DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 314 170 PS 018 479

AUTHOR	Sword, Jeane, Ed.
TITLE	Quality Programs for Children and Families: Multiple Perspectives. Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Early Childhood Education (6th, Duluth, Minnesota, October 3-4, 1986).
INSTITUTION	Minnesota Univ., Duluth. Dept. of Child and Family Development.
PUB DATE	Oct 86
NOTE	58p.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Attachment Behavior; Computer Assisted Instruction; *Creativity; *Early Childhood Education; *Educational Quality; *Employed Parents; Fathers; *Interactive Video; *Marketing; Music Education; Parent Role; Self Esteem; Singing; Teacher Education

ABSTRACT

Presented are the keynote address and sectional presentations made at a conference on early childhood education. Speakers offered various perspectives on high quality programs for children and families. The keynote address, given by Bettye Caldwell, concerned marketing quality programs for children, exploring internal and external deterrents, communicating with targeted market segments, formulating messages, and completing a plan of action. Sectional presentations concerned the role of the interactive videodisc in early childhood teacher education, the process of enhancing creativity in early childhood, the reciprocal link in work family systems, the process of informing parents about early writing, the challenge of working with fathers, practical principles and skills related to building self-esteem in children, development of preschool music programs, and parental singing during pregnancy and infancy as a way of developing positive bonding and the human intelligences. An index of presenters and their addresses is included. (RH)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED314170

U.S DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

ECE

QUALITY PROGRAMS FOR CHILDREN AND FAMILIES: MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES

1986
October 3-4
Duluth, Minnesota

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Individual
Authors
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Published by the Advisory Council of the
Early Child Care and Development Programs
and Continuing Education and Extension
University of Minnesota, Duluth 55812

PS 018479

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

QUALITY PROGRAMS FOR CHILDREN AND FAMILIES: MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES

October 3-4, 1986
Duluth, Minnesota

EDITED BY: JEANE SWORD, Ed.D.
DEPARTMENT OF CHILD AND FAMILY DEVELOPMENT

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, DULUTH
DULUTH, MINNESOTA 55812

First published in 1981 by the Advisory Council of the Early Child Care and Development Programs and Continuing Education and Extension, University of Minnesota, Duluth, Duluth, Minnesota 55812

Cover design by Alyce Johnsen

The opinions expressed in these papers are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the publishers.

Copyright © by the authors

Preface and Acknowledgements

The University of Minnesota, Duluth, offers an interdisciplinary Early Child Care and Development Curriculum in undergraduate and graduate studies Both are designed to prepare early childhood personnel for a variety of positions. The programs are offered through the Department of Child and Family Development, but administered by an interdisciplinary Advisory Council from the departments of Allied Clinical Health, Psychology and Mental Health, and Child and Family Development.

The Advisory Council in cooperation with the Department of Continuing Education and Extension of the University of Minnesota, Duluth, sponsors an annual conference in Early Childhood Education (0-8 years) and related areas of study. Each conference tries to highlight a particular early childhood educational concern. The fall conference focus was *Quality Programs for Children and Families: Multiple Perspectives.* To give the keynote address we invited Dr. Bettye Caldwell, an internationally known educator who has spearheaded a national project on quality education and has written prolifically on that subject. Dr. Caldwell's insightful and challenging messages were enthusiastically received.

The monograph includes the Friday night keynote address presented by Dr. Caldwell at the Sixth Annual Conference on Early Childhood Education on October 3, 1986, at the University of Minnesota, Duluth. This address reprinted by permission from "Effective Marketing of Quality Child Care" is from *Marketing Child Care Programs: Why and How* (pp 25-39) by M. Frank and B. Caldwell, 1985, New York, New York: Haworth Press, Inc. Copyright 1985 by Haworth Press, Inc. Note, however, that representative sectional presentations by other speakers are also included in this monograph.

To the Advisory Council of the Early Child Care and Development Programs for serving on conference committees; to all program speakers and participants; to staff members of Continuing Education and Extension; to the Printing and Graphic Arts Department of the University of Minnesota, Duluth; and to everyone who contributed to the success of this Sixth Annual Conference on Early Childhood Education, gratitude is hereby expressed.

Jeane Sword
Duluth, Minnesota

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface and Acknowledgements iii

Introduction of Keynote Speaker 5

I. Keynote Address
   Marketing Quality Programs for Children 6
      Bettye Caldwell

II. Sectional Presentations

   The Role of Interactive Videodisc in Early Childhood Teacher Education 14
      Helen L. Carlson

   Enhancing Creativity in Early Childhood 18
      Ajit Das, Kathleen Nelson, and Catherine Gallagher-Green

   Work Family Systems: The Reciprocal Link 23
      Susan Graves-Johnson

   Early Writing: Spreading the News to Parents 27
      Lee Karnowski

   The Challenge of Working Fathers 31
      Glen F. Palm

   Building Self-Esteem in Children: Practical Principles and Skills 38
      George Redman

   Developing Pre-School Music Programs 44
      Marcelyn Smale

   Parental Singing During Pregnancy and Infancy Can Help Develop Positive Bonding and Human Intelligences 49
      Leon Thurman

III. Author Index with Mailing Addresses 55

INTRODUCTION OF THE KEYNOTE SPEAKER: Dr. Bettye Caldwell

by Jeane Sword, Chairperson

Sixth Annual Conference on Early Childhood Education

Dr. Bettye Caldwell needs no introduction to people in the field of Early Childhood Education for she is internationally known through her research, writing, and lecturing.

Dr. Caldwell received her AB degree from Baylor University, the MA from the University of Iowa, and the PhD from Washington University in St. Louis, Missouri. She was a Phi Beta Kappa scholar. At present Dr. Caldwell is a Donaghey Distinguished Professor of Education at the University of Arkansas at Little Rock.

Dr. Caldwell has conducted research in schools of medicine and education. Her major research efforts have been directed toward areas of child development, family dynamics, ecology of human development, language development, creativity, rights of children and parents, and effects of home and center environments. She has published over 100 articles in national and international journals and she has written chapters in many well-known books, including the prestigious *Handbook of Research in Early Childhood Education*. Her book, *Group Care for Young Children*, was published just prior to this conference.

Dr. Caldwell has been a lecturer and presenter at a number of universities and conferences in both the United States and abroad. She has been repeatedly invited to return to many countires including Belgium, England, Germany, India, New Zealand, People's Republic of China, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, United Soviet Socialist Republic, and Zimbabwe. She is a member of several national and international associations. We know her best for her many contributions to the National Association for the Education of Young Children fo Dr Caldwell served as our national president from 1982 to 1984.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Bettye Caldwell
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

MARKETING QUALITY PROGRAMS FOR CHILDREN

Bettye Caldwell
University of Arkansas at Little Rock

The marketing needs in the field of early childhood are much broader and more pervasive than those that relate primarily to a supportive professional organization. The area of the field covers a heterogeneous assortment of services which represent a full spectrum of quality. Obviously one of the objectives of an early childhood organization that purports to speak for the field is to encourage families to utilize high quality services and to eschew those that are of poor quality.

A first step in achieving this objective is to define what is meant by quality. We shall use the term to refer to *child care services that provide a developmentally appropriate environment for young children which supplements but does not substitute for the home environment, which facilitates optimal development in the children, and which provides parents with a sense of security that their children are safe, well cared for, and properly stimulated.* A second step is the development of a communication program which can help educate the consumers (parents and children) about what quality is and which can help generate in consumers a determination to choose for their children only those programs which represent high quality.

We shall identify some internal and external deterrents which have militated against choices compatible with professional standards of quality and then outline the necessary steps in a communication program designed to facilitate such choices.

INTERNAL DETERRENTS

By internal deterrents we mean conditions within the field itself which predispose the general public to negative attitudes toward child care services. At least four such deterrents can be identified, each of which will be discussed briefly.

Suspect Origins

Some human services have an aura of social acceptability that can protect them from any negative features possibly associated with them. Perhaps the best example is the field of medicine. This is certainly not true for the field of child care. Originally developed as a service for children from families with some type of social pathology—poor families, those in which the mother had some mental or physical problem, and though it seems anachronistic today, those in which the mother worked outside the home. The professional field that did the most to establish child care programs was social work, a field that in the past had its own problems with public image. Certainly "normal" families did not want to be associated with a service that they saw as appropriate only for pathological families. Nor for many years did the branch of education, early childhood, which was most relevant to child care embrace the field. As early childhood education became established in this country from the thirties onward, it tended to serve primarily children from intact middle class families. Child care, on the other hand, was seen as serving poor and disadvantaged children from broken and troubled families. Although this is by no means the case today, certain residuals from the earlier era remain and militate against full public endorsement of child care as an important human service.

Lack of Consistent Terminology

Child care is unfortunately known by many names, all of which connote something slightly different to consumers. Terms like "pre-school," "nursery school," "child development center," and "early learning center" probably project quite different public images for such terms as "child care" and "day care." Many people do not

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

know at all what is meant by "family day care," and others (perhaps a majority) are happy to lump all such terms under the most pejorative description, "baby-sitting." A comparable lack of consistency is found in the terminology used for workers in the field: teachers, assistants, aides, caretakers, caregivers, child development associates, day care workers and on and on. Most of these terms are fitted into personnel hierarchies, and all too often toward the bottom. The fact that we do not use consistent terminology to describe either the field or those who staff it, and the additional fact that many of the terms seem to imply less than a full professional array of services, work counter to the development of a positive public image for the field.

Equivocation About Quality

Although within any field there will generally be some diversity of opinion about what constitutes quality, there is probably less consensus among leaders in the field of child care than is found in other areas. Furthermore, professional debates are sometimes acrimonious and damaging to the external image of the field. This is not true with regard to such aspects of the child care environment as the physicl plant and the ratio of adults to children. In general it would be accepted that programs which can ensure the health and safety of the children, which have larger and more attractive buildings and toys, and which have more adults available to care for and interact with the children would be seen as providing higher quality. But when we move beyond these bottom line indicators of quality, we are less likely to achieve consensus. In particular there will be debates about the extent to which adults should structure the learning environment or follow the leads of the children, about type of discipline to be used, and about teaching/learning activities appropriate for children of different ages. Such areas of dispute register with consumers as indications that these important elements perhaps do not really make a great deal of difference.

Conflict About Profit

Leaders in the field of child care have always had a great deal of conflict over whether anyone should make a profit from the service. This had led to minimal costing of the service—and services which cost little tend to be minimally valued. The rather chaotic and unplanned growth of the child care field in general stemmed from local responses to need. This meant that small centers (often referred to as Mom and Pop centers) would spring up in neighborhoods where they would care for a few children residing in that area. The dedicated people who ran the programs were often poorly trained people who "loved children," who operated the programs from their homes without adequately depreciating the facility and without completely segmenting costs for the service from other family costs. The result was a minimal fee scale, which again tends to cause consumers to devalue the service received. In the sixties, large companies began to be interested in child care as a profit-making service and suggested that individual units could be franchised, with costs reduced by centralizing purchasing equivalent to "Kentucky Fried Children", it meant that "people would be making money off of little children." But, of course, dairies, physicians, and baby product companies make money from little children, and should, if they provide a service of value to their families. But the child care field has had difficulty accepting this premise, and many dedicated people in the field seem almost to boast about the fact that they do not make money. This has denied the field the aura of entrepreneurship which is highly valued in our society.

EXTERNAL DETERRENTS

In addition to these internal deterrents to positive attitudes toward child care, there are a number of deterrents which stem from outside the field itself but which nonetheless militate against a demand for quality and conduce a willingness to settle for whatever is available. Three such deterrents will be discussed here.

Parental Guilt

There apparently exists strong societal sanction of the premise that a mother of young children should remain at home and care for those children until they reach "school age." Some family historians maintain that this is actually a myth of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, in that few societies have been able to afford the luxury of not having mothers also contribute to the work of the community. As documented in Aries (1962), many if not most, wealthy mothers completely turned their children over first to wetnurses and then to nannies or babushkas for the first six or seven years of their lives, and some poor families, especially those with many children, almost completely turned over the care of infants to slightly older siblings before the children were apprenticed or put to work on farms or in mines or mills.

In spite of the general awareness of this, and in spite of an ever-increasing body of data-(Rutger, 1981) demonstrating that the daily separation-reunion cycles which characterize child care need not damage children emotionally or cognitively and may indeed be associated with developmental gains for children from disadvantaged circumstances, many parents who use child care services tend to feel guilty about doing so. With the increasing androgyny of young modern families (Osofsky & Osofsky, 1972), and with the sharp rise in the number of one-parent families in which the caring parent must either work outside the home or accept welfare subsidies, it is possible that some of this guilt may diminish and may indeed become converted to pride. However, at present, it appears to be a deterrent to the favorable image of *any* child care of whatever level of quality.

Lack of Conviction of the Importance of Early Childhood

In spite of the abundance of aphoristic support ("As the twig is bent, so grows the tree") for the importance of early childhood, and in spite of the impressive accumulation of data supporting the critical nature of the environment during the early years (Hunt, 1961; Bloom, 1964), many parents do not act as though events of the early years are really all that meaningful in the lives of their children. They might even be willing to rationalize the purchase of poor-quality child care on grounds that they need to save money for that child's college education. The major developmental events of the early years of life may seem less significant than those of later periods, but they indeed form the foundation for all subsequent development. No developmental tasks are more momentous than learning to talk, to trust people, to find joy in learning and problem-solving, and to make and keep friends among one's peers. Although the home environment is undoubtedly the most influential setting for such learning, what occurs there will be either reinforced or countered by the environment of the child care setting. Thus it is essential that personnel in such programs be capable of supporting the child in these critical developmental areas. But unless and until parents realize the importance of the early years, such mutual support from auxiliary environments will not appear crucial to them.

Perception of Child Care as a "Women's Issue"

The image of child care as an important human service would be greatly enhanced by the perception of the field as a societal issue, not merely as a women's issue. Until women entered the work force in large numbers, there was little public attention to the need for quality child care. It was, in fact, when women were encouraged to work during World War II that the field first emerged from the shadow with social pathology. But even now, as the number of working mothers with children under six is greater than the number of mothers with young children who do not work outside the home (Woman at Work, 1983) child care is seen as a service for women, not as a service to families in general. In addition, the employment field is largely a women's field, with probably 98% of its workers and many of its conceptual leaders being women. "We don't need public funds for child care; let the women stay home and take care of their own kids." Such a cynical, one-sided perception of the service as "for women only" has not helped the field gain general acceptance as a major human service.

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

COMMUNICATING WITH TARGETED MARKET SEGMENTS

Removal of these deterrents to endorsement and use of quality child care clearly calls for a major communications program, one of the major components of a plan-of-action for marketing strategy. The type of communication program that is adopted is heavily prescribed by marketing procedures and will be constrained by earlier steps in the planning process. An effective and efficient communication program can help minimize both the internal and external deterrents to public utilization of quality child care programs. The ultimate objective of communication is to "suggest a way to meet those needs which is appropriate to the group situation in which the individual finds himself at the time when he is moved to make the desired response." Thus, in our example, the objective of any communication program we establish is to encourage parents to take the action of choosing a child care program of high quality rather than settle for one of poor quality. To achieve this means that we are going to have to prepare a communication that attracts the attention of the target group, that can be readily understood, and that will arouse a need that our high quality service can meet better than the alternative low-quality service.

But even before we prepare a communication program, we have to pay attention to how our target groups distribute themselves in terms of attitudes toward child care as well as their behavior with respect to the utilization of high quality services—i.e., we have to examine both their *attitudes* and their *overt behavior* touching the domain in which our communication will be targeted. Sheth and Frazier (1982) have developed a strategy mix model for planned social change which is based on attitude and behavior consistency/discrepancy and how this relationship can be impacted by change agents. Their model consists of those four cells, as shown in Table 1. Cell 1 consists of those individuals who hold positive attitudes and whose relevant behavior is in the desired direction. For such individuals, no change in either attitude or behavior is sought; rather one wishes merely to reinforce and maintain both the favorable attitudes and the desired behavior. Either economic or intrinsic rewards, or both, can be used to sustain the desired behavior.

Cell 2 contains individuals whose attitudes and behavior are discrepant—although they engage in the behavior, their attitudes toward it are essentially negative. Sheth and Frazier suggest that, in order to persuade them to engage in the desired behavior, a rationalization process which can move them into Cell 1 should be helpful. Attitude change consistent with the

Table 1

A typology of Strategy Mix for Planned Social Change

		Attitude	
		Positive	Negative
Relevant Behavior	Engaged	Cell 1 Reinforcement Process 1 Behavioral Reinforcement 2. Psychological Reinforcement	Cell 2 Rationalization Process Attitude Change
	Non-engaged	Cell 4 Inducement Process Behavioral Change	Cell 3 Confrontation Process 1 Behavioral Confrontation 2. Psychological Confrontation

From Sheth and Frazier, 1982

behavior is the objective here. Cell 4 also contains an attitude/behavior discrepancy, only here, although the attitude is positive, the desired behavior is not present. In such cases the goal is that of "minimizing or removing organizational, socioeconomic, time, and place constraints that intervene between the positive attitude and the consequent behavior . . ." (Schramm, 1956). Change here (movement of the person into Cell 1 calls for inducement, which minimizes the constraints to adoption of the desired behavior.

Cell 3 contains the people whose attitudes and behavior are negatively concordant—that is, they have negative attitudes and also do not engage in the desired behavior. In such situations, the goal is to move the individuals into either Cell 2 or Cell 4 rather than directly to Cell 1. In order to accomplish this, a confrontation process may be necessary. By this Sheth and Frazier mean either *behavioral confrontation,* in which the change agent seeks to block the undesirable behavior and increase motivation to engage in the desired behavior, or *psychological confrontation,* in which the negative attitudes are somehow attacked. Hopefully, after individuals in Cell 3 have been moved to either Cell 2 or Cell 4, they can eventually be moved to Cell 1.

The degree of difficulty associated with attitude change varies substantially across cells. In general, the stronger the particular belief, the harder it will be to change. Also, the length of time the individual has held the belief and the degree to which it is tied to other attitudes and perceptions of the behavioral environment are important, as is the extent to which the attitude is shared by others.

In Table 2 we have created a replica of the Sheth and Frazier model which is specific to the marketing problem dealt with this evening, encouraging the use of high quality rather than low quality child care programs. For purposes of illustration, we have assumed that both our attitude and our behavior are dichotomous, whereas in reality they both undoubtedly lie along a continuum containing many steps. Again in Cell 1, both are positive; any communication developed for persons in that cell should merely reinforce what they are already doing. Communications should make parents who have opted for higher quality programs feel good about the choice they have made for their child's welfare. The parents in Cell 2 are already utilizing services which we have designated as high quality, but they do not espouse positive attitudes toward such services or may still be apologetic about using child care at all. Or it might be that they are using a quality program only temporarily because they could not find a place for their child in a program of lower quality which might have been

Table 2
Type of Communication Needed as a Function of
Attitude and Behavior

		ATTITUDE	
		Positive	Negative
BEHAVIOR	Choice of High Quality Care	Cell 1 Process. ***Reinforcement*** 1 Lower fees for parents who enroll children by the month or semester 2. Recognize (bulletin board. public meetings) parents who endorse the program and provide continuing support	Cell 2 Process· ***Change Attitudes*** Allow staff time for discussion of feelings about the purchased service in order to facilitate development of positive attitudes.
	Choice of Poor Quality Care	Cell 4 Process. ***Inducement*** (Change Behavior) Provide inducements in the form of reduced fees for a trial period. arrange for company subsidy of part of cost.	Cell 3 Process: ***Confrontation*** (Change either behavior or attitude) 1 Confront the behavior with the information about harmful effects of care of poor quality 2 Confront existing negative attitudes with evidence of help to families provided through quality care.

located more conveniently for them and which might have fit their price specifications somewhat better. The goal here is to change their attitudes while their behavior is still in the desired direction—i.e., they need to become more aware of the benefits associated with a high quality program in hopes that they will continue to choose such services.

Cell 4 contains those families who choose child care of poor quality even though they have positive attitudes toward programs of high quality. They need some sort of inducement (behavioral or psychological) to encourage them to choose programs of higher quality. Perhaps an employee benefit package can be made available, or some sort of cost-sharing plan can be developed in the work site which makes movement to Cell 1 possible.

For individuals in Cell 3 –the double negative cell—two directions of change are possible, each of which would be aimed at eventually moving the individual all the way into Cell 1. The communication could be aimed at changing the behavior without altering the underlying attitude. A possible approach would be to provide information leading to cognitive change (e.g., gaining information about negative effects on children of low quality programs) and movement into Cell 2. Another alternative would be to develop a communication oriented toward attitude change, possibly through confronting existing negative ones with incompatible information. This would help the individual move into Cell 4, from which movement into Cell 1 would then proceed as with the original cases in that quadrant.

This model offers the reminder that a communication program cannot be uni-dimensional, as it will have to reach individuals who fall in different positions in the attitude/behavior coordinates. Individuals in the different cells represent attitude segmentation, which reminds us that the market is not homogeneous. Also the model should help those who would introduce marketing concepts into early childhood realize that an over-simplified approach which does not take both attitudes and behavior into consideration and which does not deal with the full range of target markets is not likely to be successful. The model also offers a framework for research on the effectiveness of different communication approaches for child care. It would suggest that some sort of pre-assessment of our target markets would be useful to determine where different individuals fit in this schema of attitude/behavior before any messages are formulated. Trying to move individuals from Cell 2 to Cell 1 for a different process and therefore a different message from one that would be useful to help move individuals from Cell 3 to either 2 or 4. The model provides a useful framework for empirical research into the effectiveness of different communication strategies.

MESSAGE FORMULATION

Obviously before any communication to the target group is sent, the content of the message has to receive careful attention. The environment in which communication takes place is becoming increasingly complex. In the business arena, estimates of the number of commercial messages to which the average U.S. consumer is exposed daily range from 300 to 1600. Such "clutter" obviously impacts the consumer's ability to notice and remember advertising messages. Of the 1600 messages to which a consumer is exposed, only some 80 leave any trace; of these, it is estimated that only 15 percent have some positive or negative effect on the perceptions of consumers (Bauer & Greyser, 1968). Consumers cope with such a torrent of information in a variety of ways, including deliberately not exposing themselves consciously to many if not most messages. Unfortunately, we know that consumers tend to expose themselves to messages that are compatible with existing attitudes and to avoid those that are not compatible. In relation to the attitude/behavior discrepancy model just discussed, this means that they are likely to "protect themselves" from messages which oppose their existing attitudes. The greater the difference between the attitude held and that being advocated, the more likely the distortion. Also, individuals tend to forget more quickly those messages which are at variance with their attitudes.

In discussing social marketing, Kotler (1975) suggests that there are at least four types of change that a communications campaign might address: *cognitive, action, behavior,* and *values.*

A cognitive change is concerned with simply giving information to consumers which might be useful in influencing both attitude and behavior. Action change and behavior are obviously closely related. The former refers to a particular action that should be taken within a specified time period and the latter to a change in an on-going behavior pattern. Value change involves modifying deeply held beliefs that serve as guides to action. In Table 3 we have formulated a brief array of communication messages pertaining to increasing both the availability and utilization of quality child care which fit these different types of change. In each case we have written the proposed pattern of change as a behavioral objective. Developers of the communication program could then use each of these in formulating the message to be directed to the different market segments.

COMPLETING THE PLAN OF ACTION

There are many other features to be considered in a complete plan of action for a communications campaign pertaining to high quality child care. For example, all the aspects of the product/service need to be considered: assured availability of a service of high quality (product), differential costs of high and low quality service (price) and the ability of different market segments to purchase services of high quality, accessibility of high quality programs (place), as well as the public communication (promotion) about the services. But within the area of communication alone, there are many other aspects of the process which need to be considered. For example, although we have discussed attitude change extensively, we have commented minimally on how this can be achieved.

There are at least two major approaches to attitude/behavior change, each of which assumes that responses occur in an ordered sequence and represent a hierarchy of response predispositions. One approach is the *learning hierarchy* model which suggests that consumers, faced with an invitation to give a response that runs counter to their mores or inclinations, must go through such steps as awareness, understanding, conviction, and action. This is some-

Table 3
Examples of Messages Appropriate for Different Types of Change Sought in Communication Programs (Stated as Marketing Objectives)

Cognitive Change

Consumers (parents) will increase their awareness that the early years of life are important for subsequent development.

Consumers will become aware that high quality programs do not harm children either cognitively or emotionally and that programs of poor quality may do considerable harm.

Consumers will understand that it is possible to design a group care program for young children in which their developmental needs can be met.

Consumers will understand that children in child care do not have their attachments to their own parents weakened.

Consumers will understand that child care is labor-intensive and that high quality care cannot be provided cheaply.

Action Change

When bills calling for removal of licensing regulations are considered, parents will work against such legislation.

Parents will write letters to the editors of major newspapers indicating how they have been helped by high quality child care.

Parents will serve as informal communication networks to let other parents know about the availability and importance of quality care

Parents will work within their places of employment to generate support for child care as an employee benefit.

Behavioral Change

Parents will remove their children from unlicensed facilities.

Parents will serve on boards of child care centers and work actively to generate financial and attitudinal support for quality programs.

Value Change

Parents will recognize that they need not feel guilt if they enroll their children in high quality programs.

Parents will recognize that child care is a vital human service that must be available in any community.

Parents will work for high quality programs for *all* children, not just their own children.

times referred to as the learn-feel-do model, in that it assumes that learning must occur before attitude and behavior change can take place. In relation to the pattern of change described in Table 2, it would suggest that the route out of Cell 3 is via Cell 2.

The other major approach involves a dissonance-attribution model. This approach assumes that behavior occurs first, followed by attitude change and learning. Thus the action decision is rationalized by seeking out that information which supports the decision. If, for example, prospective consumers of quality child care services who are either relatively neutral about the type of child care program they choose for their children (i.e., not militantly hostile to the field) can be induced to endorse high quality publicly via enrolling their child in a quality center, then they will be more likely to develop positive attitudes toward the program which, in turn, will increase the probability of their continued selection of high quality. For a fuller discussion of these models, and marketing data in support of each, see Boyd and Massy (1972.)

Still other aspects of a communication program to which attention must be given are the messages themselves and the credibility of the groups conducting the communication campaign. Source credibility is particularly important for non-profit organizations in that consumers become suspicious of groups that seem to be seeking self-aggrandizement or better profits or higher salaries for their own representatives. It is as though consumers accept this from for-profit marketing programs but are suspicious of it from non-profit groups.

The communication campaign also has to work through different media, and it is quite likely that attempts to reach part of the target market might need one media outlet while different segments might need others. And finally, whatever pattern of messages is prepared for the different types of change outlined here, all the messages (via whichever branches of the media are chosen) need to be pretested and evaluated via formal research efforts. All of this involves considerable expense, and, throughout the campaign, costs of each step in the plan-of-action need to be balanced against anticipated benefits.

In view of the current level of interest in devising better marketing strategies for quality child care, it is our hope that careful thought will be given to the development of a comprehensive plan-of-action so that efforts will not be fractionated, conflicting, and generally ineffective. There can be no question about the benefits to children of high quality child care as opposed to services of poor quality (Caldwell & Freyer, 1982), and the concepts and techniques of marketing are available to help in the design and conduct of campaigns to influence consumer choice in the direction of high quality. What remains to be done is the systematic application of the concepts and practices to the task at hand.

REFERENCES

Aries, P. (1962). *Centuries of Childhood: A social History of Family Life.* New York: Knopf.

Bauer, R.A. and Greyser, S.A. (1968). *Advertising in America: The Consumer View.* Boston. Division of Research, Graduate School of Business, Harvard University.

Bloom, B S (1964). *Stability and Change in Human Characteristics.* New York. Wiley.

Boyd, H W., Jr., and Massy, W F. (1972). *Marketing Management.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Caldwell, Bettye M. and Freyer, Marjorie. (1982). Day Care and Early Education. In B. Spodek (Ed.), *Handbook of Research in Early Childhood Education.* New York. Free Press, Pp. 341-374.

Hunt, J McV. (1961). *Intelligence and Experience.* New York: Ronald Press.

Kotler, P (1975) *Marketing for Nonprofit Organizations.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Osofsky, J. and Osofsky, H. (1972). Androgyny as a Life Style. *The Family Coordinator, **21**,* 411-418.

Rutter, M. (1981). Social-emotional consequences of day care for preschool children. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, **31**,* 4-23.

Schramm, W. (1956). How Communication Works. In W. Schramm (Ed.), *Process and Effects of Mass Communications* Urbana, Ill. University of Illinois Press, p. 13.

Sheth, J N and Frazier, G.L. (1982). A Model of Strategy Mix Choice for Planned Social Change. *Journal of Marketing, **46**,* 15-26.

Woman at Work: A Chart book. (1983). U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Helen L. Carlson
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)"

THE ROLE OF INTERACTIVE VIDEODISC IN EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHER EDUCATION

Helen L. Carlson
University of Minnesota, Duluth

Early childhood teacher education is constantly seeking to improve the quality of its coursework. At the University of Minnesota, Duluth, new technology is being developed for just such improvement.

Interactive videodisc combines the capability of videotape and computer to offer a powerful new educational medium. There is the potential of storing 54,000 still frames on a single video disc. In addition, there are the possibilities of such features as user control, rapid recall of information, and different learner tracks to meet the needs of students with varying abilities and learning styles. Other features include audio instruction, stereo sound reproduction, and bilingual instruction.

Let us turn now to the uses of interactive videodisc in teacher education.

Videodisc as Part of Coursework in Teacher Education

A series of courses is being developed by the four centers in the College of Education and Human Service Professions. These centers include the Center for Curriculum Foundation, the Center for the Advancement of Learning Technologies, the Center for Advanced Programs and Outreach, and the Center for Clinical Education and Research. The courses being facilitated include Human Diversity, Research in Education and Human Service Professions, Human Development, and the Role of Technology in Education and Human Service Professions.

The more specific content of the videodisc series is as follows: the first series of seven discs is entitled "Creating Healthy Human Systems", and includes discs on understanding individual development (two discs), understanding groups, understanding families, understanding organizations and communities, understanding culture and human diversity, understanding national and global societies. The second series of seven discs relates to "Research and Evaluation in Education and Human Service Professions." Topics which are a part of this disc include basic concepts in descriptive and inferential statistics (three discs), research design, test construction, program evaluation, and the analysis of research in education and human service professions. The third series of seven discs being developed focuses on the development of professional skills across all of the human service professions. Topics here include interpersonal skills such as perceiving and responding with empathy, warmth, and concreteness; data collection and analysis skills; planning, implementation, and evaluation skills; metacognition skills including reflecting on thought processes and cognitive monitoring.

Content for specific discs derives from subject matter experts and a review of the published literature. For example, for discs related to understanding group interaction, a series of questions were asked of fifteen subject matter experts—ten faculty from early childhood, elementary, secondary, and adult education as well as faculty from psychology, allied clinical health, social work, and communications; five practitioners in education, social work, and psychology. Interview questions included asking the interviewees to reflect on types of groups in which they participated and to describe what they needed to know about group interaction in these groups. Interviewees were also asked to describe characteristics which made groups function successfully, as well as key group interaction and facilitation skills in human service professions, data gathering tools related to group effectiveness. Finally, they were asked to describe learners and what content related to group interaction should be emphasized in a core course in the college.

Summaries of the interview data were compared with published literatures in the field of group interaction. Particularly important were the resources of Johnson and Johnson (1982) and Schmuck and Schmuck (1971) which emphasized cooperative goal structures and shared leadership in supporting the task and maintenance functions of the group.

The content that emerged from a synthesis of this effort in literature review and subject matter expert interview encompassed types of groups and their context, key dimensions of group interaction, characteristics of effective and ineffective groups, and skills in working with groups. Further delineation of the key dimensions of group interaction included shared leadership in fulfilling the task and maintenance functions of group interaction, group goals and goal structures, stages of group life, conflict resolution and problem solving in groups, communication techniques in groups, and group cohesiveness.

Student Involvement in Analyses of Learner Characteristics

In designing interactive videodisc, it is important to more fully understand the learners. For the disc on "Understanding Groups," a survey of both graduate and undergraduate students attending summer session classes was given. Students were surveyed in three areas: 1) rating statements which described how they learned best (learning style); 2) completing a content-knowledge "test"; 3) describing their demographic characteristics.

Through factor analysis, four "types" of learners were found. One group of learners stated that they learned best when given an opportunity to create their own theories of the world. Another group indicated that they learned best through concrete applications. A third group desired instruction which led them to "finding the right answer." Finally, a fourth group of students preferred games and simulations for learning. In further analysis, it was found that high percentages of all students preferred concrete applications as well as games and simulations in learning. In contrast to this, it appeared that one group of students preferred creating their own theories, while another group of students desired guided instruction and arriving at a "right answer." This learner analysis had great impact on the instructional design, which came to include an inductive learner track for those who desired to create their own theories and deductive learner track for those who preferred to be guided in finding the "right answer."

Student Involvement in Instructional Design, Production, and Programming

—Instructional Design

Upon completion of learner analyses and content development, the next steps included the development of objectives. For the group disc, both terminal and process objectives were written. A terminal objective was stated: The learner will be able to identify the following concepts: task behaviors (roles). A process objective for the inductive track was written—"Given a demonstration group in which task functions are exhibited, the learner will develop personal descriptions of these behaviors. The learner will then compare his/her descriptions with those of an expert." A process objective for the deductive track was stated as follows—"After the presentation of each task behavior with definition and example, the learner will identify behaviors in another example with 100% accuracy.".

In videodisc instructional design, it was next necessary to develop flow charts and storyboards which incorporate the many components of audio, video, and computer elements into the delivery of instruction. Following are examples of a small segment of flowchart and storyboard. (See Tables 1 and 2.).

Teacher education students involved in this process learn skills in incorporating input from learners into the design of teaching/learning activities and will learn to synthesize ideas from a variety of sources in developing content chunks and objectives.

—Other Opportunities

Students will also have opportunities to learn more about production of high-quality instructional materials related to content and process objectives, including videotapes, slides, audio tapes, and graphics. Further, opportunities for programming and a review of the options and constraints of various programming languages and systems will be possible.

Table 1. A sample flowchart for interactive videodisc.

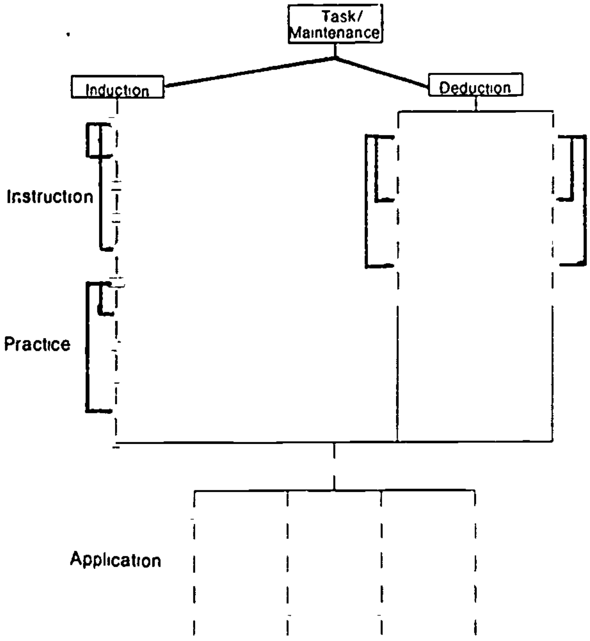
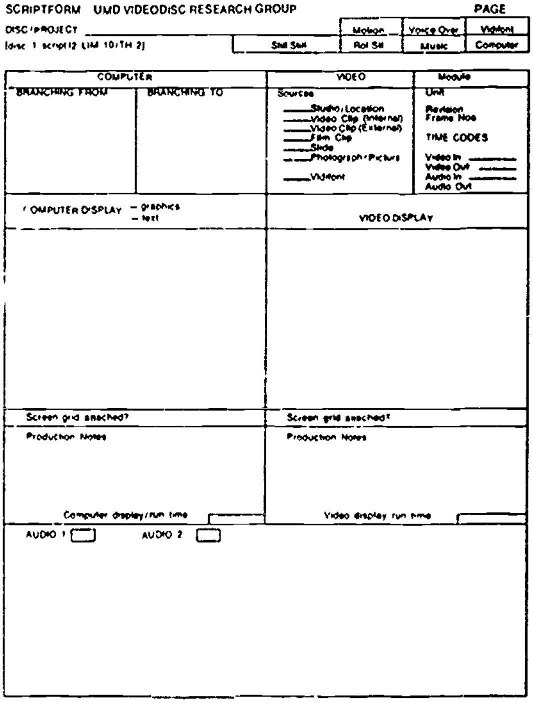


Table 2
A sample storyboard scriptform for interactive videodisc.



SCRIPTFORM UMD VIDEODISC RESEARCH GROUP PAGE

DISC/PROJECT ______

(disc 1 script 2 UM 10/TH 2)

	Motion	Voice Over	Vidifont
Still Still	Rol Sil	Music	Computer

COMPUTER		VIDEO	Module
BRANCHING FROM	BRANCHING TO	Sources ___Studio/Location ___Video Clip (Internal) ___Video Clip (External) ___Film Clip ___Slide ___Photograph/Picture ___Vidifont	Unit Revision Frame Nos TIME CODES Video In ___ Video Out ___ Audio In ___ Audio Out

COMPUTER DISPLAY – graphics – text	VIDEO DISPLAY
Screen grid attached?	Screen grid attached?
Production Notes Computer display/run time ☐	Production Notes Video display run time ☐

AUDIO 1 ☐ AUDIO 2 ☐

Student Involvement in Field Testing and Research

Three phases of field testing and research are included with the development of each interactive videodisc. During the first phase of field testing, students from selected classes (where content is appropriate) were brought into the laboratory and walked through the videodisc instruction with full observation by members of the Interactive Videodisc Research Group. Faculty members from the college also completed the disk. Both students and faculty completed initial reviews of the materials, noting both content/instructional issues and technical issues. Results from these critiques were then synthesized and incorporated into the first editing. For example, in the "Understanding Groups" disc, there were comments about the lack of clarity in giving directions related to the manual and about the need for more extensive user-control. There were also some glitches in the videotape and the use of colors.

The second phase of field testing will be the broader dissemination of the materials over one academic year, where instructors and students will use and further evaluate the materials. A final editing will be completed and will incorporate the suggestions of this wider group.

The third phase of field testing is a more formal research study. For the "Understanding

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

Groups" disc, a comparative study of the effectiveness of interactive videodisc and videotape/lecture on student skill acquisition in background content knowledge, in the development of observation skills, and in actual group facilitation skills with children are currently underway

Student Learning through Interactive Videodisc

Through the powerful medium of interactive videodisc, students have learned important content which is part of a new core of courses which all educators and human service professionals need. After learning content through observations of a college class group, students practiced their understandings through observing a parent education/support group from the Minnesota Early Learning Design. The acquisition of basic concepts related to group interaction (shared leadership, task and maintenance functions, competitive and cooperative goal structures, communication and conflict resolution in groups, and power and decision making in groups) was possible through either inductive or deductive learning tracks.

Value of Videodisc in Early Childhood Teacher Education

There are several areas where the instructional interactive videodiscs are enhancing the preparation of early childhood teacher educators. First, the fact that early childhood educators work with other adults as well as parents (individually and in groups) makes it crucial that basic concepts related to group interaction are clearly understood. A problem-solving appproach to conflict, effective communication strategies, the need for balance between task and maintenance functions in a group—these are vital for effective group membership and leadership. Seeing groups, such as the parent education/support group in action, makes the concepts come alive and personal.

Second, the model of learner choice and options is an important one in early childhood education. Instruction through interactive videodisc models basic tenets within early childhood education. Building on learner response in a sensitive, interactive manner and allowing active learning choices are highly important precepts that mesh interactive videodisc instruction and early childhood education philosophies.

Third, the development of observation skills is one of the most important areas related to sensitive caregiving. In this disc, particularly in the inductive track, learners have an opportunity to record their observations of group interaction and then compare their ideas with those of an expert. The learners' own views receive validation, yet opportunity is given for comparison and contrast with those of others.

For these reasons, interactive videodisc appears to be an exceptional resource in the preparation of early childhood educators.

Bibliography

DeBloois, M., Maki, K., Hall, A. (1982). *Effectiveness of interactive videodisc training. A comprehensive review* Falls Church, Virginia Future Systems.

Floyd, S and Floyd B (1982) *Handbook of interactive video White Plains, New York. Knowledge Industry Publishing.*

Iuppa, N. 1984. Practical guide to interactive video. White Plains, New York. Knowledge Industry Publishing Video Bookshelf.

Johnson, D.W. and Johnson, F. (1982) *Joining Together.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey Prentice-Hall

Lay-Dopyera, M and Dopyera, J E (1983) *Becoming a teacher of young children* Lexington, Massachusetts: Heath.

Parslow, E (1983) *Interactive Video* West Susses, England John Wiley

Schmuck, R A and Schmuck, P A (1971). *Group processes in the classroom. Dubuque, Iowa William Brown*

Spodek, B (1985) *Teaching in the early years.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey Prentice Hall

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Catherine Gallagher Green
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

ENHANCING CREATIVITY IN EARLY CHILDHOOD

Ajit Das, Kathleen Nelson, and Catherine Gallagher-Green
University of Minnesota, Duluth

It is a truism that progress in any sphere of human endeavor is made possible by the work of creative individuals. The creative individual takes available knowledge from one or more fields and applies it to solve a problem, develop a new product or process, or simply generate new knowledge. Creativity can manifest itself in any human activity and can result in a tangible or intangible outcome. For example, creative problem-solving can lead to better interpersonal relations just as well as, in another context, it can lead to the design of a more efficient vacuum cleaner.

While one may debate the point that the work of creative individuals necessarily leads to progress, there can be no question that it results in change in our world. Not everyone values or welcomes change, however, and most people are more comfortable with familiar products and habitual ways of doing things. Change, whether we like it or not, is a fact of life in the technologically advanced society in which we live. Not only should we expect many familiar things to change during our lifetime, but we may expect things to change at an accelerated pace.

Children who are attending preschool and elementary school programs today will live and work in a world that will be radically different in many ways from the world in which their teachers and parents live. How can we prepare these children to meet the challenges of a yet largely unknown future? No one can answer this question fully, although a number of proposals have been put forward by futurists (Shane, 1982). Most emphasize independent thinking and creative problem solving ability, among other desirable goals. Thus the care of nurturing of creative ability is of crucial importance in a rapidly changing society.

Enhancing Creativity in Early Childhood was designed as a workshop experience for early childhood educators/students, administrators, and parents. The focus was on practical applications of creativity for the school and home. For our purposes we've chosen to use Paul Torrance's (1979) creative thinking abilities along with Ronald Klein's (1982) hierarchy of creativity as an organizing framework. We see Torrance's creative thinking abilities—fluency, flexibility, originality, and elaboration—operating in each stage of Klein's hierarchy. A brief description of each of these skills is given below:

Fluency is the ability to produce many ideas for a given task. In fluency we're talking about numbers; the more the better. This can be in terms of words, ideas, play materials, experiences, etc.

Flexibility is the ability to produce many different kinds of ideas, which show that a person has moved from one level of thinking to another, or shifts in thinking relative to a given task. In flexibility we're talking about shifting gears, the more willing to move or change, the better. A classic riddle requires this ability:

> The man was afraid to go home because the man with the mask was there.

Can you figure out who the man was, who the man with the mask was, and why the man was afraid to go home? This kind of a problem requires us to move from our habitual mode of conceptualizing a situation to a novel mode. Give yourself a couple of minutes and try this. Give up? You can find the solution at the end of the bibliography. How can we be flexible or provide opportunities for our children to be flexible? We can do this by varying our approach and being willing to adjust curriculum, discipline, schedules, physical settings, etc.

Originality is the ability to produce ideas that not many people think of or that are unusual, remote and/or clever. Here we are calling forth the uniqueness inherent in a person, idea, or situation. This involves seeing and moving beyond the norm. One example might be the child who uses the vacuum cleaner exhaust as the power source for a bubble-blowing machine. Originality is something that you often can't put a lid on, it

Full Text Provided by ERIC

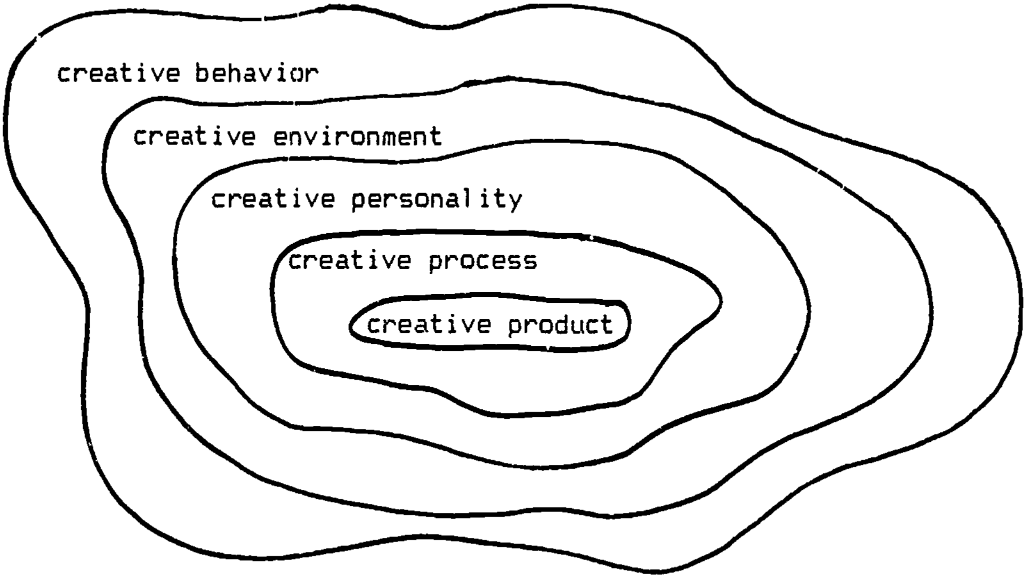
just pops out. What children may need most from us is respect and permission to be different.

Elaboration is the ability to add details to a basic idea. What we're talking about here is special effects and embellishments. A common example of this might be seen in the figure drawing of a four-year old who includes a beret, dangling earrings, argyle socks, and high-heeled shoes in addition to the traditional body parts. Here we want to build a child's reservoir of tools, such as skill-building, visual imagery, vocabulary, ect.

When considering these creative abilities there are obviously extremes that could be detrimental to a child's overall functioning. Our monumental task is to provide a stimulating environment that is both nurturing and secure. It's much like balancing a seesaw, you don't want to get stuck at either end.

Keep these four creative thinking abilities in mind as we work through Klein's hierarchy of creativity. As seen in the diagram below, Klein identifies five aspects of creativity: behavior, environment, personality, process, and product. These aspects are not to be taken as distinct and separate but are interdependent.

Figure 1.—Klein's hierarchy of creativity.



Creative Behavior

Let's take a look at what kinds of things we can do to foster creative behavior.

the goal of most approaches to fostering creative behavior is to get the person started *doing* something rather than just thinking about being more creative. To enhance our own creativity we can draw on the nine characteristics of creative people Klein has identified.

1. Maximize Your Options: the more you experience and open yourself up to, the more you have to draw from. Creative people are jack-of-all-trades; everything is potentially worth knowing about, experiencing, or exploring.

2. Defer Judgment: Accept and consider all ideas as plausible. Don't rule anything out prematurely.

3. Be Inconsistent: Consistency is incompatible with growth. You can't always do the same old things in the same old way and grow. Be willing to break with old patterns and even values if necessary to engage in a creative, growth-producing activity.

4. Seek Freedom: Don't be confined by limits, go beyond them. Don't be ruled by conventions and habits. Associate with many different types of people, adopt many faces and forms.

5. Be Action-oriented: Instead of saying "I could have done that" or "I might have done that," *do it!* Don't just think of creative ideas and activities, act on them.

6. Be Aware of Both Inner and Outer Worlds: It's not enough to just experience one thing after another. Creative people take stock of the situation —both inner feelings and outer experiences—in order to evaluate where they've been, where they'd like to be, and how to get there.

7. Be Both Responsible and Responsive. Creative people are controlled internally rather than externally by others. They take responsibility for their decisions and actions while responding to both their own needs and the environment.

8. Have a Positive Orientation: Think of problems as opportunities or challenges. This will give you the confidence to reach out and tackle more.

9. Take Risks: You've got to step into new territory if you're going to engage in creative behavior. Going outside your previous behavioral boundaries implies risk, but not taking risks can result in a lack of growth, limited horizons, impaired creativity, and a boring daily life.

Creative Environment

The creative environment includes both the external physical factors as well as the emotional and social climate. The physical environment should be such that it entices children to try new things. This can occur when the materials are accessible to the child, when there is a variety of materials and grouping patterns, a flexible schedule, private places for dreaming and incubating ideas and places that provide opportunities for children to share special ideas, products, and materials.

The emotional and social climate are of paramount importance. The creative environment is secure and non-judgmental. It is one that respects the rights of others and the materials used. In this atmosphere there is an appreciation of each other's uniqueness as well as individual talents. There are many opportunities to make choices. Here projects or products that don't work as planned are not perceived as "failures," but as opportunities to learn.

How can we contribute to this supportive climate? Here are some guidelines we keep in mind:

1. Recognize that teacher attention is a catalyst and reinforcer. Give children feedback. Clarify and extend their ideas.
2. Guide the children to self-directed learning.
3. Allow children a sense of power and control by giving them many opportunities to make decisions.
4. Capitalize on a child's strengths.
5. As a group acknowledge individual accomplishments.
6. Let children know being creative is valued there.
7. Be a model. Find ways to be creative yourself.

Creative Personality

Now that we've begun to engage in creative behaviors and have addressed aspects of the creative environment, let's take a look at the emerging profile of the creative person Researchers have long known that creative people tend to exhibit some similar personality traits and behavior patterns. What hasn't been as clear is which comes fist—the creativity or the personality. If the creativity comes first, as Klein's hierarchy suggests, then it seems possible that we could develop creative personalities just as we develop creative behavior and environments.

In examining the creative personality a useful analogy comes to mind. Think of a basket of fruit. You have all your usual fruits such as apples, oranges, grapefruit, pears, peaches, and even bananas. However, imagine that you also have guavas, avacados, pineapples, star fruit, and kiwi fruit. Applying the picture of these fruits to people, your less creative personality may be analogous to apples, oranges and other familiar fruits. Most of you would have a lot of suggestions on how to handle these fruits and could probably offer a number of recipes that bring out their best flavor. When we turn to the more exotic fruits, we begin to understand the implications of the creative personality. Few of you would have much to say about how to handle and prepare star fruits, avacados, etc. to bring out their best flavor.

When we don't know what to do with certain fruits we often turn first to our cookbooks. There you will find many entrees for the common fruits and few or none for the more exotic varieties. The same is true for people. Education and parenting courses will apply primarily to the more typical child, few will offer much if anything on how to handle the more exotic, creative child. So when you are faced with a creative person you will often be stumped. The usual techniques and recipes that work with common fruits may not work at all with the exotic varieties. In fact, they may ruin the more exotic varieties, many of which are highly fragile, bruisable, and perishable. Pretty soon the thinking is that all fruits are basically variations of apples and oranges and the job is really just to help all fruits become better apples and oranges. When this kind of thinking is applied to creative people their difference is often misinterpreted as some kind of defect and, as a result, we find them over-represented in learning disabled, emotionally/behaviorally disordered, and other remedial programs.

Creative Process

The creative process can be conceived of in simple terms as a three step model. Phase one of the "ha ha" phase where one engages freely in dreaming, wishing, hoping, fantasizing, and playing around with ideas. This is a stage young children engage in naturally and freely because they have not yet developed those controls that so often keep adults from indulging in this first and necessary step of the creative process. Because young children are at a narcissistic or self-serving stage of creative development, there is no need for adults to "bring them back to reality" for this playful indulgence will provide the raw materials necessary to move the child forward to the next phase.

Step two of the creative process is the "ah?" phase. Here one is taking a closer look to determine the possibilities, doing research on the options, collecting data on resources available, pondering and studying the ideas generated in the fisrt phase to determine their feasibility. Here the adult can show respect for the child's "crazy" or fanciful ideas generated in the first phase by encouraging the child to consider them further. How can you do that? What will you need?

The final phase of the creative process is the "aha" stage. After generating ideas and taking a closer look at their feasibility, the creator has an "I've got it!" experience. Here is where decisions on action are made and the person goes about implementing their ideas, bringing their dreams to life. Action, or acting on one's creative ideas, is an important step in and of itself. Therefore, the adult will want to encourage and support the child's actions even if they seem destined for failure. In following through on their ideas, the child gains competence in development and implementation of creativity. No matter how the process ends, every product is the inspiration for the next effort, and thus is important if only for the stimulus value for further work.

Creative Product

We are ending where discussion of creativity often begins—with a look at the creative product. Too often the focus of creativity is limited to the product as the sole measure of one's creativity or creative achievement.

If our vision of creative behavior is "toward openness, growth and going beyond what a person is ... and toward newness and uniqueness; toward how the individual grows over time," (Klein, 1982) then that behavior will be reflected in one's products. When our products are viewed over time they will show increased creativity. Not every product. Not every day or perhaps even every month or year.

Although creativity is much more than the final product, that is not to negate the importance of creative contributions to our world. We need the work of the Thomas Edison's, Jonas Salk's, and Steven Jobs's. However some products may be important only as catalysts for new ideas and improved products. Every end result is really a new beginning which gets the whole process started over anew.

A good example of a creative product was supplied by a young girl who stepped into our lives one September. She was a brand new five-year-old starting kindergarten and brought with her a "book" written at home entitled *My Own Me Makes Me Happy*. Illustrated and written by hand, it said:

i am me
it maces me happy
i'm my owne me too
nobody's like me case i'm specnil in evry
way
here's a list of them
    eyes
    ears
    nose
    mouth
my big brother is difrent from me in evry
way
so are my freinds
my house is difrent from other houses
i'm difrent from my dad and my mom and
my sister
we ride difrent bikes
we think difrent things
we have difrent ways to think of us
but best o all we love each other
we're difrent in lots of ways
my owne me maces my happy
i ges

She left that school after her kindergarten year, but thoughts of her kept coming back. A child so young with such a keen sense of who she was, who was so excited about her uniqueness. It has been four or five years now since she wrote that story and we wonder, with some anxiety, if that creative spark has been encouraged.

We can promote creativity in all children by giving ourselves permission to exhibit creative behavior, by modeling it and by challenging those we meet to step beyond the boundaries. Perhaps our motto should be:

> If I never try anything, I never learn anything; if I never take a risk, I stay where I am.
>
> Hugh Prather (from *Notes to Myself*)

References

Amabile, M. (1983). *The social psychology of creativity.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Davis, G. (1986). *Creativity is forever.* Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall-Hunt.

Goertzel, V. & Goertzel, M. (1962). *Cradles of eminence.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Khatena, J. (1978). *The creatively gifted child: suggestions for parents and teachers.* New York: Vantage Press.

Klein, R. (1982). "An inquiry into the factors related to creativity," *The elementary school journal, 82* (3), 256-265.

Saunders, J. (1986). *Bringing out the best! a resource guide for parents of young gifted children.* Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing.

Shane, H. (1982). The Silicon age and education. *Phi Delta Kappan, 63* (5), 303-308.

Torrance, P. (1979). *The search for sartori and creativity.* Buffalo, NY: Bearly Limited.

(Riddle Solution: The man with the mask is a catcher on the baseball team. He is at home plate with the ball waiting to tag the runner who is at third base.)

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

WORK FAMILY SYSTEMS: THE RECIPROCAL LINK

Susan Graves-Johnson
Duluth Technical Institute
Duluth, Minnesota

Bob Dylan sang, "Times, they are a-changin'". He sang that twenty years ago. He was right. Times were changing, but we weren't aware. We didn't notice. Change comes/came slowly. Ten years ago, schooltexts were full of Dick and Jane; Spot and Puff; Mom and Dad. Mom, of course, stayed at home, cooked, washed, cleaned and scoured toilet bowls in a dress, heels, nylons and a flounced apron. Dad was not around much. He worked. Yet, in family financial and discipline management, his word was virtually law. The stock phrase to deal with problems was "wait 'till your father gets home". This is the image we, as a society, had of ourselves. It was the image we promoted. We didn't much look at the deviations from the norm in terms of family structure or roles. The work world and the homefront were separate entities. Men moved between the two systems daily. Women's existence was mainly in the home system. The "good" wife supported the work system by supporting the breadwinner and taking care of his personal needs and organization so he could succeed in the work system. Society depended on these two constant systems where the one supported the other (Feltsehausen, 1985).

Today, media constantly reinforces the idea that there has been a change. The message is that it is okay to "want it all" and "do it all." A profession, family and a loving relationship are all within the grasp of any persevering female. It is a woman's dream come true! The purpose of this paper, then, is to explore the implications of this change and how it affects the structure of the family system. We will evaluate some of these societal expectations and weigh some of the effects of these changes. Also, we will look at some strategies to cope with the stress of change in our system.

To begin with, let's examine the Dick/Jane model before we move forward. In this system, each family member had a defined role. Father works. He needs to be absent from family life. He issues but never brings domestic troubles back to work. The external system can impact the family system but the internal system cannot touch the work world. Father can be grumpy, sullen, even abusive, if need be, to purge his frustration with work at the homefront. Home is his vehicle for release of tension. Mother knew these rules. It's part of the territory. She knew that both active and passive support were expected. She was the caretaker of many issues and concerns. She also knew she was expected to cook, clean, sew, raise children, do volunteer work, organize the social life, feed the cat and be thrifty, witty and wise. She did all this so as to support the person who worked in the family and thus maintain the family image (Campbell, 1984). Life was simple and safe. Friends stayed in the same towns, got married, had kids, worked, and attended each other's funerals. There was a strong support system and clear sense of personal and community identify. Most everyone had a good idea of "who am I" in this world. Role definitions were fairly rigid and passed on through generations. Each family had variations of a theme. The nuclear family (working husband, stay at home wife & children) was the socially accepted norm.

In the early 1900s, the Heinz Corporation and National Cash Register sent personnel out to "inspect" the homes of employees. They wanted assurance that their employee's life was "in order" to insure productivity of that employee. A "good family man" was perceived as being a more "stable and mature person (Campbell, 1984).

In the last twenty years, we began to see women enter the world of work in large numbers. It's hard to give an exact date to this entry because rarely does a single event mark the end of the old; the dawn of something new.

In 1970, about 50% of all women between 25 and 54 had jobs. Today, about 70% of all women in that age bracket hold jobs and it is anticipated that by 1995, close to 81% will hold a job. In actual numbers, that means that close to 49 million women are employed outside the home. Of these working women, about 63% work due to economic necessity, 23% work out of choice and 15% work for both reasons (Economic Status on Women, 1984). The dramatic increase of women in the work world has caused turbulence in several of our social institutions. One is the home; another the world of work. As a result, we are living through a time of great change and stress. The model to pattern our life after is not there. Behaviors to pass on to future generations are untried and uncertain. Future role expectations of males and females are unsorted and still constantly challenged by those of our reality. The emerging myth is that of "Supermom" or "Superparent". It replaces the "woman on a pedestal" model. The new myth encourages us to "do it all—have it all". However, the unspoken qualifier is that it be done in accordance with the norms of the old system (i.e. rigid role playing and expectations). The woman wants to work —fine. She can work and caretake and find childcare and clean clothes and feed the cat. We have assigned two full-time jobs to one person. The probability of long-term success is nonexistent. Society seems to say "go on with your revolutions, but don't expect social evolution." Because of this, we are a society living in a world of mixed messages. The system still assumes married men with families are stable. Aren't married men who are choosing not to have children, or to remain single? Society sighs, "A working woman is less committed and has less energy for her job." Former president Nixon stated, "Childcare weakens the family" (Economic Status on Women, 1984). This leaves both men and women today in an emotional dilemma. Where is a woman's place? How do we prioritize wife/mom/worker and do each justice? What is a man's role? Will a man be less manly if he is more nurturing? Is daycare subversive to the family system? Will modern children grow up neglected? Who will bake the cookies and make chicken soup? Who will cuddle a sick child? We see many questions. We see too few answers. While many persons agree in theory with the new model of a nurturing father and a working mother, because of social expectations which is a major form of communication interference, adjusting to a new system is hard to do (Portner & Comeau, 1986).

Readjustment becomes particularly difficult when we realize that the family structure has changed significantly, but expectations of family members hasn't. Today, less than 20% of the work force represents the nuclear family. The rest of us live in single parent and blended family systems. By 1990, the blended family system will be the predominant family form in the United States (Bureau of National Affairs, 1986). Even though times and lifestyles are changing, lifestyle roles are lagging. A college poll taken last fall by the United Press International, found that of senior class members of four major universities, 81% of the females and 91% of the males said they expected their wife to work while they raise a family (the dual earner model). 70% of the females and 40% of the males believed that the couple would split family costs fifty-fifty. 60% of the males believed they should share childcare responsibilities equally with their spouse and 39% of the males felt they should share household maintenance tasks equally with their spouse (Good Morning America, 1986). This poll clearly indicated the change in lifestyle and the lag in adaptation to the lifestyle.

According to a recent poll of employees in Boston in 1985, the average working, married female spends 85 hours a week handling work/family issues. A single head of household, female, spends 75 hours a week on these same issues compared to married working males who spend 66 hours a week and single head of household males who spend 65 hours a week on the average balancing work and family (Burdin/Googins, 1985). If we look at the time frame of each of these adults, we see some serious problems for women workers/moms of the future. We see they are set up not to succeed. We see the emerging of the "superparent myth" which is supposed to motivate modern parents and we see the reality of burnout and stress of guilt. What is all this doing to my children, they ask. Until recently, that question was not answerable. However, research is beginning to show some evidence of effects of a changing system on children. Interestingly, the attitude of children is not related to if parents work out of the home, but if the parents are happy doing whatever it is they are doing. For research of children whose parents work outside the home and enjoy their jobs, show us that:

1. Children tend to be more resourceful and independent;
2. Children tend to have a strong pride in their parents and their parent's activities;
3. Children have stronger models for expanded life choices for themselves;
4. Children tend to assume greater responsibility,
5. Children tend to feel an increased sense of self-esteem and social worth;
6. Boys tend to be more androginous in their behaviour and attitudes. (Curran, 1985)

The Ipsilanti study on the effects of childcare are showing some interesting longitudinal results. This report dispels the myth that daycare is custodial care. This study shows that a quality childcare program has positive and long-lasting developmental effects on children (Weikert, 1982).

We can begin to see that old models for family systems will not work in the future The family structure is more complicated. The life of each family member is more public by the nature of work and expanded family systems that interact with former and future system development. The family, as we knew it, is no longer a closed system. Forces both external and internal to the family move it to a more open system. As a result, people tend to look for support from different sources than in the past. We see the development of the profession of Parent Educator. We see business begin to deal with the issue of work/family as part of their employee assistance programs. We see work/family issues begin to filter into benefit programs and be part of negotiations in the work force. We see many external avenues for support and encouragement beginning to develop in our communities. Parallel to this external support, we need to support internal family systems that can adapt. We need to encourage an all-channel communication system within the family setting. An open channel system is one where each member has a voice and is heard and can talk to everyone in the family and be dealt with in a respectful way. Within that climate of respect will flow the safety to speak and voice concerns, guilts and burdens as well as brainstorm, evaluate and test new ideas and strategies for change. This system is open and flexible.

The question then is how do we get there from here? How can we as professionals help facilitate such a massive social evolution?

One of the answers is to help heighten awareness and lend a supporting hand. Once we do that, we add the person we have supported to a "critical mass" that supports this change. The theory of critical mass implies that you don't need a maiority to affect social change. A small group will eventually cause a change in thinking and/or philosophy. We saw this happen in the United States in the sixties and seventies with the issue of Vietnam. A critical mass challenged the status quo and eventually that led to the nation rethinking its foreign policy. The same is true with this gap we have with the way life used to be and the way life will be for family systems in the future. We know that the things adults need most, at this time, is a place to talk about these changes and gather information. Therefore, gathering people together to talk and learn should be an important focus of our direction. Through this initial support, individuals will go out and seek specific information that suits their situation. They will also have information to defend their new postures to others that may be less supportive. They will have become part of the "critical mass".

Another skill we will need to use as professionals is that of empathetic, active listening. This will set up an environment where safety is a right of the individual as is a win-win solution. As we model and use these techniques, we assure that the skills will be passed on. Eventually, as the evolution continues, the goal will be for men and women to stop arguing about men's roles or women's roles or childcare being a woman's issue or money making males mainly. Hopefully, we will help people move past these issues and begin to see that each family system has its own strengths and individuality and they will feel safe in problem-solving for their unique situation instead of looking to the national model to pattern after or deviate from. Where once there was a right (pattern after) and a wrong (deviate from) — now there will be multi-systemed families with many different forms of solutions as they seek the similar goal of a happy, stable family life.

If we are already part of this critical mass, we need to help lay the groundwork for others and the future. We need to design an environment that will foster future growth. We need to ask open-ended questions and ponder all the input. We need to realize that each family is a unique system and will and can find its own unique solutions. Creativity and flexibility need to be encouraged. Conformity does not fit in this puzzle. Life is too diverse.

In conclusion, I would suggest that to encourage openness and growth in emerging family systems we share these strategies for change:

1. *Share Burdens:* We aren't alone in our insecurities of the present and the futue. Talk things out. Listen. Hear. Find people that understand and lift you up. Foster the skills of cooperation.
2. *Time Management:* Reorganize home systems; reprioritize. Let go of past expectations that don't work. Implement family meetings. Foster the qualities of support, equality and the art of negotiation. Learn how to fight fairly; understand that hassling can be healthy and explore win-win situations.
3. *Recreation:* Relax. Play. Have time for joy and fun. Renew yourself with skills. Not only recreate but re-create.
4. *Esteem:* Focus on strengths. Find a way to become comfortable asking for help. Learn to state needs. Deal with feelings.
5. *Strive for a Healthy Lifestyle:* Respect your body's needs of rest, nutrition, good health and freedom from fatigue.
6. *Stay Flexible:* Know that new solutions are not written in stone. Change as needed. Identify a good problem-solving method and use it. If one solution doesn't work—try again.

We live in a time of change and uncertainty. Society, the family, and the individual are trying to put this upheaval into some kind of perspective. As a result, sometimes we cheer and sometimes we cry. In conclusion, consider the statement Margaret Mead once made as you ponder these ideas and their personal implications: "The only way to solve the disruption of change is with more change." (Friedman, 1983, p 9).

References

Burden, D.S. & Coogins, B. (1985, November). *Balancing Job and Home Life Findings.* Boston. University of Boston School of Social Work.

Bureau of National Affairs. (1986). *Work and Family: A changing Dynamic.* Washington, D.C.: Bureau of National Affairs, Department of Labor.

Campbell, S.M. (1984). *Beyond the Power Struggle: Dealing with Conflict in Love and Work.* San Louis Obisop, CA: Impact Publishing.

Curran D. (1985). *Stress and the Healthy Family.* Minneapolis: Winston Press.

Economic Status on Woman. (1984). In council on the Economic Status of Woman. *Women in Minnesota Newsletter.* St. Paul: Minnesota, 400 SW, State Office Building.

Felstehausen, V. (1985). The Effects of Family on Work. In V. Felstehausen (Ed.). *Tips and Topics Newsletter.* Lubbock, Texas. Texas Technical University.

Freidman, D. (1983). *Encouraging Employer Support to Working Parents: Community Strategies for Change.* (Report for the Carnegie Corporation, Center for Public Advocate Research). New York: Carnegie Corporation.

Good Morning America News Report. (1986, September). New York: American Broadcasting Company.

Portner, J. & Comeau, J. (1986). Parent Education: Managing the Dual Employment Life Style. *Monograph of Parent Education: State of the Art* (B597). White Bear Lake, MN: Minnesota Curriculum Service Center.

Weikert, D (1982) *The Perry Project Study.* Ipsilanti, MI: Eastern Michigan State University.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Lee Karnowski
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

EARLY WRITING: SPREADING THE NEWS TO PARENTS

Lee Karnowski
University of Wisconsin, River Falls

Young children scribble write from the time they can maneuver their finger over a foggy car window or hold a writing instrument to a piece of paper or the wall. Children move through many stages in scribble writing and each stage brings added knowledge of our writing and spelling system (Lamme, 1984).

Stages of Scribble Writing

Stage 1, Random scribbling, begins before a child's first birthday. When handed a writing instrument, the child delights in his/her random markings. There is little control and marks may go off the writing surface. However, the child is learning to communicate by babbling.

Stage 2, Controlled scribbling, occurs when the child is aware that there is a relationship between the marks on the paper and his/her movements with the writing instrument. Shapes may appear as part of the scribble writing. It is at this stage that the child realizes the difference between writing and drawing. The scribbles begin to take the form and shape of writing. The child may pretend that the scribbles are actual writing and begin to compose scribble stories and letters.

Stage 3, Named scribbling, is created with intent. The child may want his/her scribbles labeled. Alphabet letters may appear and the child begins to "read" by making up words for any print they see or write. At this stage, the child's writing displays many interesting principles and concepts about writing. Clay (1975) has identified the following: the child understands that symbols carry meaning, rules and regulations are tested as the child plays with writing by experimenting with letter forms, writing begins to occur from left to right, and the child may repeat letters just as letters are repeated in our system of writing. At this stage a child may also understand the form and function of many writing products. He/She may display a knowledge that letters begin with "Dear" and close with "Love", stories begin with "Once upon a time", and conclude with "The end", and invitations bear the words "Please come to my house".

Teacher's Role in Encouraging Writing

The teacher plays a key role in helping young writers move through the different stages of writing. First our job is to provide an atmosphere that encourages young children to write by making writing materials available around the room. Materials may be included in the art center so children can label their picture or write a story for the illustration they have painted, in the housekeeping center so children can make lists and write telephone messages, by cubbies or mailboxes so children can write notes and invitations to one another, by the block center so children can label their constructions and make street signs, by the science center so children can record observations on charts and graphs, and by the piano so children can write their own music.

Second, teachers need to respond to young children's products in such a way that youngsters learn that their scribbles have the power to convey meaning. Just as infants learn the power of their gestures or words, through our responses to them, so it is with young writers who discover the power of their writing through our encouraging responses. We must celebrate children's developing stages of success.

Third, we must convey to parents the discoveries and learnings which are taking place at each stage of their child's writing. Too often parents want to hurry their child's progress through these stages, being concerned only with writing and spelling proficiency. This pressure limits the child's enjoyment of exploring our writing and spelling patterns. To help techers convey the information in this paper to parents, two books are recommended:

Linda Leonard Lamme's book *Growing Up Writing*, published by Acropolis Books, Washington, D.C.

Marie Clay's book *What Did I Write?* published by Heinemann Books, New Hampshire.

Also included are two letters to parents describing the importance of scribbling and the steps involved in young children's writing. Please feel free to use these.

Young children need our help in sharing their enthusiasm and developing knowledge of the writing process with parents. Approximations in writing should be celebrated just as approximations in oral language were celebrated with the knowledge that the child will grow into conventional writing and spelling with time and opportunities to explore creatively. Young children are writers too.

Bibliography

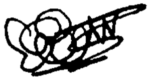
Clay, M (1975). *What Did I Write?* Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Heinemann Books.

Lamme, L.L. (1984). *Growing Up Writing* Washington, D.C.. Acropolis Books.

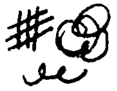
3U

CONGRATULATIONS!

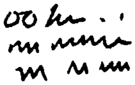
Your child is a writer. A child's ability to write and spell moves through stages and each child moves best through these stages when he or she has time to explore written language without the pressure of perfection. Do you know what stage your child is at?



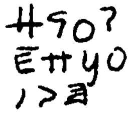
Random scribbling —
Very young children enjoy making random marks on and off the writing surface. There is no control yet.



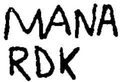
Controlled scribbling —
Children see a relationship between their movements and the marks on the writing surface. There may be repeated patterns. Children begin to differentiate between art and writing.



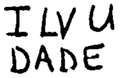
Named scribbling —
Children are writing with the intent to say something. They understand that these signs contain meaning. Children begin to read to you what they have written.



Approximation —
Children experiment with letter shapes. They identify different features that make up our letter system — straight lines, curved lines, intersections, dots. Some real alphabet letters may appear especially those letters which are found in the child's name.



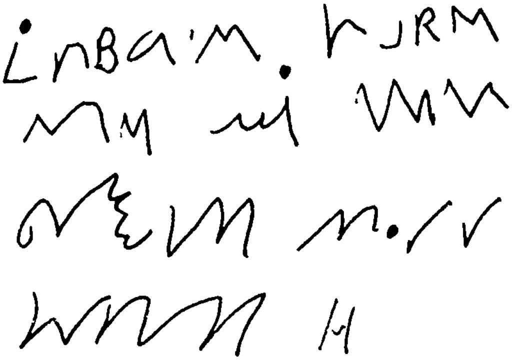
Alphabet writing —
Children enjoy practicing writing with real letters. These letters do not, as yet, represent sounds in words. Reversals are common. Children may be surprised that you cannot read what they have written.



Consonant writing —
Children realize that letters stand for sounds. You can begin to read some of their writing. Some words have been memorized so that they are spelled correctly. Punctuation marks may appear.

These stages are explained more fully in Linda Lamme's book for parents entitled *Growing Up Writing.* It is published by Highlights for Children. Enjoy your child's attempts at writing at whatever stage he or she may be. Give positive feedback and encourage writing at home. Celebrate! Your child is a writer.

What's in a scribble?



This child is a writer. He or she knows quite a bit about writing even though you may not be able to read what these scribbles say. Let's see what this child may know about writing.

First, children at this stage know that writing occurs in a left to right progression. They are beginning to realize that when one line is completed, they must return to the left margin.

Second, children realize that some letter shapes are repeated in writing. For instance, the word "scribble" has repeated letters in the middle. Children also realize that different letter forms are used in writing. For instance, all the other letters in "scribble" are shaped differently.

Third, children may begin to understand that spaces are left when you write and sometimes dots appear in writing.

Last, if children can tell you what the scribbles mean, they have discovered that signs carry meaning.

What's in a scribble? Quite a bit of knowledge about our writing system.

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Glen Palm
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)"

THE CHALLENGE OF WORKING WITH FATHERS

Glen F. Palm
St. Cloud State University, St. Cloud, Minnesota

The changing role of fathers and the renewed interest in parent education during the last decade has led to the development of parenting classes and support groups for fathers (Kliman, 1984). As fathers become more involved in parent education programs an important set of questions emerges. What are fathers' perceptions of education for parenting? What types of programs are most effective at transforming fathers' motivation and interest into parenting skills and knowledge? Do fathers have different educational needs and learning styles than mothers? This paper will explore fathers' perceptions of the parenting role, some probable differences between fathers and mothers as they come into parent education programs and some practical suggestions for attracting and integrating a broader range of men into parent education programs.

Basic Assumptions

There are four basic assumptions about fathering in the 1980s that form a foundation for the following analysis of parent education for fathers.

The role of fatherhood is presently in a state of flux. The role of father is changing, but the direction of change is unclear. The increase of father involvement in children's lives has been emphasized. However, this increase is counterbalanced by two other important trends. First, there has been a decrease in the length of time that men spend with young children. Smaller families mean the opportunities for learning parenting skills through experience with children have decreased (Eggebeen and Uhlenberg, 1985). There are also more single parent families headed by women than at any other time in our history (Rotundo, 1985). At the other end of the involvement spectrum are house-husbands (Hanson & Bozzett, 1985) and dual career families where both parents share caretaking responsiblities. The parenting roles available to men are broader than in the past. The different models of paternal involvement, while liberating, are also confusing.

There are important differences between the ways that males and females approach and think about the parenting role. These differences are important to consider when designing and conducting parent education sessions. Androgyny provides one model of the ideal parent. It is attractive to many involved fathers, because it gives them the permission to be warm and nurturant without giving up their masculinity (Russell, 1978). However, this model attenuates any differences between men and women as parents in an attempt to abolish sex-role stereotypes. The adoption of an androgynous model has been positive for many parents, but as fathers attempt to carve out and define the parent role for themselves, some attention to male and female differences is necessary (Sayers, 1983). These differences do not have to connote inequality or inferiority for either sex. An understanding and awareness of the biological basis of differences can provide more control and flexibility (Rossi, 1983). Differences do not have to trap either men or women into stereotypical roles.

There are many different paths to becoming and being a "good father." This statement should not be taken to mean that all men are on good paths, many are lost and uncertain, while others stumble along in the ruts created by their own fathers. The only way that the fathering role can be evaluated is in the context of the family. In this context husbands and wives are constantly negotiating and adjusting their roles to meet both their family and personal needs. Each father must evaluate his path according to his family situation. Fathers need guidance and support as they take on this task.

Being an "involved father" today takes time, motivation, knowledge, and skill. The development of a close relationship between father and child involves a combination of factors (Pleck,

3

Lamb, & Levine, 1986). Being an involved father is not an easy task for men to integrate into their lives. Many men would like to see the "executive summary" to effective child-rearing and one-minute shortcuts to intimacy with their children because they have limited time and energy. Instant intimacy based on limited time and energy is a myth. Parenting is a process, an ongoing experience that takes time, energy, and openness to learning (Brooks, 1981).

In summary, a shift in the fathering role seems to be in the direction of greater direct involvement for many men. As more women enter the workforce and share the role of provider, men are likely to face greater pressure to share the role of caretaker and nurturer (Lewis, 1986). Parent education will become more relevant for men as they take on these new responsibilities and roles. It is important that parent and early childhood educators begin to recognize the unique needs of fathers during this time of transition and that they guide and support men in their search for a meaningful and fulfilling role as a parent.

Models of Paternal Involvement

Fathers are involved in their children's lives in a variety of ways. A father's perception of his role will determine to some extent the amount and type of involvement that he will have with his child. Russell (1983) conceptualizes a continuum of involvement that includes four distinct types of fathers. The model presented here is an adaptation of Russell's model and proposes five different levels of paternal involvement. The model describes a wide range of paternal involvement based on the father's perception of his role in the direct care and nurturance of his children.

1. *The uninterested and unavailable father.* This is the father who has little interest or time for his children and tends to be absent both physically and psychologically.
2. *The traditional father.* The traditional father has a strong commitment to family in his primary role as breadwinner. He also defines his role in terms of some participation with and responsibility towards his children.
3. *The assistant parent father.* This father is like the traditional father but does not limit participation to traditional domains The assistant parent is a mother's helper, a father who is seen as capable of taking over sometimes but does not share equally in the tasks and responsibilities of child rearing.
4. *The co-parent father.* The co-parent model is one that is held up as the ideal in many dual career families because it reflects an egalitarian spirit. This father lives in a shared-caregiving family and has taken participation another step to publicly rejecting the traditional notion of fatherhood by sharing in some equitable manner in the responsibility of day-to-day care for his children.
5. *Primary parent father.* The primary parent father is the househusband or the single custodial father. This father has the primary responsibility for the day-to-day care of his children.

These different perceptions of involvement influence male's motivation for seeking parent education. The father who perceives himself as a primary parent or a co-parent is more likely to seek out parent education opportunities. Fathers may move back and forth on this continuum of involvement. All fathers deserve support and guidance in selecting and carrying out their parenting roles.

Levels of Paternal Involvement

The research on actual levels of paternal involvement are sparse and in some cases contradictory. The studies on the amount of time fathers spend with their children vary (e.g., Rebelsky and Hanks, 1971; Kotelchuck, 1977, Peterson & Robson, 1969). Most studies do not differentiate between weekdays and weekend days when fathers have more time to spend with their children (Palm 1985a). As the continuum points out, any attempts to generalize the quantity of time that a father spends will be misleading because of the wide range of paternal involvement and perceptions of what involvement is appropriate.

The one area where dramatic changes in paternal involvement have been documented is in the labor and delivery process. Kliman (1984) reports that a recent Gallup Poll indicates that approximately 80% of fathers attend the birth of their child today in comparison with 27% a decade ago. This is the most hopeful sign that paternal involvement is on the rise. There is hope that this change will stimulate further changes in paternal behavior and involvement. However, the actual influence of father's birth attendance on later behavior by fathers is unclear. Palkovitz (1985) reports in his review of the literature on fathers' birth attendance that positive effects on father-child relations depend upon more than the father's presence at birth. While father's presence at birth may be beneficial to the mother and a "peak" experience for some men it will not by itself create a permanent sense of intimacy between father and child.

In a recent survey of father involvement in programs for young handicapped children (Palm, 1985b) the reported levels of involvement were low. Only 40.5% of the fathers attended parent conferences, 13.9% came to the program to observe and 15.4% attended parent education sessions. These low figures may be explained by fathers' unavailability due to work but also probably reflect fathers' differing perceptions of the male parenting role. One hopeful sign was that two-thirds of the programs reported that father involvement has increased over the last three years.

The levels of father involvement in Early Childhood and Family Education programs in Minnesota are also informally reported to be on the rise. These programs are funded as part of community education in many school districts. The programs are designed for parents and their young children age birth to five years. Approximately 27% of the fathers in one of the ECFE programs participated in a group interview process as part of a study of fathers' perceptions of parent education (Palm, 1986). These fathers were part of fourteen different parent groups that meet weekly in the evenings for a period of 25 weeks during the school year.

The profile of the 38 fathers who participated in this study and attend evening parent education classes is revealing. Most of the fathers (75%+) are at least 30 years old. The education level of the fathers is also high. 65% are college graduates and 40% have done postgraduate work. The household income was also high with over 50% of the incomes reported at $35,000 or above compared to the local median income of $21,000. Approximately 75% of the men in the sample had wives that worked at least part time. All were fathers of at least one child who was 0-3 years old. This profile seems consistent with other groups of fathers that I have worked with over the last seven years. There are men who do not fit the profile exactly, but the majority are well-educated, in their 30's, have above average household income, and working wives.

Differences between Mothers and Fathers

One of the major questions posed in the Palm (1986) study was whether fathers perceive major differences between themselves and their wives. The fathers who are involved in parent education programs seem to feel that there are no differences and that mothers and fathers are both competent caretakers. This answer seems to be based on two notions. First, the fathers involved see themselves as co-parents. It is also based on the notion that any sex differences between mothers and fathers are related to sex-role stereotypes that these men and their wives are trying to break away from. It appears that fathers generally perceived that they may bring some differences into parenting but many are attempting to share parenting because of working wives and differences between mothering and fathering become blurred in these family systems.

Despite the fathers' reports of no "real" differences, there appear to be a number of important differences between men and women as they approach and experience the parenting role and look to parent educators for knowledge, skills, and support These differences will be examined in the following section.

Fathers' base of knowledge is probably very different from mothers'. In the Palm (1986) study fathers consistently identified their wives as avid readers of child development and parenting literature. The fathers reported that they depend upon their wives to sift through this literature because thev didn't have time to read. One father referred to his wife as "a walking encyclopedia." Men are also less likely to attend parenting or child development classes at the college level. In a general parenting class that I teach entitled Parent-Child Relations, there are typically ten women for every man in the class. This is an important area of difference between men and women before they become parents and it doesn't appear to change after becoming parents. Men seem to depend upon their wives to seek and find answers about child dvelopment and effective parenting. Women also attend parent education classes more frequently after the birth of their children so that differences in this area continue to exist and even expand.

Fathers' experience base is different from mothers'. Men are not as likely to have experience taking care of young children as women are before they become parents. Girls are more likely to babysit for siblings or neighbors. In addition, once a child is born the mother is the most likely to stay home with the child and her experience base continues to expand. Some of the research on fathers and their sensitivity (e.g., Parke & Sawik, 1975) suggests that fathers are as sensitive as mothers to their baby's auditory cues. However, these measures are relatively gross and don't focus on the more subtle cues that an "experienced caretaker" picks up. As mothers spend more time with their children than fathers do, differences in experiential knowledge widens. Power (1985) found that mothers of toddlers are more sensitive to children's communication cues and better at engaging children in toy play. The implications of this difference are difficult to predict but they suggest that fathers who are attempting to be co-parents may have to invest additional time to catch up. They will find it difficult to match mothers' skills whether developed through experience or based on "precultural" differences.

Interactional styles of fathers and mothers are different. This is one area that has been researched with very young children and the results of these studies have consistently shown differences between mothers and fathers (Lamb, 1981). Fathers are described as being more physical, tactile, and arousing. Mothers are more verbal and calming. These differences are likely to have an impact upon the parent-child relationship or at least the child's perception of this relationship. It will be interesting to see if this pattern of differences changes as men take more responsibility for caretaking. Will the androgynous father's interaction patterns more closely resemble typical maternal interaction patterns? At this point the evidence is unclear. Radin (1982) found that "equalitarian" fathers continued to be similar to traditional fathers in terms of their sex-role orientation and strictness. Robinson (1986) in a review of literature on male early childhood educators notes that there are more similarities than differences between male and female teachers.

Fathers have fewer support systems available to them. One research study (Riley & Cochran, 1985) suggests that men are not as likely to talk with relatives as mothers about child-rearing issues. The literature on parenting is also primarily directed towards women with articles in women's magazines or in the "home section" of the newspaper. Even the men who do decide to play the househusband role have a harder time breaking into the neighborhood support system for parents. As fathers take on more child-rearing responsibilities they will need both formal and informal support systems to assist them in becoming and feeling like competent caregivers.

Fathers' perceptions of and value of the parenting role are generally different from mothers'. In general the parent role is less central to men's lives. One of the themes that appeared in the group discussions (Palm, 1986) was that it does not take a great deal of skill or knowledge to be an effective parent. Fathers who are most often not caught up with the major responsibility for meeting their child's needs may be fooling themselves into thinking that competence in parenting can be easily attained. Lamb (1981) describes the salience of fathers as related to their novelty and differences from mothers. This sense of importance to the young child may tend to give a father a false sense of intimacy and competence.

These differences are described not to create a stereotype, but an awareness that fathers come to parent education programs with different knowledge, experiences, and perceptions about parenting. They may need to work on different skills, using different methods even if they perceive themselves as co-parents and are sharing the caretaking role. There are also important individual differences that are relevant to the parent educator, but often these differences are not considered in providing parent education to both men and women. Fathers often face the model of the "good parent" as the mother and are expected to emulate the "mothering" role.

Strategies for Increasing Father Involvement

The differences between men and women that have been described form a basis for formulating strategies to involve fathers. In general, I would advocate at least some separate sessions for fathers. There are six different areas where suggestions can be made for increasing father involvement and satisfaction in parent education programs.

Time as an Important Factor

There is no universal "good time" for fathers. However, fathers are more likely to attend if they do not have to take off from work. Most men (and women) do not have flexible work hours. Evening times are better for most fathers but fathers will have to fight the "fatigue factor" if they attend evening sessions. Saturday classes may also work for some fathers especially if they are already responsible for their children at this time. Saturday sessions provide both a time and structure for fathers to be with their children.

Location and Sponsoring Organization

Typically parenting programs are run by female staff members in educational or health care settings. These settings are not comfortable for many men. For example, sitting in desks in the local school building may bring back negative feelings associated with school as well as being physically uncomfortable. Female staff and a predominance of female parents may also pose a problem for some men. Not only is the topic female territory, but so is the space and social climate. Some men enjoy being singled out as the exceptional male parent who cares about his children, other men quickly decide that this "parenting group" is really a mother's group. Female facilitators and groups are also likely to be more sympathetic and supportive of the perspective of mothers than fathers. While these barriers are subtle, they can be very powerful. Parent educators need to be sensitive to creating an environment where men will feel both welcome and comfortable.

Recruitment of Male Parents

Most advertising for parent education is directed towards female users and in traditionally female environments. The most effective way to recruit men is through the mother (Palm, 1986). Occasionally, a father will bring a male friend to a class. Some efforts to recruit men in their own environments and in a personal manner should be made. Some suggestions for recruiting fathers follow:

1. Special invitations mailed directly to fathers.
2. Ask men already in the class to invite a male friend.
3. Plan special introductory sessions for fathers.
4. Advertise in male settings (e.g., Sports Page, not the Nutrition Section of the newspaper).
5. Use photographs of male participants as part of brochures or advertisements.
6. Use the workplace as an environment for contacting fathers.
7. Recruit fathers through childbirth classes.

Diversity of Formats

The traditional approach of a parent discussion group is not as likely to appeal to fathers. Fathers are less likely to make a commitment to this type of group and may not feel as comfortable discussing parenting issues and problems. It is important to appeal to a variety of fathers. Some ways to reach out to more fathers are:

1. Create a special page in the newsletter that is specifically directed towards fathers.
2. Plan occasional one time lectures on a topic that fathers may find interesting.
3. Provide an activity group for fathers so that they will spend time doing specific activities with their children.
4. Start a support group specifically for fathers.
5. Occasionally break into fathers and mothers discussion groups as part of a regular parent education class.

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

6. Plan special field trip activities for fathers and children such as camping.

Recruiting Male Staff Members

The present statistics on men in early childhood education and parent education are not really available. In a study of DAC programs in Minnesota that worked with young handicapped children (Palm, 1985b) only 2% of the staff that worked directly with the children were males. The Men in Child Care Project estimates that only 1-2% of the teachers working with young children are males. These numbers are discouraging but there are some places where potential parent educators may be found. There are male social workers, psychologists and educators who may be willing to organize or at least facilitate parent groups for fathers. Programs need to set goals for hiring male parent educators and establish an "affirmative action" program for recruiting males into the field.

Focus on Male Strengths

A final way of appealing to fathers is to try and identify some of the traditional male strengths that may be related to parenting. This is difficult because there is a tendency to think of parent charactertistics such as sensitivity, communication, and nurturance as areas where men have deficits (Betterman, 1984). It is important to begin to identify some strengths that have been attributed to males such as playfulness, leadership, adventure, and independence. A focus on "male" strengths provides a familiar and comfortable starting place.

Conclusion

Fathers are in the midst of a transition to a broader range of parental roles. During this transition men have a right to parenting education classes that recognize their unique needs, affirm their "natural strengths," and provide them with skills that are related to their perceptions of the fathering role. Parent educators have the responsibility to recruit fathers in an active manner, to assist fathers in determining their goals and needs, and provide support and affirmation.

References

Betterman, G. (1984). *Fathering.* White Bear Lake, MN: Minnesota Curriculum Services Center.

Brooks, J.B. (1981). *The Process of Parenting.* Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield Press.

Eggebeen, D. & Uhlenberg, P. (1985). Changes in the Organization of Men's Lives: 1960-1980. *Family Relations, **34,*** 211-220.

Hanson, Shirley & Bozett, F.H. (1985). *Dimension of Fatherhood.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Kilman, D.G. & Kohl, R. (1984). *Fatherhood USA.* New York: Garland Press.

Kotelchuck, M. (1975). *Father Caretaking Characteristics and Their Influences on Infant Father Interaction.* Paper presented to the American Psychological Association, Chicago.

Lamb, M.B. (1981). The Development of Father-Infant Relationships. In M.E. Lamb (Ed.), *The Role of the Father in Child Development* (pp. 459-488). New York: Wiley.

Lewis, R.A. (1986). Men's Changing Roles in Marriage and the Family. *Marriage and Family Review, **9,*** 1-10.

Palkovitz, R. (1985). Fathers attendance, early contact, and extended care with their newborns: A critical review. *Child Development, **56,*** 392-406.

Palm, G. (1985a). *Quality Time: The Search for Intimacy.* Paper presented to the First Symposium on Parenting, the International Society for Parenting Research, Chicago.

Palm, G. (1985b). Creating Opportunities for father involvement. *Nurturing News, VII* (4), 12-13.

Palm, G. (1986). *The Challenge of Educating Fathers.* Paper presented to the Second Symposium on Parenting, The International Society for Parenting Research, Philadelphia.

Parke, R D. & Sawin, D.B. (1975). *Infant Characteristics and Behavior as Elicitors of Maternal and Paternal Responsibility.* Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Denver.

Pederson, F.A. & Robson, K.S. (1969). Father Participation in Infancy. *American Journal of Ortho Psychiatry, **39,*** 466-472.

Pleck, J.H., Lamb, M.E., & Levine, J.A. (1986). Epilog: Facilitating Future Changes in Men's Family Roles. *Marriage and Family Review, **9,*** 11-16.

Power, Thomas G. (1985). Mother and Father Infant Play. A Developmental Analysis. *Child Development, **56,*** 1514-1524.

Radin, N. (1982). Primary Caregiving and Role-Sharing Fathers. In M.E. Lamb (Ed.), *Non-traditional Families: Parenting and Child Development.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

Rebelsky, F. and Hanks, C. (1971). Father's verbal interaction with infants in the first three months of life. *Child Development* **43,** 63-68.

Riley, D. and Cochran, M. (1985). Naturally occurring childrearing advice for fathers: utilization of the personal social network. *Journal of Marriage and the Family.* **47,** 275-?86.

Rotundo, A.E. (1985). American Fatherhood. *American Behavioral Scientist,* **29,** 7-21.

Robinson, B.E. (1986). Men caring for the young: a profile. *Marriage and Family Review.* **9,** 151-162.

Rossi, A.S. (1984). Gender and Parenthood. *American Sociological Review,* **49,** 1-19.

Russell, G. (1978). The father role and its relation to masculinity, femininity, and androgyny. *Child Development,* **49,** 1174-1181.

Russell, G. (1983). *The Changing Role of Fathers?* St. Lucia, Australia, University of Queensland Press.

Sayers, R. (1983). Male-Parenting: Beyond the female agreement. In R. Sayers (Ed.), *Fathering: It's Not the Same.* Larkspur. CA: Nurtury Family School.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
George L. Redman
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

BUILDING SELF-ESTEEM IN CHILDREN
Practical Principles and Skills

George Redman
Hamline University, St. Paul, Minnesota

> "Increased self-esteem tends to make people become more achievement oriented, confident, productive and successful, which in turn translates into a society which is healthier, safer, more productive and less costly"
>
> (Bill, California State Legislature, 1984)

Self-esteem may be defined in a simple and practical sense as one's feeling of being lovable and capable. It is the respect that one has for who she is and what she can do.

Children are not born with feelings of being lovable and capable. They learn from important people early in their lives that they are to be or not to be "esteemed". They learn whether they are lovable and capable from how others treat them. The more that parents, teachers and other caregivers know about the nature, cause and effects of high and low self-esteem, the more effective they will be in fostering high self-regard.

Many contemporary psychologists and educators have suggested that self-esteem is perhaps the key to healthy child growth and development. They claim that a healthy sense of self-worth is important to personality development in young children, and that children with low self-esteem tend to be less accepting of others, hesitant to try new activities, underachieving and overly anxious or fearful. Children with low self-esteem are also more likely to engage in undesirable behavior such as misbehavior in school, chemical abuse, crime, teenage pregnancy and even child or adolescent suicide.

Self-Esteem and Academic Achievement

Research shows that self-esteem is related to academic achievement, i.e., that students with high self-esteem are more likely to achieve to the best of their ability. In the words of one leading scholar, "there is a clear and persistent relationship between self-concept and academic achievement" (Purkey, 1970). Parents who build self-esteem in their children also enhance their chance of success in school.

In one particularly interesting study several classes of kindergarten children were given three measures: 1) I.Q., 2) reading ability and 3) self-esteem. Two years later the classes were measured for reading achievement. Of the three measures given in kindergarten, the one most highly correlated to second grade reading achievement at the end of the grade two was the measure of self-esteem. In other words, if we want to help our children achieve in reading, or in other subjects, we need to foster feelings of high self-regard in children.

Self-Esteem and Discipline

"There is a significant relationship between student self-esteem and misbehavior. Many common classroom problems such as student disruption, inattention, apathy and anxiety indicate negative self-regard" (Burns, 1979). Parents can help reduce such behaviors in their children by employing skills that build child self-esteem.

The key to effective discipline is to 1) preserve or enhance self-esteem, while at the same time, 2) changing unacceptable behavior. Some parents sometimes change child misbehavior, but at the expense of feelings of self-worth.

Self-Esteem and Teenage Pregnancy

Studies conducted in 1963, 1970 and 1979 show that teenage girls who became pregnant had self-esteem scores lower than the norm for the general population (Patten, 1981; Held, 1981). To help girls become less vulnerable to forces that might lead to pregnancy, we need to help them develop a feeling of being lovable and capable. And we cannot begin too early.

A director of a task force on preventing

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

teenage pregnancy has stated that "choosing to have sex in the first place and to get pregnant in the second place is a self-esteem problem." This conclusion stemmed partially from the fact that though the girls in the studies had received more than adequate education in the ways of contraception, they still chose to become pregnant.

Currently, there are approximately one million pregnancies per year in girls of the ages 15 to 19, and 30,000 per year in girls under the age of 15. It is important to note that because girls learn to have esteem for themselves as young children, the best time to begin to combat the problem is in infancy, early childhood and pre-teen years.

Self-Esteem and Stress, Depression and Suicide

It is believed by many that the greater one's sense of being lovable and capable, the greater will be his/her ability to resist the forces involved in stress, depression and suicide. While there are other factors involved in stress, depression and suicide, self-esteem is one very important one—and one which parents can do something about.

Up to 12% of children, toddlers and up, are affected to an extent that precludes normal functioning. Further, depression is a common factor in suicide. While not the only factor, it is a significant one and one that parents, teachers and others who work with children can affect. Since child and adolescent suicide has risen 200-300% since 1950, it begs our attention and action.

Notes left by victims of child suicide suggest a relationship between feelings of self-worth and the act of suicide. Actual notes left by two young suicide victims illustrate the possible connection between feelings of self-esteem and the act of suicide:

> "Sorry for the selfish act but I dislike myself too much to live."
>
> "Don't shed a tear for me, I'm not worth it."

These two notes are not atypical—and both seem to suggest that lack of self-worth was a factor in the decision to commit suicide.

Conclusion

In order to foster motivation, academic achievement and more positive social behavior, and increase the resistence of children to negative forces, parents need to employ skills and strategies for building self-esteem. Building self-esteem will help make homes more positive, productive and pleasant for parents and children. Perhaps most importantly, children will develop the "I can do it" attitude so necessary for success and hapiness in life.

WHAT CAN WE DO?

If self-esteem is such an important factor in terms of personality development and good mental health, what specifically can we do to improve the self-esteem of children and youth?

We can help build self-esteem in children and youth by following five principles (described more fully in *Self-Esteem for Tots to Teens* by Anderson, et al, (1984).

The five principles are:

- Listen to and acknowledge your children's thoughts and feelings
- Find ways to help your children experience success
- Give your children reasonable control over aspects of their lives
- Reinforce your children as lovable and capable
- "Model" healthy self-esteem for your children

We need to support each other in the learning and following of these principles and in trying them out in our home and school settings. In doing so we can "give life"—we can make a difference in the lives of those who need us so much.

THE PRINCIPLES AND RELATED COMMUNICATION SKILLS FOR BUILDING SELF-ESTEEM

Certain communication skills are particularly helpful for teaching children that they are lovable and capable. A number of these skills will be

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

described and illustrated in the following pages. For a more complete description of the skills as well as exercises for the development of the skills, see the text cited above and *Building Self-Esteem in Children - Skill Development Workbook* (Parent or Teacher Version), Redman, 1986.

By learning and using skills that build self-esteem in children, we can give them the belief that is so precious, so powerful—the belief that they are indeed both lovable and capable, and that hence they needn't be hopelessly dependent upon drugs, cults, gangs, or on other people, objects or events that *appear* to at times offer the love and affection and pace that they seek.

The first of the five principles for building self-esteem is: listen and acknowledge the thoughts and feelings of your children. While it sounds easy, studies show that most american adults miss about 75% of the communication directed to them because of poor listening skills. Children remind us all too frequently with statements such as "no one ever listens to me."

What do many adults do to give children the idea that they aren't listening? They advise (e.g., "I think you should/shouldn't do that.") and judge (e.g., "that's right/wrong, good/bad). They burst a child's balloon by suggesting an idea won't work. They create the worst scenario by jumping to the worst possible conclusion regarding a child's behavior. They change the subject and they ignore statements and questions directed to them.

Rather than advising, judging, bursting balloons, creating worst scenarios, changing the subject and ignoring, adults should employ skills of effective listening. Two easy-to-learn skills have been proven especially effective in demonstrating to children that we are interested in their thoughts and feelings. The first of these skills is *paraphrasing*.

A paraphrase is a restatement of the child's statement, using different words while keeping the same meaning of the child's statement. For example, a paraphrase of the statement· "This TV program is boring", might be: " __________ (program name) doesn't seem too exciting to you?" Or where a child suggests: "There's nothing good to eat in this house!" and the adult responds with: "You can't find anything that appeals to you?"

Think of an emotion-laden statement that one of your children has made to you and restate it in your own words. Role-play with a friend, colleague or spouse, with one of you making the child's statement and the other paraphrasing that statement. Share perceptions as to the adequacy of the paraphrase (Did the paraphrase keep the same meaning while using different words?). Reverse roles and try another one. Paraphrasing a child's statement convinces the child that the adult heard her. Whereas an "u-huh" is not proof of having heard the child, a restatement of the child's communication is proof.

The second of the critical listening skills is the skill of making a *statement of empathy*. An empathy statement tells a child that you generally understand the thought or feeling conveyed in a child's statement. For example: If a child said (sadly). "My guinea pig died.", the adult might respond "It hurts doesn't it? What I was your age I had a pet rabbit that died, so I know kinda how you feel." Consider another example in which your child displays a scraped elbow and states: "I fell in gym class—it still hurts". An adult might demonstrate empathy by saying. "It hurts me just to look at it" or simply: "Ouch!". Practice formulating and using empathy statements—they will help reduce a child's feeling that "No one ever listens; no one cares to understand me."

While paraphrasing and empathy statements may be two of the most critical listening skills, they are not the only useful tools for a parent's toolbox. Other verbal skills are described and illustrated in the text and workbook cited above.

The second principle for building self-esteem in children is to structure situations so that children are likely to succeed. When kids succeed, they learn that they are lovable and capable. When a child fails, he learns that he is a failure, and that he is not lovable and capable. What's worse, failure is often amplified in a child's mind. When a child hears a negative message, he tends to generalize. For example, a child who receives a low score on one spelling test may conclude that he is not only poor in spelling in general, but even that he is a poor English student or a poor student eriod in all subjects.

What do we need to consider in setting kids up for success? First, we need to know the child's ability and help the child set expectations (goals) in accordance with his/her ability. It's useful to know characteristics typical of your child's developmental stage, as well as your child's unique talents, abilities and limitations. The expectations that you hold for the child will help determine what expectations the child will set for himself/herself.

Often adults are unaware of the ways in which they communicate the expectations that they hold for a child. Low parental expectations may be inadvertantly demonstrated by not waiting as long for one child to answer a question (suggesting that the child is incapable of knowing the answer), by setting goals too low (suggesting that the child could not reach higher goals) by criticizing one child more than others or by praising one child less than others. Can you think of other ways parents communicate to their children that the parent feels the child is less lovable and/or capable?

Involving children in setting goals e.g. for completing homework, for behaving in a given situation, etc., can have many benefits. It not only signifies a parental approach that is respecting of and confident in the goal-setting ability of the child, but it also tends to enhance the child's feeling of ownership in the task, thereby increasing the likelihood that the task will be successfully completed.

A second factor in helping children succeed is having "clarity of expectations". Are the following common statements as clear as they could be?

"Be back soon!"

"Clean your room."

"Be nice."

Could they lead to failure because they are not clear? What is needed to make each of the above more clear?

A third factor to consider in setting kids up for success is the amount of help that we give to them. If we offer too much, a child will think we don't have confidence in his ability. If we offer too little help, they'll think we don't care about them Often children will tell us if they need more or less help, e.g., "I can do it myself, Dad!" When they don't, and we're not sure, we can ask if they need more or less help.

A fourth factor in setting children up for success is that of providing attractive incentives. Incentives do motivate children, thereby tending to foster success. The lack of motivation has contributed to failure by many children on many occasions.

A fifth factor in setting kids up for success is that of removing obstacles. Identifying obstacles is the first step in removing them. Often a question such as "What will need to be done to allow you to complete that task?" will help in the identification of obstacles.

The sixth, and last, factor for setting kids up for success to be mentioned here is the establishment of appropriate standards for evaluating the performance of children. Having set appropriate, clear, and agreed-upon goals in the first place makes the process of evaluating performance much more simple. For example, evaluating whether a child has arrived home at the appropriate time is easy if the time was specified clearly, if the child is able to get home at that time and if both the parent and child had agreed upon the specified time. Evaluating whether a child has done a given amount of homework by a certain time is relatively simple if the amount of work, the time of completion, etc. were agreed upon at the onset.

It's helpful to learn from others, techniques that have worked for them. Discussing with friends, neighbors, colleagues can be invaluable in identifying new ways of structuring situations for success.

Discussion of the remaining three principles for building self-esteem in children is beyond the scope of this paper. The following is a summary of those three principles. Each principle is given along with a brief list of more specific guidelines for implementing that principle. The reader is referred to *Self-Esteem for Tots To Teens* by Anderson et al, (1984), for a more complete treatise, including vignettes portraying common situations, e.g., mealtime, bedtime, homework and similar situations that help exemplify each of the principles.

The third principle for building self-esteem is. give children a feeling of reasonable control over aspects of their lives. Guidelines include:

1. Involve children in setting goals and expectations
2. Provide choices within limits acceptable to you
3. Defer a portion of a response, particularly where emotions are involved
4. Establish and follow rituals (customary procedures), e.g., marching and singing on the way to bed
5. Ignore or compromise trivial issues (stand firm on matters of principle)

Children learn that they are capable of controlling aspects of their lives by having the opportunity to do so. Feeling capable is a key component of healthy self-esteem.

The fourth principle for building self-esteem is: reinforce children for being lovable and capable.

Guidelines include:

1. Be specific in encouragement and praise (e.g., "You drew your circles large, round and dark so all can see them - good work!")
2. Compliment the person as well as the performance of tasks
3. Praise and encourage in public, reprimand in private
4. Reinstate the relationship after a reprimand
5. Avoid generalizing about the negative (avoid labelling, e.g.,"You're always late/sloppy, etc.,")

The fifth principle is: to "model" a positive view of yourself for your children. Children learn through imitative learning—they can learn to imitate behaviors of aggression, passivity, and feelings of being lovable and capable. Guidelines include:

1. Talk positively about yourself and act confidently
2. Model that it's ok to fail and that failure won't destroy you
3. Take reasonable risks - try new activities
4. Identify positive traits that are common to you and your children (e g., particular interests, likes, etc.)
5. Show that helping others benefits your own self-esteem

The five principles and the related skills are crucial to the development of a healthy self-esteem in children. It is recommended that they be employed systematically. It has proven helpful to begin with one of the skills rather than attempting to employ several during one period of time. Some parents and teachers have established reminders such as signs on their refrigerator or desk saying, for example, "paraphrase" or "listen", and have concentrated on that skill for a specified period, e.g., a week. While we shouldn't expect to see clearly visible and immediate results, some have been pleasantly surprised by a "Thanks for listening, Mom/Dad!" from their son or daughter. When verbal reports of success are not forthcoming, we need to remind ourselves that young children can't be expected to express such feelings and that positive internal growth is undoubtedly occurring.

Above all, it is unproductive to dwell on guilt stemming from errors of omission or commission of the past. We all have made mistakes. We must recognize the lessons of the past and to begin anew.

From whatever point of view we choose to view it, self-esteem is vital to the growth and development of children. From the scholar's point of view, self-esteem is necessary if we are to maximize achievement, motivation and constructive social behavior in the home and school. From the psychologists perspective, self-esteem is consistent with the belief that each child and each adult on the face of the earth, is not only precious, but is indeed sacred.

REFERENCES

Anderson. E.M., Redman. G.L. & Rogers. C. (1984). *Self-Esteem for Tots to Teens*. Deephaven, MN: Meadowbrook Books.

Burns, R B (1979) *The Self-Concept*. New York. Longman Inc

Held, L (1981, Winter) Self-Esteem and Social Network of the Young Pregnant Teenager *Adolescence, XVI* (64).

Patten, Marie, (1981, Winter). Self-Concept and Self-Esteem. Factors in Adolescent Pregnancy. *Adolescence, XVI* (64).

Purkey, W. (1970). *Self-Concept and School Achievement*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ. Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Redman, G.L. (1986). *Building Self-Esteem in Children - Skill Development Workbook* (Parent or Teacher Version), *Parenting/Teaching for Self-Esteem*, (Available from C.L. Redman, 6916 Rosemary Rd, Eden Prairie, Mn 55344).

Redman, G.L. (Producer). *Self-Esteem - What Is It and Why Is It So Important?* [Slides/Transparency Masters, 75 Frames]. *How to Build Self-Esteem in Children and Youth* [Slides/Transparency, 140 Frames]. *Teacher Self-Esteem* [Slides/Transparency, 45 Frames]. *Parenting/Teaching for Self-Esteem.* [Slides/Transparency]. (Available from G.L Redman, 6916 Rosemary Rd., Eden Prairie, Mn 55344).

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Marcelyn Smale
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

DEVELOPING PRE-SCHOOL MUSIC PROGRAMS

Marcelyn Smale
McPhail Center for the Arts
University of Minnesota, Minneapolis

Note. This document is an expansion of the outline prepared for workshop participants. It is a digest of topics and materials covered in the workshop.

Music as an Art; Music as a Discipline; Music as a Tool

Music exists in pre-school classrooms in many different forms, serving in at least three different capacities. Each of these three aspects is important and each should be acknowledged.

The most commonly encountered aspect is the use of music as a tool. Music is indeed a powerful tool. It can be used to put a group of children to sleep or to raise their spirits on a gloomy day. It can help build a child's self-esteem or help a group of children learn to play together. It can offer exercise to the body and improve coordination. It can help children memorize a sequence of letters—what child doesn't learn the "ABC Song"—and teach them about the world.

The discipline of music is what people usually think of when they speak of "learning music". It includes those things that one learns at piano lessons—what the lines and spaces signify and where to put one's fingers on the keyboard. It includes the facts one learns about music, whether they deal with quarter notes or composers. It also includes that which is inherent in the term "discipline"—the experience of working on something day after day and finding enjoyment and pride in what is achieved.

The concept of music as an art is somewhat more elusive. Yet it is the most important aspect of music, for it is the key to music's power and the reward for its discipline. It is the aesthetic nature of music that touches a child's heart and opens a child's mind to thoughts that words are not able to express. It is the aesthetic nature of music that brings pleasure in listening and in performing it, that makes people return to favorite works again and again, without exhausting their attraction.

The pre-school teacher needs to be aware of all three aspects of music, recognize them, and balance them. If music is used primarily as a tool—if listening experiences consist of quiet music for "rest time" and songs about "My Friend, the Dentist" or "What Color Are Your Shoes?"— then music is not truly a part of the curriculum. If the discipline of music is overemphasized, children will not learn its enjoyment; they may know HOW to place their fingers on the violin, but they will not CHOOSE to. If simple enjoyment of music is the only thing emphasized, then children will not grow in their ability to hear and enjoy or perform and enjoy music, and the teacher will be ignoring a powerful teaching tool.

The Basics of Music

To understand and to teach music, it is often helpful to focus upon one aspect of it at a time. It should not be imagined that one can actually divorce one aspect (or element) from all of the othrs. Even a single tone exhibits all the elements of music. But if one focuses a lesson upon a single aspect of music, children can be helped to center on that aspect and understand it better. By planning lessons so that each aspect is emphasized in turn, one can bring children to an ever deeper understanding of music.

The elements of music are.

1. Pitch
2. Duration (Rhythm, Beat)
3. Dynamics
4. Timbre (Tone color)
5. Form

Each element of music can be explored at many different levels. The great pianist Horowitz, preparing to perform a Chopin Prelude at Carnegie Hall, will work on the elements of pitch and duration, dynamics, timbre, and form. Children in pre-school classrooms work on the same elements, but on a lower level in the spiral. The challenge to the teacher is to discover the appropriate level for each child and to help that child to ascend to the next. Here are a few learnings related to pitch and duration which are appropriate for a typical pre-school classroom:

1. Learnings related to pitch:
    a) Voices and many instruments produce tones of different pitches.
    b) Tones can be high or low.
    c) A series of tones can move up or down or stay the same.
2. Learnings related to duration:
    a) Most (Western) music has a regular beat or pulse.
    b) The pulse of a piece of music can be fast or slow.
    c) A recurring pattern of strong and weak beats produces meter.

As children are gaining in understanding of music, they should also be gaining appropriate skills for performing or listening to music. Here are some skills for performing or listening to music. Here are some skills related to pitch, duration and form that are appropriate for a typical pre-school classroom:

1. Learning to match pitches in a healthy singing voice.
    a) Learning to use the vocal apparatus
    b) Learning to match a model
    c) Learning to sing in unison with others
2. Learning to "keep the beat of the music"
    a) Learning to produce a steady pulse
    b) Learning to abstract the pulse (beat) from the rhythm of speech or music
    c) Learning to abstract the pulse in music of different speeds, learning to show the pulse in more difficult ways (walking, playing an instrument)
3. Learning to recognize repetition
    a) Learning to recognize familiar voices, favorite songs
    b) Learning to recognize a repeated element within a simple composition
    c) Learning to recognize repeated elements when they have undergone transformations or are combined with other elements

Appropriate Activities

One of the first lessons teachers learn is that children differ—they differ in HOW QUICKLY they learn and they differ in HOW they learn. This is as true in music as it is in any other subject. Some children learn a concept or a skill or a song very quickly; others need many repetitions. Some learn best if they HEAR the new material; others learn it better if they can SEE it; still others don't understand until they can touch or manipulate it. Teachers also discover very quickly that children learn best those things that interest them; they happily spend countless hours learning things that they enjoy. In planning a music program, it is vital that teachers plan activities that are appropriate to children's abilities, their learning styles and their interests.

This table lists some musical learnings appropriate in early childhood, along with a suggested age for beginning to emphasize (or make conscious) each learning. It can help a teacher plan music lessons so that children achieve success and avoid frustration. It is reprinted from the booklet *Music - Basic for the Young Child* by Marcelyn Smale (distributed by the Lutheran Education Association, Department of Early Childhood Education, 7400 Augusta Street, River Forest, Illinois 60305)

	Up to age 3	Age 4-5	K'garten, 1st grade	2nd and 3rd grade
PITCH	discriminate differences physically	identify high/low physically	name high and low	identify steps and skips
	explore pitch.	calculatedly change pitch	identify direction up or down	notate pitch simple staff
RHYTHM	move to beat, not accurately	steady beat, in a single tempo	steady beat, changing tempi	differentiate pulse from rhythm
	child's tempo most important	differentiate fast/slow	notate quarter & eighth note	notate other note values
			duple/triple meter	measures in 2/4 and 4/4
TIMBRE	recognize familiar sounds	identify familiar instruments	identify instruments more accurately	identify two simultaneous timbres
	explore sounds	choose sounds		choose appropriate sounds
DYN	loud/soft	crescendo, accent	control of dynamics	subtle dynamics
FORM	beginning and end	phrase, ABA, stanzas	rondo, theme and variations, ostinato	canon, two-part singing question/answer

Planning for success is vital; so is planning for enjoyment. Here is a list of some of the activities that are appropriate for helping young children learn music. Every child will enjoy some of these activities more than others and most children will change in their preferences from time to time. A music program which includes many different activities offers children the most success and the most enjoyment

Musical Activities:
- singing
- playing instruments
- making instruments
- listening to recordings
- listening to live performers
- composing and improvising
- moving freely to music
- moving within assigned limits or responding to assigned cues
- manipulating objects to aid in memory or understanding
- speech activities
- stories which illustrate musical concepts
- stories which parallel music (program music)
- visualizations of songs
- visualizations of musical concepts
- using signs or symbols for musical ideas or pieces

Examples of Appropriate Activities

"Making Music"

Everybody, lend an ear;
I'll make music for you to hear.

Use your hands now, everyone;
Making music is lots of fun!

©copyright, 1986, Marcelyn Smale

Concept Emphasized: People can make many different sounds with their voices, with their bodies, and with instruments.

ERIC Full Text Provided by ERIC

Student objective: Students will improvise rhythm patterns using vocal and body sounds and percussion instruments.

Process:

1. Teacher models 8-beat clapping rhythm.
2. Students improvise clapping rhythms for the same length of time.
3. Teacher models other sounds; students respond in the same categories.
4. Teacher and students improvise together, all speaking the first stanza.
5. Add percussion instruments.
6. Do solos and duets.

Stop and Go Games

Concept emphasized: A performance of music has a beginning and an end.

Student objective: Students will indicate the beginning and the end of the teacher's musical performance by starting/stopping their instrument-playing or movement.

Process:

1. Students play or stop playing their instruments in response to the teacher's hand signals.
2. Students take turns being leader.
3. The piano becomes the leader; students respond to the aural cue. Students move or stop as the piano indicates.

"Knock Along, Brother Rabbit"

Concept emphasized: A piece of music has a beginning and an end. Repetition of the piece makes the end point predictable.

Student objective: Students will demonstrate their understanding of the length of the song by stopping their movement at the appropriate time.

Source: This version of this American folk song is from *Discovering Music Together: Early Childhood* by Robert Smith and Charles Leonhard (Chicago: Follet Educational Corporation, 1968), pages 50-51.

Process:

1. Teacher sings the song (refrain. Students join as they learn it.
2. Students use hands as rabbits to "hop" throughout song and hide at the end. An immobile small shape is established as the hiding position.
3. Students use their whole bodies to hop and stop. Teacher adds the fox.
4. Teacher sings a stanza and asks where Brother Rabbit can be found.
5. Students hop PVC rabbits in cardboard carrot patch, stopping at end.
6. Students make a circle with one student as "rabbit" in the center.
7. The "rabbit" chooses another student to join him/her in the circle as the teacher and the children chant:

   "Can you find another rabbit to join you in your lunch
   As you knock, knock, knock and you munch, munch, munch?"
   © copyright 1984, Marcelyn Smale
8. The game continues, adding "rabbits" cumulatively.

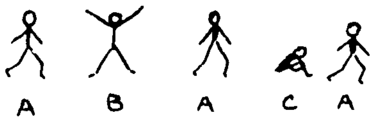
"Walk" from Acadian Songs and Dances

Concept emphasized: Music may be organized into sections which are similar or different from each other.

Student objective: Students will demonstrate their recognition of changes in music by changing their movements.

Process:

1. Play stop-and-go movement game using drum. Let drum be signal to walk.
2. Add another instrument to which students respond with other movements.
3. Add a third instrument.
4. Do the same, using the piano to furnish the cues. Note that changes are no longer in timbre, but in other musical dimensions.
5. Do the same, using as the musical cue the orchestral piece "Walk" from *Acadian Songs and Dances* by Randall Thompson.
6. Discuss and, if appropriate, diagram the students' actions (the form).



"March Past of the Kitchen Utensils"

Concept emphasized: Accent is the stress of one tone over other tones.

Student objective: Students will demonstrate their understanding of accent by responding to musical accents using movement and instrumental sounds.

Process:

1. Students respond to hand signals for loud and quiet. Students take turns being leader.
2. Hand signals conduct accents. "Accent" is defined.
3. Piano gives cue for accents. Students respond on instruments, then with movement.
4. Students look at a variety of kitchen utensils, noticing how they move.
5. "Once there was a cook who had every imaginable kitchen utensil..."
6. Listen to "March Past of the Kitchen Utensils" from the Wasps by Ralph Vaughan-Williams. Listen for the accents—the sound of the utensils falling down.
7. Listen while moving the utensils on the plastic play-scape.
8. Act out story.

Books About Early Childhood Music

Aronoff, F.W. (1979) *Music and Young Children*. New York: Turning Wheel Press.

Andress, B. (1980). *Music Experiences in Early Childhood*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Burnett, M. & Wiggins, P. (1984) *Today's Creative Children: Sing, Play, and Move*. Dubuque, Iowa. Kendall Hunt.

Greenberg, M. (1979) *Your Children Need Music: A Guide for Parents and Teachers of Young Children*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey. Prentice-Hall.

McDonald, D. (1979). *Music in Our Lives: The Early Years*. Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Nye, V. (1979). *Music for Young Children* (2nd ed) Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company.

Weikert, P. (1986). *Teaching Movement and Dance: A Sequential Approach to Rhythmic Movement* (2nd ed). Ipsilanti, Michigan: High/Scope Press.

Zeitlin, P. (1982). *A Song Is a Rainbow: Music, Movement and Rhythm Instruments in the Nursery School and Kindergarten*. Glenview, Illinois. Scott, Foresman.

Songbooks for Pre-School Classrooms

Glazer, Tom. *Eye Winker, Tom Tinker, Chin Chopper: Fifty Musical Fingerplays.*

Sharon, Lois, and Bram *Elephant Jam. A Trunkful of Musical Fun for the Whole Family*

Seeger, Ruth Crawford. *American Folk Songs for Children.*

Thurman, Leon, and Anna Peter Langness. *Heartsongs: Infants and Parents Sharing Music.* 2nd Edition.

Books About Making Instruments

Wilt, Joy, and Terre Watson *Listen! 76 Listening Experiences for Children, Including 60 Rhythm and Musical Instruments to Make and Use.*

Hunter, Ilene, and Marilyn Judson. *Simple Folk Instruments to Make and Play.*

Walther, Tom. *Make Mine Music!*

General Books with Musical Applications

Steicher, Miriam B., and Alice Kendall. *Max, the Music Maker.*

Langstaff, John. *Oh, A Hunting We Will Go.*

Keats, Ezra Jack. *Over in the Meadow. Whistle for Willie.*

Perkins, Al *Hand, Hand, Fingers Thumb.*

Adams, Pam. *Old McDonald Had a Farm.*

Curry, Peter. *I Can Hear.*

Hutchins, Pat. *Rosie's Walk.*

Spier, Peter. *Crash! Bang! Boom!*

Aliki. *Hush, Little Baby.*

Slobodkina, Esphyr. *Caps for Sale.*

McGovern, Ann. *Too Much Noise*

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Leon Thurman
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)"

PARENTAL SINGING DURING PREGNANCY AND INFANCY CAN HELP DEVELOP POSITIVE BONDING AND THE HUMAN INTELLIGENCES

Leon Thurman
Minnesota Head and Neck Center
Minneapolis, Minnesota

How parents and their children interact influences the psycho-social orientation of both. The impact of parents on children is, of course, the more pervasive influence. Cataloging the parenting behaviors which may lead to an unfortunate psycho-social future for children is useful in preventive psychology. A much more useful approach, however, would be to determine how parents can interact with their children so that they might accumulate a psycho-social history that enables the optimal development of their human potential.

In other words, if human well being and happiness are "our business," then let us look for and share the kinds of parent-child interactions that are most likely to bring that result about. Of course, for greatest impact, the interactions must be appropriate to the developmental capabilities of children, and must begin at an appropriate developmental time.

My colleagues, Anna Langness, Margaret Chase Nelson, and I have developed a publication and a parenting class which uses singing as a synthesizing focus for parent-child bonding and the development of infant capabilities. The publication is titled *Heartsongs: A Guide to Active Pre-Birth and Infant Parenting Through Language and Singing*, and the class is called "In Harmony with Your Baby." The class is offered at the Perinatal Center of Children's Hospital of St. Paul, St. Paul, Minnesota.

Heartsongs is a 71-page book and a 60-minute audio cassette tape which is distributed for sale to parents throughout the United States. It presents theoretical and practical information that is based on research but worded for easy understanding. *Heartsongs* contains printed and recorded versions of fourteen short, repetitive folksongs which have an historic appeal to children. It may serve as a model for the development of similar publications in other cultures with different languages and song heritages. Similarly, the class may serve as a model for parent education experiences of various designs. To that end, this paper will present some of the theoretical bases and practical applications which are presented more fully in the publication and the class.

THEORETICAL BASES FOR THE EFFECTS OF PARENTAL SINGING

Leslie Hart, author of *Human Brain and Human Learning*, synthesized many volumes of brain research with research in such fields as information theory, psychology, computer science, and anthropology. He describes the brain as the "organ of learning," and suggests that it has two "drives:"

1. To "make sense" of the perceived "world," and
2. To achieve control over the perceived world.

Hart believes these drives are not learned, but that the nature of brains is to carry them out. They do so by:

1. *Seeking out and receiving non-threatening sensory input*, that is, observing the world through their sensory abilities, then
2. *Detecting and recognizing patterns in the sensed world* by using some of their interpretive abilities, then
3. *Selecting the most appropriate available brain program* in order to interact with the world, using their interpretive and movement abilities.

As the brain's neurons grow in size and length, as they are "insulated" through myelinization, as neuronal interconnections are multiplied into the trillions, and as the pre-frontal surfaces of the neocortex expand, then increases in a child's physical, intellectual, and self-management abilities become possible (Luria, 1973).

ERIC
Full Text Provided by ERIC

Howard Gardner, a neuro-psychologist and author of *F*[illegible]*s of Mind. The Theory of Multiple Intelligenc*[illegible]oposes six human intelligences which are related to brain areas and processes. The intelligences are:

1. Linguistic
2. Musical
3. Bodily-Kinesthetic
4. Spatial
5. Logical-Mathematical
6. Personal Intelligences
   a. Intra-personal (self-esteem, ego, etc.)
   b. Inter-personal (social sensitivity, etc.)

Everyone, including child development researchers, believe that parent-initiated interaction with babies (such as talking, touching, holding, rocking) is necessary to the healthy physical, intellectual and emotional development of children. Some people label those interactions as "infant stimulation," and some call them "early learning experiences."

What is "early learning" or "infant stimulation?" It is "sensory input" for the nervous system of an infant, that is any stimulation of one or more of the senses, i.e., auditory, visual, tactile, gustatory, olfactory, vestibular, kinesthetic, and emotional feeling. The stimulation is "processed" by the brain's pattern detection abilities, and usually results in some kind of reaction by the infant such as focusing visual attention, smiling, kicking, vocalizing, calming, sleeping, and crying. The brain's learning processes are thus stimulated into action, and stimulations that are repeated enough times will result in memory "imprints" in the brain.

Most parent-child interactive stimulations are spontaneous, i.e., what the parents do "automatically" without conscious planning. Should parent-child interactions be limited to what parents know to do spontaneously? Can basic and applied research findings indicate appropriate and beneficial parent-child interactions which parents can learn and conveniently use with conscious planning? Might some interactive stimulation of infants be detrimental to their development? If so, how can parents know how to distinguish appropriate from inappropriate stimulations?

A controversy has arisen in the United States among some child development specialists over whether or not parents can accelerate the intellectual and physical development of their children with emotional safety. At one extreme, some specialists believe that parents can develop so-called "superbabies" by using recommended stimulation techniques for future intellectual advantage. At the other extreme, some specialists strongly caution parents regarding certain special early learning experiences.

A centrist position argues that parents can learn:

a. what developmental sequences children go through in developing their physical and intellectual capabilities, and
b. how to "read" their babies' responses to interactive stimulation and use them as a guide for when to stimulate and what stimulations produce a positive emotional response.

Proponents of this position believe that babies can show observable signs of attentive involvement when an interaction with people and things is within their developmental sequencing. In other words, their brains receive sensory input that engages their attentions, contains some new patterns to detect, and stimulates an available program for response.

The centrist position asserts that parents can learn to "read" the behavioral signs that their babies display when they are ready for interaction, when they are no longer interested in an ongoing interaction, and when they are overstimulated If parents have not learned how to read these responses, they may try to keep their baby involved in an interaction which the parents find pleasant, but which continues past the capacity of their baby to sustain involvement.

According to Dr. Susan Ludington (1985), a state of "alert inactivity" means that babies are able to focus their attention for stimulating interaction. Dr Ludington suggests that parents can look for these signs:

1 head turns toward you or an object that has attracted attention
2. eyes gaze at you or an object of attention for the length of attention span (4-10 seconds at birth)
3. pupils dilate and eyes widen
4. facial expression changes, is relaxed and pleasant, perhaps a smile
5. breathing rate becomes slower and more even

6. sucking rate becomes slower
7. abdomen relaxes
8. fingers and toes fan toward you or an object of attention as if to touch

Babies need and enjoy repetition of the same appropriate interactions but only up to the point of habituation when signs of disinterest will be shown and focused attention diminishes or stops. Parents can then change interactions.

Babies are overstimulated and need a break from interaction when they:

1. cry
2. flail their arms and legs and squirm their bodies
3. splay their fingers and toes and thrust tongue or droop their head
4. open their eyes very wide and stare fixedly with either a wrinkled brow or pained expression
5. become drowsy (Ludington, 1985).

Dr. Ludington recommends a release from concentration, perhaps held close in stillness, or allowed to look at a blank ceiling or wall while recovering alert inactivity. Sensitive interaction has an effect on a baby's willingness to enjoy expanding experiences that lay the foundation for developing Gardner's human intelligences.

When do influences on those intelligences begin? When the nervous system is capable of receiving, processing, and storing sensory input. All human senses have begun "operating" at least by sometime during the third trimester of pregnancy (Chamberlain, 1983; Ludington, 1985). The feeling-connection between mother and child—sometimes called bonding—begins prenatally, is mediated hormonally, and can result in attachment to or rejection of the mother by the child (Fedor-Freybergh, 1985). At least by sometime during the third trimester of pregnancy, the brain of a child is sufficiently developed to support consciousness and self-awareness (Purpura 1974, 1975). The preceeding information surely is known to every member of the International Society for Prenatal Psychology. Most of the non-specialist, or so-called "ordinary" people of the world, would react to these statements with amazement, doubt, or disbelief.

Newborns prefer to listen to human voices over non-vocal sounds (Butterfield and Siperstein, 1974), and prefer to listen to their mother's voice more than other voices (DeCasper and Fifer, 1980). Infants use vocal sounds to communicate needs and feelings, and to interact with their parents and others. The communicative capacities of infants begin to be shaped prenatally as part of the mother-child bonding process. Fetal babies begin hearing by at least the 20th week of gestation (Eisenberg, 1969). The most frequent sound that they hear is that of the pulsations from the womb's main artery (Salk, 1973). The bloodstream which carries nourishment to a fetal baby, also carries the kaleidoscope of hormones that are the physical mediators of human emotions. When a baby experiences the hormone combinations that adults associate with particular emotions, and experience them with some critical level of frequency, emotional memory imprints are formed within the child's neuro-endocrinologic system. The mediators of prenatal positive mother-child bonding (disbonding) is epinephrene, which is released when the mother is distressed (Fedor-Freybergh, 1985). The emotional orientation of children begins to be formed *in utero.*

When mothers want their babies, love them, express those feelings to them, and provide occasions for calm relaxation, the possibility of positive emotional imprints and positive bonding is increased. When mothers reject their babies, are intensely distressed over a long course of time, the probability of negative emotional imprints and disbonding is increased.

The second most frequent sound that fetal babies hear in the womb is the sound of mother's voice. The threshold of audibility in the womb is an outside-the-womb sound of about 40 dB (a firm whisper is about 35 dB) (Bench, 1968; Henshall, 1972). When mothers experience their loving feelings toward their babies, they usually express those feelings in spoken words during private moments of special communication. The more frequent the feelings and the talking, the more an association can be built between positive emotional bonding and the sound of mother's voice. Fathers may be a part of such bonding if they also participate vocally in the special communications with enough frequency.

From before birth and throughout life, the voices of parents affect the emotional and intellectual learning of their children. The mastery of vocal coordinations for spoken language is a substantial development in the life of children. From birth to death the voices of human beings are the primary means by which we communicate our needs, wants, thoughts, and feelings with others. Our voices are, therefore, connected to the deepest, most profound sense of "who we are." Those associations between parent-child bonding and the sound of parents' voices may be the primary bases upon which a healthy self-esteem can be built for a lifetime.

Speech combined with music is the use of the voice for singing. Singing provides a level of feelingful expression which language alone cannot provide. For instance, if I said to you, "High stepping horses, high stepping horses, high stepping horses go jiggety, jiggety jog," you probably would consider the expression unnecessarily repetitive and non-sense. But if I were to sing the same words to the melody of the song "High Stepping Horses," then the repetition and non-sense would "make sense," and would have a feeling quality that the spoken words could not have. According to psychologist Abraham Maslow (1968), music can create a "peak" feeling-moment in people. In singing, we can also know that the sound which transforms that moment comes from inside our own bodies, and we can feel it happen.

Some people believe that the ability to sing is inherited. That would mean that some people will be very talented at singing, most will be average, and some will be "tone deaf" or "monotone." The research indicates that *everyone* with normal anatomy and physiology can learn to sing and feel quite good about it While there is a degree of inheritance involved in exceptional singers, many young "average" singers have eventually developed a substantial singing ability, and so-called "monotones" can learn to sing.

Speaking and singing have common behavioral roots in the brain firing patterns that produce them. The area of the right hemisphere which "fires" vocal melodies also appears to enact expressive pitch variability in speech (Bogen and Gordon, 1971; Mosidze, 1976). In most people, the left hemisphere fires nearly all of the language "programs" for speech and song. Soundmaking is a brain program with which we are born. It is genetically prescribed so that babies can indicate their survival needs such as hunger, pain, threat, and discomfort. Responsiveness to heard sounds is also a brain program that is built into us through genetic inheritance. The shaping of the sound-making and receiving programs into the very complicated brain firing patterns of speech and song are all learned. The inherited programs are used at the beginning. New programs are developed and expanded from that base in response to sensory input from the hearing, visual, and physical movement senses.

Music, especially sung music, benefits children who have been born prematurely. A music program is used at the Neo-Natal Intensive Care Unit, St. Joseph's Hospital, Marshfield, Wisconsin, USA. Music with a tempo and character which approximates the adult at-rest heartrate is played for infants with respiratory distress, and it helps them to regulate their breathing and thus their oxygen/carbon dioxide balance. Pillow speakers and battery-operated audio cassette tape recorders are used to play prepared recordings of parents' voices talking, reading, and singing. Behavioral differences between children whose parents have agreed to the music program and the children of parents who have not agreed is continually noted by the Unit's medical and nursing staff (Huber, 1986).

Talking and singing can develop together if they are experienced frequently and as interchangeable ways to use voice to communicate. Along with the formation of vowels and consonants, the vocal exploration of children during the cooing and babbling stages includes variations of vocal quality, pitch range, and loudness. The hearing, imitation, and "practice" of all those elements of speech by babies are the foundation for the development of singing ability later on. In fact, the pitch matching capability of 3-6 month-old infants is quite remarkable (Kessen, (1979). The stages of song development, therefore, can be thought of as expansions of language and voice skills.

A FEW PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF PARENTAL SINGING IN EARLY LEARNING

My lifelong commitment and that of my colleagues, has been to vocal—singing. When preparing *Heartsongs* and the class, we read many books and research reports on child development and learning, and interviewed some of the authors. As we then considered our experiences with the expressive power of vocal music and its effects on children, we gradually became aware of just how much singing can interconnect with and mobilize all of our human senses, feelings, and intelligences.

If parents choose to interact with their babies through singing, they may need to develop or expand their repertoire of appropriate songs. Children are aided more extensively by short, repetitive songs, than by the lengthier, more complex adult songs. Ideally, songs need to be so familiar to the parents that they can sing them spontaneously, without conscious planning. Then the songs can be woven into the fabric of everyday activities such as waking, dressing, eating, playing, calming, bathing, and sleeping Words can be created which describe immediate activities, and which reinforce a positive emotional bond while aiding in the stimulation of the intelligences.

Pre and postnatal singing, integrated with daily activities, can stimulate the growth and retention of nerve cell interconnections (Ludington, 1985). Singing can be excellent preparation for parents before birth. Odent (1984) suggests that

> ...singing provides a simple way for women to exercise their diaphragm muscles and learn to concentrate on breathing out, which can help them relax during labor. Singing also encourages women to feel comfortable, unself-conscious and expansive—able to experience and release the whole range of emotions. (pp. 27, 28)

Because of the hormonal feeling-connection between pregnant mother and baby, parents can communicate wantedness and security to their baby before birth. Bowen (1985) lists specific ways for parents to interact with their babies while still in the womb. Clarke (1978) suggests that "affirmations for being" and "positive strokes" can be offered to babies in order to create and deepen a feeling-bond and a healthy sense of self-esteem in a child. Parental singing can be used as a vehicle for the delivery of affirmations for being and positive strokes before and following birth. Positive feelings of physical mastery, along with the capacity of music to stimulate, express and communicate an array of feelings, contributes to the development of the intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences.

The linguistic and musical intelligences are intertwined. Hearing speech sounds is necessary before production of speech is possible. The hearing begins sometime between the 16th to 20th weeks of gestation, because by the 20th week, a baby's ears are comparable structurally to those of adults. In fact, a baby's responsiveness to speech during pregnancy is so sensitive, that as a newborn, the baby will move subtly and intricately to the rhythm patterns of adult speech (Condon & Sandor, 1974).

Following birth, parents can use imitative voiceplay to stimulate vocalization. Sound-making conversations between parents and child can take place during the cooing and babbling stages of language development. There are techniques for advancing the onset and development of the vocal skills (language and singing) which parents can use in daily activities (Durrell, 1984; Ludington, 1985; Thurman & Langness, 1986).

The bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, and logical-mathematical intelligences can be stimulated through musical experience. The tactile, vestibular, and kinesthetic senses are stimulated when mother sings and sways or dances to music, while baby is in the womb or being held by mother or father. The auditory and visual-spatial senses are stimulated when a parent sings from appropriate locations and distances from baby, and while moving slowly from place to place. The developing recognition of object permanence can be enhanced in a musical game of peek-a-boo with a parent or a favorite object.

CONCLUSION

A friend of mine once started a community chorus of people who felt that they could not sing—did not have "good" voices. As part of her doctoral dissertation, she interviewed the members. An 86-year-old man told her:

> As a child, I loved to sing. I sang all the time. One day the music teacher at school had us all sing for her by ourselves, and she divided

us into two groups—the bluebirds and the crows. I was a crow. Well, I grew up on a farm, and I knew what crows sounded like. I haven't sung since. But I guess that before I die, I want to learn how to sing.

We are interested in re-creating a singing society in the United States, where unself-conscious, full-voiced singing is as common and ordinary as talking, and where that possibility begins very early in life.

Who knows what the results of that may be? Perhaps happier, more sensitive and expressive people? Perhaps there will be no more "crows" —only full-voiced, sweet-singing "bluebirds."

REFERENCES

Bench, R.J., & Anderson, J H (1968) Sound Transmission to the Human Fetus Through the Maternal Abdominal Wall." *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, ***113***, 85-87.

Bogen, J.E., & Gordon, G.M (1971) Musical Tests for Functional Lateralization with Intracarotid Amobarbital. *Nature*, ***230***, 524-525.

Bowen, E.M. (1985). *Pre-Birth Bonding*. San Diego, California Heartstart Lovestart Publications

Butterfield, E.C., & Siperstein, G.N. (1974). Influence of Contingent Auditory Stimulation upon Non-Nutritional Suckle. In *Proceedings of the Third Symposium on Oral Sensation an Perception. The Mouth of the Infant.* Springfield, Illinois Charles C Thomas, Co.

Chamberlain, D.B. (1983). *Consciousness at Birth: A Review of the Empirical Evidence*. San Diego, California Chamberlain Publications

Clark, J.I. (1978). *Self-Esteem: A Family Affair* Minneapolis, Minnesota. Winston Press

Condon, W.S , & Sandor, L.W (1974) Neonate Movement Is Synchronized with Adult Speech Interactional Participation and Language Acquisition *Science*, ***183***, 99-101

DeCasper, A., & Fifer, W. (1980). Of Human Bonding Newborns Prefer Their Mother's Voices *Science*, ***208***, 1174-1176.

Durrell, D (1984) *The Critical Years* Oakland, California. New Harbinger Publications.

Eisenberg, R.B. (1969). Auditory Behavior in the Human Neonate: Functional Properties of Sound and Their Ontogenic Implications. *International Audiology*, ***8***, 34-45.

Fedor-Freybergh, P (1985). *The Biochemistry of Bonding*. Paper presented at the Second International Congress of the Pre and Perinatal Psychology Association of North America, San Diego, California.

Gardner, H (1983). *Frames of Mind The Theory of Multiple Intelligences.* New York Basic Books, Inc.

Hart, L. (1983) *Human Brain and Human Learning.* New York: Longman, Inc.

Henshall, W.R. (1972). Intrauterine Sound Levels. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, ***122*** (4), 576-578.

Huber, J , et al (1986). *You Make Me What I Am...Talk to Me.* Paper and Videotape presented at the First Conference of the Infant Stimulation Education association, Los Angeles, California.

Kessen, W., et al. (1979). The Imitation of Pitch in Infants. *Infant Behavior and Development*, ***2***, 93-99.

Ludington, S (1985). *How to Have a Smarter Baby*, New York. Rawson Associates.

Luria, A.R. (1973). *The Working Brain: An Introduction to Neuropsychology*. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Maslow, A (1968). *Toward a Psychology of Being.* New York: D Van Norstrand Co.

Mosidze, V M (1976) On the Lateralization of Musical Function in Man. [In Russian] In V P. Kaznacheyev, S F Semyonov, A P Chuprikov (eds.), *Functional Asymmetry and Adaptation in Man*, Moscow.

Odent M. (1984) *Birth Reborn*. New York Pantheon Books

Purpura, D (1984) Consciousness. *Behavior Today*, p. 494.

Purpura, D (1974) Neuronal Migration and Dendritic Differentiation. Normal and Aberrant Development of Human Cerebral Cortex. *Biologic and Clinic Aspects of Brain Development*, Mead-Johnson Sympoium on Perinatal and Developmental Medicine, No. 6.

Salk, L (1973). The Role of the Heartbeat in the Relations Between Mother and Infant. *Scientific American*, ***220***, 24-29

Thurman, L & Langness, A.P. (1986). *Heartsongs: A guide to Active Pre-Birth and Infant Parenting Through Language and Singing.* Englewood, Colorado Music Study Services, Inc.

Verny, T. (1981). *The Secret Life of the Unborn Child.* New York Summit Books

Author Index with Mailing Addresses

Betty Caldwell, Ph.D.
Donaghey Distinguished Professor of Education
Center for Research on Teaching and Learning
College of Education
University of Arkansas at Little Rock
33rd and University Avenue
Little Rock, Arkansas 72204

Helen L. Carlson, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Head, Department of Child and Family Development
140 Montague Hall
University of Minnesota, Duluth
Duluth, Minnesota 55812

Ajit Das, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Department of Psychology and Mental Health
347b Bohannon Hall
University of Minnesota, Duluth
Duluth, Minnesota 55812

Catherine Gallagher-Green, M.A.
Gifted Specialist
Board of Education
Duluth Public School System
Lake Avenue and Second Street
Duluth, Minnesota 55802

Susan Graves-Johnson
Coordinator of Work, Youth, and Family Programs
Duluth Technical Institute
2101 Trinity Road
Duluth, Minnesota 55811

Lee Karnowski, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Department of Early Childhood Education
University of Wisconsin, River Falls
River Falls, Wisconsin 54022

Kathleen Nelson, B.A.
Graduate Student
Department of Psychology and Mental Health
320 Bohannon Hall
University of Minnesota, Duluth
Duluth, Minnesota 55812

Glen F. Palm, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Center for Child and Family Studies
St. Cloud State University
St. Cloud, Minnesota 56301

George Redman, Ph.D.
Professor
Chair, Department of Education
Hamline University
St. Paul, Minnesota 55104

Marcelyn Smale, Ph.D. Candidate
Area Coordinator
Early Childhood Arts Exploration
McPhail Center for the Arts
1128 LaSalle Avenue
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55403

Jeane Sword, Ed.D.
Assistant Professor
Department of Child and Family Development
130 Montague Hall
University of Minnesota, Duluth
Duluth, Minnesota 55812

Leon Thurman, Ed.D.
Director of Education
The Voice Center
c/o Minnesota Head and Neck Center
701 25th Avenue South
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55454

The University of Minnesota is an equal opportunity educator and employer.