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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

ADDING MONTHLY HOME VISITS

TO A CENTER-BASED HEAD START PROGRAM:

EFFECTS ON TEACHERS, PARENTS AND CHILDREN

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

NANCY A. KLING

UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

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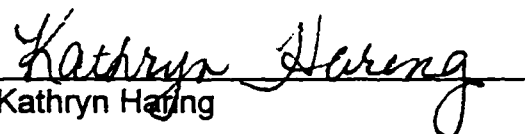
A DISSERTATION
APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM

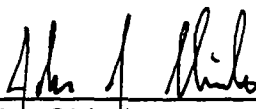
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|--|------|
| LIST OF TABLES | x |
| LIST OF FIGURES | xi |
| ABSTRACT | xii |
| CHAPTER 1 | 1 |
| Introduction | 1 |
| Parent Involvement | 1 |
| Home Visiting | 4 |
| Head Start | 6 |
| Purpose | 7 |
| Research Questions | 8 |
| CHAPTER 2 | 10 |
| Review of the Literature | 10 |
| Parent Involvement | 10 |
| Rationale for Parent Involvement | 10 |
| Contemporary Parent Involvement | 11 |
| Theoretical Support for Parent Involvement | 14 |
| Family Systems Theory | 14 |
| Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory | 15 |
| Vygotsky's Theory of Human Development | 18 |
| Empirical Support for Parent Involvement in Children's Education | 20 |
| Parent Involvement Through Teacher Initiated Communication Via Telephone Calls and Written Communication | 20 |
| Parent Involvement Through Teacher - Parent Conferences | 21 |
| Participation at School | 22 |
| Participation at Home | 23 |
| Family Demographics and Parent Involvement | 24 |
| Marital Status | 25 |
| Employment | 26 |
| Education | 27 |
| Socioeconomic Status | 28 |

| | |
|---|--------|
| Family Size | 29 |
| Parental Ethnicity and Parent Involvement | 29 |
| Summary | 31 |
| Teachers' and Parents' Attitudes Toward One Another | 31 |
| Teachers' Attitudes About Parents | 32 |
| Parents' Attitudes About Teachers | 38 |
| Parents' Expectations for Children's Development | 41 |
| Theoretical Views of Development | 41 |
| Stability of Parental Expectations | 44 |
| Accuracy of Parental Expectations | 46 |
| Influences on Parental Expectations | 48 |
| Differences in Parents' and Teachers' Expectations | 49 |
| Mothers' Perceptions of Their Role in Their Child's Education .. | 51 |
| Demographic Influences on Parental Roles | 52 |
| Current Perceptions of Parental Roles | 54 |
| Parent Education | 55 |
| Deficit Model | 56 |
| Ecological Model | 58 |
| Two Generation Model | 61 |
| Home Visits | 65 |
| Parent Involvement in Head Start | 73 |
| Summary | 75 |
| CHAPTER 3 | 77 |
| Method | 77 |
| Research Design | 77 |
| Sample | 77 |
| Experimental Group | 78 |
| Comparison Group | 78 |
| Control Group | 78 |
| Subjects | 79 |
| Mothers and Children | 79 |
| Teachers | 80 |
| Data Collection Instruments | 81 |
| Child and Family Characteristics | 81 |
| Teacher Characteristics | 81 |
| Dependent Variables | 82 |
| Parent and Teacher Attitudes | 82 |
| Mother's Social and Cognitive Expectations for a Four-Year-Old Child | 84 |
| Mother's Perception of Parental Role | 84 |
| Child's Perceived Cognitive and Social Competence | 88 |

| | |
|---|---------|
| Teacher' Knowledge of the Child's Social and Cognitive Competence | 91 |
| Procedures | 92 |
| Experimental Group | 96 |
| Comparison Group | 99 |
| Control Group | 102 |
| CHAPTER 4 | 105 |
| Results | 105 |
| Teacher Characteristics and Professional Experience | 107 |
| Parents' Characteristics | 111 |
| Age | 111 |
| Education | 114 |
| Occupational Status | 115 |
| Income | 117 |
| Children | 118 |
| Intercorrelations | 119 |
| Correlations Between Family Characteristics and Dependent Variables | 120 |
| Child's Perceived Competence | 121 |
| Teacher's Perception of the Child's Competence | 122 |
| Mothers' Attitudes Toward a Specific Teacher | 123 |
| Teachers' Attitudes Toward Mothers | 124 |
| Mother's Social and Cognitive Expectations for Her Child | 125 |
| Parent's Role in Their Child's Development | 126 |
| Summary | 128 |
| Inclusion of Intervening Variables | 130 |
| Home Visits and Teachers' and Mothers' Attitudes | 130 |
| Teachers' Attitudes About Mothers | 131 |
| Mothers' Attitudes About Teachers | 134 |
| Home Visits and Mother's Expectations for Her Child's Social and Cognitive Development | 135 |
| Verbal Assertiveness | 139 |
| Compliance | 140 |
| School Related Skills | 142 |
| Independence | 142 |
| Social | 144 |
| Teacher's Perception of Child's Self-Competence | 145 |
| Cognitive Competence | 149 |
| Peer Acceptance | 151 |
| Physical Competence | 153 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Effects of Home Visits by Head Start Teachers on the Child's Perception of His/Her Competence | 153 |
| Children's Perception of Cognitive Competence | 156 |
| Children's Perception of Physical Competence | 157 |
| Children's Perception of Peer Acceptance | 158 |
| Children's Perception of Maternal Acceptance | 158 |
| Effects of Home Visits by Head Start Teachers on the Mother's Perception of Her Role in Educating Her Child | 159 |
| Teaching Cognitive Skills | 163 |
| Teaching Handling of Emotions | 165 |
| Teaching Social Skills | 166 |
| Meeting the Emotional Needs of the Child | 168 |
| Meeting the Basic Needs of the Child Through Child Care | 169 |
| Acting as an Interface Between the Child and the School | 171 |
| Summary | 172 |
| Attitudes and Expectations | 172 |
| Self-competence | 174 |
| Mother's role | 174 |
| CHAPTER 5 | 176 |
| Discussion | 176 |
| Research Questions | 176 |
| Family Characteristics | 176 |
| Mother's and Teacher's Attitudes | 178 |
| Teachers | 178 |
| Mothers | 180 |
| Mother's Expectation for Her Child's Development | 181 |
| Teachers' Knowledge of the Four-Year-Old Child's Cognitive and Social Competence | 184 |
| Children's Perceived Self Competence | 186 |
| Mother's Perception of Her Parental Role | 189 |
| Discussion | 190 |
| Conclusion | 196 |
| REFERENCES | 199 |
| APPENDICES | 222 |
| Appendix A | 222 |
| Appendix B | 227 |
| Appendix C | 232 |
| Appendix D | 235 |

| | |
|------------------|-----|
| Appendix E | 238 |
| Appendix F | 240 |
| Appendix G | 242 |
| Appendix H | 249 |
| Appendix I | 256 |
| Appendix J | 258 |
| Appendix K | 260 |
| Appendix L | 263 |
| Appendix M | 265 |

LIST OF TABLES

| Table | Page |
|---|------|
| 1. Salary Range and means and standard deviations for teacher characteristics and professional experience | 108 |
| 2. Means and standard deviations for family characteristics | 113 |
| 3. Comparison of pre and posttest group means for teachers' and mothers' attitudes | 132 |
| 4. Comparison of pre and posttest group means for mother's expectations for child's development and subscales | 137 |
| 5. Comparison of pre and posttest group means for teachers' perception of child's competence and subscales | 147 |
| 6. Comparison of pre and posttest group means for child's perceived self-competence | 155 |
| 7. Comparison of pre and posttest means for mother's perception of her role in educating her child | 162 |
| 8. Summary of results | 173 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| Figure | Page |
|--|------|
| 1. Mother's expectations for child's development | 138 |
| 2. Mother's expectations for verbal assertiveness subscale . . | 140 |
| 3. Mother's expectations for compliance subscale | 143 |
| 4. Mother's expectations for child's independence subscale . | 143 |
| 5. Mother's expectations for socialization subscale | 146 |
| 6. Teacher's perception of child's perceived self-competence | 149 |
| 7. Teacher's perception of child's cognitive competence subscale | 151 |
| 8. Children's perception of cognitive competence subscale . . | 157 |
| 9. Mother's perception of her parental role in teaching cognitive skills subscale | 165 |
| 10. Mother's perception of her parental role in teaching social skills subscale | 168 |

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The abstract was not included in the original manuscript and is unavailable from the author or university. The manuscript was microfilmed as received.

xii

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Parent Involvement

"Parent involvement is described in the child development literature as the degree to which a parent is committed to his or her role as a parent and to the fostering of optimal child development" (Maccoby & Martin, 1983, p. 48). It usually addresses the amount of time a parent or significant adult focuses on child oriented activities (Pulkkinen, 1982). Current research indicates parents' involvement in their child's education facilitates the child's development from early childhood through early adolescence. Parental involvement in the preschool and elementary years has been found to decrease school retention, reduce special education placements, positively affect school achievement, and increase communication between the family and school (Epstein, 1991a; Marcon, 1994a). The type of involvement is not as important as the continuity between the parent and the school or early childhood setting (Epstein, 1987).

Historically the primary caregivers and educators of children in the United States have been parents (Powell, 1991a). Both government legislation and tradition have supported this philosophy. However, during the 1960's and 70's societal changes such as the mobility of families, the increase in single parent families, increased numbers of families living in poverty, a growing minority population, and an expanding global economy gradually placed the responsibility of educating students primarily upon schools. Rather than expanding students'

knowledge and academic success, this educational trend produced increased numbers of school drop-outs and falling achievement scores for American students, particularly those in impoverished settings (Chavkin, 1993). This trend has initiated a reappraisal of the increased separation of school and home and has precipitated a reevaluation of methods designed to include parents in their child's education.

The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher (Harris, 1987) found that 69 percent of the teachers surveyed, recognized parent involvement as an efficacious means to increase students' school success. Subsequent research investigations in a variety of populations indicated that not only were parents considered by teachers to be an integral part of children's school success, but that parents desired to be involved (Epstein, 1986; Williams & Chavkin, 1985). This is particularly evident in the area of academic success. A growing body of research denotes parent involvement in education as directly related to significant increases in student achievement (Bloom, 1985; Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Epstein, 1991b; Henderson, 1987).

In conjunction with the emphasis on parent involvement has come increased attention to parents' knowledge of child development and appropriate ways to assist in their child's education. Parents indicate that they want to help their child learn, but are unsure of appropriate methods (Powell, 1991b). Time constrictions, due to the increase of single parent families and families with both parents working outside of the home, have affected the amount of time parents

spend in their child's education. However, even more problematic than this, is a discontinuity between the educational pedagogy of the school and the educational opportunities which occur in the home (Mattox, 1991; Powell, 1990). This incongruence may be influenced by ethnic traditions, parental socioeconomic level, or the educational experiences of the parents (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989).

Parent's ethnic origins and the method in which parents' have been raised have been found to have considerable influence upon when they expect their children to perform school related tasks (Goodnow, Cashmore, Cotton, & Knight, 1984; Hess, Kashiwagi, Azuma, Price, & Dickson, 1980). Parents whose ethnic origins differ from the white middle class population, which dominates most public school systems, find assisting in their children's education particularly difficult. This problem also occurs in families with low incomes. These parents indicate that they want to help their children learn, but do not know how (Epstein & Dauber, 1991; Chavkin & Williams, 1993).

Given this state of affairs, professionals must acknowledge the importance of developing fluid reciprocal interactions between teachers and families to bolster the congruency between the two settings. The emphasis must be on an ecological approach which provides assistance in the child's education, supports and empowers parents, and allows bidirectional communication and interaction between teachers and families.

Home Visiting

One of the techniques for facilitating parent involvement that is identified as most effective in the empowerment of both parents and children is home visiting (Wasik, Bryant & Lyons, 1990). Home visits have been utilized as a means to include parents in their child's home learning activities as well as providing the family with parent education and access to social service agencies. In a survey of home visitation programs addressing the needs of mothers of infants and toddlers who have been identified as at-risk for health or educational complications, Gomby, Larson, Lewit and Behrman (1993) report 200,000 children and families participate in home visits each year. This includes those home visiting programs addressing the educational needs of children who are not considered at risk for health or learning difficulties, as well as those who are identified at-risk. This information indicates increasing interest and support for home visitations for children in at-risk populations. Additional evidence of interest in home visiting programs is seen in the 102nd session of Congress in which at least nine bills were introduced which included home visits as a means to meet children's needs (Chiles, 1992).

Theoretically home visits appear to be the most ecologically effective means of supporting and empowering the developing child and family. Bronfenbrenner (1979) states that for a child to achieve optimum development and school success all of the people and agencies interacting in his/her life must be congruent. Minuchin (1985) stresses the importance of the mother and

child's relationship. She asserts that the teacher must recognize the mother - child relationship as a circular system where the individuals interact with one another. If parents and teachers have differing expectations for the child, this can initiate disequilibrium within the child and potentially threaten optimum school success. Through home visits the teacher, social worker or health professional can more accurately perceive and understand child and family strengths as well as needs, thus better facilitating child and family development.

Although theoretically grounded, home visitation procedures have received conflicting empirical endorsement. The current empirical dilemma resides in the variety of home visiting programs. Studies investigating the benefits of home visits continue to be limited in scope and report mixed or conflicting results (Olds & Kitzman, 1993). These results reflect the diversity of programs, the great variety of training and experience of the home visitors, the client population and the strategies employed by the visitors to achieve their goals. Further obscuring the issue is the fact that, as reported by Weiss (1993), very few studies have been replicated. Many of the existing studies concentrated solely on the effects of home visits disregarding the characteristics and attitudes of the home visitor, family and child. Little is known about the optimum duration or frequency of home visits, or if home visits by teachers are more beneficial than home visits by other personnel. Within the early childhood area there are no comparison studies in which some students receive home visits while others in the comparable settings receive no home visits.

As reported earlier the majority of home visitation research has included populations at-risk for health complications or poverty. The visitors in these settings have been trained paraprofessionals or multi-disciplinary teams residing outside the community, whose primary focus was educating the parent to meet the needs of the family or child (Wasik, Bryant & Lyons, 1990). There are very few studies which examine conventional classroom teachers as home visitors in either elementary or preschool settings where the emphasis is on strengthening parental participation in the child's education. Although theoretically the individual interaction between parents, teacher and child in the child's home should increase parent, teacher and child interaction and trust, there is little empirical support for this assumption.

Head Start

One of the few early childhood education programs mandating home visits by teachers during the school year is the government funded Head Start preschool program. However, these visitations typically only occur twice during the school year. Their primary purpose is to assess the family's needs (Administration for children and families, 1992). Head Start serves primarily poor children ages 3 to 5, with the majority (currently 63%) being four years old (Zigler & Styfco, 1993b). From its inception in 1965, Head Start has emphasized serving the whole child. Utilizing an ecological approach, Head Start's goals include health and social services, parent involvement, and providing developmentally appropriate activities for children. The parent involvement

component includes parent participation. Although all Head Start programs adhere to the federal guidelines concerning parent involvement, each setting is encouraged to meet the particular needs of its clientele.

Although having experienced flat funding during the 1980's, the increasing numbers of children living in poverty has stimulated renewed interest in the Head Start program. As in earlier times, today Head Start is again in the middle of an ideological debate over the proper role of the federal government in solving social problems (Zigler & Styfco, 1993b). The federal agency, Administration for Children, Youth and Families which oversees the Head Start program is encouraging research investigations to better ascertain and support the benefits of this program.

Purpose

Because of the dearth of parental involvement information concerning the benefits of home visits by teachers which include both parent and child, this study will investigate the effects of eight monthly home visits on a center-based Head Start sample. The effectiveness of the teacher-led home visits will be ascertained by comparing them with home visits made by other adults, and with a no-treatment control group. By comparing families' receiving the minimum two teacher home visits mandated by Head Start (control group) with families receiving eight home visits by the classroom teacher (experimental group), and with families receiving eight brief home visits by other adults (comparison group), the research community's awareness of the effects of home visits performed by

someone who is intimately involved with the child should be increased.

Theoretically the teachers and parents should experience increased communication and awareness of each others' and the child's needs as a result of the teacher-led home visits. The parent should gain a greater understanding and knowledge of his/her child's learning abilities, and the child should have a more accurate perception of him/herself as a student. This again is an area with very little existing empirical data.

For the purposes of this study the teacher-led home visits will focus on increasing communication between the parent, child and teacher and assisting parents in developing realistic educational and social expectations for the child. The home visits led by other adults will be brief, lasting no more than 20 minutes. The adults will be students who are majoring in early childhood education at the University of Oklahoma. Communication will focus totally on the child. The primary purpose is to control for the Hawthorne effect. The control group teachers will complete the 2 normal home visits required by Head Start.

Research Questions

1. Will family characteristics of Head Start participants influence the mother's, teacher's and child's perception of the child's competence, the mother's and teacher's attitudes toward one another, the mother's cognitive and social expectations for her child, her knowledge of child development, and her perception of her role in her child's education?

2. What influence will the addition of home visits have on the mother's and teacher's attitudes toward one another after variance due to family characteristics has been controlled?
3. Will the addition of home visits change mother's expectations for her child's social and cognitive development after variance due to family characteristics has been controlled?
4. After controlling for family characteristics, will the addition of home visits influence the teacher's knowledge of the four-year-old child's cognitive and social competence?
5. After controlling for family characteristics, will the addition of home visits influence the four-year-old child's perceived competence?
6. After controlling for family characteristics, will the addition of home visits influence the mother's perception of her competence to educate her child?

CHAPTER 2

Review of the Literature

Parent Involvement

Rationale for parent involvement

Parental involvement in the education of children has historically been viewed both by parents and teachers as a critical component in the educational development of a child (Reynolds, 1992). In 1782, Frederick Froebel, one of the primary contributors to the establishment of the kindergarten concept, stated that mothers were an integral component in a young child's early education (Osborn, 1991). From the arrival of the early settlers until the 1860's the family was solely responsible for their children's education (Osborn, 1991). The doctrine that it is the parents' right to raise their children has long been one of America's core values (Powell, 1990a).

This premise of including parents in their child's education has been espoused by various early childhood professional organizations. Included in the National Association for the Education of Young Children's Developmentally Appropriate Practice in Early Childhood Programs Serving Children From Birth Through Age 8 (Bredekemp, 1987) is the belief that mutual support and good communication between parents and staff are essential for optimum emotional and cognitive development of the child. Parents are seen as the primary source for care and affection for children at every age. Teachers are directed to "communicate regularly (with parents) to build mutual understanding and greater

consistency for children" (p.57). The consistent emphasis is that teachers view parents as partners in the educational process.

A growing body of research continues to identify the importance of including parents in all facets of their child's school activities (e.g., Marcon, 1994a; Epstein, 1991a; Reynolds, 1992). School and parent communication and a congruency of parent and school attitudes, aspirations and beliefs have been identified as paramount for a child's optimal school success (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). When teachers include parent involvement in their teaching procedures, parent-child interactions increase within the home and parents report increased competence in assisting their children in educational activities (Epstein, 1986).

Contemporary Parent Involvement

In The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher (1987), a randomly selected sample of 1,002 teachers and 2,011 parents were asked about their beliefs on the importance of parent involvement. Seventy-five percent of the teachers wanted parents involved in the school while 74% of the parents expressed the desire to be involved (Harris & Associates, 1987). Thus, parent involvement has been identified by both teachers and parents as necessary for children's optimal school success.

This position has further been supported and extended by the National Education Goals developed during the National Governors' Conference on improving education in the United States by declaring:

Every parent in America will be a child's first teacher and devote time each day helping his or her preschool child learn; parents will have access to the training and support they need.
(U.S. Dept. of Education, 1987).

Thus, it is not only educators' responsibility to identify activities which will enhance parents' involvement in children's education, but also to provide strategies which are understandable and meet the needs of the parent as well as that of the child. Parent involvement must enhance children's individual educational needs and learning styles while also addressing the individual differences and needs of parents.

Although a great deal of parent involvement research has been conducted in middle class school settings, one of the seminal studies to identify positive results from parent involvement was begun by the Yale Child Study Center Team in 1968 (Comer & Haynes, 1991). After spending several years in two low income elementary schools in New Haven, Connecticut, Comer and Haynes concluded that the best way to increase parent, teacher, and student interactions was to adopt an ecological approach. Parent involvement could not be addressed in isolation.

By utilizing a team composed of a special education teacher, a psychologist, a social worker and Dr. Comer, support and guidance were provided parents and faculty to develop interaction and communication. Over a five year period the team worked with two elementary schools to include parents in every facet of the school, including a school planning and management team.

The program was highly successful as parents who had not participated in the school began to view it as a place for them as well as their children. This ecological approach to parent involvement is still the central focus of parent involvement today.

One of the problems Comer and Haynes reported was that some teachers had difficulty adjusting to communicating with parents on all levels. They were intimidated by having the parents in the school buildings at all times and felt threatened by parents being included in administrative decisions concerning school policies. As will be demonstrated throughout this review some discontinuity still exists between the home and school. Changing family demographics, the inclusion of children with handicapping conditions within classrooms and the emphasis on parent education has threatened some teachers as well as increased their teaching duties (Berger, 1991).

Parents', teachers' and students' attitudes, preferences and needs must be collectively addressed before implementing parent involvement policies. The ensuing problem is identifying which parent involvement techniques and parent education or child guidance methods are most likely to enhance children's individual educational needs and learning styles, while also addressing the individual differences and needs of parents and educators.

Epstein and her associates extended Comer's work by surveying parents, teachers and administrators to identify the most commonly utilized and preferred parent involvement techniques (Becker & Epstein, 1982; Epstein, 1986). Initially

six categories emerged: (a.) the schools' basic obligation to assist and educate parents in the appropriate care and support of children, (b.) communication between home and school including newsletters, phone calls, home visits and parent conferences, (c.) including parents in the classroom setting as participants in various school-based activities, (d.) including parents in home learning or homework activities, (e.) including parents in school governing bodies such as parent-teacher organizations and school advisory councils, and (f.) providing access to community organizations which support health and educational opportunities for both children and parents. As will be seen throughout the review these six parent involvement strategies occur in many educational settings, however their degree of usage and purpose vary considerably.

Theoretical Support for Parent Involvement

Family systems theory. The value of parent teacher communication and parent involvement in a child's education are supported by several theories. One theory evolved from family therapy studies which found that individual members of a family could not be optimally understood and addressed without being cognizant of other family members. The family is viewed as a social system in which family members are interdependent (Minuchin, 1985). Patterns of interactions are developed and maintained among family members over a period of time. These patterns are viewed as circular with one member's actions affecting or responding to the actions of another. For example, a mother may be

overprotective of her child because her mother was overprotective of her, or she may be overprotective because the temperament of her child is fretful and demanding. The mother's ontogenic origins and personal psychological resources, the current social setting which provides support or stress, and the temperament of the child are interacting systems which affect the parent child relationship (Belsky, 1984).

The basic premise is that humans do not develop in isolation. The nucleus of family security is the predictability of the various systems. Even in a dysfunctional family, members will strive for homeostasis or internal stability (Minuchin, 1985). In a dysfunctional family, the challenge is to abet the existing systems in developing healthy interactions.

This theory illuminates the interdependence of family members and settings. When a young child enters school, s/he is already a composite of family characteristics, beliefs and interactions. The child cannot be optimally understood nor his/her needs addressed in isolation. Teachers and parents must communicate frequently and effectively so that the home and school can be congruent in providing a supportive and understanding environment.

Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory. Bronfenbrenner (1979) goes beyond Minuchin's systems theory by addressing not only family characteristics and interactions, but also neighborhood, community, and national elements and attributes which affect child and family functions. He defines human growth and development as a mutual accommodation between an active growing being and

the changing properties of people and settings surrounding her/him. The theory consists of three main principles. (a). The growing person is not a tabula rosa on which the environment makes an impact. Instead the person is a growing dynamic entity who interacts and sometimes restructures the environment surrounding him/her. (b). The environment affects the person thus providing bi-directional interaction. (c). The environment is not limited to the immediate surroundings, but encompasses a variety of larger settings.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) refers to these various settings or structures as a nest of Russian dolls with the developing person and the microsystems in the center. "The microsystem is a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relationships experienced by the developing person in a given setting with particular physical and material characteristics" (p.22). Bronfenbrenner defines a setting as a place where a developing individual engages in direct interaction with a person or institution which immediately affects that individual (e.g., neighborhood, church, day care setting and other institutions and people with whom the developing child interacts frequently). Bronfenbrenner states that the key word is experience. The experience that the child and parent have in these settings, which are a part of their social system, affect the child and parents' development. Thus, as suggested by Minuchin, not only do family and teacher characteristics, beliefs and experiences affect the child's development, but in Bronfenbrenner's view the institutions with which the child and parent immediately interact also affect development. The instructional and supervisory

philosophy of a day care program in which the child participates, the number of teachers, the equipment provided, and parent-teacher communication opportunities can influence the child's reaction and interaction within the setting.

The interrelations among the microsystems explained above compose the mesosystem (or next Russian doll). This system is the one which addresses parent-teacher communication and emphasizes an understanding of the relationships between settings, in this case home and school, rather than just the child in isolation. French, Rodgers, and Cobb (1974) emphasize the importance of a "goodness of fit" within the mesosystem. "Goodness of fit" refers to the match between support desired or needed for the child and family and the support received. When the attitudes expressed by the members (e.g., parent and teacher/caregiver) of each microsystem are congruent, continuity describes the relationship. If the attitudes expressed by the members differ, discontinuity is possible, which decreases the possibility of communication between the two microsystems. The mesosystem is a system of microsystems which encompass family support systems. (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Although not directly related to the developing child, the third ring of Bronfenbrenner's ecological system, entitled the exosystem, refers to settings which affect the family and child, but in which the child does not immediately interact. This includes parents' work place, parents' friends, sibling activities, and available resources (e.g., neighborhood organizations, state agencies, medical services). For example, parents' employment can affect a parent's

interactions with the child as well as interactions with teachers and other school personnel (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Working parents are often unable to attend school functions during the day which involve their child. Parent and teacher communication may be impeded because the parent is unavailable for conferences or telephone calls which occur during the school day.

Bronfenbrenner defines the outer ring as the macrosystem referring to governmental regulations as well as ethnic traditions. An inner city preschool child's development may be affected by reduced governmental funding for Head Start programs or job training for unemployed parents. Even though the child does not immediately interact with these institutions, his/her life is altered because of them. This ring also includes societal values as well as ethnic traditions and beliefs which often affect parental beliefs and goals concerning the developing child (Okagaki & Divecha, 1993).

The basic premise of Bronfenbrenner's theory is that the child does not develop in isolation. It is critical that educational institutions attend to the systems surrounding the child to optimally address his/her learning needs.

Vygotsky's theory of human development. Similar to Minuchin's Family Systems Theory and Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory, Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory addresses the premise that a child's thinking cannot be removed from the social and historical context in which it occurs. "Children's cognitive development is embedded in the context of social relationships and sociocultural tools and practices" (Rogoff, 1990, p.8). The child does not learn in

isolation. Learning occurs through social interaction with peers and adults in a variety of contexts.

By interacting "with people who have achieved some skill in the use of intellectual tools" Vygotsky believes that the child can learn more (Rogoff, 1990, p. 140). Development can be stimulated by significant adults who are knowledgeable not only of the child's abilities, but also of his/her learning characteristics and interests. Learning is viewed more as an apprenticeship in which the developing child works closely with an expert in joint problem solving in what Vygotsky defines as the zone of proximal development. The zone of proximal development is the distance between what the child already knows and what s/he could learn through adult guidance. He alleges that a child who interacts frequently with a knowledgeable parent will obtain more knowledge as well as develop better critical thinking skills. Interaction in the zone of proximal development should also help the parent become more knowledgeable of the child's learning characteristics and interests.

Communication between the child's teacher and parent concerning the child's development should assist both the parent and teacher to become more knowledgeable of the child's learning characteristics and interests, thus providing both with a more accurate view of the child's zone of proximal development and subsequently increase the efficacy of their assistance with the child.

This theory concurs with Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory and Minuchin's family systems theory since all emphasize that children do not

develop in isolation. They all emphasize the importance of environmental factors and the influence of prominent people in the developing child's life. Vygotsky goes one step further to emphasize the importance of having a knowledgeable adult assisting in the child's development. All of these theories provide support for the importance of parent involvement in children's education. The following research studies provide empirical support for parental involvement in children's education.

Empirical Support for Parent Involvement in Children's Education

Because there are multiple influences upon a child's receptiveness and ability to learn, the various parent involvement strategies which are utilized to include parents in their child's education are sometimes identified as strengthening a child's growth in one academic setting or grade level while being ineffective in others (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). A parent involvement strategy which may positively influence the development of a young child, may negatively influence junior high students' development (Dauber & Epstein, 1993; Epstein, 1991b; Herman & Yeh, 1980; Iverson, Brownlee & Walberg 1981; Reynolds, 1989, 1992). The following studies examine various types of parent involvement and their influence or lack of influence on children's development.

Parent involvement through teacher initiated communication via telephone calls and written communication. Two of the most common forms of parent involvement are teacher initiated telephone calls and written forms of communication such as notes, weekly folders, and newsletters. Iverson,

Brownlee and Walberg (1981) utilized telephone calls and notes, and other written forms of communication to involve the parents of 389 minority and non-minority children in grades one through eight. The number of teacher contacts and the age of the students influenced the effectiveness of this form of involvement. When parents had many teacher - parent contacts via telephone calls and written communication, young children (grades 1 to 3) made significant gains in reading achievement while fourth grade students demonstrated no gains in reading achievement and high school students' reading achievement decreased.

Herman and Yeh (1980) reported similar results when they examined the influence of written communication by teachers on second through sixth grade children's school achievement. Second and third grade children's school achievement increased and their parents became more involved in school activities when the written communication between the teacher and parents increased. However, the amount of school and home communication was negatively related to fourth through sixth grade students' school achievement.

Parent involvement through teacher - parent conferences. Another commonly utilized form of parent involvement is parent-teacher conferences. The current research indicates this form of parent involvement has a more positive influence on younger children than older children. Iverson et al. (1981) indicate first through sixth grade students whose parents have attended parent - teacher conferences received higher reading achievement test scores than their

counterparts whose parents did not participate in teacher-parent conferences. However, the positive effects of parents' attending conferences decreased with students' age. Fourth grade students whose parents attended conferences demonstrated no gains in reading achievement, and high school students' reading achievement decreased.

Marcon's study (1994a) also supported the positive influence of parent-teacher conferences on younger children in a longitudinal study assessing the influence of basic parental involvement strategies in public, private, and Head Start preschool programs. Parent involvement via parent-teacher conferences was found to be a positive variable in school success. Children whose parents attended parent teacher conferences demonstrated lower retention rates through sixth grade, while infrequent involvement by first grade parents was found to increase children's chances of being retained.

Participation at school. Parental involvement within the classroom or preschool setting has been identified as being a positive influence on children's development (Dauber & Epstein, 1993; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Marcon, 1994a; Reynolds, Mavrogenes, Bezruczko, & Hagemann, 1996). Marcon and Reynolds both reported parental participation in their child's classroom had a positive effect on the child's cognitive development through sixth grade. In a study of the influence of multiple forms of parent involvement on ethnically diverse populations, Dauber and Epstein reported that, although some teachers were uncomfortable having parents assist in the classroom, many teachers

perceived this to be an effective parent involvement strategy. Parents could gain an understanding of the classroom practices as well as observe their child in the classroom setting.

Conversely, Smith and Howes (1994) found that this widely used form of parent involvement may adversely affect some children. They discovered that preschool children who were more dependent on their mother did not interact socially with their peers while the mother was volunteering. More maternally dependent children expressed increased negative emotions and demonstrated stress behaviors when their mothers were interacting with other children. This is an example of a widely used form of parent involvement having the opposite effect on children than is normally expected.

Participation at home. Because of the growing number of parents who are working outside of the home and unable to come to the school during the day, parents are indicating increased interest in helping their child at home. Their main request is that the schools provide specific information on methods of assistance.

Epstein and Dauber (1991, 1993) examined the relationship of inner city parents' assistance in their child's education and the child's achievement. The study was composed of third- and fifth-grade students in an inner city school system. Children whose parents had received requests and guidance on how to participate in their child's education spent more minutes assisting with their children's homework than parents who had been given no assistance. Their

children experienced greater gains in reading than those children whose parents were not encouraged to participate nor provided guidance on how to assist their child in home work. However this form of parent involvement did not influence children's math achievement.

In their longitudinal study assessing the effects of one or two years of preschool, Reynolds et al.(1996) found when parents participated in home support activities (e.g., home visits), in conjunction with other forms of parent involvement, children experienced less grade retention, school mobility, and increased sixth grade academic achievement.

Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) found the intellectual context of the family (e.g., providing cognitively stimulating activities and assistance on home work) and parents' behavior or interest in school events as perceived by the child, were found to influence children's self-regulation and perceived competence. These findings suggest parent involvement within the home influences both the cognitive and psychosocial development of the child.

Family Demographics and Parent Involvement

Bronfenbrenner's, Minuchin's and Vygotsky's theories accentuate the importance of respecting and addressing the unique characteristics of each family setting. Since including parents in their child's education is no longer considered an educational embellishment, but rather a viable component to the child's education, the educational community must remain ever cognizant that children do not come to preschool as a blank slate. Even when entering

preschool as early as age two, children are already a composite of their familial heritage, ethnicity, family composition, socio-economic level, the community in which they live and the value system in which they have been raised (Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Minuchin, 1985).

The family composition, socio-economic level, and ethnicity all may be factors affecting the parents' attitudes toward interacting with their child. Consequently it is impossible for one generic type of parent education or parent involvement activity to affect every family in the same way. Although there is solid support for parent involvement in the young child's education, particularly in terms of school academic success, there are still many families whose needs are not being addressed efficaciously. A discussion of relationships between family characteristics and parent involvement follows.

Marital status. Parents' marital status can have a profound influence on children. Separation and divorce usually drastically alter the amount of time between the parents and child, and between at least one of the parents and teacher. Unless the teacher makes an effort to include the non-custodial parent, single parent families have very little time to attend parent teacher conferences and school activities occurring during the school day. However, single parents receive more requests for assistance with their child's homework than married parents, and their children are less apt to receive academic honors than their peers residing in two-parent homes (Epstein, 1990, 1991).

In a longitudinal qualitative study Holloway, Rambaud, Fuller and Eggers-Pierola (1995) reported the working single mothers in their study were extremely concerned about their children's school success. They believed school success would provide better job opportunities and thus prevent their children from experiencing hardships. However, because these single women were either employed or caring for young children, there was little time for communication with their child's caregiver or teacher. In defense of their inability to participate in their child's classroom, they expressed the conviction that their role in the child's life was to provide love and security, and the teacher's role was to teach. These studies suggest a parent's marital status may influence the type and form of parent involvement and thus emphasize the need for multiple forms of involvement (Berger, 1995).

Employment. Whether married or single, employed parents encounter difficulties communicating with their child's teacher or caregiver. The *circumstances surrounding teacher interactions with working parents'* are often less than optimal. Both parents and caregivers are busy as they begin the day by attempting to arrive at work on time and meeting the needs of their children. Likewise they are tired as they near the end of the day and prepare to assume their familial duties. Periodically, working parents may be detained at work, forcing the caregiver to remain at the center longer than expected, thus depriving her own family. Consequently, pick-up time can be stressful as the caregiver or

parent tries to share information. This leaves very little opportunity for quality teacher - parent interaction.

The lack of time for communication between the caregiver and parent can precipitate misunderstandings concerning the parents' and caregiver's agreement on what constitutes quality interaction with the child. Galinsky (1988) reports working parents and caregivers generally agree upon what comprises good adult - child interaction; however, the lack of time for parent and caregiver discussion frequently fosters disagreements concerning their interaction with the child.

Parents employed in highly technical occupations report experiencing considerable personal and familial stress and believe their work and family responsibilities are in continual conflict (Galinsky, 1988). Parents, where both mother and father are employed in jobs requiring long hours, reported the greatest amount of stress in dealing with their children (Galinsky & Hughes, 1987). Even the working parents' supervisors were found to influence the parent's interaction with the child and caregiver. Supervisors' sensitivity to the needs of parents was found to support parents' interactions with their child and teacher/caregiver; while insensitivity hindered the relationship (Galinsky, 1988).

Education. More highly educated parents were found to participate in more forms of parent involvement particularly within the home than their less educated counterparts (Dauber & Epstein, 1993). However, Harris, Kagay, and Ross (1987) recount that in their investigation parents with less than a high

school education were contacted over twice as much by school faculty as parents with a college degree or higher education. Menacker, Hurwitz and Weldon (1988) profess that limited and frequently negative school experiences have led less educated parents to fear and mistrust faculty, thus making teachers' efforts to involve them problematic.

Although parents with higher levels of education have been found to provide more learning opportunities for their children, there is empirical evidence to indicate parents of every educational level are willing to assist in their child's education (Epstein, 1984; McLaughlin & Shield, 1987; Powell, Zambrana, & Silva-Palacios, 1990). Stevenson and Baker (1987) found that the relation between the parent's education and the child's school performance was mediated almost entirely by parents' levels of involvement in their child's education.

Socioeconomic status. The Southwest Regional Survey (1980 -1986), which included 3,103 low income parents and 4,073 educators in elementary schools, indicated that low income parents (97%) agreed they should cooperate with their child's teacher. They were willing to assist with their child's homework and wanted to be included in school decisions. They were just as interested as parents with higher incomes in being involved in their child's education (Chavkin & Williams, 1993).

When Peet and Powell (1993) surveyed low-income parents in Indiana, they found these parents were willing to assist in their child's education and that

they could find time each day to help their child and to foster communication. The average amount of time parents reported helping their elementary child with homework was 30 to 35 minutes compared to 25-30 minutes with middle school students. However, many indicated they did not know how to assist their child. Further evidence of low income parents' desire to participate in the young child's education was established in an extensive study in an inner city school system by Epstein and Dauber (1991). Irrespective of marital status, family composition or parent education, low income parents reported a desire to assist in their child's homework.

Family size. Family size has not been addressed as frequently as other family variables in the parent involvement literature. Epstein (1990) indicated parents with fewer children were more likely to assist in children's education at home, although family size did not seem to affect parent participation at school.

Parental ethnicity and parent involvement. Ethnicity has been identified as a modifying variable in parent involvement. Epstein (1990) reported that African-American parents receive more requests for parent involvement than Anglo-American parents, and that the African-American parents express a desire to be involved in their child's education. As a part of the Southwest Regional Study (1980-1986) 1,188 African-American, Hispanic, and Anglo-American parents were surveyed during open-house meetings concerning their attitudes toward participation in their child's education. Ninety-five percent of the minority parents indicated that they wanted to spend more time assisting with their child's

education. They indicated it was important for them to make certain their child completed homework assignments and that they wanted to cooperate with their child's teacher (Chavkin & Williams, 1993). When questioned concerning how the school could improve parent involvement, Hispanic parents' highest ranked suggestion was giving parents more information about their child's educational successes. African-American parents wanted more parent involvement activities which included working parents.

Powell, Zambrana, and Silva-Palacios (1990) interviewed 121 urban, low-income Mexican immigrant and Mexican-American mothers regarding preferred methods and content of a parent education program. Mexican-American mothers preferred group meetings while Mexican mothers preferred a combination of group meetings and home visits. Both groups indicated they would like to have other family members attend the sessions.

Asian parents often encounter even greater problems in assimilating into American schools than other ethnic groups (Yao, 1993). Education is extremely important in the Asian culture. Asian children have been taught to respect the teacher. There is great familial pressure to succeed at school; so much so that Asian parents believe it is an affront to their family for their child to demonstrate educational weaknesses. Problems may occur during parent - teacher communication when a conscientious teacher attempts to communicate techniques the Asian parents may utilize to assist in meeting their child's educational needs. The Asian parent may view the advice as a disgrace to the

family since it suggests their child is not achieving to their full potential (Yao, 1993).

Ethnicity has also been found to affect parents' educational expectations for their child. Muller and Kerbow (1993) report that more African-Americans and Asian-Americans expect their children to attain graduate degrees than Hispanics and Euro-Americans. Starting in preschool and continuing through high school, Asian-American parents support and check home work more than other ethnic groups.

Summary. From preschool through middle school, parents, regardless of their family characteristics, express the desire to work with teachers to assist in their child's education. This research supports Bronfenbrenner's and Vygotsky's theories, however, the cultural characteristics and traditions of families cannot be ignored when addressing parents' and teachers' communication and their beliefs and goals concerning children's development. Understanding and respect must precede parent and teacher dialogue concerning the child.

Teachers' and Parents' Attitudes Toward One Another

The congruence or lack of congruence between teachers' and parents' attitudes pertaining to their roles in the child's education can do much to enhance or hinder the child's development. The developmental potential of a child is dependent upon the supportive links provided through the various agencies and individuals with whom the child interacts (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Peters and Benn (1980) suggest that the school and childcare settings are replacing the support once supplied by the nuclear family. As women with young children continue to enter the workforce children are spending increasingly greater amounts of time in out-of-home care. This magnifies the importance of bidirectional communication between the mother and the caregiver and raises concerns over the effects mothers' and caregivers' attitudes have on achieving optimal communication.

Previously reported research indicates parents desire communication with teachers. Research also implies teachers desire dialogue with parents. The obstacle which seems to impede this communication is the teachers' and parents' perception of one another and their relationship with the child. Historically parents desire teachers to honor their child's unique needs while teachers consciously try to provide equal attention for every child (Katz, 1979; Lightfoot, 1975). Thus, the goals of parents and teachers may be at odds.

Teachers' Attitudes About Parents

Intuitively one realizes that additional training and a lower emotional investment in the child provides teachers a different perspective of the child than the perspective of the parents. Experienced teachers have come in contact with a variety of children and home situations which broadens their knowledge base. Teachers also have training in instructional strategies and child development and guidance (Hess, Price, Dickson, & Conroy, 1981). They deal with children in large groups, and their interactions with children are more transitory than those

of parents. They are only with the child during specific times of the day, thus allowing them a different perspective than those of the parents. Their interactions with the child are constrained by federal, state, and municipal regulations and often are limited to a single nine month school year.

Teachers' confidence in their individual teaching abilities (e.g., competence) and their confidence in parents' abilities to assist in children's education have been identified as influencing the amount and type of parent - teacher interaction which occurs as well as the amount of assistance parents provide for their children (Epstein, 1991; Becker & Epstein, 1982; Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler & Brissie, 1987). In Becker and Epstein's (1982) survey of 3,700 teachers, three perspectives were reported concerning parent's interactions in their children's education. Some teachers indicate parents care, but do not have the expertise to assist in their child's actual learning. Other teachers report teaching should be left to the teachers, while the third group of teachers indicates parents can assist in their child's education if they are provided assistance by the teacher. Epstein (1991) found that teachers' perceptions of both the parent and themselves as possessing the competency to bolster children's academic success, influenced the type and amount of parent involvement the teacher initiated.

In 1983 Kontos, Raikes, and Woods assessed 236 early childhood staff members concerning their attitudes about the child rearing practices of the parents in their program and parents in general. The caregivers reported that

globally parents are not as good as they should be; however they perceived parents in their centers to be more competent than parents in general. Head Start and preschool teachers indicated more negative opinions about the parents in their centers than did the child care teachers.

Later research by Kontos and Wells (1986) indicates teachers have more positive attitudes toward parents who have parenting styles which match the child rearing attitudes of the center setting. These are mothers who interact with their children and provide them with more opportunities for decision making. They are parents who interact more frequently with the teachers and they profess to be more satisfied with center rules and expectations than those parents who are viewed less positively by teachers. The mothers who were viewed more favorably by the teachers were found to have more education, and indicated that they had more family social support.

In a follow-up study, Kontos and Dunn (1989) found mothers who were perceived less favorably by day care staff were more likely to be single parents. These mothers reported receiving less communication from the center staff. They believed the caregivers knew very little about their children outside of the center setting. They had more restrictive child-rearing attitudes and were more often in conflict with the caregivers over center regulations and policies. The children of these mothers were lower in cognitive, language and social development than those children of parents caregivers viewed more positively. Thus, the parents and children potentially needing the most interaction from

teachers were receiving the least. These results indicate how critical parents' and teachers'/caregivers' attitudes toward one another are in developing optimal parent and teacher communication in order to support the child's development.

Joffe (1977) reports teachers'/caregivers' attitudes about their own knowledge of the children they serve and their attitudes concerning parents' knowledge of their children can affect the type and amount of communication between teachers and parents. Even in child care settings where parent involvement and communication are a high priority, when caregivers were less confident in their knowledge about individual children, they often felt inadequate and uncomfortable about sharing their professional opinions concerning a child with parents. They felt the parents intuitively knew the child better, even though in many cases the caregiver spent more hours with the child than the parent. Joffe found that teachers who were confident of their own teaching abilities maintained more positive attitudes concerning parents' abilities to be involved in their child's education, than teachers with less confidence.

The positive attitudes toward parents which is demonstrated by efficacious teachers is further exemplified by Epstein (1990) in a study examining experiences single parents encountered with school personnel. Epstein reported teachers who were identified by their principals as teachers who maintained positive attitudes concerning parents, initiated more parent involvement and participation than teachers who were less positive. These teachers reported

making more requests for parents to assist in their children's education than other teachers with less self-confidence.

Work by Hoover-Dempsey et al. (1987) supports Epstein's (1990) research by linking teachers' sense of efficacy with their perceptions of parent efficacy. The study indicated there were significant relationships between the teachers' perceptions of themselves, the parents, and the amount of parent involvement initiated. This suggests that teachers' attitudes about their own competence and attitudes about parents' competence are related to the type and amount of parent involvement seen in these elementary school programs.

This research seems to indicate two related patterns. First, teachers who perceive themselves and their parents as competent initiate more parent involvement and greater communication with parents. Second, the stronger the teacher's perception of his/her teaching abilities, the stronger their perception of parental competency. Becker and Epstein (1982) refer to these effective teachers as committed teachers who consider parent involvement a viable curricular component rather than an addition to the curriculum for maintaining parent-teacher rapport.

After surveying 3,700 elementary school teachers in over 600 elementary schools, Becker and Epstein (1982) found that overall, teachers indicate a positive view of parent-oriented teaching strategies. Virtually all of the teachers indicated a commitment to involving parents in the child's education; however, there was considerable variation in the amount and types of parent involvement.

Most teachers reported interacting with parents through written communication and parent nights; however there was considerable variation in the amount and types of other forms of parent involvement. For example nearly 80 percent of the teachers reported conducting more than three parent conferences with each family during the school year; however only 7 percent indicated they conducted parent group meetings or workshops.

Many teachers indicated they believed parent involvement at home could be an important contributor toward students' development; however they hesitated to initiate parent involvement activities because of the lack of time, parental indifference, or in some cases a fear of parents, particularly those parents who challenge the teacher (Epstein and Becker, 1982). Often they do what they perceive is best for the parent and child, ignoring the parents' skills, needs or desires.

In a survey of parents of 1,269 first, third and fifth grade students , Epstein (1986) ascertained that the majority of communication received from schools is not requested by parents. Teachers send home what they perceive parents need to know about school activities rather than addressing parental needs or desires. Much of it is written and addressed to all parents rather than individual communications to specific parents (Epstein, 1986; Helling, 1993). When parents do receive individual communication about their child, the communication usually addresses the child's academic work and school events. Physical development and peer relationships are rarely addressed (Helling,

1993). Epstein (1987) suggests that these common forms of communication do not meet the needs of all parents.

Teachers' attitudes about parent competency also seem to affect the types and amounts of parent involvement techniques they support. Some teachers believe that they can be much more effective if they obtain parental assistance in learning activities, particularly at home, while others believe that their professional status is in jeopardy if parents are involved in activities which traditionally have been teacher directed (Epstein, 1986). Thus, the key to effective communication between teachers and parents appears to depend upon teachers' beliefs about themselves and their perception of parents.

Parents' Attitudes About Teachers

Entrusting their child's welfare for a large portion of the day to a caregiver or teacher can prompt intense parental emotions. Unlike teachers, their perceptions of their child are not objectively filtered through early childhood professional preparation. Particularly in preschool or child care settings, parents may experience intense feelings of possessiveness or jealousy toward the caregiver. They realize the caregiver is spending more hours per day with the child than is available to the parent (Kontos, 1987). In the elementary school setting parents may develop negative attitudes over the impersonal stance teachers assume as they focus heavily on the cognitive development of the child. These negative attitudes may also be reflected in parents' perceptions of disciplinary encounters which include the teacher and child.

Although negative parental attitudes do exist, many parents report positive attitudes toward their children's teachers and caregivers. Ninety percent of the parents of 1,269 elementary school students in 82 first, third, and fifth-grade classrooms in Maryland, indicated their schools were organized and sensitive to their needs. They felt comfortable in talking with their child's teacher and believed that they and the child's teacher shared common goals for the child (Epstein, 1986).

Even though parents may voice agreement or disagreement with specific teachers' responses to their child, most parents, irrespective of education or socioeconomic status, indicate it is the teacher's job to teach (Graue, 1993; Holloway, Rambaud, Fuller, & Constanza, 1995). However, parental opinions concerning the teaching method they view as most effective may differ from that of the teacher. Although some parents indicate an understanding and appreciation of the importance of developmentally appropriate teaching practices in preschool and kindergarten (Hyson, Hirsh-Pasek, & Rescorla, 1990), less educated parents and less affluent parents tend to prefer formal, didactic teaching methods (Holloway et al., 1995).

Parents expect preschool teachers and child care providers to prepare their children to succeed in school. In a survey of over 8,000 parents, the prevailing belief regarding their child's education was the importance of teaching numeracy and literacy (West, Hausken, & Collins, 1993). Parents view education as preparation for later survival in the work place, rather than a place

for self-actualization and creative self-expression (Tobin, 1995). Thus, parents expect teachers to teach skills which will ensure greater success in the workforce. Because of these beliefs, parents' perceptions of the teaching methods utilized by individual teachers may influence parental attitudes toward teachers.

Although negative parental attitudes toward teachers do exist on both the elementary school level and preschool level, most parents report positive attitudes toward their children's teachers. As previously reported, 90% of the parents of elementary students surveyed by Epstein reported positive attitudes toward the school in general. When Galinsky (1990) questioned mothers of preschoolers about their perceptions of their children's teachers, approximately 90% were satisfied with the attention their child received. Eighty-five percent were satisfied with the teacher's style of discipline, and 95% were comfortable with the teacher's warmth and affection toward their child. An assessment of 100 children and their mothers from randomly selected childcare settings, revealed the majority of mothers were satisfied with the setting and their children's caregivers (Kontos & Dunn, 1989).

The research suggests parents' and teachers' attitudes toward one another influence their reactions. Parents and teachers with positive attitudes tend to view one another as more competent. These parents and teachers are more apt to initiate and participate in parent involvement and are more apt to participate in the child's education.

Parents' Expectations For Children's Development

Theoretical Views of Development

Parental expectations and beliefs concerning children's development have been found to influence the way parents understand the behavior of their children and in some cases how they interact with their child in both the home and school settings (Miller, 1988). Expectations may be based on parents' experiences or the experiences of others, and may range on a continuum from very firm convictions concerning children's development to general ideas about children's growth. Because of the multiplicity of families' demographic characteristics, parental experiences and parental access to information, these beliefs frequently vary considerably among parents, are very malleable, and easily modified by parental experiences and the advice of others (Goodnow, 1988; Southerland, 1983).

The complexity of parental reasoning concerning children's development and the hierarchical progression of parents' understanding of their children's development has been demonstrated by Sameroff (1975). He articulated four levels of parental reasoning: symbiotic, categorical, compensating, and perspectivist, which he views as analogous to Piaget's sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, and formal operational stages (Sameroff & Feil, 1985). Although the levels are simplistic in their explanation, they exemplify the developmental progression of parents' understanding of children's development.

At the lowest level of reasoning, the symbiotic level, the parent is primarily concerned with his/her immediate relationship with the child. They perceive the child as an extension of themselves and are comfortable with the child as long as the child produces the responses desired by the parent. At the categorical level parents realize children are a separate entity with responses which may differ from the expectations of the parent. However at this level the parents still view the responses of the child as intrinsic and unaffected by environmental factors or growth. If the child is a "good" or a "bad" baby, they retain the original label throughout childhood. At the compensating level the parents realize that no single label or characteristic can explain their child's behaviors over time, but they still perceive the child as the source of his/her behaviors. At the highest perspectivist level of understanding, parents are able to realize the child's behavior stems not only from innate characteristics, but also are influenced by the child's experiences with the environment (Sameroff & Feil, 1985).

When Sameroff tested his theoretical stages of parental concepts of development, he found that the majority of parents were on the compensating level. They understood there were multiple variables which could influence their child's development, however they did not completely understand the interrelationships between those variables and the child's growth (Sameroff & Seifer, 1983).

Sameroff and Seifer also discovered cultural and socioeconomic constraints on parental concepts of development. Irrespective of ethnicity,

parents in lower socioeconomic circumstances possessed more rudimentary concepts of children's development than parents in a higher socioeconomic level. This was attributed to the lower socioeconomic parents' need for conformity, the lack of opportunity to make choices, and their lack of education. Sameroff's work emphasizes the influences of demographic circumstances and the probability of parents' reasoning abilities influencing parents' developmental expectations.

Like Sameroff's work on parental reasoning, Munichin's family systems theory, Bronfenbrenner's ecological theory and Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory suggest the presence of multiple environmental influences on parents' expectations about development. In their own ways Bronfenbrenner, Minuchin and Vygotsky's theories all argue that the environment has a critical impact on human functioning (see earlier section on theory).

For example, Bronfenbrenner's theoretical model may be used to explain parents' developmental expectations for their child. Developmental expectations may be self-constructed through interaction in a variety of microsystems. That is, parent expectations may evolve from the way the parents were raised or through advice provided by family and friends, their pediatrician, or child care provider.

Parents also use developmental stage theories as a means of identifying developmental milestones. Most parents anticipate their children will go through stages of development which are typically composed of several behaviors.

These stages (e.g., "terrible twos"), which have been developed by persons identified as child development experts, provide indications of development and frequently allow the parent to accept and cope with negative behaviors (Goodnow & Collins, 1990).

Whiting's study (as cited in Goodnow, 1988) indicates parents' developmental expectations are frequently determined by how they combine the information provided by experts and the information provided by their direct experiences. Thus, just as teachers develop implicit theories about teaching (Spodek, 1988), parents develop implicit theories about child development. Because of the multiple sources and experiences which have assisted in the development of these beliefs, parental expectations for their child's development do not always coincide with formal psychologists, the child's caregiver or teacher, or with the characteristics of their child (Goodnow, 1988; Miller, 1988).

Stability of Parental Expectations

Hess et al. (1980) say parental expectations can change as a result of changing life circumstances and characteristics of the child. For example their child's temperament, the gender of the child, and the parents' interaction and experiences with their child and other children, may influence the parents' expectations for the child to attain certain abilities or developmental milestones (Hess et al., 1980).

Parents' sources of information also influence their expectations for children's development. Because of the availability of multiple sources of

information concerning the young child's development, parental developmental expectations are often malleable and difficult to measure in that they may be continually altered by the child's growth, temperament, increased experiences and changing developmental needs (Goodnow, 1988). This malleability of parents' developmental expectations for their children is exemplified in Sigel's (1986) research. Sigel assessed mothers' beliefs of the age they perceived children should attain certain developmental milestones. Many mothers in his study indicated they had never thought about their child's development in the areas Sigel was assessing. Thus, their answers to his questions were formulated on information discussed during the interview, and thus were based on their preexisting beliefs and the new information provided by the interview. This suggests that even though the mothers in this study had preexisting beliefs about the development of their child, when they were presented with new information via the interview questions, the mothers reported newly constructed beliefs rather than their preexisting beliefs.

Conversely, Maccoby and Martin (1983) reported that when the hyperactivity of a group of boys was decreased through medication, their lack of hyperactivity was observed more readily by observers than by their mothers. The mothers needed more time to reorganize their perceptions of their children's behavior, as well as adjust their reactions to the child's new behavior, than the casual observer.

These studies exemplify the complexity of parental cognition about development. The possibility of change in parental expectations or beliefs is dependent upon the strength of the parent's existing information (i.e., schema), the characteristics of the parent, and the strength of the new information. When the parental beliefs are strong, there will be a resistance to change, irrespective of the new information; however, when friends or colleagues acquire the new beliefs, parents' expectations may modify more rapidly as a function of their interaction with their peers (Turner, 1985).

Accuracy of parental expectations

When Hess, Holloway and King (as cited in Miller, 1988) asked mothers of young children about the age they anticipated their children and other children to attain certain tasks, the mothers overestimated the age they expected their child to achieve the developmental tasks. In fact, there is very little evidence that parents' expectations for their own child were more accurate than their expectations for children in general. In some cases parents were more accurate for the average child than they were of their own child. When parents did err in their developmental expectations, they demonstrated a marked tendency to overestimate what their child was capable of doing (Miller, Manhal, & Mee, 1991).

Miller's (1988) review of the literature reiterates these findings. He states that mothers maintain a relatively accurate concept of their child's ability; however when they err, they underestimate their infant's abilities and

overestimate their young child's abilities, particularly in the area of the young child's cognitive development. Correlations between parental estimates of their child's performance and the child's actual performance are generally significant; however there is still little evidence to substantiate the premise that parents are more accurate in their expectations for their own child than they are in estimating developmental expectations for all children (Miller & Davis, 1992).

The accuracy of the age and the time parents' expect their children to develop certain behaviors or abilities influences the optimal development of a child. In a diverse sample of urban children in grades one through three, the accuracy of parents' expectations and estimates of their children's cognitive abilities were positively related to the child's school achievement (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1981). Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) supported these findings when they found a significant relationship between fathers' and mothers' beliefs about learning and the child's perception of his/her cognitive and physical competence and social acceptance.

Parents' interpretations of their children's behaviors, their relationships with their children, and their methods of responding and interacting with their children are intimately related to the parents' developmental expectations (Rubin & Mills, 1992). If the expectations are unrealistic, the child may experience decreased self-esteem and lack of motivation, thus hindering the child in the attainment of his/her full potential.

Influences on parental expectations

Okagaki and Sternberg (1993) postulate that all parents want their children to be intelligent and experience school success; however, as previously stated, their expectations for their child may differ as a function of their own personal learning experiences, their psychological characteristics, the availability of resources concerning child development, the characteristics of the child, and the sources of stress and support in their environment.

Parents' developmental expectations are also influenced by the traditions and beliefs of different ethnic groups. Okagaki and Sternberg (1993) questioned immigrant parents from Cambodia, Mexico, the Philippines, and Vietnam in conjunction with native-born Anglo-American and Mexican-American parents about their child-rearing practices. They also assessed the parents' expectations of what their first and second grade children should be taught and what characterizes an intelligent child. They found that immigrant parents favored conformity to teachers' expectations. Children were to do what they were told. However, American born parents of the same ethnic origins reported expectations which were more related to Anglo-American expectations which favor the child's developing autonomy rather than conformity.

Okagaki and Sternberg found that parents' expectations for development were influenced by their definitions of intelligence. When defining intelligence, Anglo-American parents focused exclusively on innate cognitive characteristics. All of the other nationalities included cognitive and noncognitive characteristics

(i.e., motivation, social skills, enjoying learning) as facets of intelligence. These views of intelligence resulted in differential parent expectations for intelligent behaviors as a function of their differing definitions of intelligence.

In a recent study, Peet (1995) examined parents' use of internal information sources ("i.e., parents' own intuitions about development, religious beliefs / teachings, and childhood experiences" (p.145)) and external information sources (i.e., magazines, physicians, parents) to make decisions concerning the young child's development. The internal sources of information parents reported using the most were their own intuitions, religious beliefs, and childhood experiences. The external sources most frequently used were physicians/ nurses, magazines, and preschool teachers. Although fathers' and mothers' usage of these sources were varied and malleable, all parents in the study reported frequent usage of both their internal and external sources. These findings magnify the multiple influences which impact parental expectations and actions. As previously stated, parent cognition is extremely complicated.

Differences in Parents' and Teachers' Expectations

Variation in developmental expectations were also found between children, teachers and mothers. Mothers' age expectations for the child to develop certain tasks were consistently earlier than the expectations of teachers (Goodnow, Knight, Cashmore, 1985). Teachers' expectations for young children's development were found to vary as a function of the amount of teacher interaction with a child. Teachers who interacted with children for a full day

indicated earlier age development expectations than half-day teachers (Goodnow, Knight, Cashmore, 1985). This variability of teacher expectations may further complicate the appropriateness of parents' developmental expectations as parents receive information concerning their child's development from various teachers and caregivers.

Parents' developmental expectations are considered important because they influence their own behavior and subsequently influence the development of the child. Parents whose developmental expectations coincide with their child's growth are usually more able to assist in their child's education, and thus positively foster their child's cognitive and social growth (Miller, 1988). However, reaching a balance between parents' expectations and their child's development can be difficult because of the complexity of both the parents' expectations and their child's continued growth and development.

For example, parents' school experiences can influence their expectations for their child's development. In a diverse sample of urban children in grades 1 through 3, middle class parents who monitored their child's school progress were able to modify their expectations and estimates of children's cognitive abilities and positively influence their child's school achievement. Conversely low income parents with less school experiences had difficulty modifying their expectations which, in turn, hampered their assistance in their child's education (Entwisle & Hayduk, 1981).

Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) supported these findings when they investigated the relationship between mothers' and fathers' beliefs about learning (measured by the amount of learning activities in the home and parents' involvement in their child's education). There was a significant relationship between the fathers' and mothers' beliefs about learning and the child's perception of his/her cognitive and physical competence and social acceptance.

These studies also emphasize the variety of environmental influences on parental expectations, and the difficulty of altering existing beliefs or developmental expectations. Because of the individuality of parental expectations, generic group forms of parent education and parent involvement may be inadequate in altering parents' inaccurate beliefs and expectations. It is clear though, that parental expectations for development influence parent - child interaction. Parental expectations and parent - child interactions may also be influenced by parent involvement as parents learn more about their children.

Mothers' Perceptions of their Role in Their Child's Education

Vygotsky (1978) theorized that through the interaction of a knowledgeable adult, children will acquire the skills to perform tasks independently. In its broadest sense, the central role of parents is to assume the position of the knowledgeable adult and support the development of their child (Peet, 1994). Current theorists add to Vygotsky's theory by including the influence of the adult's previous experiences, their perception of the child's abilities, and the adult's perception of their role in assisting the child. All of these

will influence the adult's' perception of her role and her interactions with the child (Goodnow & Collins, 1990).

Mothers' perceptions of their role in their child's development are motivated by their conception of what they perceive to be a child's normal progress toward maturity. These conceptions or developmental expectations provide a "timetable" of what they perceive is possible and impossible for their child. Whether in a naive or an informed way the mother utilizes this timetable to reinforce, restrict, or encourage the child's development in areas the mother identifies as important (Hess et al., 1981). In most instances this timetable is continually revised depending upon the parent's current knowledge and the child's characteristics, while in others, the parent may cease assisting the child who is unable to meet the parent's expectations.

Demographic Influences on Parental Roles

Other factors which will influence the parent's timetable and her perceptions of her role in assisting in her child's development are ethnic traditions, the mother's educational level, employment status, and the socio-economic level of the family. Mothers from lower socio-economic levels perceive their role to be one of teaching their children to respect authority, "to do what they teacher tells them to do" (Holloway et al., 1995). They are less apt to overtly assist in their child's education; however, are willing to do so when teachers provide strategies and activities for guiding the parent in appropriate methods to teach the child (Dauber & Epstein, 1993).

More highly educated mothers and mothers from middle class and upper class socio-economic levels are more apt to adopt a very active role in their child's education. Better educated parents believe they have more influence over their child's development than less educated parents (Palacios, 1992). These are the mothers who involve their child in multiple activities to provide continual social and cognitive stimulation. Elkind (1981) refers to children whose mothers have become overly zealous in fostering their child's development as "hurried children". The parent becomes so immersed in their role of stimulating the child's development, they force the child into developmentally inappropriate activities and settings.

Ethnicity and parents' cultural traditions also influence parents' perceptions of their role in their child's education. Parents of Asian decent perceive their role to be one of providing appropriate opportunities and support for their child to complete assignments within the home. The teacher is to provide the information and instructions for the parent to assist (Yao, 1993). As stated previously in the literature review, children's school success or lack of it reflects upon the entire family in the Asian culture.

Native American parents traditionally consider the role of supporting children's development to be the responsibility of all adults (the whole tribe). Involvement of all family members is essential. Emphasis is on learning through explanation and example. Although traditionally Native Americans assume a more passive role in their child's development within the school setting, they

believe it is their sacred responsibility to support all children's development (Sipes, 1993). For this reason their role is modifying to include parent participation within the school setting.

Current Perceptions of Parental Roles

Current literature indicates parents focus more on children's cognitive development, but actually believe they have more control and influence over their children's social development (Knight & Goodnow, 1988). Although many parents indicate they include their children in baking cookies, grocery shopping, and multiple conversations, they do not perceive this to be a component of their role in stimulating cognitive development. Most parents are unaware of the educational influences and impact of everyday experiences (Sonnenschein, Baker, & Cerro, 1992).

In Sonnenschein, Baker, and Cerro's study (1992), middle class mothers who intentionally taught cognitive skills were more likely to teach social skills in an incidental manner; while parents who intentionally taught social skills were less apt to teach cognitive skills. Most of the mothers reported that they believed their role in their child's development would change as the child matured. All of the mothers reported including some literacy opportunities for their child, as well as a few metacognitive strategies. They perceived their role in their child's development as being important and one that was based on their own experiences, and advice from adults they perceived to be knowledgeable.

These variations in parental role perceptions and the parental behaviors analogous to the parent involvement that they lead up to, should be related to variations in children's development. Empirical work in this area is quite limited, however.

Parent Education

Irrespective of cultural heritage, economic circumstances, or educational level most parents aspire to assist in providing their child opportunities for optimal development. Barriers occur when parents and communities do not possess what Coleman (1987) defines as social capital to prepare children for integrating into the dominant culture's educational and social expectations. In the family, social capital is defined as parent-child communication concerning academic, social and personal matters. Lack of social capital is frequently a factor when discontinuity occurs between the type of communication in the home, particularly in low income or ethnic minority homes, and that occurring in the schools (Powell, 1990). School instruction has historically reflected dominant white middle class values which exacerbates this discontinuity for minority families. Parents who have minimal formal education pose another problem as they are often fearful of the school setting and lack the ability to assist in their child's education.

Family social capital is further eroded with the breakdown of the idealized images of two-parent families in which the father provides the monetary sustenance for the family while mother cares for the children and participates in

school activities. As previously stated, current families which are composed of dual-earning parents and single parents have little time to participate in traditional forms of parent involvement such as volunteering within the school setting and participating in special events.

Current research is examining a more ecological approach to parent education. Rather than continuing to inform parents through within - school volunteering and participation in school support groups such as the Parent Teachers Association, schools are striving to adopt a more ecological approach for parent participation and education. These new roles for schools include serving as brokers of multiple services such as health care (i.e., child immunizations, providing access to medical services), social services, and parent education (Coleman, 1987). The current problem is to identify optimal models of parent education and support which provide social capital appropriate for the parent and child while being economically feasible for schools. In an effort to provide social capital to children and parents, various parent education models have been examined and initiated.

Deficit Model

Until the 1920's the majority of parent education models were oriented toward changing or improving immigrant family practices to aid integration into the dominant white middle class culture. The 1920's ushered in parent education for the dominant middle class. This consisted of programs primarily sponsored by the schools which instructed parents on the proper ways to raise

children and enhance cognitive development. This form of parent education continued until the early 1960's when it became apparent that even though the United States had one of the highest standards of living in the world, minorities, handicapped individuals, and the economically disadvantaged were still underemployed (Berger, 1991). Although the welfare system provided financial assistance and instruction on proper health, educational and nutritional methods, the population of poor was increasing instead of decreasing. Rather than achieving independence, recipients were becoming more helpless and dependent upon the system (Cochran, 1987; Lally, Mangrove, & Honig, 1988; Moroney, 1987).

The key word in this scenario is instruction. These families were identified as "at risk" and were viewed as inadequate or deficient because they did not reflect dominant middle class characteristics. Since the instruction and assistance they were receiving was primarily from prepared curricula and procedures which reflected middle class ideologies, the families' unique characteristics were often ignored.

This type of parent education and intervention has been termed the Deficit Model because parents have to demonstrate that they are in need before receiving help (Cochran, 1988). Since the family is already experiencing defeat, it is very difficult for them to attain the confidence and abilities to wean away from this type of assistance. Rather than identifying and focusing on the strengths of

the family, the emphasis is on fixing what is perceived as weak or different than that espoused by the dominant Euro American society.

Because efforts to "fix" families and make them more like middle class families have proven to be unsuccessful, alternative parent education models are being explored. One of these is the ecological model which recognizes that families do not exist in a vacuum. They are a compilation of traditions, attitudes, and experiences which must be honored and addressed while assisting families.

Ecological Model

As experts began to research the welfare system, Head Start was created through the Office of Economic Opportunity in 1965. The primary thrust of the program was to enable impoverished children to enter elementary school on an equal footing with their more privileged peers (Greenberg, 1990; Lee et al., 1990). Realizing that school preparation requires more than accumulated knowledge, program components were designed to address the child's physical and emotional needs as well as cognitive needs. To attain these objectives parents were included in every aspect of the program through parental instruction in child development and health care to decision-making opportunities concerning their children. One of the key elements was the Family Action Plan which identified means for families to realize their personal goals. Rather than trying to fix the parents by focusing on their deficiencies, the emphasis was on empowering them to optimally utilize the programs and available opportunities. (Minnick, 1988; Powell, 1984; Zigler & Freedman, 1987). By moving from a

parent improvement program to one which adopted more of a family focus. Head Start became the precursor of the ecological or transactional approach to parent education (Schweinhart & Weikert, 1986; Zigler & Freedman, 1987).

Societal changes such as mothers entering the work force, recognition of ethnic differences, increased mobility of families, and more single parent families began to force a shift from programs which were grounded in the traditional parental deficit paradigm toward the ecological approach which addressed the multiplicity and uniqueness of each family and its surroundings. By adopting the ecological model, child development specialists began to explore the premise that human behavior results from the interaction of many factors including a person's temperament, maturation, the immediate family, the neighborhood, the presence of a stellar family or support system and the perception of the family in the community (Bronfenbrenner, 1986; Cochran, 1987, 1988; Eisenstadt & Powell, 1987; Lally, Mangione & Honig, 1988).

Informed by Head Start and its emphasis on serving the total child and family, and the theoretical work of Bronfenbrenner, the educational community recognized that the family is in a much better position to provide long term support and guidance for the child than an isolated program which only focuses on the child's current needs. The emphasis shifted from focusing on the child to more of a perspective which recognized that by educating the parents and addressing their needs, the child would have more opportunity to receive

sustained guidance and a greater chance for optimal development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Zigler & Berman, 1983).

The realization that addressing the needs of families in poverty was not a monolithic problem, but rather a unique multifaceted phenomenon, precipitated investigations of existing parent education and parent support programs which serve families by addressing their individual needs and characteristics. During the 1970's several multiple site demonstration projects were initiated by Head Start's sponsor, the Administration for Children, Youth and Families (ACYF), to identify programs which were currently addressing parent education and child development outcomes ecologically. The emphasis was on modifying current interventions to meet the needs of the population being served (Halpern & Lerner, 1988).

ACYF launched a program known as Planned Variation Head Start. The purpose was to identify parent and child curriculum models which could be adapted to the families, rather than expecting the families to adjust to the program. Some programs consisted of child-initiated activities which provided learning opportunities through exploration while other programs emphasized more teacher-directed activities and direct instruction. In each research setting the programs were implemented somewhat differently as they evolved to meet the needs of the participating families. As the programs were altered to meet the needs of the population being served, it became apparent that in some cases

differences within models were often greater than differences between models (Halpern & Larner, 1988; Travers & Light, 1982).

Although the differences between models suggest the individual needs of the various settings were being addressed, the diversity of the Head Start programs has confounded research comparisons of Head Start and control groups. The Head Start participants are a heterogeneous population. Consequently the primary goal of identifying a curriculum that would most effectively meet the needs of Head Start children and families is still being discussed (Oden & Schweinhart, 1996).

Two Generation Model. In the continued quest to identify optimal parent education models which address individual familial needs, other organizations have initiated and explored various parent education models. The Ford Foundation funded Parent Child Development Centers (PCDC) in three sites: Birmingham, serving black and white families; Houston, serving Mexican-American families; and New Orleans, serving black families (Andrews et al., 1982). These programs were to maintain a consistent theoretical perspective while assessing the effects of maternal interactions on infant development; however each program was to address and support the unique needs of its population. To meet the individual needs of the populations being served, each site instituted parent education strategies congruent with their needs. No two programs were alike, however, all of the parent education programs were deemed successful and continued after the experiment had ended.

These studies provided further support for the premise that ecological parent education models which address the unique needs of the people being served, are much more effective than those models which focus on "fixing" the parent. They provided the foundation for the two generation parent education models which followed. Two generation models not only address the unique needs of the mother, but also that of the child or family.

The two generation model was utilized to assist single mothers and their children in leaving the welfare system. Previously, single mothers receiving welfare payments were provided job training opportunities; however there often was no affordable child care available. Consequently this form of parent assistance and education had often been ineffective in helping the mother gain the job skills needed to leave the welfare system. By providing care for the child in concurrence with the mother receiving job training, the mothers are provided opportunities for consistent attendance and the acquiring of a skill while her child is receiving quality care.

An example of the two-generation model is the federally funded Jobs Opportunities and Basic Skills program (JOBS). The emphasis is to provide job training so that the custodial parent may become self-sufficient and thus leave the welfare roll. During this time child care is provided and the noncustodial parent is required to provide financial assistance (Smith, 1991). In response to this act various public and private foundations have financed research efforts for

longitudinal evaluations of two-generational program models which address not only the needs of the parent, but also those of the child.

Other federally funded two generation parent education models are the Expanded Child Care Options (ECCO) and Even Start. The Head Start and JOBS programs are being linked in some states to provide extended day care and child development educational opportunities for the child, while the parent is participating in job training or continuing their education (Collins, 1993; Smith, 1991). The government sponsored Even Start programs serve low-income families with children ages 1 through 7. Even Start provides developmentally appropriate activities for the children, while providing parental education in child development in conjunction with opportunities for parents to fulfill high school GED requirements and acquire basic literacy skills.

These two-generation program initiatives described above exemplify the importance of considering all of the variables which affect parents' and children's development and quality of life. For optimum results parent education program content, information dissemination, and parent and child characteristics, needs and social settings must be addressed. Parent education strategies which have proven effective with middle-class parents may not meet the needs of low-income families. Large-group parent education methods have proven particularly effective with middle class parents; however Chilman's (1973) review of the parent education literature indicated this method was not productive in low

income families. Slaughter (1983) however reports that long-term group work can be effective with certain low-income ethnic populations.

This research indicates that parent involvement in the form of parent education is most likely to be effective when family characteristics are accommodated. Ethnicity or culture has also been identified as affecting parents' choice of educational strategies. Some ethnic groups as well as certain personality types are threatened by participating in group situations while others are threatened by home visitations (Powell & Eisenstadt, 1988; Powell, Zambrana & Silva-Palacios, 1990). Again the emphasis must be placed on the flexibility, intuitiveness, and knowledge of those providing the parent education or family services. One of the key components in a parent education program is voluntary participation and the opportunity to provide input into the discussion topics (Powell, 1990; Powell et al., 1990).

Building on the premise that the educational community and current parent support systems are antiquated, Coleman (1987) proposes that parent education and parent support systems must be modified to meet the current needs of families. With the increase in single parent families, families where both parents work outside the home, parents who have moved away from their stellar family, and families encompassing a variety of ethnic and cultural beliefs, Coleman proposes that a generic parent education strategy can no longer be implemented in all settings. Although there is an abundance of published materials concerning child development and appropriate learning activities for

young children available to parents, surveys indicate that parents prefer people sources (Cruse, Carlson & Kontos, 1981; Koepke & Williams, 1989; Peet, 1994). This is particularly evident in immigrant populations where English is the second language (Powell, Zambrana, & Silva-Palacios, 1990). Parent education programs are uniquely suited to provide this personal interaction.

Historically the primary means to distribute information to parents has been through the parent involvement strategies of written communication (e.g., newsletters, notes), parent conferences and group meetings within schools and preschool programs (Epstein, 1986). In most settings the content of the meetings and conferences are decided by professional staff members and evolve from white, middle-class norms. For this reason the individual and collective needs of the parents are not always identified or addressed (Sigel, 1983; Laosa, 1983). The field must now work towards devising parent involvement and parent education strategies for individual parents and families rather than using generic models to serve all. One method particularly amenable to individualization is home visitation. Although home visits have been used for years, only recently have experts realized the need to tailor them to individual families.

Home Visits

Home visits have been recorded as far back as Elizabethan times when services were provided to paupers in their homes. Wasik, Bryant and Lyons (1990) state that home visits have been utilized across the years, particularly to

assist families in need. The primary purpose of home visits has been to recognize and address each family's unique needs by providing or identifying sources of assistance and appropriate means to better the familial situation (i.e., families with health problems, invalids, elderly people and people in poverty). Although theoretically home visits appear to be the most ecological method to meet the unique familial needs, empirical support documenting the effectiveness of home visits is scarce. The practice of visiting families of children in their home is based upon three assumptions: (a) Parents are usually the most caring and important people in the child's life. Home is where the child feels most comfortable and secure. (b) Parents can learn effective ways to assist in their child's development if provided appropriate knowledge and skills. This can be optimally achieved through individualizing the instruction in the home by focusing on the particular family. (c) For parents to optimally meet the needs of their children, their own needs must also be addressed. Through home visits parents are provided support and strategies which will assist in their family's unique situation, thus providing greater security for the child (Wasik, Bryant & Lyons, 1990).

A major home visiting study which exemplifies the importance of addressing the needs and characteristics of the family while providing comprehensive support for the family is the Child and Family Resource Program (CFRP) (Travers, Nauta & Irwin, 1982). This was a home visiting program for families with infants, birth through age 3, which was implemented in 11 states

throughout the nation. Participating families were linked to social service agencies if needed. This included becoming affiliated with Head Start programs if preschool children were involved. Through Head Start the children were provided a health screening and an appropriate school setting.

Some settings utilized lay people as the home visitors, while others utilized professionals. The choice of home visitor was to be congruent with the needs of the families being served. For example, one site served unwed teen mothers with home visitors who had been single teen mothers from similar life circumstances. Another site used professional home visiting teams, with one home visitor focusing on general family needs and the other focusing on child development. Some programs were heavily involved with Head Start while others placed greater emphasis on parental employment and social service. Some models had parents participating in center activities while others were primarily home based. The programs were adjusted to meet the needs of the populations served.

Five of the 11 programs were evaluated to ascertain their effectiveness in meeting families' needs. The five programs were selected because the needs of their families and the ways the home visitor were addressing these needs differed significantly. In one setting there was greater emphasis on job training and employment. In another setting there was a strong mental health emphasis on helping children with special needs. In this setting mothers were assisted in leaving the work force in order to stay at home and care for their children. None

of the settings indicated significant effects on the families as measured by various child development and behavior measures which had been selected prior to the home visits (Andrews et al., 1984). The authors state the lack of significant changes, as measured by the survey instruments, may have occurred because the major emphasis of the home visits was to tailor the education and assistance to meet the unique needs of each family. The visitors may have been so successful in meeting the individual needs of each family, they moved away from some of the specific areas which were measured by the survey instruments.

Several home visiting studies have exemplified the importance of having a flexible home visiting agenda rather than a preset curriculum, and having lay or peer home visitors providing the intervention. Cochran (1988) refers to this as empowering the parent. Rather than having an established generic curriculum, the lay visitors adjust the intervention in response to the individual family's needs. Also, having home visitors who have had similar life experiences should provide greater congruence between the visitor and the parent. However, because of the paucity of home visiting research studies, Powell (1990) cautions against making decisions concerning which type of home visit and/or home visitor is the most beneficial.

The usefulness of having peer or lay (non-professional) visitors in conjunction with a flexible home visiting curriculum or agenda is further exemplified in the Child Survival/Fair Start study supported by the Ford Foundation (Halpern & Lerner, 1988). Similar to the Child and Family Resource

program study, this study was implemented in various settings throughout the United States. Home visitations began when the mother was pregnant and terminated when the child reached age two. Although the visitors were trained in prenatal care, the primary focus of the home visits was to identify and support the pregnant mother's strengths; thus making them more confident and able to adjust to their life experiences and to utilize their current knowledge. Rather than teach the mothers about child development, the visitors were instructed to listen to the mothers and respond to their needs.

Halpern and Lerner report that in most settings this occurred, however in The Rural Alabama Pregnancy and Infant Health Program two things occurred which transformed a flexible home visiting curriculum and agenda into a prepared curriculum. Both the home visitors and the mother's being visited altered their communication styles because of an expert providing additional information.

In an effort to provide greater assistance for the young mothers, a child development specialist was hired to provide the home visitors with additional knowledge about child development. The child development specialist gave weekly lectures to the home visitors on a variety of child development topics. As the lectures continued the young mothers began canceling their home visits. When the director of the program investigated the problem, she found that the home visitors, who were well respected older grandmotherly type women in the community, had become intimidated by the flood of new information provided by

the child development lectures. In trying to relay all of the new information, the visitors had lost their spontaneity and responsiveness during the home visits. They were trying to tell the young mothers everything they had learned in the lectures and thus had stopped listening to and addressing the immediate needs of their clients. The individualized program had unintentionally become a preset curriculum rather than a response to the mothers' needs and had thus, lost its effectiveness.

The Syracuse University Family Development program is another example of an early intervention strategy which utilized home visits focusing on topics the family (client) perceived as important (Lally, Mangione & Honig, 1988). A full complement of education, nutrition, health and safety, and human service resources were provided to 108 low income families (yearly income less than \$5,000 in 1970 dollars), beginning before the birth of their child and continuing until the child entered elementary school. "The major thrust of the intervention was to influence and have impact on the more permanent environment of the child, the family, and the home, and to support parent strategies which enhance the development of the child long after intervention ceased" (p.80). Concurrent with the families receiving the intervention, a comparable population of low income families were identified as control group parents who received no home visits.

Weekly home visits were made by trained paraprofessionals. The visitors were instructed to view parents as partners and to focus on sustaining family

strengths and assisting in matters which the family perceived as needs. The home visits usually included the mother and child with emphasis placed on developing a warm loving relationship between them. The major role of the visitor was that of a "knowledgeable friend".

A learning game was included in each of the visits. Initially these were selected by the visitor, but as the visits progressed the mother and child decided what they would like to do during the visits. Emphasis was placed on modifying activities to meet the developmental needs of the child. As the study progressed, the mothers continued to assume more responsibility for their child's health and educational needs. Using the home visits to support the family rather than transform it into a preconceived mold, allowed the mothers to gain greater knowledge and understanding of their child while cultivating greater autonomy and confidence in themselves.

This same autonomy and confidence was expressed by the experimental group parents in a ten year follow-up study. Benefits were also seen in the experimental group children; however educational differences between the control group students (receiving no home visits) and experimental group students were minimal. There were no differences between the school success of boys in the experimental group who received home visits and the boys in the control group who received no home visits. None of the girls in the experimental group were failing in school while some in the control group were.

The major differences were found between the experimental group parents and control group parents, concerning their attitudes toward children, education and family functioning. Twenty-eight percent of the experimental group parents talked about the prosocial behavior of their children compared to 10% of the control group. Eighteen percent of the experimental group parents compared to 5% of the control group mentioned they were proud of their parenting efforts and they felt a unity among family members. The experimental group parents reported that they advised their children to reach their full potential, while control group parents were more likely to advise children not to expect too much from life. After experiencing home visits which focused on families' individual needs rather than trying to transform them into a predetermined mold, 10 years later parents were feeling good about their families and themselves (Lally, Mangione, & Honig, 1988). Taken together, these research studies demonstrate home visits can be an effective means of helping parents learn about their children and how they can assist in their children's development. Individualization seems to be a key feature of effective home visiting programs.

Head Start has used home visits as a method of service delivery. In an effort to meet the needs of families unable to receive center-based services, in 1972 sixteen Home Start home visiting demonstration programs were funded through Head Start for a duration of three years. The rationale was that in many communities center-based programs were unavailable and in others where

centers were available, there was no way to ensure whether center-based instruction was being implemented in the home (Zigler & Valentine, 1979).

The philosophy of the Head Start home visiting programs has always been to foster greater inclusion of parents in young children's education and to establish greater interpersonal relations between teachers and families. The primary goal is to facilitate the parents' position as their child's primary teacher. Parents have the right to decide if they wish to participate. During the visits the teacher-visitor assumes a secondary role as s/he facilitates the parent's role as principle teacher of the child. This is accomplished by focusing on the parents' interaction and problem-solving skills with the objective of enhancing the parents' confidence in parenting (Wasik, Bryant & Lyons, 1990).

Parent Involvement in Head Start

Head Start is identified as an ecological program for economically deprived young children. Head Start center-based preschools not only strive to provide developmentally appropriate activities for young children, they also assist the parent by utilizing multiple parent involvement and parent education strategies. Opportunities for parent involvement range from participation in the classroom to home visits by the teacher, and parent education seminars.

When compared with low income children without preschool experiences, children with preschool experiences show immediate and long term improvements in academic success through second grade. These children have also been found to have fewer special education placements and be more likely

to graduate from high school, than their counterparts who had not attended Head Start (Consortium for Longitudinal Studies, 1983). The assumption in the field is that Head Start may provide similar benefits. Supporting this notion Lee, Brooks-Gunn, Schnur, and Liaw, (1990) found that children who attended Head Start (particularly those who were most deprived) maintained educationally substantive gains in general cognitive/analytic ability, compared to a comparable sample of children with no preschool experience.

At the Head Start's Third National Research Conference (1996) Schweinhart reported that current longitudinal data on high school students who were participants in Head Start had higher grade point averages, contained more high school graduates, and had completed more post-secondary schooling than their counterparts without the Head Start experience (Oden & Schweinhart, 1996).

Although neither Lee et al. nor Schweinhart assessed the level of parent involvement in the programs they studied, nationwide Head Start policies mandating parent involvement imply that these families were provided parent involvement opportunities and consequently parent involvement may have played a role in children's cognitive gains. These results suggest parent involvement and children's experiences in Head Start may influence student's later school success.

Summary

The educational community can no longer view children as isolated entities who enter the classroom as an empty vessel to be filled. Current theory and research indicate even the youngest child arrives at school as a compilation of his/her family setting, family values, family composition, ethnicity, socioeconomic level, values and beliefs. Children's thinking cannot be removed from the social and historical context in which it occurs. To truly ascertain, comprehend and address children's educational needs teachers must gain an understanding of where the child has originated and resides: the family.

Irrespective of parents' beliefs or heritage, research indicates that the majority of parents want to be included in their child's education. Coupled with this desire is parent involvement research which indicates greater academic success for children whose parents are involved in and supportive of their child's education. Early intervention research has identified one of the most efficacious parent-teacher / paraprofessional communication methods to be home visits. By entering the home the visitor is able to gain a greater understanding of the family environment, interactions and needs. Because the parent and child are in their home rather than in a more foreign setting, home visits provide an empowerment for the family which is allowed by no other parent-teacher communication strategy. All of the interactions focus on the needs and strengths of the child with the teacher and parent working as partners to address the child's needs.

In the current study it is hoped that by initiating individualized monthly home visits by teachers with parents and children in Head Start classes serving four-year-old children, opportunities will be provided for increased parent, child and teacher interaction and understanding. This interaction may increase parents' and teachers' knowledge of one another and of the child's development.

CHAPTER 3

Method

Research Design

The study utilized a quasi-experimental design to examine the influence of the addition of 8 home visits to half-day center-based Head Start programs for four-year-old children. Because of the nature of the population the primary parents participating in the study were mothers (N = 77). The only exception were a father and a grandmother.

The study utilized a pre-test, post-test multiple treatment design. The treatment was composed of three groups: (a) an experimental group, (b) a comparison group to control for the Hawthorn effect, and © a control group receiving no intervention.

Dependent variables were: (a) mothers' and teachers' attitudes toward one another, (b) the mother's developmental expectations for her child's cognitive and social competence, (c) the teacher's knowledge of the child's self-competence, (d) the child's perception of his/her self-competence and (e) the mothers' perception of her role in her child's education. Independent variables were the treatment (home visits) and family and teacher characteristics.

Sample

A local Head Start agency serving nine counties in central Oklahoma agreed to participate in the study. The investigator worked with the agency's administrator and curriculum director to select four-year-old half-day classrooms

to participate. Center selection was based on availability (i.e., willingness of agency and teaching staff), geographical proximity, and population similarities. Children, parents, and teachers were assigned to treatment groups based on the four-year-old child's classroom assignment. All of the classes met for 3 hours.

Experimental Group. Two classrooms comprised the experimental group. These parents and children received one home visit per month for 8 months, beginning in September, 1994 and ending in April, 1995. The home visits were conducted by the child's classroom teacher and/or assistant teacher. These teachers received monetary compensation from the Head Start agency for the additional time required to make the home visits. The 2 classrooms receiving home visits by the teacher were in two Head Start centers in a central Oklahoma community containing a major comprehensive university.

Comparison Group. Two additional classrooms comprised the comparison group. These children also received 8 monthly home visitations, however the visitors were early childhood students participating in college courses focusing on early childhood education programming and parent - teacher communication. These two comparison group classes receiving brief visits by college students to control for the Hawthorn effect, were in a suburban community approximately 8 miles from the aforementioned city.

Control Group A third set of two classrooms served as the no-treatment control group. These classrooms were comparable to the comparison and experimental group. They were half-day programs serving four-year old children

in the same city as the experimental groups. The centers were selected because of their comparable population characteristics and availability.

The Head Start agency initially provided two additional full-day Head Start settings serving four-year-old children to be included in the control group. Although pre and post testing were completed in these settings, the full-day groups were significantly different on some parent characteristics (hours mother worked outside the home ($t = -2.57$ $p < .02$), hours father worked outside the home ($t = -2.20$ $p < .04$), family's total income ($t = -2.33$ $p < .03$), and families receiving federal assistance from Aid for Dependent Children ($t = 3.10$ $p < .004$)) from the half-day settings. Because they did not represent the same population as the other groups, they were not included in data analyses.

Subjects

Mothers and Children. The study was conducted in six Head Start half-day classrooms serving four-year-old children. All mothers and children in each class were invited to participate. Mother and student participation was voluntary. Although one father and grandmother participated, the parent sample will be referred to as "mothers" to facilitate brevity and clarity. Throughout the study the number of children enrolled in each classroom varied from 12 to 18 children, with the maximum number of children per class being 18.

Eighty-three percent ($n = 30$) of the mothers with children in the experimental group consented to participate. Of the 36 children enrolled in the

comparison group centers, 67% (n=24) consented to participate. Twenty-three (64%) of the 36 mothers and children agreed to participate in the control group.

The total sample of children ($N = 62$) was composed of 24 females and 38 males. Males and females were more equally distributed in the experimental group (n = 13 females and 11 males respectively), than in either the comparison group (n = 8 females, and 13 males) or the control group (n = 5 females and 12 males). The child population was primarily Euro-American (n = 46; 74%). Thirteen percent were Afro-American (n = 8). There were two Asian-Americans (3%), two Native Americans (3%), and three Hispanic-Americans (5%). One mother did not report her child's ethnicity. The children's ages ranged from 50 months to 72 months with a mean age of 61.4 months ($SD = 4.24$).

Teachers. The total teacher sample included 4 head teachers and 4 assistant teachers. The experimental group consisted of 2 head teachers and 2 assistant teachers. The comparison group and control group each consisted of one Head Teacher and one Assistant teacher who each taught 2 half-day sessions.

Because of the lack of participant responses on some of the questionnaire items, there is some variance in the total number of participating teachers, mothers, and children reported in the data analyses.

Because of the lack of participant responses on some of the questionnaire items, there may be some variance in the total number of participating teachers, mothers, and children reported for each variable.

Data Collection Instruments

Child and Family Characteristics

Because parents' educational status, ethnicity and socioeconomic level have been found to affect their involvement in the child's education (Epstein & Dauber, 1991), family background information was assessed through a demographic questionnaire prepared by the investigator (see Appendix A). As part of the regular Head Start program, all Head Start teachers make an initial home visit to assess the needs of the families they are serving. During this initial home visit the teachers, irrespective of their group identification (i.e., control, comparison, experimental), asked parents to complete the parent demographic questionnaire. This instrument provided the participating child's birth date, the age at which the child entered the Head start program, the mother's age, marital status, education, occupation, income, and number of siblings. If a father was in the home or providing financial support, his age, occupation, and education was requested. If the child was being raised by a caregiver other than the parents (e.g., grandparent), the same information was solicited from them. Parental occupation was coded according to the system recommended by Entwisle and Astone (1994) to obtain a measure of occupational status.

Teacher Characteristics

To determine the characteristics of teachers, a teacher questionnaire prepared by the investigator solicited information concerning the length of their participation in Head Start, their teaching position (e.g., head/assistant teacher).

other teaching experiences, the amount and type of training and education received, and membership in professional organizations. If married, their spouse's occupation and total family income were requested to obtain a measure of their familial occupational status. A copy of the teacher questionnaire is in Appendix A.

Dependent Variables

Parent and teacher attitudes

Teachers' and mothers' attitudes regarding each other were assessed at the beginning and end of the study using an adaptation of selected items from The School and Family Partnerships Surveys and Summaries: Questionnaires for Teachers and Parents in Elementary and Middle Grades (Epstein & Salinas, 1993). The original Epstein and Salinas instruments were developed, tested and retested in fifteen elementary and middle schools in Baltimore, Maryland (Epstein & Salinas, 1993). Although no reliability or validity statistics were provided with the survey, Epstein and Salinas were cited in Dauber and Epstein (1993) in which reliability statistics were reported for 11 subscales. Reliability coefficients ranged from .58 to .81 with parent attitudes toward the school being .75 and school practices to involve parents .81. These subscales were similar to the adaptation utilized in this study.

The items selected for this study related to teachers' and parents' attitudes and how they perceived one another. The Epstein and Salinas teachers' survey consists of 12 subscales. Statements utilized in this study were

adapted from two of these subscales. One addressed teachers' professional judgement about the importance of parent involvement. The other assessed which parent involvement activities or strategies teachers perceived to be most effective in involving parents in their child's education.

The Epstein and Salinas parent survey is composed of 10 subscales. Three subscales contained statements which could be modified for this study. These three subscales examined parents' feelings about their school, parents' opinions about ways they could be involved in their child's education, and the parent involvement activities the school provides.

The teacher and parent surveys used in this study were composed of the adapted Epstein and Salinas items and additional items created by the investigator to ascertain the parents' and teachers' attitudes about mothers' and teachers' roles in the young child's education. Both the parent and teacher surveys included 15 statements, some positive and some negative, rated on a 5-point Likert response scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not certain, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. An example of a negative statement on the parent survey is: "My child's teacher does not have the time to involve me in my child's education." A positive statement is: "My child's teacher views me as a partner in my child's education."

The instructions and wording of each of the statements directed the teacher to think of the specific parent they were reporting, not parents in general. An example of a positive statement on the teachers' survey is: "This mother's

involvement is important for her child's school success". An example of a negative statement is: "I tell this mother about things she could do at home with her child, but she doesn't do them". Negative items on both instruments were reverse scored. All items were then summed to create a total score.

To ascertain preliminary information on the psychometric properties of these surveys a pilot study was performed with teachers (N = 58) and parents' (N = 23) of preschool children involved in preschool programs in the surrounding area. Cronbach's alpha on the parent survey was .83 indicating strong internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha on the teacher survey was .71 indicating acceptable internal consistency. A copy of the teacher and parent surveys are contained in Appendix B.

Pretest Cronbach's alphas on the parent survey completed by participating Head start parents (N = 68) was .85 indicating strong internal consistency. Strong internal consistency was also indicated on the participating Head Start teachers' (N = 6) completion of the pretest teachers' survey with a Cronbach's alpha of .92.

Mother's social and cognitive expectations for a four-year-old child

Each mother's social and cognitive expectations for her child were measured through pre and post assessments using portions of The Developmental Expectations Questionnaire (Hess, Kashiwagi, Azuma, & Dickson, 1980). This questionnaire asks mothers to categorize activities or skills according to the age level at which they expect a child to achieve mastery. Items

are constructed to represent activities or behaviors that children would master during the first six years of life. The Developmental Expectations Questionnaire is composed of 8 subscales. The subscales addressed in the current study included school related expectations for verbal assertiveness, compliance, independence, and social interaction.

No reliability or validity information was reported by the authors, however Miller (1988) reports the questionnaire to be the "most often used test for measuring conceptions of post-infant development" (p. 267). Personal communication with one of the authors, Patrick Dickson (May 3, 1994), indicated that when teachers and mothers completed the assessment, mothers consistently expected children to attain or achieve social and cognitive competence before teachers did.

When the instrument was used to compare preschool and child care teachers' beliefs about development with preschool mothers' beliefs, Hess et al. (1981) reported significant differences in mean scores between the teachers and mothers concerning school related skills, verbal assertiveness, compliance and independence. However they reported that when the standard deviations were computed for the subscales, there was less variability among the mothers than among the teachers, indicating mothers responded comparably to the statements lending some support for face validity.

Hess et al. administered the original instrument as a Q-sort. The mother indicated the approximate age level (e.g., before age four; between ages four

and six; after age six) she expected her child to achieve a certain behavior or concept. Because this study focused on mothers of four-year-old children, the age levels were modified: 1 = mastery before age 4, 2 = mastery between ages 4 and 5, 3 = mastery after age 5. As suggested by Dickson (personal communication, May 3, 1994) the 3-point Likert scale was used rather than a Q-sort. Items were summed for a total score. A higher score indicates higher (i.e., more accurate) parental learning and social expectations for the young child.

Because the Hess et al. assessment contained only a few school-related items in the cognitive competence subscale, additional items adapted from Caldwell's Preschool Inventory (Caldwell, 1970) were added to the cognitive skills subscale. These items were evaluated by two early childhood experts to assure clarity and developmental accuracy. Pilot testing of the revised instrument was conducted with parents of four-year-old children attending several preschools in the surrounding area. Cronbach's alpha was .89 indicating strong internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha for the Head Start sample was .83 again indicating strong internal consistency. Total scores and subscale scores were calculated and used in the current data analysis. A copy of the Developmental Expectations Questionnaire is in Appendix C.

Mother's perception of parental role

Mothers' perceptions of their role in their child's education was assessed through pre and post testing using six of the twelve subscales of the Parental Role Responsibilities Scale (Gilbert & Hanson, 1983). The six subscales

measured the mother's perceived responsibility for her child's development. The six subscales used in this study were selected because of their relevancy to four-year-old children's preschool success. Three scales assessed the mother's perceived role in facilitating her child's cognitive development (e.g., answer child's "why" questions), ability to handle emotions (e.g., teach child to be sensitive to the feelings of others), and developing social skills (e.g., teach child to share possessions). Another scale addressed the mother's perceived role in meeting the child's emotional needs (e.g., listen to child describe his/her activities) while the final two addressed her interaction with the preschool program (e.g., transport the child from school and school related activities; consult with teachers and child-care providers about child's development). Each subscale contained from 4 to 7 items. The mother ranked how important she perceived her role to be on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all important) to 5 (very important).

The psychometric properties of the 6 scales selected for this study have good reliability and validity. Two types of reliability were reported by the authors (Gilbert & Hansen, 1983): inter-item consistency and test-retest reliability. The coefficient alphas for the scales selected for this study were strong, ranging from .82 to .90, with a median of .85.5. The test-retest reliability coefficients were acceptable, ranging from .69 to .81. Intercorrelations of the six scales indicate that the scales are moderately related, ranging from $r = .49$ to $.70$. Criterion validity was assessed through piloting the instrument with both men and women.

There were no appreciable differences in their responses. Gilbert and Hanson also assessed whether the scale items covaried in any systematic way with attitudinal and demographic variables. This was important for this study because the majority of mothers were in a low educational and economic range (50.7% on AFDC) because of their participation in Head Start (See Table 2). Again Gilbert and Hanson reported no appreciable differences in responses. Subscale scores and a total score created by summing subscales were used in the current data analysis. Pretesting of the Head Start population indicated strong internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha .93 (total score). The scales selected for this study appear in Appendix D.

Child's perceived cognitive and social competence

The child's perceived self competence was measured with The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social acceptance for Young Children: Preschool and Kindergarten (Harter & Pike, 1983) at pre-and post-testing. The scale addressed two factors. The first factor, general competence, is composed of two subscales: cognitive competence (e.g., good at puzzles) and physical competence (e.g., good at swinging). The second factor, social acceptance contains maternal acceptance (e.g., mom takes me places) and peer acceptance (e.g., I have friends to play games with) subscales. Each subscale contains 6 items. In this study the subscale scores were summed to create a total score.

Because young children have short attentions spans and also may have difficulty understanding subjective terms, such as smart and popular, which have

been used in other versions of the assessment with older children, this version utilizes a picture format which allows the young child a concrete representation of competence and acceptance. The scale was individually administered. The test procedure or interview consisted of showing the young child 6 pairs of pictures depicting opposite abilities in each of the subscales. There were separate pictures for boys and girls depicting the appropriate gender.

A description of the interview procedure using a sample item follows. The examiner shows the child two pictures. The picture on the child's left presents a girl (identified by an arrow) holding hands with one girl. The picture on the child's right depicts a girl (identified by an arrow) holding hands in a circle of five other girls. The examiner points to the picture on the right and says, "This girl has lots of friends to play with." The examiner then points to the picture on the child's left and says, "This girl doesn't have very many friends to play with." The examiner continues by saying, "Now, I want you to tell me which of these girls is most like (child's name)" (Harter & Pike, 1980, p.1). The child then points to the girl she perceives to be most like her. The examiner points to two circles under the picture the child has selected, a large circle and a small circle. If the child points to the girl with one friend, the examiner points to the smaller circle, and says, "Do you have a few friends?" and then pointing to the larger circle says, "Or hardly any friends?" If the child had pointed to the girl with several friends, the examiner would point to the large circle under the picture and say, "Do you have a whole lot of friends to play with? Then pointing to the small circle say, "Or do

you have pretty many friends to play with?" The responses are numbered ranging from 4 = A whole lot of friends to play with to 1 = hardly any friends. If the item had to do with climbing, the responses would range from 4 = really good at climbing to 1 = not very good at climbing (See Appendix E to view a sample of the picture format).

To determine the factorial validity of the scale an oblique factor analysis was performed by the scale authors (Harter & Pike, 1984). The first factor identified consisted of cognitive competence and physical competence items. Item loadings for the cognitive competence items ranged from .37 to .58. Physical competence item loadings ranged from .19 to .41. The second factor, social acceptance, consisted of peer acceptance items with loadings ranging from .23 to .61 and maternal acceptance items with loadings ranging from .52 to .70. With the exception of physical competence, the items generally had moderate to high loadings on their designated factor.

Utilizing Chronbach's alpha, the authors reported individual subscale reliabilities for the preschool sample ranged from .66 to .86. Internal consistency for the combined competence and acceptance scales were .79 and .86 respectively. Internal consistency for the total scale was .89.

Convergent validity was demonstrated for a similar instrument using first and second grade children who were asked to explain why they chose the response they provided. Although there is no systematic validity data for preschool children, the authors Harter and Pike (1984) indicate that often during

the testing procedure young children voluntarily explain why they respond as they do. The overall pattern is one of convergence between the young child's initial response and the reasons provided for it.

Discriminant validity was obtained by testing children who had been retained in first grade, children who had recently transferred into the school from another school and children who were preterm infants. All of these groups varied from the typical responses.

Total scores and subscale scores were computed for data analysis. In the current study, internal consistency (Chronbach's alpha) was calculated for the total scores. The alpha coefficient for the total score was .89, indicating strong internal consistency. A scoring sheet listing the items is included in Appendix E.

Teacher's knowledge of the child's social and cognitive competence

A teachers' rating scale, Teachers' Rating Scale of Child's Actual Competence and Social Acceptance, Form Pr K, which parallels the young child's Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children (Harter & Pike, 1983) was administered pre- and post-test to ascertain the teacher's perception of the child's competence. The teacher rated her perception of the child's competence on three of the four scales used in the child's interview: (a) cognitive competence, (b) peer acceptance and (c) physical competence using the same four-point scale as the child (e.g., 4 = really true to 1 = not very true). The authors indicated they felt it unfair to

have teachers rate maternal competence and so it was excluded from the teacher scale.

The only psychometric information available on the teacher rating scale is intercorrelations with the child's responses. The intercorrelations were moderately weak in the two competency domains. Teacher and child ratings were more highly correlated within the same domain than they were across two domains (e.g., teacher-cognitive/ pupil-physical), although all correlations were in the moderate range. The authors state that for children who fall at either end of the competence continuum, there is much more convergence between teacher and child ratings than for those who falling within the mid-ranges of the distribution (Harter & Pike, 1984).

Comparable to the child's assessment, total scores and subscale scores on the teacher's questionnaire were utilized for data analysis. Computation of the Cronbach alpha coefficient in the current study ($\alpha=.93$) indicated strong internal consistency for the total score. (See Appendix F for the teacher rating scale).

Procedures

Prior to the beginning of the study the primary investigator met with the State Head Start Director. The purpose of the study and the initiation of additional home visits in existing four-year-old half-day programs was explained and discussed. Throughout the summer, classrooms were selected in cooperation with Head Start Agency administrators. Emphasis was placed on

selecting classrooms with similar population characteristics and in geographic proximity. Random assignment of centers to experimental, comparison and control groups was not possible. Instead, assignment was determined by the Head Start administrative staff.

Prior to the beginning of school all of the participating teachers, Head Start coordinators (e.g., home visiting coordinator, staff development coordinator) and the primary investigator met. Written consent to participate in the research was obtained from the teachers. Letters of consent and letters explaining the nature of their participation were distributed according to the group assignment of the teachers (e.g., control, experiment, comparison). (See Appendix G for teacher letters of explanation and informed consent documents). The general format of the pre-test and post-test procedures were described by the primary investigator. Because different interventions would be occurring in the various centers during the study, the investigator emphasized the importance of participating teachers refraining from discussing activities occurring in their classes throughout the school year.

Participating teachers suggested the primary investigator attend parent meetings prior to the beginning of school to explain the parental component of the study and recruit participants. The teachers coordinated the meetings to allow all parents to be contacted in this manner. The parents were made aware they would be receiving a packet containing questionnaires which they were to complete and return to their Head Start teacher. Confidentiality was assured via

a written statement signed by the primary investigator. Permission for parent and child participation was obtained at this time. Parents who did not attend the beginning meetings were contacted personally by the primary investigator and letters explaining the study were sent home with the child. Consent forms were distributed and retrieved at this time. Because the parent population was divided into three groups: (a) the experimental group, (b) the comparison group, and (c) the control group, consent forms varied according to group assignment. (See Appendix H for parent informed consent forms and for letters requesting participation).

During the study, data collection occurred twice. Pretest data was collected at the beginning of the study in September. Post test data was collected at the end of the study in April. In both instances each participating mother received, through personal delivery via her child's Head Start class, an envelope which included: (a) A cover letter explaining the questionnaires, (b) The Family Information questionnaire (pretest only), (c) The Parent Survey of a Specific Teacher, (d) The Mothers' Learning and Social Expectations for Preschool Children Questionnaire, and (e) The Perceptions of Parental Role Scale. Each envelope could be sealed tightly before being returned to the center.

Pre- and Post-test Packets were identical for all participating teachers. These packets included: (a) A cover letter explaining the questionnaires, (b) A teacher demographic questionnaire (pre-test only), (c) Teacher Survey of a Specific Parent questionnaires for specific mothers, and (d) Teacher's Rating

Scale of Child's Actual Competence and Social Acceptance, Form P-K, for specific children. Upon completion the teachers were instructed to seal their envelopes to assure confidentiality and return them to the investigator.

The participating children were randomly assigned to a head teacher or an assistant teacher. The teachers only completed questionnaires on the children which had been randomly assigned to them. Likewise the parents only completed questionnaires on the teacher to whom their child had randomly been assigned. This random assignment also was used to identify which teacher conducted each child's home visit. The purpose was to distribute the number of home visits equally among the teachers as well as provide a consistency to the interactions between the child, parent and teacher.

Reminder letters, phone calls and additional questionnaire packets were distributed if questionnaire packets were not returned. Follow-up calls and visits by the primary investigator were initiated particularly during the post-testing. Upon advice of the Head Start teachers, tables were arranged adjacent to the classrooms where parents could complete the questionnaires before leaving the center during post-testing.

During September (pretesting) and again in April (post-testing) The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children, Form P-K, was administered to all participating children. Six early childhood students majoring in early childhood education, trained by the

investigator, individually administered the test with each participating child in a secluded area within the Head Start setting.

Post tests were completed by 62 parents and children. The study began with 77 parents and children, yielding a 20% attrition rate. The attrition rate varied across groups. The comparison group lost the least children with only four (16%) leaving. Twenty-five percent (N = 6) of the experimental group parents left, while 33% (N =6) of the control group left. Some of the families moved to other communities while several employed parents, particularly in the control group, transferred their children to a Head Start center in the same community which provided an all day program supplying both preschool and child care.

Experimental Group

The National Head Start Program Performance Standards (1992)

mandate the implementation of no less than two home visits per year by the educational staff. The focus of the home visits is discretionary, dependent upon the needs or emphasis of individual programs. The four-year-old classrooms in this study typically conduct one home visit at the beginning of the school year and one at the end. This Head Start agency's purpose for the visits is to identify the families' social service needs (e.g., medical assistance, employment opportunities, food stamps). The current study added educational intervention activities to both of these visits for the experimental, teacher-visited treatment group.

The performance standards also mandate two staff-parent conferences each year. The teachers in the Head Start programs in this study met in the classroom with individual parents twice a year to discuss their child's academic achievement. During the intervention these normally center-based conferences were converted into home visitations with the teacher-visited experimental group. In addition to the four home visits described above, four more monthly home visits were made during the year by the experimental group classroom teachers. The timing of the visits were at the discretion of the mothers and teachers: however one visit with each mother and child in the experimental group occurred in September, October, November, December, January, February, March, and April. Each visit lasted at least one hour. The children were randomly assigned with one teacher conducting the home visit with the same child throughout the study. This random assignment coincided with the assignment of the Survey of Specific Parent questionnaire and Survey of Specific Teacher explained previously.

Current home visiting research indicates effective home visits maintain a family focus rather than having a visitor enter the home to instruct the parents and child via a prescribed curriculum (Powell, Zambrana, & Silva-Palacios, 1990; Wasik, Bryant, & Lyons, 1990; Zigler & Freedman, 1987). To facilitate teacher, parent, child dialogue, each visit focused on a learning activity which the teacher believed appropriate for the child's development. This activity remained with the child to provide opportunities for the mother and child to play and interact during

the following month. Emphasis was on increasing the mothers' knowledge of appropriate learning opportunities for four-year-old children as well as what is interesting and developmentally appropriate for her child. This was also a time when the parent and child could talk with the teacher about special things. Teachers emphasized providing positive experiences for the child.

The teachers were encouraged to allow the parent to initiate conversation focusing on the child. Preliminary questions included asking the parent if there were any questions she had concerning center activities which had occurred the previous month or were occurring during the current month. The teachers were encouraged to report to the parent some activities in which the child had participated in the classroom setting since the previous visit. A continuing emphasis of the visits was on positive progress of the child. This encouraged the child to talk about his/her classroom experiences and provided the teacher opportunities to emphasize to the parent the child's strengths and gains demonstrated in the activities or work samples.

Because the teachers were not familiar with the children on the first visit, all families received the same activity: a large ball of play dough, tongue depressors and cookie cutters. Subsequent activities focused on providing individualized enriching educational experiences. They ranged from papers and crayons to jump ropes and other outdoor activities (See Appendix I for a list of activities provided experimental children).

The principal investigator met individually and collectively with the experimental teachers at least once per month to discuss the activities needed for each child. Although the investigator provided suggestions for the monthly activities, the final choice of activity remained with the teachers. These were then purchased or made by the principal investigator. Because of limited monetary funds, some of the activities had to be modified, but the primary purpose for the selection remained the same.

The monthly activity was used as a stimulus for communication and conversation. During the discussion or implementation of the activity, the teacher provided ideas of things that could be used with the activity throughout the month. The child and parent were encouraged to think of new things to do with the activity.

Comparison Group

To control for the Hawthorn effect, a comparison group consisting of families from two half-day programs serving four-year-old children received the normal Head Start program (including 2 social service home visits by the child's teacher and 2 parent-teacher conferences conducted at the center) plus 8 monthly home visits by early childhood junior-level college students who were unrelated to Head Start. Parent participation was voluntary.

The student visits lasted no longer than 20 minutes. The interaction was between the student and child. Parents were not included in the dialogue. A different activity was provided for each home visit, however the activities were

the same for all of the children in the comparison group. There was no individualization as in the experimental group.

Prior to the beginning of the 1994-95 school year, the investigator met individually with the teachers in the comparison group. The role of the student visitors and the activities they would share with the children were discussed at length. Assistance from the teachers was initially necessary to introduce the students and parents as well as locating the children's homes.

Emphasis was placed on the students communicating with parents to establish a convenient time for the visits. Some of the parents who wanted to participate did not have phones making the scheduling of visits difficult. The comparison teachers consented to assist with the communication until a permanent visitation time was arranged. The parents were informed that an activity for the child would be brought by the home visitors. The activity would be left with the child. The parents were encouraged to observe the interaction between the visitors and the child, however they were instructed not to participate. The visitors' primary emphasis was on the child.

The students were selected because of their early childhood major. They were randomly placed with the Head Start children they would visit. The primary investigator met with the students prior to beginning the home visits. The format of the home visits was discussed and the importance of confidentiality was emphasized. Each student signed a confidentiality statement (See Appendix J).

Some of the children lived in large apartment complexes which were identified as possibly dangerous after dark. Student visitors were instructed about safety issues. All visits were to be made in pairs and during the daylight hours. The students were given a list of signs of human intoxication, both drug and alcohol (See Appendix K) and were instructed to leave the home immediately if anything appeared abnormal or unsafe. They signed a sheet indicating they had been counseled about the dangers and would follow the advised procedures (See Appendix L).

Great care was taken to keep the student visitors consistent throughout the year, however some visitors changed between December and January because of class scheduling. Students went in pairs or trios to visit their families once a month. Some students visited three children while others visited two. Each student assumed the responsibility of interacting with one child throughout the study. The other student visitors were observers when visiting children other than their assigned child.

Every child in the comparison group received the same monthly activity. There was no individualization as in the experimental group. The activities included opportunities for small motor development, sequencing, categorizing, critical thinking, creative thinking and language development. (See Appendix M for the list of activities provided the comparison group children). The visits did not include the in-depth parent-child-teacher interactions provided the

experimental group although the monthly activities were left with the child. The visits lasted no longer than 20 minutes.

Control Group

Two Head Start half-day classes serving four-year-old children were included in the no-treatment control group. These parents and children received the customary Head start treatment including the two required social service home visits by the teacher and the two parent-teacher conferences in the classroom.

Study Limitations

Because of the need to stay within the same geographical area and the availability of Head Start centers, study limitations occurred. Random assignment of parents, teachers, comparison group visitors, and child participants was impossible. The selection hinged on the Head Start program's willingness to include given classrooms and on participants' volunteering and their availability.

Other limitations included the amount of interactions between the student visitors' and the parents and children and the teacher visitors' interactions with the parents and children. The teacher visitors had considerably more interaction with the parents and children than did the student visitors. The students only interacted with the children during the brief home visits, while the teachers interacted with the family on a daily basis at the center at pick-up and delivery, during group meetings and in other Head Start activities revolving around the

children. Recall that the primary purpose of the comparison group was to control for the Hawthorn effect.

Student visitors and Head Start teachers differed due to their ages and training. In most cases the student visitors were the same age or younger in than the Head Start parents, while most of the teachers were older than the mothers. The student visitors had completed more early childhood course work than all but one of the teacher visitors.

Another difficulty was the inability to monitor the visits in an effort to keep the home visits consistent. There is no information describing what actually occurred during the visits. Although teachers and student visitors reported completing every visit, and staying the required amount of time, there was no means of validating what actually occurred during the visits. Another difficulty was the inability to monitor the visits in an effort to keep the home visits authentic. There is no information describing what actually occurred during the visits. Although teachers and student visitors reported completing every visit, no means of validating what actually occurred during the visits.

An automatic limitation to the study were the assessment instruments. Although all reported good reliability and validity at the beginning of the study, some of the nuances of the questionnaires may have been misinterpreted by both the parents, teachers and children. In addition, replication of the study in the same Head Start centers during the following year would lend further credibility to the results. This was not possible, however, because the children

moved from the Head Start center to kindergarten and because funding was only available for one year.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Data were analyzed in three stages to determine the degree to which mothers' and teachers' attitudes, mothers' educational expectations for her child and her perception of her role in her child's education altered after experiencing monthly home visits. In the first stage of data analysis, demographic data were examined to ascertain subjects' characteristics and to identify relationships among these variables. After checking distributions of the outcome variables for normality, correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the degree of relationship among the demographic and outcome variables. The outcome variables consisted of mothers' and teachers' attitudes toward one another, mothers' perception of their role in the child's education, mothers' educational expectations for their children, the children's perception of their educational competence and acceptance by their peers, and the teacher's perception of the child's educational competence and peer acceptance. These descriptive statistics were computed on the total sample and within the treatment groups (i.e., experimental, comparison, control). The second stage of data analysis consisted of analysis of variance (ANOVA) to ascertain pretest differences among treatment groups on the outcome variables. The third stage of data analysis examined differences between the groups after the intervention. In those cases where family variables correlated with the dependent variables, or the groups were different on the pretest, the family variable and the pretest

scores were covariates in an ANCOVA. When there were no pretest differences and no family correlates, a repeated measures ANOVA was used. Because the cell sizes are small, thus decreasing the opportunities for significant results, non-significant trends will be reported on the repeated measures ANOVA.

The distributions for mothers' cognitive and social expectations for the child, mothers' perception of her role in a child's education, mothers' attitudes toward her child's teacher, the child's perception of his/her school competence, the teachers' attitudes toward individual mothers, and the teachers' perception of individual children's school competence were examined for normality at both pre and posttest. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1989), in measurements of statistical significance it is assumed that variables will be normally distributed. Because a normal distribution is an assumption of most multivariate statistics, data sets which are highly skewed may need to be transformed to improve normality of the distribution. Therefore the distributions of all dependent variables on both the pretests and posttests were examined. When highly skewed, the data were transformed in an effort to normalize the distribution. Demographic variables were not transformed because the statistics representing them were real (i.e., age) and thus would be meaningless and difficult to interpret after transformation.

After examining the univariate distributions, the data were transformed on the variable, parental role, the tool used to measure a mother's perception of her role in her child's education. The original distribution of this variable had a high

positive skew. Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) recommend a logarithm transformation for this distribution. This procedure was utilized for the pretest scores on the parental role questionnaire. It resulted in a more normal distribution. Therefore the transformed data for the parental role pretest questionnaire were used in data analysis. Examination of the posttest univariate distributions identified no abnormalities. This included the parental role posttest scores. Subsequently none of the posttest scores were transformed.

The parent survey of specific teachers, which assessed parent attitudes about the teacher, was negatively skewed due to four outlier scores on the posttest. Transformation did not improve the normality of the distribution, therefore, the original raw scores were used in further analyses. The distributions for the remaining variables appeared normal.

Teacher Characteristics and Professional Experience

Table 1 reports for the total sample and by group, the mean, standard deviation, and number of Head Start teachers reporting information concerning their background and work experience. All of the Head Start teachers (Lead teachers and Assistant teachers) were female. Five of the teachers were white, and three were Native American. Both of the comparison group teachers were Native American. One of the experimental teachers was Native American. The majority of teachers were married (75%). Their ages ranged from 27 to 40 years of age, with a typical age of 30.

Table 1

Salary Range and Means and Standard Deviations for Teacher Characteristics and Professional Experience

| Teacher Demographics | Total n=8 | Experimental n=4 | Comparison n=2 | Control n=2 |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| Teacher Age | 30.6 (8.89) | 33.6 (10.60) | 29.0 One not reported | 29.52 (4.49) |
| Family Income | \$16,000- 20,999 | \$11,000- 15,999 | not reported | \$21,000- 25,999 |
| Head Start Income | \$ 5,000- 10,999 | \$ 5,000- 10,999 | not reported | \$ 5,000- 10,999 |
| Teacher Education | 13.63 (2.45) | 15 (2.94) | 12.0 | 12.5 (0.71) |
| Years Experience Teaching | 8.6 (9.30) | 9.36 (3.32) | 14.39 (14.30) | 2.02 (1.62) |
| Years Experience Head Start | 1.9 (0.82) | 1.4 (0.66) | 2.5 (2.12) | 2.38 (2.30) |
| Hours Work | 50.25 (8.70) | 49.5 (13.08) | 52 (2.83) | 50 (0) |

- Teachers' total family incomes ranged from \$16,000 to \$20,999 (see Table 1). The average income of those teachers reporting this information was between \$16,000 and \$20,999. The two teachers in the comparison group chose not to report their Head Start or total family incomes and thus were not included in the analysis. Teachers' amount of education and experience working with young children varied considerably. All of the teachers had graduated from high school and all of them had participated in some form of training related to early childhood education. The experimental group had the highest level of education, followed by the control group teachers and comparison group teachers. The two head teachers in the experimental group had completed education beyond high school. One experimental teacher had a Bachelor's degree in early childhood education, while the other had completed a junior college early childhood program. One of the experimental group assistant teachers had attended Child Care Careers classes (a statewide training program) while the other had attended a vocational-technical institution. The lead teachers in the comparison and control groups had each earned a Child Development Associate (CDA) credential and had completed early childhood education classes at a junior college. The assistant teachers had attended Child Care Careers courses.

As reported in Table 1, The teachers' years of teaching experience ranged from less than one year to 29 years. The average years of teaching experience was a little over 8 years. The four experimental group teachers

reported a total of 33 years of teaching. One comparison group teacher had taught 29 years, while her assistant had taught one year. As a group the two control group teachers had the least teaching experience. The lead teacher had taught four years. It was her assistant teacher's first year of teaching.

The average amount of teaching in Head Start was less than two years. The maximum amount of teaching in Head Start was 4 years. The experimental group teachers had the least experience in Head Start. The comparison group had the most Head Start experience, and the control group teachers had slightly less experience than the comparison group .

Membership in professional organizations varied. The teacher with the most years of education belonged to the most organizations. Fifty percent of the teachers did not belong to any professional organizations. Of the four teachers who reported belonging to professional organizations, all belonged to the Head Start Association. In addition, two teachers were members of the state Child Care Association, three were members of the Southern Early Childhood Association and two were members of the National Association for the Education of Young Children. The teacher in the experimental group who had completed college courses beyond a Bachelor's degree reported belonging to the most professional organizations.

All of the teachers reported working more hours than the forty hours per week required by Head Start. The comparison teachers reported the most hours worked, followed by the control group, and experimental group (See Table 1)

Parents' Characteristics

Ninety-nine percent of the parents participating in the study were mothers. however this number does not exemplify the family compositions. (Refer to Table 2 for further information concerning family characteristics). 65.08 percent of the mothers reported having a father in the home. The experimental group had the highest number of families with a father in the home (25.4%). Twenty-two percent (22.22%) of the mothers in the comparison group reported having a father in the home, while 17.46% of the control group mothers reported a father in the home. One family in the comparison group was headed by a single father. The remainder of the families were headed by single mothers (34.92%). A Chi Square analysis indicated no significant differences between groups in the numbers of families having fathers within the home.

Age. Fathers' ages ranged from 21 years to 58 years of age. The comparison and control groups contained the youngest fathers, while the experimental group contained the oldest fathers. The control group fathers' ages ranged from 22 to 42 years of age. The comparison group fathers' ages ranged from 21 to 43 years of age. The experimental group with the older fathers, reported ages ranging from 25 to 58 years of age. (See table 2 for group mean scores). An ANOVA indicated the experimental group fathers' ages were significantly older than the comparison and control group, $F(2, 59) = 4.36, p < .05$.

The mothers' ages did not vary as much as the fathers. The oldest mothers were in the control group with ages ranging from 22 to 42 years of age. The experimental group's ages ranged from 21 to 39 years of age, and the comparison group mothers' ages ranged from 21 to 37 years of age. The pretest ANOVA indicated no significant differences between the groups with relation to age.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Family Characteristics

| Family Characteristics | Total | Experimental | Comparison | Control |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Father's Age | 32.02 (7.12) n=62 | 34.76 (7.46) n=25 | 28.86 (5.27) n=21 | 31.88 (7.31) n=16 |
| Mother's Age | 28.56 (5.60) n=68 | 30.12 (5.60) n=25 | 27.05 (4.93) n=22 | 28.29 (6.03) n=21 |
| Father's Education | 12.23 (2.37) n=60 | 12.0 (1.38) n=24 | 11.50 (1.28) n=20 | 13.50 (3.83) n=16 |
| Mother's Education | 12.01 (1.67) n=68 | 12.36 (1.32) n=25 | 11.95 (1.21) n=22 | 11.67 (2.33) n=21 |
| Father's Hours Work Per Week | 38.83 (11.51) n=37 | 41.65 (13.34) n=17 | 42.00 (4.83) n=10 | 30.90 (9.73) n=10 |
| Mother's Hours Work Per Week | 32.23 (8.39) n=13 | 27.60 (8.14) n=5 | 29.00 (10.15) n=3 | 38.80 (2.17) n=15 |
| Family Income | \$ 5,000-10,999 (n=65) | \$ 5,000-10,999 (n=25) | \$ 5,000-10,999 (n=20) | \$ 5,000-10,999 (n=20) |
| Children's Age in Months | 61.64 (4.24) n=69 | 61.77 (3.87) n=26 | 61.86 (4.10) n=22 | 61.24 (4.95) n=21 |

Education. The fathers' levels of education ranged from sixth grade to one father who was in the last year of medical school and one who was a graduate student (see Table 2). Sixteen fathers (13.33%) had not graduated from high school. Of those fathers who did not graduate from high school, one completed sixth grade, three completed ninth grade, four completed tenth grade, and eight completed eleventh grade. Thirty-two fathers (53.33%) had graduated from high school. Six fathers (10%) had completed post high school courses and four fathers had graduated from college (6.67%). The control group fathers had the highest and lowest educational levels in the total sample, with two fathers having graduate degrees and one father having only a sixth grade education (See Table 2). Eight fathers (25%) in the control group were high school graduates. Fathers' educational levels in the experimental group ranged from one father who had a college degree to one father who had completed ninth grade. Five (20.8%) of the fathers had not completed high school. Fifteen of the experimental group fathers (46.88%) had graduated from high school which was more than in the control or comparison group. The comparison group fathers had received the least education. Two fathers (10%) reported having completed 2 years of college. There were no college graduates. Nine of the fathers (45%) reported having completed high school, but nothing further. Nine of the comparison group fathers (45%) had not graduated from high school. Two had completed ninth grade, one had completed tenth grade and six had completed eleventh grade. An ANOVA indicated the control group fathers' years of

education was significantly higher than the educational level of the experimental and comparison group, $F(2, 57) = 3.65$, $p < .03$. As can be seen in Table 2 the means for the years of school completed by the comparison and experimental fathers was twelve years.

The educational level of the mothers ranged from sixth grade to baccalaureate degrees (see Table 2). Thirty-seven mothers (54.4%) had graduated from high school. Fifteen mothers (22.05%) had completed post-high school courses, with two (2.94%) having graduated from college. Fifteen of the mothers (60%) in the experimental group had graduated from high school. Four mothers (16%) had not completed high school. Thirteen of the comparison group mothers (59.1%) had graduated from high school. Five mothers (23%) had not graduated from high school. Four mothers (18%) in the comparison group had completed college courses and one mother had a college degree. In congruence with the fathers, the least educated mothers were in the control group. Seven mothers (33%) had not graduated from high school. Nine (42.9%) had graduated from high school. Four (19%) control group mothers had completed college courses and one had a bachelors degree. The pretest ANOVA indicated no significant differences between the groups in the mothers' educational level.

Occupational Status. Entwisle and Astone (1994) recommend utilizing an occupational prestige or status score for reporting individual's occupations. Higher numbers indicate a greater level of social prestige (e.g., 97.16 =

physicians). Lower numbers indicate a lower level of prestige (e.g., 20.04 = garbage collectors). The current study utilized the Entwistle and Astone's scores based on 1980 Census Occupational Categories.

Of the total number of fathers who reported their employment status ($N = 58$), 13 (22.4%) were unemployed and 45 (77.6%) were employed. The least number of employed fathers ($n = 11$; 19%) were in the control group. The highest proportion of employed fathers ($n = 19$, 32.76%) were in the experimental group, followed by 15 (25.86%) of the fathers in the comparison group. A Chi Square analysis indicated no significant differences in the percent of employed fathers.

Fathers' occupational levels ranged from janitorial work and driving trucks to two fathers who were working as university graduate teaching assistants as they completed their doctoral work. An ANOVA indicated the control group fathers' occupational status levels to be significantly higher than the comparison and experimental group fathers' occupations, $F(2, 39) = 5.05$, $p < .01$. The comparison and experimental group's mean occupational levels were comparable.

The majority of mothers (79.4%) were not employed. Fourteen mothers (20.60%) reported working outside the home while fifty-four (79.4%) mothers indicated they were not employed. The Chi Square analysis indicated no significant differences between groups on the percent of mothers working outside the home. The employed mothers' occupational status scores indicated

they held jobs ranging from janitorial work to clerical work. The control group mothers' occupational status was the highest, followed by the comparison group mothers and the experimental group mothers. However, an ANOVA indicated no significant differences in maternal occupational prestige among the control, comparison and experimental groups.

Income. Thirty-four families (50.75%) reported receiving no government financial assistance through Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). Thirty-three families (49.25%) reported receiving AFDC. These 33 families were composed of 12 (17.91%) families in the control group, 13 (19.40%) in the experimental group, and 8 (11.94%) in the comparison group. Although the number of families receiving AFDC in the comparison group was less than that in the control group and experimental group, Chi Square analyses indicated no significant differences in numbers of AFDC recipients between groups.

Thirty-four percent of all of the families reported earning less than \$5,000 a year. Family incomes ranged from earning less than \$5,000 a year to earning between \$26,000 and \$30,999 (see Table 2). Of those earning less than \$5,000, seven (31.82%) families were from the control group, eight (36.36%) families were from the experimental group and seven (31.83%) families were from the comparison group. One family from the comparison group and one family from the experimental group reported earning between \$26,000 and \$30,000. An ANOVA indicated no significant differences in mean income between groups. The reader must remain cognizant of the fact that children are admitted to Head

Start programs based on financial need. It would be unusual for parents to earn high salaries.

Children

The sample was composed of considerably more males ($N = 44$) than females ($N = 25$). Sixty four percent of the sample were males and 36.23% were females. In the experimental group 65.38% ($n = 17$) of the children were male and 34% ($n = 9$) were female. In the comparison group 59% ($n = 13$) were male and 41% ($n = 9$) were female. And in the control group 67% ($n = 14$) were male and 33% ($n = 7$) were female. A Chi Square analysis indicated no significant differences between groups with relation to gender distribution.

The children's ethnic origins were diverse, however 75% ($n = 51$) of the sample were white. Thirteen percent ($n = 9$) of the sample were black, 2.94% ($n = 2$) were Asian, 5.88 % ($n = 4$) were Hispanic, and 2.94% ($n = 2$) were Native American. Six mothers did not report their children's ethnicity. The comparison group had the least diverse sample, with ninety-five percent ($n = 21$) of the children being white. The control group had the most diverse population with 48% ($n = 11$) reporting an ethnic origin other than white. Twenty-four percent ($n = 6$) of the experimental group had ethnic origins other than Caucasian. The Chi Square analysis indicated no significant differences between the children's' ethnicity.

Intercorrelations

Intercorrelations among 18 demographic variables were examined. The demographic variables pertaining to children were: age, gender, the number of siblings in the home and in Head Start. The maternal demographic variables were: the mother's age, her last school grade completed, if she was employed outside of the home, how many hours she worked per week and her occupational level. Paternal demographic variables included: the father's age, the last grade in school he had completed, if he lived in the home, if he was employed outside the home and if so, his occupational level, and the number of hours worked per week. Other family variables included: the presence of other adults in the home besides family members, the family's yearly income, and if the family was receiving AFDC or welfare assistance.

The following intercorrelations between maternal demographic variables suggested some interesting relationships. Older mothers had completed more schooling, $r = .28$, $p < .05$, had more children, $r = .40$, $p < .001$, and were often paired with older men, $r = .68$, $p < .001$, who were more likely to be living in the home, $r = .34$, $p < .01$. Mothers who had completed more education were more likely to be employed, $r = .56$, $p < .05$, to be paired with men who had completed more education, $r = .44$, $p < .001$, and to have fewer adults, other than family members, residing in the home, $r = -.31$, $p < .01$.

More highly educated fathers were more likely to have attained higher occupational levels, $r = .45$, $p < .01$ and to be paired with mothers who also had

higher occupational levels, $r = .67$, $p < .001$. When the father was living in the home, the family was more likely to be receiving a higher income, $r = .43$, $p < .001$ and less apt to be receiving the government subsidy, Aid For Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), $r = -.37$, $p < .01$. Fathers who were employed were more apt to have a higher income, $r = .29$, $p < .05$. Income was also related to a higher number of children in the home, $r = .27$, $p < .05$.

No significant relationships were found with the number of adults other than parents in the home, mother's work outside the home, mothers' hours worked, children's ages, gender or ethnicity and the number of siblings attending Head Start.

Correlations Between Family Characteristics and Dependent Variables

The first research question asked: Will family characteristics of Head Start participants influence the teacher's and child's perception of the child's competence, the mother's and teacher's attitudes toward one another, the mother's cognitive and social expectations for her child, her knowledge of child development and her perception of her role in her child's education? As previously stated humans do not develop in isolation. When teachers, parents and children enter the Head Start setting, they bring with them genetic characteristics, experiences, beliefs, emotions and traditions (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Minuchin, 1985). These factors influence the way they interact and react to situations (Belsky, 1984). For this reason the first research question addresses the influence of demographic variables (parents, children, and

teachers) on the dependent variables. The following family characteristics were examined to determine if they correlated significantly with the dependent variables: child's age, child's gender, child's ethnicity, mother's age, mother's last school grade attended, mother's employment status, hours mother works outside the home, mother's occupational prestige level, father's age, father's educational level, father resides in the home, father's employment status, number of hours the father works outside the home, father's occupational prestige level, number of siblings in the home, number of siblings in Head Start, number of adults in the home other than parents, family's total income, family's participation in AFDC.

Child's Perceived Competence. There were no significant relationships between the family characteristics and the dependent variable, child's perceived competence (total score) at pretest. However there was some evidence of family characteristics being related to specific types of perceived self-competence as measured by the subscales: child's perception of cognitive competence, physical competence, social acceptance by peers and, social acceptance by parent.

Children's perception of their cognitive competence was positively related to mothers' employment outside the home, $r = .27$, $p < .05$. However these feelings of competence did not transfer to children's perception of their mothers' acceptance when the mothers had higher status occupations. When mothers' occupations were of higher status, children's perceptions of maternal acceptance and peer acceptance were lower, $r = -.47$, $p < .05$, $r = -.51$, $p < .05$, respectively.

Children's perception of their physical abilities was lower when their fathers were older, $r = -.31$, $p < .01$.

Posttest analyses indicated no relationships between family variables and the children's feelings of self-competence (total score); however, father's age was negatively related to the subscale, children's perception of cognitive competence, $r = -.31$, $p < .05$. Father's age was the only family characteristic which was significantly related in both the pretest and posttest analyses; however the subscales differed. Father's age was negatively related to the child's perception of his/her physical competence during the pretest analysis and the child's perception of their cognitive competence during the posttest investigation, $r = -.31$, $p < .01$, $r = -.31$, $p < .05$, respectively. It is interesting to note that the correlations were the same. Again, having an older father appears to have some negative influence on the children's perception of themselves.

Teacher's perception of the child's competence. Pretest analyses indicated teachers evaluated children's overall competence higher when the child was older, $r = .25$, $p < .05$. Another variable which was significantly correlated with the teacher's perception of the child's overall competence was the number of hours the fathers worked. Teachers perceived the children whose fathers worked longer hours as being less competent, $r = -.39$, $p < .01$.

Pretest analysis of the three subscales, children's cognitive competence, physical competence, and peer acceptance indicated some significant relationships with family variables. Teachers reported children's cognitive and

physical competence lower when their fathers worked longer hours, $r = -.39$, $p < .01$ and $r = -.54$, $p < .01$, respectively. There was a highly significant negative correlation between the fathers' occupational prestige level and children's physical competence, $r = -.54$, $p < .001$. Teachers also appeared to perceive older children as being more accepted by their peers than younger children, $r = .38$, $p < .001$.

The posttest analyses indicated no family variables were related to the teachers' perception of the children's total competence score. Children's age was significantly related to the peer acceptance subscale, again suggesting older children were perceived by the teachers as being more accepted by their peers, $r = .24$, $p < .05$. Children whose mothers' were employed in more prestigious vocations were perceived as less physically competent by their teachers, $r = -.49$, $p < .05$.

It is interesting to note that the pretest analysis indicated several family variables which were significantly correlated with the total score and subscales scores. In the posttest analysis there were only two family variables significantly related to the teacher's perception of the child's competence. On both the pretest and the posttest analyses, older children were perceived as significantly more accepted by their peers.

Mothers' attitudes toward a specific teacher. There were only three family variables which were significantly correlated with mothers' attitudes about the teacher on the pretest and posttest. Pretest scores indicated the mothers'

attitudes toward the teachers were more positive when there was a father in the home and the family earned a higher income, $r = .27$, $p < .05$ and $r = .30$, $p < .01$, respectively. In the posttest analysis, having a father in the home and the number of adults in the home were both positively related to mother's attitudes about the teacher, $r = .29$, $p < .05$ and $r = .25$, $p < .05$, respectively. These analyses suggest having a father in the home has a significant positive influence on mothers' attitudes toward her child's Head Start teacher.

Teachers' attitudes toward mothers. Pretest analyses found Head Start teachers' attitudes were more positive toward mothers who worked outside the home and were employed in higher status occupations, $r = .23$, $p < .05$ and $r = .45$, $p < .05$, respectively. These teachers also had more positive attitudes toward mothers whose husbands resided in the home and whose husbands had completed higher levels of education, $r = .36$, $p < .01$, $r = .31$, $p < .01$, respectively. Conversely, teacher's had more negative attitudes toward families receiving government assistance through AFDC, $r = -.34$, $p < .05$.

The posttest analyses indicated that teachers continued to have more positive attitudes toward mothers who were paired to men who were educated and residing in the home, $r = .26$, $p < .05$, $r = .34$, $p < .01$, respectively. Although receiving AFDC was significantly related to the teachers' attitudes toward the mothers on the pretest, mothers' receiving AFDC was not significantly related to the teachers' attitudes about the mothers on the posttest. Mothers having a

higher income level was significantly related to the teachers' attitudes toward the mothers on the posttest, $r = .29$, $p < .05$.

Mother's social and cognitive expectations for her child. There were no significant relationships between the mothers' total scores for social and cognitive expectations for her child and the demographic variables on either the pretests or posttests. However, three subscales had significant relationships with the family variables on the pretest. The subscales with significant relationships were: school related skills, verbal assertiveness, and compliance. Mothers indicated having higher school expectations for their child when the fathers had less prestigious occupations, $r = -.37$, $p < .01$. Mothers' expectations for the child's verbal assertiveness were higher when the father worked fewer hours, and when there were fewer siblings attending Head Start, $r = -.38$, $p < .05$, $r = -.24$, $p < .05$, respectively. Mothers' expectations for the child's compliance (i.e., doing what is expected in the family) were positively related to the fathers' educational level, $r = .33$, $p < .01$.

Three subscales were significantly related to family variables on the posttest analysis. Mothers who had more children attending Head Start were significantly less apt to expect their children to verbalize their needs, $r = -.32$, $p < .01$, which agrees with their feelings on the pretest analysis. When fathers were more highly educated, mothers expected children to be more independent, $r = .26$, $p < .05$. There was a significant negative correlation between the amount of hours mothers worked and the child compliance subscale, $r = -.63$, $p < .05$. Items

on the compliance scale refer to children doing what they are instructed to do (i.e., stops misbehaving when told). This suggests mothers who worked long hours did not expect their children to be highly compliant. Only one family characteristic, number of siblings attending Head Start, was significantly related to the mother's expectations for her child to be verbally assertive on both the pretest and posttest analyses.

Parent's role in their child's development. There were no significant relationships between the total score for parent's perception of their role in their child's education and the demographic variables on the pretest. However, there were two demographic variables related to the subscale, parent's interface role, between the child and the social institution (i.e., Head Start). The interface role refers to interactions the parent has with the Head Start teachers to facilitate the child's adjustment to school. A negative correlation suggests mothers' with less education were more likely to perceive facilitating their child's adjustment to the Head Start setting as part of their parental role, $r = -.25, p < .05$. The belief that it was a parent's role to assist in their child's school adjustment was repeated by fathers with a lower occupational status, $r = -.31, p < .05$.

The posttest analysis indicated two family variables were related to the way mothers' perceived their role in their child's development (total score). When mothers and fathers had obtained higher levels of education, mothers and fathers perceived their role in their child's education to be highly important. $r =$

.36, $p < .01$, $r = .32$, $p < .05$, respectively. Mother's education was also positively correlated with the subscale, mother's role in her child's emotional development, $r = .28$, $p < .05$. However, mother's education was negatively related to the subscales: mother's role in her child's cognitive development, $r = -.35$, $p < .01$; her child's socialization, $r = -.28$, $p < .05$; providing child care, $r = -.44$, $p < .001$, and assisting in her child's school adjustment (i.e., interface role), $r = -.31$, $p < .01$.

On the parental role subscales, mothers who were paired with more educated fathers indicated they did not believe they should teach their child cognitive or social skills, $r = -.55$, $p < .001$, $r = -.34$, $p < .01$, respectively. Father's level of education was also negatively correlated with mothers' ideas about providing child care for their children, $r = -.39$, $p < .01$. Father's education was not correlated with the interface subscale.

Examination of the posttest analyses indicated mother's occupational prestige was positively correlated with the total score on the parent's role in their child's education, $r = .44$, $p < .05$; however, mothers in higher prestige occupations perceived the role a mother assumes in providing child care as being less important, $r = -.50$, $p < .05$. These data must be interpreted cautiously since there were only 17 mothers who reported being employed. The negative relationship between mother's level of education and her interface role with the Head Start program was the only family variable which was significantly related on both the pre and posttest.

The lack of relationships between the family variables and the pretest analyses and the large amount of family variables which were significantly related to the posttest measures of mothers' perception of their role in their child's education is interesting. Mothers' and fathers' education were the two independent variables significantly related to the most dependent variables on the posttest. This could suggest that increased interaction and exposure to Head Start resulted in educated parents becoming more aware of their role in their child's education.

Demographic variables which were found to have no significant relationships with any of the dependent variables were children's sex and the number of brothers and sisters in the home.

Summary. Research question number one asked if family characteristics were related to the dependent variables. In the pretest analyses teacher attitudes were correlated with more family variables than any other outcome variable. There were only four significant correlations with other dependent variables' total scores. This evidence suggests that except for teachers' attitudes about parents, family demographics did not significantly influence the pretest results on total scale scores.

Family variables had few significant relationships with the pretest subscales. The parent expectation subscales had one family variable significantly correlated with each of them. Mother's education and the father's occupation were the only family variables significantly related to the interface

subscale within the parental role assessment. There was only one family variable correlated with each of the child's perception of his/her competence subscales. The teacher's perception of the child's competence had the greatest number of significant relationships with family variables. Mother's occupational level was significantly related to the cognitive subscale. Father's age and the number of hours the father worked was related to the physical competence subscale.

The posttest analyses indicated fewer significant relationships between the dependent variables and the family characteristics. Only two dependent variables had family factors which were significantly related on both the pre and posttests. Father's education and having the father living in the home were both significantly related to the teachers' attitudes about parents' total score on the pre and posttest. The family variable, number of siblings attending Head Start, was significantly related on both the pre and posttests to the parent expectations verbal subscale.

Posttest analyses indicated considerably more family characteristics were significantly related to mothers' perception of their role in their child's education than on the pretest. This was the only dependent variable which had a substantial number of family characteristics correlated with it. There were fewer significant posttest correlations between the family characteristics and the other dependent variable total scores, specifically the teacher's perception of the child's competence, the child's perception of their competence, mother's

expectations for her child, mother's attitudes toward the teacher and teachers' attitudes about the mothers.

Inclusion of intervening variables

Because the primary emphasis of the study is focused on the attitudes and perceptions of the mothers and teachers, subsequent analyses will include mothers only. Supporting this strategy is the fact that data are available only on a few fathers. Where appropriate, maternal demographic variables will be used as covariates in the following analyses.

Although the following maternal variables were significantly related to one or more of the independent variables, they will not be included in later analyses because of their low incidence in the sample. They are: mother's occupational prestige level, number of hours the mother worked outside the home, and the number of adults other than the parents living in the home.

The following variables will be considered as potential covariates: mother's age, children's age, and mother's education. Other child and maternal variables, such as child gender, were not related to the dependent measures and so will not be used. Throughout all of the future analyses, means by group and time for all of the dependent variables will be reported in Tables 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.

Home visits and teachers' and mothers' attitudes

The second research question asks: will the addition of home visits influence teacher's and mother's attitudes toward one another after variance due to family characteristics has been controlled? Data analyses of teachers'

attitudes about mothers and mothers' attitudes about teachers will be presented to explore this question.

Analyses of variance (ANOVAs) with multiple comparisons, using the Ryan, Elliot, Gabriel, and Welsh Multiple Range (REGW) test will be utilized for examining differences between groups throughout the study (Einot & Gabriel, 1975; Ryan, 1959, 1960; Welch, 1977). It was selected because it is a very powerful test. With three groups it produces results identical to the more widely known Student-Newman-Kuels test.

Teachers' attitudes about mothers. A pretest analysis of variance indicated, prior to the home visit intervention, the control group teachers' attitudes were significantly more positive toward their students' mothers than the experimental and comparison group teachers, $F(2, 71) = 5.52, p < .01$. (See Table 3 for pre and posttest group mean scores). Although the ANOVA procedure is robust to violations of homogeneity of variance, the previous results must be viewed with some caution. Table 3 indicates comparison group teachers were more variable in their attitudes than were the control and experimental teachers. The presence of these significant pretest differences indicated pretest scores needed to be entered as a covariate during posttest analysis.

Table 3

Comparison of Pre and Posttest Group Means for Teachers' and Mothers' Attitudes

| Dependent Variable | Pre | | | Post | | | Results | | |
|--|------------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------|-----|------|
| | Exp. | Comp. | Cont. | Exp. | Comp. | Cont. | Effect | df. | F |
| Teachers' attitudes about mothers ^a | 72.18 (11.53) | 67.00 (15.10) | 82.39 (9.62) | 77.32 (11.87) | 69.00 (16.36) | 85.00 (11.70) | Group | 2 | 1.41 |
| Mothers' attitudes about teachers ^b | 52.12 | 50.95 | 51.43 | 52.50 | 53.05 | 51.47 | Time | 1 | 1.77 |
| | (5.35) | (5.73) | (6.52) | (4.54) | (4.65) | (6.35) | Group | 2 | 0.12 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 | 0.44 |

Numbers in parentheses indicate standard deviation

^aANCOVA with pretest and mother's age as covariates and mother's age as covariates

^bRepeated measures ANOVA

An examination of posttest correlational data revealed two family variables, mother's age and family's total income, to be significantly related to the teachers' attitudes about their Head Start students' mothers. A stepwise regression procedure was used to identify the best predictor and maintain an acceptable subject to variable ratio in later analyses. The stepwise analysis indicated mother's age to be the best predictor of teachers' attitudes about mothers, $R^2 = .09$, $F(1, 56) = 3.96$, $p < .05$. This analytical approach is in keeping with Stevens (1986) who suggests it is seldom worthwhile to include multiple predictor variables in a regression equation because at a certain point, incremental validity is low.

To determine if there were differences in the teachers' attitudes about mothers as a function of the family correlate mother's age and so determine if mother's age should be used as a covariate in later analyses, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was calculated. For the analysis mothers' ages were divided into two groups: younger mothers' ages 21 to 27 and older mothers' ages 28 to 37. This age division was chosen because it placed 60 mothers in the older group and 60 mothers in the younger group. Results of the ANOVA indicated there was a main effect for mother's age, $F(1, 58) = 5.25$, $p < .05$. The REGW indicated teachers had significantly more positive attitudes toward older mothers ($M = 81.30$, $SD = 12.22$), than younger mothers ($M = 72.40$, $SD = 16.13$). The main effect for mother's age indicated the need to include mother's age in the final analysis.

Because the ANOVA indicated mother's age does vary across the groups and because there was a difference between the groups at pretest, the final analysis of posttest data used an ANCOVA with mother's age and pretest as the covariates. The analysis indicated the model was significant, $F(3, 57) = 17.93$, $p < .0001$. The pretest covariate was significant, $F(1, 57) = 50.98$, $p < .0001$. The family variable, mother's age was not significant. After controlling for mother's age and the pretest, there were no significant differences between the experimental, control, or comparison group teachers' attitudes about their students' mothers after the home visits.

Mothers' attitudes about teachers. A pretest analysis of variance revealed no significant group differences on mothers' attitudes about teachers prior to the intervention. Posttest correlational analyses indicated no family variables were significantly related to the mothers' attitudes concerning teachers. Because there were no significant pretest group differences or family variables to be included in the posttest analysis, a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes' Lambda criterion was computed on the mothers' attitudes toward the Head Start teacher. The analysis revealed no significant main effect for time or group. There was no significant Time X Group interaction effect. These findings indicate there were no significant differences in mothers' attitudes toward teachers as a function of either time or treatment. Means for all groups are presented in Table 3.

Home visits and mother's expectations for her child's social and cognitive development

The third research question asks: Will the addition of home visits change mothers' expectations for their children's social and cognitive development after variance due to family characteristics has been controlled?

The pretest ANOVA indicated, prior to the home visits, there were no significant differences between the experimental, comparison or control group mothers' expectations for their children's learning and social skills. Posttest correlational analysis indicated no family variables were significantly related to the mothers' expectations. Because there were no significant pretest group differences or family variables to be included in the final analysis, a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA using the Wilkes Lambda criterion, was calculated on mothers' expectations for her child's cognitive and social development. The analysis indicated no significant main effect for time or group membership; however, the interaction between time and group membership revealed a nonsignificant trend, $F(1, 57) = 2.836, p < .09, \lambda = .92$. This suggested that, based on the group the mothers were in, there was a differential effect of the home visits over time, for mothers' expectations for their children's cognitive and social development.

Examination of the pre and posttest mean scores in Table 4 and Figure 1 suggests the comparison group mothers' developmental expectations for their children moved from younger to older ages. Before the home visits their mean

age was lower than the mean scores for the experimental and control groups. After the home visits, their age expectations were higher than the other two groups.

Table 4

Comparison of Pre and Posttest Group Means for Mother's Expectations for Child's Development and Subscales*

| Dependent Variable | Pre | | | Post | | | Results | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|
| | Exp | Comp | Cont. | Exp. | Comp. | Cont. | Effect | df | F |
| Mother's Expectations | 54.27 (6.52) | 51.90 (9.67) | 54.17 (8.41) | 55.18 (8.63) | 58.10 (13.42) | 53.39 (9.00) | Time Group Interaction | 1 2 2 | 2.6732 0.12 2.60 |
| <u>Subscales</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| Verbal Assertiveness Expectations | 8.05 (1.89) | 7.25 (2.51) | 8.50 (2.36) | 8.36 (2.54) | 9.10 (2.71) | 7.94 (2.13) | Time Group Interaction | 1 2 2 | 1.96 0 3.24* |
| Compliance Expectations | 8.36 (1.92) | 7.95 (2.16) | 7.83 (2.29) | 8.41 (2.28) | 9.35 (2.96) | 7.33 (2.17) | Time Group Interaction | 1 2 2 | 1.07 1.51 2.97 |
| School Related Expectations | 112.27 (1.70) | 12.60 (2.56) | 12.56 (2.06) | 13.14 (1.55) | 13.30 (2.85) | 12.06 (2.01) | Time Group Interaction | 1 2 2 | 1.63 0.59 1.80 |
| Independence Expectations | 14.68 (2.08) | 14.10 (2.77) | 14.06 (2.92) | 13.82 (2.59) | 14.65 (3.17) | 15.22 (3.26) | Time Group Interaction | 1 2 2 | 0.64 0.13 2.91 |
| Social Expectations | 10.90 (2.04) | 10.00 (2.53) | 11.22 (2.37) | 11.45 (2.67) | 11.70 (3.56) | 10.83 (2.12) | Time Group Interaction | 1 2 2 | 3.05 2.51 0.12 |

Numbers in parentheses indicate standard deviation

*Repeated Measures ANOVA

*p< .05

The control group and experimental group mothers' expectations changed very little over time. This suggests the mothers who received brief visits by early childhood students' reported their age expectations for their children to achieve social and cognitive development changed more than the experimental and control group mothers, but not enough to reach significance.

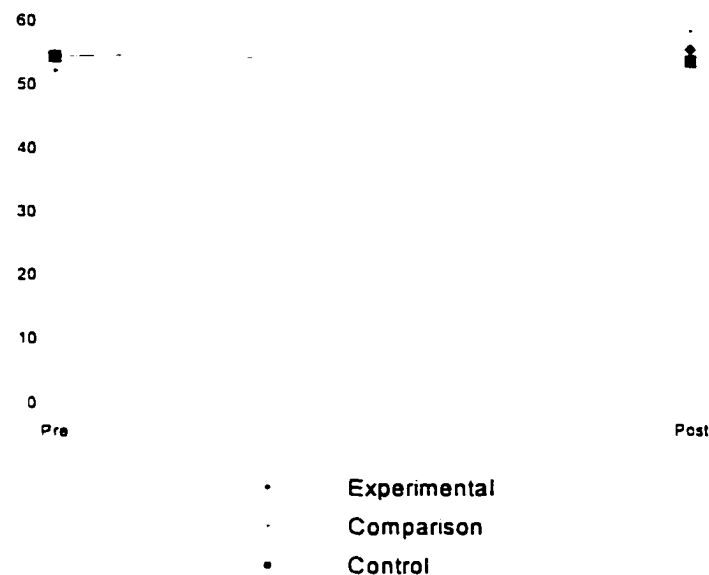


Figure 1
Mother's Expectations for Child's Development

Although the ANOVA procedure is robust to violations of homogeneity of variance the previous results must be interpreted with caution. Table 4 indicates considerable variability in mothers' expectations among the three groups. To gain greater clarity of the mothers' expectations for their children's social and learning skills, and to establish if the total score was masking differences among

the groups, subscales were analyzed as well. Five subscale scores were examined: (a) verbal assertiveness (e.g., asks a question when in doubt), (b) compliance (e.g., comes or answers when called), (c) school related skills (e.g., counts 5 toys), (d) independence (e.g., takes care of own clothes), and (e) social skills (e.g., shares his/her toys with other children).

Verbal Assertiveness. The pretest ANOVA indicated no significant differences between the mother's expectations for their children to be verbally assertive prior to the home visits. The posttest analysis indicated no family variables were significantly related to the subscale. Because there were no significant pretest differences or family variables to be included in the posttest analysis, a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA using the Wilks' Lamda criterion was computed on mother's expectations for verbal assertiveness. The analysis revealed no significant main effects for time or group membership. However there was a significant time X group membership interaction, $F(2, 57) = 3.24, p < .05, \lambda = .90$.

Figure 2 illustrates the significant time by group interaction. Prior to the home visits, the comparison group mothers' expectations for their children to demonstrate verbal assertiveness were lower than both the control and comparison group mothers' expectations. After the home visits, the age the comparison group mothers expected their child to be verbally assertive increased to a level higher than the other two groups. The mothers in the experimental group indicated only a slight increase in the age they expected

their children to be verbally assertive and the control group mother's expectations for verbal assertiveness decreased slightly after the home visits.

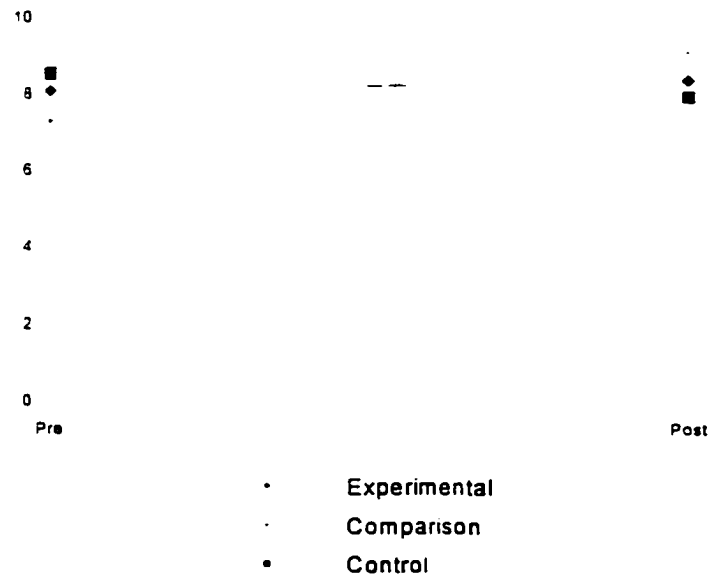


Figure 2
Mother's Expectations for Verbal Assertiveness Subscale

Compliance. The pretest ANOVA indicated prior to the home visits, there were no significant between group differences on the mother's expectation of the age her child should be compliant. The posttest correlational analysis revealed no significantly related family variables with the compliance subscale. Because there were no significant pretest group differences or significantly related family variables to be included in the analysis, a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA using the Wilkes' Lambda criterion, was computed on the age mothers expected their children to demonstrate compliant behaviors. The

analysis revealed no significant main effects for time or group membership. However, the Time X Group membership revealed a nonsignificant trend, $F(2, 57) = 2.97, p < .06, \eta^2 = .09$. Figure 3 illustrates how the comparison group mothers' expectations moved from younger to older ages after the treatment. Comparison group scores at posttest were higher than the other two groups. The expectations of the experimental group mothers' increased slightly while the control group mothers' expectations moved from older to younger. Although these results should be viewed with caution because the posttest group gains or losses are small and the subscale is composed of only five items, they suggest the visits by the student visitors increased the age mothers expected their children to be compliant.

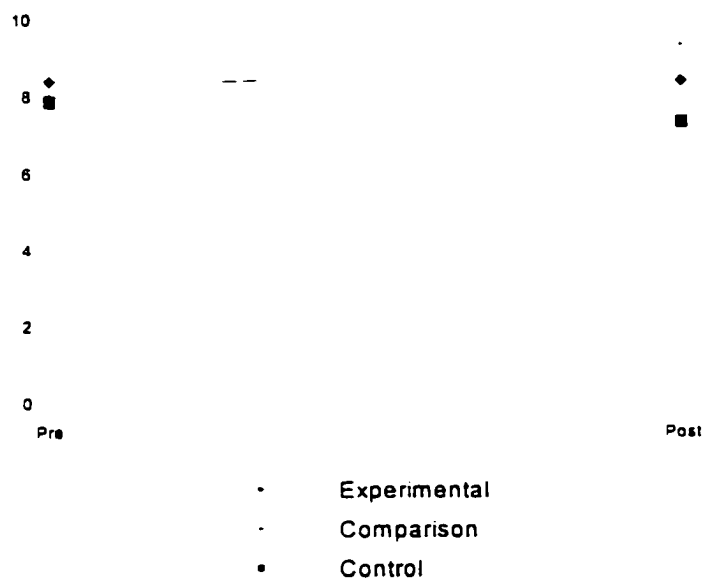


Figure 3
Mother's Expectations for Compliance Subscale

School Related Skills. A pretest analysis of variance indicated prior to the home visits, there were no significant group differences in the mothers' expectations concerning their children's accomplishing school related skills. The lack of significant pretest group differences or significantly related family variables indicated a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes Lambda criterion, be computed on the age level mothers expected their children to perform school related skills. The analysis revealed no significant main effect for time or group membership. There was no significant Time X Group interaction. These findings indicate there were no significant differences in the age mothers expected their children to perform school related skills as a function of either time or treatment.

Independence. A pretest analysis of variance indicated prior to the home visits, there were no significant differences among the three groups on mothers' expectations for their children developing independence. Posttest correlational analyses indicated no significantly related family variables with the independence subscale. Because there were no significant pretest group differences or significantly related family variables to be included in the posttest analysis, a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes' Lambda criterion, was computed on mother's expectations for their children developing independence. The analysis indicated no significant main effect for time or group membership. However, the Time X Group interaction revealed a nonsignificant trend, $F(2, 57) = 2.91$. $p < .06$, $\lambda = .91$.

Figure 4 graphically illustrates the Time X Group interaction which neared significance. After the home visits, the age the experimental group mothers' indicated their children should develop independence decreased to a level below the other two groups. The comparison group mother's expectations increased slightly and the control group mothers' expectations increased to a level above the other two groups. Caution must be exercised when generalizing these results because the posttest gains or losses are small and the subscale is composed of only seven items; however, it suggests the home visits appeared to have altered the mothers' age expectations for their children developing independent behaviors differently than the total score or other subscales.

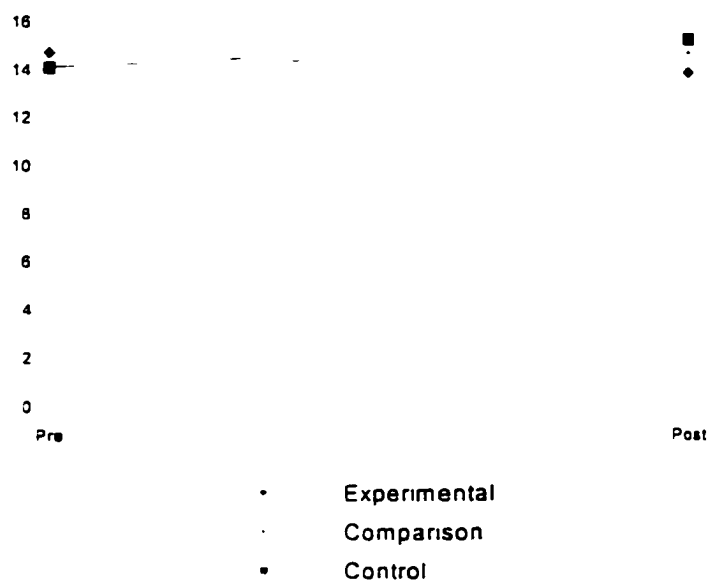


Figure 4
Mother's Expectations for Child's Independence Subscale

Social. A pretest analysis of variance indicated prior to the home visits. there were no significant group differences in the mothers' expectations concerning the age their children should develop social skills. Posttest correlational analysis indicated no family variables were significantly related to the social skills subscale. The lack of significant pretest group differences or significantly related family variables indicated a 2 (Time) X 3 (Group) repeated measures ANOVA using the Wilks Lambda criterion, be computed on the age level mothers expected their children to demonstrate social skills. The analysis indicated no significant main effects for time or group membership. However there was a nonsignificant trend for the Time X Group interaction, $F(2, 57) = 2.51, p < .09, \lambda = .92$.

Figure 5 and the pre and posttest mean scores in Table 4 suggest the comparison group mothers' age expectations for children to develop social skills were lower than the experimental and comparison group mothers prior to the home visits. After the home visits, the comparison group mothers' expectations for children to develop social skills moved from younger to older ages. The control group mothers' expectations moved from older to younger ages, and the age the experimental group mothers expected their children to develop social skills increased slightly. The expectations of the comparison and experimental group mothers for their children's social behaviors were higher than the control group mothers' expectations at posttest.

The analyses reported above suggest the home visits did alter the age expectations of the mothers. The mothers experiencing the most change in their expectations were the comparison group mothers. Their age expectations increased on every dependent variable.

Teacher's perception of child's self-competence

The fourth research question asks: After controlling for family characteristics, will the addition of home visits affect the teacher's perception of the child's self-competence?

The pretest analysis of variance indicated no significant differences between the experimental, comparison and control group teachers' perception of their students' total self-competence before the home visits. The posttest correlational analysis indicated no significant relationships between the family variables and the teachers' knowledge of the child's total competence. Because there were no significant pretest differences and no significant family correlates on the posttest, a 2 (Time) X 3 (Group) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilk's Lambda criterion, was used to analyze the data. The repeated measures ANOVA indicated no main effect for group membership, a highly significant main effect for time, $F(2, 57) = 6.13, p < .01, \lambda = .77$, and a significant group X time interaction, $F(2, 57) = 6.13, p < .01, \lambda = .82$.

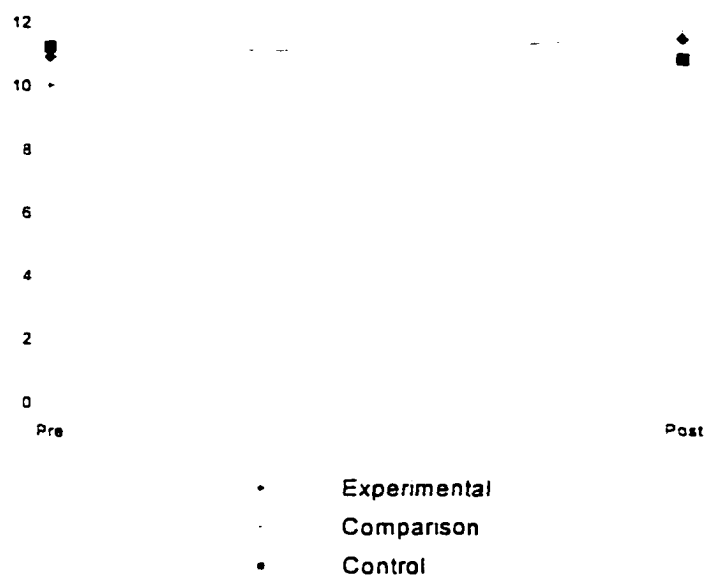


Figure 5
Mother's Expectations for Socialization Subscale

Table 5

Comparisons of Pre and Posttest Group Means for Teachers' Perception of Child's Competence and Subscales

| Dependent Variable | Pre | | | Post | | | Results | | |
|---|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------|----|-----------|
| | Exp. | Comp | Cont. | Exp. | Comp. | Cont. | Effect | df | F |
| Teachers' Perception of Child's Competence ^a | 42.75 (11.77) | 42.22 (9.87) | 43.41 (6.54) | 44.68 (14.20) | 46.76 (9.10) | 53.17 (7.59) | Time | 1 | 16.61**** |
| | | | | | | | Group | 2 | 0.97 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 | 6.13** |
| <u>Subscales</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| Teachers' Perception of Cognitive Competence ^a | 12.07 (4.96) | 11.26 (3.77) | 11.09 (3.16) | 14.45 (5.23) | 15.48 (3.46) | 16.06 (3.15) | Time | 1 | 61.37** |
| | | | | | | | Group | 2 | 0.06 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 | 3.55* |
| Teachers' Perception of Peer Acceptance ^b | 14.36 (4.47) | 14.61 (3.84) | 14.09 (2.99) | 13.64 (6.08) | 15.52 (3.87) | 17.06 (4.19) | Group | 2 | 8.34*** |
| Teachers' Perception of Physical Competence ^a | 16.68 (4.28) | 16.35 (3.38) | 18.35 (2.34) | 16.50 (4.96) | 15.76 (3.56) | 20.00 (3.24) | Time | 1 | 0.97 |
| | | | | | | | Group | 2 | 4.27* |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 | 2.08 |

Numbers in parentheses indicate standard deviation

^aRepeated Measures ANOVA

^bANCOVA with pretest and children's age as covariates

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

****p < .0001

Table 5 and Figure 6 indicate all of the teachers' group mean scores of their perceptions of the child's competence (total score) were within one point of each other prior to the home visits. After the experimental teachers completed their monthly home visits, their perceptions of their children's cognitive and social competence (illustrated by the mean scores and Figure 6) increased slightly. The comparison teachers' perceptions increased slightly more than the experimental teachers. The teachers in the control group reported they perceived their children as having gained considerably in their social and cognitive competence over the school year. Their scores were higher than either of the other two groups. This suggests the control group teachers perceived their children's competence to have gained considerably more than the comparison and experimental teachers did. Conversely the experimental group teachers who had visited their children monthly throughout the school year indicated their students had exhibited only a slight increase in their cognitive and social competence.

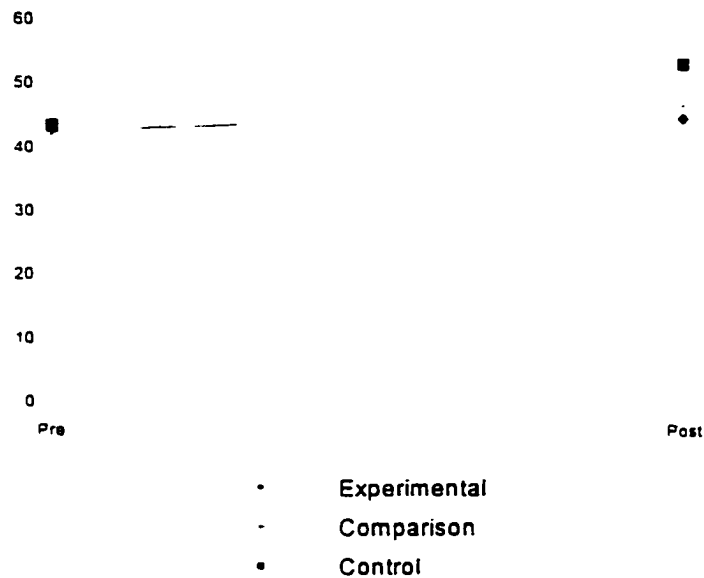


Figure 6
Teacher's Perception of Child's Perceived Self-Competence

Although the ANOVA procedure is robust to violations of homogeneity of variance, the previous results must be viewed with some caution. Table 5 indicates that the scores for the experimental group were more variable than the scores for the control and comparison groups.

To gain greater clarity of the teachers' perception of the child's self-competence, the three subscales were analyzed: (a) children's cognitive competence, (b) children's peer acceptance, and (c) children's physical competence.

Cognitive competence. The pretest analysis of variance indicated no significant group differences in the teachers' perception of their students'

cognitive competence prior to the home visits. The posttest correlational analysis identified no family variables significantly related to the cognitive competence subscale. The lack of pretest differences or significantly related family variables indicated a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes' Lambda criterion, be computed on the teachers' perception of children's cognitive competence. The repeated measures ANOVA indicated a highly significant main effect for Time, $F(1, 57) = 61.37, p < .0001, \lambda = .48$. The main effect for group membership was not significant. However, there was a significant Time X Group interaction effect $F(2, 57) = 3.55, p < .01, \lambda = .89$.

Table 5 and figure 7 indicate all of the teachers reported their students' cognitive abilities increased between pre and post testing. The experimental teachers' reported the least gains in their students' cognitive competence. The control and comparison group teachers' gains were comparable, and they reported their children's cognitive competence higher at posttest than the experimental group teachers. These findings could suggest the experimental group teachers' increased interaction with the mother and child via the monthly home visits provided the teacher a more accurate assessment of her children's cognitive competence.

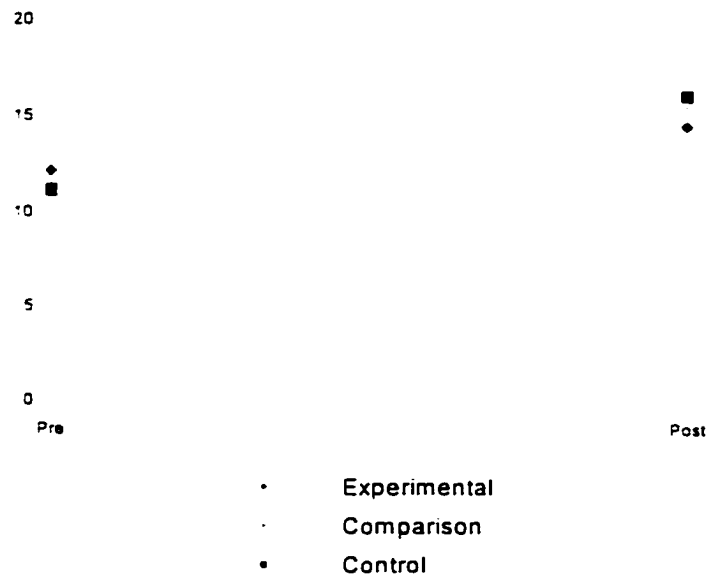


Figure 7
Teacher's Perception of Child's Cognitive Competence Subscale

Peer acceptance. The pretest ANOVA indicated that prior to the home visits, there were no significant differences between the control, experimental and comparison group teachers' perception of the children's acceptance by their peers. Examination of the posttest correlational analysis revealed one family variable, children's age, to be significantly related to the teacher's perception of students' acceptance by their peers. To determine if there were differences in the dependent variable as a function of children's age, and to determine if children's age should be used as a covariate in later analyses, an ANOVA was calculated. For this analysis children's age was divided at 60 months which placed 24 children in the younger group and 37 in the older group. Although the Head Start programs were designed to serve four-year-old children, the majority

of the children in this study were older. For this reason the decision was made to divide the ages above and below 5 years of age.

Results of the ANOVA indicated there was a main effect for children's age, $F(1, 55) = 5.16, p < .05$. Examination of the mean scores addressing older ($M = 16.38, SD = 3.74$) and younger ($M = 16.05, SD = 2.97$) children suggests the teachers perceived older children to be slightly more accepted by their peers than the younger children. Because the ANOVA indicated children's peer acceptance age did vary across age groups, the final analysis of posttest data used a one-way ANCOVA with the child's age and pretest as the covariates.

The ANCOVA indicated the children's age covariate was not significant and did not explain a significant portion of the variance in peer acceptance. The pretest covariate did account for a significant portion of the variance in teachers' perceptions of the child's peer acceptance. $F(1, 55) = 52.02, p < .0001$. There was a statistically significant main effect for group membership after pretest variance was controlled, $F(2, 55) = 8.34, p < .001, \lambda = .91$.

Examination of the adjusted group means indicate significant differences between the groups at posttest. The control group teachers' perceptions of their children's acceptance by peers ($m = 17.89$) was significantly higher than the experimental ($m = 13.22$) and comparison ($m = 15.38$) group teachers' perceptions of their students' acceptance by peers. The comparison group teachers' perception of their children's acceptance by peers was significantly higher than the experimental group teachers' perception of their students' acceptance by peers.

Physical competence. The pretest analysis of variance indicated no significant differences between control, comparison and experimental teachers' perception of the children's physical competence prior to the home visits. Posttest correlational analyses indicated no family variables were significantly correlated with the physical competence subscale. The absence of significant pretest differences and significantly related family variables, indicated the posttest analysis should be a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilks' Lamda criterion, to ascertain if there were significant differences between the teachers' perceptions of their children's physical competence after the home visits.

There was no significant main effect for time nor was there a significant time by group interaction effect. There was a significant main effect for group membership on the physical subscale, $F(2, 57) = 4.27, p < .05, \lambda = .93$. This indicates there were differences between the groups concerning the teachers' perceptions of their children's physical competence over the course of the study. Control group teachers' perception of their children's physical competence was higher than the experimental or comparison groups.

Effects of home visits by Head Start teachers on the child's perception of his/her competence

The fifth research question asked: After controlling for family characteristics, will the addition of home visits, affect the child's perceived competence?

The pretest ANOVA indicated that prior to the intervention, there were no pretest differences between the comparison, experimental, or control group children's perception of their self-competence as measured by The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children. The posttest correlational analysis indicated no family variables were significantly correlated to the child's perception of self-competence. The absence of pretest differences and significantly related family variables indicated a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes Lambda criterion, should be computed on the children's perception of their competence. The 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) ANOVA indicated there were no significant main effects for time, group membership, nor a significant group X time interaction effect. This suggests there were no significant group differences in the children's perceptions of their overall self-competence before or after the home visits. Although the ANOVA procedure is robust to violations of homogeneity of variance, the current results must be viewed with some caution. Table 6 indicates the variance across the groups was diverse on both the pre and posttests.

Table 6

Comparison of Pre and Posttest Group Means for Child's Perceived Self-Competence*

| Dependent Variable | Pre | | | Post | | | Results | | |
|----------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|---------|-------------|----|---------|
| | Exp. | Comp | Cont. | Exp. | Comp. | Cont. | Effect | df | F |
| Child's Perception of Competence | 78.8 | 76.39 | 76.00 | 76.23 | 78.85 | 72.50 | Time | 1 | 0.76 |
| | (13.15) | (10.53) | (11.22) | (11.18) | (8.87) | (10.65) | Group | 2 | 0.29 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 | 2.16 |
| <u>Subscales</u> | | | | | | | | | |
| Cognitive Competence | 20.28 | 19.61 | 20.17 | 20.82 | 21.90 | 20.33 | Time | 1 | 10.06** |
| | (3.43) | (2.28) | (2.66) | (3.35) | (2.17) | (3.01) | Group | 2 | 0.18 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 | 3.39* |
| Physical Competence | 19.75 | 16.62 | 18.35 | 19.64 | 20.35 | 19.83 | Time | 1 | 0.0386 |
| | (3.91) | (3.32) | (2.34) | (3.19) | (2.91) | (3.13) | Group | 2 | 0.56 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 | 1.11 |
| Peer Acceptance | 19.68 | 18.52 | 17.78 | 19.64 | 20.75 | 17.94 | Time | 1 | 3.25 |
| | (3.38) | (3.13) | (4.13) | (3.35) | (2.43) | (4.56) | Group | 2 | 1.51 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 | 2.09 |
| Maternal Acceptance | 19.18 | 18.91 | 18.57 | 19.36 | 19.25 | 20.33 | Time | 1 | 0.089 |
| | (3.97) | (3.30) | (3.30) | (3.82) | (3.86) | (3.01) | Group | 2 | 0.45 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 | 0.36 |

Numbers in parentheses indicate standard deviation

*Repeated Measures ANOVA

*p<.05

**p<.01

To ascertain any differences which might be masked by the total score, the four subscales of the perceived competence measure were analyzed: (a). the child's perception of cognitive competence, (b). the child's perception of peer acceptance, (c). the child's perception of physical competence, and (d). the child's perception of maternal acceptance.

Children's perception of cognitive competence. The pretest ANOVA indicated no significant pretest differences between the control, comparison and experimental group children's perception of their cognitive competence. The posttest correlational analysis revealed no family variables significantly related to the cognitive competence subscale. Because there were no significant pretest group differences or significantly related family variables to be included in the posttest analyses, a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes Lambda criterion, was calculated to assess the effects of the home visits on the children's perception of their cognitive competence. The repeated measures ANOVA indicated a main effect for time, $F(1, 57) = 10.06, p < .01, \lambda = .85$, and a significant Time X Group interaction effect, $F(2, 57) = 3.39, p < .05, \lambda = .89$. The main effect for group membership was not significant.

Figure 8 illustrates the significant Time X Group interaction effect. Prior to the home visits there was very little difference in children's perception of their cognitive competence across the groups. After the intervention the comparison group children reported a greater gain in their cognitive competence than the experimental or control group children. The experimental and control group children's scores showed little change and were similar to each other after the

intervention. However, because this is a subscale with few items, it is difficult to generalize these findings.

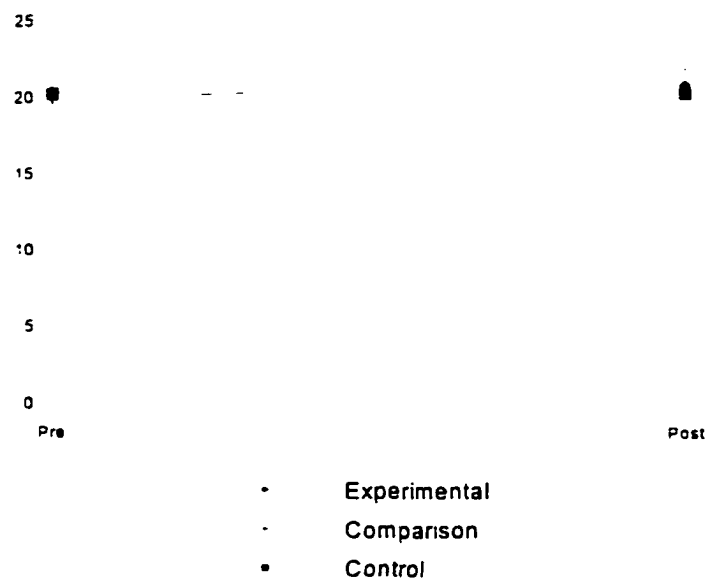


Figure 8
Children's Perception of Cognitive Competence Subscale

Children's perception of physical competence. A pretest ANOVA indicated no significant differences between the experimental, comparison and control group children's perception of their physical competence. The posttest correlational analysis indicated no significant relationships between the family variables and the children's perception of their physical competence. Because there were no significant pretest differences and no significant family correlates on the posttest, a 3 (groups) X 2 (time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes Lambda criterion, was computed. The ANOVA indicated no main effects

for time or group membership on the children's perception of their physical competence; nor was there a significant time X group interaction effect. These results indicate there were no significant group differences in the children's perception of their physical competence after the home visits.

Children's perception of peer acceptance. A pretest ANOVA revealed no significant group differences on the children's perception of their acceptance by their peers prior to the home visits. Examination of the posttest correlational data revealed no family variables significantly related to the children's perception of peer acceptance. The absence of pretest differences and significantly related family variables indicated a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes Lambda criterion, should be computed on the children's perception of their peers' acceptance. The ANOVA indicated no main effect for group membership. The main effect for time neared significance $F(1,57) = 3.25$, $p < .08$, $\lambda = .93$. There was no significant Time X Group interaction effect. Examination of the pre and posttest grand means indicate children's perceptions of their peers' acceptance increased between pretest ($M = 18.73$, $SD = 3.60$) and posttest ($M = 19.50$, $SD = 3.62$) irrespective of the treatment received.

Children's perception of maternal acceptance. The final subscale addresses the way children perceive their relationships with their mothers. The pretest ANOVA indicated no significant differences in the children's perception of their mothers' acceptance prior to the home visits. The posttest correlational analysis revealed no family variables significantly related to the children's perception of their mothers' acceptance. The absence of pretest differences and

significantly related family variables indicated a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes Lambda criterion, should be computed on the children's perception of their mother's acceptance. The analysis indicated no main effects for time or group membership. There was no significant group X time interaction effect. These results suggest there were no significant group differences in the children's perception of their mothers' acceptance after the home visits.

Effects of home visits by Head Start teachers on the mother's perception of her role in educating her child

The sixth research question asks: After controlling for family characteristics, will the addition of home visits affect the mother's perception of her role in educating her child?

A pretest ANOVA revealed no significant differences among the three groups on the mother's perception of her role in her child's education prior to the home visits. The posttest correlational analysis indicated the family variable, mother's level of education, was significantly related to the mother's perception of her role in her child's education.

To determine if there were differences in the dependent variable across groups as a function of mother's education, and so determine if mother's education should be used as a covariate in later analyses, an ANOVA was calculated. Mothers' education was divided into three groups: mothers with less than a 12th grade education ($n = 13$), mothers with a 12th grade education ($n = 33$), and mothers having completed education beyond 12th grade ($n = 14$).

The ANOVA indicated a main effect for mother's education, $F(2, 57) = 3.93, p < .05$. Examination of the mean scores addressing mother's educational level indicates mothers with the less than a 12th grade education ($M = 169.38, SD = 11.79$) perceived their role in their child's education to be greater than the mothers who had completed a high school education ($M = 166.03, SD = 12.51$), and mothers with education beyond a high school degree ($M = 159.21, SD = 17.53$).

Since the ANOVA indicated mother's education affected their perception of their role across the groups, the final analysis of posttest data used an ANCOVA controlling for pretest and mother's education. The ANCOVA indicated the pretest and mother's education covariates did explain a significant portion of the variance in the mothers' perception of their role in their child's education, $F(1, 54) = 33.0, p < .0001$, and $F(1, 54) = 4.19, p < .05$, respectively. The ANCOVA indicated that after controlling for the pretest and mother's education, mothers' attitudes about their role in their child's education varied significantly by group membership after the home visit intervention, $F(2, 54) = 4.02, p < .05$.

Examination of the multiple comparisons suggests that after the home visits, the experimental group mothers ($M = 167.65$) and the comparison group mothers' ($M = 167.62$) perceptions of their role in their child's education were higher than the control group mothers ($M = 158.95$). There were no significant differences between the comparison and experimental mothers' perceptions of their role in their child's education after the home visits. Their posttest adjusted mean scores were almost the same. (See Table 7). This suggests home visits

are related to an increase in mothers' awareness of their role in their child's education. It does not suggest home visits by the child's Head Start teacher significantly affects the mother's perception of her role in her child's education any more than visits by university students who are majoring in early childhood education.

Table 7

Comparison of Pre and Posttest Means for Mother's Perception of Her Role in Educating Her Child

| Dependent Variable | Pre | | | Post | | | Results | |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------|----|
| | Exp | Comp | Cont | Exp | Comp | Cont | Effect | df |
| | F | F | F | F | F | F | F | F |
| Mother's Role ^a | 167.81 (11.59) | 165.27 (14.34) | 164.81 (15.68) | 168.09 (11.01) | 167.85 (10.95) | 158.61 (17.98) | Group | 2 |
| Subscales | 29.58 | 27.32 | 27.62 | 28.05 | 27.90 | 25.94 | Time | 1 |
| | (3.57) | (3.11) | (2.99) | (2.38) | (2.05) | (3.75) | Group | 2 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 |
| Teaching Cognitive Skills ^b | 27.85 | 27.29 | 27.71 | 27.59 | 26.65 | 25.78 | Time | 1 |
| Teaching Handling of Emotions | (2.69) | (3.43) | (3.49) | (3.18) | (2.37) | (4.15) | Group | 2 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 |
| Teaching | 32.85 | 32.55 | 31.76 | 32.64 | 33.10 | 30.72 | Time | 1 |
| Social Skills | (2.03) | (2.97) | (4.06) | (2.59) | (2.31) | (4.40) | Group | 2 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 |
| Providing Basic Emotional Needs ^b | 34.42 | 37.77 | 34.05 | 34.00 | 33.80 | 33.56 | Time | 1 |
| | (1.30) | (1.82) | (1.75) | (2.65) | (2.55) | (2.31) | Group | 2 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 |
| Providing Child Care | 27.12 | 26.50 | 26.67 | 27.86 | 27.65 | 26.17 | Group | 2 |
| | (2.96) | (4.46) | (3.06) | (2.05) | (2.08) | (3.28) | | |
| Providing Interface Role ^b | 18.00 | 17.86 | 17.00 | 17.95 | 17.75 | 16.44 | Time | 1 |
| | (1.81) | (1.67) | (2.81) | (1.53) | (1.86) | (2.68) | Group | 2 |
| | | | | | | | Interaction | 2 |

Numbers in parentheses indicate standard deviation
 "ANCOVA with pretest and Mother's education as covariates
 "Repeated Measures ANOVA
 *p < .05

To gain greater accuracy of results and to identify any differences which might be masked by the total scores, the following perception of parental role subscales were analyzed: (a) teaching cognitive development, (b) teaching handling of emotions, (c) teaching social skills, (d) meeting the emotional needs of the child, (e) meeting the child care needs of the child, and (f) acting in an interface role between the child and social institutions (i.e., Head Start).

Teaching cognitive skills. The pretest ANOVA indicated no significant differences between the mothers' perceptions of their role in teaching cognitive skills. Posttest correlational analysis indicated the family variable, mother's education was significantly correlated with the teaching cognitive development subscale. To determine if there were differences across the groups in the mother's perception of her role in teaching cognitive skills as a function of mother's education, and so determine if mother's education should be used as a covariate in later analyses, an ANOVA was calculated. As in the previous analysis, mothers' education was divided into three groups: mothers with less than a 12th grade education ($n = 13$), mothers with a 12th grade education ($n = 33$), and mothers having completed education beyond 12th grade ($n = 14$). There was no main effect for mothers' educational level indicating there were no differences in mother's education across groups. Therefore mother's education was not used in the final analysis of mother's perception of teaching cognitive skills.

Because there were no significant pretest differences or family variables to be included in the posttest analysis, a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilks' Lambda criterion, was computed on the mother's perception of her role in teaching cognitive skills. The analysis revealed no significant main effect for time or group membership; however, the interaction between time and group membership revealed a nonsignificant trend, $F(2, 57) = 2.73, p < .07, \lambda = .91$.

Examination of Figure 9 suggests the experimental and control group mothers' perceptions of their role in teaching their children cognitive skills decreased after the home visits, while the comparison group mothers' perceptions increased slightly. Even though the experimental group mothers' perception of their role in teaching cognitive skills decreased, they were still higher than the comparison and control group mothers at posttest.

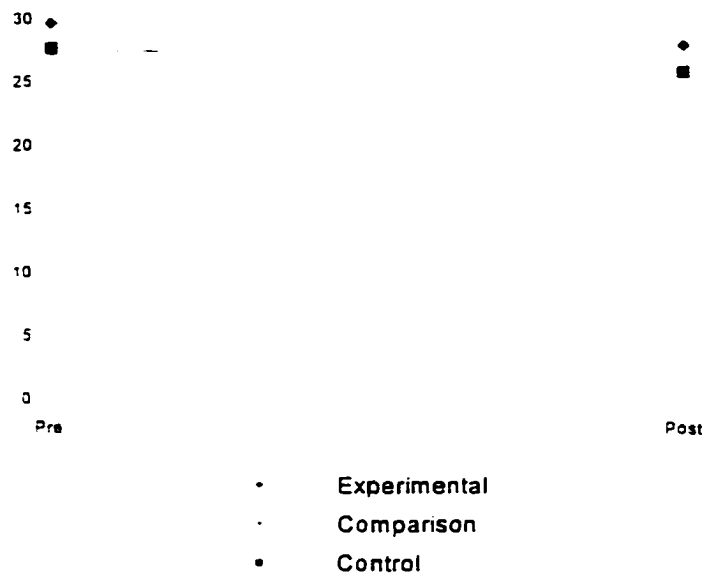


Figure 9
 Mother's Perception of Her Parental Role in Teaching Cognitive Skills Subscale

Teaching handling of emotions. The pretest ANOVA indicated no significant pretest differences on the mothers' beliefs concerning their role in assisting in their child's emotional development. The posttest correlational analysis indicated one family variable, mother's education was significantly related to the mother's beliefs concerning teaching her child to handle emotions. To determine if there were differences across the groups in the mother's perception of her role in teaching her child to regulate emotions as a function of mother's education, and so decide if mother's education should be used as a covariate in later analyses, an ANOVA was calculated. As in previous analyses, mothers' education was divided into three groups: mothers with less than a 12th grade education, mothers with a 12th grade education, and mothers having

completed education beyond 12th grade. The ANOVA indicated there was no main effect for mothers' education. Since there were no differences between the groups, mother's education was not included in the final analysis.

Because there were no significant pretest group differences or family variables to be included in the final analysis, a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measure ANOVA, using the Wilkes Lambda criterion, was calculated on mothers' perception in teaching their children to handle emotions. The analysis revealed no significant main effect for time or group. There was no significant Time X group interaction effect. These findings indicate there were no significant differences in mothers' perceptions of their role in teaching their children to handle emotions as a function of either time or treatment.

Teaching Social Skills. A pretest ANOVA indicated there were no significant differences among the three groups on the mothers' perceptions of their role in teaching their children social skills prior to the home visits. The posttest correlational analysis indicated two family variables, children's age and mothers' education, to be significantly related to the mothers' attitudes concerning teaching social skills. A stepwise regression procedure was used to identify the best predictor and maintain an acceptable subject to variable ratio in later analyses. However, because neither of the family correlates entered the equation, they were not included in later analyses. The lack of pretest differences or significant family correlates indicated a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilks' Lambda criterion, should be

computed on the mothers' perception of their role in teaching their child social skills.

The repeated measures ANOVA revealed no significant main effect for time or group; however, the interaction between time and group membership revealed a nonsignificant trend, $F(2, 57) = 2.51, p < .09, \lambda = .92$. Figure 10 illustrates the time X group interaction effect. The comparison group mothers' perceptions of their role in teaching their children social skills increased after the home visits while the control and experimental mothers' perception of their role decreased. The control group mothers' perception of their role in teaching their children social skills was lower than the other two groups on the pretest, and even lower on the posttest. Again the comparison group increased while the experimental and control group decreased in their role of teaching their children social skills.

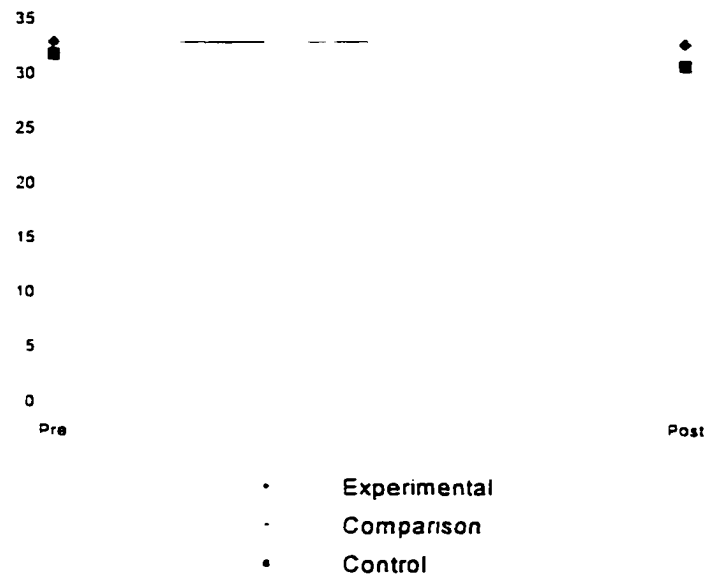


Figure 10
Mother's Perception of Her Parental Role in Teaching Social Skills Subscale

Meeting the emotional needs of the child. A pretest ANOVA revealed no significant differences among the three groups on the mother's view of teaching her child to handle emotions prior to the home visits. The posttest correlational analysis indicated the independent variable, children's age, to be significantly related to the mothers' attitudes about meeting the emotional needs of their children. To determine if there were differences in mothers' perceptions of their role in meeting their children's emotional needs related to the family correlate, children's age, and also to determine if children's age should be used as a covariate in later analyses, an ANOVA was calculated. As in previous analyses children's age was divided into two groups: children older than 5 years of age (60 months) and children younger than 5 years of age (60 months).

The ANOVA indicated there was no main effect for children's age. The absence of a significant main effect for children's age indicated the final analyses should be a repeated measures ANOVA. The 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes' Lamda criterion, was computed on the handling of emotions subscale. The analysis revealed no significant main effect for time or group membership. Neither was there a group X time interaction effect. Although the small number of items in the subscale hinder generalization of these results, in the current study there were no significant differences in the mothers' perceptions of their role in teaching their children to handle emotional needs after the home visits.

Meeting the basic needs of the child through child care. The pretest ANOVA indicated no significant group differences on the subscale mothers' perspectives pertaining to meeting the basic needs of their children through child care. The posttest correlational analyses indicated the family variable, mother's education, to be significantly correlated with the mother's attitudes about providing the basic needs of the child through child care. To determine if there were differences in the mother's perception of her role in providing her child's child care needs as related to the family correlate, mother's education; and to determine if mother's education should be used as a covariate in later analyses, an ANOVA was calculated. As in the previous analyses mothers' education was divided into three groups: mothers with less than a 12th grade education,

mothers with a 12th grade education, and mothers having completed education beyond 12th grade.

The ANOVA indicated there was a main effect for mother's education. $F(2, 57) = 4.65, p < .05$. According to the multiple comparison test, more educated mothers' perceptions of their role in providing child care was significantly less ($\bar{m} = 25.64$) than mothers with a 12th grade education ($\bar{m} = 27.58$), or mothers with less than a 12th grade education ($\bar{m} = 28.31$). There were no significant differences between mothers' with a high school education and mothers' with less than a 12th grade education in their perception of the role in providing child care.

Because the ANOVA indicated mother's education did vary across the groups, the final analysis of posttest data used an ANCOVA controlling for mother's education and pretest, to determine differences between the groups on the mothers' perceptions of their role in providing child care after the home visits. The ANCOVA indicated the pretest and mother's education did explain a significant portion of the variance in the mothers' perception of their role in providing child care after the home visits, $F(1, 54) = 7.66, p < .01$, and $F(1, 54) = 14.01, p < .001$, respectively. The ANCOVA indicated that after controlling for pretest and mother's education and after the home visit intervention, mothers' attitudes about their role in providing child care varied significantly by group membership, $F(2, 54) = 4.58, p < .05$. Examination of the multiple comparisons indicated the mothers in the experimental group ($\bar{m} = 27.91$) and in the

comparison group ($\bar{m} = 27.66$) perceived their role in providing child care to be significantly greater than that of the control group mothers ($\bar{m} = 25.98$).

Experimental and comparison group mothers' attitudes were not significantly different.

Acting as an interface between the child and the school. The pretest ANOVA indicated prior to the home visits, no significant differences were present between the treatment group mothers' perceptions of their role in providing a connection between the child and the school. The posttest correlational analysis indicated one demographic variable, mother's education, was significantly correlated with the posttest interface subscale. To determine if there were differences between the groups in the mothers' perceptions of their role as an interface between their child and the school as a function of the family correlate, mother's education; and to see if mother's education should be used as a covariate in later analyses, an ANOVA was calculated. As in previous analyses, mother's education was divided into three groups: mothers with less than a high school education, mothers with a high school education and mothers with education beyond high school. There was no significant main effect for mother's education.

Because there were no significant pretest group differences or family variables to be included in the final analysis, a 3 (Group) X 2 (Time) repeated measures ANOVA, using the Wilkes Lambda criterion, was calculated on mothers' perception of her role as an interface between her child and the school.

The analysis indicated no significant main effect for time or group membership. Nor was there a significant time X group interaction effect.

Summary

Attitudes and expectations

As seen in Table 8 there were no changes in mothers' and teachers' attitudes concerning one another. There were some changes in mothers' expectations for their children's development as seen by several trends and one significant interaction on the verbal assertiveness subscale. The significant interaction indicated the comparison group mothers' expectations for their child's verbal assertiveness increased while the experimental group mothers' expectations increased slightly and the control group mothers' expectation decreased slightly.

Table 8
Summary of Results

| Dependent Variables | Analysis | Effect | Differences |
|---|-----------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Teacher's Attitude About Mother | ANCOVA | Group | n.s. |
| Mother's Attitude About Teacher | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Time Group Interaction | n.s. n.s. n.s. |
| <u>Mother's Expectation of Child's Development</u> Total Score | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. trend |
| <u>Subscales</u> Verbal Assertiveness | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. significant |
| Compliance | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. trend |
| School Related Skills | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. n.s. |
| Independence | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. trend |
| Social | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. trend |
| <u>Teacher's Perception of Child's Self-Competence</u> Total Score | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. post-hoc significant |
| <u>Subscales</u> Teacher's Perception of Child's Cognitive Competence | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. post-hoc significant |
| Teacher's Perception of Child's Peer Acceptance | ANCOVA | Group | Cont>Comp Exp |
| Teacher's Perception of Child's Physical Competence | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | Cont>Comp Exp n.s. n.s. |
| <u>Child's Perception of Self-Competence</u> Total Score | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. n.s. |
| <u>Subscales</u> Child's Perception of Cognitive Competence | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. post-hoc significant |
| Child's Perception of Physical Competence | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. n.s. |
| Child's Perception of Maternal Acceptance | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. n.s. |
| <u>Mother's Role Perception in Child's Education</u> Total Score | ANCOVA | Group | Exp Comp > Cont |
| <u>Subscales</u> Mother's Role Perception in Teaching Cognitive Skills | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. trend |
| Mother's Role Perception in Handling Emotions | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. n.s. |
| Mother's Role Perception in Teaching Social Skills | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. trend |
| Mother's Role Perception in Handling Child's Emotional Needs | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. n.s. |
| Mother's Role Perception in Meeting the Child's Childcare Needs | ANCOVA | Group | Exp Comp > Cont |
| Mother's Role Perception of Being an Interface Between the Child and School | 3x2 Repeated Measures ANOVA | Group Time Interaction | n.s. n.s. n.s. |

Self-competence

Significant time X group interactions were found for teachers' perceptions of children's overall self-competence and children's cognitive competence.

Overall competence was highest for the control group followed by the comparison group. The experimental group remained relatively stable. In terms of the teacher's perception of children's cognitive competence, the comparison and control groups made similar gains over time. While the experimental group perceptions increased, the increase was noticeably less than the other two groups. There was a main effect for group on teachers' perceptions of children's peer acceptance and physical competence. The control group teachers' perceptions of their children's peer acceptance and physical competence were significantly higher than the comparison and experimental group teachers.

The only change in the children's perceptions of their self-competence was in their cognitive competence. The significant interaction effect suggests all of the children reported increased cognitive competence at posttest. The comparison group reported the largest change and the experimental group reported the least change.

Mothers' role

Significant posttest group differences suggests mothers' perceptions of their role in their child's education were influenced by the home visits regardless of who made them. As seen in Table 8, the experimental and comparison group mothers' perceptions of their role in their child's education (total score) and their

perception of meeting their children's child care needs were significantly higher than that of the control group mothers at posttest. There were no significant differences between the experimental and comparison mothers.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

Research Questions

Because of the dearth of information concerning teacher home visits in early childhood settings, the significance, and in some cases lack of significance of the findings gleaned from this study, provide information which may assist in the implementation of future home visits. Irrespective of the added communication provided parents and teachers in the experimental group who interacted during eight monthly home visits throughout the 1994-1995 school year, the monthly home visits by the Head Start teachers appear to have had minimal effects on the dependent variables. However, home visits, regardless of who conducted them, influenced several of the dependent variables. In several cases the comparison group mothers who received brief home visits by college students majoring in early childhood education, reported greater changes in their attitudes, perceptions and beliefs at the end of the study than the experimental group. The ensuing discussion will address the results or lack of results concerning each of the research questions.

Family Characteristics

Six questions about the influence of monthly home visits by Head Start teachers were the focus of the study. Research question 1 asked if family characteristics would influence the mother's and teacher's attitudes toward one another, the mother's, teacher's, and child's perceptions of the child's

competence, the mother's cognitive and social expectations for her child, her knowledge of child development, and her perception of her role in her child's education. In this study there was minimal evidence to support this question. Although fathers' characteristics were significantly related to some of the dependent variables, they were excluded due to the study's focus on mothers, children and teachers.

In this sample the family characteristics had little influence on the outcome variables. Only three variables influenced the outcome variables: mother's age, children's age, and mother's education. When examining mothers' attitudes about their child's teacher at posttest, mothers' age initially varied significantly across the three groups; however, it was not significant in the final analysis. Children's age influenced teacher's perceptions of their children's peer acceptance; however, it was not significant in the final analysis. Mothers' perceptions of their role in their child's education was most influenced by a family variable. Mother's level of education significantly influenced mothers' perceptions of their role in their children's education and several of the related subscales.

The lack of influence of family characteristics on the outcome variables may result from familial similarities across groups. Families must meet certain financial and social criteria for their children to participate in Head Start. The centers in the current study were selected because of their geographic

proximity and similarity in age of children served. These factors made it likely that all participating families would be similar.

Mothers' and Teachers' Attitudes

Teachers. Research question 2 asked if the addition of home visits would influence mother's and teacher's attitudes toward one another after variance due to family characteristics had been controlled. Previous research indicates the more interaction afforded teachers and parents, the more positive their attitudes concerning one another become (Epstein, 1990). This information suggests the experimental group mothers and teachers should have had more positive attitudes toward each other after the home visits. Such was not the case with this sample. The data indicated the opportunities for increased dialogue provided the teacher and mother through monthly home visits, did not significantly influence the teachers' attitudes about the mothers, nor the mothers' attitudes about the teachers.

Possible reasons for this lack of change could be associated with the emphasis of the home visits. Although the mother was present and there were opportunities for dialogue between the mother and teacher in the experimental group, the visit focused on an activity selected by the teacher to enhance the child's development. This may have limited the interaction between the teacher and mother. Current research suggests the role of the visitor and the focus of the home visits can influence the outcomes of home visits (Powell, 1988; Halpern & Larner, 1988). Halpern and Larner found this to be true in their study

which examined the influence of home visits and families in various areas of the country. When the focus of the home visits shifted from the proposed focus to a focus which met the current family's needs, the outcomes of the home visits varied accordingly. Because the home visits in this study were child focused, the interaction between the mother and teacher may have been limited.

Teachers may have remained consistently positive toward their parents throughout the school year. In a study of child care providers, Kontos et al. (1983) found that although teachers indicated they had negative attitudes toward parents in general, they perceived their children's parents to be more competent than other parents. Similar attitudes by the current sample could have influenced the teachers' responses on the pretests prior to the home visits. They reported positive attitudes on the pretest, thus disallowing significant increases in attitudes after the home visits.

Joffe (1977) reported that experienced teachers maintain more positive attitudes toward their parents than less experienced teachers. Only two of the participating teachers were first year teachers with no previous teaching experience. All of the others had experience teaching in Head Start. Therefore, the experience of the teachers could have influenced their consistent positive attitudes toward the mothers.

Conversely the attitudes of teachers may not have varied due to negative experiences which occurred early in the school year and continued during the home visits. The experimental group teachers and the comparison group

student visitors frequently arrived at the predetermined time to find the family not at home.

Mothers. At posttest there were no significant differences between the attitudes of the mothers who had received the monthly home visits by their child's teacher, the mothers who had been visited by students, and the mothers with no home visits. Previous research of mothers' attitudes about their child's caregiver or teacher indicate most parents have positive attitudes toward their child's teacher. Ninety percent of the parents of elementary students in Epstein's (1991) survey reported positive attitudes toward their school. Assessments of child care settings indicate the majority of mothers have positive attitudes about their child's caregiver (Galinsky, 1990; Kontos & Dunn, 1989). This may be the case in this study. In general all of the mothers' attitudes were positive.

Bryant (1996), in her unpublished research study addressing child - centered home visits with 40 mothers and children, suggests it is very difficult to alter or modify mothers' and visitors' roles via child-centered home visits. The mothers in her study indicated that although the information gleaned from the conversations and interactions with the home visitor and child were informative, mothers' attitudes concerning the visitor were still viewed through the client and the knowledgeable expert relationship. The mothers focused on the visitor's information which could assist in their child's development. Their attitudes about the visitor were inconsequential.

The strong emphasis placed on parent involvement and parent and teacher communication in all Head Start programs may have minimized the effects of the increased communication provided by the visits. All of the parents (irrespective of their group) were provided multiple opportunities to interact with their child's teacher through the Head Start mandated parent involvement activities. It may be the home visiting intervention was not intense enough to increase mothers' attitudes above those of the other Head Start teachers and mothers who were participating in the traditional parent involvement activities.

Mother's Expectation for her Child's Development

Research question 3 asked if the addition of home visits would influence the mothers' expectations for their children's development. Home visits seemed to have minimal influence on the mothers' expectations; however, the comparison and experimental group mothers' expectations for their children's development became more age appropriate in some areas. A nonsignificant trend suggested that, based on the group the mothers were in, there was a differential effect of the home visits over time for mothers' expectations for their children's cognitive and social development. There was also a significant interaction among the mothers' expectations for their children to develop verbal assertiveness.

The mothers in the comparison group who received brief visits by junior level early childhood students indicated they expected their children to develop cognitively and socially at older ages than the experimental and control group

mothers. The comparison group mothers also expected their children to develop verbal assertiveness at an older age than the experimental and control groups. Although a non significant trend, this pattern continued with the comparison group mothers expecting their children to be older before adopting compliant behaviors and independence.

Although the experimental group mothers did not have as great an increase in age expectations as the comparison group mothers, they had a greater increase than the control group mothers. Control group mothers' age expectations actually decreased in most instances, suggesting they expected their children to develop cognitively and socially at a younger age. This was particularly apparent in the age they expected their child to conform (compliance) to rules and regulations. The only departure in this pattern was in the mothers' expectations for their child's developing independence. The experimental group indicated children should develop independence at a younger age than the control or comparison group mothers.

It is clear home visits influenced mothers' expectations for their children's development. It is unclear why the two types of home visits had differential influences on the mothers' expectations for their child's independence. Previous research suggests the longer teacher-led visits which included an activity specifically selected by the teacher for the child should have provided mothers a more accurate understanding of their child's development than the brief visits by students. Perhaps replication of the study will clarify these results.

Parents' developmental expectations are frequently determined by how they combine information from experts, friends and direct experience (Whiting, 1980). These developmental expectations are often very malleable and easily altered by observing other children, reading trade magazines, or talking with adults the parent perceives to be knowledgeable (Hess et al., 1980). Parents customarily expect children to learn the alphabet and numbers which have traditionally been signs of the child's cognitive readiness for school (Whiting, 1980). The availability of multiple educational materials and advice from other influential adults frequently cause the parent's expectations for the child's school success to be inconsistent with the developmental level of their child. The control group parents may have provided the more common socially accepted response by indicating younger age expectations for the achievement of children's various developmental milestones, than the other parents who participated in home visits.

According to the items on the questionnaire, the increase in age suggests that in most cases the mothers in the comparison and experimental groups had more realistic age expectations than the control group mothers. This suggests the increased interaction provided the mother and child during the home visits provided opportunities for mothers to have more accurate expectations of their child. Subsequent research may need to focus less on the role of the home visitor and more on the type of interactions which occur between the parent and child.

Teachers' Knowledge of the Four-year-old Child's Cognitive and Social Competence

Research question 4 asks, if after controlling for family characteristics, will the addition of home visits influence the teacher's knowledge of the four-year-old child's self competence? The home visits appear to have had more significant influences on all of the teachers' perceptions of their children's competence than any other dependent variable. All of the teachers reported highly significant positive changes in their children's competence at the end of the study. The control group teachers' perceptions were significantly higher than the comparison and experimental group teachers.

Previous research studies suggests the control group teachers' considerably high perceptions of their children's competence may reflect what is commonly referred to as a socially acceptable response or what Miller and Davis (1992) refer to as the teacher's self-protective bias. The control group teachers may have unintentionally overestimated the abilities of their children's school performance to reflect their success as teachers. Whereas the increased interaction provided the experimental group teachers via the home visits provided a more accurate assessment of their children's competence.

This rationale cannot support the increase in the comparison group teachers' perceptions of their children's competency because early childhood students were interacting with the children during the home visits. These increases may be related to the variety of age appropriate activities utilized in the

comparison group home visits. These activities were selected to provide opportunities for child initiated exploration. Marcon (1994b, p. 15) observed that "children's academic and developmental progress through school is enhanced by more active, child-initiated early learning experiences." The choice of appropriate activities and the interaction between the junior level early childhood students may have increased the children's competency reported by their teachers.

All of the teachers reported increases in their children's cognitive competence. These findings could be related to socially acceptable answers; however, Miller and Davis (1992) suggest teachers tend to be more accurate in judging children's cognitive achievement, and less accurate in judging attributes which are not related to school performance. They are also better at judging their classes' average ability than individual children's abilities (Miller & Davis, 1992).

This pattern of significance was repeated in the two subscales addressing children's peer acceptance and physical competence. As with the previously reported results, the control group teachers' reported the greatest increases. The comparison teachers perceived their children as having gained some competence while the experimental teachers indicated only a slight increase in their children's competence.

These results suggest the home visits may have influenced the accuracy or inaccuracy of the teachers' perception of their children's competence. Taking into account the possibility of teachers' self-protective bias and the desire to

provide the socially acceptable response, the home visits again appear to have had some influence on the accuracy of the experimental and comparison group teachers' perceptions of their children's competence.

Children's Perceived Self Competence

Research question 5 asks if after controlling for family characteristics, will the addition of home visits influence the child's perception of self-competence? The home visits appear to have had very little influence on children's perceptions of their self-competence. They reported no significant posttest differences in their total competence or in the subscales addressing their physical competence, peer acceptance, or maternal acceptance. The children's cognitive competence was an exception.

A main effect for time indicated all of the children's perceptions of their cognitive competence increased; however, a significant time X group interaction effect revealed the control group children perceived the least increase in their perceptions of cognitive competence. The experimental group children indicated a slight increase, and the comparison group children indicated the greatest increase in their perceptions of cognitive competence. These results suggest the increased interaction with a knowledgeable adult provided by the home visits did influence the children's perception of their cognitive competence.

The comparison group children's higher perceptions of cognition competence may be related to the appropriateness of the activities and the amount of early childhood education the visiting students had experienced.

Students at this level have observed appropriate teacher interactions with young children through guided observations in their child development classes. This additional experience and education may have influenced their interactions with the children.

The number of visits per teacher may have influenced their response to the children and their interactions with the parents. The teacher visitors visited all of their children per month, while the students visited a maximum of three children per month. Because the activities were provided the student visitors, they did not have the preparation required of the teachers. Although the teachers did not have to prepare the activity, they had to identify the required activity. These factors should be considered when addressing future home visits.

The experimental group teachers frequently voiced distress over the amount of time required for scheduling and implementing the visits. They also indicated occasional shifts in the focus of the home visits when mothers addressed family needs. Although Head Start teachers expect to provide assistance to parents, this may have shifted the dialogue away from the child, thus providing less opportunity for the child to develop greater self-competence.

These results suggest shorter, child-centered home visits may be more beneficial for the child's development of self-competence. They also suggest brief visits by knowledgeable adults may have as great or greater influence on the child's self-competence than lengthy teacher-led home visits.

Even with a testing instrument which reports overall strong reliability and validity, as does the Harter and Pike's Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children used in this study, there are still difficulties in measuring young children's perception of their competency. The very nature of the egocentric young child fosters feelings and beliefs of high self-competence and invincibility (Harter, 1983). Particularly at posttesting, several of the children in this study consistently indicated they were very good in all of the domains assessed by the instrument. This may account for the lack of posttest differences among the groups.

Since the beginning of the current study, Fantuzzo et al. (1996) investigated the construct validity and the developmental appropriateness of the Harter instrument. Data were collected from 476 African-American children who ranged in age from 48 to 64 months. Like the children in the current study, these children were enrolled in large metropolitan Head Start programs. Study results indicated the Harter did not yield "meaningful or stable constructs of competence and social acceptance for his sample of urban Head Start children" (p. 1078). The authors also emphasized the lack of developmental appropriateness of trying to assess preoperational children's concepts of quantities using pictures and terms such as "a few", "hardly any" "not very many" and "pretty many".

Their results suggest the Harter assessment may not be tapping the relevant construct. In this case it is difficult to know if the children's self-competence was truly influenced by the home visits.

Mother's Perception of Her Parental Role

Research question 6 asks if after controlling for family characteristics, will the addition of home visits influence the mother's perception of her parental role in educating her child? Data indicated there were no pretest differences between the groups; however, after the home visits, the experimental group mothers' and the comparison group mothers' perceptions of their roles in their children's education were significantly higher than the control group mothers. There were no significant differences between the comparison group and experimental group mothers' perceptions of their role in their children's education after the home visits. This suggests that the home visits did significantly influence the mothers' perceptions of their role in their child's education.

Hess et al. (1980) propose that mothers develop an approximation of what they perceive to be their child's normal developmental progression toward maturity. This time line is used to evaluate the child's progress and to guide the parent's role in the amount and type of parental assistance in their child's development. In most cases this role is continually revised depending upon the child's characteristics and development, and the parent's current knowledge base. In this study it appears the home visits, either by the students or teachers, did influence the mothers' developmental time line.

Examination of the subscales indicated the mothers' perceptions of their role in teaching cognitive skills changed. However, the changes are difficult to interpret. After the home visits by the Head Start teachers, the experimental

group mothers' perceptions of their role in the child's cognitive growth decreased; however, their role perceptions were still greater than the comparison and control group mothers' perceptions. Possibly being able to observe the interaction between the child and teacher provided the mother a more accurate perception of her role in her child's cognitive development, as well as a more accurate perception of her child's competencies.

The comparison group mothers' perception of their role in their child's cognitive development increased slightly after the home visits to bring their perceptions to a level slightly below the experimental group. The real difference in the groups was in the control group. Their perception of their role in their child's education dropped considerably at posttest. The lack of communication provided to the other two groups via the home visits could have supported the common perception that teachers are to teach and parents are to parent. This decrease suggests the home visits did influence the comparison and experimental group mother's perception of their role in their child's education.

Discussion

The home visits by the child's teacher did seem to influence most of the dependent variables; however, posttest analyses indicated the brief visits by early childhood students were as, or more effective than the longer individualized teacher visits. This was particularly apparent in parental expectations of their child's development and parents' perceptions of their role in their child's development.

The primary question is why the visits by the student visitors appear to be as influential or more influential on the parents' perceptions of their role in their child's development and their parental expectations for the child's development than the individualized visits by the child's teacher. These findings do not concur with current literature. A review of the literature suggests a collaborative approach with equal relationships between the parent and visitor is much more effective than the teacher / expert model where the visitor chooses the topic and the parent is to listen and adopt the visitor's advice (Powell, 1989). Home visits should focus on parent support and empowerment, rather than parental dependency on continued expert advice (Dunst & Trivette, 1988; Halpern & Lamer, 1988).

In this study it may be that the parents were empowered to the point that the teacher was unable to maintain the focus on the child. Posttest discussions with the experimental group Head Start teachers support this explanation. The teachers voiced difficulty in keeping the visit child centered. Frequently mothers wanted to discuss family needs which they currently viewed as more critical than the young child's development. One of the teachers said she often felt like a social services consultant rather than a teacher. Even though she was in the home for an hour, her interactions with the child were limited due to the mother's concerns.

The focus of the visits was also altered by younger and older siblings. Because of the family's comfort level with the teacher, it was easy for the visit to

become family focused rather than child focused. Older siblings who had attended the same Head Start program knew the teacher and were eager to talk with her. Younger siblings were familiar with the teacher because they frequently entered the classroom during arrival or pick-up of their brother or sister. The teacher was special to all of the children, and they wanted to interact with her and participate in the activities. This could have influenced the lack of significant change in the mothers' perceptions of their child and their role in his/her development since the focus of the home visit addressed other familial needs instead of remaining child focused. This is known to be a frequent problem particularly when the home visits are addressing children (Halpern & Lerner, 1988; Travers & Light, 1982).

Minuchin's family systems theory (1985) emphasizes the circularity of children's influence on the parent and parents' influence on the children. These interrelationships are very difficult to separate. Even though the teacher endeavored to focus on the child currently in her class, she was the teacher. She was perceived by the family as an approachable, knowledgeable adult who would respond to all of the family's needs. She also was a person in authority who influenced the parents' interactions within the Head Start program. This authority role also could have influenced the way the teacher responded to the child and parent.

In the brief visits by junior level early childhood students there was no time to discuss familial matters nor were there preconceived beliefs, ideas or bonding

from previous parent and visitor interactions. The role of the student visitor was to introduce the activity, interact with the child through the activity and leave. The student was not an authority figure nor would she have any future interaction with the family. The different approaches and perceptions of the teacher and student visitor may have influenced the results.

Although it was not required, most parents observed the student interacting with the child and the activity. This brief observation once a month for eight months with activities selected specifically for four to five-year-old children, and addressing multiple learning modalities, may have increased the parents' knowledge of the child and subsequently helped parents gain a more accurate perception of their child's development and their role in supporting it.

The student visitors were very eager. For many of the students this was one of their first interactions with parents and young children. It was common for the students to contact the primary investigator to share their home visiting experiences. They were excited over any progress they perceived their child to demonstrate. They frequently commented on mothers' and little brothers' and sisters' observations of the activity. The student was perceived much more as a visitor than "the teacher" and therefore had a greater opportunity to maintain the focus on the child.

Age of the visitors may have influenced the results. The college students were comparable in age or younger than most of the mothers. Because of this, they may have been less threatening to the parents. The parents may also have

viewed the students as more like themselves because the students were not in the authority role of the teachers. Conversely the teachers were older than most of the mothers and in more of an authority role. Posttest results indicate the teachers had significantly more positive attitudes toward older mothers than younger mothers which also could have influenced posttest results.

The enthusiasm of the students and their unconditional positive regard for the children and mothers could have influenced the mothers' positive posttest responses. Conversely the experimental teachers consistently reported being burdened and frustrated over the amount of time required by the home visits and the need to wait for the parent or having to reschedule appointments. Irrespective of their receiving additional pay for participating in the home visits, they frequently reported having to wait for the parent, or having to reschedule the appointment.

The students maintained a record of occurrences and interactions during the visits. These records included the student visitors' reactions to the activity, the child, and the family. This exercise may have heightened their understanding of the child, thus allowing them to adjust their responses to child accordingly. Being junior level students, they were also aware of appropriate questioning skills and appropriate means of interacting with this age child. They had more early childhood education course work than all but one of the experimental group teachers. These variables, combined with the family focus

which several of the visits assumed, could have diluted the individualized interaction between the child and teacher.

Because of the limitations of questionnaire assessment tools, adding an ethnographic assessment might provide a clearer perspective of the study outcomes. Having the opportunity to talk with the parents, teachers, and children could add clarity to the current results. The literature indicates the effects of home visits are frequently difficult to assess. When Gordon and Guinagh (1978) studied the effects of home visits on the cognitive development of young children from low income families, the children who had received the home visits scored no better on quantitative measurements of cognitive development than the children without home visits. However, observations and interactions with the children indicated the home visiting intervention group performed better in group settings.

A weakness of this study was the inability to monitor the teacher - led home visits. There was no appropriate means to monitor the teacher visits and thus obtain an accurate account of what occurred during these visits. Also attention to the teacher's knowledge of developmentally appropriate activities and their attitudes concerning the visits were inaccessible.

Head Start administrators and teachers emphasized the need for confidentiality of the home visits. Several of the comparison and experimental group parents were initially hesitant to have the student or teacher visit their home. It was only after the parents were assured of the purpose and

confidentiality of the visits, that they consented to participate. This respect for the family's privacy on the part of the Head Start agency prevented direct observation of what actually occurred during the visits. A replication of the study with more knowledge of the parent, teacher and child interactions occurring in the home visits, could provide a basis for comparison and a more accurate assessment of the influence of the teacher-led home visits.

Conclusion

Although the current study leaves unanswered questions, it indicates home visits did influence the mother's expectations for her child's development, her perception of her role in her child's development, the teacher's perception of the child's competence, and the child's perception of his/her cognitive development. The home visits did not influence the child's perception of his/her development in areas other than cognitive development, nor the parents' and teachers' attitudes concerning each other. Nonetheless, the home visits, regardless of the visitors' roles or the length of the visits, did enhance home - school connections.

The unexpected results were the significant influences made by the brief home visits by early childhood students. In the current study brief home visits by knowledgeable adults were as influential in assisting the child and parent as teacher planned and initiated home visits. It also indicates brief monthly home visits can be just as effective as lengthy home visits.

The key may be the setting in which the home visits occurred. The student led home visits were in the context of Head Start, a program identified as utilizing an ecological approach by providing assistance to both children and parents. The philosophical basis of Head Start is that low-income persons should participate in as many programs as possible which will assist both the child and the parent (Zigler & Styfco, 1993). Because Head Start provides continuous communication and assistance to the participating families, the brief visits by the early childhood college students may have been sufficient to influence the parents and children. All parents in the study were provided opportunities to volunteer in the classroom, thus providing opportunities to observe their children. They also were provided opportunities for parent education and increased knowledge of child development. These are opportunities which are not always available in other settings serving four-year-old children. Within a setting rich with parent education and parent involvement opportunities, brief home visits which contain developmentally appropriate children's activities and which are planned and instituted by knowledgeable adults, may be sufficient for increased child development and parent understanding.

It could be in the context of an ecological program such as Head Start. brief monthly home visits by trained early childhood visitors, who are providing activities planned by early childhood professionals, may be enough to increase parents' and four-year-old children's perceptions and understandings.

Replication of the study is needed to validate these results. If in fact student home visitors could be effective in Head Start, collaborative relationships between Head Start programs and universities could be instituted which would benefit both the families and university students.

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APPENDIX A

Child's Name _____

FAMILY INFORMATION

1. What is your Head Start child's birth date? _____
2. Is your child a boy _____ or a girl? _____
3. What is the Head Start child's race / ethnicity? African American _____ Asian _____
Hispanic _____ Native American _____ White _____ Other _____

4. Please give mother's age _____
What was the last school grade attended by the mother? _____
Is the mother currently working outside the home? Yes _____ No _____
If yes, how many hours per week? _____
What is the mother's current occupation? _____

5. Please give the father's age _____
What was the last School Grade attended by the father _____
Does father live in the home? Yes _____ No _____
Is the father currently working outside the home? Yes _____ No _____
If yes, how many hours per week? _____
What is the father's Current Occupation? _____

6. If the child's primary caregiver is someone other than the mother, please complete the following statements.

Please check the relationship between the child and primary caregiver.

Father _____, Foster Parent _____, Grandmother _____,

Grandfather _____, Aunt _____, Uncle _____, Friend _____

What was the last school grade attended by the caregiver? _____

Is the caregiver currently working outside the home? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, how many hours per week? _____

What is the primary caregiver's current occupation? _____

How many adults, other than the parents or primary caregiver (i.e. friend, relative), currently live in the home? _____

7. How many brothers and sisters does the Head Start child have? _____
How many of the brothers and sisters attend Head Start? _____
8. What is the yearly income of the Head Start child's family?
_____ Less than \$5,000
_____ 5,000 - 10,999
_____ 11,000 - 15,999
_____ 16,000 - 20,999
_____ 21,000 - 25,999
_____ 26,000 - 30,999
_____ 31,000 - 35,999
9. Is the family currently receiving AFDC / Welfare assistance?
Yes _____ No _____

HEAD START TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What is the title of your job? _____ Lead teacher _____ Assistant teacher
2. How long have you been employed in your current position? _____
3. How long have you been working in Head Start? _____
4. How long have you been working in the field of early childhood education? _____
5. How many hours per week do you normally get paid for your teaching? _____
6. How many hours do you actually spend on your teaching? _____
7. How many children are in your Head Start classroom? _____
8. Do you hold any type of teaching certification (such as an Elementary Teacher certificate or a CDA Credential)? Yes _____ No _____
If yes, what kind of certification? _____
9. Have you participated in training provided by Head Start? Yes _____ No _____
10. Other than training provided in your Head Start program, have you had any training specifically related to teaching young children or in the area of child development?
Please circle the types of training you have had:

| | |
|---|-----------------------|
| 0. None | 5. Associate's degree |
| 1. High school course(s) | 6. Bachelor's degree |
| 2. Child Care Careers Training | 7. Master's degree |
| 3. CDA training | 8. Doctoral degree |
| 4. Jr. College / Technical School course(s) | |
11. What is your age? _____
12. What is your race / ethnicity? African American _____ Asian _____ Hispanic _____
Native American _____ White _____
13. How many children do you have (your own children, not Head Start children)? _____
14. What is your marital status?

| | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Married _____ | 3. Separated/divorced/widowed _____ |
| 2. Single/never married _____ | 4. Single with partner _____ |
15. If you have a spouse or partner what is her / his occupation? _____

16. What is your yearly income from Head Start?

| | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| _____ Less than \$5,000 | _____ 26,000 - 30,999 |
| _____ 5,000 - 10,999 | _____ 31,000 - 35,999 |
| _____ 11,000 - 15,999 | _____ 36,000 - 40,999 |
| _____ 16,000 - 20,999 | _____ 41,000 - 45,999 |
| _____ 21,000 - 25,999 | _____ 46,000 - 50,000 |

17. What is your yearly family income?

| | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| _____ Less than \$5,000 | _____ 31,000 - 35,999 |
| _____ 5,000 - 10,999 | _____ 36,000 - 40,999 |
| _____ 11,000 - 15,999 | _____ 41,000 - 45,999 |
| _____ 16,000 - 20,999 | _____ 46,000 - 50,999 |
| _____ 21,000 - 25,999 | _____ 51,000 - 60,999 |
| _____ 26,000 - 30,999 | _____ 70,000 or above |

18. Are you a member of any professional organizations? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, please specify:

_____ Oklahoma Head Start Association (OHSA / National Head Start Association)

_____ OK Child Care Association (OCCA).

_____ Oklahoma Early Childhood Association (OECA) / Southern Early Childhood Association (SECA)

_____ Oklahoma Association for the Education of Young Children (OAEYC) / National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC)

_____ Friends of Day Care

_____ Other - please specify _____

APPENDIX B

PARENT SURVEY

Please think of your child's teacher, _____ as you answer the following questions.

Please CIRCLE the choice for each item that best represents your opinion and experience.

| | | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | No Opinion | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|----|---|----------------------|----------|---------------|-------|-------------------|
| 1 | Being involved in my child's education is important for my child's school success. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | When talking to me about my child, the teacher acts like I don't know anything. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | My child's teacher makes me feel comfortable at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | When the teacher talks to me, she explains things in a way I can understand. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | I feel comfortable to phone my child's teacher if I have a concern. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6 | The only time I hear from the teacher is when my child is in trouble. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7 | When the teacher visits my home I feel like she is evaluating what I am doing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8 | My child's teacher understands how much I care about my child's school success. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9 | It is the teacher's responsibility to teach my child. That is what she has been trained to do. I should not have to work with my child at home. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10 | I really want to help my child learn, but the teacher doesn't help me understand what to do or how to do it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | No Opinion | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|----|---|----------------------|----------|---------------|-------|-------------------|
| 11 | The teacher encourages me and makes me feel good about myself and my child. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 | My child's teacher suggests a variety of enjoyable learning activities that I can do with my child. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Child's Name _____

TEACHER SURVEY

Please complete this scale on the primary caregiver of the child named above. CIRCLE the choice for each item that best represents your opinion and experience with this primary caregiver

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | No Opinion | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|----------------------|----------|---------------|-------|-------------------|
| 1. This parent's involvement is important for her/his child's school success. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. This family has strengths that can be tapped to increase their child's school success. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. This parent helps her/his child with learning activities at home. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. The benefits of involving this parent in her/his preschool child's education are not worth the extra work to implement them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I tell this parent about things s/he could do at home with her/his child, but s/he doesn't do them. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I find it easy to talk with this parent. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. This parent devotes a great deal of time to her/his family and often makes sacrifices for her/his children. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. This parent wants to help her/his children. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. This parent doesn't have the training to help her/his child with math and reading activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | No Opinion | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|--|----------------------|----------|---------------|-------|-------------------|
| 10. This parent is interested in what happens in her/his child's classroom | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I feel comfortable advising this parent about ways s/he can assist her/his child in learning. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. This parent is not interested in what is happening at school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. This parent can learn ways to assist her/his child in learning activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. This parent frequently talks with me when s/he delivers or picks her/his child up from school. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. This parent enjoys participating in the classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. This parent cares about what I am doing in my classroom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. This parent is enthusiastic about attending parent conferences and other school functions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. This parent is aware of his/her child's level of development and does not place unrealistic demands on him/her. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. This parent always seems to be in a hurry and is often abrupt with his/her child. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. This parent participates in parent education activities provided by Head Start (e.g., the book and activity workshop). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

APPENDIX C

PARENTS' LEARNING AND SOCIAL EXPECTATIONS FOR PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

Please think of your child _____ as you answer the following questions. Circle the age level when you generally expect your child to be able to achieve mastery of the activities or behaviors listed below.

| | Mastery Before Age 4 | Mastery Between Age 4 and 5 | Mastery After Age 5 |
|---|---------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|
| 1. Tell you how old s/he is | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2. Count 5 toys | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3. Copy a circle | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4. Follow two-step directions (Example: Go to your bedroom and get your green shirt.) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5. Identify basic colors (Red, yellow, green, blue, purple, black, orange) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6. Tell time on the clock | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7. Read the words in simple books | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8. Asks for explanation when in doubt | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 9. States what s/he wants when asked | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10. Answers a question clearly | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 11. Stands up for his/her own rights with others | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 12. Can explain why s/he thinks something | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 13. Comes or answers when called | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 14. Gives up reading or TV to help mother. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 15. Stops misbehaving when told | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 16. Does task immediately when told | 1 | 2 | 3 |

| | Mastery Before Age 4 | Mastery Between Age 4 and 5 | Mastery After Age 5 |
|--|---------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|
| 17. Does not do things forbidden by his/her parents | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 18. Sits at table and eats without help | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 19. Spends own money carefully | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 20. Takes care of own clothes | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 21. Plays outside without adult supervision | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 22. Does regular household chores | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 23. Can entertain him/herself alone | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 24. Makes phone calls without help | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 25. Allows adults to talk without interrupting | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 26. Shares his/her toys with other children | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 27. Settles disagreements without hitting | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 28. Takes the lead when playing with friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 29. Waits for his/her turn when playing with friends | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 30. Sympathetic to the feelings of other children. | 1 | 2 | 3 |

APPENDIX D

PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTAL ROLE SCALE

1982. Lucia A. Gilbert and Gary R. Hanson

Directions: Using the scale below, please circle the number that best represents what you feel your role as a parent should be.

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | |
|--|---|---|---|-------------------------|-------------------|---|---|
| | not at all important as a parental responsibility | moderately important as a parental responsibility | very important as a parental responsibility | moderately important | very important | | |
| <hr/> | | | | | | | |
| <u>Activity</u> | | | | | | | |
| 1. Teach child how to get along with others. | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Consult with teachers and child care providers. | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Teach child to share possessions. | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Transport child to school in the morning | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Talk with teachers or school officials about child's academic progress | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Transport child from school and school-related activities | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Comfort child when s/he is upset or afraid | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Listen to child describe his/her activities | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Give child attention | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Teach child an awareness of the "rules of society" | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Answer child's "why" questions | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Teach child how to be affectionate | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Teach child how to compromise | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Prepare child for bed | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Teach child that s/he does not have to like others to get along with them | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Hold child | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Teach child how to win or lose graciously in interactions with others | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Help child to participate in the democratic process (e.g., learning to vote) | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Provide emotional support for child | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| 1 not at all important as a parental responsibility | 2 moderately important as a parental responsibility | 3 very important as a parental responsibility | 4 moderately important | 5 very important |
|--|--|--|------------------------------|------------------------|
|--|--|--|------------------------------|------------------------|

Activity

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. Help child learn to deal with sadness | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Make child feel important | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Provide care for preschool child | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. Express affection toward child | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. Take child to playgrounds | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. Work with child in developing writing skills | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. Teach child how to negotiate with others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. Select schools for the child | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. Help child develop reading skills | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. Provide child with educational and cultural activities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. Teach child to be sensitive to the feelings of others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. Help child learn an awareness of his/her own feelings and how emotions affect others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. Have intellectual discussions with child | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. Help child to recognize the importance of his/her emotions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. Help child understand his/her sexuality | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. Take child to extracurricular activities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 36. Help child develop mathematical skills | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

APPENDIX E

**The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children
Individual Recording and Scoring Sheet, Form P-K**

Child's Name _____ Age _____ Gender: M F

Class/Grade _____ Teacher _____ Testing Date _____

| Item order and Description | 1 Cognitive Competence | 2 Peer Acceptance | 3 Physical Competence | 4 Maternal Acceptance |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Good at puzzles | 1. _____ | | | |
| 2. Has lots of friends | | 2. _____ | | |
| 3. Good at swinging | | | 3. _____ | |
| 4. Mom smiles | | | | 4. _____ |
| 5. Gets stars on papers | 5. _____ | | | |
| 6. Stays overnight at friends | | 6. _____ | | |
| 7. Good at climbing | | | 7. _____ | |
| 8. Mom take you places | | | | 8. _____ |
| 9. Knows names of colors | 9. _____ | | | |
| 10. Has friends to play with | | 10. _____ | | |
| 11. Can tie shoes | | | 11. _____ | |
| 12. Mom cooks favorite foods | | | | 12. _____ |
| 13. Good at counting | 13. _____ | | | |
| 14. Has friends on playground | | 14. _____ | | |
| 15. Good at skipping | | | 15. _____ | |
| 16. Mom reads to you | | | | 16. _____ |
| 17. Knows alphabet | 17. _____ | | | |
| 18. Gets asked to play by others | | 18. _____ | | |
| 19. Good at running | | | 19. _____ | |
| 20. Mom plays with you | | | | 20. _____ |
| 21. Knows first letter of name | 21. _____ | | | |
| 22. Eats dinner at friends | | 22. _____ | | |
| 23. Good at hopping | | | 23. _____ | |
| 24. Mom talks to you | | | | 24. _____ |
| Column Total | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| Column Means | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

APPENDIX F

TEACHER'S RATING SCALE OF CHILD'S ACTUAL COMPETENCE AND SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE Form P-K

Child's Name _____

Teacher _____

Instructions: Place the appropriate number indicating how true the statement is for this child in the designated space to the right of each item.

Not Very True = 1

Sort of True = 2

Pretty True = 3

Really True = 4

Item Order and Description

Cognitive
Competence

Peer
Acceptance

Physical
Competence

1. Good at puzzles 1. _____

2. Has lots of friends 2. _____

3. Good at swinging 3. _____

5. Stays overnight at friends 5. _____

6. Good at climbing 6. _____

7. Knows names of colors 7. _____

8. Has friends to play with 8. _____

9. Can tie shoe 9. _____

10. Good at counting 10. _____

11. Has friends on playground 11. _____

12. Good at skipping 12. _____

13. Knows alphabet 13. _____

14. Gets asked to play by others 14. _____

15. Good at running 15. _____

16. Knows first letter of name 16. _____

17. Eats dinner at friends 17. _____

18. Good at hopping 18. _____

*Item #4 has been deleted

Comments:

APPENDIX G

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM
AUGUST, 1994**

Dear Teachers,

I am currently working on my dissertation research in the area of parental involvement in the young child's education. My study will focus on home visits.

By participating in the study, you will be asked to make 6 home visits with your students and mothers in addition to the regularly scheduled 2 social service visits you do every year. The 6 home visits will consist of 2 parent conferences replacing those which normally occur in the classroom, plus four educational activity visits. I will help with the selection and implementation of learning activities you and the primary caregiver believe are needed to assist in the child's development. This should decrease your preparation time for the visits.

You will also complete a questionnaire on each child and their primary caregiver. These will take approximately ten minutes per child/per primary caregiver to complete. They will be completed in September at the beginning of the home visits and again at the end of the home visits in April. Envelopes with parent questionnaires will be given to the teachers to send home with the child for parents to complete in August and in April. Also at the beginning and end of the school year, a researcher will assess each child's perception of their school competence. Again this will not affect the teacher. It will require having a small table and two chairs where the child and researcher can talk with one another.

All information received through the questionnaires and the home visits will be confidential. No one will have access to the information except myself as the primary investigator and my major professor, Loraine Dunn, Ph.D. No individual Head Start program will be identified in any research report. Some release time will be provided by the primary investigator to compensate for the time spent completing the extra home visits.

Again, your participation is voluntary. If you have any questions please feel free to call me either at home or at the university. I want this to be a positive experience for both you, your parents and students. Please sign the attached form indicating whether or not you are willing to participate in the study.

Sincerely,

Nancy A. Kling
Early Childhood Education
(405) 325-1498 (work)
(405) 373-1203 (home)

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
INFORMED CONSENT
RESEARCHER: NANCY KLING
HEAD START TEACHERS OF FOUR-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN**

I understand that:

*The purpose of this study is to determine if home visits by Head Start teachers increase communication and understanding between parents and teachers concerning the child's education.

*The purpose of this study is to assist primary caregivers in helping with their child's education.

*I will make monthly home visits from September through April to the students in my class. All of the visits will focus on the child. The investigator will be available to assist me in planning these visits.

*The scheduling of the home visits will be at the mother's and my discretion as long as one occurs every month.

*I will complete questionnaires at the beginning and end of the study about each participating child / mother in my classroom.

*Participating children will complete The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children: Preschool and Kindergarten in September and in April in the Head Start center. This will be administered by a graduate student.

*Participation in the study is voluntary.

*My participation in this study will not affect my employment as a Head Start teacher.

*Everything in the home visits and the questionnaires will remain confidential. No names will be used.

*I may call Nancy Kling, the primary investigator at the University of Oklahoma, 325-1498 if I have any questions during the study.

*I may drop out of the study at any time by contacting Nancy Kling.

Please check one:

_____ Yes. I will participate in the home visits and complete the questionnaires.

_____ No. I will not participate in the home visits and complete the questionnaires.

Teacher Signature

Date

Researcher Signature

Date

Please return this permission form to the primary investigator in the envelope provided.

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM
AUGUST, 1994**

Dear Teachers,

I am currently working on my dissertation research in the area of parent involvement in the young child's education. My study will focus on home visits.

By participating in the study the children in your class will receive 8 home visits by early childhood student teachers once a month from September through April. The student teacher will spend approximately 20 minutes sharing a learning activity (e.g. story, game) which supports what the child is experiencing in his/her Head Start class.

If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire on each child and their primary caregiver. The two questionnaires will only take approximately ten minutes to complete. These will be filled out in September at the beginning of the home visits and again in April at the end of the home visits. Envelopes with parent questionnaires will be given to the teachers to send home with the child for parents to complete in August and in April. These are to be returned to the classroom. I will collect them, thus providing no extra work for teachers.

To ascertain how the child sees him or herself as a learner a graduate student or myself will administer The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social acceptance for Young Children: Preschool and Kindergarten. This will need to be done within the center setting both at the beginning and ending of the school year. It will require having a small table and two chairs where the child and a researcher can talk with one another.

All information received through the questionnaires and the home visits will be confidential. No one will have access to the information except myself as the primary investigator and my major professor, Loraine Dunn, Ph.D. No individual Head Start program will be identified in any research report. There are no potential risks to you or to your class in this project.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may leave the study at any time. If you have any questions please feel free to call me either at home or at the university. I want this to be a positive experience for both you, your parents and students. Please sign the attached form indicating whether or not you are willing to participate.

Sincerely,

Nancy A. Kling
Doctoral Candidate
Early Childhood Education
(405) 325-1498 (work)
(405) 373-1203 (home)

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
INFORMED CONSENT
RESEARCHER: NANCY A. KLING
HEAD START TEACHERS OF FOUR-YEAR-OLD-CHILDREN**

I understand that:

*The purpose of this study is to determine the effect of home visits by early childhood student teachers on the primary caregiver and their four-year-old children in Head Start.

*The home visits will focus on the child.

*I will complete questionnaires at the beginning and end of the study on each participating child /mother in my classroom.

*Participating children will complete The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social acceptance for Young Children: Preschool and Kindergarten in September and in April in the Head Start center. This will be administered by a graduate student.

*Participation in the study is voluntary.

*All information will remain confidential.

*My participation in the study will not affect my employment as a Head Start teacher.

*I may call Nancy Kling, the primary investigator at the University of Oklahoma. 325-1498 if I have any questions during the study.

*I may drop out of the study at any time by contacting Nancy Kling.

Please check one:

_____ Yes, I will participate in the research.

_____ No, I will not participate in the research.

Teacher Signature

Date

Researcher Signature

Date

Please return this permission form to Nancy Kling in the envelope provided

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM
AUGUST, 1994**

Dear Teachers,

I am currently working on my dissertation research in the area of parent involvement in the young child's education. Because Head Start programs and teachers are noted for providing many opportunities for parents to take part in their young child's education, I would appreciate your participation in this study.

If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire on each child and their mother. The two questionnaires will only take approximately ten minutes to complete. These will be filled out in September near the beginning of school and again near the end of school in March or April.

Your parents will be asked to complete three questionnaires which will be enclosed in manilla envelopes. These can be sent home with the children and returned in the envelope. I will pick them up from the classroom to alleviate any extra work for you.

To ascertain how the child sees him or herself as a learner a graduate student will administer The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children: Preschool and Kindergarten. This would need to be done within the center setting both at the beginning and end of the school year. It will require my having a small table and two chairs where the child and researcher can talk with one another.

All information received through the questionnaires will be confidential. No one will have access to the information except myself as the primary investigator and my major professor, Loraine Dunn, Ph.D. No individual Head Start program will be identified in any research report. There are no potential risks to you or to your class in this project.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may leave the study at any time. If you have any questions please feel free to call me either at home or at the university. I want this to be a positive experience for both you, your parents and students. Please sign the attached form indicating whether or not you are willing to participate.

Sincerely,

Nancy A. Kling
Doctoral Candidate
Early Childhood Education
(405) 325-1498 (work)
(405) 373-1203 (home)

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
INFORMED CONSENT
HEAD START TEACHERS OF FOUR-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN
RESEARCHER: NANCY A. KLING
PARENT INVOLVEMENT RESEARCH**

I understand that:

*The purpose of this research is to determine the effect of parent involvement activities provided in Head Start programs serving four-year-old children.

*I will distribute envelopes to the parents of participating children. When they are returned, Nancy Kling will pick them up.

*I will complete two questionnaires at the beginning of school in August and at the end of school in April on every child in my class.

*Participating children will complete The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children: Preschool and Kindergarten in September and in April in the Head Start center. This will be administered by a graduate student.

*Participation in the study is voluntary.

*My participation in this study will not affect my employment as a Head Start teacher.

*All information received during the study will remain confidential. No names will be used.

*I may call Nancy Kling, the primary investigator at the University of Oklahoma, 325-1498 or at her home, 373-1203 if I have any questions during the study.

*I may drop out of the study at any time by contacting Nancy Kling.

Please check one:

_____ Yes, I will participate in the research.

_____ No, I will not participate in the research.

Teacher Signature

Date

Researcher Signature

Date

Please return this permission form to Nancy Kling in the envelope provided

APPENDIX H

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
INFORMED CONSENT
RESEARCHER: NANCY A. KLING
HEAD START PARENTS OF FOUR-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN**

I understand that:

*The purpose of this study is to explore the effects of parent involvement in the young child's education.

*My child's teacher will visit my child and me once a month during the months of September, October, November, December, January, February, March and April. I will be asked about a good time of day for me and my child to determine when the visits will occur.

*The home visits will be focused on my child. My child and I can make suggestions about things that we would like to do at home. The teacher will provide ideas and activities for me to help my child.

*I will complete 3 questionnaires at the beginning and ending of the school year.

*The home visits and the questionnaires will be kept confidential; however I understand the home visitor is obligated to report any incidence of child abuse or neglect as indicated by Oklahoma law.

*My child will be interviewed at school to see how s/he sees him/herself at school.

*I may ask my child's teacher or call the researcher, Nancy Kling at the University of Oklahoma, 325-1498 at any time if I have any questions about the study.

*Being in this study has no effect on my child's attending Head Start.

*I can stop being in the study at any time by calling Nancy Kling or telling my child's teacher.

Please check one:

_____ Yes, my child and I will participate in the home visits and complete the questionnaires.

_____ No, my child and I will not participate in the home visits and complete the questionnaires.

Primary Caregiver or Parent Signature

Date

Researcher Signature

Date

Please return this permission form to your child's classroom in the envelope provided

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM
AUGUST, 1994**

Dear Head Start Parents,

I am currently working on my dissertation research concerning parental involvement in young children's education. My study focuses on home visits. If you are willing to participate in this study, your four-year-old child's teacher will come to your home to visit you and your child for approximately 30 to 60 minutes once a month from September through April. During the visit the teacher will share activities which will support your child's learning (e.g. games, art materials, puzzles). After the visit you and your child may keep the activities to enjoy together. The teacher will try to include what you feel is important for your child. The scheduling of the visits will be decided by you and your child's teacher.

If you choose to participate in the monthly home visits, you will be asked to complete 3 questionnaires at the beginning and end of the school year. These questionnaires ask about your beliefs concerning your child and his/her education. They will only take 20-30 minutes to complete. At the beginning and ending of the school year your child will complete The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children: Preschool and Kindergarten in his/her Head Start classroom. The purpose of this measure is to discover how your child sees him/herself at school.

All information received through the questionnaires and home visits will be confidential. No one will have access to the information except myself as the primary investigator and my major professor, Loraine Dunn, Ph.D. No individual Head Start program will be identified in any research report. There are no potential risks for you or your child.

Again your participation is voluntary. If you have any questions please feel free to call me at the university. I want this to be a positive experience for both you and your child. Please sign the attached form indicating whether or not you are will to participate in the study.

Sincerely,

Nancy A. Kling
Doctoral Candidate
Early Childhood Education
(405) 325-1498

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
INFORMED CONSENT
HEAD START PARENTS OF FOUR-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN
RESEARCHER: NANCY A. KLING**

I understand that:

*The purpose of this study is to explore the effects of parent involvement in the young child's education.

*This study is to determine if home visits including my child and an early childhood student teacher will help my child do better in school.

*The student teacher will visit my home once a month during September, October, November, December, January, February, March and April.

*The student teacher will spend approximately 20 minutes sharing a learning activity (e.g. story, game) with my child. The activity will support what my child is learning in his/her Head Start class.

*I will have input on when the visits will occur each month.

*I will complete 3 questionnaires at the beginning and ending of the school year.

*Everything in the home visits and the questionnaires will remain confidential; however as indicated by the Head Start form I previously signed, any incidences of child abuse or neglect must be reported as indicated by Oklahoma law.

*My child will be interviewed at school to see how s/he sees him/herself at school.

*I may ask my child's teacher or call the researcher, Nancy Kling at the University of Oklahoma, 325-1498 if I have any questions during the study.

*Being in this study has no effect on my child's attending Head Start

*I can stop being in the study at any time by calling Nancy Kling or telling my child's teacher.

Please check one:

_____ Yes, my child and I will participate in the home visits and complete questionnaires.

_____ No, my child and I will not participate in the home visits or complete the questionnaires.

Primary Caregiver or Parent Signature

Date

Researcher Signature

Date

Please return this permission form to your child's classroom in the envelope provided

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM
AUGUST, 1994**

Dear Parents.

I am currently working on my dissertation research concerning parental involvement in young children's education. My study focuses on home visits. If you are willing to participate in this study, a student majoring in early childhood education will come to your home for approximately 20 minutes once a month from September to April. During the visit the student teacher will share a learning activity (e.g. learning game, book) with your child. This activity will be an extension of what the child is learning at school. The scheduling of the home visits will be decided by you and the student teacher.

If you choose to participate in the home visits you will be asked to complete 3 questionnaires at the beginning and end of the school year. These questionnaires ask about your beliefs concerning your child and his/her education. They will only take about 20 minutes to complete. At the beginning and ending of the school year your child will complete The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children: Preschool and Kindergarten in his/her Head Start classroom. The purpose of this measure is to discover how your child sees him/herself at school.

All information received through the questionnaires and home visits will be confidential. No one will have access to the information except myself as the primary investigator and my major professor, Loraine Dunn, Ph.D. No individual Head Start program will be identified in any research report. There are not potential risks for you or your child.

Again your participation is voluntary. If you have any questions please feel free to call me at the university. I want this to be a positive experience for both you and your child. Please sign the attached form indicating whether or not you are willing to participate in the study.

Sincerely,

Nancy A. Kling
Doctoral Candidate
Early Childhood Education
(405) 325-1498

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ACADEMIC CURRICULUM
AUGUST, 1994**

Dear Head Start Parents,

I am currently working on my dissertation research concerning parental involvement in young children's education. Because Head Start programs provide many opportunities for parents to take part in their young child's education, I would appreciate your participation in this study.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete 3 questionnaires in September at the beginning of the school year and again completing the same 3 questionnaires at the end of the school year in April. These questionnaires ask about your beliefs concerning your child and his/her education. They will only take 20-30 minutes to complete. At the beginning and ending of the school year your child will complete The Pictorial Scale of Perceived Competence and Social Acceptance for Young Children: Preschool and Kindergarten in his/her Head Start classroom. The purpose of this measure is to discover how your child sees him/herself at school.

All information received through the questionnaires will be confidential. No one will have access to the information except myself as the primary investigator and my major professor, Loraine Dunn, Ph.D. No individual Head Start program will be identified in any research report. There are no potential risks for you or your child.

Again, your participation is voluntary. If you have any questions please feel free to call me at the university. I want this to be a positive experience for both you and your child. Please sign the attached form indicating whether or not you are willing to participate in the study.

Sincerely,

Nancy A. Kling
Early Childhood Education
(405) 325-1498

**UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
INFORMED CONSENT
RESEARCHER: NANCY A. KLING
HEAD START PARENTS OF FOUR-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN**

I understand that:

*The purpose of this study is to explore the effects of parent involvement in the young child's education.

*I will complete 3 questionnaires in September or October and again at the end of school in April or May.

*My child will be interviewed at school to see how sh/he sees him/herself.

*The questionnaires and interview will be kept confidential.

*Participation in this study is voluntary.

*I may ask my child's teacher or call the researcher, Nancy Kling at the University of Oklahoma, 325-1498 if I have any questions about the study.

*Being in this study has no effect on my child's attending Head Start.

*I can stop being in the study at any time by calling Nancy Kling or telling my child's teacher.

Please check one:

_____ Yes, my child will participate in the interview and I will complete the questionnaires.

_____ No, my child will not participate in the interview and I will not complete the questionnaires.

Primary Caregiver or Parent Signature

Date

Researcher Signature

Date

Please return this permission form to your child's classroom in the envelope provided

APPENDIX I

Examples of Activities Selected By Experimental Group Teachers

| Child | Sept. | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Jan. | Feb | Mar. | Apr |
|-------|------------|--------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|----------------|
| A | Play dough | Scissor | Salt box | Beads | Water colors | Sequence cards | Concentration | Soccer ball |
| B | Play dough | Beads | Scissors | Salt box | Puzzle | Sequence cards | Concentration | Jump rope |
| C | Play dough | Uno cards | Water colors | Puzzle | Beads | Sequence cards | Concentration | Sidewalk chalk |
| D | Play dough | Scissor | Water colors | Salt box | Beads | Sequence cards | Concentration | Sidewalk chalk |
| E | Play dough | Uno cards | Water colors | Stencil | Puzzle | Sequence cards | Blank book | Soccer ball |
| F | Play dough | Parquetry | Beads | Salt box | Sequence cards | Concentration | Blank book | Sticker book |
| G | Play dough | Salt box | Scissor | Stencil colpen | Beads | Concentration | Blank book | Soccer ball |
| H | Play dough | Water colors | Beads | Stencil colpen | Sequence cards | Concentration | Blank book | Soccer ball |
| I | Play dough | Beads | Scissor | Stencil colpen | Water colors | Concentration | Sequence cards | Sidewalk chalk |
| J | Play dough | Salt box | Water colors | Beads | Scissor | Book (repetition) | Sequence cards | Jump rope |
| K | Play dough | Uno cards | Water colors | Beads | Scissor | Book (repetition) | Sequence cards | Jump rope |
| L | Play dough | Parquetry | Scissor | Beads | Water colors | Blank book | Sequence cards | Sidewalk chalk |
| M | Play dough | Water colors | Salt box | Puzzle | Beads | Blank book | Sequence cards | Sidewalk chalk |
| N | Play dough | Scissor | Salt box | Puzzle | Sequence cards | Concentration | Blank book | Soccer ball |
| O | Play dough | Scissor | Salt box | Puzzle | Sequence cards | Blank book | Concentration | Jump rope |

APPENDIX J

CONFIDENTIALITY STATEMENT
EARLY CHILDHOOD STUDENT HOME VISITORS
HOME VISITING RESEARCH
EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION
NANCY KLING PRIMARY INVESTIGATOR

I UNDERSTAND THAT ENTERING PARENTS' HOMES IS A PRIVILEGE I WILL RESPECT THE FAMILIES' PRIVACY AND KEEP CONFIDENTIAL ANY INFORMATION I MIGHT HEAR WHILE I AM VISITING WITH THEIR CHILD.

I ATTENDED A HOME VISITORS' TRAINING SESSION. DURING THIS MEETING THE PRIMARY INVESTIGATOR, NANCY A. KLING AND HER MAJOR PROFESSOR, LORAIN DUNN, PH.D. DISCUSSED THE PURPOSE OF THE HOME VISITS AS WELL AS HOME VISITING PROTOCOL. DURING THE MEETING WE DISCUSSED WHAT CONSTITUTES CHILD ABUSE AND THE PROPER PROCEDURES CONCERNING REPORTING IT. WE ALSO DISCUSSED HOW TO RECOGNIZE SITUATIONS THAT MAY BE UNSAFE TO US AS HOME VISITORS. DURING THE VISITS, MY OBSERVATIONS OF EACH FAMILY WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL. THE ONLY TIME I SHOULD DIVULGE ANY INFORMATION CONCERNING THE FAMILY AND CHILD WOULD BE IF I PERCEIVED A CHILD TO BE IN DANGER. THIS SHOULD BE REPORTED TO NO ONE OTHER THAN NANCY KLING OR LORAIN DUNN. THEY WILL CONTACT THE HEAD START AGENCY.

I UNDERSTAND THAT WE ARE TO ARRANGE A TIME FOR THE VISIT WHICH IS CONVENIENT FOR THE PARENT AND CHILD AS WELL AS OURSELVES. WE ARE ALWAYS TO GO IN PAIRS. AS WAS DISCUSSED IN OUR MEETING, IF THE SITUATION APPEARS UNSAFE, WE ARE TO LEAVE THE SETTING IMMEDIATELY.

Date

Student Signature

APPENDIX K

SAFETY ISSUES

1. Always go in pairs.
2. Call the parent to verify the time.
3. When should you not enter the home?
 - a. Parent is not there.
 - b. Party going on.
 - c. Unusual behavior (alcohol or drugs).
 - d. House in complete disarray.
 - e. Drug use or drug dealing
 - f. Evidence of alcohol consumption (empty bottles or can smell on breathe)
 - g. Contagious disease (chicken pox, mumps, the flu)
4. **USE YOUR COMMON SENSE AND GOOD JUDGEMENT. IF YOU FEEL UNSAFE, YOU PROBABLY ARE!** If you feel uneasy in a situation, talk to me and we will talk to the Head Start teacher.
5. **LET ME KNOW YOUR HOME VISITING SCHEDULE.** This schedule should include the name of the child, the date and time of the visit, and the expected time of return.
6. Drive around the neighborhood and locate the homes before the day of the visits. Where are you going to park your car? Are your families close to one another? How safe does the neighborhood appear to be? Find the safest route to take. Choose well-lighted streets even if it takes a bit longer to get there. Reschedule the visit if there is illness in the home.
7. Try to do your visits during daylight hours.
8. Keep the visits to no more than 20 minutes.
9. Be sure you have gas in your car.
10. Do not leave personal possessions in the car.
11. Dress appropriately. This is not the time for a tank top, a baseball cap, expensive jewelry and a mini skirt.

HOW TO IDENTIFY DRUG OR CHILD ABUSE

1. Drug abuse: Paraphernalia, erratic movements, smell
2. Child abuse: Do the parents have unrealistically high goals for the child. May expect child to be able to read and write at age.
3. Do the parents demonstrate any abusive behaviors during the visit? Such as shouting, grabbing or hitting the child.
4. Are there marks on the child such as bruises. Does the child flinch when approached by an adult?

APPENDIX L

This is to verify that I have been counseled about the dangers of drugs and how to identify the signs of intoxication.

Student Signature

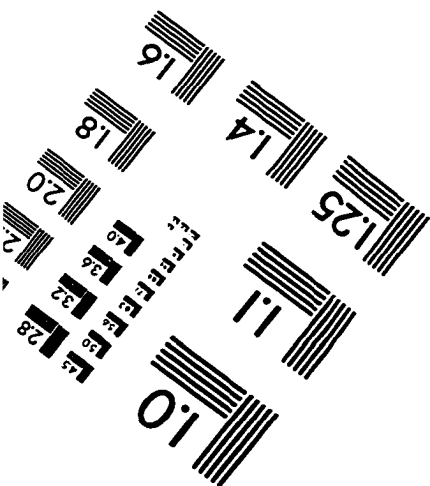
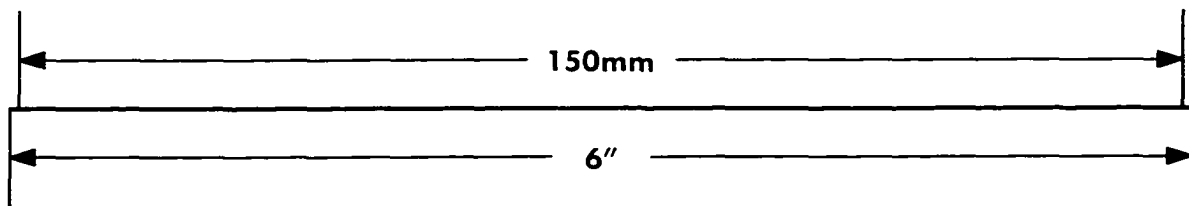
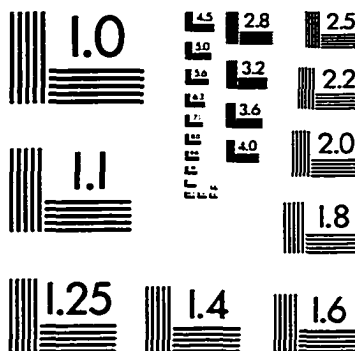
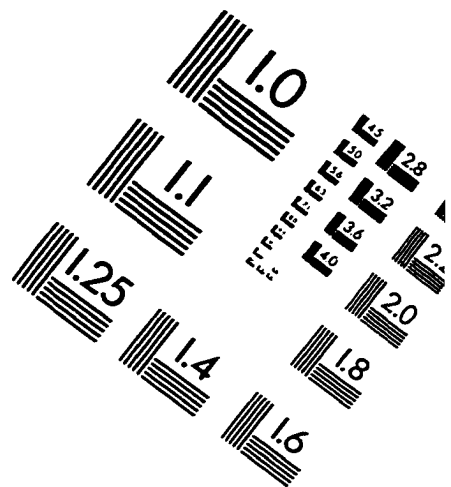
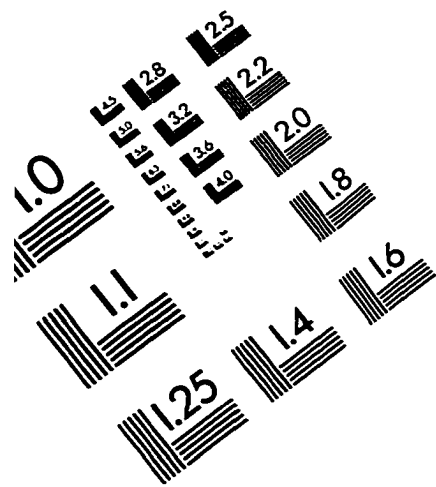
Date

APPENDIX M

Comparison Group Activities

| | |
|-----------|---|
| September | Playdough |
| October | Crayons and Paper (Some sheets of paper were cut in various shapes) |
| November | Scissors and various types of paper (i.e., textured) |
| December | Plastic animals for sorting or pretend play |
| January | Food Land (an adaptation of Candy Land) |
| February | Concentration Game (Various colored cardboard shapes) |
| March | Black line <u>Hungry Caterpillar</u> book (Eric Carlson) The student visitor read the story to the child. The child could add their own illustrations to the book. The book with words, but no illustrations, and crayons were left with the child. |
| April | Collage Materials: Colored paper, glue, foam shapes and stickers |

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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