - b. Leading discussions
  - c. Conducting exercises

## RESOURCES: PHILOSOPHY AND THEORY FOR EDUCATORS

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Whitehead, A. N. Adventures of Ideas. New York: Free Press, 1967.

Whitehead, A. N. The Aims of Education. New York: Free Press, 1967.

Whitehead, A. N. Modes of Thought. New York: Free Press, 1968.

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TITLE: CRITICAL ISSUES IN PARENT AND FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION

DESCRIPTION: What is an effective parent? What is the role of the family? What is a healthy family? How do parents and family life affect people's development over the entire life cycle? Is parent and family life education really necessary? What format should it take? Who should do it? This course is designed to deal with these and other critical issues from the perspective of the social sciences (anthropology, history, sociology, psychology). The focus of the course will be on identifying and discussing the key human development issues that need to be addressed by parent and family life education programs in the future.

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. History of the family
2. Family structure in various cultural and ethnic groups
3. Conceptual frameworks for studying the family
4. Identifying key issues in parent and family life education
  - a. What are the key human development issues to be addressed by parent and family life programs?
  - b. What are the philosophical assumptions underlying programs?
  - c. What are the goals of programs?
  - d. Parent education versus parent involvement in schools.
  - e. Are there universal parenting behaviors? How are they identified? How are they facilitated?
  - f. Who should do parent education: schools, churches, government?

- g. What are the key value issues? What are the moral goals?
  - h. How is success of programs defined?
  - i. Who trains personnel? What level of training is necessary?
  - j. Home versus class programs.
  - k. Universal participation.
  - l. Flexibility of programs.
  - m. Where does funding come from?
  - n. Preparation for parenthood for adolescents.
- 5. Identifying experts in this field, understanding their views, opinions, assumptions, and directions
  - 6. Locating and reviewing key sources of information in this field
  - 7. Reviewing existing parent education programs and models
  - 8. Reviewing methodology for parent and family life education
  - 9. Identifying sources of materials appropriate for parents and children
- B. Gaining experience with:
- 1. Developing interview schedules or checklists
  - 2. Interviewing families, teachers, and social service providers about critical issues
  - 3. Participating in one parent education program and assessing its pros and cons
  - 4. Sharing family experiences with different ethnic, cultural groups
  - 5. Conducting discussion groups using effective methodology
  - 6. Participating in exercises drawn from models of parent education and assessing pros and cons

7. Observing group process
  8. Using various self-knowledge techniques
  9. Writing review papers on various topics
- C. Developing skills in:
1. Critical analysis and conceptual review of ideas and materials
  2. Research and library techniques
  3. Leading discussions with adults
  4. Human relations:
    - a. Observation
    - b. Interviewing/active listening
    - c. Facilitating groups (monitoring group process and helping groups accomplish goals)
  5. Instrument development
  6. Evaluation of programs
  7. Evaluating personal experiences
  8. Writing, editing

RESOURCES: CRITICAL ISSUES IN PARENT AND FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION

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- Bane, Mary Jo. Here to Stay: American Families in the Twentieth Century. New York: Basic Books, 1976.
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TITLE: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT I: INFANCY

DESCRIPTION: The growth and development of the child from conception to age three will be surveyed. Students will be expected to come away with a general understanding of the course of development in the following areas: psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective, and volitional. Since a major emphasis of the course will be the relationship of child development to parenting and family life, other topics will include: maternal nutrition during pregnancy and lactation, preparation for childbirth, family reorganization, basic infant care, health and safety, nutrition for the young child, sibling relationships, role of the father, role of the mother, individual differences, moral and social development, and language development.

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. Human development in infancy
2. Prenatal development and child birth
3. Basic infant care
4. Health and safety

B. Gaining experience with:

1. Spending time with infants in play and in basic care
2. Observing and working with families with infants
3. Interviewing one's parents about own pregnancy, birth, and first three years

C. Developing skills in:

Facilitating learning about infants (teaching adults)

Possible course outline as fleshed out by one instructor:

- I. Deciding to have a family (1 hour)
  - A. How to decide
  - B. Role of father and mother
  - C. Common issues
  - D. Practicum: Role-play a discussion with a couple
- II. Nutrition (4-6 hours)
  - A. During pregnancy
  - B. Breastfeeding--how to help people decide
  - C. Introducing solids--making your own baby food
  - D. Practicum: Gather materials and resources to help parents
- III. Prenatal development, childbirth, post-partum and characteristics of the newborn (10-12 hours)
  - A. Prenatal development and changes for the mother at each stage
  - B. Process of childbirth
  - C. Legal rights of parents
  - D. Newborn--characteristics, possible problems, circumcision
  - E. Bonding in the first 24 hours
  - F. Post-partum
  - G. Practicum: Gather materials, pictures, films, pamphlets, etc., for parents; view birth or film of birth; talk to parents about their experience
- IV. Basic infant care (3-4 hours)
  - A. Sleeping
  - B. Feeding
  - C. Elimination
  - D. Safety
  - E. Bathing
  - F. Diapers
  - G. Holding
  - H. Traveling
  - I. Temperature
  - J. Clothing
  - K. Fresh air
  - L. Schedules
  - M. Practicum: Students should have experience bathing, feeding, and diapering an infant if they have never done so
- V. Development of intelligence (10-12 hours)



- A. Cognitive development--changes from 0-3 years and how to facilitate growth
- B. Perceptual development--facilitating growth
- C. Language development--facilitating growth
- D. Volitional development--facilitating growth
- E. Role of play in development
- F. Practicum: Play with and/or observe at least 3 different children at different stages of development; gather materials and resources for parents

#### VI. Affective development (3-4 hours)

- A. Attachment
- B. Separation anxiety
- C. Development of trust
- D. Touching
- E. Emotional development
- F. Working mothers--options
- G. Practicum: Role-Playing or discussion on how to help mothers and fathers balance a life of their own with giving the child what he needs

#### VII. Psychomotor development (4 hours)

- A. Psychomotor development from 0-3
- B. How to facilitate psychomotor development--arranging environments, massage, exercises
- C. Practicum: Spend at least 2 hours (over several days) with a child or children concentrating on psychomotor development

#### VIII. Social development (3 hours)

- A. Early social development--mother infant interaction
- B. Relations with siblings, peers, grandparents, other adults
- C. Learning responsibility
- D. Practicum: Spend some time with infants in a group setting

#### IX. Health and safety (2 hours)

- A. Buying baby furniture
- B. Immunizations
- C. Common illnesses and how to care for them
- D. Child-proofing the house
- E. Traveling
- F. Care of teeth
- G. Common emergencies--how to prevent them and how to care for them

- X. Moral development and discipline (4 hours)
  - A. Ground rules
  - B. Problem-solving (consultation)
  - C. Types of punishment
  - D. Honesty (e.g., keeping promises, explaining death, etc.)
  - E. Practicum: Role-playing on answering common problems of parents
  
- XI. Raising a child free from prejudice (3 hours)
  - A. Sex-role identification
  - B. National/racial/religious identification
  - C. Knowing who you are and appreciating diversity
  - D. The subtle ways prejudices are taught and how to stop yourself
  - E. Practicum: Role-playing of interrupting prejudiced acts of parents
  
- XII. Families that are different (3 hours)
  - A. Single parents
  - B. Adopting a child
  - C. Handicapped children
  - D. Practicum: Compile list of community resources
  
- XIII. Miscellaneous subjects (2 hours)
  - A. Toilet training
  - B. Television
  - C. Other topics as they arise

## RESOURCES: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT I: INFANCY

Textbooks

Brackbill, Yvonne, ed. Infancy and Early Childhood. New York: Free Press, 1967.

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Ambrose, Anthony, ed. Stimulation in Early Infancy. London: Academic Press, 1969.

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Beals, Peg, ed. Parent's Guide to the Child-Bearing Year. Rochester, N.Y.: International Childbirth Education Association, 1975.

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Schaffer, Rudolph. Mothering. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1977.

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Brazelton, T. Berry. Infants and Mothers: Differences in Development. New York: Dell, 1969.

Brazelton, T. Berry. Doctor and Child. New York: Delacorte Press, 1976.

Brazelton, T. Berry. Toddlers and Parents: A Declaration of Independence. New York: Delacorte Press, 1974.

Brewer, Gail; and Brewer, Tom. What Every Pregnant Woman Should Know. New York: Random, 1977.

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Castle, Sue. The Complete Guide to Preparing Baby Foods at Home. New York: Doubleday, 1973.

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Dodson, Fitzhugh. How to Father. New York: New American Library, 1974.

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- Eiger and Olds. The Complete Book of Breastfeeding. New York: Bantam, 1973.
- Ginott, Haim G. Between Parent and Child. New York: Avon Books, 1965.
- Gordon, Ira J. Baby Learning Through Baby Play: A Parents' Guide for the First Two Years. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1970.
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- Kitzinger, Sheila. Giving Birth. New York: Schocken, 1977.
- Jones, Sandy. Good Things for Babies. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1976.
- Leach, Penelope. Babyhood. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1976.
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- Montagu, Ashley. Life Before Birth. New York: New American Library, 1964.
- Nilsson, Lennart, et.al. A Child Is Born. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1977.
- Noble, Elizabeth. Essential Exercises for the Childbearing Year. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1976.
- North, A. Frederick. Infant Care. New York: Arco Publishing Co., 1975.
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- Pryor, Karen. Nursing Your Baby. New York: Pocket Books, 1973.
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- Shiller, Jack. Childhood Illness. New York: Stein and Day, 1974.

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Streepey, Sandra. Your Child from Birth to Two Years: A Guide to Educational Materials. New York: The Learning Child, Inc., 1971.

Whelan, Elizabeth. A Baby?--Maybe. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1975.

White, Burton L. The First Three Years of Life. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975.

Worthington, Bonnie; and Williams, S. R. Nutrition in Pregnancy and Lactation. St. Louis: Mosby, 1977.

TITLE: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT II: CHILDHOOD

DESCRIPTION: The basic child development literature will be surveyed: the psychomotor, perceptual, cognitive, affective and volitional development of children, ages 3 to 12 years. Since a major emphasis of the course will be the relationship of child development to parenting and family life, additional topics will include: Sibling relationships, moral and social development, communication and problem-solving, independence, home-school relationships, sex education, television, nutrition and exercise.

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. Stages of child development, ages 3 to 12, in the five areas of psychological potentiality:
  - a. affective
  - b. cognitive
  - c. perceptual
  - d. psychomotor
  - e. volition
2. Parenting and family life related to this group
3. Sibling relationships
4. Peer group relationships
5. Moral and social development
6. Communication and problem-solving
7. Home-school relationship
8. Child abuse and neglect
9. Sex education

10. Influence of television and other media

11. Nutrition and exercise

B. Gaining experience with:

1. Observing and working with children ages 3 to 12

2. Observing and working with families with children in this age group

3. Applying theory to practice

4. Reflecting on own childhood

C. Developing skills in:

1. Communication and problem-solving

2. Diagnosing developmental levels of children and families

3. Applying theory to practice

4. Teaching children in this age group

5. Teaching parents about child growth and development



## RESOURCES: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT II: CHILDHOOD

- Aries, Philippe. Centuries of Childhood: A Social History of Family Life. New York: Vintage Books, 1960.
- Blair, Arthur W.; and Burton, William H. Growth and Development of the Preadolescent. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1951.
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- Erikson, Erik H. Childhood and Society. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1963.
- Florell, John H. The Development of Role-Taking and Communication Skills in Children. Huntington, NY: Krieger Publishing Co., 1975.
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- Graham, Douglas. Moral Learning and Development: Theory and Research. New York: Wiley-Interscience, 1972.
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- Liebert, Robert M.; Neale, John M.; and Davidson, Emily S. The Early Window: Effects of Television on Children and Youth. New York: Pergamon Press, Inc., 1973.
- Lynn, D. B. The Father: His Role in Child Development. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole, 1974.
- Murray, J. P.; Rubinstein, E. A.; and Comstock, G. A., eds. Television and Social Behavior. Volume 2: Television and Social Learning. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972.
- Mussen, P. H.; Conger, J. J.; and Kagan, J. Child Development and Personality, fourth edition. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1974.
- Phillips, John L., Jr. The Origins of Intellect: Piaget's Theory. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman and Company, 1969.
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- Porter, Judith D. R. Black Child, White Child: The Development of Racial Attitudes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1971.
- Ritchie, Oscar W. and Koller, Marvin R. Sociology of Childhood. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964.
- Rutstein, Nathan. Go Watch TV: What and How Much Should Children Really Watch? New York: Sheed and Ward, Inc., 1974.

TITLE: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT III: ADOLESCENCE

DESCRIPTION: The basic theories of adolescent development will be surveyed. All the areas of development (psychomotor, perceptual, affective, cognitive, volitional) will be looked at with special focus on social and moral growth. Since a major emphasis of the course will be facilitating the growth of the adolescent within the family, some important topics to be included are: the impact of puberty, sex education, establishing relationships outside the family, peer groups, identity and independence, decision making and responsibility, role of ideals, learning to love, career choices, communication and problem-solving, the step to adulthood, dealing with value issues (drinking, drugs, religion, sex, etc.).

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. Cognitive development
2. Personality development
3. Moral development
4. Relations with authority
5. Relations with family
6. Relations with school
7. Peer influences
8. Sex/Sex education methodology
9. Affective development
10. Volitional development
11. Self-esteem

12. Cultural influences
  13. Theories of adolescent development
  14. Individual differences
  15. Early adolescence
  16. Pathology and psychopathology
  17. Creativity
  18. Religion and values
  19. Vocational choice
- B. Gaining experience with:
1. Working with adolescents
  2. Working with parents of adolescents
- C. Developing skills in:
1. Facilitating adolescent development
    - a. Arranging environments
    - b. Guiding interactions
  2. Teaching parents of adolescents



## RESOURCES: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT III: ADOLESCENCE

- Bier, William C., ed. The Adolescent: His Search For Understanding. Fordham, 1963.
- Committee on Adolescence, Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry. Normal Adolescence. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1968.
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- Esman, Aaron H., ed. The Psychology of Adolescence. New York: International Universities Press, 1975.
- Friedenberg, Edgar Z. Coming of Age in America. New York: Random House, 1965.
- Gattegno, Caleb. The Adolescent and His Will. New York: Outerbridge and Dienstfrey, 1971.
- Goodman, Paul. Growing Up Absurd. New York: Random, 1960.
- Horricks, John E. The Psychology of Adolescence. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1976.
- James, Charity. Beyond Customs: An Educator's Journey. New York: Agathon Press, 1974.
- Kagan, Jerome and Coles, Robert, eds. Twelve to Sixteen: Early Adolescence. New York: Norton, 1972.
- Kett, Joseph R. Rites of Passage. New York: Basic Books, 1977.
- Levi, Lennart, ed. Society, Stress, and Disease. Volume 2: Childhood and Adolescence. London: Oxford University Press, 1975.
- McCandless, Boyd R. Children and Adolescents. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961.
- Miller, Derek. Adolescence: Psychology, Psychopathology, and Psychotherapy. New York: Jason Aronson, 1974.
- Mitchell, John J. The Adolescent Predicament. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston of Canada, 1975.

- Muus, Rolf E., ed. Adolescent Behavior and Society. New York: Random House, 1968.
- Purnell, Richard F., ed. Adolescents and the American High School. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1970.
- Schneiders, Alexander A. Adolescents and the Challenge of Maturity. Milwaukee: Bruce, 1965.
- Sherif, Muzafer and Sherif, Carolyn W., eds. Problems of Youth. New York: McGraw Hill, 1971.
- Thornburg, Hershhal D., ed. Contemporary Adolescence: Readings. Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole, 1971.
- United States President's Advisory Committee. Panel on Youth. Youth: Transition to Adulthood. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974.
- Wattenberg, William W. The Adolescent Years. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., 1973.
- Weiner, Irving B. and Elkind, David. Child Development: A Core Approach. New York: Wiley, 1972.
- Winter, Gerald D. and Nuss, Eugene M. The Young Adult: Identity and Awareness. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, 1969.

#### Books for Parents

- Ginott, Haim G. Between Parent and Teenager. New York: Macmillan, 1969.
- Gordon, Thomas. Parent Effectiveness Training. New York: New American Library, 1970.
- Stevens, Anita and Freeman, Lucy. I Hate My Parents. New York: Cowles, 1970.

TITLE: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IV: ADULTHOOD

DESCRIPTION: Human development is ongoing--from birth to death. This course will focus on stages of adult growth. With emphasis on more recent studies of adulthood, this course will include such topics as: tasks of adulthood (psychomotor, perceptual, affective, cognitive, volitional), establishing relationships, friendship, intimacy, integration and self-actualization, changing goals and roles, marriage and parenting roles, extended family, dealing with illness, old age, and death.

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. Stages of adult growth and development
2. Changing goals and roles of adulthood
  - a. Single
  - b. Marriage and family
  - c. Parenthood and family life
  - d. Old age
3. Male and female adulthood
  - a. Aging process
    - i. Work, retirement, and leisure
    - ii. Illness
4. Adult education
5. Death and dying
  - a. Loss of relatives and friends
  - b. Terminal illness
  - c. Preparing for death

B. Gaining experience with:

1. Reflecting on own experience in various stages of adulthood
2. Working with adults at various stages
3. Applying theory to practice

C. Developing skills in:

1. Facilitating group interaction with adults
2. Translating theory practice
3. Diagnosing and prescribing based on adult developmental levels
4. Active listening and communicating
5. Conducting self-knowledge experiences



## RESOURCES: HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IV: ADULTHOOD

- Busse, Ewald W. and Pfeiffer, Etic, eds. Behavior and Adaptation in Late Life. Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., 1969.
- Fried, Barbara. The Middle-Age Crisis. New York: Harper & Row, 1967.
- Kephert, William M. The Family, Society, and the Individual. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, Co., 1972.
- Kimmel, Douglas C. Adulthood and Aging: An Interdisciplinary, Developmental View. New York: Wiley and Sons, 1974.
- Kubler-Ross, Elizabeth. On Death and Dying. New York: Macmillan, 1969.
- Kubler-Ross, Elizabeth. Questions and Answers on Death and Dying. New York: Macmillan, 1974.
- Levin, S. and Kahana, R. J., eds. Psychodynamic Studies on Aging: Creativity, Reminiscing, and Dying. New York: International Universities Press, 1967.
- Lidz, Theodore. The Person: His Development Throughout the Life Cycle. New York: Basic Books, 1968.
- Maslow, Abraham H. Toward a Psychology of Being. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1962.
- McLeish, John A. The Ulyssean Adult: Creativity in the Middle and Later Years. New York: McGraw-Hill, Ryerson, Ltd., 1976.
- Mead, Margaret. Culture and Commitment: A Study of the Generation Gap. New York: Doubleday, 1970.
- Miller, Arthur. Death of a Salesman.
- Neugarten, Bernice L., ed. Middle Age and Aging. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968.
- Neugarten, Bernice L., ed. Personality in Middle and Late Life. New York: Atherton Press, 1964.
- Riley, M. W. and Foner, A. An Inventory of Research Findings. Aging and Society. Volume I. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1968.
- Rokeach, M. Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1968.

Sheehy, Gail. Passages: Predictable Crises of Adult Life. New York: Dutton, 1976.

Simon, Anne W. The New Years: A New Middle Age. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1968.

Smith, Robert M.; Aker, George F.; and Klad, J. R. Handbook of Adult Education. New York: Macmillan, 1970.

Tibbitts, Clark, ed. Handbook of Social Gerontology. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969.

Vedder, Clyde B., ed. Problems of the Middle-Aged. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, Publishers, 1965.

TITLE:           HELPING TECHNIQUES I

DESCRIPTION: The purpose of this course is to assist the human services professional to be an effective helper. How does the way we communicate affect one's ability to be helped? Are there techniques of counseling that can be applied to a non-counseling situation? What are the dynamics of the group process in a helping situation? How can knowledge of the self increase one's ability to be an effective human service professional? Do emotions and feelings have anything to do with a professional's effectiveness or acceptance by the individual(s) being helped? These are some of the issues that will be explored by reviewing various theories in each area and applying them to a helping situation.

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

Communication theory

2. Counseling theory

3. Group dynamics and group process

4. Helping relationships

5. Dynamics of personal change

6. Family therapy (survey only)

B. Gaining experience with:

1. Interviewing

2. Being the helper

3. Being the helped

4. Facilitating a group process

5. Exercises and practice of communication skills
  6. Techniques of self-evaluation
  7. Giving and receiving feedback about helping skills
- C. Developing skills in:
1. Assessing human relations
    - a. Observing
    - b. Diagnosing
    - c. Analyzing
    - d. Making planned interventions
    - e. Interviewing
    - f. Testing
  2. Facilitating human relations
    - a. Listening
    - b. Self-disclosure and confrontation
    - c. Problem-solving
    - d. Personal interviewing
    - e. Group dynamics
    - f. Micro-counseling
  3. Self-evaluation



## RESOURCES: HELPING TECHNIQUES I

- Arnold, E., ed. Helping Parents Help Their Children. New York: Brunner/Hazel Publishers, 1978.
- Bandler, R.; Grinder, J.; Satir, V. Changing with Families: A Book About Further Education for Being Human. Palo Alto, CA: Science and Behavior Books, Inc., 1976.
- Bergevin, P. E. Group Processes for Adult Education. New York: Seabury Press, 1950.
- Benjamin, A. The Helping Interview. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1974.
- Bennis, W. G., et.al., eds. Interpersonal Dynamics: Essays and Readings on Human Interaction. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press, 1964.
- Bonner, H. Group Dynamics: Principles and Applications. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1959.
- Branmer, L. M. The Helping Relationship: Process and Skills. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1973.
- Bullmer, K. The Art of Empathy: A Manual for Improving Accuracy of Interpersonal Perception. New York: Human Sciences Press, 1975.
- Caplan, R. Helping the Helpers to Help. New York: The Seabury Press, 1972.
- Cartwright, D., ed. Group Dynamics: Research and Theory. New York: Harper & Row, 1968.
- Cathcart, R. S., and Samovar, L. A., eds. Small Group Communication: A Reader. Dubuque, IA: W. C. Brown Publishers, 1970.
- Carkhuff, R. R. Helping and Human Relations: A Primer for Lay and Professional Helpers. New York: Holt, Rinehart, 1970.
- Carkhuff, R. R. The Art of Helping: An Introduction to Life Skills. Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press, 1976.
- Combs, A.; Avila, D.; and Purhey W. Helping Relationships: Basic Concepts for the Helping Professions. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971.
- Corsini, R., ed. Current Psychotherapies. Itasca, IL: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1973.

- Dahlstrom, E. C. Helping Human Beings: The Ethics of Interpersonal Relations. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1964.
- Darnell, D. K. Brochriede. Persons Communicating. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1976.
- Devito, J. A. Communication: Concepts and Processes. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1976.
- Dinkmeyer, D. C. Group Counseling: Theory and Practice. Itasca, IL: Peacock, 1971.
- Egan, G. The Skilled Helper. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1975.
- Egan, G. Face to Face: The Small-Group Experience and Interpersonal Growth. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1973.
- Elsenberg, A. M. Living Communication. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1975.
- Erickson, C. E. The Counseling Interview. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1950.
- Gazda, G. M.; Asbury, F. R.; Balzer, F. J., et.al. Human Relations Development: A Manual for Educators. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1977.
- Goldsberg, A. A. Group Communication: Discussion Processes and Applications. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1975.
- Gordon, T. Teacher Effectiveness Training. New York: Peter Wyden Publishers, 1974.
- Guerin, Phillip J. "Family Therapy: The First Twenty-Five Years. In Family Therapy: Theory and Practice edited by Phillip J. Guerin. New York: Gardner Press, 1976.
- Ivey, Allen E. Microcounseling: Innovations in Interviewing Training. Springfield, IL: Thomas Press, 1971.
- Katz, R. L. Empathy, Its Nature and Uses. London: Free Press, 1963.
- Kennedy, E. On Becoming a Counselor: A Basic Guide for Non-Professional Counselors. New York: Seabury Press, 1977.
- Krumboltz, J. D., and Thoresen, C. E., eds. Counseling Methods. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1976.

- Krupar, K. P. Communication Games: Participants Manual. New York: Free Press, 1973.
- Loevinger, Jane. Ego Development. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1976.
- Mahoney, S. C. The Art of Helping People Effectively. New York: Association Press, 1967.
- Mortenson, C. D. Communication: The Study of Human Interaction. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.
- Myers, G. E.; Myers, M. T. The Dynamics of Human Communication: A Laboratory Approach. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973.
- Rogers, C. "A Theory of Therapy, Personality and Interpersonal Relationships.: In Psychology: A Study of a Science, Volume III, edited by S. Koch. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959.
- Rogers, C. Freedom to Learn. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1969.
- Satir, V. Conjoint Family Therapy. Palo Alto, CA: Science and Behavior Books, Inc., 1967.
- Schlossberg, N. K., and Entine, A. D. Counseling Adults. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishers, 1977.
- Selye, H. Stress Without Distress. New York: New American Library, 1975.
- Stone, J. D., and Broden, G. A. Human Communication: The Process of Relating. Menlo Park, CA: Cummings Publishing Co., 1976.
- Weakland, John. "Communication Theory and Clinical Change." In Family Therapy: Theory and Practice edited by Phillip J. Guerin. New York: Gardner Press, Inc., 1976.
- Watzlawick, P.; Weakland, J.; and Fisch, R. Change. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1974.

TITLE:           HELPING TECHNIQUES II

DESCRIPTION: This is a continuation of Helping Techniques I. It will provide experience in applying the knowledge and skills discussed in Helping Techniques I to helping situations. Students will experience being the one helped as well as being the helper. Interviewing, diagnosing, and referral skills will also be developed.



TITLE:           HELPING TECHNIQUES PRACTICUM

DESCRIPTION: This is a supervised practicum in a human service area related to parenting or family services and education. The service role will be for the entire semester and various reporting and feedback methods will be used to evaluate the development of helping skills by the students. Helping Techniques I and II or permission of the instructor are prerequisites for this course.

TITLE: FAMILY COUNSELING

DESCRIPTION: This course will present the major theories in family counseling (e.g., conjoint, structural, strategic, etc.) Each class will be a balance of theory, discussion, and experiences which demonstrate the application of each model.

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. The family as a system:

- a. Systems theory applied to families
- b. Family rules
- c. Studying one's own family

2. Modes of family assessment

- a. Family developmental stages
- b. Communication patterns
- c. Family myths
- d. Bowen therapy
- e. Structural therapy
- f. Strategic therapy
- g. Expressive modes of assessment
  - i. Family sculpting
  - ii. Family art
  - iii. Puppet interviews

3. Relationship of family counseling to parent education

B. Gaining experience with:

- 1. Applying various theories in role play situations

2. Family sculpting
  3. Developing genogram of own family of origin and of another family
  4. Conducting an interview with a family
  5. Exploring one's values and attitudes toward families by:
    - a. Analyzing a play or novel about a family and comparing to own family of origin
    - b. Coaching as used in Bowen Therapy to facilitate self-differentiation
- C. Developing skills in:
1. Diagnosing family developmental levels
  2. Analyzing families in terms of patterns, rules, myths, and interactions
  3. Interviewing families
  4. Conducting family sculpting, art, and puppet interviews

## RESOURCES: FAMILY COUNSELING

- Ackerman, N. "Family Psychotherapy--Theory and Practice." American Journal of Psychotherapy, 20 (1966).
- Ackerman, N. Treating the Troubled Family. New York: Basic Books, 1966.
- Beels, C., and Ferber, A. "Family Therapy: A View.: Family Process, 8 (1969):280-318.
- Bing, E. "The Conjoint Family Drawing." Family Process, 9 (1970): 173-194.
- Boszormenyi-Nayl, I., and Spark, G. Invisible Loyalties. New York: Harper & Row, 1973.
- Bowen, M. "The Use of the Family in Clinical Practice. In Changing Families edited by Jay Haley. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1971.
- Bowen, M. "Toward the Differentiation for a Self in One's Own Family." In Family Interaction edited by J. Framo. New York: Springer Publishers, 1975.
- Erickson, G. D., and Hogan, T. P. Family Therapy: An Introduction to Theory and Technique. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1972.
- Guerin, P., ed. Family Therapy: Theory and Practice. New York: Gardner Press, 1976.
- Haley, J. Problem-Solving Therapy. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishing, 1977.
- Haley, J. Changing Families: A Family Therapy Reader. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1971.
- Lederer, W., and Jackson, D. The Mirages of Marriage. New York: W. W. Norton, 1968.
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Papp, P.; Silverstein, O.; and Carter, E. "Family Sculpting in Preventive Work with Families." Family Process.

Patterson, G. Families: Applications of Social Learning to Family Life. New York: Research Press Co., 1971.

Rubin, J. A., and Magnussen, M. "A Family Art Evaluation." Family Process.

Satir, V. Conjoint Family Therapy. Palo Alto, CA: Science and Behavior Books, Inc., 1967.

Satir, V. Peoplemaking. Palo Alto, CA: Science and Behavior Books, Inc., 1974.

Simon, R. M. "Sculpting the Family." Family Process.

Watzlawick, P.; Weaklund, J.; and Fisch, R. Change. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1974.

TITLE:           DEVELOPING CURRICULA FOR PARENT EDUCATION AND FAMILY  
                  LIFE EDUCATION I AND II

DESCRIPTION: Students will be introduced to the basic principles of adult education and curriculum planning and will acquire skill in these areas by developing an actual program. Existing parent education models will be reviewed and analyzed critically (e.g., P.E.T., Home Start, Adlerian study groups, and High-Scope). Activities will include: exercises in adult education, designing programs, planning curricula, preparing materials, designing and preparing assessment and evaluation materials. Students may develop the curriculum for a particular program they may be working on.

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. Existing parent and family life education models
2. Curriculum development
3. Adult education
4. Materials development
5. Parent and family life education methodology
6. Assessment instruments
7. Evaluating educational programs

B. Gaining experience with:

1. Developing and implementing curricula
2. Evaluating curricula and programs
3. Developing assessment instruments to evaluate a program
4. Teaching parents of diverse backgrounds
5. Developing materials

C. Developing skills in:

1. Curriculum development
2. Program evaluation
3. Adapting curriculum to particular needs of parents
4. Materials design and construction
5. Facilitating adult learning

RESOURCES: DEVELOPING CURRICULA FOR PARENT EDUCATION AND FAMILY  
LIFE EDUCATION I AND II

Adult Education

See bibliography for course on Human Development IV: Adulthood.

Parent and Family Life Education Models

See bibliography for course on Critical Issues in Parent and Family Life Education.

Theory and Texts

Baird, Joan, and Keenan, Dorothy, eds. Family Life Education Re-examined: Applications for Teachers. American Home Economics Association, 1971.

Benson, Leonard. The Family Bond: Marriage, Love and Sex in America. New York: Random House, 1971.

Bigner, Jerry J. "Parent Education in Popular Literature: 1950-1970." The Family Coordinator, (July, 1972):313-319.

Christensen, Harold T., ed. Handbook of Marriage and the Family. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1964.

Department of Health and Social Security. The Family in Society: Dimensions of Parenthood. London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1974.

Grunebaum, Henry, and Christ, Jacob, eds. Contemporary Marriage: Structure, Dynamics and Therapy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1976.

Hadden, Jeffrey K., and Borgatta, Marie L., eds. Marriage and the Family. Itasca, IL: F. E. Peacock, 1969.

Kelley, Robert K. Courtship, Marriage and the Family. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1969.

Kephert, William M. The Family, Society and the Individual. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1972.

Laycock, S. R. Family Living and Sex Education. Toronto: Baxter Publishing, 1967.

LeMasters, E. E. Parents in Modern America. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press, 1974.



- Leslie, Gerald. The Family in Social Context. New York: Oxford University Press, 1973.
- Reiss, Ira L. The Family System in America. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971.
- Saxton, Lloyd. The Individual, Marriage and the Family. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1968.
- Schulz, Esther, and Williams, Sally R. Family Life and Sex Education: Curriculum and Instruction. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1969.
- Somerville, Rose M. Introduction to Family Life and Sex Education. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1972.
- Stroup, Atlee L. Marriage and Family: A Developmental Approach. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1966.
- Winch, Robert F., and Spanier, Graham, eds. Selected Studies in Marriage and the Family. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974.
- Wiseman, Jacqueline P., ed. People as Partners. San Francisco: Canfield Press, 1971.
- Womble, Dale L. Foundations for Marriage and Family Relations. New York: MacMillan, 1966.

### Evaluation

- Popham, W. James. Educational Evaluation. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1975.
- Worthen, Blaine R., and Sanders, James R. Educational Evaluation: Theory and Practice. Worthington, OH: Charles A. Jones, 1973.

### Methodology

- Hereford, Carl F. Changing Parental Attitudes Through Group Discussion. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press, 1963.
- National Council on Family Relations, compiled by Rebecca M. Smith. Resources for Teaching About Family Life Education. Minneapolis, MN: National Council on Family Relations, 1976.
- Satir, Virginia, Stachouriak, James, and Taschman, Harvey A. Helping Families to Change. New York: Jason Aronson, 1976.

### Curriculum

Eisener, Eliot, and Vallance, Elizabeth, eds. Conflicting Conceptions of Curriculum. Berkeley, CA: McCutcheon, 1974.

McCullough, Lawrence. An Organic Approach to Educational Program Development: Model, Methods and Framework. Unpublished dissertation. Amherst, MA: University of Massachusetts, 1978.

Tanner, Daniel, and Tanner, Laurel. Curriculum Development: Theory into Practice. New York: MacMillan, 1975.

### Books for Parents

Bird, Joseph, and Bird, Lois. Power to the Parents. Garden City, NY: 1972.

Chess, Stella; Thomas, Alexander; and Birch, Herbert G. Your Child Is a Person. New York: Viking Press, 1965.

Fraiberg, Selma. Every Child's Birthright: In Defense of Mothering. New York: Basic Books, 1977.

Ginott, Haim. Between Parent and Child. New York: MacMillan, 1965.

Grey, Loren. Discipline Without Fear. New York: Hawthorne Books, 1974.

Jones, Molly M. Guiding Your Child from 2 to 5. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1967.

McBride, Angela B. The Growth and Development of Mothers. New York: Harper and Row, 1973.

TITLE: ADMINISTERING PARENT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

DESCRIPTION: The first part of this course will present various theories of educational administration and how they can be applied to parent education programs. At the end of this section, discussion will focus on a theory of administration based on organismic philosophy. Discussion of theories will focus on administrators as leaders, managers, and evaluators. Students will have experience in proposal writing, public relations, fund-raising, public speaking, and how to's in applying theory to practice.

The course outline will be organized to facilitate each student:

A. Gaining knowledge about:

1. Theories of leadership and management
2. Fund-raising
3. Grantsmanship
4. Public relations
5. Evaluation
6. Methods of decision-making

B. Gaining experience with:

1. Planning and setting goals and objectives
2. Delegation
3. Supervision
4. Practical experience of assisting in the organization of a parent education program
5. Evaluating different parent education programs
6. Writing proposals

C. Developing skills in:

1. Planning
2. Delegating
3. Supervising
4. Decision-making (how, when, where, and with whom)
5. Fund-raising
6. Public speaking
7. Coordinating a variety of activities to meet a schedule  
and/or fulfill responsibilities
8. Writing proposals



RESOURCES: ADMINISTERING PARENT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

- Argyris, Chris. Executive Leadership. Archon Books, 1967.
- Austin, Charles F. Management's Self-Inflicted Wounds. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1966.
- Barnard, Chester I. The Functions of the Executive. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1938.
- Bassett, Glenn A. Management Styles in Transition. American Management Association, 1966.
- Blankenship, Jane. Public Speaking: A Rhetorical Perspective. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1972.
- Boettinger, H. Moving Mountains; or, the Art and Craft of Letting Others See Things Your Way. New York: Macmillan, 1969.
- Bremmer, Robert H. American Philanthropy. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.
- Follett, Mary Parker. Creative Experience. London: Longmans, Grun and Co., 1924.
- Follett, Mary Parker. The New State: Group Organization and the Solution of Popular Government. London: Longmans, Grun, and Co., 1918.
- Gillerman, Saul W. Managers and Subordinates. Hinsdale, IL: The Dryden Press, 1976.
- Gillerman, Saul W. The Management of Human Relations. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1966.
- Gibb, Jack R. "Climate for Trust Formation." In T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method.
- Herman, Stanley M., and Korenich, Michael. Authentic Management: A Gestalt Orientation to Organizations and Their Development. Boston, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1977.
- Hersey, Paul, and Blanchard, Kenneth H. Management of Organizational Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1972.
- Hyatt, David. Public Relations: A Handbook for Business, Labor, and Community Leaders. Ithaca, NY: New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, 1963.

- Iannone, Anthony L. Management Program Planning and Control. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1963.
- Litterer, Joseph A. The Analysis of Organizations. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965.
- Morris, William T. Management for Action: Psychotechnical Decision-Making. Reston, VA: Reston Publishing Co., Inc., 1972.
- Mueller, Robert K. The Innovation Ethic. American Management Association, Inc., 1971.
- National Public Relations Council. Changing Society: Perspectives on Communication. New York: The Council, 1970.
- Sachs, Benjamin M. Educational Administration: A Behavioral Approach. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, Co., 1966.
- Schmidt, Francis, and Weiner, Harold N., eds. Public Relations in Health and Welfare. New York: Columbia University Press, 1966.
- Swingle, Paul G. The Management of Power. New York: Wiley and Sons, 1976.



